

# TREATMENT OF AQUEOUS SOLUTION OF NITRATE CONTENT BY USING NATURAL MIXTURE OF KAOLINITE-QUARTZ-BOEHMITE

## Marie Anne Etoh & Charles Melea Kede

University of Douala/Faculty of Sciences, Analytical and structural mineral chemistry laboratory, PO BOX: 24157 Douala, Cameroon

# Pierre G Tchiéta, Daniel J David Dina & S Boh-Lere

University of Douala/Faculty of Sciences, Analytical and structural mineral chemistry laboratory, PO BOX: 24157 Douala, Cameroon

## ABSTRACT

The adsorption kinetics of  $NO_3^-$  ions from aqueous solution onto clay fractionated from Nkongsamba (Cameroon) soil based on particle size ( $\leq 53 \mu$ m) has been investigated. Spectroscopic studies including FTIR, elemental analysis (EA), XRPD, and SEM were used for its characterization. Batch studies were carried out to investigate the effect of contact time and initial concentrations of  $NO_3^-$  ions on kinetics adsorption. Kinetic studies showed a rapid adsorption during the first thirty minutes. Application of pseudo first order, pseudo second order and intraparticle diffusion model equations showed that the experimental results are well expressed by pseudo second order kinetic equation. Maximum adsorption capacity, calculated from well fitted Langmuir equation, is 29.585mg/g. Verification of intra-particle diffusion model showed that intra-particle diffusion could be one of the rate determining steps but pseudo second order mechanism is predominant. Overall adsorption process appears to be controlled by more than one step.

Keywords: Adsorption; Kinetic; Equilibrium; Clays; Nitrates ions.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Nitrate is found in moderate concentrations in most of the natural waters. It occurs naturally due to the degradation of nitrogencontaining compounds from natural sources as soil, bedrock and organic materials [1]. Nitrate is also present as natural constituent of plants. Together with sulfates, nitrates are main components of acid rains [2]. However, the largest loading of nitrate originates from anthropogenic sources, which mostly result from excessive application of nitrate-based chemical fertilizers in agricultural activities [3,4] and from many industrial processes [5,6]. The other most common sources of nitrate are overflowing septic tanks [6,7 ] livestock, domestic wastes effluents, pesticides and herbicides that are used in industrial agriculture [7], the wastes of the production of explosives[1], decomposition of decaying organic matters buried in the ground [6] and the plantation of leguminosae crops which fix atmospheric nitrogen in the form of nitrate [8].

All these products can be converted to nitrate by biochemical oxidation. The nitrite ion occurs as intermediate during the



biodegradation which happens through a series of bacterial reactions collectively known as nitrification. In the nitrification process bacteria degrade nitrogen-containing compounds and release ammonia. Then, some bacteria such as Nitrosom onas oxidize the released ammonia to nitrite which is converted to nitrate by other bacteria such as Nitrobacter [10].

Nitrates are extremely soluble in water and can move easily through soil into the drinking water supply [6] and when their concentrations become excessive in water sources they cause several health and environmental problems.

Nitrate in water has low toxicity, but may be converted via micro bacteria or in vivo reduction to nitrites [2]. Nitrites transform hemoglobin into methaemoglobin by oxidation of ferrous iron (Fe<sup>2+</sup>) in hemoglobin to ferric form (Fe<sup>3+</sup>) preventing or reducing the ability of blood to transport oxygen. Such a condition is described as methaemoglobinanemia which is dangerous especially in infants (so-called "blue-baby syndrom") [11]. In addition, the reaction between nitrite and secondary or tertiary amines may result in the formation of carcinogenic, mutagenic and teratogenic N-nitrosocompounds (N-nitrosoamines) [11,12] which may cause cancer of the alimentary canal[13, 14]. In adults, high amounts of nitrate may cause abdominal pain, blood in stool and urine, weakness, mental depression, dyspepsia, headache [15], diarrhea, vomiting, diabetes, hypertension, respiratory tract infections and changes in the immune system [15]. The high concentrations of nitrate in water causes a phenomenon known as "Eutrophication", which means an excessive growth of the algae in water which consumes the oxygen gas dissolved in water causing fish death[16].

For these reasons, removal of nitrate from water is a necessity. To limit the risk to human health from nitrate in drinking water, the

World Health Organization (WHO) has set the maximum acceptable concentration of  $NO_3^{-1}$  to be 50 mg/L [17]. At high nitrate concentrations, water must be treated to meet regulated concentrations. The following treatment processes have been studied or applied to remove nitrate from drinking water: biological denitrification [6, 16], ion exchange [15], reverse osmosis [3, 4] electrodialysis [8], chemical denitrification [1], chemical reduction [7] and adsorption [15].

Clays attract attention due to the heterogeneity of their surfaces and some have been found to possess the ability to sorbs ions from solutions and release them later, when the conditions change [12]. There are about thirty different types of "pure" clays but most natural clays are mixtures of these different types, along with other weathered minerals [17]. Studies have shown that natural clay is an appropriate adsorbent for heavy metal removal due to its efficiency, low cost and availability [17]. The adsorption capacity of natural clay to remove nitrate ions in aqueous solutions is due to their high surface area and exchange capacities [16] including the presence of negative charges on the clay mineral structure which can attract positively charged metal ions [18].

# 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 2.1. Chemicals

Stock solution of nitrate was prepared by dissolving 1.631 g of KNO<sub>3</sub> of analytical reagent grade (Merck) in 1 L of double-distilled water. The test solutions were prepared by diluting stock solution to the desired concentrations. Experiments were conducted with nitrate concentrations in the ranges of 20-100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

## 2.2. Materials

The natural clays used in this study was mined from a subtropical wetland soil in Cameroon ((Littoral Region), West Africa. For this type of clay material, the cation exchange capacity (CEC) = 13.2 meq/100 g was considered. The clays were washed several times with distilled and deionized water after which they were completely dispersed in water. After 17 h at rest, the dispersed particles were centrifuged for one hour at 2400 rpm. The size r of the clay particles obtained was between 0.5 and 2 µm.

## **2.3.** Characterization of the materials

The purity of the activated natural clay samples was tested by IR spectral analysis. An IR transmittance spectrum of the ground samples was obtained in the 4000 to  $400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  range on a PerkinElmer Spectrum Two spectrometer (UK).

To confirm the purity of the activated natural clay samples, x-ray diffraction (XRD) spectra were obtained. Analysis involved the identification and semi quantification of the characteristic peaks of the minerals present. The XRD diffractograms presented in this study were recorded using a Bruker D8 Discover X-Ray diffractrometer (XRD) (UK) from Bruker (Germany) with a D5000 Ni-



filtered CuK and an  $\alpha$  radiation of 1.5406 Å. Scans of natural clay samples with both randomly and preferred orientation were taken over a range from  $2\theta = 10^{\circ}$  to  $100^{\circ}$  at scanning speeds of  $0.03^{\circ}/5$  s. The XRD patterns were collected using a Cu K $\alpha$  radiation (1, 5406 Å) source (40 keV, 40 mA). The scans were performed at room temperature in  $2\theta$  steps of  $0.02^{\circ}$ , using open sample holders. The phases were identified using Bruker Diffract Plus evaluation software, distributed by the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD).

The clay was examined with a scanning electron microscope (SEM) coupled to an X-ray (EDX) analyzer. N<sub>2</sub>-physisorption experiments (adsorption isotherms for pore size distribution (PSD) and surface area) were conducted with a Micromeritics ASAP 2010 (USA) surface area and porosity analyzer. Analyses of adsorption and desorption of nitrogen were conducted at 195 °C. Before the experiments, the sample was degassed at 200 °C overnight. Total surface areas were determined by applying the BET equation.

Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis were conducted to observe the surface morphology of the clay. The samples were gold coated to improve their conductivity to obtain good images. Elemental analysis (EA) for the carbon (C), nitrogen (N), oxygen (O), sulfur (S) and metal content of the various samples was carried out with the aid of the energy dispersive-X-ray device. The instrument used to obtain SEM images of the samples and EDS spectra was a JEOL JSM-7600F field emission scanning electron microscope, 800 mm<sup>2</sup>, X-Max coupled to a silicon drift energy dispersive X-ray detector (SDD) (Oxford Instruments Ltd, UK).

# **2.4. Equilibrium adsorption studies**

A constant mass of adsorbent (0.2 g) was weighed into 250 ml glass bottles and contacted with 50 ml of  $NO_3^-$  solutions of different initial concentration. The bottles were sealed and placed in a shaker until equilibrium was reached. Upon equilibration, samples of 4–5 ml were withdrawn from the flasks and the adsorbents were separated from the solution by centrifugation (REMI make) at 2000 rpm for 10 minutes, and analyzed to determine the residual equilibrium liquid-phase  $NO_3^-$  concentration. The sorption equilibrium data of  $NO_3^-$  on clay was analyzed using Freundlich and Langmuir isotherm models. Freundlich isotherm equation  $x/m = k_f C^{1/n}$  can be written in the linear form as given below (1).

Where x/m (mg/g) and  $C_e(mg/L)$  are the equilibrium concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the adsorbed and liquid phases. K<sub>F</sub> and n are the Freundlich constants that are related to the sorption capacity and intensity, respectively. Freundlich constants K<sub>F</sub> and n can be calculated from the slope and intercept of the linear plot, with log (x/m) versus logC<sub>e</sub>.

The Langmuir sorption isotherm equation  $\frac{x}{m} = \frac{Q_{\text{max}}K_LC_e}{1+k_LC_e}$  on linearization becomes (2):

$$\frac{C_e}{Q_e} = \frac{1}{K_L Q_{\text{max}}} + \frac{1}{Q_{\text{max}}} C_e$$
(3)

Where  $Q_{max}$  is the adsorption capacity (mg/g) when all adsorption sites are occupied,  $C_e$  is the equilibrium concentration of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and the Langmuir constant K<sub>L</sub> (L/mg) is derived from the ratio of the adsorption rate constant to the desorption rate constant.

## 2.5. Kinetic studies

Kinetic adsorption data were analyzed following pseudo-first-order kinetic model:

$$\frac{dq_t}{dt} = k_1(q_e - q_t) \tag{4}$$

Where  $q_e$  and  $q_t$  refer to the amount of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ions adsorbed (mg/g) at equilibrium and at any time, t (h), respectively, and  $k_1$  is the equilibrium rate constant of pseudo-first-order sorption (1/h). Integration of Eq. (3) for the boundary conditions t=0 to t and  $q_t$ =0 to  $q_t$ , gives



$$\log \frac{q_e}{(q_e - q_t)} = \log q_e - \frac{k_1 t}{2.303}$$
(5)

Eq. (4)can be rearranged to give (5)

$$\log(q_e - q_t) = \log q_e - \frac{k_1 t}{2.303}$$
(6)

The pseudo second-order model was well-fitted to the NO3<sup>-</sup> sorption data on the minerals. The rate equation for the second-order model can be expressed as:

$$\frac{dq_t}{dt} = k_2 (q_e - q_t)^2 \tag{7}$$

Where  $k_2$  is the equilibrium rate constant of pseudo-second-order adsorption (g/mg min). Integrating Eq. (7) for the boundary condition t=0 to t and  $q_t=0$  to  $q_t$ , gives (7):

(8)

$$\frac{1}{(q_e - q_t)} = \frac{1}{q_t} + k_2 t$$
(8)  
Which is the integrated rate law for a pseudo-second-order reaction. Eq. (7) can be rearranged to obtain

a linear form (9):

$$\left(\frac{t}{q_t}\right) = \left(\frac{t}{q_e}\right) + \left[\left(\frac{1}{k_2 \cdot q_e^2}\right)\right]$$
(10)

where,  $q_t$  and  $q_e$  (mg/g) are the amount of NO<sub>3</sub> sorbed on the mineral at time t and at equilibrium, respectively and  $k_2$  (g.mg<sup>-1</sup>.min<sup>-1</sup>) is the second-order rate constant.

## 2.6. Adsorption mechanism

In the model developed by Weber and Morris, the rate of intra-particle diffusion is a function of  $t^{1/2}$  and can be defined by Eq. (9) as follows:

$$q = f \left(\frac{D_t}{r_p^2}\right)^{1/2} = k_w t^{1/2}$$
(11)

Where  $r_p$  is particle radius,  $D_t$  is the effective diffusivity of solutes within the particle, and Kw intraparticular diffusion rate. Kw values can be obtained by linearizing the curve  $q = f(t^{1/2})$ .

# 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

## 3.1. Characterisation of clay

#### 3.1.1. XRD analysis

Table 1 shows the mineral composition of the clay used. The main constituent of the crude clay is SiO<sub>2</sub> (56.48 w.t.%), Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is the next main constituent (22.39 w.t.%) followed by notable amounts of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (7.483 w.t.%), K<sub>2</sub>O(1.671 w.t.%), TiO<sub>2</sub> (1.505 w.t.%) and MgO (1.483 w.t.%).



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#### Table 1: Chemical composition of clay material from Nkongsamba

Major																	
elements	SiO <sub>2</sub>	$Al_2O_3$	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> O	TiO <sub>2</sub>	MgO	$P_2O_5$	$ZrO_2$	CaO	$Cr_2O_3$	$V_2O_5$	MnO	SrO	$Nb_2O_5$	Rb <sub>2</sub> O	ZnO	LOI
$W_t(\%)$																	
	56.48	22.39	7.483	1.671	1.505	1.483	0.091	0.055	0.029	0.017	0.016	0.013	0.011	0.008	0.008	0.006	8.65

The X-rays powder diffractogramms of the crude clay (Fig 1) shows the presence of three clayey minerals with some impurities: (i) Kaolinite, identified by its ray at 7.22Å,3.58 Å and 2.56 Å in crude clay: (ii) Quartz recognized for its typical rays at 4.25 Å, 3.35 Å, 2.43 Å and 1.82Å (iii): Boehmite known for the displaying a dool at 6.11 Å and 2.56 Å[19,20].

The results presented in the table 2 show the mineralogical composition of the crude clay material. Whole rock comprises quartz (79.19%), kaolinite (26.86%) and boehmite (4.87%).

Table 2: mineralogical composition of clay from Nkongsamba

mineral	Formula	Y-Scale		
Quartz	SiO <sub>2</sub>	79.19		
Kaolinite	$Al_4(OH)_8(Si_4O_{10})$	26.86		
Boehmite	AlO <sub>1.06</sub> (OH) <sub>0.94</sub>	4.87		



#### Fig.1. X-ray diffraction patterns of the natural clay.



### 3.1.2. Fourier transform-infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

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The FTIR spectrum of the clay is shown in Fig 2. The frequency absorption band at 3692.3 cm<sup>-1</sup>(OH-Al out-of-plane), 3692.3, 3650.96 and 3620.23 cm<sup>-1</sup> (OH-Al in-plane), 997.80cm<sup>-1</sup> and 908.47 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicate the presence of OH-Al groups [14]. Moreover, few weak intensity peaks rises at 3363.61 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3259.21 cm<sup>-1</sup> showing non hydrogen bonded hydroxyl groups [15]. On one hand, peaks appearing between (1400 and 1500 cm<sup>-1</sup>) depicts the presence of alkyl groups (CH<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>3</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub>[15, 21]. The bands appearing at 908.47 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 639.92cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates the presence of boehmite.

The bands observed at 468.88 and 540 cm can be attributed to vibrations due to deformation of Si-O and Si-O-Al bonds, respectively [22, 23].

The bands appearing at 1025.50 and 1113.88 cm<sup>-1</sup> are ascribed to the formation of Si-O bond, characteristic of aluminosilicate [23]. The additional peak at 695.45 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates the presence of Al-OH and Si-O [24].





#### 3.1.3. Specific surface area and SEM micrographs of clay observations

The surface area of clay was determined by nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) adsorption-desorption isotherms at (77K) using an automated gas sorption system (Micromeritics, QUAN- TACHROME instrument). The specific surface area was calculated by the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method, it is equal to  $32.52 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ .

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) technique was employed to observe the surface physical morphology of clay (Fig 3).





Fig 3: SEM micrograph of clay at sizes of 100  $\mu m,$  20  $\mu m$  and 10  $\mu m$ 

The morphological aspects of the clay were determined by Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) measurements using an FEG Quanta 450 electron microscope equipped with an EDS

Bruker QUANTAX system coupled to the SEM microscope, using an acceleration voltage of 2 kV. The porosity of the surface is clearly visible. The scanning electron micrograph of the fig3 shows the typical regular shapes of the clay particles. The powder is rich in porous particles with fibrous morphology and also of angular-shaped particles of quartz, Kaolinite and Bohemite.





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Fig 4: SEM micrograph of the characteristic colors of the elemental compositions of the clay



# Fig. 5.EDS of a sample clay sample MARV4 showing abundance of certain metals (Al and Si are typically present in clay minerals of this type)

Additionally, EDS elemental spectra of a few spots on the samples were taken for determining the elemental compositions fig 5. We present here the representative images and spectra of the samples as well as the characteristic colors of the various elements represented by fig 4 found on our clay.

# 3.2 Effects of Contact Time and Initial Concentration of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>

The effect of contact time on batch adsorption of initial  $NO_3^-$  concentration ranged from 20 to 100 ppm at room temperature is shown in Fig 6. The amount of adsorption increases rapidly in the beginning and then gradually increases to reach an equilibrium value in 60 minutes. The increase in uptake capacity of the adsorbent with increasing  $NO_3^-$  concentration may be due to higher probability of



collision between  $NO_3$  ions and adsorbent particles. The variation in the extent of adsorption may also be due to the fact that initially all sites on the surface of adsorbent were vacant and the solute concentration gradient was relatively high. Consequently, the extent of  $NO_3$  uptake decreases significantly with the increase of contact time, which is depending on the decrease in the number of vacant sites on the surface. This data is important because equilibrium time is one of the parameters for economic feasibility studies for in wastewater treatment plant application [25, 26]. According to these results; the agitation time was fixed at 2h for the rest of the batch experiments to make sure that equilibrium was attained.



Fig.6. Effect of agitation time and initial concentration of  $NO_3$  on the adsorption of  $NO_3$  clay concentration, 0.2g/50 mL.)

## 3.3 Equilibria Isotherms







#### Fig 8.Freundlich isotherm for nitrate ions adsorption onto clay at room temperature

The analysis of the isotherm data is important to develop an equation which accurately represents the results and could beused for designing purposes. The sorption data was analysed in terms of Freundlich and Langmuir isotherm models. The fitted constants for Freundlich and Langmuir models along with regression coefficients are summarised in Table 3. The Freundlich and Langmuir isotherms are shown graphically in Figs. 8 and 7.As can be seen from isotherms and regression coefficients, the fit is better with Langmuir model than Freundlich model. The Langmuir constants  $Q_{max}$  and  $K_L$  were 29.585 mg/g and 0.317 for nitrate ions.

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	Q <sub>max</sub> (mg/g)	K <sub>L</sub> (L/mg)	$R^2$
Langmuir	29.585	0.317	0.975
Freundlich	$K_f(mg/g)$	Ν	$R^2$
	0.686	1.802	0.884

Table 3.Isotherm parameters for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> adsorption onto clay

# 3.4 Kinetic Studies

In order to investigate the kinetics of adsorption of  $NO_3^-$ , the Lagergren-first-order model and Ho's pseudo-second-order model [27, 28, 29] were used. The values of the parameters and the correlation coefficients obtained using linear regression by origin version 7.0 at four concentrations are listed in Table 4. Adsorption equation obtained and the fitting of the kinetic models are illustrated in Fig.9-10. It was found that the fitting to Ho's pseudo-second-order model gave the highest values of correlation coefficients more accurately than the other two models investigated. Therefore, Ho's pseudo-second-order model could be used for the prediction of the kinetics of adsorption of  $NO_3^-$  on clay.





Fig.9. Pseudo-first-orderkinetics for adsorption of NO<sub>3</sub> onto clay



Fig. 10. Pseudo-second-orderkinetics for adsorption of NO<sub>3</sub> onto clay



	Lagergr	en	2 <sup>nd</sup> order	Intraparticle diffusion		
Model	$K_1(\min^{-1})$	$R^2$	$K_{2app}(g.mg^{-1}.min^{-1})$	$\mathbb{R}^2$	K <sub>w</sub>	$\mathbb{R}^2$
20 ppm	0.052	0.922	0.261	0.999	0.406	0.858
40 ppm	0.072	0.940	0.110	0.989	0.291	0.912
60 ppm	0.097	0.972	0.066	0.997	0.134	0.969
80 ppm	0.046	0.967	0.033	0.999	0.131	0.759
100ppm	0.031	0.971	0.008	0.970	0.055	0.637

#### Table 4. Kinetic parameters for NO<sub>3</sub> adsorption onto clay

# 3.5 Adsorption Mechanism

Due to stirring there is a possibility of transport of nitrate species from the bulk into pores of the clay as well as adsorption at outer surface of the clay. The rate-limiting step may be either adsorption or intra particle diffusion. As they act in series, the slower of the two, will be the rate determining step. The possibility of nitrate species to diffuse into the particles of clay was tested with Weber-Morris equation [27].

In order to study the diffusion process, batch adsorption experiments were carried out with clay at ambient temperature with initial nitrate concentration. The results obtained are presented in the table 4 and graphically shown in the fig 11. The rate constants  $K_w$  for intraparticle diffusion for various initial concentrations of nitrate solution, for clay were determined from the slope of respective plots. It is evident from the graph that, the plots were straight lines but the y-intercept of the plots were nonzero (not passing through the origin) thus indicating that intraparticle diffusion is not the sole rate limiting factor for the adsorption of nitrate onto clay. It also indicates that the mechanism of nitrate removal on clay is complex and both surface adsorption as well as intraparticle diffusion contributes to the rate determining step [28].

The values of  $K_w$  in table 4 for clay used in this study show the increase in  $K_w$  with the increase in nitrate concentration. It can be related to concentration diffusion [29].







## 4. CONCLUSION

In this study, the removal of  $NO_3^-$  from aqueous solution by this clay, as a natural available adsorbent, was investigated. Adsorption capacity of adsorbent increased with increasing initial concentration of  $NO_3^-$ . The equilibrium uptake was increased with the increasing of the initial concentration of  $NO_3^-$  in solution. The Langmuir and Freundlich adsorption models were used to describe the equilibrium between adsorbed  $NO_3^-$  on the adsorbent (Q<sub>ads</sub>) and  $NO_3^-$  in solution (C<sub>e</sub>) at room temperature. The equilibrium data were best described by the Langmuir isotherm model. The results show that the natural clay is an excellent adsorbent for the used  $NO_3^-$ . Finally, this local clay can be used as an effective natural adsorbent for the economic treatment of water.

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