

## Wastewater Remediation via Modified Activated Carbon: A Review

Hasan, M. B.\* and Hammood, Z. A.

Environmental Engineering Department, Faculty of Engineering, Mustansiriyah University Baghdad 10047, Iraq

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**ABSTRACT:** The magnetic derivative of Activated Carbon (AC) is a promising new technique to isolate and recover consumed adsorbent. In this light, the current research seeks to summarise the magnetisation route of AC and its applications, while identifying both benefits and drawbacks of different synthetic routes. Several methods, such as chemical co-precipitation, hydrothermal, impregnation, ball milling, and one-step synthetic routes, have been studied by previous researchers. Among these methods, chemical co-precipitation is simple, extensively adapted for Magnetic Activated Carbon (MAC) syntheses. In general, the magnetic derivatives of AC show a reduction in the surface area and pore volume, due to introduction of magnetic nanoparticles. Magnetisation enhances contaminants' adsorption, despite the reduction in surface area. It allows elimination of contaminants, barely treated by pristine AC due to the introduction of magnetic materials. Developments in synthetic procedures could overcome the destructive influence of acidity on MAC, providing a shield against it. MAC has been used in several applications, including organic and inorganic contaminant removal. Medically, MAC is used to lead drugs to a specific organ and, thus, reduce damages to non-affected organs. It can be said that the preparation method did not obstruct MAC application for specific contaminant adsorption. MAC regeneration has been reported for several sorption cycles, making the process sustainable and cost-effective. Future work could further develop the synthetic route and enhance the characteristics of the produced composite. It also may consider the influence of iron on the treated water, depending on its proposed usage.

**Keywords:** Adsorption, Sorbent, Synthesised, magnetisation, Magnetic activated carbon.

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### INTRODUCTION

Recently, remediation of industrial effluents and polluted sites have emerged as one of the greatest environmental challenges (Oliveira et al., 2002). Growing concern about protection of environmental quality and human lives has led to innovation and development of various water and wastewater remediation methods (Chowdhury et al., 2004), with many

techniques being used for wastewater treatment via advanced oxidation (Hasan, 2017), chemical precipitation, ion exchange and filtration (Dickhout et al., 2017), coagulation, and filtration (Karbassi and Pazoki, 2015). Nevertheless, they are quite expensive and require secondary treatment. Adsorption as a remediation method is more favourable than conventional methods for removal of pollutants, otherwise impossible to be removed via conventional techniques (Tran et al., 2017).

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\* Corresponding Author Email: [manar@uomustansiriyah.edu.iq](mailto:manar@uomustansiriyah.edu.iq)

Adsorption has evolved as the main defence line for remediation of organic and inorganic contaminants, with AC being the most widely used adsorbent (Lin & Juang, 2009). Due to its large surface area, surface chemistry, and porous structure, AC has shown excellent efficiency for contaminants' removal in the liquid phase (Tseng et al., 2003). To become a sustainable process and to reduce the preparation costs of AC, waste materials like walnut shells (Hatami and Faghihian, 2015), pine cones (Mokhtari & Faghihian, 2015), palms (Younas et al., 2016), almond wastes (Thitame & Shukla, 2016), pomegranate peels (Senthilkumar et al., 2017), orange peels (Hai, 2017), and leaves (Zolgharnein et al., 2016) have been used in order to prepare AC.

In addition, diverse chemical treatments like acid and base can be considered capable of increasing pore volume, adsorption selectivity, and functional groups (Yin et al., 2007). Agricultural waste-based AC have been treated by HCl, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (Gomez-Tamayo et al., 2008; Abd El-Latif et al., 2010a; Kuppireddy et al., 2014; Tezcan Un et al., 2015), as well as ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (Tezcan Un et al., 2015) and NaOH (Abd El-Latif et al., 2010b). Granular and powdered AC can be used for contaminants' adsorption with the latter having greater adsorption kinetics than the former. However, recovery of powdered AC from the liquid phase is a challenging process (Ahn et al., 2005). What is more, preparation and reactivation costs of AC are relatively high (Minceva et al., 2007; Tseng et al., 2003). Thus, an increasing amount of research is being directed to the recovery of powdered AC from aqueous environment.

A promising new technology is the magnetisation of AC, which allows easy recovery from an aqueous solution (Oliveira et al., 2004; Mehta et al., 2015; Theydan and Ahmed, 2012). It has been first developed to overcome difficulties associated with the filtration of

nonmagnetic adsorbents. The recovery of MAC from the aqueous environment can be simply applied using magnetic rods, external magnetic fields, and electromagnets (Oliveira et al., 2002) with the magnetization process involving the incorporation of nano- or micro-magnetic particles into the porous structure of AC on its surface. These magnetic particles include magnetite, maghemite, metallic iron, and different forms of ferrites. The magnetization process includes coating adsorbent surface with CoFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles (Reddy and Lee, 2014), Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Baig et al., 2014), and  $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Wang et al., 2015), and can be chemically achieved to introduce magnetic nano or micro particles to the surface of the adsorbents, so the adsorbents can be easily recovered from contaminated water, carrying away undesired contaminants (Arcibar-Orozco et al., 2012; Cho et al., 2017b; Cho et al., 2017c). Magnetic biosorbents include magnetic *saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Patzak et al., 1997), magnetic sugarcane bagasse (Yamamura et al., 2011), magnetically-modified spent coffee grounds (Safarik et al., 2012), and slow pyrolysis magnetic biochar (Zhang et al., 2013).

Mubarak et al. (2013) conducted a comparative study to assess magnetic biochar and carbon nanotubes for Zn<sup>2+</sup> elimination. The adsorption capacities were 1.18 and 1.05 mg/g for magnetic biochar and carbon nanotubes, respectively. Mohan et al. (2014) synthesized a magnetic oak bark (MOBBC) as well as a magnetic oak wood (MOWBC) for Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Cd<sup>2+</sup> elimination. The magnetization process was conducted in an aqueous solution of ferric and ferrous salts, followed by addition of NaOH to precipitate iron oxide. They found that MOBBC and MOWBC were much better than the nonmagnetic biochar in removal of Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Cd<sup>2+</sup> from aqueous solutions. Reguyal et al. (2016) synthesized a magnetic composite, known as MPSB, using pine sawdust biochar for

sulfamethoxazole (SMX) elimination. The spent MPSB could be easily reactivated using non-polar solvents. Reguyal et al. (2016) observed a great saturation magnetisation of 47.8 A.m<sup>2</sup>/kg. Due to their separation characteristics along with tiny size, magnetic particles have different interesting applications, e.g. in medicine, environment, biosciences, etc. (Safarik & Safarikova, 2009). Several procedures for modification of AC into its magnetic form have been reported in scientific literature. The core objective of this study has been to review the most widely used techniques for the magnetization of AC and identify the advantages and disadvantages of synthetic routes, while identifying any environmental and medical applications.

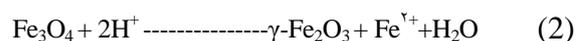
### **Preparation Techniques of MAC**

MAC can be synthesised, using a variety of methods, the most widely-used of which include chemical co-precipitation, hydrothermal, impregnation, one-step, and ball milling.

### **Chemical co-precipitation**

This technique has been extensively used by previous researchers, and is usually conducted in an alkaline solution via the precipitation of ferric and ferrous salts at the presence of AC. This is usually followed by heating the prepared solution to precipitate iron oxides into the pores of AC. Maghemite ( $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) and magnetite (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) are usually formed by this technique. The latter is formed as shown in equation (1). At a pH rate, ranging between 8 and 14, it is quite expected of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to be created in a non-oxidizing setting, wherein the ratio of Fe<sup>3+</sup> to Fe<sup>2+</sup> is equal to 2:1 (Jolivet et al., 2004). Due to the sensitivity and instability of magnetite at the presence of O<sub>2</sub>, it is likely to get converted into maghemite ( $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>). Equation (2) shows that the creation of  $\gamma$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> may be related to ion or electron transfer, affected by pH level. Several factors can be modified to control MAC characteristics. Jolivet et al.

(2004) studied the impact of temperature, ionic strength, salt nature (i.e., nitrate, chlorides, and sulfates), pH, and iron salts ratio. They found that these factors had a great influence on magnetic particles in terms of shape, composition, and size.



Size control of nanoparticles during the formation of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is affected by the addition of polymer surface complexing agents such as polyvinyl alcohol, dextran, carboxydextran, or chelating organic anions, such as carboxylate ions including citric, gluconic, or oleic acid (Laurent et al., 2008). Babes et al. (1999) studied the impact of Fe<sup>2+</sup>/Fe<sup>3+</sup> ratio, temperature, and oxygen on the size and magnetic characteristics of the composite in the chemical co-precipitation process, finding that by increasing Fe<sup>2+</sup>/Fe<sup>3+</sup> ratio, one could maximize the average particle size, though this would reduce the produced quantity. The average particle size is also highly correlated to ionic strength and the acidity of the environment, both of which influence the electrostatic surface charge of the particles; consequently, high ionic strength and pH level reduce particle size (Tartaj et al., 2006). Great quantities of the iron particles can be produced via this method, but only limited control over particle size dispersal is obtained due to its correlation to kinetic factors (Laurent et al., 2008). According to Sun & Zeng (2002), higher reaction temperature can reduce the creation yield of magnetic particles.

Yang et al. (2008) produced a magnetic-based Rice Husk RHC. Hydrophilic properties were acquired after modification with HNO<sub>3</sub>. It was then suspended in a solution of Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>, followed by heating for 3 hr at 750 °C. Consequently, Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> precipitated into the pores of AC. The authors found that surface hydrophilic properties enhanced the formation of

Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Yang et al. (2008) attained a mean pore size of 3.1 nm, saturation magnetisation of 2.78 emu/g, and surface area of 770 m<sup>2</sup>/g.

Zhang et al. (2007) studied the influence of different ratios of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to AC in the preparation of a magnetic composite. The AC was suspended in a solution of FeCl<sub>3</sub> and CuCl<sub>2</sub>, followed by dropwise addition of NaOH to precipitate iron oxide in the pores of AC. The thermal treatment was then conducted for 2 hr at about 98-100 °C. The magnetisation saturation sharply declined for smaller CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> content, showing smaller reduction in the surface area and pore volume, though it was less than the anticipated value and would not block AC pores. Nakahira et al. (2007) studied the influence of air and H<sub>2</sub> treatment on the produced composite. A suspension of charcoal in a solution of ferric and ferrous sulfate was prepared, followed by the addition of NaOH to raise the pH value. The magnetic adsorbent was thermally treated for 2 hr at 473 K in air or H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. They observed a similar microstructure for both composites.

Castro et al. (2009) and Oliveira et al. (2002) prepared a suspension of AC in a solution of FeCl<sub>3</sub> and FeSO<sub>4</sub> to manufacture a sorbent of AC/iron oxide, followed by dropwise addition of NaOH to the suspension to precipitate iron oxide, and drying for 3 hours at 100°C. They observed the presence of a cubic iron oxide phase. The core magnetic phase formed in their studies was maghemite with lesser quantities of magnetite, goethite, and hematite. Castro et al. (2009) found that increasing the ratio of AC to iron oxide increased the crystallinity of the sorbent. The magnetic composite was highly sensitive to low pH levels, below 3, and was likely to result in complete dissolution of the product (Oliveria et al., 2002). The magnetisation of the sorbent can be developed by reducing Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> oxides (Oliveria et al., 2002).

Further development in synthesis procedures involve the stabilisation of magnetic particles. Oh et al. (2015) stabilised magnetic particles, produced via a chemical co-precipitation method, by a calcination step. They achieved a magnetic composite of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/AC (MACC) through a chemical co-precipitation calcination process. The desired quantities of Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub> were dissolved in deionized water with different ratios of AC added to the previous mixture (CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) and mixed for 1 hour. Afterwards, the pH level was adjusted between 10 and 11, followed by getting heated for 4 hours at 95-100 °C. Finally, the product was calcined in an oven at 300 °C for 1 hour to stabilise the impregnated CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

The researchers found that the surface area and total pore volume were negatively affected by reducing the weight ratio of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> to AC due to the deposition of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> on the large pore size. They also found that an additional calcination stage increases the magnetism value. Zainol et al. (2017) employed co-precipitation method to prepare a magnetic composite of oil palm frond-magnetic particles (OPF-MP) as well as oil palm frond activated carbon-magnetic particles (OPFAC-MP) for Pb<sup>2+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, and Cu<sup>2+</sup>. The OPFAC-MP was characterized by amorphous structure, great surface area of 700 m<sup>2</sup>/g, and magnetic properties of 2.76 emu/g. The adsorption capacity of OPFAC-MP was about 15 mg/g, greater than that of OPF-MP. The adsorption capacity of the pristine material was compared to that of the magnetic composite to evaluate the impact of magnetic particles. Zainol et al. (2017) highlighted the role of magnetic particles in enhancing metal ion's elimination, compared to their parent materials. Saroyan et al. (2017) synthesised MAC through iron precipitation on AC, using NaOH as a precipitation agent, followed by heating it to 60°C under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. They observed a reduction in the surface

area of the composite. Despite the simplicity of this method, one can notice a reduction in the surface area or pore blocking, which affects the adsorption process (Oliveira et al., 2002).

### **Hydrothermal Synthesis**

Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles can be fabricated via a hydrothermal reaction which usually occurs under both high pressure and temperature in an autoclave or a reactor. Hydrothermal reaction can produce ferrites via either hydrolysis or neutralization of metals hydroxide (Laurent et al., 2008). The final product is highly affected by reaction conditions, such as time, the solvent, and temperature (Laurent et al., 2008). Researchers noticed that longer reaction times increased the magnetic particle size. Furthermore, the precipitation of larger particles was positively related to water content, with magnetisation properties of MAC being strongly related to the shape and size control of the nanoparticles. It was proposed that the formation of well-crystallised Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> particles depended on hydrothermal conditions, capable of intensifying the saturation magnetisation of iron particles. The hydrothermal technique is highly effective for creating magnetic crystals.

Wu et al. (2006) synthesised bamboo charcoal/Ni<sub>0.5</sub>Zn<sub>0.5</sub>Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and Ni<sub>0.5</sub>Zn<sub>0.5</sub>Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composites. A suspension of bamboo charcoal was prepared in a solution of Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> and Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, followed by getting heated for 2 hours at 180 °C. They observed a spherical polydispersed particle for Ni<sub>0.5</sub>Zn<sub>0.5</sub>Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite with a diameter of 8 to 15 nm. Similar polydispersion was observed for bamboo charcoal/Ni<sub>0.5</sub>Zn<sub>0.5</sub>Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Xuan et al. (2007) mixed glucose, FeCl<sub>3</sub>, and urea in 40 ml of water for 10 minutes. The mixture was then autoclaved at 180 °C for 14 hours to produce a composite carbon-encapsulated Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> core/shell. Wang et al. (2011a) synthesised a magnetic sorbent by

hydrothermal route with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In their study, ferrocene acted as the precursor. Zhang & Kong (2011) prepared Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>/C nanospheres coated with AC via a hydrothermal route. In this method, sodium acetate anhydrous was added to a solution of ethylene glycol and FeCl<sub>3</sub> and reacted vigorously, creating a transparent solution. The blend was autoclaved at 200 °C for 8 to 16 hours. This technique was also modified by incorporating ethylene glycol into the system (Zheng et al., 2012).

Wu et al. (2014) employed a hydrothermal process to synthesise magnetic nanoparticles of iron (NPs). In their study, the precursor was produced directly via precipitation, and the crystallisation of iron was accomplished during glucose dehydration. Glucose was added to a solution of FeCl<sub>2</sub> and FeCl<sub>3</sub> with a mole ratio of 1 to 1.5 at pH = 12. The mixture was stirred for half an hour and sonicated for 5 minutes followed by 6 hours of heat treatment at 160 °C. The produced sorbent was used to adsorb methylene blue (MB). Glucose showed a significant influence on controlling particle size and the morphology of the composite. Zhu et al. (2014) fabricated magnetic porous composite (MPC) from the hydrochar material. Hydrochar was occupied in a solution of FeCl<sub>3</sub>. After 12 hours, it got separated and dried for 2 hours at 353 K. This was followed by perolization for 1 hour at 973 °C under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. The produced material was washed and sieved in order to attain a particle size less than 0.15 mm. Qu et al. (2015) optimised the hydrothermal reaction, using sodium borate as a catalyst, and achieved a higher composite porosity. Thus, this method was robust, showing some development in size control and morphology of the produced nanoparticles to form the required structure.

### **Impregnation**

This technique is based on thermal treatment of AC, impregnated with nickel or iron salts. Numerous factors affect

composite properties, including temperature, magnetic modifiers, and salts. Thermal treatment is crucial for particle size control, achieving great levels of monodispersity of magnetic particles (Laurent et al., 2008). Gorria et al. (2006) conducted a versatile technique to synthesise magnetic carbon. Due to its low coercivity (0.1 kOe), the composite can be separated easily within an external magnetic field. In this study, nanoparticles of nickel (around 8-15nm) were used to introduce the magnetic properties of the composite. The magnetic properties were introduced to the pores of AC via thermal treatment at 600 °C for 3 hr in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. This composite was categorised by large surface area and protection against acidity due to the introduction of Ni magnetic particles.

Paul et al. (2004) revealed that using polyethylene glycol (PEG) in iron oxide production could raise its dispersion and biocompatibility. Thus, advanced production of magnetic composite involves the use of polyols, contributing to iron oxide stabilisation. High temperature treatment causes better degradation of polyols (Laurent et al., 2008). Polyols can be included in the fabrication line via in situ or post-synthesis coating (Laurent et al., 2008). Non-aggregate magnetic composite can be synthesised through coating iron oxide with PEG, dextran, chitosan, carboxydextran, etc. (Laurent et al., 2008).

Ao et al. (2008) synthesised magnetic adsorbent. The pores of AC were filled with iron nitrate in a solution of ethanol, later to be impregnated with PEG so that Fe(III) could be reduced to Fe(II), crucial for the creation of iron oxide ferrites. Later it received 2 hours of heat treatment at 350 or 450 °C, under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. They found a sharp reduction in the surface area and pore volume of the AC as a result of magnetic particles' generation. This reduction was positively correlated with the quantity of iron oxide. Okamoto et al.

(2011) impregnated coconut shell-based AC with an aqueous solution of ferric nitrate in a vacuum, followed by 1 hour of treatment at 800 °C in an N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. Afterwards, a second thermal treatment was conducted for 1.5 hours at 850 °C in CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. They found that increasing the treatment time of CO<sub>2</sub> treatment maximised the composite magnetisation to reach 17.6 emu/g. In addition, magnetic particles were created uniformly in AC pores.

Saroyan et al. (2017) synthesised MAC by adding Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> into a sonicated dispersion of AC in distilled water. In this study, they found that the impregnation method resulted in a superior-magnetic composite, in comparison to a magnetic composite, prepared by a co-precipitation method. They acquired a saturation magnetisation of 18 emu/g, and the magnetic modification reduced the removal ability. Thus, researchers observed control over magnetic particle dispersity alongside a reduction in surface area via this technique.

### **One-step Synthetic**

Yang et al. (2010) studied the influence of diverse quantities of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the production of a magnetic composite from Datong bituminous coal. They noticed that the creation of mesopores in the composite was highly affected by the presence of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in raw materials. They found greater magnetism and higher magneto conductivity when using a suitable quantity of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the raw material. Specifically, 10% of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in the raw material was appropriate to obtain 76% of mesopore volumes. Zhang et al. (2011) synthesised a magnetic composite, using coal-based AC at presence of Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>. Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> additive plays a vital rule in the development of meso and macro pores of AC due to the acceleration of AC combustion. The surface area, pore volume, coercivity, and saturation magnetisation were 1074 m<sup>2</sup>/g, 0.5792 cm<sup>3</sup>/g, 43.26 Oe, and 1.6749 emu/g,

respectively. This low coercivity allowed easy magnetic separation of the composite. Zhang et al. (2015) studied the influence of activation temperature and time on the composite. They found that the activation temperature had the greatest influence on Fe<sub>3</sub>C formation. Pore development within the composite was positively related to the activation temperature and time.

Guo et al. (2017) synthesised magnetic nanoparticles, modified with L-arginine (MNPs-L), by adding L-arginine to a mixture of FeSO<sub>4</sub> and Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, followed by heating at 413 °C. Magnetisation saturation was 26.98 emu/g due to L-arginine modification; however, one could not achieve magnetic separation; in other words, different modifiers can significantly affect the characteristics of the produced magnetic composite. Wang (2017) investigated the influence of different activation temperatures on the synthesis of MAC, using AC-based pomelo peels. AC was impregnated with HCL for 12 hours and activated afterwards at different temperatures for 1 hour. The composites were denoted based on the activation temperature as MAC-573, MAC-773, and MAC-973.

Wang (2017) observed that highest surface area (760 m<sup>2</sup>/g) and lowest pore size (5.4 nm) were obtained at the highest activation temperature of 973 K, proving that this technique makes it possible to produce MAC with greater magnetism and higher magneto conductivity.

### **Ball Mill**

In contrast to other methods, milling exploits mechanical energy to stimulate chemical reactions and can be regarded as an environmentally-friendly procedure (Fernández-Bertran, 1999). This method can efficiently produce ultrafine magnetic powders (Lemine et al., 2014), involving mixing powders of iron and AC, followed by a high-temperature treatment in a ball mill. Wang et al. (2011b) manufactured submicron-sized (0.72 µm) AC by ball

milling, presenting a higher removal of bisphenol in comparison with conventional AC. Ramanujan et al. (2007) investigated the impact of AC concentration and milling time on the produced magnetic adsorbent by a ball-milling technique. They found that the magnetic properties were highly affected by milling time and the mixing ratio of AC and iron. The milling process reduced the mean particle size, narrowing down particle distribution. The greater carbon ratio demonstrated higher adsorption characteristics and the magnetic features were almost constant during milling. They concluded that the composite with the higher AC ratio was proper for Magnetically Targeted Carrier (MTC) applications due to its better properties.

Shan et al. (2016) obtained a magnetic biochar and AC including biochar/Fe, biochar/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, biochar/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, AC/Fe, AC/Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and AC/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> by ball milling in a planetary ball (diameter = 5.60 mm). The biochar and iron were first mixed and added to vials. The ball mill apparatus was then operated for 6 hours at 550 rpm with the optimum milling time ranging between 1 and 7 hours for composite preparation. The produced sorbents turned out to be great at eliminating carbamazepine (CBZ), effortlessly separated by applying an external magnetic field. They noticed dramatic increments in the surface area and pore volume of the biochar/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> in comparison to the control, which may be related to the milling of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> into the biochar and the creation of new pores.

A remarkable reduction in particle size was observed, unlike AC/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, wherein a great reduction in the pore volume and surface area was noticed due to pore blockage of AC by Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, reducing the adsorption ability.

In summary, chemical co-precipitation, hydrothermal, impregnation, one-step, and ball-milling methods could be used to synthesise MAC, the synthetic route of which depends on several factors that can

significantly affect the properties of the synthesised MAC. These synthetic procedures could efficiently produce MAC that can be easily separated from an aqueous medium; however, MAC production is compliant with a reduction in the adsorption capacity of the composite due to a reduction in surface area and pore volume, occupied by magnetic nanoparticles. So far, researchers have not provided a clear estimation of the synthesised quantities. The production yield has not been large enough to be consumed commercially or employed in a large-scale application. Limited research has been conducted to compare different synthetic methods, making it quite inappropriate to clearly identify the best preparation method.

However, good magnetic composite was achieved with large surface area and high adsorption capacity. Thanks to its simplicity, the chemical co-precipitation method is the most widely-used approach, while hydrothermal and one-step synthetic procedures allow good control over magnetic particle size, and one-step synthetic methods maintain a great surface area and pore volume for magnetic derivatives of AC, as well as good magnetic properties. Mohan et al. (2014) highlighted the lack of cost studies in the literature, also highlighting the difficulties of comparing different adsorption aptitudes due to the inconsistency of data in the scientific literature.

#### **The Environmental Application of MAC**

AC has been widely used for contaminant elimination. Recently, the magnetic derivative of AC has been considered a promising remediation technique. The magnetisation of the adsorbent allows easy separation by an external magnetic field. In comparison with other treatment techniques like flocculation, it produces no contaminants and can remediate a large quantity of wastewater within a short period of time. Magnetic adsorbents have been employed for dye and heavy metal

removal as well as biomedical organic and inorganic contaminant remediation.

Thangamani et al. (2017) synthesized a magnetic composite of Goat Dung Activated Carbon-Cobalt Ferrite Magnetic Composite (GDAC-CFMC) for Reactive Red 152 (RR152) and Direct Brown 2 (DB2) elimination from aqueous solutions. They found that anionic dye can be effectively removed, using GDAC-CFMC as an adsorbent. Table 1 gives a brief summary of the literature on organic contaminant removal, while Table 2 presents heavy metal removal of magnetically-characterised sorbents. The use of MAC is considered a sustainable remediation technique due to the reusability of the spent adsorbent. Moreover, regeneration or reactivation can be conducted to restore the adsorbed material and reactivate the spent adsorbent. The reactivated MAC can be used several times, making the process eco-friendly and economic. Magnetisation of AC reduces both the remediation time and the cost of wastewater remediation.

The magnetisation process allows the contaminants, barely treated by pristine AC, get eliminated, which is due to the introduction of magnetic materials, such as germanium extraction combined with arsenic contamination. Xiong et al. (2015) suggested that the conversion of  $As^{3+}$  to  $As^{5+}$ , followed by adsorption process could tackle this issue. In this study, AC was carbonised and activated with KOH, to be doped with manganese dioxide and iron hydroxide. A great adsorption capacity was achieved by the magnetic derivative of AC, which was about 75.82 mg/g. Arsenic removal was proposed due to the chelation of the contaminant with the adsorbent surface or electrostatic interaction between hydroxyl/carboxylic groups on  $As^{5+}$  and AC. It was also found that the existence of germanium had no influence on the adsorption process of As. Thus, arsenic removal, by means of magnetically-modified AC, is a promising technique.

**Table 1. Summary of organic matter removal by means of MAC**

Composite	Contaminants	Remediation efficiency	References
Magnetic composite of CuFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /AC	Acid orange II	Adsorption aptitude declined from 199 to 109 mg/g after five regeneration cycles.	Zhang et al. (2007)
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /AC-based rice husk	MB	Removal capability of 321 mg/g of the contaminant was achieved	Yang et al. (2008)
Magnetic composite of alginate beads and AC denoted as (AC-MAB)	Methyl orange and MB	About 50% of MB and methyl orange were adsorbed after 10 min and 17 min, respectively. The pH level had a moderate influence on dye adsorption.	Rocher et al. (2008)
AC/CoFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Malachite green dye	An adsorption capacity of about 89.29 mg/g was obtained. Three regeneration cycles by alcoholic solution were conducted. Desorption capacity reduced with each cycle and the composite retained high magnetic sensitivity	Ai et al. (2010)
Developed magnetic composite of Fe <sub>2</sub> MnO <sub>4</sub> /AC-H	Methyl orange	In 2 hours, complete degradation and 59% of total organic carbon elimination of contaminant was accomplished.	Nguyen et al. (2011)
Synthesised AC/Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Methyl orange	The highest adsorption capacity was 242 mg/g. After five regeneration cycles with H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> the composite retained good adsorption ability	Do et al. (2011)
Synthesised non-magnetic and magnetic sorbent of AC-based almond shells	2,4,6-trinitrophenol (TNP)	The adsorption capability highly depended on pH values. Methanol and hot water successfully desorbed 97% of TNP	Mohan et al. (2011)
Synthesised magnetic sorbent	4-octylphenol and 4-n-nonylphenol	Adsorption capacity was about 95%	Borghi & Fabbri (2014)
MAC	Dye	Maximum adsorption ability was 445.294 mg/g. Greater adsorption occurred at pH = 10. Thermal regeneration at 200 °C effectively reactivate the spent composite with greater adsorption capability.	Saroyan et al. (2017)
Composite mixture of adsorption features of Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> , AC, and sodium alginate, denoted as MSA-AC	MB	Highest adsorption was 222.3 mg/g. The adsorption capacity declined as dye concentration increased.	Li et al. (2017)
Acorn shell-based AC combined with iron oxide, denoted as Fe-AC	MB	Highest adsorption capacity was 370.4 mg/g. Methanol and acetic acid were successfully used to reactivate the spent Fe-AC for 4 cycles with a recovery yield greater than 94%.	Altıntug et al. (2017)
Prepared MAC, using AC-based pomelo peels at three activation temperatures, namely 573, 773, and 973 K	Phenol	The greatest adsorption capacity was 1.1×10 <sup>2</sup> mg/g at 298 K.	Wang (2017)

The influence of introducing magnetic particles on AC for chromate ion elimination was examined by Maneechakr & Karnjanakom (2017), who synthesised AC through physical and chemical activation, showing a moderate adsorption capacity for chromate ions. They found that magnetic modification sharply increased the adsorption affinity towards chromate ions due to the increment of positive charge on the surface of the adsorbent. This also means that introducing the appropriate functional group for adsorption of a specific contaminant is more advantageous than increasing the surface area of the adsorbent.

Consequently, further research is required to identify the influence of different functional groups on the adsorption capacity of MAC towards different contaminants. Naushad et al. (2017) prepared a magnetic composite, denoted as NiFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-NC, using polymer bimetal complexes for Hg<sup>2+</sup> elimination. The greatest adsorption aptitude of Hg<sup>2+</sup> was 476.2 mg/g, which was a higher rate of Hg<sup>2+</sup> removal in comparison with that of other magnetic composites, used for Hg<sup>2+</sup> removal (Özcan et al. (2004); Xue et al. (2009); Figueira et al. (2011); Ghasemi et al. (2014); Carolin et al. (2017)). Naushad et al. (2017) also found that the best Hg<sup>2+</sup>

recovery could be obtained from using 0.01 M HCl. Son et al. (2018) prepared a magnetic composite chitosan of modified magnetic kelp biochar (Chi-KBm) for Cu<sup>2+</sup> elimination. The surface area of Chi-KBm

was 6.17 m<sup>2</sup>/g, 6 times greater than that of the pristine magnetic kelp biochar KBm. Son et al. (2018) observed the creation of new functional groups, like NH and C-N groups, which enhanced Cu<sup>2+</sup> elimination.

**Table 2. Summary of heavy metal removal, using MAC**

Composite	Contaminants	Remediation efficiency	References
Magnetic composite of clay and iron oxide	Cd <sup>2+</sup> , Ni <sup>2+</sup> , Zn <sup>2+</sup> , and Cu <sup>2+</sup>	Adsorption capacity of Cd <sup>2+</sup> , Ni <sup>2+</sup> , Zn <sup>2+</sup> , and Cu <sup>2+</sup> were 74, 40, 75, and 50 mg/g, respectively. Over a wide range of pH rates, great magnetic stability was observed.	Oliveira et al. (2003)
AC, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and carbon encapsulated magnetic nanoparticles (CEMNPs),	Co <sup>2+</sup> and Cu <sup>2+</sup>	CNTs and CEMNPs had significantly greater adsorption ability than AC. Complete regeneration was acquired, simply by using HCl.	Pyrzyńska & Bystrzejewski (2010)
Fabricated a magnetic bead (MBs) and MAC	Hg <sup>2+</sup>	About 6.3 mg/g of the contaminant was removed from the solution, using MBs in less than 1 min. Regeneration of MBs was easily conducted using dithiothreitol, allowing MBs' reuse. The use of MAC adsorbed about 38.3 mg/g of the contaminant in less than 1 min. Regeneration of MAC was possible through heat-treatment at 600 °C.	Okamoto et al. (2011)
MAC	Hg <sup>2+</sup>	They achieved a removal efficiency of 96.3% with the magnetization of the composite allowing convenient separation.	Faulconer et al. (2012)
Magnetic biochar	Zn <sup>2+</sup>	The highest adsorption capacity was 1.18 mg/g for an initial concentration of 1.1 mg/l of Zn <sup>2+</sup> .	Mubarak et al. (2013)
Polymer carbon composite (PAA-MMC)	Cd <sup>2+</sup>	The maximum adsorption capacity was 406.6 mg/g. Regeneration with ethylenediaminetetraacetic (EDTA) acid was efficient and about 85.2% of the adsorption capacity was retained after five cycles.	Zeng et al. (2015)
Magnetic chitosan coating on the surface of graphene oxide (MCGO)	Pb <sup>2+</sup>	The maximum removal capability was about 79 mg/g. The composite could be used efficiently up to 5 times. Efficient Pb <sup>2+</sup> recovery occurred at pH = 1 and 2, giving an efficiency greater than 90%	Wang et al. (2016)
Magnetic cellulose-based beads (MCB) incorporating modified AC	Cu <sup>2+</sup> , Pb <sup>2+</sup> and Zn <sup>2+</sup>	Contaminant removal was in the following order: Pb <sup>2+</sup> > Cu <sup>2+</sup> > Zn <sup>2+</sup> from aqueous solution.	Luo et al. (2016)
Combined Plum stone-based AC and Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Cu <sup>2+</sup> and Pb <sup>2+</sup>	Optimal pH for removal was 5.5 and the greatest adsorption capability was 48.31 mg/g for Cu <sup>2+</sup> and 80.65 mg/g for Pb <sup>2+</sup> .	Parlayıcı & Pehlivan (2017)
MAC/tungsten nanocomposite (AC/Fe/W)	Al <sup>3+</sup>	Adsorption capacity of Al <sup>3+</sup> was 184.12 mg/g. Regeneration with HCl was effective. Only 16% of the adsorption desorption efficiency was lost after five cycles.	Saleh et al. (2017)
Tri-amino-functionalized Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @TMAOH	Cd <sup>2+</sup> , Cr <sup>3+</sup> and Co <sup>2+</sup>	The highest adsorption aptitudes were 286 for Cd <sup>2+</sup> , 370 for Cr <sup>3+</sup> , and 270 for Co <sup>2+</sup> in mg/g. The composite was effectively regenerated, using HCl solution.	Alqadami et al. (2017)
Magnetic AC from Combretum quadrangulare Kurz. (500 _C/H3PO4/addition of Fe)	Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	The highest adsorption aptitude was 1.68 mg/g	Maneechakr & Karnjanakom, (2017)
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /Arena nut AC composite (H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> /400 _C, N <sub>2</sub> /addition of Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )	F <sub>-</sub>	The highest adsorption aptitude was 4.8 mg/g	Joshi & Pradhananga, (2017)
Aluminium Iron Amended Activated Bamboo Charcoal (AlCl <sub>3</sub> FeCl <sub>3</sub> /400 _C)	F fluoride	The highest adsorption aptitude was 21.1 mg/g. About 85.7% of the contaminant was desorbed using NaOH. The adsorption efficiency declined to 82% after the second regeneration cycle, highlighting the reusability of the composite	Wendimu et al. (2017)
NiFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> -NC	Hg <sup>2+</sup>	The highest adsorption aptitude was 476.2 mg/g. 0.01 M HCl	Naushad et al. (2017)
Magnetic palygorskite (MPG)	Hg <sup>2+</sup> and CH <sub>3</sub> Hg	The highest adsorption capacities were 211.93 and 159.73 mg/g for Hg <sup>2+</sup> and CH <sub>3</sub> Hg, respectively. The composite was effectively regenerated, using HCl solution, and could be used efficiently up to 7 times.	Saleh et al. (2018)

### The Medical Applications of MAC

The depletion of freshwater is threatening humanity and attracting global attention. A magnetic derivative of AC provides great adsorption capacity of contaminants, sometimes even better than the original AC. A variety of methods have been implemented for drug elimination from wastewater, such as advanced oxidation processes (Hasan, 2017), coagulation, and filtration (Ding et al., 2016). However, adsorption as a remediation technique is gaining popularity (Tian et al., 2018). AC has been efficiently used for the elimination of six classes of antibiotics (Zhang et al., 2016). Nonetheless, separation of AC from an aqueous media is inconvenient, and filtration as a separation technique could block the filter (Ai et al., 2010). MAC has been used efficiently for xenobiotic adsorption. Antibiotic contamination causes bacteria resistance that complicates treatment processes (Mohammadi et al., 2015).

Biomedical applications employing magnetic nanoparticles have been reported by scientific literature, e.g., cellular capture and separation, hyperthermia, biosensing, and drug delivery (Wu et al., 2015). Their affinity towards precipitation and aggregation inside the biological vessel enabled these nanoparticles to reduce

efficiency and biocompatibility. Combining AC with magnetic particles in biomedical applications could overcome the limitation of the magnetic particles due to the production of hybrids (Modugno et al., 2015). MAC have been used in the separation of biomolecules including DNA (Song et al., 2013), protein (Diao et al., 2012) and antigens (Tang et al., 2011). Shi et al. (2015) employed magnetite, coated with GO quantum dots (GOQDs), to capture rare circulating tumour cells. The GOQDs were used for the isolation of anti-Glypican-3 GPC3-expressed Hep G2 hepatocellular carcinoma tumour cells and enrichment from an infected blood samples. A capture capacity of 91% was achieved in a 5 ml infected sample of 10 tumour cell/ml. Moreover, MAC have also been used in the removal as well as in vivo magnetic enrichment of circulating bacteria cells from infected blood (Galanzha et al., 2012). During the 1970s, the idea of Magnetic Drug Targeting (MDT) became an attractive field of study. The concept was to trap or adsorb drugs by means of a magnetically responsive material comprising bounds. By means of an external magnetic field, this magnetic drug would be controlled to target a specific tumour. Table 3 gives a brief summary of the literature on the medical use of MAC.

**Table 3. Summary of the medical application of MAC**

Composite	Contaminants	Remediation efficiency	References
Fabricated MTCs combining the properties of AC and iron	Adsorption of methotrexate, doxorubicin, camptothecin, mitomycin C, and verapamil onto MTCs.	9AC, The drug-loaded composite can be localized and maintained with the tumour.	Rudge et al. (2001)
Composite (CMNP-DOX) combining carbon and iron features in a nanoparticles (CMNP) followed by immobilising doxorubicin (DOX) on the CMNP surfaces.	magnetic carrier for targeted drug-delivery applications.	The composite preserves reactivity of the immobilised DOX	Ma et al. (2006)
MTC merging the adsorption characteristics of AC and iron particles	Theophylline	AC serves as the drug carrier and iron the magnetically prone component. Higher adsorption capacity was positively related to higher AC content in the composite.	Ramanujan et al. (2007)
Magnetic-activated carbon/chitosan (MACC)	Hazardous antibiotics ciprofloxacin, erythromycin, and amoxicillin	The uptake values of ciprofloxacin, erythromycin, and amoxicillin were 90.10, 178.57, and 526.31 mg/g, respectively.	Danaloğlu et al. (2017)

## CONCLUSIONS

To sum up, this paper provided a literature review of the synthetic procedures and application of currently-used MAC. MAC were synthesised via several techniques. Introducing nano- or micro-magnetic particles into the pores of AC allows easy magnetic separation via an external magnetic field. The magnetic derivatives of AC showed great adsorption capacity; however, it complies with a reduction in the adsorption capacity of the composite due to the reduction in surface area and pore volume occupied by magnetic nanoparticles. The magnetisation of AC enhanced its environmental and medical uses. Synthetic procedures do not constitute an obstacle against its application. Chemical co-precipitation techniques are among the most common uses in the synthesis of MAC. The spent MAC can be recycled several times, maintaining great adsorption capacity, thereby making water treatment processes cost-effective and sustainable.

Future work could further develop the synthetic route and enhance the characteristics of the produced composite. Future work could also consider the influence of iron on the treated water, depending on its proposed usage and estimating the amount of the recovered composite after each cycle.

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