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Porous poly(L-lactic acid)/chitosan nanofibres for copper ion adsorption

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Abstract

Porous poly(L-lactic acid) (PLLA) nanofibrous membrane with the high surface area was developed by electrospinning and post acetone treatment and used as a substrate for deposition of chitosan. Chitosan was coated onto porous nanofibrous membrane via direct immersion coating method. The porous PLLA/chitosan structure provided chitosan a high surface framework to fully and effectively adsorb heavy metal ions from water and showed higher and faster ion adsorption. The composite membrane was used to eliminate copper ions from aqueous solutions. Chitosan acts as an adsorbent due to the presence of aminic and hydroxide groups which are operating sites for the capture of copper ions. The maximum adsorption capacity of copper ions reached 111.66 ± 3.22 mg/g at pH (7), interaction time (10 min) and temperature (25 °C). The adsorption kinetics of copper ions was established and was well agreed with the second-order model and Langmuir isotherm. Finally, the thermodynamic parameters were studied.

Keywords: Chitosan, Porous PLLA nanofibres, Adsorption, Langmuir model

1. Introduction

The ground and industrial wastewater contain several contaminations including heavy metal ions, for instance, Cu, Pb, Ni, As, Cr, Hg, and Cd. The rise in the amount of heavy metal in the groundwater is due to contamination by many industries including paper, battery, refineries, metallurgy, leather and textile (Lalita, Singh, & Sharma, 2017). The European Commission Science for Environment Policy (SEP) (Unit, 2013) has stated heavy metals as most common contaminants (31%) in the groundwater second to the mineral oil (22%). It is important to remove these elements as their presence acts as a severe threat to human well-being and ecosystem because of their toxic effects (Tirtom, Dincer, Becerik, Aydemir, & Çelik, 2012; Wan, Kan, Rogel, & Dalida, 2010; Zhang et al., 2008; Zhao, Repo, Yin, & Sillanpaa, 2013). Among heavy metals, copper (Cu) is one of the most commonly used elements in the production industries such as electrical, antifouling and paint industries. It has many toxic effects on human health including cancer, liver damage, Wilson disease, and insomnia (Barakat, 2011; Keizer, 2001). The protection agency for the environment (USA) has fixed the highest contamination limit of copper ions in the water to 0.25 mg/L. Beyond this value, it causes severe effects on health including cancer, organ damage, nervous system damage and in extreme cases death (Barakat, 2011; Kurniawan, Chan, Lo, & Babel, 2006). Multiple techniques are in practice with varying efficiencies to remove the Cu ions from water, including chemical precipitation, membrane filtration, adsorption, photocatalysis, ion exchange and reverse osmosis (Acosta,

44 **Rodríguez, Gutiérrez, & Moctezuma, 2004; Dubey & Gopal, 2007**). However, each of these
45 techniques has certain limitations. For example, chemical precipitation generates a large amount of
46 sludge (**Kurniawan et al., 2006**). Membrane filtration and reverse osmosis require high operational
47 costs (**Kurniawan et al., 2006**), while photocatalysis is a relatively slow process (**Barakat, Chen, &**
48 **Huang, 2004**). Out of these methods, ion adsorption is one of the most practical methods for water
49 filtration due to its cost-effectiveness, high binding capacities, and facile operation (**Aklil, Mouflih, &**
50 **Sebti, 2004**). Nanoporous glass, sand, palm oil, chitosan and ceramic alumina are used for the
51 adsorption of heavy metals from the water (**Bassi, Prasher, & Simpson, 2000; Boddu, Abburi,**
52 **Talbott, Smith, & Haasch, 2008; Liu, Tokura, Haruki, Nishi, & Sakairi, 2002; Moussavi &**
53 **Khosravi, 2010; Wan et al., 2010**).

54 Chitosan is another suitable material for the removal of heavy metals as it contains active amino and
55 hydroxyl groups on its surface. These groups act as anchors to capture and fix metal ions from water.
56 The higher density of active sites chitosan has, the more and faster it adsorbs ions. Moreover, it is
57 easily available, biodegradable, non-toxic and biocompatible. The **Figure S1** displays the chemical
58 structure of chitosan (**Habiba, Siddique, Joo, et al., 2017; Habiba, Siddique, Talebian, et al., 2017;**
59 **Mututuvvari & Tran, 2014; Salehi, Daraei, & Arabi Shamsabadi, 2016; Shen, Wang, Xu, & Luo,**
60 **2013**).

61 The large scale application of chitosan in adsorption of heavy metals ions is limited by its low
62 mechanical strength, pH sensitivity, swelling, and low surface area (**Cooper, Oldinski, Ma, Bryers,**
63 **& Zhang, 2013; Premakshi, Ramesh, & Kariduraganavar, 2015; Seo et al., 2014**). The properties
64 of chitosan can be improved by crosslinking or immobilizing it on a support material. Previously the
65 chitosan has been crosslinked with glutaraldehyde (**Chen, Yang, Chen, Chen, & Chen, 2009**),
66 epichlorohydrin (**Chen, Liu, Chen, & Chen, 2008**), and diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (**Bhatt,**
67 **Sreedhar, & Padmaja, 2017**) to raise the mechanical strength and chemical balance. Whilst
68 crosslinking improves the mechanical properties, it reduces the density of active sites which weakens
69 the capacity of chitosan to purify water (**Zhang et al., 2008**). Coating of chitosan on a support
70 material is another viable approach to improve its properties while keeping most of the functional
71 groups on the exterior of chitosan (**Wan, Petrisor, Lai, Kim, & Yen, 2004**). Recently, Yaolin et al.
72 (**Niu, Ying, Li, Wang, & Jia, 2017**) reported the removal of Cu(II), Pb(II) and Zn(II) ions by
73 chitosan coated polyethylene terephthalate (PET) adsorbent. Franco et al. (**Ferrero, Tonetti, &**
74 **Periolatto, 2014**) examined the adsorption of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) ions from water on chitosan-coated
75 cotton gauze. Qu et al. (**R. Qu et al., 2009; Rongjun Qu et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008**) coated
76 chitosan onto cotton fibre for the removal of Au(III), Hg(II), Cd(II), Cu(II) and Ni(II) ions from
77 wastewater. It was observed in these studies that the substrate plays an important role in providing
78 chitosan a stable framework for adsorption from water.

79 In the present study, we have used highly porous poly(L-lactic acid) (PLLA) nanoporous fibrous
80 membrane as supporting material for chitosan. PLLA is a kind of biocompatible, biodegradable, eco-
81 friendly and cost-effective material. These properties make it a suitable host material for water
82 purification (**Neumann, Flores-Sahagun, & Ribeiro, 2017; Ying W, 2006**). PLLA fibres can
83 be produced by electrospinning which is a straightforward, versatile and cost-effective technique and
84 allows the control of fibre diameter from nanometer to micrometer (**Bhardwaj & Kundu, 2010;**
85 **Dorati et al., 2018**). The electrospun nanofibres are considered to be the next generation material for
86 water filtration because of large porosity, tunable orifice size and high surface area to volume ratio
87 (**Habiba, Siddique, Talebian, et al., 2017; Huang, Zhang, Kotaki, & Ramakrishna, 2003**). The
88 large surface area provided by electrospun fibres can enhance the ion adsorption capacity of

89 composite material. To utilize these properties, chitosan was coated on porous PLLA fibrous
90 membrane by immersion method for preparation of a composite for water filtration (CHPLLA).
91 Without further crosslinking, chitosan could keep most of its active sites for metal ion adsorption. The
92 adsorption performance of CHPLLA for Cu (II) heavy metal from water was examined. The
93 adsorption parameters, including effects of pH, initial metal concentration, temperature and chitosan
94 quantity on the adsorption capability of CHPLLA for Cu (II) ions, the kinetics of adsorption, and
95 isotherm models were explored and procedure for the adsorption of copper ions was discussed. To the
96 best of our information, this is the first study of porous PLLA nanofibres as supportive materials for
97 removal of Cu (II) ions from water.

98 **2. Experimental**

99 **2.1. Materials**

100 Chitosan with low molecular weight ($M_w = 50,000-190,000$ Da), 75-85 % deacetylated was purchased
101 from Sigma Aldrich. Poly(L-lactic acid) (PLLA) ($MW=1.43 \times 10^6$) was supplied by PURAC biochem,
102 Holland. Dichloromethane (DCM, 99.99%) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Dimethylformamide
103 (DMF, 99.8%), was purchased from Fisher Scientific Ltd. Ethanol (EtOH, 99.97%) and acetone
104 (99.70%) were purchased from VWR Science Company., Limited. Deionized water was acquired
105 from USF-ELGA water filter in the laboratory. Copper sulfate pentahydrate ($CuSO_4 \cdot 5H_2O$) was
106 purchased from Fisher Scientific Ltd.

107 **2.2. Preparation of porous PLLA nanofibres**

108 The porous PLLA nanofibres were prepared by electrospinning technique and subsequent solvent
109 treatment. First, 1.8 wt % PLLA was dissolved in DCM and DMF with a 19:1 w/w by stirring and
110 heating at 50 °C in the closed container to avoid the evaporation of solvents until the solution
111 becomes transparent and PLLA was completely dissolved. The mixture was filled in a 30 ml syringe
112 with a metal needle (19G) and fixed on an electrospinning setup. The distance between the needle tip
113 and the metal collector (roller) was maintained to be 30 cm and 23 kV power source was used to
114 charge the mixture. The mixture was released towards the revolving grounded roller (200 rpm) to
115 collect nanofibrous membranes. The collected membranes were allowed to dry overnight. The
116 produced fibrous membrane was immersed in acetone for 5 minutes at room temperature and then
117 dried in the fume cupboard to get porous nanofibrous mats.

118 **2.3. Coating of chitosan**

119 The coating of chitosan onto porous PLLA nanofibres was achieved by a direct immersion coating
120 method. For this, aqueous solutions of chitosan (0.5, 1, 2 and 3 wt%) with pH 3 were prepared by
121 dissolving chitosan (0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6 g) in 20 ml of 0.5 % (v/v) acetic acid solution by magnetically
122 mixing at room temperature. Electrospun porous PLLA nanofibrous membranes were immersed in
123 chitosan mixture for 10 mins, withdrawn from the solution, blotted carefully and dried to a constant
124 mass.

125 **2.4. Characterizations**

126 The morphology of nanofibrous membranes was characterized by Quanta 250 FEG electron
127 microscope (FE-SEM), USA. Elemental analysis was conducted using Energy Dispersive
128 Spectrophotometer (EDS) by Oxford Instruments. Fourier transform infrared spectra (FTIR) was
129 recorded on NICOLET 5700 spectrophotometer. X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) was performed using

130 PANalytical X'pert PRO USA. The quantification of heavy metals was done using Inductively
131 coupled plasma-atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES).

132 2.5. Adsorption experiments

133 The adsorption of copper ions on the chitosan modified porous PLLA nanofibres (CHPLLA) was
134 observed with varying parameters of chitosan concentration (0.5-3 wt%), pH (3-10), interaction
135 period (1-30 min), original Cu (II) ions quantity (50-200 mg/L) and temperature (25-50 °C) in a group
136 structure. **The amount of the porous PLLA nanofibres was changed in order to provide the same
137 amount of adsorbent after coating with different chitosan concentrations (0.6 mg/20 mL).** The original
138 pH of the copper ion solutions was modified with HNO₃ (0.1 M) and NaOH (0.1 M). The adsorption
139 ability (q_e) of copper ions was computed by following mathematical expression (1):

$$140 \quad q_e = \frac{(C_i - C_e)V}{M} \quad (1)$$

141 Where C_i and C_e (mg/L) are initial and final concentrations of copper ions, respectively. V is the
142 solution quantity (mL) and M is the mass of adsorbent (mg). The mathematical modelling of kinetic,
143 isotherm and thermodynamic factors of adsorption was computed by regression equation using Origin
144 software.

145 2.6. Swelling test of chitosan-coated PLLA nanofibers

146 The swelling behaviour of CHPLLA nanofibres was studied by adding 0.2 g of chitosan and 1 wt%
147 CHPLLA nanofibres in each of distilled water, dilute acidic and alkaline solutions at room
148 temperature for 12 hours. **Chitosan and CHPLLA nanofibres were tested to compare the swelling
149 behaviour in different environments.** The percentage of swelling was calculated by using the
150 following equation:

$$151 \quad \text{Percentage of swelling} = \frac{W_s - W_d}{W_d} \times 100 \% \quad (2)$$

152 Where W_d and W_s is the weight of dry and swollen chitosan-coated PLLA nanofibres, respectively.

153 3. Results and Discussions

154 3.1. Characterization of chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres

155 The FTIR spectra of CHPLLA nanofibres, chitosan, and porous PLLA nanofibres are demonstrated in
156 **Figure 1 (a,b and c)**. The spectrum shows bands at 2919 and 3000 cm⁻¹ for porous PLLA, 3000 cm⁻¹
157 for CHPLLA and 2936, 2857 cm⁻¹ for chitosan. These bands belong to C-H stretch from CH₃. The
158 bands at 1741 cm⁻¹ for both PLLA and CHPLLA corresponds to C=O extending of ester. C-O-C
159 extending vibration was observed at 1082 and 1185 cm⁻¹ in both PLLA and CHPLLA. In CHPLLA
160 spectrum, bands at 1541 and 1511 cm⁻¹ are assigned to N-H pattern of the chitosan as shown in
161 **Figure 1(b) (Razzaz, Ghorban, Hosayni, Irani, & Aliabadi, 2016)**. The presence of these bands
162 suggests that chitosan was successfully coated on porous PLLA nanofibres.

163 **Figure 2** shows the FESEM images of porous PLLA nanofibres. The surface of the nanofibres is
164 rough and the uniform porous network is observed on nanofibres. After electrospun PLLA fibres were
165 treated by acetone, the fibres were changed to porous ones which provide chitosan a substrate with a
166 very high surface area.

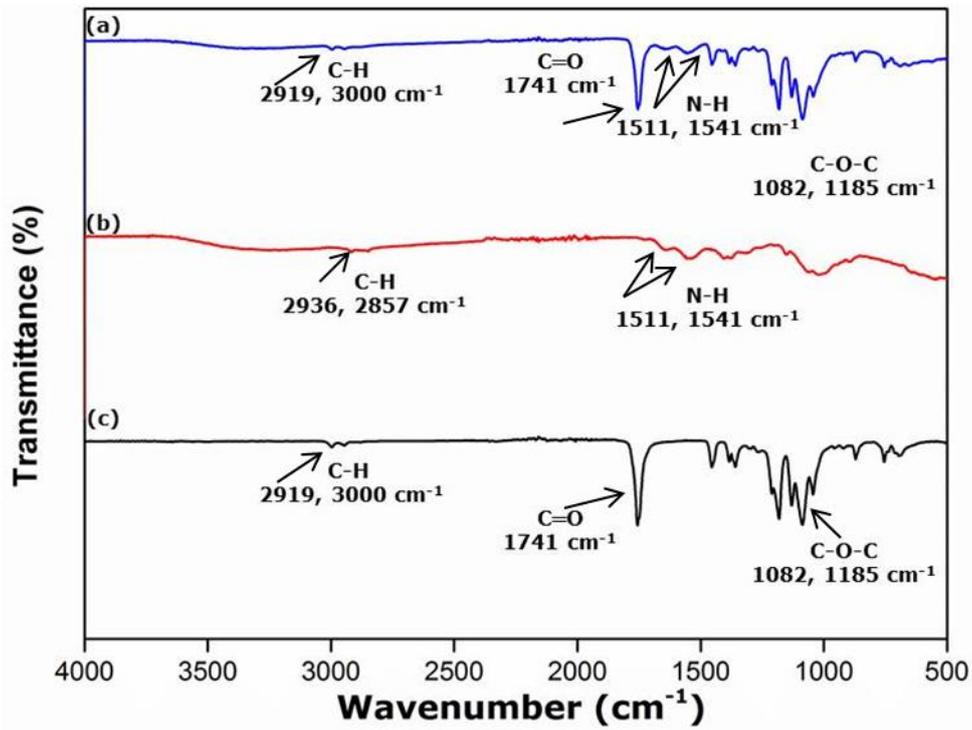
167 **Figure 3 (a, b, c and d)** exhibits FE-SEM images of porous CHPLLA nanofibres. The exterior of the
168 nanofibres after chitosan coating is comparatively smooth. For 0.5 and 1 % of chitosan concentration,
169 the formation of thin chitosan coating is observed on nanofibres while the porous structure is still
170 visible. The coating becomes thicker and covers the porous structure of nanofibres for 2 and 3 % of
171 chitosan.

172 XRD patterns of porous PLLA nanofibres, chitosan film, and CHPLLA nanofibres are displayed in
173 **Figure S2**. Diffraction peaks of porous PLLA nanofibres at $2\theta = 14.7^\circ$, 16.6° , and
174 19.01° are derived from 104, 200 and 203 phases of α phase (Naga, Yoshida, Inui, Noguchi, &
175 Murase, 2011). The results indicate that PLLA was crystallized as α phase after treatment with
176 acetone. The diffractogram of chitosan consisted of two major peaks at $2\theta = 10.9^\circ$ and
177 20.7° (Wang et al., 2016). Compared with chitosan and porous PLLA nanofibres, the diffractogram of
178 chitosan modified porous PLLA nanofibres exhibited some changes in peak width and peak position.
179 The peak at 14.7° shifted to the left and its width was decreased, while the peak at 16.6° shows a
180 decrease in width. Such stronger and narrow peaks indicated a more crystalline phase of the
181 CHPLLA. In addition, the peak at 10.9° of chitosan disappeared and a new crystalline peak of PLLA
182 appeared at 12.3° , which was confirmed from ICDD card no. 00-064-1624. It implies that the
183 CHPLLA was considerably more crystalline than porous PLLA nanofibres. Chitosan acted as a
184 nucleating agent and caused the fast crystallization of PLLA as stated in previous studies (Correlo et
185 al., 2005; Răpă et al., 2016).

186 **3.2. Adsorption of Cu ions on chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres**

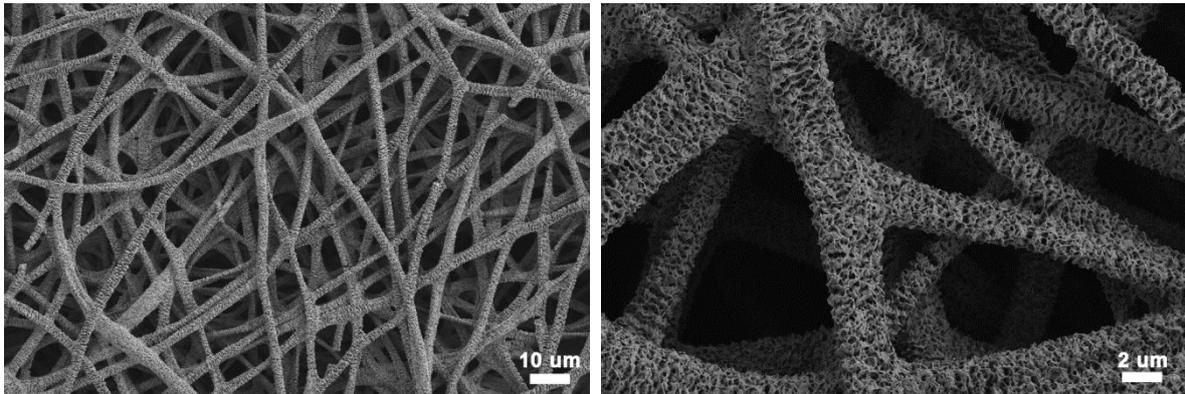
187 Porous PLLA nanofibrous membrane is prepared, coated with chitosan and copper ions are adsorbed
188 as exhibits in **Figure 4**. The presence of Cu ions was displayed by a clear blue colour of the CHPLLA
189 nanofibres after the adsorption process **Figure 5**. Furthermore, the EDS spectra presented in **Figure**
190 **S3 (a) and (b)** reveal the existence of Cu peaks in chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres as
191 compared to the uncoated porous PLLA nanofibres. Therefore, the results suggest that the chitosan
192 active sites are capable to act as active sites for adsorption of copper ions.

193 .



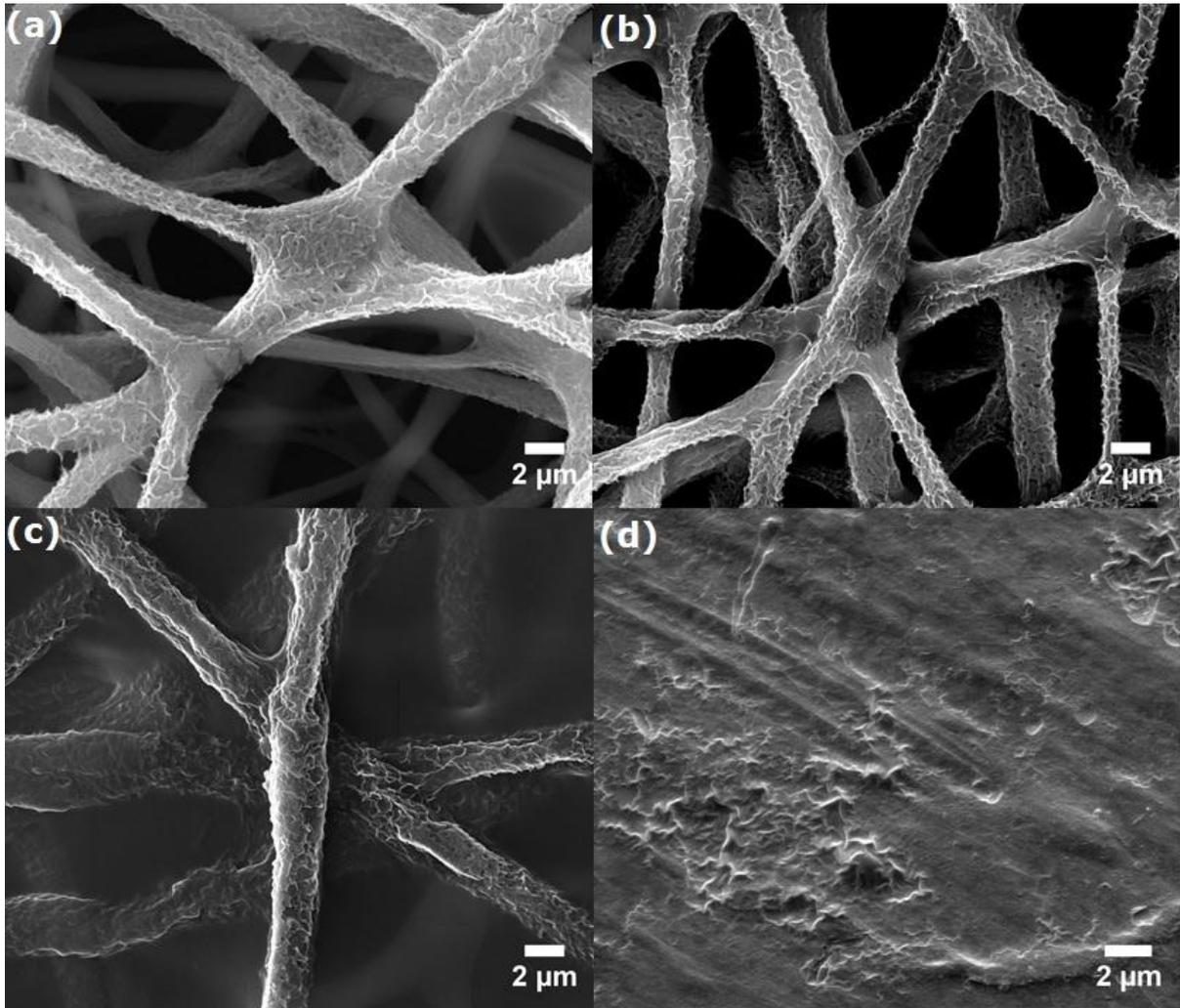
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195 Figure 1. FTIR of (a): chitosan coated porous PLLA nanofibres (b): pure chitosan (c): porous PLLA
 196 nanofibres



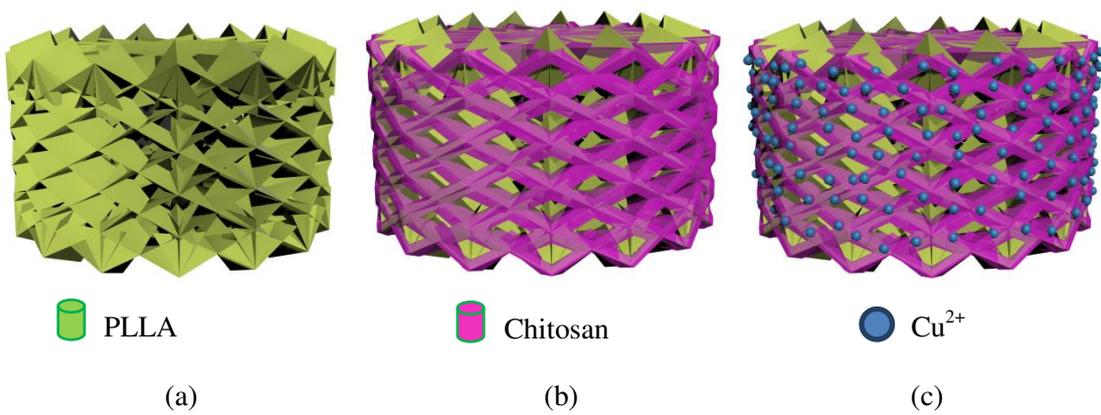
197

198 Figure 2. SEM of porous PLLA nanofibres with different magnifications.



199

200 Figure 3. SEM of chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres (a): 0.5% chitosan, (b): 1% chitosan (c):
 201 2% chitosan & (d): 3% chitosan.



202

203

204

205 Figure 4. Schematic of experimental methodology: (a) porous PLLA fiber; (b) porous PLLA fiber
 206 with chitosan coating; (c) copper ions are adsorbed by chitosan.

207



208

209 Figure 5. The contrast between hue of chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres without and with
210 adsorption of Cu (II) ions.

211 3.3. Stability studies of chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres

212 The swelling behaviour of chitosan and chitosan-coated porous PLLA nanofibres is shown in
213 **Table S1**. It is known that chitosan is soluble in dilute acidic environments due to the protonation of
214 amino groups in acidic media. The suitable evidence of chitosan coating on porous PLLA nanofibres
215 is the less swelling of chitosan in dilute acetic acid, distilled water, and NaOH solution. This can be
216 attributed to the strong adhesion of chitosan on porous PLLA nanofibres.

217 3.4. Impact of chitosan concentration on the adsorption capacity

218 To observe the impact of chitosan concentration on the exclusion of copper ions, the CHPLLA
219 nanofibrous sorbents with varying concentrations (0.5, 1, 2 and 3 wt.%) were prepared. The
220 performance of nanofibre adsorbents was evaluated at a copper initial quantity of 100 mg/L with a pH
221 of 7, adsorbent mass of 0.6 mg/20 mL, the interaction time of 30 mins and a temperature of 25 °C.
222 The results are displayed in **Figure 6(a)**. It is observed that Cu (II) adsorption increases by increasing
223 the concentration of chitosan up to 1 %. It is expected that the thin film of chitosan formed up to 1 %
224 concentration increases the active sites such as $-NH_3$ for the adsorption procedure. With an increase in
225 the amount of chitosan beyond this point, the adsorption capability of copper ions decreased. This
226 behavior could be credited to accumulation and thickening of chitosan at a higher concentration which
227 decreased the surface area of nanofibres and reduced the available functional sites for copper ions
228 adsorption. Therefore, the concentration of 1 % is considered as an optimal value for the coating of
229 porous PLLA nanofibres with chitosan.

230 3.5. Impact of pH on adsorption capacity

231 The effect of solution pH on the surface reaction was studied by maintaining the number of copper
232 ions to 100 mg/L, adsorbent amount to 0.6 mg/20 mL and contact time of 30 mins. The measurements
233 were executed at room temperature in pH between 3-10. The findings are displayed in **Figure 6(b)**.
234 An increasing trend of adsorption capacity is observed with increasing pH value and the maximum
235 value is found at 7. After this limit, the adsorption capacity starts to decrease and this trend continues
236 until 10. This behaviour can be explicated by the existence of the surplus amount of hydrogen ion at
237 low pH which restricts the reaction of ions with $-NH_3$ working groups of chitosan. Moreover,
238 chitosan is susceptible to dissolution in an acidic environment. Therefore, a maximum adsorption
239 value was found in neutral conditions. At higher pH values, Cu (II) ions form hydroxide complexes

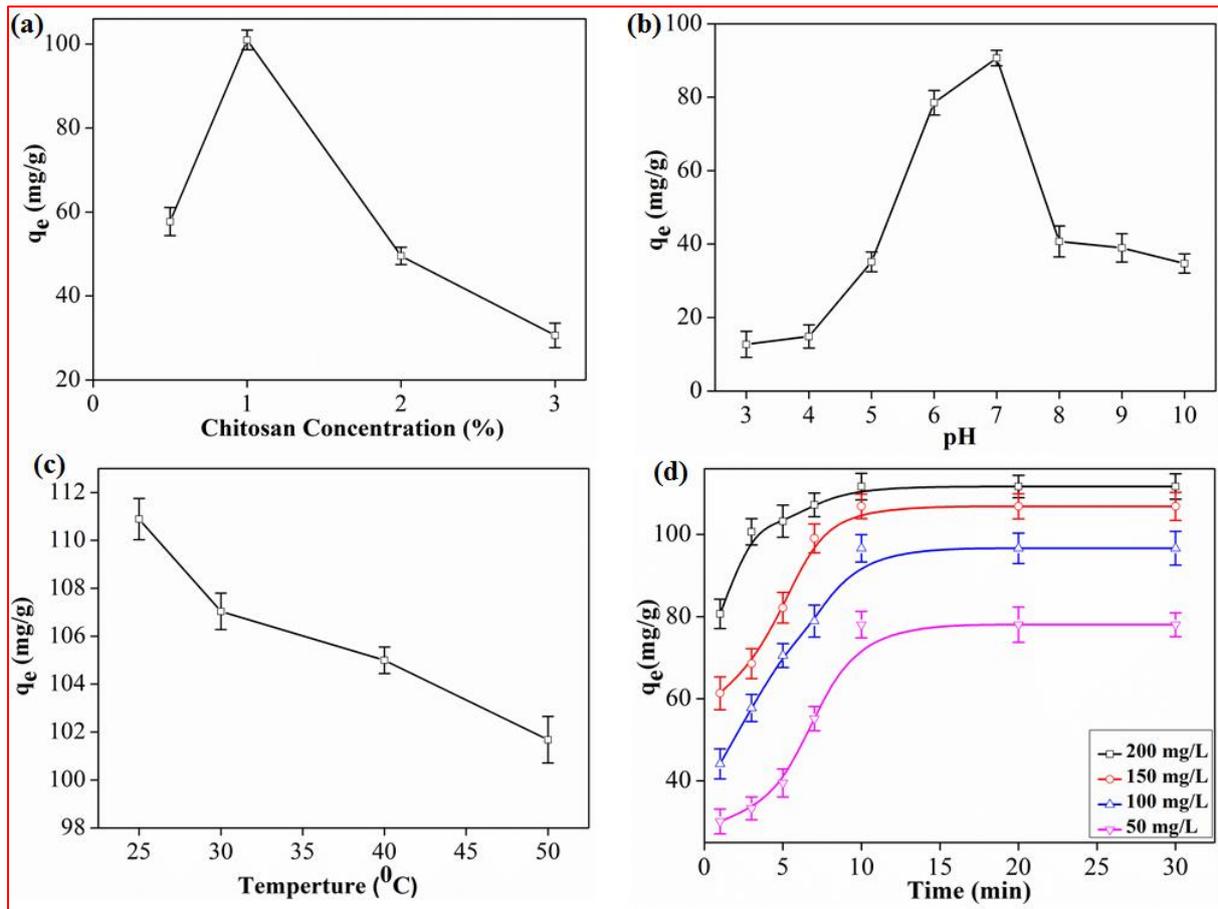
240 (Cu(OH)₂) which caused a decrease in adsorption capacities of CHPLLA adsorbent. Based on these
241 findings, pH 7 is designated as an optimal value for more adsorption studies.

242 **3.6.Impact of temperature on adsorption capacity**

243 The adsorption process of Cu (II) ions using fabricated CHPLLA nanofibrous adsorbent was
244 conducted at temperatures of 25, 30, 40 and 50 °C, the concentration of 100 mg/L for copper ions, the
245 adsorbent dosage of 0.6 mg/20 mL and the interaction time of 30 mins. The glass transition
246 temperature of PLLA is reported at 65 °C in the previous literature (**Middleton & Tipton, 2000**).
247 Therefore, temperatures up to 50 °C will not affect the mechanical integrity of the porous PLLA
248 membrane. **Figure 6(c)** shows the impact of temperature on the adsorption strength of copper ions. It
249 is observed that adsorption capability decreases with increasing temperature. At high temperature, the
250 thickness of the surface layer decreases as copper ions start to leave the adsorbent surface and go into
251 the solution. This led to the decline in adsorption of copper (II) ions at elevated temperature (**Aksu &**
252 **Kutsal, 1991**). The decrease in adsorption capability with rising temperature suggests weak
253 adsorption synergy between the adsorbent surface and the metal ion, which refers to physisorption.
254 Therefore, 25 °C is considered as the ideal temperature for more studies of adsorption.

255 **3.7.Kinetics of adsorption**

256 **Figure 6(d)** illustrates the adsorption ability as a function of time from 1-30 mins CHPLLA porous
257 adsorbent in 20 mL of individual changed copper concentration. Initially, the rate of copper removal
258 was fast due to a large amount of available active sites on the adsorbent surface and became constant
259 after that. This is due to the reason that all the adsorption positions were occupied by adsorbed metals
260 (**Labidi, Salaberria, Fernandes, Labidi, & Abderrabba, 2016**). It is notable that within only 10
261 minutes of interaction time maximum elimination of copper ions was attained. The **Figure 6(d)** also
262 illustrates that the adsorption rate of copper ions was reliant on the primary quantity of copper ions as
263 witnessed in a previous study (**Nagib, Inoue, Yamaguchi, & Tamaru, 1999**). As presented, the
264 adsorption capability of CHPLLA adsorbent was increased for larger copper ions initial quantity. This
265 observation can be credited to the fact that the transfer of mass effect and driving force of
266 concentration gradient are directly proportional to the initial quantity of metal ions (**Wan et al.,**
267 **2010**).



268

269 Figure 6. Experimental conditions of adsorption (a): effect of chitosan concentration, (b): effect of pH,
 270 (c): effect of temperature, (d): adsorption kinetics.

271

272

3.8. Mathematical modelling of adsorption kinetics

273 To study the time of adsorption as well as the time defining the stage of the adsorption process, first-
 274 order and second-order kinetic models were studied to simulate the adsorption experimental numbers.
 275 Widely used first-order kinetic model for absorption in the solid/liquid complex is indicated as
 276 (Chiou & Li, 2003):

$$277 \quad \log(q_{\text{equ}} - q_{\text{time}}) = \log(q_{\text{equ}}) - \frac{k_1}{2.303} t \quad (3)$$

278 Pseudo-second order model is expressed as follows:

279

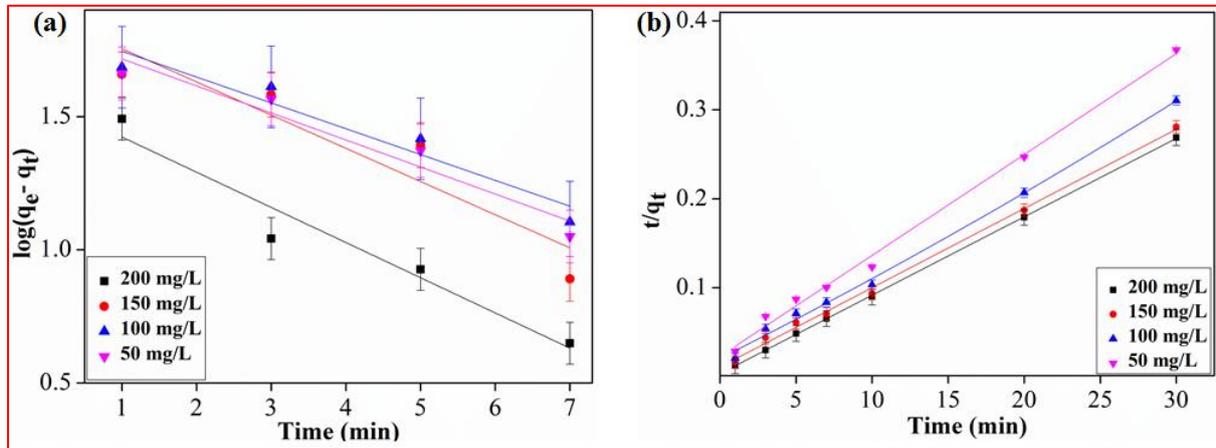
$$280 \quad \frac{t}{q_{\text{time}}} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_{\text{equ}}^2} + \frac{1}{q_{\text{equ}}} t \quad (4)$$

281

282 Where q_{time} (mg/g) and q_{equ} (mg/g) are the quantities of metals adsorbed at the time (t) and at
 283 equilibrium respectively. While k_1 (min^{-1}) and k_2 (mg/g min^{-1}) are the constants of first and second-
 284 order reaction models.

285 **Figure 7(a)** and **Table 1** indicates that the first-order model did not apt the adsorption investigated
 286 statistics well. The correlation coefficients R^2 for the theoretical values of equilibrium adsorption
 287 capacity (q_e) is very low because first order is only appropriate for explaining the numbers that are

288 near to the equilibrium adsorption (Plazinski, Rudzinski, & Plazinska, 2009). As shown in Figure
 289 7(b) and Table 1, pseudo-second-order model describes the adsorption system well since the
 290 experimental adsorption values are close to the calculated ones, and the R² values are greater than
 291 0.999, demonstrating that the adsorption procedure is administered by the surface reaction (Repo,
 292 Warchol, Bhatnagar, & Sillanpää, 2011).



293
 294 Figure 7. (a): pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics, (b): pseudo-second reaction kinetics.

295 Table 1 Parameters of Pseudo first and second-order reaction kinetics

Concentration (mg/L)	First-order kinetics			Second-order kinetics				
	k ₁ (min ⁻¹)	R ²	SD	k ₂ (g mg ⁻¹ min ⁻¹)	q _{equ, exp} (mg g ⁻¹)	q _{equ, cal} (mg g ⁻¹)	SD	R ²
50	0.0440	0.94	±0.079	0.00568	81.04	88.10	±0.0089	0.99
100	0.0420	0.92	±0.084	0.00577	96.64	103.30	±0.0071	0.99
150	0.0540	0.86	±0.153	0.00735	106.84	112.23	±0.0052	0.99
200	0.0573	0.94	±0.099	0.0237	111.66	113.37	±0.001	0.99

296

297 3.9. Modelling of adsorption isotherms

298 Isotherm models are studied to make a model of adsorption capability of adsorbents against the
 299 amount of adsorbate at equilibrium conditions. In this study, we have used the Langmuir model and
 300 the Freundlich model to study the adsorption process.

301 The Langmuir model considered that there are a constant amount of adsorption locations present on
 302 the adsorbent surface, active sites are of equal size and shape on a solid surface and each vacant site
 303 can bind only one adsorbate molecule to make a homogenous monolayer on the adsorbent. The linear
 304 equation of Langmuir isotherm is expressed as (Ho, Porter, & McKay, 2002):

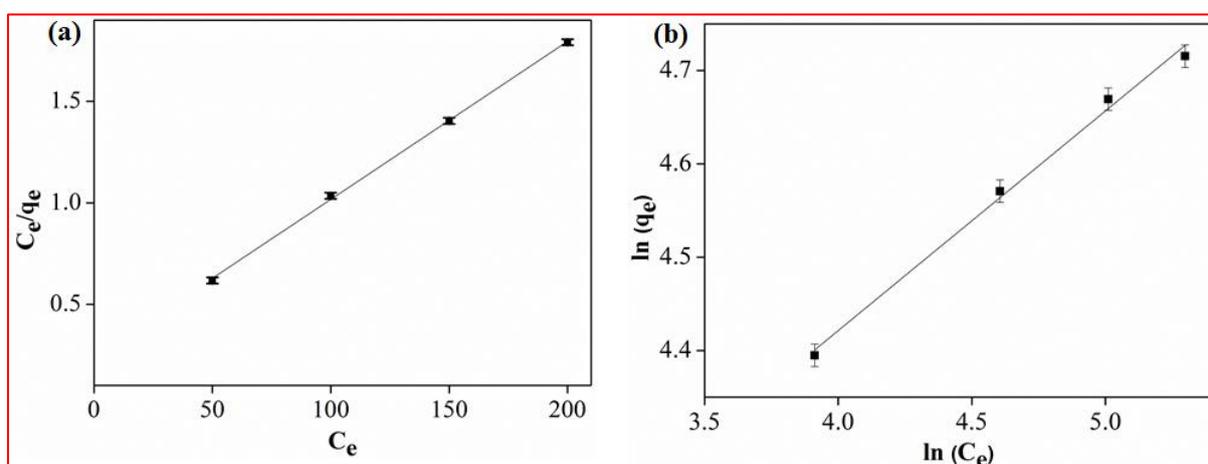
$$305 \frac{C_{equ}}{q_{equ}} = \frac{1}{k_1 q_{max}} + \frac{C_{equ}}{q_{max}} \quad (5)$$

306 Where q_{equ} (mg/g) and C_{equ} (mg/g) represent the adsorption at equilibrium and adsorbate concentration
 307 respectively, q_{max} (mg/g) is the highest adsorption capability, while k₁ (L mg/g) is the energy of
 308 adsorption. Figure 8(a) and Table 2 show that Langmuir isotherm relates significantly better with the
 309 experimental values of adsorption for Cu (II) ions.

310 In contrast, Freundlich isotherm states that there are unlimited adsorption sites available and a
 311 heterogeneous layer of adsorbate will form on the adsorbent with non-uniform distribution of
 312 adsorption heat. The Freundlich equation can be written as (Covelo, Vega, & Andrade, 2007):

$$313 \quad q_{\text{equ}} = k_f C_{\text{equ}}^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (6)$$

314 Where q_{equ} (mg/g) and C_{equ} (mg/g) are the adsorptions at equilibrium and adsorbate concentration
 315 respectively, while k_f (L mg^{-1}) is a unit capability coefficient and n shows the degree of heterogeneity
 316 in the adsorption system. The greater the value of n , the more heterogeneous system is (Moussavi &
 317 Khosravi, 2010). In Table 2, n values greater than 1 designates heterogeneous adsorption. As shown
 318 in Figure 8(b) and Table 2 the Freundlich model did not fit well with the experimental data of Cu (II)
 319 ions adsorption with lower R^2 values as compared to the Langmuir model. The result confirms
 320 CHPLLA nanofibres structure and composition.



321
 322 Figure 8. (a): Langmuir adsorption isotherm, (b): Freundlich adsorption isotherm.

323 Table 2 Parameters of Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm

Metal ion	Freundlich constants				Langmuir constants			
	k_f (L mg^{-1})	n	R^2	SD	k_1 (L mg^{-1})	q_{max} (mg g^{-1})	SD	R^2
Cu (II)	3.47	4.24	0.994	± 0.012	1.72	128.53	± 0.015	> 0.999

324

325 3.10. Thermodynamic parameters

326 The thermodynamic parameters such as Gibbs free energy (ΔG°), enthalpy change (ΔH°) and entropy
 327 change (ΔS°) were calculated by thermodynamic equations (7), (8) and (9) (Li, Zhang, Li, Wang, &
 328 Ali, 2016):

$$329 \quad \Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T\Delta S^\circ \quad (7)$$

$$330 \quad k_1 = \frac{q_{\text{equ}}}{C_{\text{equ}}} \quad (8)$$

$$331 \quad \ln k_1 = \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{G} - \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{RT} \quad (9)$$

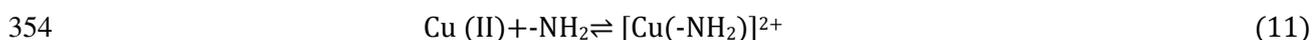
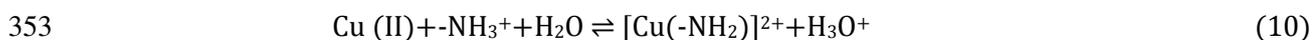
332 Where k_1 is a constant, q_{equ} is the adsorption capacity (mg/g) at equilibrium, C_{equ} is the metal ion
333 concentration at equilibrium, G is the ideal gas constant (8.314 J/mol/k) and T is the absolute
334 temperature (K). Values of ΔH and ΔS were calculated from the slope and intercept by the linear plot
335 of $\ln k_1$ and the inverse of temperature ($1/T$) as illustrated in **Figure S4**.

336 The obtained thermodynamic factors are displayed in **Table S3**. The negative values of ΔH and ΔS
337 indicated a decrease in randomness and exothermic nature of the adsorption process. Therefore,
338 increasing the solution temperature will decrease the binding potential at equilibrium. The negative
339 values of ΔG indicate that the adsorption process was spontaneous in the temperature range studied
340 (**Li et al., 2016**).

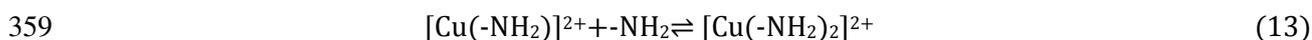
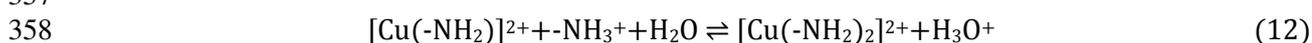
341 **4. Mechanism of chitosan for the removal of Cu ions**

342 Potentiometry is considered to be the fundamental method to describe the complex formation of
343 chitosan with metals by studying acid-base reactions and metal-ligand interactions. The acid accepts a
344 pair of the electron (metal) from the base (chitosan) and forms a covalent bond with the metallic ions.
345 There is only one site available in chitosan monomeric unit (amine groups) which initiates the
346 covalent bonds with metallic ions (**Rhazi, Desbrieres, Tolaimate, Rinaudo, Vottero, Alagui, et al.,**
347 **2002**).

348 During the adsorption process of Cu (II) ions by chitosan, pH of solution plays a notable role (**Rhazi,**
349 **Desbrieres, Tolaimate, Rinaudo, Vottero, & Alagui, 2002**). When the pH of a solution is less than
350 5.30 there is no or very small complex formed between copper Cu (II) ions and chitosan. When pH is
351 greater than 5.30, amino groups made a covalent bond with copper ions and formed $[\text{Cu}(-\text{NH}_2)]^{2+}$
352 complex as shown in **Figure S5** and in the equation (10) and (11):



355 Another type of complex was also investigated when pH goes above 5.80 where another amino group
356 is incorporated $[\text{Cu}(-\text{NH}_2)_2]^{2+}$ as shown in **Figure S5** and in the equations (12) and (13):



360 This complex is stable up to pH 7.7; beyond this pH, copper hydroxides will precipitate and the
361 procedure will become difficult to study.

362 **5. Conclusion**

363
364 Chitosan modified porous PLLA nanofibers were fabricated and used as an adsorbent for the
365 elimination of Cu (II) ions from aqueous solution. The adsorption efficiency of this membrane was
366 assessed by varying chitosan concentration, pH, initial metal ion concentration, contact time and
367 temperature. The adsorption capability for copper elevated with increasing contact time and reached
368 equilibrium after 10 minutes. The kinetic studies show that Cu (II) ions adsorption adheres to the
369 second-order kinetics. The highest adsorption ability (128.53 mg/g) was obtained at pH 7 and
370 experimental data of adsorption process suited to a greater degree with Langmuir adsorption isotherm.
371 The adsorption efficiency raised at larger copper ion amounts while at elevated temperature the
372 adsorption capacity of the adsorbent was decreased. Thermodynamic analysis proved that the

373 adsorption system was exoergic and automatic naturally with negative figures of enthalpy of reaction
374 (ΔH°) and Gibbs free energy (ΔG°). Furthermore, the highest adsorption capability obtained for Cu (II)
375 ions was greater than the figures recorded in previous researches on chitosan-coated adsorbents
376 endorsing that porous supporting material provide more surface area to increase the opportunity of
377 aminic and hydroxide groups of chitosan to bind copper ions. Thus, chitosan modified porous PLLA
378 nanofibrous membrane can be expressed as a green adsorbent for purification of aqueous solutions
379 containing metal ions such as copper.

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