



# Mathematical modeling and numerical simulation of sulfamethoxazole adsorption onto sugarcane bagasse in a fixed-bed column

Diego Juela <sup>a</sup>, Mayra Vera <sup>b</sup>, Christian Cruzat <sup>b</sup>, Ximena Alvarez <sup>b</sup>, Eulalia Vanegas <sup>b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Chemical Engineering, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, University of Cuenca, 010203, Cuenca, Ecuador

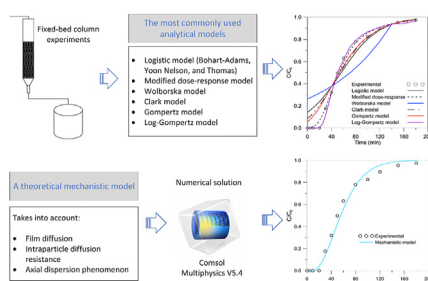
<sup>b</sup> Center for Environmental Studies, Department of Applied Chemistry and Production Systems, Faculty of Chemical Sciences, University of Cuenca, 010203, Cuenca, Ecuador



## HIGHLIGHTS

- Adsorption of sulfamethoxazole with sugarcane bagasse was investigated.
- A new mechanistic model was developed and solved numerically.
- Eight analytical models were used to fit the breakthrough data.
- The mechanistic model predicted breakthrough curves with great accuracy.
- The Log-Gompertz model correlated well with asymmetric breakthrough curves.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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## ABSTRACT

Having rigorous mathematical models is essential for the design and scaling of adsorption columns. In this study, the dynamic behavior of the sulfamethoxazole adsorption on sugarcane bagasse was studied and compared using analytical models and a theoretical mechanistic model. Initially, fixed-bed column tests were carried out at different flow rates and bed heights. Then, the experimental data were fitted with the most widely used analytical kinetic models, and their fit and fixed-bed parameters were compared with the mechanistic model. Of all analytical models analyzed, the Log-Gompertz model was the one that had the best agreement with experimental data. Although some analytical models fitted the experimental data accurately, their usefulness was questionable. Their parameters did not show a clear relationship with the change in operating conditions, and in certain cases had different behavior from that observed in experimentation. Conversely, the mechanistic model not only predicted the breakthrough curves with great accuracy in the initial and transition stage ( $R^2 > 0.92$ ;  $SSE < 0.06$ ), but it also estimated relevant parameters. Additionally, the effects of the global mass transfer coefficient ( $K_i$ ) and the axial dispersion coefficient ( $D_z$ ) on breakthrough curves were studied using the mechanistic model. Increasing  $K_i$  increased the slope of the breakthrough curves with a faster adsorption rate. Similarly, high values of  $D_z$  produced lower adsorption capacities of the adsorbent; and it was established that the axial dispersion is relevant in SMX adsorption on SB. The theoretical model presented can be used for the design, scaling, and optimization of adsorption columns.

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\* Corresponding author. University of Cuenca, Av. 12 de Abril, 010203, Cuenca, Ecuador.

E-mail address: [eulalia.vanegas@ucuenca.edu.ec](mailto:eulalia.vanegas@ucuenca.edu.ec) (E. Vanegas).

Nomenclature			
<i>Notation</i>		$q_F$	adsorption capacity predicted by the analytical model (mg/g)
$a$	parameter of the Logistic model	$q_0$	adsorption capacity in equilibrium with $C_0$ from Batch studies (mg/g)
$a'$	model parameter of the modified dose-response model	$q_{\max}$	maximum adsorption capacity of the Langmuir isotherm (mg/g)
$b$	parameter of the Logistic model	$Q$	flow rate of the solution (mL/min)
$B$	unidimensional parameter of the Clark model	$r$	model parameter of the Clark model (1/min)
$C$	SMX final concentration (mg/L)	$r_p$	average radius of the adsorbent particle (m)
$C_e$	SMX concentration in the liquid phase at equilibrium (mg/L)	$Re$	Reynolds number
$C_0$	SMX initial concentration (mg/L)	$R_p$	particle radius (m)
$C_R$	concentration of SMX adsorbed (mg/L)	$Sc$	Schmidt number
$d_p$	average diameter of the adsorbent particle (m)	$T$	temperature of the SMX solution (K)
$D$	column diameter (m)	$t_b$	breakthrough time (min)
$D_m$	molecular diffusion coefficient ( $m^2/s$ )	$t_s$	saturation time (min)
$D_{ep}$	effective pore diffusivity coefficient ( $m^2/s$ )	$v_i$	interstitial velocity of the solution (m/s)
$D_p$	pore diffusion coefficient ( $m^2/s$ )	$v_s$	superficial velocity of the solution (m/s)
$D_s$	surface diffusion coefficient ( $m^2/s$ )	$V_m$	molar volume of SMX at its normal boiling point ( $cm^3/mol$ )
$D_z$	axial dispersion coefficient ( $m^2/s$ )	$Z$	bed height (m)
$H_b$	fraction of the saturated bed (%)	$z$	distance along the bed (m)
$m$	mass of adsorbent (g)	<i>Greek Letters</i>	
$M_s$	molecular weight of the solvent (g/mol)	$\alpha$	velocity of constant pattern front
$N_0$	adsorption capacity of BCA per unit volume of the bed (mg/L)	$\alpha_G$	parameter of the Gompertz model
$K$	distribution ratio equal to $q_0/C_0$	$\alpha_A$	solvent association parameter
$K_i$	global mass transfer coefficient (1/s)	$\beta$	external mass transfer coefficient (1/min)
$k_{BA}$	Bohart-Adams' rate coefficient (L/mg min)	$\beta_G$	parameter of the Gompertz model (1/min)
$k_f$	external film mass transfer coefficient (m/s)	$\rho$	density of the SMX solution ( $kg/m^3$ )
$k_L$	energy constant related to the heat of adsorption (L/mg)	$\rho_b$	bed bulk density ( $kg/m^3$ )
$k_{Th}$	Thomas rate coefficient (1/min)	$\rho_p$	density of the adsorbent particle ( $kg/m^3$ )
$k_{YN}$	Yoon-Nelson rate coefficient (L/mg min)	$\mu$	dynamic viscosity of the solution ( $kg/cm.s$ )
$Pe$	Peclet number	$\epsilon_b$	bed void fraction or bed porosity
$q$	SMX concentration in the solid phase at time $t$ (mg/g)	$\epsilon_p$	particle porosity
$q_e$	adsorption capacity at saturation time or equilibrium (mg/g)	$\tau$	time required for 50% breakthrough (min)
		$\tau_p$	tortuosity factor of the adsorbent

## 1. Introduction

Sulfamethoxazole (SMX) is a bacteriostatic antibiotic, and it is one of the most common sulfonamides consumed in human and veterinary medicine, especially in high-income countries (Klein et al., 2018). A conventional wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) is not designed to completely remove SMX residues present in wastewaters (Sun et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015). In WWTPs, SMX is partially removed by microbiological degradation and adsorption in sludge (da Silva Rodrigues et al., 2020; Ekpeghere et al., 2017). As a consequence of incomplete removal of SMX, this antibiotic is one of the most commonly detected in wastewaters, groundwaters, surface and drinking waters in concentrations ranged from ng/L to  $\mu g/L$  (Wang and Wang, 2018; Wilkinson et al., 2017). The concern regarding SMX in aquatic environments is due to this antibiotic has the ability to accumulate in aquatic organisms. SMX has a bio-concentration factor of 2.80, which is much higher than other antibiotics (Liu et al., 2018b); SMX also has a hazard ratio of 34.81 (Liu et al., 2018a), which allows its accumulation in fish, shrimp, and other aquatic organisms. This makes it a high-risk antibiotic for the aquatic environment as well as for the food chain. Besides, many studies have reported some toxicity effects of SMX on aquatic organisms. For instance, in microalgae, it has been shown that SMX

destroys cell wall synthesis and disrupts photosynthesis pathways (Välitalo et al., 2017); it leads to a general decrease in the utilization of the carbon source in the periphyton (Johansson et al., 2014). In bioluminescent bacteria such as *Vibrio fischeri*, SMX affects their enzymatic system and therefore reduces their bioluminescence by 50% (Prasannamedha and Kumar, 2020). All of these effects occur when aquatic organisms are exposed to concentrations in the mg/L range, so SMX levels found in surface and drinking waters are not high enough to affect human and animal health. However, due to the frequent, extensive, and uninterrupted use of these types of drugs, these very low concentrations can pose a threat to the development of antibiotic-resistant bacteria.

Adsorption is a low-cost and efficient technology that can be used to remove SMX and other antibiotics from wastewaters. Materials like activated carbon (Serna-Carrizales et al., 2020), biochar (Zeng et al., 2021), carbon nanotubes (Chen et al., 2017), graphene and its derivatives (Masri et al., 2020), metal-organic frameworks (Yu et al., 2020), clays and minerals (Wu et al., 2019), and agricultural residues (Peñafiel et al., 2020) has been used as adsorbents for SMX adsorption. In agro-industrial countries like Ecuador, where a large number of residues is produced annually, natural adsorbents are more attractive. Sugarcane bagasse (SB) is one of these residues that has shown high potential to remove pollutants from

wastewaters (Ahmad et al., 2018; Juela, 2020; Nardy Ribeiro et al., 2011; Vera et al., 2018). Adsorption can be carried out in a batch process or in fixed-bed columns. However, the latter has greater advantages due to its simple mode of operation, suitable for large volumes, easy to scale up from laboratory to pilot or industrial operation, and it is applicable to the operation mode of WWTPs (Ahmed and Hameed, 2018). In order to design efficient adsorption columns, it is necessary to understand the main mechanisms involved in the adsorption of a given adsorbate-adsorbent system. Many mathematical models have been developed to elucidate these mechanisms and predict the breakthrough curve of a given adsorption system.

Analytical kinetic models such as the Yoon-Nelson, Thomas, Bohart-Adams, Modified dose-response, and Bed Depth Service Time model have been used to estimated kinetic parameters for continuous adsorption of SMX (Jaria et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2013; Zeng et al., 2021). The Thomas model correlated well with experimental data on the SMX adsorption with lignite activated carbon, and this revealed that the SMX adsorption could be dominated by film diffusion (Li et al., 2020). Similarly, Jaria et al. (2019) used the Thomas, Yoon-Nelson, and Modified dose-response models to analyze the dynamic behavior of the SMX adsorption into granular activated carbon, and the modified dose-response model was the one that best fit the experimental data in all tests. Although these models fit with some precision to a real adsorption process, these models are not based on a mechanistic approach and ignore intraparticle diffusion resistance and axial dispersion, and all of these models require experimental breakthrough curves to estimate their respective parameters (Unuabonah et al., 2019). Besides, several studies have questioned the practical utility of classic analytical models due to their inaccuracy in predicted fixed-bed parameters (Dorado et al., 2014; Jaria et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). For instance, Dorado et al. (2014) found that the adsorption capacity predicted by the modified-dose response model and Wolborska model were 100 times lower than those measured, or had an unexpected behavior with operating conditions. Due to these disadvantages of these models, in the last decades, several theoretical mathematical models have been developed to describe the dynamic behavior of a fixed-bed adsorption column. Most of these models are composed of a macroscopic mass conservation equation, a kinetic equation, and an equilibrium relationship or isotherm, which can be solved numerically using computational software. These theoretical

models take into account both film and intraparticle diffusion, hence these are more closely approximate a real adsorption process with a higher degree of accuracy (Unuabonah et al., 2019). Additionally, a mechanistic model can estimate valuable parameters such as mass transfers and axial dispersion coefficients.

In this work, six most widely used analytical kinetic models (the Thomas, Yoon-Nelson, Bohart-Adams, Clark, Modified dose-response, Wolborska models) and two recently developed models (the Gompertz and Log-Gompertz models) were applied to fit the breakthrough experimental data under different operation conditions for the SMX adsorption into SB. Then, the best-fitted analytical model was compared with a theoretical mechanistic model, which considered film diffusion, intraparticle diffusion, and axial dispersion. The mechanistic model was also used to evaluate the effects of global mass transfer coefficient and axial dispersion coefficient on the breakthrough curves. Finally, the relative importance of the axial dispersion phenomenon was assessed by comparison with other rate mechanisms.

## 2. Theory

### 2.1. Analytical kinetic models of fixed-bed column adsorption

The biosorption process in continuous systems is a dynamic process since the adsorbate concentration varies with time, as well as throughout the column. This particular dynamic behavior of a column packed with a biosorbent is described by its breakdown curve. This curve can be obtained through experimentation or the application of mathematical models. In the available literature, there are many analytical models that have been used to predict the breakthrough curve in liquid phase. In this study, eighth models were used to study the performance and predict the fixed bed column parameters: Yoon-Nelson, Thomas, Bohart-Adams, Wolborska, Modified dose-response, Clark, Gompertz, and Log-Gompertz models. The Bohart-Adams, Yoon-Nelson, and Thomas models were unified as a single model called "Logistic model" due to they are mathematically equivalent according to various studies (Bakka et al., 2020; Chu, 2020a; Dima et al., 2020). After applying the Logistic model, the parameters of the Bohart-Adams, Yoon-Nelson, and Thomas models were estimated using simple correlations as shown in Fig. 1. The breakthrough and linear equations of all these models are shown in Table 1.

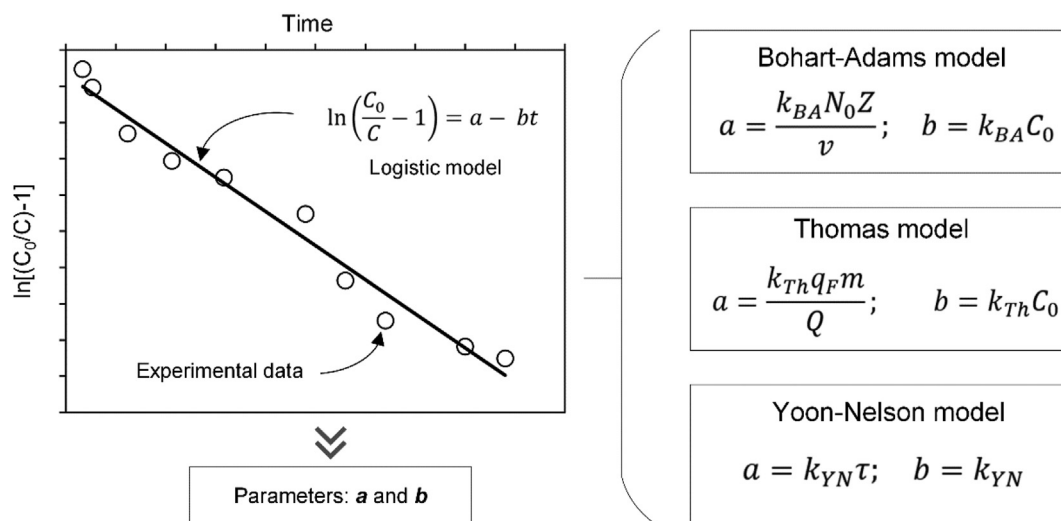


Fig. 1. Scheme to obtain the Bohart-Adams, Thomas, and Yoon-Nelson parameters using the Logistic model.

**Table 1**  
Analytical kinetic models used in this study.

Model	Plot	Parameters	Reference	
Logistic model	Non-Linear $\frac{C}{C_0} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(a - bt)}$ Linear $\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C} - 1\right) = a - bt$	$\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C} - 1\right)$ vs t	$k_{BA}$ (L/mg min) and $N_0$ (mg/L) for Bohart-Adams models; $k_{Th}$ (L/mg min) and $q_F$ (mg/g) for Thomas model; $k_{YN}$ (1/min) and $\tau$ (min) for Yoon-Nelson model.	Chu (2020a)
Wolborska model	Non-Linear $\frac{C}{C_0} = \exp\left(\frac{\varepsilon_b \beta C_0 t - \beta Z}{\rho q_F u}\right)$ Linear $\ln\left(\frac{C}{C_0}\right) = \frac{\varepsilon_b \beta C_0 t - \beta Z}{\rho q_F u}$	$\ln\left(\frac{C}{C_0}\right)$ vs t	$\beta$ is the external mass transfer coefficient (1/min), and $q_F$ is the adsorption capacity provided by the Wolborska model (mg/g).	Wolborska and Pustelnik (1996)
Modified dose-response model	Non-Linear $\frac{C}{C_0} = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{C_0 Q t}{q_F m}\right)^{a'}}$ Linear $\ln\left(\frac{C}{C_0 - C}\right) = a' \ln(C_0 Q t) - a' \ln(q_F m)$	$\ln\left(\frac{C}{C_0 - C}\right)$ vs $\ln(C_0 Q t)$	$a'$ is the model parameter, and $q_F$ is the adsorption capacity provided by the modified dose-response model (mg/g).	Yan et al. (2001)
Clark model	Non-Linear $\frac{C}{C_0} = \left(\frac{1}{1 + B \exp(-rt)}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}}$ Linear $\ln\left[\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)^{n-1} - 1\right] = -rt + \ln(B)$	$\ln[(C_0/C)^{1/n} - 1]$ vs t	$r$ is the model parameter (1/min), $B$ is an unidimensional parameter of the Clark model, and $n$ is a parameter of the Freundlich isotherm.	Xu et al. (2013)
Gompertz model	Non-Linear $\frac{C}{C_0} = \exp[-\exp(\alpha_G - \beta_G t)]$ Linear $\ln\left[\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)\right] = \alpha_G - \beta_G t$	$\ln\left[\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)\right]$ vs t	$\alpha_G$ and $\beta_G$ (1/min) are parameters of Gompertz model.	Chu (2020b)
Log-Gompertz model	Non-Linear $\frac{C}{C_0} = \exp[-\exp(\alpha_G - \beta_G \ln t)]$ Linear $\ln\left[\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)\right] = \alpha_G - \beta_G \ln t$	$\ln\left[\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)\right]$ vs $\ln t$	$\alpha_G$ and $\beta_G$ (1/min) are parameters of Gompertz model.	Chu (2020b)

2.2. Approach to a theoretical mechanistic model

The analytical models named above were compared with a theoretical mechanistic model. This model was defined as a set of equations for the biosorbent bed layer, and it is based on the mass balance of SMX in the liquid phase, a kinetic model, and an equilibrium model.

The general mass balance equation for the transport and adsorption of diluted species in porous media when the pore space is primarily filled with liquid but also contains pockets or immobile gas is described as shown in Eq. (1).

$$\varepsilon_b \frac{\partial(C)}{\partial t} + \rho_b \frac{\partial(q)}{\partial t} - \nabla(D_z - D_e)\nabla C + \frac{\partial(v_s C)}{\partial z} = R \tag{1}$$

where,  $C$  (mg/L) and  $q$  (mg/g) are the SMX concentration in the liquid and solid phase, respectively,  $\varepsilon_b$  and  $\rho_b$  (kg/m<sup>3</sup>) are the bed void fraction and bed bulk density, respectively.  $D_z$  (m<sup>2</sup>/s) and  $D_e$  (m<sup>2</sup>/s) are the axial dispersion coefficient and volatilization coefficient, respectively, and  $v_s$  (m/s) is the superficial velocity. On the left side of Eq. (1), the first two terms correspond to the SMX concentration within the liquid and solid phase, the following term introduces the dispersion ( $D_z$ ) and volatilization ( $D_e$ ) phenomenon in the x, y, and z directions. While the last term describes mass transfer by convection. On the right-hand side,  $R$  describes the rate of the adsorption reaction. The volatilization and reaction adsorption were neglected ( $D_e = 0, R = 0$ ) for being a little influential in aqueous phase adsorption (Xu et al., 2013). Besides, it was considered that there is an SMX concentration gradient only in the longitudinal direction (z-axis) of the column. The variation of superficial velocity along the longitudinal direction of the bed was estimated using Eq. (2) (Babu and Gupta, 2005).

$$\rho \frac{\partial(v_s)}{\partial z} = - (1 - \varepsilon_b)\rho_b \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} \tag{2}$$

where  $\rho$  (kg/m<sup>3</sup>) is the density of the SMX solution. The adsorption kinetic model used in this study was the Linear driving force (LDF) model. In this model, the intrapellet diffusion rate is represented by a lumped mass transfer coefficient and is shown in Eq. (3) (Naidu and Mathews, 2021).

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} = K_i(q_e - q) \tag{3}$$

where,  $K_i$  (1/s) is the global mass transfer coefficient and  $q_e$  (mg/g) is the SMX concentration within the adsorbent particle at equilibrium. In Eq. (3),  $K_i$  combined both the film diffusion and intraparticle diffusion. Besides, within the intraparticle mass transfer, both surface diffusion and pore diffusion were considered, since both are simultaneously involved according to several studies (Kavand et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2013). Finally, the adsorption equilibrium model used was the Langmuir isotherm, Eq. (4), according to our previous batch studies carried out in our department (Zeas Solórzano and Zhunio Campoverde, 2019).

$$q_e = \frac{q_{max} k_L C_e}{1 + k_L C_e} \tag{4}$$

where,  $q_{max}$  (mg/g) is the maximum adsorption capacity,  $k_L$  (L/mg) is the energy constant related to the heat of adsorption, and  $C_e$  (mg/L) is the SMX concentration in the liquid phase at equilibrium. These equilibrium data were estimated at a temperature of 20 °C and are presented in Table 3.

2.2.1. Boundary and initial conditions

The boundary and initial conditions to solve Eqs. (1) and (3) are describing as follows (Danckwerts, 1953).

$$t = 0 : C = 0, q = 0 \quad (0 \leq z \leq Z) \tag{5}$$

$$z = 0 : \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} = \frac{v_s}{D_z} (C - C_0) \quad (t > 0) \tag{6}$$

$$z = Z : \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (t > 0) \tag{7}$$

The velocity boundary conditions are given by the following equations.

$$z = 0 : v_s = v_0 \quad (t > 0) \tag{8}$$

$$z = Z : \frac{\partial v_s}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (t > 0) \tag{9}$$

where  $z$  (cm) is the longitudinal direction of the column,  $Z$  (cm) is the bed height,  $C_0$  (mg/L) is the initial concentration of SMX at the top of the bed, and  $v_0$  (m/s) is the velocity of the SMX solution at the top of the bed (Babu and Gupta, 2005).

### 2.2.2. Parameters' estimation

Several additional parameters are necessary to solve the mechanistic model. Empirical correlations were used to estimate the axial dispersion coefficient  $D_z$ , the global mass transfer coefficient  $K_i$ , the film diffusion coefficient  $k_f$ , the SMX molecular diffusion coefficient  $D_m$ , the effective pore diffusion coefficient  $D_{ep}$ , the pore diffusion coefficient  $D_p$ , surface diffusion coefficient  $D_s$ , the tortuosity factor  $\tau_p$ , the Reynolds number  $Re$ , the Schmidt number  $Sc$ , and the Peclet number  $Pe$ . All these parameters were estimated using Eqs. (10)–(18) and are shown in Table 2.

Where,  $\epsilon_p$  is the particle porosity,  $d_p$  (m) and  $r_p$  (m) are the average diameter and average radius of the adsorbent particle,  $\alpha_A$  is a solvent association parameter,  $M_s$  (g/mol) is the molecular weight of the solvent,  $T$  (K) is the temperature of the SMX solution,  $V_m$  (cm<sup>3</sup>/mol) is the molar volume of SMX at its normal boiling point,  $\rho$  (kg/m<sup>3</sup>) and  $\mu$  (kg/m.s) are the density and dynamic viscosity of the SMX solution, and  $v_s$  (m/s) is the superficial velocity through the bed. The properties of SB and SMX used to estimate the parameters are described in Table 3. The methodology used to measure equilibrium (Zeas Solórzano and Zhunio Campoverde, 2019), fixed-bed parameters (Vera et al., 2016), and sugarcane bagasse properties (Juela, 2020; Peñafiel et al., 2021) is detailed in our previous studies.

**Table 2**  
Empirical correlations used to estimate the fixed-bed column parameters.

Parameter	Unit	Empirical correlation	Reference
$D_z$	m <sup>2</sup> /s	$\frac{v_s d_p}{D_z} = 0.2 + 0.011 \left( \frac{Re}{\epsilon_b} \right)^{0.48}$ (10)	Soriano et al. (2016)
$K_i$	1/s	$\frac{1}{K_i} = \frac{r_p}{3k_f} \frac{\rho_p q_0}{C_0} + \frac{r_p^2}{15\epsilon_p D_{ep}} \frac{\rho_p q_0}{C_0}$ (11)	Ruthven (1984)
$k_f$	m/s	$\frac{k_f d_p}{D_m} = 2 + 1.58 Re^{0.4} Sc^{1/3}$ (12)	Ohashi et al. (1981)
$D_m$	m <sup>2</sup> /s	$D_m = 7.4 * 10^{-8} \frac{(\alpha_A M_s)^{0.5} T}{\mu V_m^{0.6}}$ (13)	Wilke and Chang (1955)
$D_{ep}$	m <sup>2</sup> /s	$D_{ep} = \frac{D_s + D_p}{f'(C) \rho_b}$ (14)	Xu et al. (2013)
$D_p$	m <sup>2</sup> /s	$D_p = \frac{\epsilon_p D_m}{\tau_p}$ (15)	Xu et al. (2013)
$D_s$	m <sup>2</sup> /s	$\frac{15 D_s}{r_p^2} = 0.00129 \left( \frac{D_m C_0}{r_p^2 q_0} \right)^{1/2}$ (16)	Xu et al. (2013)
$\tau_p$	–	$\tau_p = \epsilon_p + 1.5(1 - \epsilon_p)$ (17)	Tavan et al. (2019)
Dimensionless numbers	–	$Re = \frac{d_p v_s \rho}{\mu}$ ; $Sc = \frac{\mu}{\rho D_m}$ ; $Pe = \frac{Z v_s}{D_z}$ (18)	(Perry and Green, 2008; Soriano et al., 2016)

### 2.3. Numerical solution

The model was implemented and solved numerically in Comsol Multiphysics V5.4. The module of partial differential equations (PDE) was used in this study; three PDE modules were used to represent the Eqs. (1)–(3), according to the methodology described by Aguilera and Ortiz (2016). The time-dependent and one-dimensional model was solved using the finite element method.

## 3. Materials and methods

### 3.1. Adsorbent and adsorbate

Raw SB was obtained from a local sugar mill in Azuay, Ecuador. Before their use in adsorption tests, SB was washed repeatedly with distilled water in order to remove impurities and residual sugars. Then, sugarcane marrow was dried in an oven at 60 °C for 8 h. Finally, the size of the fibers was reduced using a hammer mill and subsequent. Particles between 0.841 and 0.42 mm were used in adsorption experiments.

SMX with a purity of 99.00% supplied by Sigma-Aldrich was used in this study. Methanol of analytical grade Merck with a purity of 99.00% was used to dissolve SMX. The SMX solutions were prepared with distilled water and with 1% V/V methanol. All synthetic solutions had a concentration of 5 mg/L of SMX. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 6 with the addition of HCl (0.1 N) solution.

### 3.2. Packed column tests

A glass column with a size of 35 cm height and 2.2 cm internal diameter was used for the adsorption tests. The system was operated with downward flow, and at a temperature of 18 °C. For the experimental setup of the column, initially, 1 cm of gravel of 2 mm diameter was placed at the bottom of the column to prevent the adsorbent from being entrained by the solution, then the adsorbent previously weighed was introduced into the inside the column, then 1 cm of gravel of 2 mm diameter was placed on the top of the fixed bed in order to avoid the floating of the bed and provide a better distribution to the SMX solution. A peristaltic pump was used to pump the SMX solution up to the column inlet. SMX samples were periodically collected at the column outlet. The initial and residual concentrations of SMX were determined by the Visible Genesys 10S UV spectrophotometry technique from Thermo SCIENTIFIC, at a wavelength of 261 nm. The experimental



**Table 3**  
Properties of fixed-bed and SMX solution.

Parameter	Symbol	Value	Unit
Equilibrium data	Maximum adsorption capacity	$q_{max}$	1.52 mg/g
	Energy constant	$k_L$	0.02 L/mg
	Adsorption capacity at equilibrium	$q_0$	0.155 mg/g
Fixed-bed	Bulk density	$\rho_b$	70.2 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
	Bed diameter	$D$	0.022 m
	Bed porosity	$\epsilon_b$	0.63
Sugarcane bagasse	SB particle porosity	$\epsilon_p$	0.21
	SB particle density	$\rho_b$	1088.4 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
	Average particle diameter	$d_p$	$5.9 \times 10^{-4}$ m
	Specific surface area	$S$	2.55 m <sup>2</sup> /g
SMX solution	Molar volume of SMX	$V_m$	173.1 cm <sup>3</sup> /mol
	Density solution	$P$	998.6 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
	Solvent association parameter	$\alpha_A$	2.6
	Dynamic viscosity solution	$\mu$	0.001 kg/m.s

breakthrough curves were obtained under conditions of flow rates of 2, 5, and 7 mL/min, and bed heights of 15 and 25 cm. Finally, the breakthrough time ( $t_b \rightarrow C/C_0 = 0.05$ ), saturation time ( $t_s \rightarrow C/C_0 = 0.75$ ), the adsorption capacity  $q_e$  (mg/g), and the fraction of the saturated bed was estimated  $H_b$  (%).

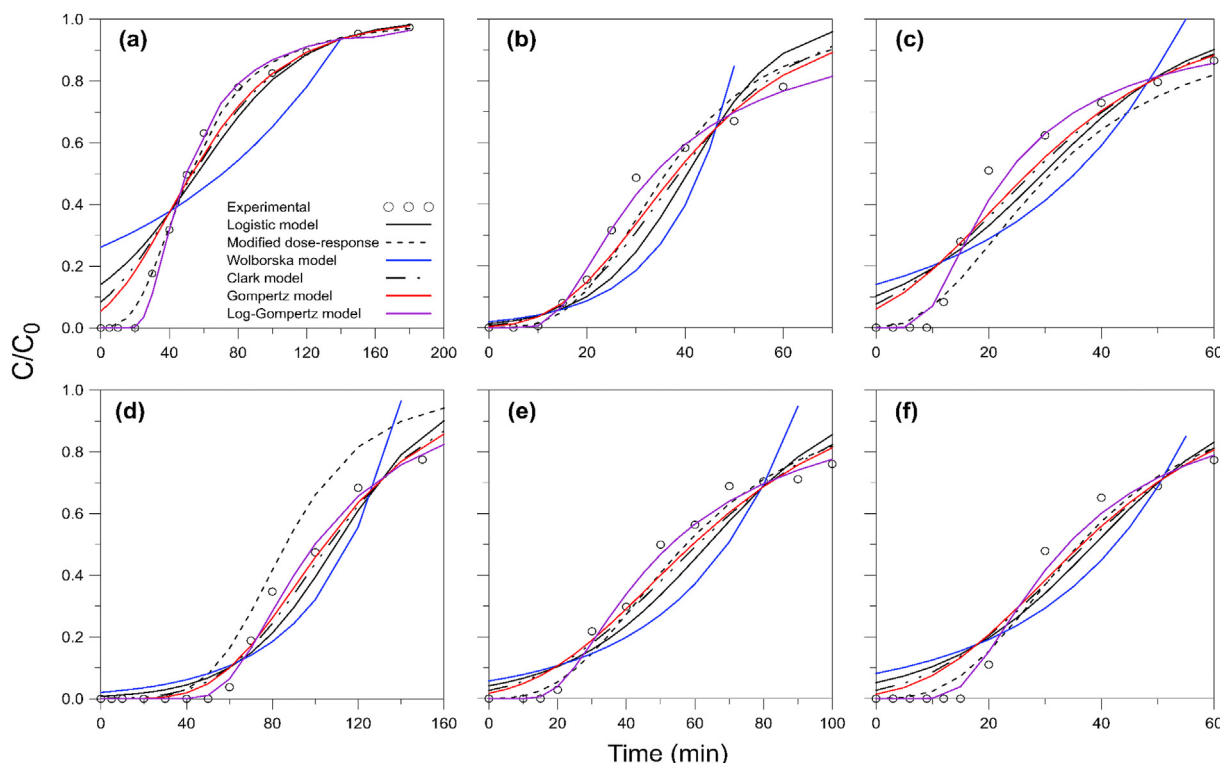
$$q_e = \frac{Q}{1000 m} \int_{t=0}^{t=t_s} C_R dt \tag{19}$$

$$H_b = \frac{Z t_b / t_s * 100}{Z} \tag{20}$$

**4. Results and discussion**

The SMX adsorption onto sugarcane bagasse was carried at

three flow rates (2, 5, and 7 mL/min) and two values of bed height (15 and 25 cm). Fig. 2a, b, and 2c show the experimental breakthrough curves at bed height of 15 cm and flow rates of 2, 5, and 7 mL/min, respectively. Whereas Fig. 2d, e, and 2f show the experimental breakthrough curves at bed height of 25 cm and flow rates of 2, 5, and 7 mL/min, respectively. The breakthrough and saturation times increase as the flow rate decreases (Table 4), hence the breakthrough and saturation times are greater at lower flow rates, it is because the interstitial velocity increases and the residence time of the SMX solution decreases as the flow rate increases (Babu and Gupta, 2005). Similarly, an increase in bed height significantly prolongs the breakthrough and saturation time of the column because there is a greater amount of adsorbent material available for SMX removal (Juela, 2020). Besides, the experimental adsorption capacity ( $q_e$ ) decreased with flow rate, but no particular trend was observed with the change of bed height. The maximum adsorption capacity was obtained under conditions of a flow rate of 2 mL/min and a bed height of 25 cm; similarly, at the same



**Fig. 2.** Experimental and predicted breakthrough curves at flow rates of 2, 5, and 7 mL/min, 15 cm (a, b, c) and 25 cm (d, e, f) of bed height.

**Table 4**  
Kinetic parameters of the seven analytical models.

Experimental	Q (mL/min)	2	5	7	2	5	7
	Z (cm)	15	15	15	25	25	25
	$q_e$ (mg/g)	0.203	0.188	0.163	0.231	0.172	0.132
	$t_b$ (min)	22.83	13.02	10.81	60.82	21.14	17.27
	$t_s$ (min)	75.96	57.24	43.03	141.82	97.79	57.25
	$H_b$ (%)	30.06	22.73	25.13	42.88	21.6	30.16
Logistic model	b	0.03	0.11	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.07
	a	1.81	4.32	2.17	4.82	3.14	2.91
	$R^2$	0.95	0.77	0.83	0.84	0.80	0.82
Yoon-Nelson model	$k_{YN}$ (1/min)	0.03	0.11	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.07
	$\tau$ (min)	56.08	40.51	29.64	109.78	63.85	38.76
Bohart-Adams model	$k_{BA}$ (L/mg min)	0.006	0.021	0.014	0.008	0.009	0.014
	$N_0$ (mg/L)	10.26	18.29	18.49	12.18	17.22	14.51
Thomas model	$k_{Th}$ (L/mg min)	0.006	0.021	0.014	0.008	0.009	0.014
	$q_F$ (mg/g)	0.146	0.261	0.264	0.181	0.256	0.215
Wolborska model	$\beta$ (1/min)	0.05	0.35	0.24	0.08	0.15	0.18
	$q_F$ (mg/g)	0.154	0.135	0.195	0.089	0.142	0.126
	$R^2$	0.65	0.63	0.62	0.68	0.66	0.70
Modified dose-response model	$a'$	2.78	3.35	2.30	4.50	2.72	2.90
	$q_F$ (mg/g)	0.14	0.23	0.28	0.14	0.23	0.20
	$R^2$	0.99	0.93	0.93	0.91	0.94	0.92
Clark model	$r$ (1/min)	0.028	0.067	0.057	0.031	0.034	0.056
	B	0.90	2.68	0.96	5.20	1.57	1.56
	$R^2$	0.98	0.89	0.89	0.91	0.88	0.87
Gompertz model	$\beta_G$ (1/min)	0.027	0.056	0.052	0.027	0.029	0.049
	$\alpha_G$	1.07	1.77	1.03	2.46	1.40	1.45
	$R^2$	0.98	0.93	0.92	0.94	0.91	0.89
Log-Gompertz model	$\beta_G$ (1/min)	2.29	1.66	1.60	2.71	1.58	1.89
	$\alpha_G$	8.57	5.49	4.65	12.09	5.92	6.30
	$R^2$	0.98	0.99	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.96

conditions, the highest fraction of the saturated bed was obtained. Besides,  $H_b$  increased with bed height in most cases, but no clear effect was observed with the change of flow rate. Considering these parameters, the optimal operative conditions, where the best performance of the sugarcane bagasse to remove SMX is achieved, were 2 mL/min of flow rate and 25 cm of bed height.

#### 4.1. Fit with analytical models

The six experimental tests were fitted to seven analytical models; the predicted breakthrough curves by the models are shown in Fig. 2. The correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) and the kinetic parameters of each model are shown in Table 4. As can be seen, high correlation coefficients  $R^2 > 0.90$  were obtained with the Log-Gompertz and Modified dose-response models for all the adsorption tests, being the Log-Gompertz model the one that best reproduced the experimental data. The Clark and Gompertz models had also a good fit with the experimental data, their  $R^2$  values are between 0.87 and 0.98. For the Logistic model, which groups the Yoon Nelson, Thomas, and Bohart-Adam models,  $R^2$  values were obtained in the range of 0.77–0.95, while the worst fit was obtained with the Wolborska model with  $R^2 < 0.69$ . In other words, the  $R^2$  values obtained with kinetic models which provide asymmetric breakthrough curves (the Log-Gompertz and Modified dose-response, Clark, and Gompertz models) were higher than the models which represent symmetric sigmoidal curves (the Yoon Nelson, Thomas, and Bohart-Adam models) (Hu et al., 2020).

In Fig. 2, the predicted breakthrough curves by the Modified dose-response model were very close to the experimental curve. This model also had a good fit in the SMX adsorption with other adsorbents (Jaria et al., 2019). At conditions of 2 mL/min of flow rate and 15 cm of bed height, this model provides a high fit with the experimental curve, especially in the transitory and saturation

zone; when the conditions change, the breakthrough curves of this model only coincide with the experimental data in the initial region, and for this reason, the correlation coefficient values are lower. The breakthrough curves predicted by the Clark and Gompertz models were very similar for all experimental tests. According to Hu et al. (2020) the Clark model will generate asymmetric breakthrough curves when the parameter  $n \neq 2$ ; in this study,  $n = 1.2$  (Zeas Solórzano and Zhunio Campoverde, 2019) indicates that the breakthrough curves are asymmetric and therefore have an acceptable fit with the experimental data. While the Wolborska model had not a good agreement with the experimental data in any region. Generally, this model is suitable to reproduce the initial region of the breakthrough curve ( $C/C_0 < 0.5$ ), but in this case, its adjustment was low even in this region; this means that the SMX adsorption is not controlled by film diffusion (Das et al., 2020).

Of all analytical models analyzed in this study, the Log-Gompertz model was the one that best reproduced the experimental data; the predicted breakthrough curves coincide with the experimental data in most of the trajectory, but it was more accurate in the initial region of the curve where the rest of models failed. This model recently adopted for adsorption processes has also shown a good correlation with the breakthrough data in the adsorption of metals and dyes (Chu, 2020b). Chu (2020b) also proved that this model is better than the Logistic (the Thomas, Bohart-Adams, and Yoon-Nelson models) and Gompertz models, and this research work shows that this model can even have a better fit than the popular Modified dose-response model. The main justification for these results is that the Log-Gompertz model was developed to fit asymmetric breakthrough curves, such as those obtained in this study, whereas the Bohart-Adams, Thomas, and Yoon-Nelson models only predict symmetric sigmoidal curves, which is a great drawback for adsorption studies with asymmetric data (Darweesh and Ahmed, 2017; Reynel-Avila et al., 2015).

Although the equations of the Gompertz and modified dose-response models also are essentially asymmetric, their fit is not enough especially in the initial and final region of the breakthrough curve; this happens when the experimental curve exhibits a pronounced degree of tailing (Chu, 2020b). On the other hand, the Log-Gompertz model, which is a modified version of the Gompertz model, is able to effectively model a strong asymmetry because it transforms the independent variable  $t$  (from the Gompertz model) to the term  $\ln(t)$ , which improves the fit with the breakthrough data in the initial and final region.

A drawback of the Log-Gompertz and Gompertz models is that their parameters do not provide valuable information regarding the adsorption process; that is because there is not a mechanistic undertone behind these models. The equation of the Gompertz model equation was initially developed to explain the human mortality curve, and therefore, it is not based on any assumptions regarding adsorption mechanisms (Gompertz, 1825). Accordingly, its parameters do not elucidate useful information on the dominant mechanisms in the adsorption of SMX onto SB. However, it was observed that these parameters change as the operating conditions of the fixed-bed column change; Both  $\beta_G$  and  $\alpha_G$  of the Log-Gompertz model decrease with increasing flow rate, but increasing with bed height. Although the same parameters with the Gompertz model did not show a clear trend with changes in flow rate and bed height.

In most cases, the kinetic constant of the Bohart-Adams and Thomas models increased with flow rate, hence the bed saturation is rapid at high flow rates (Jaria et al., 2019). Similarly, the time in which SMX in the effluent reaches 50% of the initial concentration ( $\tau$ ), in the Yoon-Nelson model, decreases with the increase in the flow rate but increases with the increase in the bed height. This is logical as the experimental breakthrough curves shift to the right with decreasing flow rate and increasing bed depth. A similar effect was observed in the adsorption of tetracycline with active carbon (Marzbali and Esmaili, 2017).

Both Modified dose-response and Thomas models assume no axial dispersion, external and internal diffusion resistances extremely small, and the second-order reversible reaction kinetics. Although both of these models are based on the same assumptions, their adjustment to the experimental data is different; this is due to the modified dose-response model was proposed to minimize the mathematical errors of the Thomas model equation, for this reason, this model gives a better adjustment to the experimental data (Yan

et al., 2001). Despite the best fitting of the Modified dose-response model, the adsorption capacity determined by this model in some cases is higher and in other cases is lower than experimentally ones (Table 4). Besides, a decrease of  $q_F$  values of the Modified dose-response model when increasing the flow rate was expected, just as it happened in experimentation, but it was not observed. The same happened with the adsorption capacity predicted by the Thomas and Wolborska models; this behavior has been also observed in other studies (Dorado et al., 2014; Jaria et al., 2019). Regarding the amount of adsorbate retained per bed volume ( $N_0$ ) of the Bohart-Adams model, it also should decrease as the flow rate increases, but it had a similar effect to  $q_F$  in the Thomas and Modified dose-response models. In all cases, no direct effect on  $q_F$  and  $N_0$  was observed with bed height. Similar to other models, the parameters  $r$  and  $B$  of the Clark model have no clear relationship with the change of flow rate and bed height.

#### 4.2. Comparison of the best analytical model with the mechanistic model

The dynamic behavior of the SMX in the column packed with SB was also studied with a theoretical mechanistic model, which is based on the film and intraparticle diffusions, and on the axial dispersion phenomenon. This mechanistic model was compared with the best-fit analytical model (Log-Gompertz model), and the sum squared errors (SSE) and the correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) were used as error functions to analyze the fit between experimental and predicted breakthrough curves. The experimental and predicted breakthrough curves by the Log-Gompertz and mechanistic models are shown in Fig. 3, while the values of SSE and  $R^2$  for both models are shown in Table 5.

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i,cal} - x_{i,meas})^2 \quad (21)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i,cal} - x_{i,meas})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i,meas} - \bar{x})^2} \quad (22)$$

The  $C/C_0$  values predicted by the theoretical model agree well with the experimental data, as good as the Log-Gompertz model. However, the predicted curves with the analytical model are more consistent, especially in the initial and final region of the

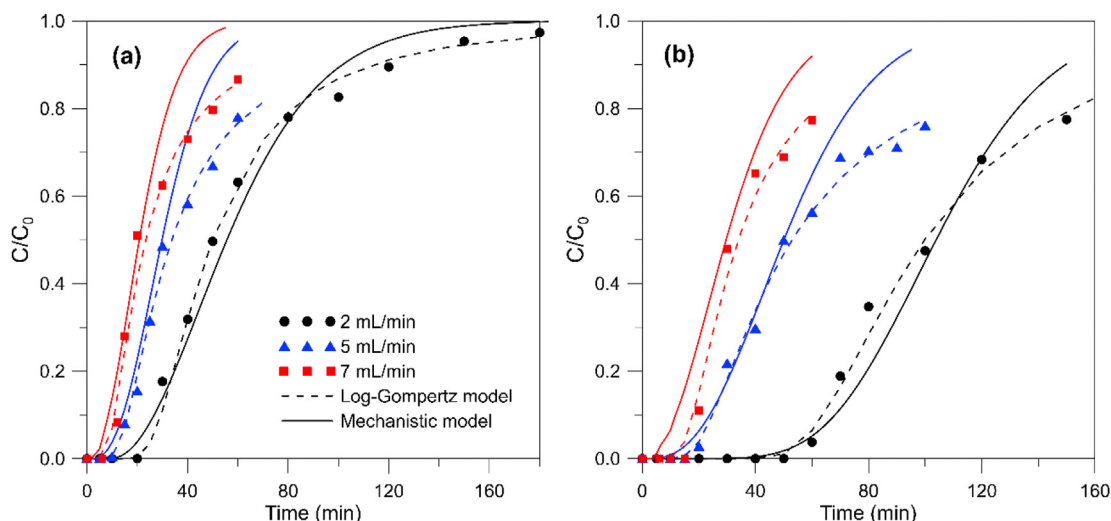


Fig. 3. Experimental and predicted breakthrough curves by the Log-Gompertz and mechanistic models at 15 cm (a) and 25 cm (b) of bed height.



**Table 5**  
Error functions for Log-Gompertz and mechanistic models.

Test	Q (mL/min)	Z (cm)	Log-Gompertz model		Mechanistic model	
			SSE	R <sup>2</sup>	SSE	R <sup>2</sup>
1	2	15	0.007	0.996	0.026	0.987
2	5	15	0.006	0.993	0.127	0.887
3	7	15	0.016	0.987	0.099	0.922
4	2	25	0.007	0.992	0.043	0.957
5	5	25	0.008	0.993	0.118	0.892
6	7	25	0.011	0.989	0.113	0.895

breakthrough curve; whereas the mechanistic model does not accurately correlate with experimental data in the final region of the curve. While in the transitional stage both models show a good fit. The breakthrough and saturation times of simulated curves with the theoretical model are less than the experimental ones, which theoretically represents a fast adsorption rate of SMX. Conversely, these operating times were very similar to the curves predicted by the analytical model. The R<sup>2</sup> and SSE values are given in Table 5. The predicted breakthrough curve by the Log-Gompertz model has higher R<sup>2</sup> values (R<sup>2</sup> > 0.98) and lower SSE values (SSE < 0.016) than the mechanistic model in all tests; this confirms that the analytical model fits better with experimental breakthrough data. Even though the R<sup>2</sup> and SSE values were lower than the analytical model, the theoretical model proposed for the SMX adsorption onto SB predicts the breakthrough curves with acceptable precision; correlation coefficients higher than 0.87 and SSE values lower than 0.13 were obtained, and according to the values of these statistical indicators, predicted results are not highly consistent with experimental data (William Kajjumba et al., 2019). A noticeable deviation between breakthrough data and the mechanistic breakthrough curve was obtained in the final region. The main reason may be the tail behavior of the experimental breakthrough curves; this phenomenon has been observed in other mechanistic models where the simulated curve does not converge with the final region of the experimental data (Chu, 2020b; Izquierdo et al., 2010; Vera et al., 2021). Many authors suggest that the factors responsible for the tailing behavior should be included in the mechanistic model to get better breakthrough curves (Chu, 2020b). Although the mechanistic model does not provide great precision in the final region, it showed a good correlation in the initial and transition stage of the curves, which could be useful because in the practice the adsorbent is replaced in the breakthrough time. Correlation coefficients higher than 0.92, and sum squared errors less than 0.06 were

obtained up to C/C<sub>0</sub> of 0.6.

Although the breakthrough curves predicted by the Log-Gompertz model had a good correlation with the experimental ones, the good similarity between the results of the mechanistic model and the experimental results is encouraging and supports the precision of the assumptions made, empirical correlations used, and model parameters calculated. Furthermore, when comparing both models, it should be considered that the mechanistic model is a theoretical model that for its application only requires basic information, i.e. adsorbent and adsorbate properties, and operating conditions. Hence, a breakthrough curve can be simulated without prior experimentation. Whereas the analytical model requires breakthrough data, that is, it is necessarily necessary to carry out experimental adsorption studies before its application. Hence, this model is only a simple tool for experimental data fitting, without providing useful information regarding the main mechanisms involved in the adsorption process. Furthermore, as we discussed previously, their parameters do not show a clear relationship with the change in operating conditions, and these in certain cases have different behavior from those observed in experimentation; hence their practical usefulness is questionable. Undoubtedly, to understand better the complex mechanisms of adsorption, it is necessary to develop more rigorous mechanics models. The mechanistic model proposed in this study was validated with lab-scale column experiments and showed a good agreement with the experimental data; therefore, the same model can be used with confidence to predict the breakthrough curves for the same adsorbent/adsorbate system on large scale columns, such as pilot or industrial adsorption columns. In this way, it would be possible to estimate breakthrough and saturations times on these columns and compare them with conventional activated carbon columns. For these reasons, for the purposes of design, scaling, and optimization of adsorption columns the mechanistic models have shown to be more useful (Burkert et al., 2011; Unuabonah et al., 2019).

4.3. Mechanistic model parameters and the relative importance of axial dispersion

In Fig. 3a and b, the breakthrough curves were simulated with values of global mass transfer coefficient (K<sub>i</sub>) and axial dispersion coefficient (D<sub>z</sub>) determined using the empirical correlations presented in the Eqs. (10) and (11), without using the experimental data shown. Both K<sub>i</sub> and D<sub>z</sub> vary with feed flow rate but remain invariant with bed height as shown in Fig. 4a and Table 6. The justification for this is because the K<sub>i</sub> and D<sub>z</sub> values are estimated by

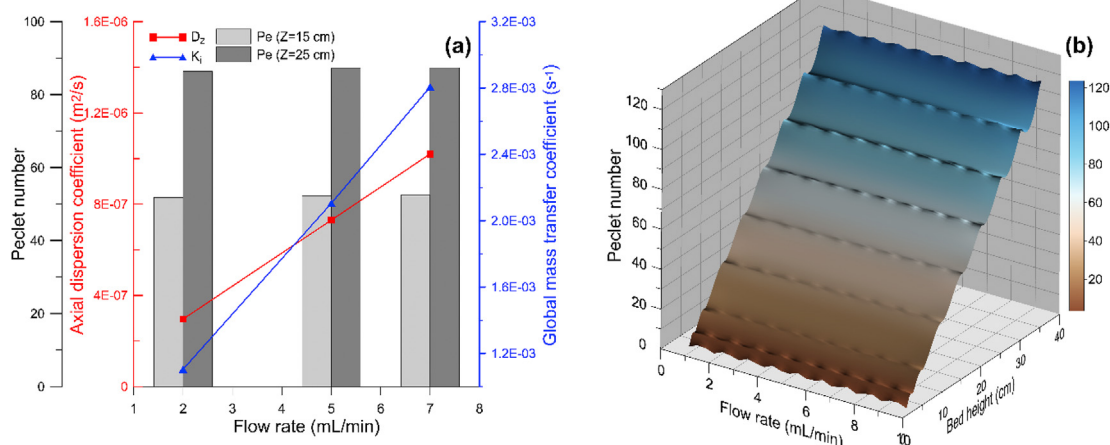


Fig. 4. Variation of the global mass transfer and axial dispersion coefficients (a), and the Peclet number (b) with flow rate and bed height.

**Table 6**  
Film diffusion and intraparticle diffusion parameters.

Q (mL/min)	H (cm)	$k_f \times 10^{-6}$ (m/s)	$D_s \times 10^{-12}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /s)	$D_p \times 10^{-12}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /s)	$D_{ep} \times 10^{-12}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /s)	$K_i \times 10^{-3}$ (1/s)	$D_z \times 10^{-7}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /s)	$\gamma_p$	$\gamma_f$
2	15	6.61	3.86	9.89	6.68	1.10	2.96	0.26	0.15
5	15	8.46	3.86	9.89	6.68	2.11	7.30	0.66	0.29
7	15	9.33	3.86	9.89	6.68	2.81	10.2	0.92	0.38

empirical correlations that only consider the hydrodynamic conditions, depending mainly on the fluid velocity for any adsorbate-adsorbent system (Lin et al., 2017; Saadi et al., 2019). The parameter  $K_i$  combined both the film diffusion and intraparticle diffusion; the film diffusion coefficient lowered with increasing flow rates indicating that the external mass transfer resistance is less influential (Quek and Al-Duri, 2007). On the other hand, the surface diffusion and pore diffusion coefficients remained constant for the variation in flow rate and bed height (Table 6). The Peclet number ( $Pe$ ) was also affected by the change in flow rate and bed height (Fig. 4a and b),  $Pe$  increases proportionally with both flow rate and bed height, although the change was more significant with the bed height (from 51.8 to 86.3 when it goes from 15 to 25 cm) than the flow rate (from 51.8 to 52.44 when it goes from 2 to 7 mL/min); this happens because the Peclet number is based on the length of the fixed-bed (Eq. (18)).

Additionally, the relative importance of axial dispersion was assessed by comparison with the other rate mechanisms (i.e. intraparticle diffusion and external film mass transfer); the parameters  $\gamma_p$  and  $\gamma_f$  were used, represented in Eq. (23) and showed in Table 6 (Cooney, 1991).

$$\gamma_p = \left[ \frac{\alpha^2(1 - \epsilon_b)}{15\epsilon_b} \right] \left( \frac{r_p^2 K}{D_{ep} D_z} \right) \tag{23}$$

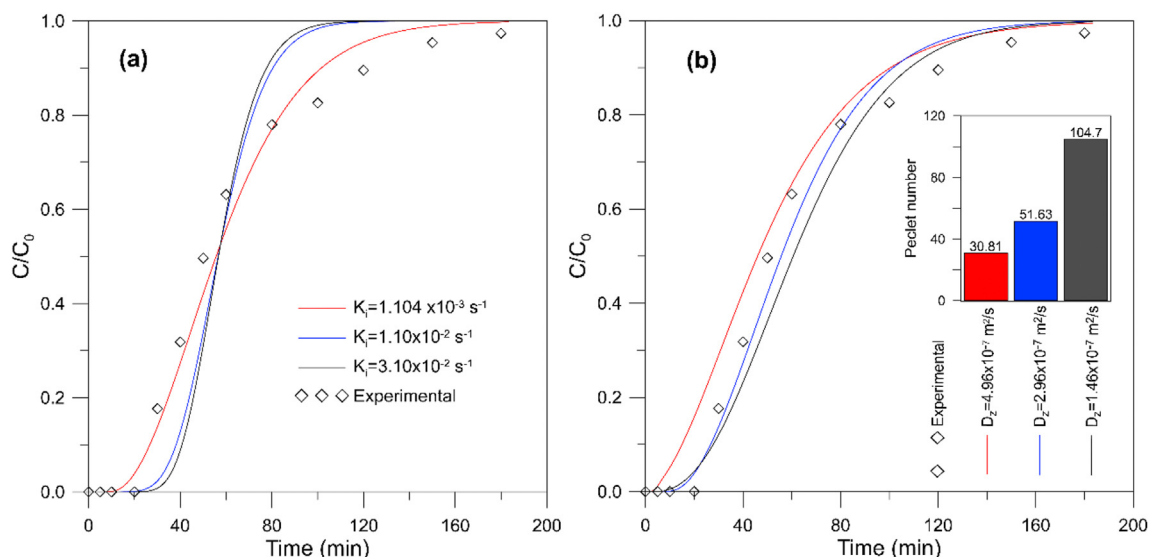
$$\gamma_f = \left[ \frac{\alpha^2(1 - \epsilon_b)}{3\epsilon_b} \right] \left( \frac{r_p K^2}{k_f D_z} \right)$$

where  $K$  is the distribution ratio equal to  $q_0/C_0$ ,  $\alpha$  is the velocity of constant pattern front, and it was estimated with the correlation of Cooney (1991). As Cooney (1991) has shown, when  $\gamma$  values are higher than 1, axial dispersion can safely be ignored. However, for this study, the parameters  $\gamma_p$  and  $\gamma_f$  were lower than 1 for all

studies; so, in this case, the axial dispersion would be significant. The axial dispersion phenomenon usually is neglected for liquid-phase systems, but many studies have shown that when the particle sizes and/or the flow rates are much smaller than usual, the parameters  $\gamma_p$  and  $\gamma_f$  could very easily be on the order of 1 or less, in which case axial dispersion would be significant as it happens in this study (Davila-Guzman et al., 2016; Díaz-Blancas et al., 2020; Franco et al., 2020; Saadi et al., 2015). Additionally, in all tests  $\gamma_f < \gamma_p$ , which means that the interparticle diffusion is more relevant than film diffusion, and the difference between  $\gamma_p$  and  $\gamma_f$  is higher as flow rate increases (Cooney, 1991).

Finally, a sensitivity analysis was developed in order to evaluate the relative importance of the global mass transfer coefficient and axial dispersion coefficient in the prediction of the breakthrough curves. The effect of  $K_i$  on the breakthrough curves was studied by varying  $K_i$  from its base value ( $0.0011 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , estimated for the simulated breakthrough curves at 2 mL/min), while the value of the axial dispersion coefficient remained constant at  $2.96 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ . Three  $K_i$  values were used, which were calculated using Eq. (10). The influence of  $K_i$  on the breakthrough curves is shown in Fig. 5a. A similar analysis was performed for  $D_z$ . Three  $D_z$  values were studied, starting from its base value ( $2.96 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ , used in the simulated curves at 2 mL/min) while the  $K_i$  value was kept constant at  $0.0011 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Fig. 5b shows the results obtained.

The variation of  $K_i$  from  $0.0011$  to  $0.011 \text{ s}^{-1}$  produces an increase in the breakthrough times and a decrease in the saturation times; this is mainly due to the increase in the slope of the breakthrough curve as  $K_i$  increases. According to the LDF kinetic model, the adsorption rate of SMX is directly proportional to the mass transfer coefficient, hence high  $K_i$  values increase the adsorption rate; increasing  $K_i$  also means that the external film resistance, and diffusion and intraparticle resistances decrease; so the saturation rate increases rapidly (Xu et al., 2013). Something that is also



**Fig. 5.** Effect of global mass transfer coefficient (a) and axial dispersion coefficient (b) on the predicted breakthrough curves.

evident is that the rise in  $K_i$  causes the curves to start to converge after a certain value. In Fig. 5a, the curve of  $K_i = 0.011 \text{ s}^{-1}$  is very close and practically coincident to the curve of  $K_i = 0.031 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , despite the notable difference in the values of the global mass transfer coefficient. Which could mean that for higher values of  $K_i$  the curves will overlap, and the variation in the SMX adsorption rate would become smaller and smaller. As a result, for a higher value of  $K_i$ , the adsorption rate could be roughly constant. Similar results were obtained in other fixed-bed column adsorption simulations (Aguilera and Gutiérrez Ortiz, 2016; Shekhar, 2014).

The axial dispersion coefficient groups the effects of turbulence, flow division, and reincorporation around particles, Taylor dispersion, channeling, and wall effects suffered by the fluid when circulating through the porous bed (Lin et al., 2017). In Fig. 5b, the increase in  $D_z$  from  $1.46 \times 10^{-7}$  to  $4.96 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$  causes the breakthrough and saturation times to shift to the left, causing saturation of the bed in a shorter time and lower adsorption capacities. This behavior of the breakthrough curve is reasonable since at high values of  $D_z$  the effects of axial mixing will be considerable, reducing the efficiency in the adsorption process and producing a rapid saturation of the bed (Aguilera and Gutiérrez Ortiz, 2016). Another important effect on the variation of  $D_z$  is reflected in  $Pe$ . From Fig. 5b, it is observed that when  $D_z$  decreases from  $4.96 \times 10^{-7}$  to  $1.46 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ,  $Pe$  increases from 30.81 to 104.7. Furthermore, with  $D_z$  values less than  $1.46 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ,  $Pe$  will be sufficiently greater than 100 and the axial dispersion phenomenon will not have any influence on the breakthrough curves. If the axial dispersion were neglected in the simulation ( $D_z = 0 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ), the breakthrough curve obtained would be very similar to that obtained with  $D_z = 1.46 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ , and it would differ significantly from the simulated curve with axial dispersion ( $D_z = 2.96 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ ). Therefore, it can be inferred again that the axial dispersion phenomenon is significant in the SMX adsorption with SB. This may be the main reason why the breakthrough curves predicted by analytical models are not accurate and differ from the experimental data, since most of these models do not take this phenomenon into account (Unuabonah et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2013).

## 5. Conclusions

Experimental breakthrough curves at different flow rates and bed heights were used to fit the classical analytical models. The Modified dose-response and Log-Gompertz models were the two best that showed good capabilities for breakthrough data fitting. However, their kinetic parameters did not provide relevant information about the adsorption process of SMX on SB, and in certain cases, these parameters had a different behavior from that observed in the experimentation. The Log-Gompertz model, which was the one that best reproduced the experimental asymmetric breakthrough curves, was compared with a mechanistic model that accounts for external and intraparticle diffusion, and axial dispersion. Both models showed good agreement with experimental data, being the Log-Gompertz model that showed a slightly better fit. Useful parameters such as the global mass transfer coefficient, axial dispersion coefficient, pore diffusion coefficient, and surface diffusion coefficient were estimated with the mechanistic model. Finally, the model showed the importance of the axial dispersion in the SMX adsorption on a lab scale. This model can be used with confidence for purposes of design, scaling, and optimization of adsorption columns.

## Credit author statement

Diego Juela: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original

draft, Writing – review & editing. Mayra Vera: Methodology, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization. Christian Cruzat: Investigation, Formal analysis. Ximena Alvarez: Investigation. Eulalia Vanegas: Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Validation, Resources, Funding acquisition, Project administration.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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