

Communication

Removal of Anionic Surfactants in Aqueous Solutions with *Moringa Oleifera* Seed Extract Coagulant

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Abstract: *Moringa oleifera* seed extract was confirmed as a feasible coagulant in removing surfactants from aqueous effluents. Amongst them, long-chain anionic detergents such as *Polyoxyethylene (3.5) sodium lauryl ether sulfate* (SLES) was selected as a model compound for evaluating the coagulation response. The system coagulant-detergent was stable with different temperatures and pH, and the efficiency was very promising. *Moringa oleifera* was an effective coagulant since it was capable to reach up to $0.245 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}$ coagulation capacity according to Gu-Zhu model. Design of experiments presented an optimum combination of coagulant dosage and initial surfactant concentration of $234 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ and $76 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ respectively.

Keywords: surfactants; *Moringa oleifera*; coagulation; wastewater treatment; natural coagulants

1. Introduction

Emerging pollutants are a rising problem nowadays, especially regarding water resources and their fragility, which is more than evident. United Nations and World Health Organization have alert the international community about the growing menace of water scarcity or the uncontrolled disposal of pollutants in aqueous effluents [1]. If considered as an affecting parameter to human lives, water question is surely one of the main factors that are involved in the human development. Water is a central point in a wide cycle that links human beings, poverty, health and education and obviously its implications towards the human development are crucial. Global present world has a double challenge regarding

20 water management: on the one hand water resources may be optimised in order to guarantee an adequate
21 availability for the large majority of the people; on the other hand, water remediation must be a constant
22 task to work on all along the world.

23 When talking about emerging pollutants one may refer a wide group of chemical families. The term
24 *surfactants* involves perhaps one of the main dangerous and noxious contaminants. Due to their multiple
25 applications, surfactants are nowadays omnipresent compounds in modern life and they can be found in
26 a large variety of everyday products: soaps, detergents, pharmaceuticals, personal care products, etc., but
27 are also employed in other industrial fields that surely make their disposal into the environment a major
28 task to take care of: high-technology devices, paints, and leather production [2]. These are the reasons
29 last data reported that more than 12 M tonnes are used annually and consequently the magnitude of such
30 contamination, especially to aqueous environment, is very relevant [3].

31 Surfactants may cause dangerous destabilization on aqueous flora and fauna. According to previous
32 literature, detergents and other tensioactive may modify environmental equilibrium by contaminating
33 lakes and groundwater [4]. Moreover, they usually present a synergistic binding effect on pharmaceuti-
34 cals, hence the impact of such chemicals and their toxicity for both humans and animals is consideraby
35 increased [5].

36 Obviously, there already exist several methods for removing surfactants from aqueous effluents. The
37 principal ones may involve chemical association [7], electrochemical removal [8] or adsorption on ac-
38 tivated carbon [6]. But there is still a challenge on developing new removal methods that may be even
39 cheaper and easy to apply. The great impact of surfactants nowadays is claiming for more research
40 efforts.

41 Removing surfactants from water flows has become a priority of many research groups. As is known,
42 there are several types of surfactant depending on their ionic character: anionic, cationic, amphoteric,
43 non-ionic, etc. Amongst them, the most ubiquitous tensioactives are anionic ones, and particularly those
44 with long carbon chain [9]. In them, the risk of bioaccumulation of sulfonated surfactants, such as
45 polyoxyethylene (3.5) sodium lauryl ether sulfate (SLES), has been fully characterized [10].

46 We have been researching on *Moringa oleifera* as a water treatment agent for several years. As
47 a tropical multi-purpose tree, *Moringa oleifera* presents very interesting properties from the point of
48 view of developing cooperation, as it is a widespread, easy-available water treatment method. It is
49 known that the use of *Moringa oleifera* as water treatment can imply two different ways: a) One as
50 a primary source of activated carbon [11,12] and b) Another one through seed extraction, by which a
51 coagulant product is obtained [13–15]. This last method is rather more effective and accurate, as we
52 have previously pointed out [16–18]. The main strenght of this treatment process lays on the fact that
53 it is not technologically difficult to operate by non-qualified personnel, it is easy to work with and it is
54 free from external dependency of reagents, as it would happen with other products ($\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$, FeCl_3).
55 Because of those reasons, Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) recommended it as proper and
56 advisable way for treating water [19].

57 In the current global world, environmental aspects do not belong to particular geographical areas,
58 but they are international concerns. Therefore, economical and availability criteria must be taken into
59 account if we want to present a universal possibility of becoming clean [20]. In this sense, *Moringa*
60 *oleifera* seed coagulant may be an advanced water treatment which is cheaper and biodegradable, easy

61 to handle by non qualified personnel and, consequently, adequate for situations of low technological
62 development.

63 The current work presents a study on the removal of the specific contaminant SLES from aqueous
64 effluents. Polluted waters (such as those linked to laundry industry) have been subjected to coagulant
65 action of *Moringa oleifera* seed extract. After two preliminary screening of coagulant action of the seed
66 extract in comparison with other coagulants and with other surfactants, the process has been studied
67 under three complementary points of view: firstly a traditional study of the influence of several working
68 variables was performed (coagulant dosage, initial surfactant concentration, pH and temperature). Then,
69 the surfactant-coagulant system was studied according to a statistical design of experiments for identify-
70 ing interactions between variables. Theoretical models were finally applied as a mandatory stage prior
71 to pilot plant implementation.

72 2. Results and Discussion

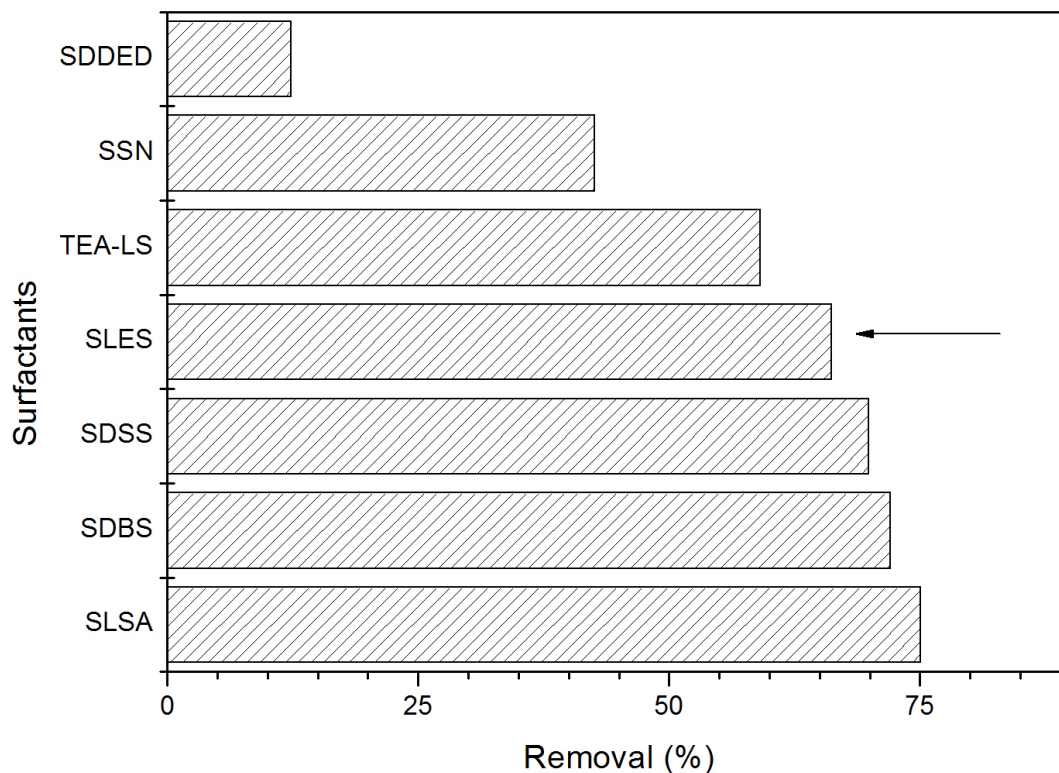
73 As said before, this investigation presents four parts: 1) the preliminary evaluation of the coagulant ac-
74 tivity of *Moringa oleifera* seed extract with several surfactants and in comparison with other products, 2)
75 the evaluation of some relevant variables in these coagulant-surfactant systems, such as pH, temperature
76 or coagulant dosage, 3) the study of the interaction between variables according to the Response Surface
77 Methodology in a design of experiments, 4) finally, a theoretical model is proposed for explaining the
78 coagulant phenomenon.

79 2.1. Preliminary screenings

80 Two different screenings were carried out: one for comparing the ability of *Moringa oleifera* in the
81 removal of different surfactants and another one regarding the comparison between the extract and other
82 coagulants. This last study was subjected to ANOVA tests for confirming replicability of the coagulation
83 process.

84 Removal of different surfactants

85 A fixed dose of ca. $160 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of coagulant was applied to different solutions of detergents with a
86 surfactant concentration of ca. $50 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$. The percentage removal of each effluent is represented in
87 figure 1. As can be clearly appreciated, the large majority of surfactants are easily removable through
88 coagulation. SDDDED presented a more refractory nature, maybe due to the presence of two sulfonate
89 groups in both extremes of the carbon chain, that might difficult the electrostatic neutralization with
90 the cationic proteins of the coagulant [27]. Moreover, the weight and length of each surfactant can
91 affect to the affinity coagulant-detergent, since the performance of the removal of SNS was significantly
92 lower than the rest. This was also observed in similar trials and previous studies [28]. The rest of the
93 surfactants presented a more similar performance from 60-75%, an interesting and promising removal
94 rate that surely must be studied in further works.

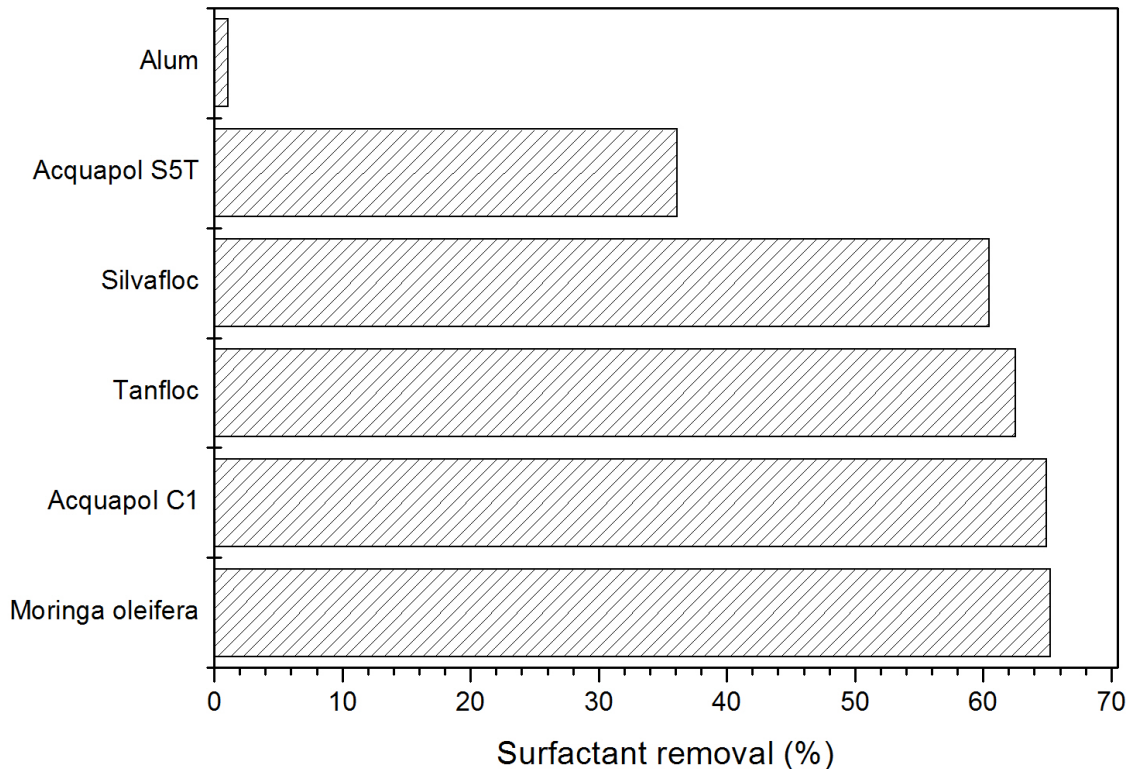
Figure 1. Preliminary screening for surfactant removal with *Moringa oleifera* seed extract.

95 Comparison with other coagulants

96 In order to confirm the feasibility of *Moringa oleifera* coagulant for water and wastewater treatment,
97 it is needed to compare the effectiveness of such product with other similar and traditional coagulants.
98 That is the case of natural coagulants based on tannin extracts (Silvafloc, Tanfloc, Acquapol C1 and
99 S5T) and the classical aluminium metal salt (namely *alum*). To this end, equal doses of coagulant (160
100 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) were applied to solutions of ca. $50 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of detergent. Each trial was performed twice in
101 order to confirm the reproducibility of this study. Figure 2 shows the results whereas the replicability of
102 the trial is presented in figure 3.

103 As both figures depict, the efficiency of *Moringa oleifera* seed extract is place in the first level of per-
104 formance, it reaches 65% of SLES removal. On the contrary, alum is the least effective coagulant, which
105 presents almost null removal. The rest of coagulants are rather effective with significant differences
106 between Acquapol S5T and the rest of them. These differences may be attributed to the specific pro-
107 duction process of each coagulant (in the case of Acquapol S5T it is presumably the aminomethylation
108 of *Acacia mearnsii*) and to the purification level of the main material (tannin extract).

109 On the other hand, the reproducibility of the trial is well guaranteed since ANOVA test for indistin-
110 guishability presented a p-value of 0.90 related to the variable *replicate*. That means this variable does
111 not explain the model (since it is above 0.05, which is the significance level), consequently there is no
112 difference between replicates and the experiment is fully reproducible (figure 3).

Figure 2. Comparison with other coagulants.

113 2.2. Influence of variables

114 A classical evaluation of the influence of different variables was carried out regarding coagulant
 115 dosage, initial surfactant concentration, pH and temperature in the general Jar test. These series are
 116 presented in figure 4.

117 We have worked on the hypothesis that surfactant removal by coagulation process may involve two
 118 stages. This conjecture is adopted in previous similar works [28]. This process may involve a first desta-
 119 bilization of colloids, probably ruled by chemical interactions between coagulant molecules (cationic,
 120 positive charged) and contaminant molecules (anionic, negative charged); and a second stage when the
 121 complex coagulant-surfactant is formed. Then, flocks begin to grow by sorption mechanisms and when
 122 certain flock size is reached, they begin to settle by gravity. The adsorption phase should be the control-
 123 ling stage, so the whole process can be simulated as an adsorption phenomenon. Other similar hypothesis
 124 are made and applied previously [29]. So that, adsorption capacity q is included as a measure of the ef-
 125 ficiency of the process. q is defined as:

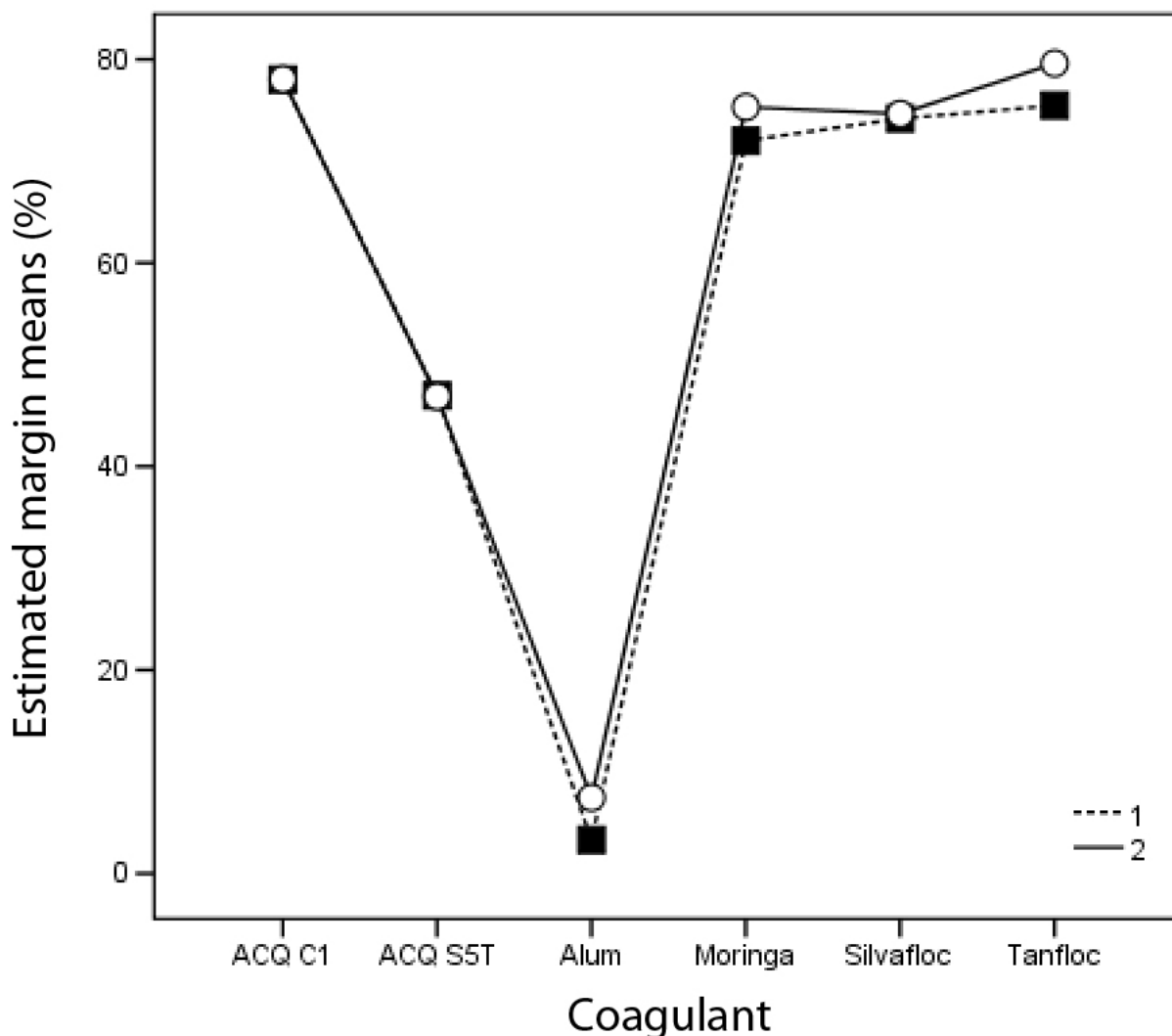
$$q = \frac{(C_0 - C_l) \cdot V}{W} \quad (1)$$

126 where C_0 is initial surfactant concentration, ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$),

127 C_l is equilibrium pollutant concentration in bulk solution, ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$),

128 V is the volume of solution, (L),

Figure 3. Replicability test.



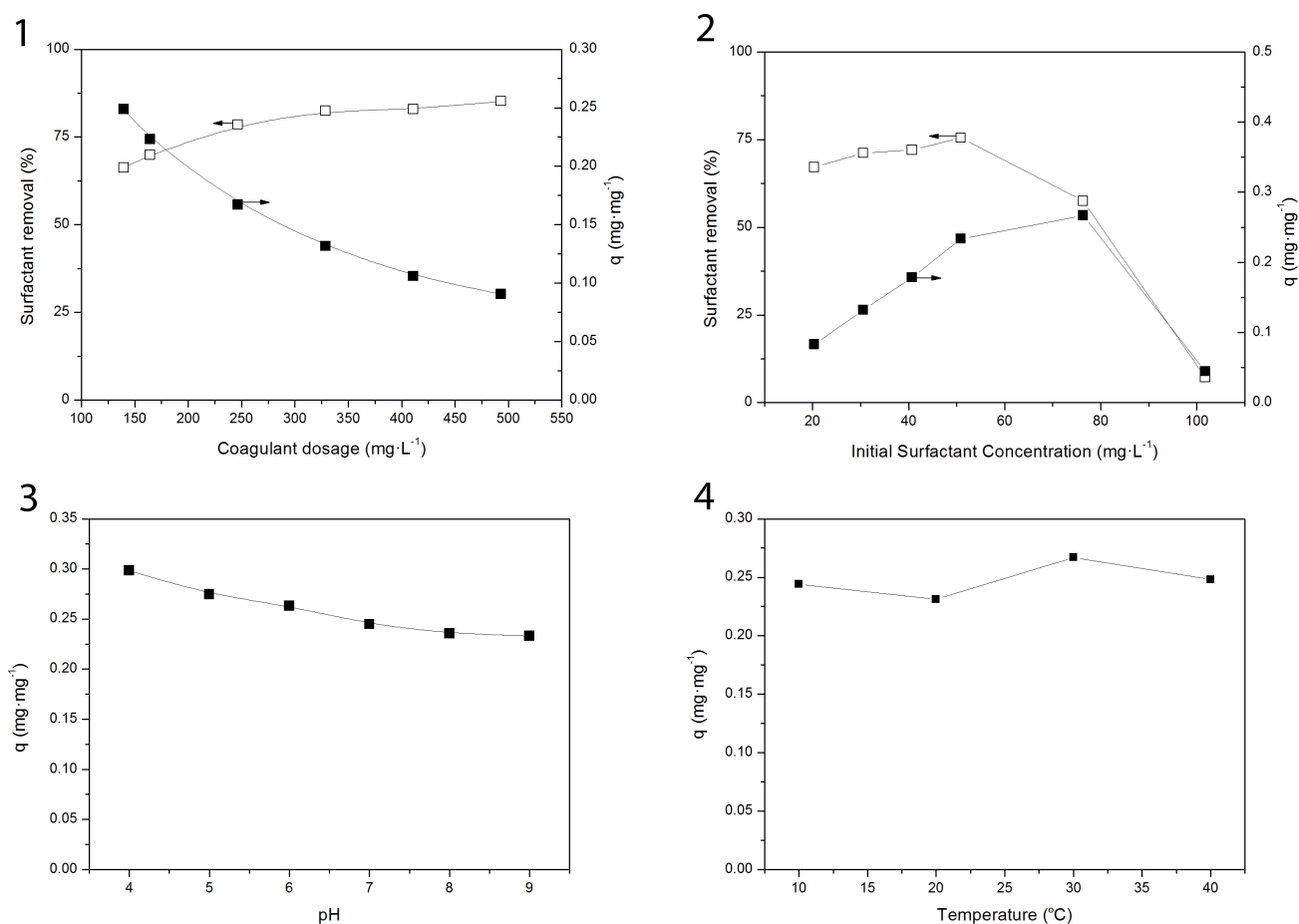
129 and W is coagulant mass (mg).

130

131 The first subfigure (1) presents the increase of SLES removal percentage as the coagulant dosage
 132 raises up. A fixed initial pollutant concentration (ca. $50 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) underwent a progressive decrease
 133 when increasing doses of coagulant were applied. Surfactant seems to present a residual concentration
 134 of ca. $7 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ not removable by coagulation. This was also observed by other researchers [30] and
 135 this phenomenon is discussed in our previous works [18]. A high efficiency of the coagulant is easily
 136 reached and this is reflected on the high q levels, which are naturally higher at low coagulant dosages.

137 If initial pollutant concentration (also called *charge*) is varied, the efficiency of the coagulation sys-
 138 tems tends to differ from standard conditions. Not only percentage removal but also q capacity should
 139 be observed in this evaluation. To this end, a fixed amount of coagulant (ca. $160 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) was applied to
 140 different initial concentrations of surfactant. As subfigure (2) depicts, increasing initial pollutant concen-
 141 trations leads to a loss of percentage removal. However, q capacity, which is indicative of the efficiency
 142 of the product, tends to grow subsequently up to a maximum, which is near to $80 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, that probably

Figure 4. Influence of variables. 1) Coagulant dosage, 2) Initial Surfactant Concentration, 3) pH, 4) Temperature.



143 has to do with the Critical Micellation Concentration (CMC). The behaviour of q is radically different
 144 before and after CMC point is crossed. Once it has happened, the original increasing path of q turns
 145 dramatically into a decreasing way. It is surely caused by the general appearance of micelles inside the
 146 bulk solution, which have a particularly different sorption way onto flocs [28,31]. In the first stages of
 147 the *charge* evaluation, the coagulant is not completely efficient since there is excessive amount of it. As
 148 the *charge* increases, the coagulant tends to be exhausted and the capacity of the system tends to grow,
 149 being more efficient therefore. This capacity become almost null once the CMC is tresspassed.

150 pH is known to play an important role in coagulation processes [32]. Because of this fact, several tri-
 151 als with different pH values have been carried out, varying pH between 4 and 9 with fixed concentrations
 152 of surfactant (ca. 60 mg·L⁻¹) and 160 mg·L⁻¹ of coagulant. As can be appreciated in subfigure (3), the
 153 same coagulant dose tends to be less effective as pH becomes higher. This fact has to do with the cationic
 154 form of the coagulant, which should be higher at acidic pH and lower at basic level. Electrostatic attrac-
 155 tion between coagulant cationic chains and negatively-charged active centers in the surfactant molecules
 156 is reinforced. In addition, links to hydrofobic chains would be enhanced [30]. However, this coagulant
 157 presents a high efficiency since q capacity varies between 0.20 and 0.30 mg·g⁻¹, both variables high
 158 enough.

159 Finally, this coagulant seems to present stability along the studied temperature range (10-40°C). An
160 initial surfactant concentration of 60 mg·L⁻¹ was treated with a fixed coagulant dose of ca. 160 mg·L⁻¹,
161 pH 7 and different temperatures. As can be observed in subfigure (4), no differences can be stated from
162 these experimental series. In a general way, temperature does not seem to be significantly important.
163 This stability add a new advantage to the studied coagulant, since it allows the treatment of wastewater
164 under thermal contamination, e.g. lakes or ponds, which is a desirable characteristic [33].

165 2.3. Design of experiments

166 The previous section does not show any interaction between variables. It is not possible to predict
167 the combined influence of the different variables on the final response unless specific experimentation
168 is carried out. Although some theoretical approaches can be done, the empirical evidence of the real
169 influence of the operative conditions can be established only through the experimentation. Design of
170 experiments is a statistical procedure focused on detecting these links between the working variables and
171 can reduce significantly the number of experiments, keeping however the reliability of the conclusions
172 at a high standard.

173 Traditionally, researchers have used the experimental method called *one factor at a time*. Through
174 this approach, it is very difficult to establish the corresponding relationships among all the input factors
175 and the output responses. Instead, it is usually accepted this method can be useful in finding predominant
176 variables, but afterwards a desing of experiments is mandatory to obtain a probable optimum response.
177 It offers a better alternative to study the effect of variables and their response with minimum number
178 of experiments [34]. This methodology was widely used in these kinds of chemical processes [35] and
179 offers a powerful tool for evaluating the intrinsic relationships between variables properly.

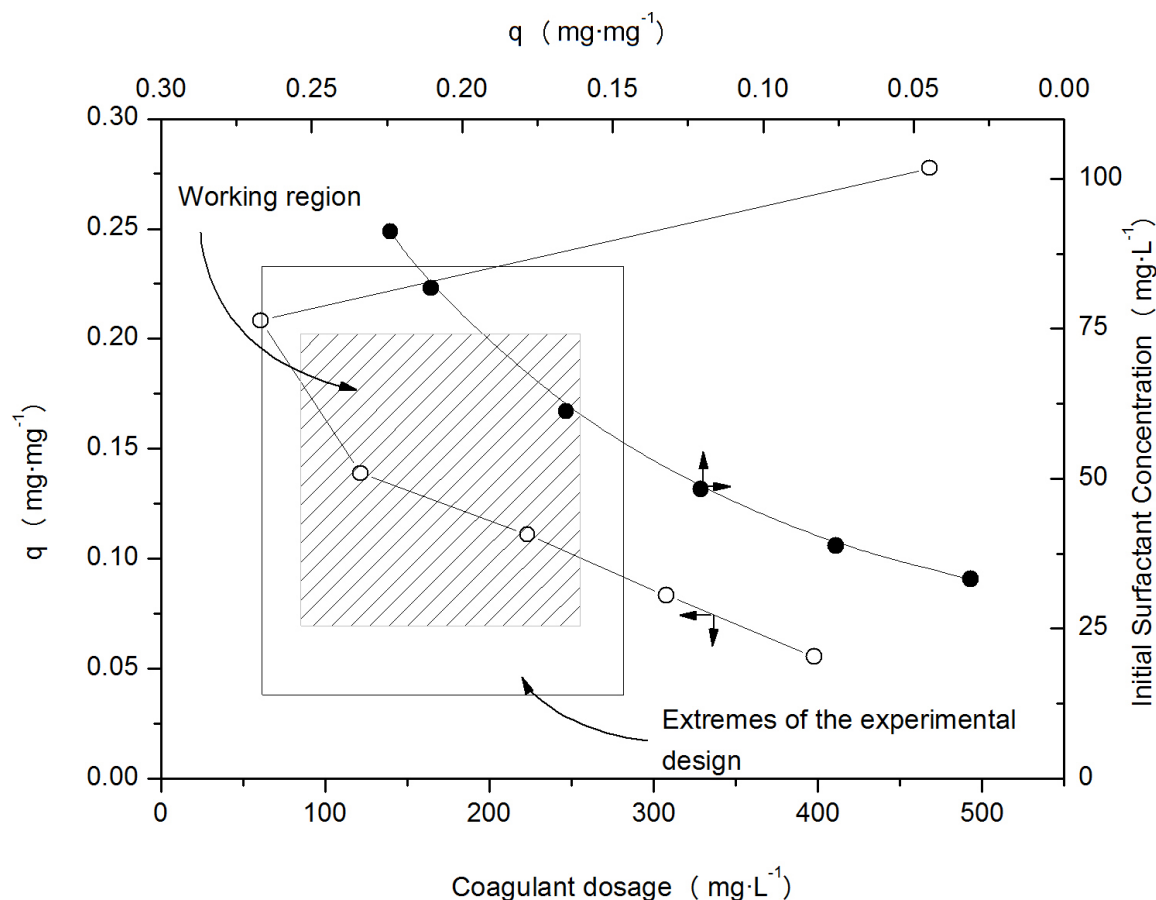
180 As we have reported in previous works [35], the data collected must be analyzed in a statistically
181 manner using regression. Accordingly, the test factors must be coded as equation 2 shows:

$$\chi_i = \frac{X_i - X_i^x}{\Delta X_i} \quad (2)$$

182 where χ_i is the coded value of the i th independent variable, X_i the natural value of the i th independent
183 variable, X_i^x the natural value of the i th independent variable at the center point and ΔX_i is the value of
184 the step change.

185 Each response Y can be represented by a mathematical equation that correlates the response surface.
186 We have selected a Central Composite Design (CCD) which is one of the most popular class of second-
187 order design. It involves the use of a two-level factorial design with 2^k points combined with $2k$ axial
188 points and n center runs, k being the number of factors. n is considered to be 8 and the axial distance is
189 $\sqrt{2}$ in order to guarantee an orthogonal and rotatable design.

190 One of the most important tasks in designing a plan of experiments inside a CCD is determining
191 the variables to be studied and the region in which those variables are expected to present an optimum.
192 The usual way of evaluating these two researching aspects is by carrying out a previous analysis of the
193 effect of several variables in order to select two or more of them, that is the case of section 2.2. The
194 most influent variables are, according to these results, the coagulant dosage and the initial surfactant
195 concentration (ISC). Therefore, the working region was established taking into account these trials.

Figure 5. Working region for the design of experiments.

196 Figure 5 presents this area graphically. As can be appreciated, two squares are presented, one concerning
 197 the real working region (that is, where statistically significant conclusions can be obtained) and the limits
 198 of the design, where the extreme points are placed for obtaining the tendency. The particular design
 199 consists of 16 experimental points that are referred in table 1

200 Analytical results

201 ANOVA analysis is the first approach to the DOE result. It shows the significance of the different
 202 parameters under an analytical point of view and it is important to state the significance of the design.
 203 According to the RSM, five factors are considered in this particular case and all of them are statistically
 204 significant, attending to each p-value in the ANOVA test. It presents a very high correlation factor (up
 205 to 0.97), which implies the system is correctly explained through these two variables and their interac-
 206 tions. Non-linear polynomic regression is carried out by taking into account the coded variables. This
 207 regression is given by equation 3:

$$q = 0.20 + 0.02 \cdot D + 0.03 \cdot C - 0.03 \cdot D^2 - 0.03 \cdot C^2 + 0.04 \cdot D \cdot C \quad (3)$$

208 where D is the coded coagulant dosage and C is the coded *charge*, initial surfactant concentration.

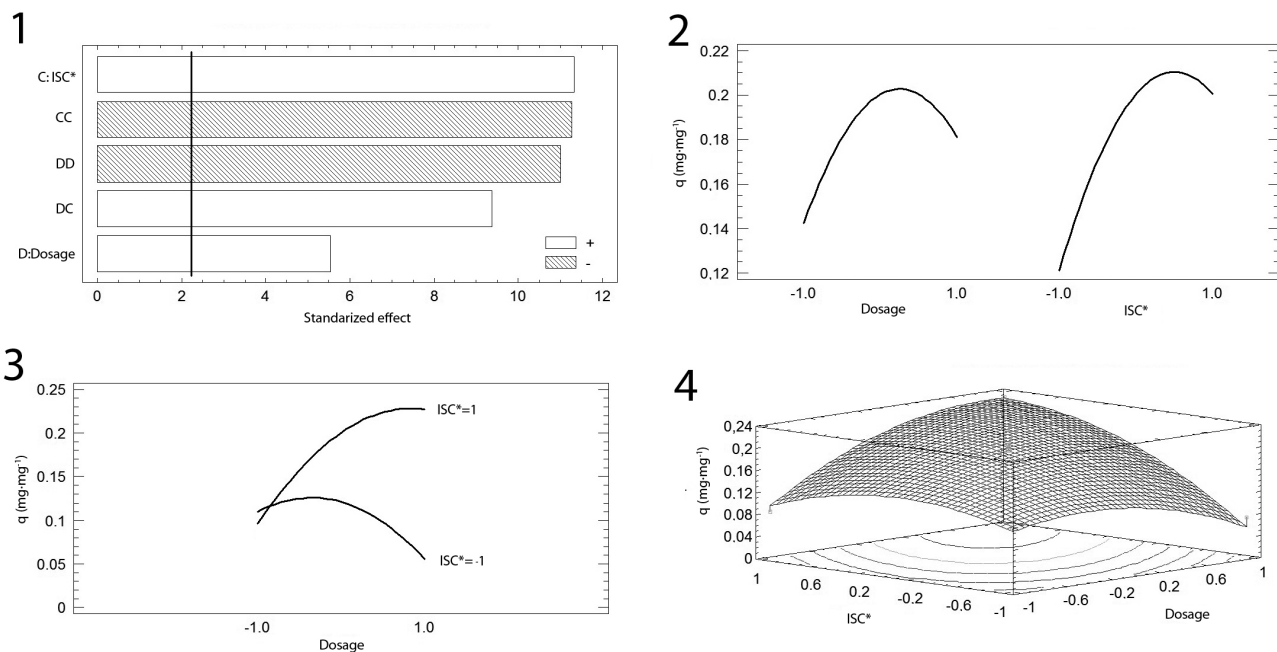
209 Moreover, ANOVA results gave a Durbin-Watson factor equal to 2.2, which is higher than 0.05 and,
 210 consequently, it is non significant. This means there is no evidences of autocorrelation and therefore
 211 the randomization in the experimental sample was effective.

212 Analytically, an optimum combination of ISC and coagulant dosage is presented at 1 and 0.85 coded
 213 levels respectively. This point corresponds to 76 mg·L⁻¹ of surfactant and 234 mg·L⁻¹ of coagulant.
 214 With these experimental conditions, a q capacity of 0.23 mg·mg⁻¹ is achieved, which is a quite high
 215 value if compared with other results from previous works as it is indicated below. This theoretical
 216 capacity was experimentally confirmed.

217 Graphical analysis

218 Graphical tests are made on the basis of five factors which correspond to equation 3. These are pre-
 219 sented in figure 6. For example, subfigure (1) presents the *Pareto* graphic. Bars represent the standarized
 220 effects of each involved factor, considering them as coagulant dosage, ISC and the combinations of both.
 221 Nonfilled bars are a graphical representation of positive-affecting factors, such as ISC. This means that
 222 this factor appears in the expression 3 behind a positive sign. On the other hand, filled bars represent
 223 negative-affecting factors. The vertical rule stands near to 2 and has to do with the signification level
 224 of ANOVA test, which is equal to 95% of confidence. Bars trespassing the vertical rule are inside the
 225 signification region, while bars behind it are not statistically significant.

Figure 6. Design of experiments. 1) Pareto graphic, 2) Main effects, 3) Interaction of variables, 4) Response Surface Graphic. * Initial Surfactant Concentration.



226 *Pareto* graphic also gives us an idea of how factors affect on the final response of percentage removal.
 227 Positive bars indicate that by varying the variable the response increases. Negative bars indicate the

228 contrary. As can be shown, as ISC increases the response is increased as well. This is consistent with
229 the results presented in section 2.2.

230 The evaluation of the CCD model also drives to the study of the main effects of the involved variables.
231 This can be appreciated in subfigure (2). Two curves are drawn representing the effect of varying each
232 variable while the other one keeps constant. The effect of both variables is quite similar since both
233 lines present not relevant differences. An optimum combination appears in the two curves of the studied
234 system, this will drive us to the optimum combination of both variables.

235 Consequently, the fact that interaction does appear between the two studied variables is evident from
236 subfigure (3). The two curves represent the evolution of the response by varying temperature in the
237 extremes of the CCD model, that is, with coagulant dosage equal to 1 and equal to -1. Since the curves
238 are crossed, it may be assumed that there is effective interaction and the modification of one of them
239 affects the other one. Evidently, this result is valid only inside the working region, out of it the behavior
240 of the system may differ.

241 Finally, the most important graphical representation in the RSM is the surface graphic, which is
242 presented in subfigure (4). It plots equation 3 and allows to evaluate from a qualitative point of view how
243 the behavior of the whole studied system is. As can be appreciated, the response is a quite convex surface
244 inside the studied region with both variables ruling the response q . Contour plots are drawn beneath it
245 as well for a better comprehension of the surface. The maximum appears, as said before, around 1 and
246 0.85 for ISC and coagulant dosage respectively.

247 2.4. Theoretical model

248 Once adsorption hypothesis is accepted, the coagulation phenomenon can be explained by the clas-
249 sical theoretical models. Specific coagulation models are rather difficult to apply and they are not very
250 used in scientific literature because the nature of the phenomenon is quite complex (it implies molecule
251 physico-chemical interaction such as van der Waals and hydrogen bridges forces [36]). Moreover, it
252 is even more difficult if one deals with natural products such as *Moringa oleifera* seed extract, whose
253 intrinsic composition is not completely known. However, the importance of a theoretical argument is
254 more than evident in order to make easier further studies [37].

255 According to the hypothetical interactions between surfactants and natural polymers, three models
256 have been established for explaining this particular coagulation phenomenon. The basic interaction
257 mechanisms are reasonably well understood, but researchers still disagree at molecular level. It is gener-
258 ally accepted that these interactions may occur between individual surfactant molecules and the polymer
259 chain, or in the form of surfactant-polymer aggregate complexes (micellar or hemimicellar interactions).

260 It is important to keep in mind that the behavior of surfactant solutions may change radically once
261 the Critical Micelation Concentration (CMC). In addition, there also exists a lower concentration (called
262 Critical Aggregation Concentration, CAC [38]) that induces the formation of a complex aggregate struc-
263 ture. CAC usually appears below CMC, the difference between both concentrations may vary by a factor
264 of 10-1000 in some cases [2]. CAC is identified in surfactant-polymer systems with the concentration
265 where coagulation starts, while CMC is clearly established when the models are not useful any more.
266 The specific behavior of every particular system will vary with the nature of the surfactant and the poly-
267 mer. For modelling the surfactant removal, we will attend to the first stage of detergent adsorption, that

268 is, the one that occurs below CMC, as the second one refers to a completely different mechanism, as said
 269 before. According to this, the following arguments are referred just to the first stage of the process, that
 270 is, up to CMC.

271 Three theoretical models were considered in this work. The first of them was proposed by Freundlich
 272 [39] and was derived from empirical data. It assumes that q capacity is a power function of the equilib-
 273 rium dye concentration (C_l). Equation 4 express this mathematically:

$$q = k_f \cdot C_l^{n_f} \quad (4)$$

274 where

275 n_f is the Freundlich adsorption order (dimensionless)

276 and k_f is the Freundlich adsorption constant ($[L^{n_f}] \cdot [\text{mg of coagulant}]^{-1} \cdot [\text{mg of removed surfactant}^{n_f-1}]$).

277

278 A simple model that has been used to describe the adsorption of surfactants is the regular behaviour
 279 model [40]. For dilute solutions, this model simplifies to the Frumkin-Fowler-Guggenheim (FFG) equa-
 280 tion [41,42].

$$\frac{\theta_l}{1 - \theta_l} = C_l \cdot k_{12} \cdot \exp(\chi_{12} \cdot \theta_l) \quad (5)$$

where θ_l is the ratio between the adsorption and the maximum adsorption:

$$\theta_l = \frac{q}{q_\infty} \quad (6)$$

281 k_{12} is the adsorption constant, being a measure of the interaction between surfactant and polymer surface,
 282 and χ_{12} is the Flory-Huggins parameter [43].

283 In this model k_{12} and χ_{12} should be considered as adjustable parameters expressing the affinity for
 284 the surface and the lateral interactions in the adsorbed layer, respectively.

Zhu and Gu [44] proposed a very simple model for adsorption of surfactant assuming that the adsorbed
 layer is composed of surfactant aggregates. A surfactant aggregate is formed on the surface before stable
 aggregates are formed in solution. The model considers that these aggregates are stabilized by the
 presence of the surface. This model leads to the following equation 7:

$$\frac{\theta_l}{1 - \theta_l} = k_g \cdot C_l^{n_g} \quad (7)$$

285 where n_g is the number of monomers in the surfactant aggregate,

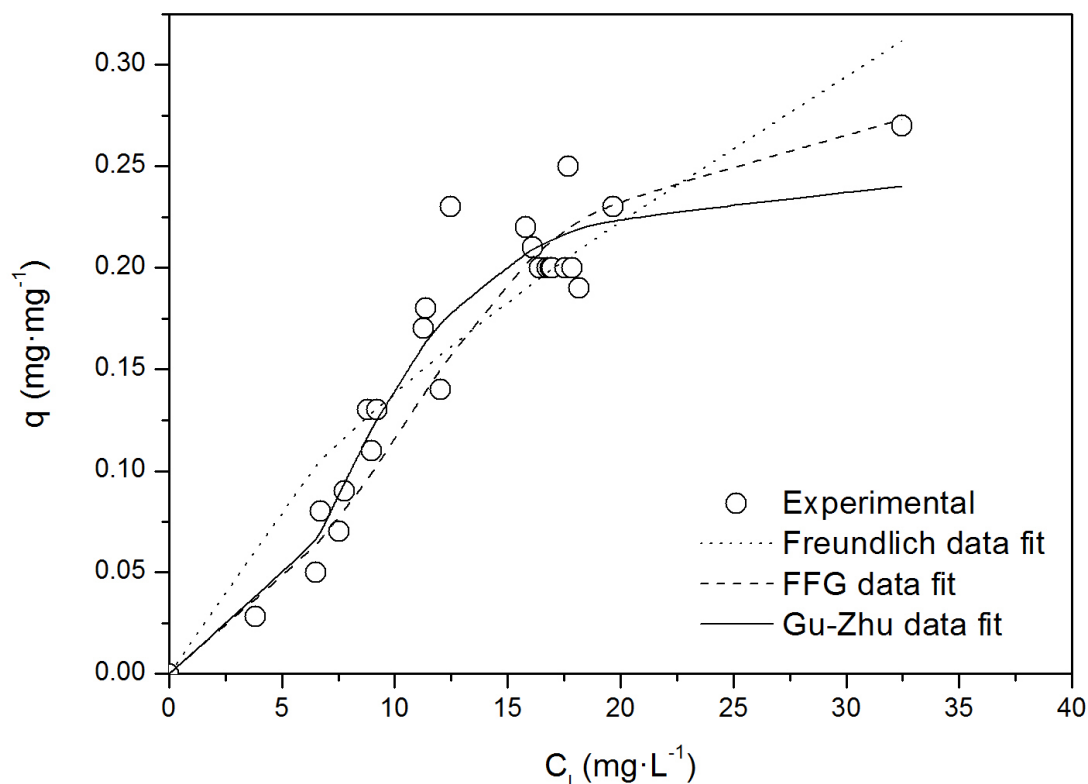
286 and k_g is the Gu and Zhu constant for the studied model.

Taking into account the definition of θ_l , equation 7 becomes

$$q = q_\infty \cdot k_g \frac{C_l^{n_g}}{1 + k_g \cdot C_l^{n_g}} \quad (8)$$

287 This equation is reduced to the Langmuir equation for $n_g = 1$. In addition, if the term $k_g \cdot C_l^{n_g}$ is
 288 much lower than 1, the derived expression is known as the Freundlich equation 4.

289 Equations 4, 5 and 8 lead to three models that have been studied: Freundlich (F), Frumkin-Fowler-
 290 Guggenheim (FFG) and Gu and Zhu (GZ) models.

Figure 7. Theoretical model.

291 By combining data series of previous sections and other more specifically carried out, it is possible
 292 to look for theoretical models that fits rather well to experimental data. This is showed in figure 7, where
 293 experimental and predicted values are presented. As can be observed, a S-shape curve is presented, with
 294 a slight increasing of q at low values of C_l . q values raise up rather fast along the intermediate range of C_l
 295 between 5 and 15 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$. Then, they keep on increasing and presumably they arrive to an asymptotic
 296 value, which corresponds to q_∞ . These kinds of curves have been thoroughly studied by researchers
 297 [45].

298 The specific parameter values and the statistic summary for both systems and for each corresponding
 299 model are shown in table 2. It is remarkable that non-linear adjustment fits accurately for the three models
 300 (r^2 above 0.8) but the most reliable model is the Gu and Zhu hypothesis. Non linear adjustment is
 301 presumed to be more accurate than linear fits, since no homocedasticity assumptions are needed [46,47].
 302 According to Gu and Zhu adjustment, q_∞ is quite near to maximum q predicted by RSM in section (0.23
 303 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}$).

304 To the best of our knowledge, no previous works were published regarding the specific removal of
 305 this particular surfactant. However, similar studies were carried out addressing the removal of other
 306 detergents. Perhaps the most interesting one was presented by Ayranci and Duman [30] where several
 307 surfactants were removed by adsorption with activated carbon. The maximum q capacities were there
 308 very similar to those obtained in the current paper. Other similar studies reached to q values of the same

309 magnitude order, as presented in table 3. The efficacy of *Moringa oleifera* seed extract in removing
310 SLES is placed inside the adsorption range of these different products.

311 3. Experimental Section

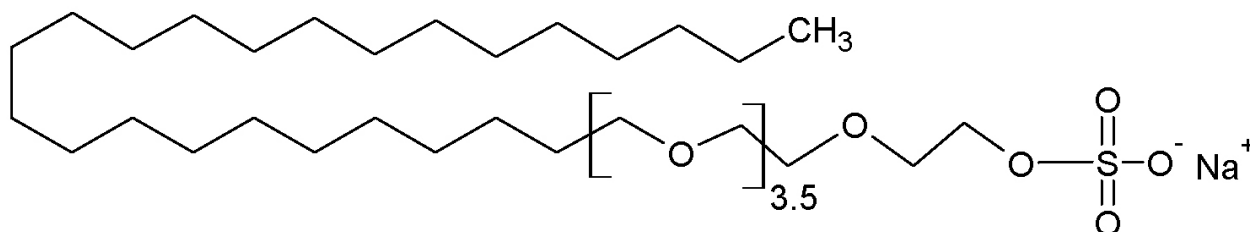
312 3.1. Buffered solution

313 The trials with added dye were performed with pH-stable media according to preliminary data [21].
314 To this end, a pH-7 buffer solution was prepared by mixing 1.2 g of NaH_2PO_4 and 0.885 g of Na_2HPO_4
315 in 1-L flask and filled to the mark with distilled water. The pH was then adjusted to 7 with HCl 0.5 M
316 and NaOH 0.5 M. All reagents were analytical grade from PANREAC.

317 3.2. Model compounds

318 Polyoxyethylene (3.5) sodium lauryl ether sulfate (SLES) was purchased to CHEM SERVICE Inc. It
319 is a long-chain anionic surfactant with one sulfate group as hydrophilic extreme whose composition is
320 $\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{25}(\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2)_{3.5}\text{OSO}_3\text{Na}$. Chemical structure is shown in figure 8 and responds to a CAS number
321 of 32612-48-9. Its appearance is as a dense and sticky gel.

Figure 8. Chemical structure of SLES



322 Other surfactants were used in the preliminary screening (section 2.1). They were the following ones:

- 323 • Sodium dodecyl benzene sulfonate (SDBS) $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{29}\text{SO}_3\text{Na}$.
- 324 • Sodium dodecyl diphenyl ether disulfonate (SDDDED) $\text{C}_{35}\text{H}_{56}\text{S}_2\text{O}_7\text{Na}_2$.
- 325 • Sodium triethanolamine lauryl sulfate (TEA-LS) $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{40}\text{NSO}_4\text{Na}$.
- 326 • Sodium dioctyl sulfosuccinate (SDSS) $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{37}\text{SO}_7\text{Na}$.
- 327 • Sodium lauryl sulfoacetate (SLSA) $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{27}\text{SO}_5\text{Na}$.
- 328 • POE Sodium sulfated nonylphenol (SSN) $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{28}\text{SO}_5\text{Na}$.

329 3.3. *Moringa oleifera* seed extract and other coagulants

330 Dry seeds were obtained from SETROPA, Holland. The extraction process were carried out as re-
331 ferred elsewhere [17,18]. The result is a clear, milky-like liquid. *Moringa* stock solution prepared in this
332 way was used the same day it was produced, although there are references that point the stability of the
333 extract [22].

334 Regarding the rest of coagulant agents, modified tannin extracts were supplied by different commer-
335 cial trademarks. Tanfloc (from TANAC, Brazil) consists of tannins from *Acacia mearnsii* that have been
336 modified chemically in order to introduce a quaternary nitrogen. This confers Tanfloc its cationic char-
337 acter. Other three products with the same nature were supplied by SILVATEAM, S.A. (Italy), in case
338 of Silvafloc, and ACQUACHIMICA SETA, S.A. (Brazil) in case of Acquapol C1 and Acquapol S5T.
339 Differences between Silvafloc, Acquapol C1 and S5T and Tanfloc lay on tannin nature (*Acacia mearnsii*
340 for Acquapol and Tanfloc and *Schinopsis balansae* for Silvafloc) and on chemical modification, which is
341 under copyright law. Tanfloc and Acquapol C1 are presented as powder, whereas Silvafloc and Acquapol
342 S5T are presented as a solution.

343 The traditional and common aluminium sulfate for coagulant purpose was supplied by PANREAC
344 ($\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 18\text{H}_2\text{O}$) with analytical purity grade.

345 3.4. *Surfactant removal trials and analysis*

346 A surfactant solution of 500 mgL^{-1} was prepared. Different volumes of this stock solution were put
347 into 100 mL-flask, and certain amount of coagulant was added. Final volume was reached with pH-7
348 buffer solution. A slow blade-stirring agitation (30 rpm) was applied for 1 h then, until equilibrium was
349 achieved. Kinetics and previous studies carried out [23] reported this period was enough to guarantee
350 equilibrium. Then, a sample was collected and centrifuged. Surfactant removal was determined by
351 visible spectrophotometry according to a method based on its association with methylene blue [24]. The
352 spectrophotometer used was a HELIOS UV/VIS.

353 3.5. *Mathematical and statistical procedures*

354 A factorial Central Composite (CCD) orthogonal and rotatable design was used for the optimization
355 of the quantitative variables such as coagulant dosage and initial surfactant concentration. The CCD
356 analysis was carried out under Response Surface Methodology. Design of experiments section was
357 statistically analyzed by using *StatGraphics Plus for Windows 5.1* [25].

358 Other statistical considerations, such as non-linear adjustment or replicability tests (section) were
359 performed with SPSS 15.0.1 for Windows [26].

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Table 1. Experimental planning in the design of experiments.

Number of run	Coded coagulant dosage	Coded ISC ^a	Real coagulant dosage	Real ISC ^a
1	0	-1.41	165	15
2	-1	-1	82	25
3	-1	1	82	75
4	0	0	165	50
5	0	0	165	50
6	1.41	0	280	50
7	0	0	165	50
8	0	0	165	50
9	0	0	165	50
10	0	1.41	165	85
11	0	0	165	50
12	-1.41	0	48	50
13	0	0	165	50
14	1	-1	246	25
15	0	0	165	50
16	1	1	246	75

^aInitial Surfactant Concentration

Table 2. Theoretical models adjustment parameters for surfactant removal. Units in text.

	Parameter values	r^2
Freundlich	$k_f=0.028$; $n_f=0.69$	0.83
FFG	$k_{12}=2.31 \cdot 10^{-2}$; $q_\infty=0.320$; $\chi_{12}=0.24$	0.83
Gu and Zhu	$k_g=1.14 \cdot 10^{-3}$; $n_g=3.09$; $q_\infty=0.245$	0.91

Table 3. Other studies on surfactant removal from aqueous effluents.

Surfactant	q_{max}^a	Treatment agent	Reference
SLS	0.61	<i>Moringa oleifera</i> coagulant	[18]
SDBS	1.15	Silvafloc	[48]
SDBS	1.36	Tanfloc	[28]
LAS ^b	0.49-1.21	IEx resins	[49]
LAS ^b	0.027-0.53	Activated carbon	[49]

^amg·mg⁻¹^bLinear alkylbenzene sulfonate