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Selective Mercury Adsorption and Enrichment Enabled by Phenyl Carboxyl Functionalized Poly(pyrrole methane)s Chelating Polymers

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Abstract: Mercury decontamination from water requires highly effective and efficient
methods for maintaining public health and environmental protection. Herein, based on the

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coordination theory between functional groups and metal ions, we proposed phenylic carboxyl group-based poly(pyrrole methane)s (PPDCBAs) as highly efficient mercury removal materials for environmental remediation applications. It was found that PPDCBAs can efficiently adsorb and remove mercury(II) from aqueous solutions by functionalizing the molecular structure with phenylic carboxyl groups. Among the as-prepared PPDCBAs, poly[pyrrole-2, 5-diyl (4-carboxybenzylidene)] (PPD4CBA) with the carboxyl group at the *para* position can not only adsorb mercury over 1400 mg·g⁻¹ but also achieve a 92.5% mercury(II) uptake within 100 minutes by a very low dosage of 0.1 g·L⁻¹. In addition, PPDCBAs exhibited excellent adsorption selectivity for mercury(II) compared with copper(II), cadmium(II), zinc(II) and lead(II). Furthermore, as determined by Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and the density functional theory (DFT) calculation, the mercury removal was found to be mainly dependent on the high density of chelating sites, the phenylic carboxyl moieties, which helped us to realize an ultra-trace amount mercury removal (from 10.8 µg·L⁻¹ to 0.6-0.8 µg·L⁻¹) for meeting drinking water standard requirements (1.0 µg·L⁻¹).

Keywords: poly(pyrrole methane)s, adsorption, mercury, carboxyl groups, density functional theory (DFT)

1. Introduction

Mercury(II) pollution, which can cause severe damage to the brain, kidneys and nervous system (Chen et al., 2021; Dai et al., 2019), has long been a threat to the ecosystem and further

public health by invading the human body through the food chain. Mercury is mainly generated from coal combustion, papermaking, oil refining and electroplating, metallurgy, and battery manufacturing (Dong et al., 2013; Velempini and Pillay, 2019; Wang et al., 2016) and exists in various chemical forms such as elemental mercury (Hg^0), inorganic mercury (Hg^{2+}) and methyl mercury (CH_3Hg^+) (Ballav et al., 2018; Holmes et al., 2009; Luo et al., 2015). In order to reduce the harm of mercury(II) to the environment and public health, the World Health Organization (WTO) sets the upper limit of mercury content in wastewater and drinking water as $5\text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ and $1\text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, respectively (Alguacil and López, 2020; Yan et al., 2021). In addition, according to the Minamata Convention in 2017, monitoring and controlling mercury pollution is imminent (Fu, Y. et al., 2019; Worthington et al., 2017). So it is imperative to develop effective technologies to remove the existing mercury pollution from water until the emissions can be significantly reduced.

Many technologies have been developed for mercury(II) removal from aqueous media, such as chemical precipitation (Brown; et al., 1979; Skyllberg and Drott, 2010), coagulation (Bachand et al., 2019; Henneberry et al., 2011), ion exchange (Alguacil and Escudero, 2020; Anirudhan et al., 2008), membrane separation (Chakrabarty et al., 2010; Mungray and Murthy, 2012) and adsorption (Ahmad et al., 2020; Nasimi et al., 2020). In comparison with other methods, adsorption is highly efficient, cost-effective, and environmentally friendly (Ballav et al., 2018). Various adsorbent materials, such as mesoporous silica (Fu, Y. et al., 2019; Gupta et al., 2019), chitosan (Ge and Du, 2020), cellulose (Bisla et al., 2020; Kenawy et al., 2018), carbon materials (Caicedo Salcedo et al., 2021), etc., have been applied to adsorb and remove

mercury(II) from wastewater. However, such prevalent adsorbents generally have low adsorption capacity, poor selectivity and weak affinity for mercury(II). For example, the specific surface area of activated carbon made from Mango seeds is 2-33 m²·g⁻¹, and the adsorption capacity of mercury(II) is only 56.1-85.6 mg·g⁻¹ (Caicedo Salcedo et al., 2021). A chemically guanyl-modified cellulose material has very poor adsorption selectivity for mercury(II) (only 48 mg·g⁻¹) (Kenawy et al., 2018). Therefore, the development of novel high-efficiency adsorbents will be an important task.

Previous literature has shown that the introduction of suitable functional groups can effectively improve the performance of adsorbents (Aguila et al., 2017; Duan et al., 2018; Fu, L. et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Li et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2019). The specific functional groups can not only increase the uptake capacity but also improve the selectivity due to the different affinity between functional groups and heavy metal ions. The sulfhydryl group (-SH) is highly efficient as an adsorption site for mercury, which has been widely reported (Ballav et al., 2018; Leus et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2019). However, the sulfhydryl group is less stable, prone to be oxidized and forming disulfide bonds at higher pH conditions (Choi et al., 2020; Monahan et al., 1995). The carboxylate group (-COO⁻) is more stable, and can generally coordinate with metal ions in three ways (Lawrance, 2013): only one oxygen is complexed with one metal, each oxygen is combined with one metal separately, or two oxygen are coordinated with one metal to form a more stable chelate. Therefore, we expect to obtain a novel adsorbent that is easily regulated by carboxyl groups to remove mercury(II) from water efficiently.

Conductive polymers, including polyaniline (PANI) (Lyu et al., 2019), polythiophene (PTh) (Chen et al., 2019) and polypyrrole (PPy) (Xu et al., 2019), have been used as a new type of adsorbent for efficient removal of heavy metal ions from water because of their good doping/dedoping performance and electrostatic interaction with heavy metal ions (Ji et al., 2021). Poly (pyrrole methane)s, a derivative of polypyrrole, is synthesized via the electrophilic substitution of α -H of pyrrole by protonated aldehydes under acid catalysis, which offers a feasible strategy to create a variety of active sites with good uptake capacities just by adding different aldehydes with functional groups. Furthermore, because of three different substitution sites on the benzene ring, poly(pyrrole methane)s synthesized from aromatic aldehyde can form three steric hindrance structures, which may affect the capture of mercury. Therefore, poly(pyrrole methane)s functionalized with phenylic carboxyl groups at different substitution sites could have distinct mercury capturing abilities. Systematic studies will be needed to determine the efficiency among these promising mercury(II) adsorbents.

In this study, poly[pyrrole-2, 5-diyl(benzylidane)] (PPDBA), poly[pyrrole-2, 5-diyl(2-carboxybenzylidane)] (PPD2CBA), poly[pyrrole-2, 5-diyl(3-carboxybenzylidane)] (PPD3CBA) and poly[pyrrole-2, 5-diyl(4-carboxybenzylidane)] (PPD4CBA) were designed and synthesized by one-step chemical polymerization. The as-prepared poly(pyrrole methane)s with carboxyl group in different substitution sites of benzene ring feature the highly accessible mercury(II) binding sites thereby affording strong adsorption selectivity for mercury(II) in the presence of other cations and the efficient mercury(II) capture capacity. The effects of typical anions and cations (e.g., Ca^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , CO_3^{2-} , NO_3^-) on the Hg(II) removal

were also evaluated. Moreover, its practical application value is evaluated in real water matrices. Additionally, the mechanisms for Hg(II) removal are elucidated by the characterization (such as FT-IR, XPS) and density functional theory (DFT) calculations. This work reveals an effective strategy to tune the adsorption performance of poly(pyrrole methane)s as a potential efficient adsorbent for mercury removal.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials

Pyrrole (98%), benzaldehyde, 2-carboxybenzaldehyde, 3-carboxybenzaldehyde, 4-carboxybenzaldehyde, hydrochloric acid (HCl), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), nitric acid (HNO₃), N,N-Dimethylformamide (DMF), Hg(NO₃)₂·H₂O, Cd(NO₃)₂·H₂O, Cu(NO₃)₂·H₂O, Zn(NO₃)₂·H₂O, Pb(NO₃)₂·H₂O, KNO₃, Ca(NO₃)₂, Mg(NO₃)₂, NaCl, Na₂SO₄ were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. All reagents were of analytical grade and used without further purification unless otherwise noted. And the deionized water used in this work was produced by EPED-40TF Superpure Water System (EPED, Nanjing, China).

2.2. Preparation of Poly(pyrrole methane)s.

The poly(pyrrole methane)s were synthesized by one-step chemical polymerization. First, 0.02 mol of benzaldehyde was dissolved in 100 mL DMF and poured into a 500 mL three-necked flask. After adding 28.6 mL of hydrochloric acid, 100 mL of DMF containing 0.02 mol of pyrrole was slowly added to the above solution, stirring at 350 rpm. Afterwards, the mixture liquid was kept stirring at 60°C for 6 hours, and then the solution was stirred at room

temperature for another 18 hours. Next, the mixture was poured into 800 mL of deionized water with magnetic stirring for 10 minutes to precipitate the product, and then allowed to stand for 2 hours. The solid was filtered and washed with deionized water until the filtrate was neutral. The solid obtained was dried at 60°C for 12 h, then ground into powder and sieved with a 100 mesh sieve, which is named “PPDBA”. The above benzaldehyde was replaced by 2-carboxybenzaldehyde, 3-carboxybenzaldehyde and 4-carboxybenzaldehyde to obtain PPD2CBA, PPD3CBA and PPD4CBAA, respectively.

2.3. Characterizations

Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were scanned in the region of 500-4000 cm⁻¹ using KBr pellets on a Bruker TENSOR 37 FT-IR spectrophotometer. The pH values of the solution were detected by a pH meter (FE28-Standard, Mettler Toledo). The morphology was examined by scanning electron microscope (SEM, Zeiss Gemini SEM 500). The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were performed on Kratos Axis Ultra DLD with an Al monochromatic X-ray source (1486.71 eV), and all the binding energies (BEs) were revised according to the C 1s hydrocarbon peak at 284.8 eV. The ¹H NMR spectra (Bruker III HD 400 M) were used to confirm the chemical structures of the as-prepared samples. The Barrett-Emmett-Teller specific surface area (S_{BET}), total pore volume (V), and average pore radius (R) were performed by a physical adsorption device (SSA-4200, Beijing Builder Co. Ltd, China). Zeta potentials were determined on a Malvern Zetasizer Nano ZS90 at the pH value range of 2-12.

140 2.4. Batch Adsorption Studies

141 All solutions containing cations are prepared from corresponding nitrates in the adsorption
142 experiments, and the solutions containing anions are corresponding sodium. The simulated
143 solution used in the experiments was prepared by diluting the 5 mmol·L⁻¹ Hg(NO₃)₂ stock
144 solution with deionized water, and the initial pH value was adjusted by 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ NaOH or
145 HNO₃ solution. The 50 mL centrifuge tubes containing 2 mg adsorbent and 20 mL of 0.5
146 mmol·L⁻¹ heavy metal ion solution were ultrasonically treated for 2 minutes to achieve uniform
147 dispersion of the adsorbent in the liquid, and then transferred in a constant temperature shaker
148 to adsorb at 220 rpm for 24 hours at 298 K. After the adsorption reaction, the solution filtered
149 by a 0.45 μm-filter was analyzed by the inductively coupled plasma optical emission
150 spectrometer (ICP-OES, ICPE-9000, Japan) to determine the concentration of heavy metal
151 ions. The adsorption efficiency (η) and equilibrium adsorption capacity (Q_e) were calculated
152 from the Eq. (1) and (2). (Liu et al., 2019)

$$\eta = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{C_0} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$Q_e = \left(\frac{C_0 - C_e}{m} \right) V \quad (2)$$

153 where C_0 and C_e (mg·L⁻¹) are the initial and equilibrium concentrations of heavy metal ions in
154 solution, respectively, m (g) is the adsorbent mass, and V (L) is the volume of solution.

155 For the kinetics study, 40 mg PPDCBAs were added to 10 mL of deionized water and the
156 mixture was treated with ultrasound for 2 minutes, then poured into the 400 mL of 0.5 mmol·L⁻¹
157 ¹ Hg(II) solution at pH 5-6. The reaction system was stirred with magnetic stirring at a speed

of 220 rpm and kept at 298 K with an oil bath. At time zero and preselected time intervals (0-420 min), 2 mL samples were taken out and filtered quickly with polyethersulfone membrane for Hg(II) concentration analysis.

To investigate the pH effect on Hg(II) removal by the as-prepared samples, the solution's initial pH values were adjusted from 2 to 6 with 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ HNO₃ or NaOH solution. Different dosages are designed in the range of 0.05-1.0 g L⁻¹ at an initial concentration of 100 mg·L⁻¹ (pH = 5.5, T = 25 °C) to study the effect of adsorbent dosage. In addition, adsorption isotherm studies were carried out by changing the initial concentration of Hg(II) from 0.05 to 1 mmol·L⁻¹ at four different temperatures (288 K, 298 K, 308 K, 318 K).

The effect of background ions (Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻) was investigated in a binary adsorption mode, and the concentration of background ions was 10 mmol·L⁻¹. Furthermore, in order to study the selective adsorption performance of the adsorbent, mixed solutions were explored. The competitive heavy metal ions included Pb(II), Cd(II), Cu(II) and Zn(II), with the same concentration of 0.5 mmol·L⁻¹ of Hg(II).

In addition, batch adsorption-desorption experiments were carried out to investigate the regeneration and reusability of PPDCBAs. Typically, 15 mg of PPDCBAs was mixed into 150 mL of Hg(II) solution (0.5 mmol·L⁻¹, pH=5.5). Then the desorption and regeneration of exhausted PPDCBAs were accomplished with a 150 mL solution containing 0.1 mol·L⁻¹ HCl and 1 wt% thiourea and vibrating for 3 h at 298 K (Duan et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2022). Then, the adsorbent was filtered and washed with deionized water until the filtrate was neutral for the next adsorption-desorption cycle.

2.5. Density functional theory calculation details

The density functional theory (DFT) calculation was employed for further confirmation of the adsorption mechanism. The simulation was carried out by the Gaussian 09W software package using the B3LYP-D3 function, where D3 denotes the third-generation dispersion correction by Grimme. The solvation effect (H₂O) was evaluated with solvation model based on density (SMD) (Marenich et al., 2009). For structural optimization and frequency calculation, the 6-31+G(d) basis set was applied for the description of C, H, N, and O atoms, whereas the LANL2DZ basis set was used for Hg (Fu, T. et al., 2019). And static calculation was conducted using LANL2DZ basis set for Hg and 6-311++G(d, p) basis set for other atoms (Fu, T. et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2019).

The adsorption energy (ΔE_{ad}) was calculated to evaluate the affinity between adsorbent materials and heavy metals by Eq. (3) (Oyetade et al., 2017).

$$\Delta E_{ad} = E_{complex} - (E_{metal} + E_{material}) \quad (3)$$

where $E_{complex}$, E_{metal} and $E_{material}$ are the energy (kJ·mol⁻¹) of the metal ion-adsorbent complex, metal ion and adsorbent material, respectively.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterization of the poly(pyrrole methane)s

Fig. 1 exhibits the FT-IR spectra of the four poly(pyrrole methane)s. The peaks at around 3435 cm⁻¹ are the N–H stretch of the pyrrole ring (Ji et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019), the weak peaks at about 3100-3000 and 3000-2900 cm⁻¹ are related to the C–H stretch of a benzene ring

198 and backbone (Liu et al., 2019), respectively. The C=C stretching of the benzene ring in
199 PPDBA, PPD2CBA, PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA appear at 1593, 1633, 1604 and 1608 cm^{-1} ,
200 respectively. The peaks at 1565 and 1407 cm^{-1} in PPDBA, 1576 and 1393 cm^{-1} in PPD2CBA,
201 1558 and 1387 cm^{-1} in PPD3CBA, 1540 and 1389 cm^{-1} in PPD4CBA are consistent with C=C
202 stretching and C–N stretching of the pyrrole ring, respectively (Anirudhan et al., 2008; Xu et
203 al., 2019). Compared with the PPDBA, the new adsorption bands at 3266, 1755 and 1287 cm^{-1}
204 in PPD2CBA, 3238, 1698 and 1266 cm^{-1} in PPD3CBA, 3258, 1699 and 1269 cm^{-1} in
205 PPD4CBA are attributed to –OH stretching, C=O stretching and C–O stretching of the carboxyl
206 group on the benzene ring, respectively (Ballav et al., 2018; Saleh, 2015; Xu et al., 2019).
207 However, it should be noted that the absorption peaks of –OH and C=O on the carboxyl group
208 of PPD2CBA are quite different from those on the other two samples, which is mainly caused
209 by the number of carboxyl groups. Since PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA contain more carboxyl
210 groups, hydrogen bonds are easily formed between the carboxyl groups, which will extend the
211 stretching peak of –OH to about 2500 cm^{-1} , and shift the stretching of C=O from 1755 to 1700
212 cm^{-1} (Bakker et al., 2003; I.D.Reva and S.G.Stepanian, 1995; Toru Yahagi et al., 2001). The
213 results of FT-IR indicated that the four poly(pyrrole methane)s were successfully synthesized
214 in this work.

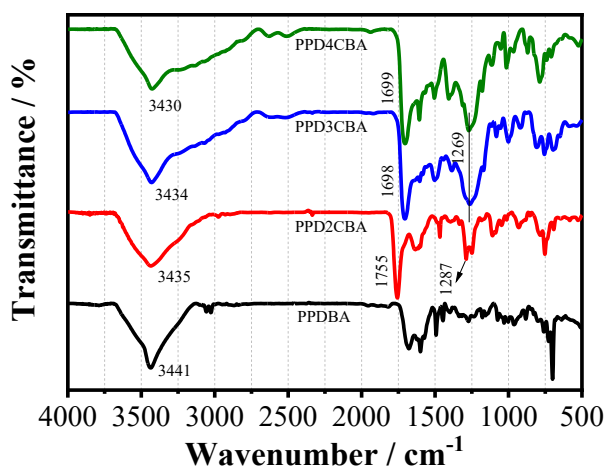


Fig. 1. FT-IR spectra of as-prepared PPDCBAs derivatives.

Fig. S1 shows the ^1H NMR spectra of the samples. PPDBA: ^1H NMR (500 MHz, DMSO-d_6 , δ): 10.87-10.12 (broad, 1H, NH), 7.84-6.59 (m, 7H, Pyr-H and Ar-H), 5.34 (s, 1H, $(\text{Pyr})_2\text{-CH-Ar}$). PPD2CBA: ^1H NMR (500 MHz, DMSO-d_6 , δ): 12.38 (s, 1H, COOH), 11.25-10.87 (broad, 1H, NH), 7.93-6.62 (m, 6H, Pyr-H and Ar-H), 5.56 (s, 1H, $(\text{Pyr})_2\text{-CH-Ar}$). PPD3CBA: ^1H NMR (500 MHz, DMSO-d_6 , δ): 12.95 (s, 1H, COOH), 10.86-10.12 (broad, 1H, NH), 8.45-6.89 (m, 6H, Pyr-H and Ar-H), 5.38 (s, 1H, $(\text{Pyr})_2\text{-CH-Ar}$). PPD4CBA: ^1H NMR (500 MHz, DMSO-d_6 , δ): 12.94 (s, 1H, COOH), 10.89-10.25 (broad, 1H, NH), 8.40-6.89 (m, 6H, Pyr-H and Ar-H), 5.38 (s, 1H, $(\text{Pyr})_2\text{-CH-Ar}$) (Li et al., 2015). It is noted that the chemical shift of ^1H on the carboxyl group in PPD2CBA is lower than that in PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA, which is because more carboxyl groups in PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA strengthened the hydrogen bonds between the sample molecules and reduced the shielding effect of active hydrogen, increasing the chemical shift.

As depicted in Fig. S2, exposure of PPDCBAs to water at different pH (pH = 2-6) for 2 days caused no obvious changes in molecular structure, which indicated that PPDCBAs had

excellent stability under the current pH range. In addition, TG curves showed that poly(pyrrole methane)s still had good thermal stability when the temperature reached 200 °C (Fig. S3).

The elemental analysis result show that PPD4CBA and PPD3CBA have higher oxygen content (Table 1), which means that they may contain more carboxyl groups, which is consistent with the results of FT-IR and NMR. The oxygen in PPDBA may come from the adsorbed water. The difference in oxygen content may be due to the influence of the spatial position of carboxyl and aldehyde groups on the electrophilic substitution reaction in the polymerization process.

Table 1. Content of C, N, H and O elements in the four prepared adsorbents

	Adsorbents	C%	N%	H%	O%
Test Value	PPDBA	81.25	8.47	5.20	1.9
	PPD2CBA	70.53	6.97	4.10	13.6
	PPD3CBA	67.18	6.43	4.42	18.4
	PPD4CBA	66.47	6.58	4.46	18.9
Theoretical Value	PPDBA	85.16	9.03	5.81	---
	PPDCBA _s	72.36	7.04	4.52	16.08

The morphologies of the poly(pyrrole methane)s are characterized by SEM. As shown in Fig. S4, all of them show irregular, short rod-shaped or spherical skeletons like aggregate. Pore structure and specific surface area of the as-prepared poly(pyrrole methane) are shown in Table S1 and Fig. S5. Obviously, PPD4CBA has a larger specific surface area (S_{BET} , 106.92 m²·g⁻¹) and pore volume (V , 0.76 cm³·g⁻¹) than the other three samples.

3.2. Investigation of adsorption properties

3.2.1. Effect of initial pH

The impact of the initial pH of the solution on the adsorption is shown in Fig. 2a. The result indicates that the adsorption capacity of Hg(II) onto the poly(pyrrole methane)s is highly pH-dependent. The capture capacity increases with pH from 2 to 4 and reaches a plateau at pH from 4 to 7. Generally, for mercury ions, Hg^{2+} and $\text{Hg}(\text{OH})^+$ are the dominant species in the solution at pH of 2-3 without Cl^- (Fig. 2b). Meanwhile, PPDCBAs are positively charged as their pH is below the pH_{zpc} (Fig. 2c). So, the low adsorption capacity for mercury at this pH may be attributed to electrostatic repulsion between positively charged mercury and adsorbent surface as well as the competition from H^+ in the solution. With the increase of pH, mercury(II) is gradually converted to neutral $\text{Hg}(\text{OH})_2(\text{aq})$. The electrostatic repulsion with the adsorbent is negligible for the neutral $\text{Hg}(\text{OH})_2(\text{aq})$ is the dominant species at pH range 4-7. (Dong et al., 2013) Meanwhile, the complexation of $\text{Hg}(\text{OH})_2(\text{aq})$ with carboxylic groups in PPDCBAs is likely more favored because carboxylic groups became more deprotonated ($=\text{COO}^-$) at this pH range (Dong et al., 2013). Furthermore, $\text{Hg}(\text{OH})_2$ has better mobility due to the smaller “effective molecular size” than Hg^{2+} and $\text{Hg}(\text{OH})^+$ (Zhang et al., 2012).

3.2.2. Effect of dosage

The optimal adsorbent dosage is a critical parameter for the purification of wastewater by adsorption. Fig. 2d and Fig. S6 show the removal rate and adsorption capacity of Hg(II) with respect to the adsorbent dosage, respectively. The removal rate increases rapidly as a function

of dosages loading, which can be attributed to the increase of available adsorption sites. Eventually, the removal rate of mercury gradually reaches 100% for PPDCBAs. However, the removal rate of Hg(II) remains basically invariant for PPDBA as the dosage increases, owing to fewer adsorption sites of PPDBA. Furthermore, even at a low dosage ($0.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), the removal rate of Hg(II) by PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA can still reach above 90%, and PPDCBAs maintain high adsorption capacity. Therefore, the dosage of $0.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ was chosen as a standard in the following experiments.

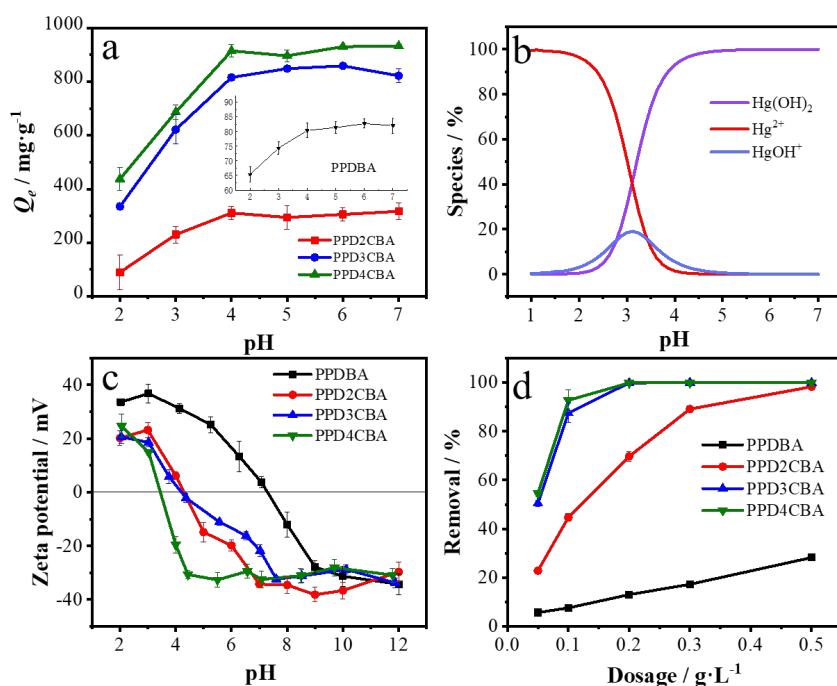


Fig. 2. Effect of initial solution pH on the Hg(II) adsorption ($C_0 = 100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, dosage = $0.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $T = 298 \text{ K}$, pH = 2-7) (a), Morphological distribution of Hg(II) at different pH in the absence of chloride (b), Zeta potentials of the adsorbents (c), Effect of dosage on the removal of Hg(II) ($C_0 = 100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, dosage = $0.05\text{-}0.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $T = 298 \text{ K}$, pH=5.5) (d).

3.2.3. Adsorption kinetics

The influence of the contact time on Hg(II) adsorption by PPDCBAs is shown in Fig. 3a. Hg(II) adsorption onto PPDCBAs increased rapidly in the initial 30 min and reached a plateau afterwards. And the initial adsorption rate of three PPDCBAs followed the order of PPD4CBA > PPD3CBA > PPD2CBA. The adsorption equilibrium of the PPDCBAs reached within 100 min.

Pseudo-first-order (PFO) model and pseudo-second-order (PSO) model are always employed to evaluate the kinetic data. The differential form of the PFO model and PSO model are described in Eq. (4) and (5) (Wang and Guo, 2020), respectively.

$$\frac{dQ_t}{dt} = k_1(Q_e - Q_t) \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{dQ_t}{dt} = k_2(Q_e - Q_t)^2 \quad (5)$$

where Q_t ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) and Q_e ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) are the adsorption capacity at time t (min) and equilibrium respectively, k_1 (min^{-1}) and k_2 ($\text{g}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) are the rate constants for the pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order, respectively.

Integrating Eq. (4) and (5) for the conditions of $Q_0 = 0$ yields Eq. (6) and (7), respectively.

$$Q_t = Q_e(1 - e^{-k_1 t}) \quad (6)$$

$$Q_t = \frac{k_2 Q_e^2 t}{1 + k_2 Q_e t} \quad (7)$$

PFO and PSO models are applicable to three different hypotheses and conditions, respectively. Firstly, the high C_0 value is applicable to the PFO model, while the low C_0 value is applicable to PSO model; Secondly, PFO model can better describe the initial stage of the

adsorption process, while PSO model is more suitable for the adsorption process at the final stage; Finally, the adsorption materials with few adsorption sites can be better described by PFO model. Therefore, the adsorption is not only determined by the active sites, and in some cases, the PFO model can be dominated by external/internal diffusion. However, the adsorption materials with abundant active sites can be well modelled by the PSO model, which means the adsorption kinetics is dominated by the adsorption onto the active site (Wang and Guo, 2020).

In addition, the Elovich model has been extensively applied to chemisorption data, which was described by Eq. (8) (Elovich and Larinov, 1962; Tran et al., 2017).

$$\frac{dQ_t}{dt} = \alpha e^{-\beta Q_t} \quad (8)$$

where α ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) reflects the initial adsorption rate because $dQ_t/dt \rightarrow \alpha$ when $Q_t \rightarrow 0$, and β ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) is the desorption constant during any one experiment.

By applying the boundary conditions of $Q_t = 0$ at $t = 0$, the integrated form of Eq. (8) will become Eq. (9)

$$Q_t = \frac{1}{\beta} \ln(1 + \alpha\beta t) \quad (9)$$

Table S2 depicts the kinetic parameters for the three models. It can be observed that the PSO ($R^2 = 0.9518\text{-}0.9703$) could better describe the adsorption kinetics of PPDCBAs for Hg(II) compared with PFO ($R^2 = 0.8920\text{-}0.9112$), suggesting that the adsorption kinetics is dominated by the adsorption onto the active site. The Elovich model with the larger correlation coefficients ($R^2 = 0.9829\text{-}0.9987$) further indicated that the adsorption of Hg(II) onto PPDCBAs involved a chemical adsorption process. Moreover, the relatively bigger rate constant α indicated that PPD4CBA had a higher initial adsorption rate (Lin et al., 2018).

In addition, the diffusion mechanism was further evaluated by analyzing the role of intra-particle diffusion in the adsorption process. The linearized transformation of the intra-particle diffusion model is presented as Eq. (10) (Tran et al., 2017).

$$Q_t = k_i t^{\frac{1}{2}} + C_i \quad (10)$$

where k_i ($\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1/2}$) is the intra-particle diffusion rate constant and C_i ($\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$) is a constant associated with the thickness of the boundary layer, where a higher value of C_i corresponds to a greater effect on the limiting boundary layer.

Linear plots of the intra-particle diffusion model for all three adsorbents are depicted in Fig. 3b. It can be seen that the adsorption process can be divided into three linear regions with different slopes, which indicates that the adsorption process is affected by multiple diffusion steps. The initial sharp linear region could be attributed to the surface adsorption of Hg(II), which was controlled by boundary layer diffusion. In the second stage, the adsorption rate slowed down gradually, indicating that intra-particle diffusion was the rate-limiting mechanism during this stage. In the last stage, due to the decrease in the Hg(II) concentration in solution, the diffusion rate in the particles further slowed down, thus reaching the final equilibrium stage.

3.2.4. Adsorption isotherm

Adsorption isotherms play a vital role in evaluating the adsorption capacities of adsorbents and investigating chemical interactions between adsorbate and adsorbents. Langmuir and Freundlich isotherms are widely used to analyze the adsorption isotherm data, and their non-linear formulas are given by Eq. (11) and (12), respectively (Al-Ghouti and Da'ana, 2020;

331 Zhang, Y. et al., 2021). The basic assumptions of the Langmuir isotherm are: (1) monolayer
 332 adsorption; (2) the distribution of adsorption sites is homogeneous; (3) the adsorption energy
 333 is constant; and (4) the interaction between adsorbate molecules is negligible. And the
 334 Freundlich equation is one of the earliest empirical equations used to describe equilibrium data
 335 and adsorption characteristics for a heterogeneous surface (Freundlich, 1907). Unlike the
 336 Langmuir isotherm model, Freundlich model is not restricted to the monolayer formation in
 337 which its application to the multilayer adsorption is possible (Al-Ghouti and Da'ana, 2020).

$$Q_e = \frac{Q_{\max} K_L C_e}{1 + K_L C_e} \quad (11)$$

$$Q_e = K_F C_e^{1/n} \quad (12)$$

338 where C_e ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) is the heavy metal ion concentration at adsorption equilibrium; Q_e ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)
 339 and Q_{\max} ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) are the equilibrium adsorption capacity and the maximum monolayer
 340 adsorption capacity, respectively; K_L ($\text{L}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1}$) is the Langmuir constant which is related to the
 341 affinity of adsorbate and the binding sites; K_F ($(\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1})/(\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1})^{1/n}$) is the Freundlich constant
 342 indicating the relative adsorption capacity of the adsorbents. n is a dimensionless constant
 343 related to the intensity of adsorption.

344 In addition, the dimensionless separation factor R_L can estimate the favorability of the
 345 adsorption and is expressed by Eq. (13) (Al-Ghouti and Da'ana, 2020; Hall et al., 1966).

$$R_L = \frac{1}{1 + K_L C_0} \quad (13)$$

where C_0 ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) is the initial concentration of adsorbate. The value of R_L indicates irreversible adsorption when $R_L = 0$, favorable adsorption when $0 < R_L < 1$, linear case when $R_L = 1$ or unfavorable adsorption when $R_L > 1$.

According to Fig. 3c-e and Table S3, Langmuir model fits better than the Freundlich model for all PPDCBAs, suggesting that the adsorption process is monolayer adsorption.(Xu et al., 2019) Meanwhile, according to the calculation based on experimental data, the values of R_L are in the range of 0 to 1, which indicates the adsorption process is favorable under operating conditions (Al-Ghouti and Da'ana, 2020). Moreover, as the temperature increases from 288 K to 328 K, the maximum adsorption capacity (Q_{\max}) of Hg(II) onto PPD2CBA, PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA increased from 406.82 to 875.14 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, from 862.62 to 1234.66 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ and from 919.75 to 1427.18 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, respectively. In conclusion, it is believed that Hg(II) adsorption is achieved by forming monolayers on the limited adsorption sites on the homogeneous surface (Xu et al., 2019). The comparisons of the adsorption performance of various adsorbents for Hg(II) are shown in Fig. S7 and Table S4. The PPDCBAs offer good adsorption properties for Hg(II) with a very low usage dose ($0.1 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) at a wide pH range.

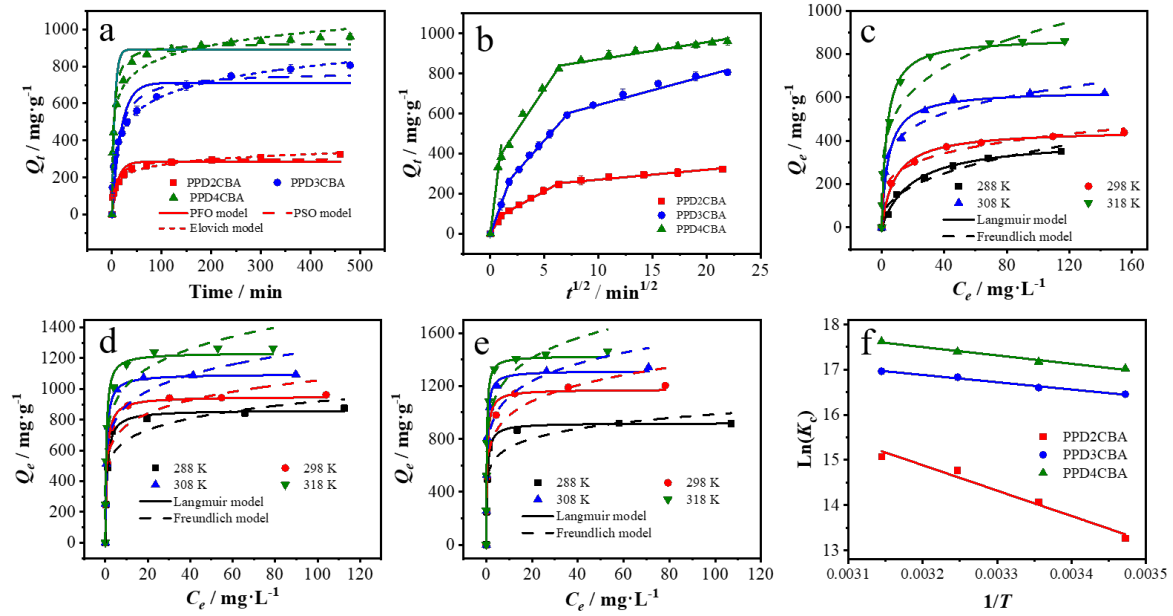


Fig. 3. Adsorption kinetics plots and fitting curves of Hg(II) onto PPDCBAs (a), intra-particle diffusion model for adsorption of Hg(II) onto PPDCBAs (b) ($C_0 = 100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, Dosage = $0.1\cdot\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $T = 298 \text{ K}$, $\text{pH}=5.5$), adsorption isotherms for the adsorption of Hg(II) onto PPD2CBA, PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA (c-e) ($C_0 = 100 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, dosage = $0.1\cdot\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, $T = 288\text{--}318 \text{ K}$, $\text{pH} = 5.5$), the plots to determine the thermodynamic parameters of Hg(II) adsorption onto PPDCBAs (f).

3.2.5. Thermodynamic parameters

According to Fig. 3c-e and Table S3, the maximum adsorption capacities increase with increasing temperature. Thermodynamic parameters, such as entropy change (ΔS , $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$), enthalpy change (ΔH , $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$) and the standard free energy change (ΔG , $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$) can be derived based on Eq. (14-16) (Tran et al., 2017; Zhou and Zhou, 2014).

$$\ln K_c = \frac{-\Delta H}{RT} + \frac{\Delta S}{R} \quad (14)$$

$$K_C = \ln(M_w \times 55.5 \times 1000 \times K_L) \quad (15)$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (16)$$

where K_C is a dimensionless standard equilibrium constant. 55.5 is the mole concentration of water in $\text{mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, K_L is the Langmuir constant in $\text{L}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, and M_w ($\text{g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$) is the molecular weight of the adsorbate. R ($8.314 \text{ J}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$) is the universal gas constant, and T is the temperature in K.

ΔS and ΔH are calculated from the intercept and slope of the plot of $\ln K_d$ versus $1/T$ (Fig. 3f). The obtained values of ΔG , ΔH and ΔS under different temperatures are listed in Table S5. The negative ΔG and positive ΔH indicate that the Hg(II) adsorption process is spontaneous and endothermic (Xu et al., 2019). And the positive values of ΔS indicate that the randomness at the solid-liquid interface increases in the adsorption process of Hg(II) (Liu et al., 2019). Moreover, the ΔG values decrease with increased temperature, suggesting increased spontaneity with temperature.

3.2.6. Effect of the co-existing ions on Hg(II) adsorption

In addition to heavy metals, other ions (e.g., Ca^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^-) widely exist in various water bodies, which may have a negative impact on the adsorption process. In view of this, the effect of selected ions (Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-}) on the removal of Hg(II) by PPDCBAs was studied. As shown in Fig. 4a, the co-existing ions such as Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and SO_4^{2-} do not impact Hg(II) adsorption, which also indicates that NO_3^- has no effect on the adsorption of mercury because the cations are all from the corresponding nitrate. However, Cl^- has an apparent inhibitory effect, which is consistent with the literature reports

(Jainae et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2017). This is because mercury species are complicated by the high chloride ion concentration ($10 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1} \text{ NaCl}$) (Fig. 4b) (Jainae et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2017). According to the calculation, under the condition of $\text{pH} = 5\text{-}6$, Cl^- and Hg(II) will form multiple complexes, in which HgCl_2 is the dominant species, reaching nearly 90%, HgCl_3^- accounts for nearly 10%, but Hg(OH)_2 and HgClOH are trace amounts. Then different concentrations of NaCl are added to further explore the effect of Cl^- on Hg(II) adsorption. Fig. 4c shows the adsorption capacity of PPD4CBA for Hg(II) and the morphological distribution of Hg at $\text{pH}=5.5$ at different Cl^- concentrations, respectively. As the concentration of Cl^- increases, the adsorption capacity has the same trend with Hg(OH)_2 content but the opposite trend with HgCl_2 content, indicating that Hg(OH)_2 is an important species to be adsorbed but HgCl_2 is hardly adsorbed. In addition, when the concentration of Cl^- is 1.0 mmol , the amount of Hg(OH)_2 only accounts for 2%, but PPD4CBA still has an adsorption capacity of more than $440 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, indicating that HgClOH may contribute a part of the adsorption capacity. And as shown in Fig. 4d, the adsorption capacity of PPD4CBA for Hg(II) has a good positive linear relationship with the percentage of Hg(OH)_2 plus HgClOH , which further indicates that Hg(OH)_2 and HgClOH are active species and have much stronger affinity with the adsorbent than HgCl_2 . On the one hand, Hg(OH)_2 and HgClOH has a smaller “effective molecular size” and higher mobility than HgCl_2 (Afaneh et al., 2012; Nightingale, 1959). On the other hand, Hg(OH)_2 is more accessible to interact with the active adsorption sites due to the hydrogen bond between hydroxyl and carboxyl (Zhang et al., 2020).

412 Selectivity is an important parameter for adsorbents in practical applications since several
 413 co-existing heavy metal ions may also be present in Hg(II)-containing wastewater. Therefore,
 414 the possible interference of various co-existing ions (Cu(II), Cd(II), Pb(II), and Zn(II)) on
 415 Hg(II) adsorption was investigated. As noted in Fig. 4e, PPDCBAs exhibit high adsorption
 416 selectivity for Hg(II), and competition from co-existing ions rarely disturbs the adsorption of
 417 Hg(II). The results show that PPDCBAs have a much stronger affinity for Hg(II). In addition,
 418 distribution coefficients (K_d , L·g⁻¹) and selectivity coefficient (α) calculations were calculated
 419 to investigate the affinity and selectivity degree of adsorbents. The large K_d values indicate that
 420 PPDCBAs can well remove the metal ions. K_d and α could be illustrated as Eq. (17, 18) (Lin
 421 et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2014).

$$K_d = \frac{Q_e}{C_e} \quad (17)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{K_d(Hg)}{K_d(M_i)} \quad (18)$$

422 where $K_d(Hg)$ and $K_d(M_i)$ represent the distribution coefficients of Hg(II) and co-existing ions,
 423 respectively.

424 As noted in Table 2, the K_d value of Hg(II) exceeds that of interfering ions, suggesting that
 425 PPDCBAs have an adsorption affinity for Hg(II) that surpasses interfering ions by a wide
 426 margin. In addition, the adsorption capacity of PPDCBAs for Cu(II) and Pb(II) is slightly
 427 higher than that of Cd(II) and Zn(II), which is related to the existence form of ions under
 428 experimental conditions. Cu(II) and Pb(II) form part of hydroxide, while Cd(II) and Zn(II)
 429 basically exist in the form of M^{2+} at pH = 5-6 (Fig. S8). This illustrates that PPDCBAs have a

stronger affinity for the complex of heavy metals and hydroxide than other M^{2+} , which further proves the effect of initial pH on mercury adsorption.

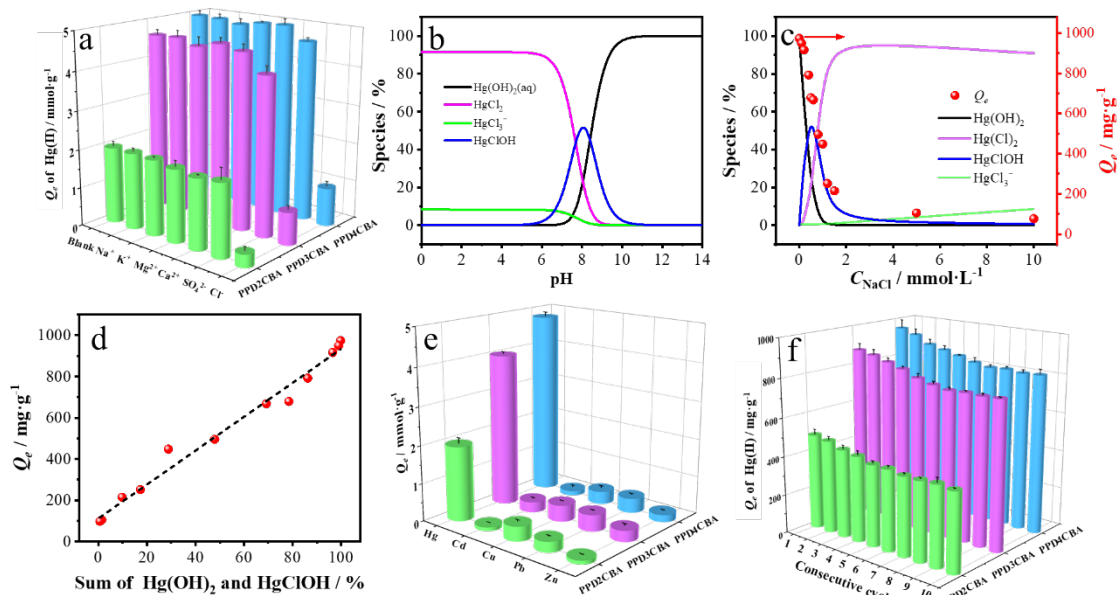


Fig. 4. Effect of background ions on the removal of Hg(II) by PPDCBAs ($C_0 = 0.5 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, dosage = $0.1 \cdot \text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, $T = 298 \text{ K}$, $\text{pH} = 5.5$, the concentration of background ions is $10 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$) (a), Morphological distribution of Hg(II) at different pH at NaCl concentration of $10 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ (b), Adsorption capacity of PPD4CBA for Hg(II) and the morphological distribution of Hg at $\text{pH} = 5.5$ at different Cl^- concentrations (c), The linear relationship between the adsorption capacity of PPD4CBA and the ratio sum of Hg(OH)₂ and HgOHCl (d), Effect of co-existing heavy metal ions on the removal of Hg(II) by PPDCBAs ($C_M = 0.5 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, dosage = $0.1 \cdot \text{g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, $T = 298 \text{ K}$, $\text{pH} = 5.5$) (e), Adsorption-desorption cycles of Hg(II) onto PPDCBAs (f).

Table 2. The distribution coefficient and selectivity coefficient of heavy metal adsorbed by PPDCBAs

Metal ions	PPD2CBA	PPD3CBA	PPD4CBA
------------	---------	---------	---------

	K_d (L·g ⁻¹)	α	K_d (L·g ⁻¹)	α	K_d (L·g ⁻¹)	α
Hg	6.12	—	34.12	—	127.02	—
Pb	0.64	9.53	1.05	32.38	0.93	137.18
Cu	0.94	6.50	1.06	32.07	0.81	155.88
Zn	0.19	32.46	0.59	58.01	0.37	339.53
Cd	0.19	31.57	0.57	60.21	0.25	511.72

3.3. Evaluation of real application

Compared with other heavy metals, the emission limit of mercury in drinking water is more stringent. Less than 1 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ is restricted by WHO. The adsorption method is commonly used in the advanced treatment of heavy metal wastewater, and the initial mercury content is usually very low (Fu et al., 2022; Richard and Biester, 2016). It is hoped that the adsorbent can remove the low mercury concentration below the emission limit. As shown in Table 3, the concentration of mercury in the solution can be reduced to less than 1 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ after adsorption, which indicates that PPDCBAs can remove trace Hg(II) effectively, proving their potential value in practical applications.

To deeply determine the real application potential of PPDCBAs on Hg(II) removal, the performance of PPDCBAs was further investigated in tap water and Weihe River water matrices. The concentrations of typical anions (e.g., F^- , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , etc.) and COD are shown in Table S6. As the typical Hg(II) concentrations in surface water/groundwater range from 0.001 to 0.87 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, therefore, the tap water and Weihe river water were spiked with 0.1 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ and 0.3 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ Hg(II), respectively. As displayed in Table 3, over 95% of Hg(II) was

successfully removed by PPDCBAs. Based on the above results, the applicability of PPDCBAs to remove Hg(II) in real water matrices is fully validated.

Table 3 Removal result of trace mercury in different types of water by PPDCBAs.

Water type	pH		The concentration of Hg(II) ^a / $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$		
			PPD2CBA	PPD3CBA	PPD4CBA
Deionized water	6.74	Before adsorption		10.8	
		After adsorption	0.739	0.827	0.623
		Removal rate / %	93.1	92.3	94.2
Tap water	7.88	Before adsorption		107	
		After adsorption	---	5.18	5.30
		Removal rate / %	---	95.2	95.0
Weihe River water	7.98	Before adsorption		313	
		After adsorption	---	11.4	12.0
		Removal rate / %	---	96.4	96.2

^a The concentration of mercury was detected by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer.(ICP-MS, NexION 350D)

The regeneration performance of the adsorbent is of great significance in evaluating the practical application value. In many reports, mixed solutions of acid and thiourea have been used to achieve effective desorption of mercury (Duan et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2022). On the one hand, thiourea, as a small molecule substance rich in sulfur and nitrogen, has a very strong binding ability with mercury. On the other hand, desorption is a reverse process of adsorption, and conditions unfavorable to adsorption must be favorable conditions for desorption. In our study, lower pH and Cl^- effectively inhibit the adsorption of mercury, so batch regeneration studies were carried out using the mixed solution of $0.1 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{ HCl}$ and 1.0 wt% thiourea as

the desorption agent. Adsorption-desorption experiments were performed for ten consecutive cycles to evaluate the regeneration efficiency of PPDCBAs (Fig. 4f). After ten adsorption-desorption cycles, the results show that PPDCBAs still maintain more than 85% of their original adsorption capacity, confirming their adsorption stability.

3.4. Mechanism of the Hg(II) adsorbed onto PPDCBAs

The experimental results show that PPDCBAs have a much higher adsorption capacity than that of PPDBA, indicating that the introduction of the carboxyl group significantly improved the performance of the adsorbent, which is in agreement with previous studies (Li et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2018). Meanwhile, the extracted adsorption capacities of PPDCBAs are in the following order: PPD4CBA > PPD3CBA > PPD2CBA, which agrees with the ranking of oxygen content in the results of elemental analysis (please see Table 1). Clearly, in the adsorption process, carboxyl groups play a critical role.

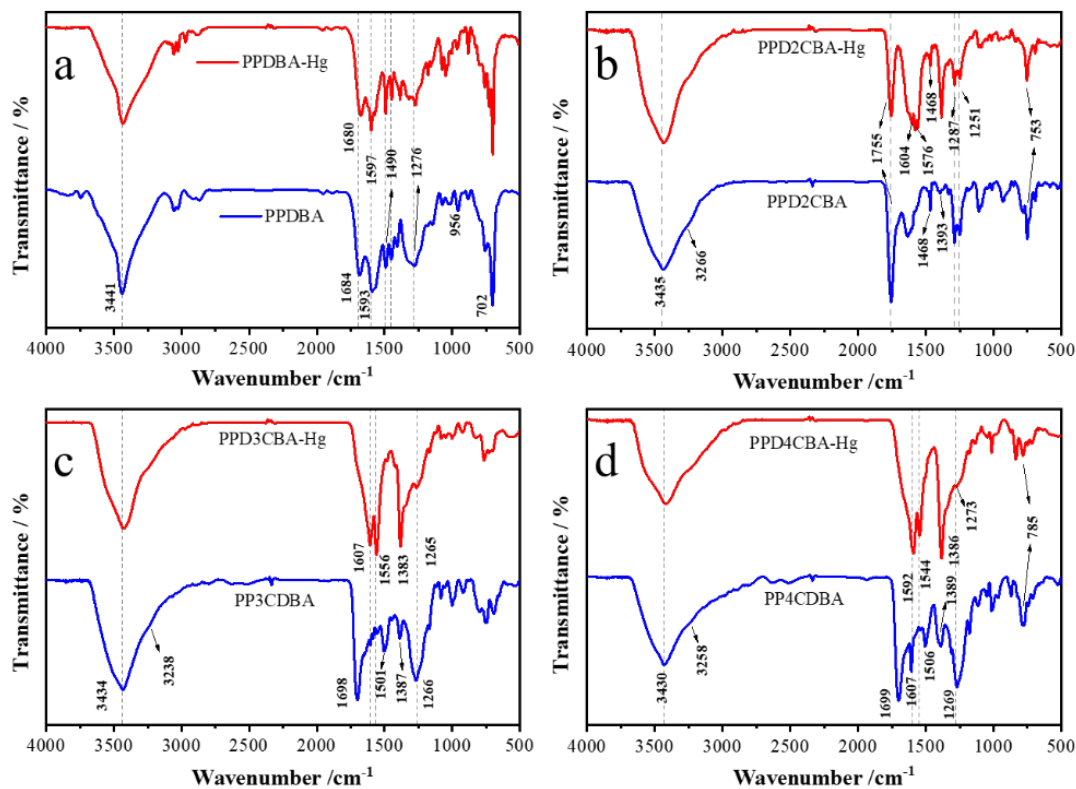
The PPDCBAs before and after adsorption were analyzed using FT-IR. As shown in Fig. 5, the C=O stretching of PPD2CBA (1755 cm^{-1}) is significantly weakened, and the C=O stretching of PPD3CBA (1698 cm^{-1}) and PPD4CBA (1699 cm^{-1}) are disappeared. At the same time, the C-O stretching of the carboxyl group (1287 cm^{-1} for PPD2CBA, 1266 cm^{-1} for PPD3CBA, 1269 cm^{-1} for PPD4CBA) almost disappear after Hg(II) adsorption. These changes indicate that Hg(II) interacts with carboxyl groups on the surface of PPDCBAs.

The XPS spectra were also employed to explore the adsorption mechanism (Fig. 6). In the full-scan spectrum (Fig. 6a-c), the new peaks (Hg 4f) are observed after absorption of Hg(II), and as described in Fig. 6d-f, the binding energy of Hg 4f could be split into two different peaks

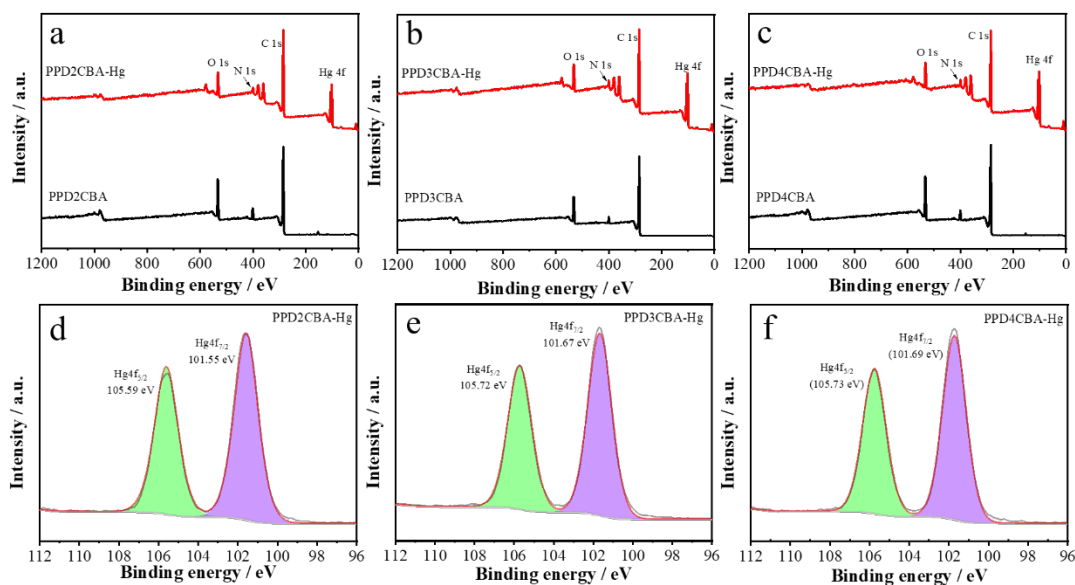
at 105.59-105.73 eV and 101.55-101.69 eV, which turns out that Hg(II) have been successfully adsorbed by PPDCBAs (Duan et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019). Fig. 6g shows the high resolution of O 1s peak of PPD2CBA before and after Hg(II) adsorption. The binding energy of C=O (533.60 eV) and C-O (532.36 eV) (Gao et al., 2019) are changed to 532.97 eV and 531.82 eV after adsorbing mercury, respectively, indicating that the oxygen-containing functional groups are complexed with Hg(II). Similar results appear in Fig. 6h and i, which represent the adsorption of Hg(II) onto PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA, respectively. In Fig. 6j, the binding energy of PPD2CBA at 400.84, 400.34 and 398.41 eV, assigning to $-N^{+-}$, $-NH^-$ and $-N=$ (Liu et al., 2019), are shifted to 400.63, 399.65 and 397.98 eV after adsorption, respectively. These changes indicate that nitrogen atoms are also involved in Hg(II) adsorption onto PPD2CBA. Similarly, Fig. 6k and Fig. 6l also share the same conclusion.

Moreover, the pH value of the solution after adsorption declined slightly when the initial pH was 2-3. However, the pH value after adsorption increased when the initial pH was 4-7 (Table 4). Hence, we speculate that the mercury removal mechanism can be represented by the following complexation between carboxyl groups and Hg(II), as shown in Fig. 7. First, when the pH is low, the main species Hg^{2+} were captured by the carboxyl group ($=COOH$), and hydrogen ions are released after complexation, which leads to a decrease in the pH of the solution. Then as the pH increases, $Hg(OH)_2$ and $HgOH^+$, which gradually became the dominant species, are trapped by the active site under hydrogen bonding and electrostatic attraction, then Hg^{2+} is chelated with the carboxyl group, and OH^- is released at the same time, resulting in an increase in the pH of the solution. Based on the discussion in Section 3.2.6,

513 HgClOH and HgCl_2 are the main active species when Cl^- is present, and the adsorption process
 514 is depicted in Fig. S10.



515
 516 **Fig. 5.** FT-IR spectra of the samples before and after adsorption: PPDBA (a), PPD2C BA (b),
 517 PPD3CBA (c) and PPD4CBA (d).



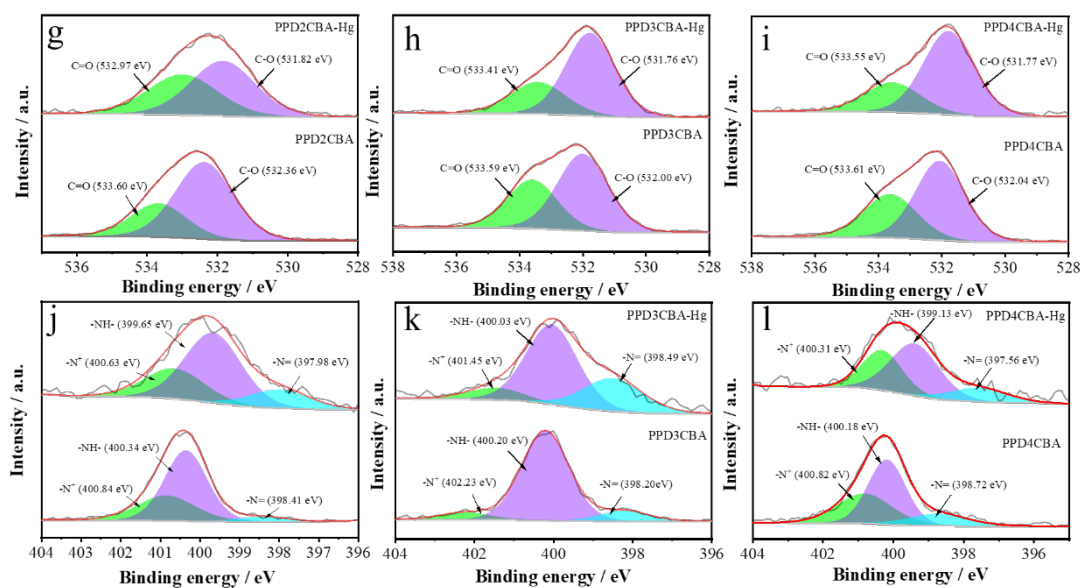


Fig. 6. Full scan survey XPS spectra: PPD2CBA (a), PPD3CBA (b) and PPD4CBA (c), High resolution spectra of Hg 4f (d-f), O 1s (g-i) and N 1s (j-l) of PPD2CBA, PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA before and after Hg(II) adsorption.

Table 4. Variation of solution pH before and after mercury adsorption

Initial pH \ Adsorbents				
	PPDBA	PPD2CBA	PPD3CBA	PPD4CBA
2	2	2.01	2	2
3	3.02	2.98	2.89	2.88
4	4.28	4.28	4.32	4.19
5	7.38	6.21	6.45	6.09
6	8.15	7.09	6.51	6.30

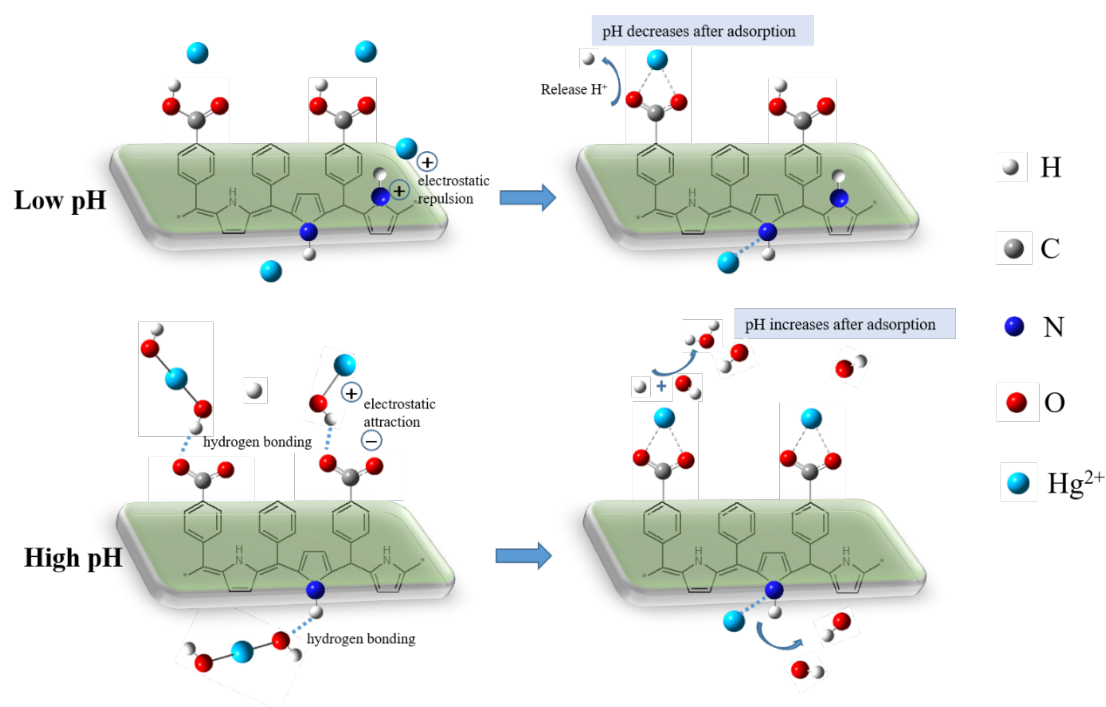


Fig. 7. Possible interactions between carboxyl groups and Hg(II).

DFT calculation was also employed to further confirm the adsorption mechanism. The optimized geometries of the possible complexes formed by poly(pyrrole methane)s with Hg(II) are presented in Fig. 8, and the calculation results are summarized in Table 5. It can be seen that the adsorption energy between the Hg(II) and carboxyl group (from -79.66 to -83.83 kJ·mol⁻¹) is more negative compared with that of the imino group (from -57.29 to -68.54 kJ·mol⁻¹), indicating that the carboxyl groups have a stronger affinity to mercury and play a major role in the mercury capture process, which is consistent with the results of FT-IR analysis. In addition, it can be concluded that the affinity between mercury and the carboxyl group in PPDCBAs confirms the following order: PPD4CBA > PPD3CBA > PPD2CBA, which is consistent with the experimental results of the adsorption capacity. In addition, we further calculated to compare the Mulliken charge distribution of PPDCBAs before and after Hg(II)

adsorption (Takjoo et al., 2016; Tellez et al., 2016; Zhang, Z. et al., 2021). Based on the structure-optimized PPDCBAs, Hg^{2+} and complexes of PPDCBAs and Hg^{2+} , static calculations were carried out and obtained the Mulliken charges of mercury in the PPD2CBA-Hg(II), PPD3CBA-Hg(II) and PPD4CBA-Hg(II) to be +1.5254, +1.5149 and +1.5168 e , respectively. Meanwhile, the mulliken charge transfer values of C15, C23, O24 and O25 in PPD2CBA, C15, C23, O24 and O25 in PPD3CBA and C10, C23, O24 and O25 in PPD4CBA are pretty obvious (more positive) after adsorption (Table S7-S9), which indicates that electrons near the active adsorption site ($-\text{COO}^-$) are transferred and rearranged obviously during the adsorption process, and further verifies the complexation between carboxyl group and Hg(II).

Furthermore, Fig. S11 demonstrates the optimized structure of HgClOH complexed with the active site in solution in the presence of Cl^- and binding energy and Hg-O bond length in Table S10. The results show that the binding energy of the carboxyl group and HgClOH in PPD2CBA, PPD3CBA and PPD4CBA are -77.47, -81.98 and -83.25 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, which also conforms to the following order: $\text{PPD4CBA} > \text{PPD3CBA} > \text{PPD2CBA}$, and is consistent with the experimental results of the adsorption capacity above.

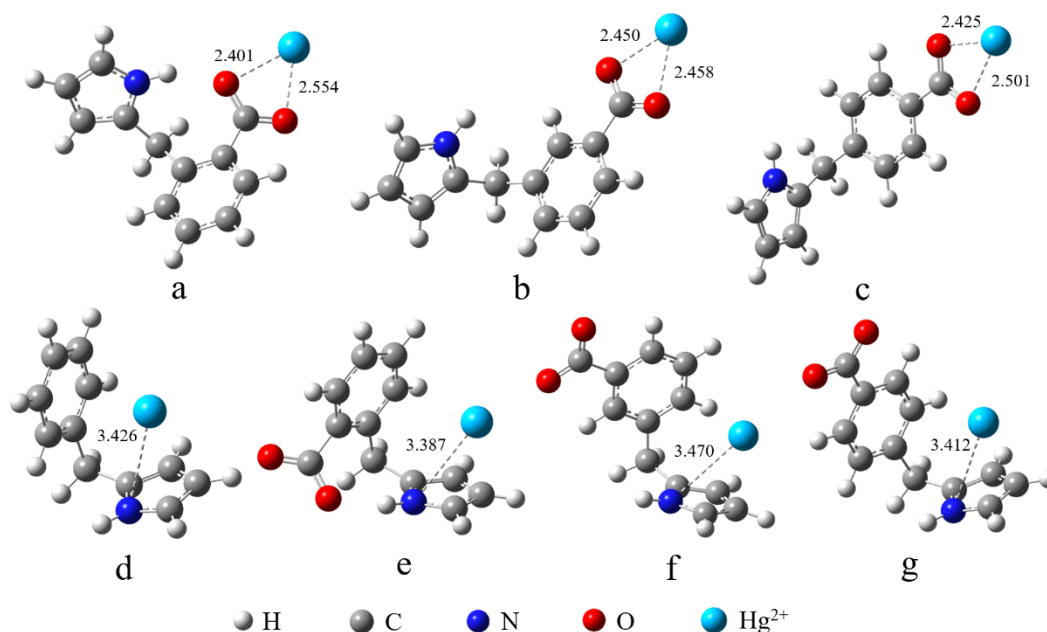


Fig. 8. Optimized geometries for the complexes of Hg(II) with carboxyl in PPD2CBA (a), PPD3CBA (b) and PPD4CBA (c), and the complexes of Hg(II) with imino in PPDBA (d), PPD2CBA (e) PPD3CBA (f) and PPD4CBA (g).

Table 5. Binding energy and bond length between mercury and adsorption active sites

Adsorbents	COO-Hg			NH-Hg	
	ΔE_{ad}	Bond length		ΔE_{ad}	Bond length
	(kJ·mol ⁻¹)	(Å)		(kJ·mol ⁻¹)	(Å)
PPDBA	---	---	---	-57.29	3.426
PPD2CBA	-79.66	2.401	2.554	-67.96	3.387
PPD3CBA	-82.67	2.450	2.458	-66.18	3.470
PPD4CBA	-83.83	2.425	2.501	-68.54	3.412

4. Conclusions

In this work, we have demonstrated a strategy to design and tune the highly efficient and selective removal of Hg(II) from aqueous solution by the poly(pyrrole methane)s with phenolic

carboxyl groups in the molecular skeleton (PPDCBAs). The saturation adsorption capacity of PPDCBAs with phenolic carboxyl groups for Hg(II) is much greater than that of PPDBA without carboxyl groups, indicating that carboxyl groups are the key to improving the adsorption capacity. Furthermore, the order of adsorption capacity of PPDCBAs was found to be: PPD4CBA > PPD3CBA > PPD2CBA. PPD4CBA has the maximum adsorption capacity for mercury of $1427 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$, and the fast kinetics for Hg(II) adsorption equilibrium within 100 min. Meanwhile, PPDCBAs have good adsorption selectivity for Hg(II) due to introducing a carboxyl group and steric hindrance. Moreover, the stronger affinity of PPDCBAs is ascribed to the complex of heavy metals and the carboxyl groups in the molecular skeleton. DFT calculation further proves that carboxyl and mercury have more negative adsorption energy, suggesting that carboxyl played a key role in mercury capture. It is also shown that PPDCBAs can maintain about 85% of the original adsorption capacity after ten adsorption-desorption cycles, which indicates the recyclability and stability of PPDCBAs for Hg(II) removal. In addition, PPDCBAs could adsorb and remove trace amounts of Hg(II) ($10.8 \text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) to meet the drinking water requirement specified by WTO ($1 \text{ }\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$). Our results indicate that PPDCBAs have a strong potential for removing heavy metal ions from aqueous solutions.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Zhenyu Wang: Conceptualization, Investigation, data curation, Writing-original draft preparation.

Yunpeng Liu: Data curation, Writing - review & editing.

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588 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

589 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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599 **Appendix A. Supporting information**

600 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in Supporting Information

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