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**Linear solvation energy relationship development for  
adsorption of synthetic organic compounds by carbon  
nanomaterials: an overview of the last decade**

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## Water Significance Statement

for

### Linear solvation energy relationship development for adsorption of synthetic organic compounds by carbon nanomaterials: an overview of the last decade

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Owing to the discovery and upsurge of engineered carbon nanomaterials (CNMs) in 2000s and 2010s, researchers witnessed the flooding of scientific literature by articles demonstrating the adsorption of synthetic organic compounds (SOCs) by CNMs. Because of this rapid expansion, predictive modelling for adsorption of SOCs by CNMs was made possible in early 2010s. Due to the application potential of engineered CNMs in water treatment and necessity to understand their interactions with SOCs and potential health and environmental implications after their release to the natural aquatic systems, these models are essential. The broad predictive capabilities of linear solvation energy relations models also offer a powerful framework to better understand the interaction of organic molecules with surfaces.

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## **Linear solvation energy relationship development for adsorption of synthetic organic compounds by carbon nanomaterials: An overview of the last decade**

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## 28 **Abstract**

29

30 The production of carbon nanomaterials has been increasing due to their outstanding  
31 properties and innovation potential in various industrial applications. Hence, their discharge  
32 into the aquatic environment from point and non-point sources is inevitable. Therefore, the  
33 natural and built aquatic environments that contain thousands of synthetic organic  
34 contaminants, would facilitate adsorptive interaction between synthetic organic molecules and  
35 carbon nanomaterial surfaces. Today's literature rapidly developed to contain a great number  
36 of adsorption data for synthetic organic compounds onto carbon nanomaterials. The  
37 availability of adsorption data enables generation of structure-activity relationships by  
38 utilizing adsorbate and adsorbent characteristics in simple/controlled aquatic solutions. These  
39 models not only create practical predictive tools but also provide mechanistic insights about  
40 intermolecular interactions between organic molecules and carbon nanomaterials. This review  
41 analyzes 86 linear solvation energy relationship models published in the last decade. Our  
42 work summarizes and compares key independent variables associated with adsorbate  
43 properties (e.g., molecular size, H-bonding ability, polarizability) and identifies critical  
44 factors for selecting dependent variables (e.g., adsorbent characteristics, saturation  
45 concentration). The study also discusses intermolecular interactions unraveled by the  
46 modeling efforts at different adsorbate concentrations. This work aims providing an analysis  
47 of literature to identify key gaps in today's model training efforts and list guiding principles  
48 for ongoing and future linear solvation energy relationship studies.

49

50 **Keywords:** Adsorption, Carbon Nanomaterials, Linear Solvation Energy Relationship, LSER,  
51 Predictive Model, QSAR

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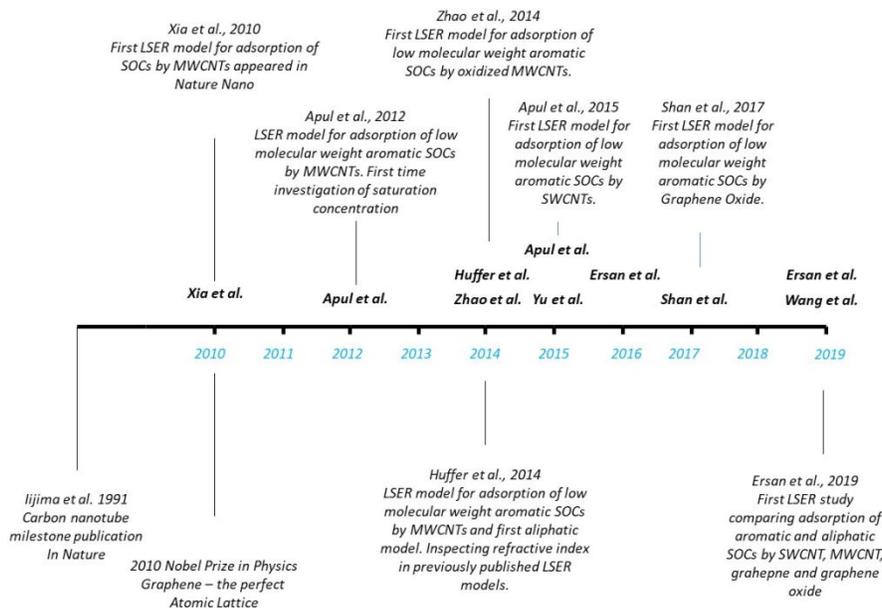
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## 60 **1. General aspects of LSER model development for adsorption of synthetic organic** 61 **compounds by engineered carbon nanomaterials**

62 Engineered carbon nanomaterials (CNM) are graphitic nano-structures (e.g., graphene  
63 nanosheets, carbon nanotubes) with outstanding thermal, dielectric, mechanical, and chemical  
64 properties [1, 2]. Due to their aptitude in a wide array of industrial applications, they are being  
65 produced with an increasing rate [3]. Their upsurge in production makes their eventual release  
66 into the natural aquatic environmental almost inevitable. Once released into the environment,  
67 CNMs would interact with over 80,000 synthetic organic compounds (SOC) in either natural or  
68 built aquatic systems. In addition, CNMs share the same graphitic backbones with traditional  
69 carbonaceous adsorbents and they form bundles (aggregates) in water that resemble the porous  
70 activated carbon (AC) particles. Therefore, CNMs are often compared to traditional adsorbents  
71 and are tailored to remove SOC selectively and efficiently from water. Hence, CNM have been  
72 accepted as promising adsorbents with versatile physicochemical properties. It is imperative to  
73 investigate the adsorption of SOC by CNMs and eventually generate structure-activity  
74 relationships to cut the time, cost and labor requirements for adsorption experiments. These  
75 models would also provide mechanistic insights into the SOC-CNM interactions and enable  
76 application of CNMs in water treatment by decoding the complex adsorptive interactions in  
77 engineered systems.

78 Since Kamlet and co-workers' published their seminal work in 1985; numerous  
79 quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR) models have been developed for adsorption  
80 of SOC by AC in aquatic backgrounds [4-16]. These statistical models are trained to predict  
81 partitioning of SOC onto ACs and they assist decoding molecular-level adsorption interactions.  
82 Owing to the discovery and upsurge of "Nobel Prize decorated" engineered CNMs in 2000s and  
83 2010s; researchers witnessed the flooding of scientific literature by articles demonstrating the  
84 adsorption of SOC by CNMs (e.g., carbon nanotubes [17-32] and graphene nanosheets [33,  
85 34]). As a consequence of the rapid expansion of the literature, QSAR modeling for adsorption  
86 of SOC by CNMs was made possible in early 2010s.

87 Multiple mechanisms of varying relative importance have been proposed to control the  
88 adsorption of SOC by carbonaceous adsorbents. The quantification of these individual  
89 contributions is a challenging task, and it can partially be addressed by QSAR modeling. QSAR  
90 modeling that utilizes solvation theory is an accepted approach. These specific approaches are  
91 referred as linear free energy relationship (LFER) or linear solvation energy relationships  
92 (LSER) in the literature [35-37]. To train an LSER model, solvatochromic descriptors are  
93 utilized and each descriptor can assist explaining adsorptive interactions between the adsorbate,  
94 adsorbent surface, and the solvent. The first LSER model for adsorption of organic compounds  
95 by multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) was published in 2010 by Nature Nanotechnology  
96 [30]. Since this first article, dozens of LSER equations were developed for several CNM types  
97 for a multitude of SOC at different saturation concentrations. Figure 1 shows the milestones and  
98 a timeline of the LSER modeling literature.



99

100 **Figure 1.** Timeline of LSER modeling studies in the last decade [23-34, 38].

101 A typical LSER model (eq. 1) uses predetermined set of adsorbate properties i.e., Abraham  
 102 solvatochromic parameters as independent variables [39-44] and adsorption coefficient as the  
 103 independent variable. The independent parameters are established based on the solvation theory  
 104 because of the mechanistic association of solvation and adsorption [35-37].

$$105 \quad \text{Log } K_i = aA + bB + vV + pP + rR + c \quad [\text{eq. 1}]$$

106 Here, ‘K’ is the adsorption coefficient at saturation concentration of ‘i’ obtained by taking the  
 107 ratio of solid phase concentration to aqueous phase concentration ( $q_e/C_e$ ) at equilibrium.  
 108 Parameter ‘A’ and ‘B’ indicate hydrogen bond donating and accepting ability, respectively, ‘V’  
 109 represents the molecular volume or McGowan’s volume, ‘P’ is the polarizability/dipolarity, ‘R’  
 110 stands for the excess molar refraction, ‘c’ is the regression constant and ‘a’, ‘b’, ‘v’, ‘p’, and ‘r’  
 111 are regression coefficients [45]. Regression coefficients indicate relative influence of each  
 112 parameters on adsorption. Positive and negative values of coefficient indicate direct and inverse  
 113 proportionality, respectively.

114 LSER model development workflow includes the compilation of available adsorption  
 115 data (i.e., either experimental data collection or data mining from published isotherms),  
 116 collection of solvatochromic parameters of the adsorbate molecules, categorization of the  
 117 datasets with respect to adsorbent properties (e.g., graphenes vs. carbon nanotube dataset),  
 118 adsorbate properties (e.g., aliphatic vs. aromatic datasets), and aquatic matrix (e.g., distilled  
 119 water vs. natural organic matter solution). Once the datasets are formed, modeling hypotheses  
 120 can be tested by generating models via multiple linear regression. This workflow and details of  
 121 dataset generation has been previously published elsewhere [46]. LSER model development is a  
 122 vigilant balance between data fitting and prediction strength. An efficient predictive model aims  
 123 for the (i) minimization of least squared errors (good data fitting ability) and, (ii) maximization

124 of operational width and predictive strength. According to the Topliss and Costello rule [47], to  
125 minimize the risk of chance correlations, the ratio of training set SOCs to descriptors should be  
126 at least 5:1. Furthermore, this requirement is sometimes violated, when the similar SOCs (a very  
127 narrow range of  $\log C_{sw}$ ,  $\log K_{ow}$  or molar volume) are selected [26, 27]. In addition to the  
128 statistical validity, a strong predictive model is expected to provide mechanistic insights to the  
129 adsorption mechanisms by attempting to identify/quantify the intermolecular interactions  
130 between adsorbate molecules and adsorbent surfaces. This article (i) summarizes the LSER  
131 development efforts for adsorption of SOCs by carbon nanomaterials in the past decade, (ii)  
132 critically reviews the ongoing debates in the field and (iii) provide future research  
133 recommendations. This review is the first article that surveys the recent literature to provide a  
134 framework and workflow for the elements of LSER model development in the field to the best of  
135 our knowledge. This study also presents a perspective to merge findings of the last decade and  
136 guide future work using the existing knowledge presented on a unified platform.

## 137 2. Selecting independent variables

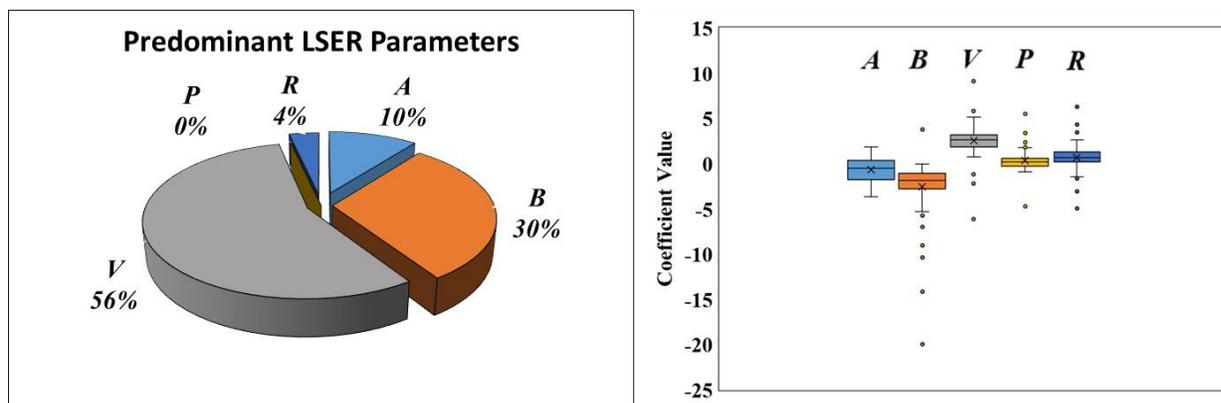
138 There are 86 LSER models published in 14 articles in the last decade capturing  
139 adsorption of organic pollutants by CNMs predominantly aromatic SOCs [21-34]. Figure 2a  
140 shows a summary of parameters (i.e., highest statistical significance within the model) for  
141 adsorption of SOCs by CNMs. Their coefficients are shown in Figure 2b as a box and whiskers  
142 plot. Majority of the models reported  $V$  parameter as the most prevalent independent variable in  
143 the LSER equations with an average coefficient of  $2.70 \pm 1.78$ . Despite the variability of  
144 compound and adsorbent properties, the effect of molecular size ( $V$ ) has been repeatedly reported  
145 to be the controlling molecular property for adsorption that is positively correlated. This was  
146 attributed to the energy requirement of adsorbates for cavity formation among water molecules  
147 with increasing molecular size causing stronger hydrophobic repulsion from water onto carbon  
148 surfaces. In addition, as molecular sizes increase, non-specific attraction (e.g., van der Waals  
149 Forces) can contribute to the adsorption of molecules by carbon nanomaterials. To date, there are  
150 no models distinguishing the two intermolecular interactions from each other. Additional  
151 experimental work suppressing hydrophobic repulsion via utilization of different solvent may be  
152 conducted to gain more insight to the molecular size effect on adsorption.

153 Hydrogen bond accepting property ( $B$ ) is reported as the most predominant parameter in  
154 LSER equations in 30% of the studies with an average coefficient of  $-2.90 \pm 3.21$ , which is  
155 inversely proportional to adsorption as indicated by its negative coefficient. This indicates  
156 molecules with higher basicity showing stronger tendencies to form hydrogen bonding with  
157 water owing to the acidic property of water defined by Bronsted concept. Thus, hydrogen bond  
158 accepting molecules have less participation onto the carbon surface. However, 84% of the  
159 models that report  $B$  as the most predominant parameter are trained either by solely aliphatic  
160 molecules or datasets that contain aliphatic molecules. Therefore, the selection of adsorbate  
161 molecules for LSER training can skew the model parameters, which will be discussed in the  
162 following section. Aliphatic molecules tested in literature are usually short chain hydrocarbons

163 (2-4 C) and their molecular sizes do not cover a wide range to provide a fair comparison with  
 164 aromatic molecules. Literature lacks comprehensive LSER models for adsorption of aliphatic  
 165 molecules by CNMs.

166 Hydrogen bond donating property (*A*), polarizability (*P*), and refractive index (*R*) were  
 167 relatively less significant with average coefficients  $-0.70 \pm 1.29$ ,  $0.54 \pm 1.37$  and,  $0.64 \pm 1.50$ .  
 168 Although, solvation theory prescribes a set of independent variables, there are multiple  
 169 interpretations of LSER modeling where less significant parameters are excluded. Some of the  
 170 studies only consider a subset of statistically significant LSER parameters per statistical analysis.  
 171 Regardless of the analytical approach, picking the independent variables either by excluding  
 172 insignificant parameters (elimination), or by adding parameters (stepwise or forward addition)  
 173 play a critical role on model development. It is debatable whether to remove or keep these  
 174 insignificant terms because, insignificant variables also capture the subtle intermolecular  
 175 interactions on adsorption. In addition, level of statistical significance (usually  $\alpha=0.95$  or  $0.99$ ) is  
 176 an important consideration and can create subjectivity. Therefore, models with and without the  
 177 accepted statistically insignificant parameters must be compared side-by-side in order to  
 178 objectively show the influence of these parameters. In addition, exclusion of insignificant  
 179 parameters can result in inflated significance of the model coefficients potentially skewing the  
 180 results.

181 The refractive index (*R*) parameter was removed from some models that contain only  
 182 aromatic molecules due to triviality of excess molar refraction caused by shielded sigma  
 183 electrons inside  $\pi$  electron clouds [17, 18, 24]. However, later studies reported that the  
 184 contribution of *R* parameter depends on solute saturation concentration as well as the adsorbent  
 185 type [26]. Influence of *R* parameter comprises induction of dipoles and polarizable aromatic  
 186 molecules may show a statistically significant impact on adsorption [29]. In addition, some  
 187 studies have reported that the type of adsorbent (multi-walled vs. single-walled carbon  
 188 nanotubes) indicated different importance of *R* parameter [28,31]. Despite the variability of  
 189 significant parameters, *R* parameter has not been reported to be the most predominant term in  
 190 LSER models so far [28].



191

192 **Figure 2.** Summary of all predominant LSER parameters based on all reported 86 LSER  
193 equations (on left), their coefficient ranges as box, and whiskers plot (on right).

194

### 195 **3. Dataset generation and pre-processing prior to model development**

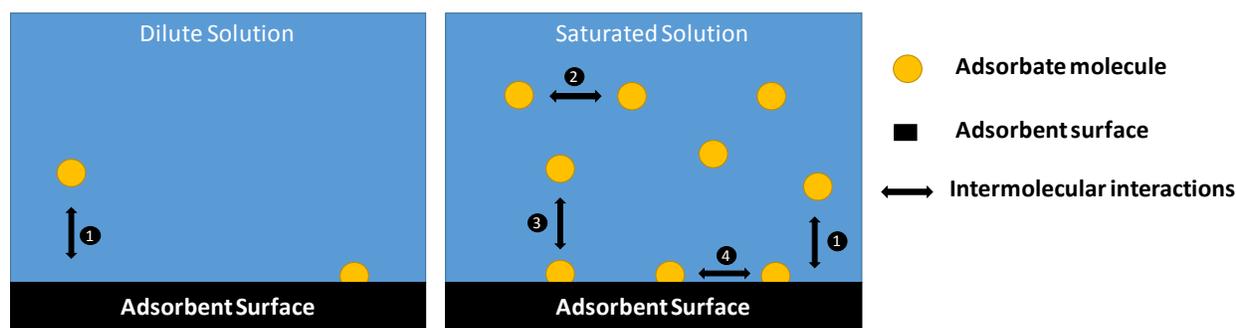
196 To date dozens of articles reported adsorption of 140 organic molecules' by carbon  
197 nanomaterials [33]. The virtual limit of LSER model development is availability of published  
198 adsorption data unless researchers undertake experimental data generation. Further, collection,  
199 indexing and selection of the data to be utilized in LSER equation is a tedious task. There are  
200 two components of the dataset: (i) independent variables i.e., solvatochromic descriptors and (ii)  
201 dependent variables i.e., adsorption descriptors. The compilation of independent variables are  
202 rather simple owing to the advances in computation chemistry software (e.g., ACD ADME  
203 Suite) [21-34]. However, the collection and pre-processing of adsorption descriptors is a time  
204 consuming task. Data is usually reported as adsorption isotherms and equilibrium (or pseudo-  
205 equilibrium) saturation concentration, which depends on the initial concentration. Therefore,  
206 extracting the data from the published data (e.g., isotherms) at the desired saturation  
207 concentration needs to be performed within the actual experimental range to minimize  
208 extrapolation-based errors.

209 The intermolecular interactions that are governing the adsorption of SOCs by CNMs  
210 profoundly depend on compound properties. Combining different classes of compounds (e.g.,  
211 aromatic and aliphatic compounds, ionizable vs. non-ionizable) in one dataset may increase the  
212 operating range of the model; however, the model linearity and parameter interpretation vigor  
213 would be compromised. Therefore, modeling efforts must embrace subsets of the database that  
214 are categorized with a meaningful approach. Although there are several approaches to classify  
215 SOCs (e.g., size, polarity, formal charge, polarizability, and aromaticity); adsorbate molecule's  
216 size and complexity are critical categorization metrics for three reasons. First, size of a molecule  
217 dictates non-specific attractive force between the compound and the surface. Larger molecules  
218 generally have more time-varying uneven electron distribution within molecule's structure that  
219 enables interactions with adjacent molecules, which increases the intensity of intermolecular  
220 forces. Similarly, larger molecules require more energy to partition in water (unless hydrogen  
221 bonding functional groups exist in its structure) causing larger cavity formation energies in  
222 water. Second, large and more complex molecules contain more functional groups (e.g.,  
223 carboxylic acids, ketones, phenolic groups, amines) than small and simple molecular structures.  
224 The complexity of the molecular structure complicates the intermolecular interactions from a  
225 modeling perspective i.e., hydrogen bonding, molecule-molecule interactions. Therefore, size  
226 dictated cut-offs may enable LSER models for adsorption of SOCs by CNMs. Third, SOC  
227 adsorption strictly depends on the physical accessibility of molecules into the final sorption sites  
228 in the pore structures, thus similar size molecules will have similar pore access. Although,  
229 molecular complexity and size is an essential metric for categorization, researchers need to

230 consider other physicochemical SOC classifications based on their datasets prior to presenting  
 231 their models. Because, some molecules have the ability to configure their structure and pack in  
 232 narrow pores, on the contrary, rigid and stable molecules lack this ability. In addition, if an  
 233 ionizable molecule is included in the LSER model, the degree of protonation at the  
 234 corresponding solution pH must then be taken into account to properly assess molecular  
 235 properties.

236 The aqueous concentration of the adsorbate is another critical factor that influences LSER  
 237 modeling. Molecules in a dilute solution are assumed not to interact with each other regardless of  
 238 molecular level thermodynamic considerations simply due to extremely low likelihood of  
 239 molecules to coincide in bulk solution (Figure 3a). Therefore, the adsorption interactions are  
 240 limited to (i) attractive forces between the molecules and the adsorbent surface e.g., non-specific  
 241 attraction, H-bonding, electrostatic attraction,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  bonding (ii) repulsive forces between the  
 242 solvent and the molecules e.g., hydrophobic repulsion, salting out. On the other hand, saturated  
 243 solutions exert additional molecule-molecule interactions in solution or on the surface (Figure  
 244 3b). Therefore, complex intermolecular interactions are likely to be captured by solvatochromic  
 245 parameters changing the model parameters significantly. The most adequate approach to take the  
 246 potential bias of saturation concentration into account would be comparing LSER equations at  
 247 same aqueous concentration; however, the compounds used in LSER equations display a very  
 248 wide range of solubility (from  $1 \times 10^{-1}$  to  $5 \times 10^5$  mg/L). Considering the orders of magnitude  
 249 difference in solubility of SOCs, it is unlikely to find an overlapping (pseudo-)equilibrium  
 250 concentration. Therefore, it is typical to normalize the equilibrium concentration with respect to  
 251 solubility of the compound and report adsorption affinity ( $K_D$ ) at a fixed percent solubility  
 252 concentration (e.g., adsorption affinity at 1% of compound solubility:  $q_e/C_e$  at 1% solubility =  
 253  $K_{D,0.01}$ ).

254



255

256 **Figure 3.** Intermolecular interactions in dilute and saturated solutions: (1) adsorbate molecule -  
 257 surface interactions (2) adsorbate-adsorbate interactions in bulk solution (3) adsorbed molecule -  
 258 dissolved molecule interactions (4) interaction of adsorbed molecules

259

#### 260 4. Effect of CNM properties on LSER modeling

261 Despite the lack of adsorbent properties in quintessential LSER modeling, it is clear that  
262 CNM properties play a defining role for adsorption. There are several approaches to account for  
263 the impact of adsorbent in LSER modeling. The first and foremost is realizing the effects of  
264 predominant nanomaterial properties on adsorption such as specific surface area, pore volume,  
265 pore size distribution, outer diameter, length, number of graphene layer. Specific surface area  
266 measurement is generally conducted by N<sub>2</sub> adsorption onto the adsorbent in bulk phase under  
267 vacuum at 77 K and subsequently the data is modeled according to Brunauer–Emmett–Teller gas  
268 adsorption theory [48]. Although aqueous phase adsorption conditions are much different from  
269 those of N<sub>2</sub> gas adsorption, the standardized surface area measurement is considered as the  
270 benchmark tool by most researchers. Preliminary efforts indicated that normalizing the MWCNT  
271 adsorption descriptors by specific surface area had no impact on LSER modeling for low SOC  
272 concentration models (e.g., 0.02% of C<sub>s</sub>) [23]. This can be attributed to LSER adsorption  
273 descriptors capturing adsorption affinity at dilute conditions rather than adsorption capacity, for  
274 which surface area is used as a surrogate parameter [23]. In other words, availability of total  
275 surface area is not critical for adsorption of a small number of SOC molecules. Instead, other  
276 physical features of CNMs may be influential on adsorption. For example, at low concentrations  
277 (1 µg/L), larger diameter MWCNTs were shown to adsorb more phenanthrene molecules than  
278 smaller diameter MWCNTs per unit surface area [49]; however, this relationship disappears at  
279 higher SOC concentration (>100 µg/L). This observation was attributed to the lower surface  
280 curvature (or large diameter) of MWCNTs thermodynamically enabling stronger  $\pi$ - $\pi$   
281 interactions with flat and polyaromatic phenanthrene molecules via better alignment and  
282 stacking. Overall, these observations indicate that surface area normalization to account for the  
283 differences of CNMs in LSER modeling may not be necessary for particularly low SOC  
284 concentrations. Similar to specific surface area, total pore volume or a defined sub-fraction of  
285 pore volume (e.g., pores smaller than 2 nm or micropores) can also be used as an indicator for  
286 adsorption. However, the same argument persists for the inability of pore volume to assess LSER  
287 modeling at low SOC concentrations. Previous work indicated that SWCNTs tend to form tighter  
288 aggregates than MWCNTs due to stronger non-specific interparticle attraction, creating  
289 microporous SWCNT bundles in water [50]. Difference between SWCNT and MWCNT are  
290 structural are not mechanistically captured in a single LSER; therefore, the approach taken in the  
291 scientific community has been historically to develop models for general classes of CNMs such  
292 as SWCNTs, MWCNTs, graphenes, and graphene oxides. This resulted in an increase the model  
293 linearity and strength of models within the prediction domain.

294 In addition to physical characteristics, there are also chemical properties of CNMs that  
295 influence the LSER modeling. The surface chemistry is described by a variety of parameters  
296 such as total surface oxygen content (elemental analysis), oxygen-containing functional groups  
297 (Boehm titration), pH point of zero charge (pH<sub>pzc</sub>), and water vapor adsorption, which aim to  
298 indicate the surface polarity. The surface polarity increases the intermolecular H-bonding

299 interactions between CNM surfaces and water molecules creating clusters of water on the surface  
300 minimizing the interactions of hydrophobic SOCs with the surface. Other efforts indicated that  
301 the CNM functional groups cause increased  $\pi$ - $\pi$  electron donor-acceptor interactions due to  
302 localization of  $\pi$  electrons on the graphitic surfaces especially for aromatic SOCs [51]. In  
303 addition, increased H-bonding interaction between polar functional groups of SOCs and CNM  
304 surfaces were reported [52, 53]. More recently, incident impact of air bubbles on favorable polar  
305 interactions for adsorption of amphiphilic molecules by CNTs were demonstrated [54].  
306 Therefore, adsorptive interactions strongly rely on the surface chemistry of CNMs and are  
307 important to account for in LSER models. The relative contribution of H-bond donating and  
308 accepting abilities of molecules are captured in LSER models but no mechanistic approach is  
309 widely accepted for capturing the same ability of CNM adsorbents. Since the distinguishing  
310 factor between ‘pristine’ and ‘oxidized’ CNMs is the overall oxygen content, researchers define  
311 the practical cutoff values for adsorbents’ oxygen content (e.g., <5wt.% oxygen) to classify  
312 them. The “pristine” CNMs contain minute amounts of oxygen on the imperfections of the basal  
313 plane, wrinkles, folds, edges and corners; therefore, during LSER modeling, a common approach  
314 is creating subsets of CNMs with different oxygen content improve the model fit and prediction  
315 ability [23]. Although the model captures the polar interactions, CNM physical structure is  
316 intertwined with the surface chemistry. In contrast to rigid and traditional graphitic adsorbents  
317 (e.g., activated carbons), higher surface polarity may result in looser aggregation of CNTs or  
318 larger sheet-sheet distances for graphenes [50, 55, 56]. Further, new approaches that couples  
319 surface chemistry and physical properties of CNMs can be developed to unravel the adsorptive  
320 interactions of SOCs with functionalized CNMs [57].

321

## 322 **5. Summary and recommendations for future work**

323 Various engineering applications, technology development opportunities and/or scientific  
324 curiosity motivated our field to create the critical mass for developing statistical predictive  
325 models for adsorption of SOCs by CNMs. This literature survey summarizes the recent findings  
326 while researchers pursue their debates about “creating the perfect model” for adsorption of  
327 synthetic organic contaminants by carbon nanomaterials. Whether the perfect model exists or  
328 not, it is evident that the studies significantly contributed to our current understanding of this  
329 research area.

330 Today’s literature largely focuses on LSER models for carbon nanotubes and graphene  
331 derivatives. Although, the chemical interactions of the SOCs and all carbon adsorbents will have  
332 similarities in water, physical properties of carbon adsorbent (e.g., chirality, end groups,  
333 morphology, and defects) and their aggregation must be systematically investigated. Although,  
334 the final form of nanomaterial micro-assemblies in water is difficult-to-predict, it will be utterly  
335 different from their bulk phase bundle structures. Researchers must recognize that the surface  
336 area measurement of CNMs are generally determined under nitrogen gas ambient at 77 K via

337 BET and DFT models. Detected surface area and pore structure may not be accurate in water  
338 because of the aggregation behavior of nanomaterials. Therefore, researchers need to reveal the  
339 aggregation mechanism of CNMs in water and its relationship to adsorptive interactions.

340 Moving forward, a better understanding of how LSER models are changing in function of  
341 the surface chemistry and morphology of the carbon surface will be important in predicting the  
342 adsorption capacity of a broader range of carbon nanostructure. Previous studies have shown that  
343 properties such as tube curvature, oxygen content, and type of oxygen functionalization can all  
344 affect the affinity of organic contaminants to carbon nanomaterials [49, 58-60]. How these  
345 different properties affect the predictive capacity of LSER models is still not completely  
346 understood. A recent study on LSER development for graphenes and carbon nanotubes showed  
347 that while the main solvation descriptors of importance remained unchanged, the relative  
348 importance of each parameter in the LSER model differed in function of the carbon  
349 nanostructure [33]. Right now, LSER models are ill-equipped to describe how the adsorbent  
350 properties can change the LSER model prediction. To address this knowledge gap, a systematic  
351 approach studying well-characterized nanostructures of progressively varying properties could  
352 identify the boundaries where the properties of the carbon nanomaterials start to significantly  
353 affect the predictive capacity of the LSER models.

354 Another challenge in hand is the missing bridge between predictive models that are  
355 developed in distilled and deionized waters or similar simplified aquatic matrices and real-world  
356 applications. The community must focus on developing or affirming predictive models in  
357 complex ambient (controlled or uncontrolled) to address the real-world application of these  
358 models. As our understanding of LSER models for CNMs becomes more and more complete,  
359 there will be opportunities for designing other ultrahigh surface area nano-adsorbents. These  
360 novel and promising adsorbent materials would employ LSER models and guide material  
361 development for their efficient use for contaminant removal. While mechanistic model  
362 development studies focus on compiling and collecting experimental data, strategies beyond  
363 multiple linear regression such as support vector machine and artificial neural networks [24, 61]  
364 will be capable of improving the models. These traditional tools will further be improved within  
365 the context of artificial intelligence and machine learning algorithms if integrated into the  
366 developing “big data” vision. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to provide their  
367 experimental data and detailed information in the supporting information section of their  
368 publications and support the growing efforts of connecting user-fed databases globally. The  
369 improvement of quantifiable metrics for model success must always be complemented with  
370 mechanistic models to gain insights into intermolecular interactions between SOCs and CNMs.

371 Providing a better predictive capability for the adsorption of organic contaminants on  
372 surfaces can have important implications for the fate and transport of organic contaminants in the  
373 environment and improve engineered water treatment systems if we can address the existing  
374 research gaps. The broad predictive capabilities of LSER models offer a powerful framework to

375 better understand the interaction of organic molecules with surfaces and develop appropriate  
376 remediation or control strategies.

377 **Conflicts of Interest**

378 There are no conflicts to declare

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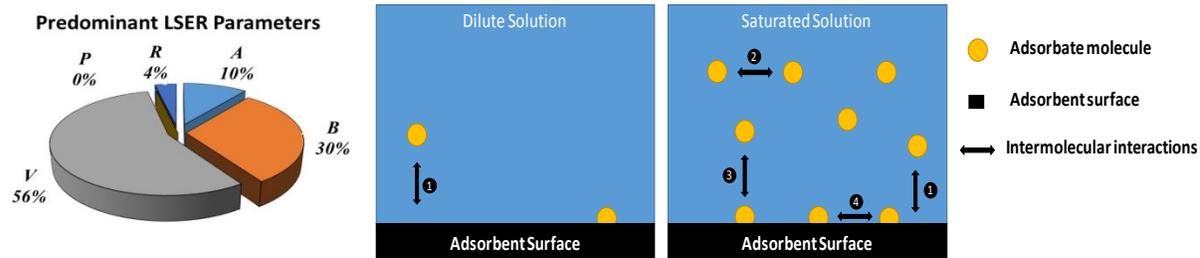
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$$\text{Log } K = aA + bB + \underline{vV} + pP + rR + c$$



The LSER models for adsorption of SOCs by CNMs profoundly depend on compound properties, adsorbent characteristics and the background solution.