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Research paper

A novel strategy for preparation of an effective and stable heterogeneous photo-Fenton catalyst for the degradation of dye



Shanshan Chen^a, Yuhan Wu^a, Gang Li^a, Jianning Wu^a, Guihua Meng^a, Xuhong Guo^{a,b}, Zhiyong Liu^{a,*}

^a School of Chemistry & Chemical Engineering, Shihezi University, Key Laboratory of Materials-Oriented Chemical Engineering of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, Engineering Research Center of Materials-Oriented Chemical Engineering of Xinjiang Bingtuan, Shihezi 832003, PR China

^b State Key Laboratory of Chemical Engineering, East China University of Science and Technology, Shanghai 200237, PR China

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ABSTRACT

A novel strategy was applied in the synthesis of γ -Fe₂O₃ pillared bentonite (γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent) by intercalating Fe^{3+} into bentonite in the presence of the surfactant CTAB as an expanding agent and template agent. Then γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent catalyst was used as a heterogeneous catalyst for photo-Fenton degradation of organic contaminants. CTAB can promote the formation of crystalline γ -Fe₂O₃ in the process of calcination. In addition, the CTAB also significantly increased the surface area of the composites. Only the α -Fe₂O₃ pillared bentonite (α -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent) could be obtained under the same conditions without CTAB. The as-obtained composites were well characterized by various techniques to study their morphological, structural and magnetic properties. The specific surface area of the γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent catalyst increased from 29 to 117 m²/g compared to bentonite. The saturated magnetization (Ms) values of γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent was 10 emu/g. The effects of various reaction parameters such as H_2O_2 dosage, initial pH value, γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent dosage on the degradation of RhB were studied. Under the best conditions (0.2 g/L of catalyst, 10 mM of H_2O_2), the γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent catalyst displayed to possess superior degradation ability to Rhodamine B (RhB) comparing the results with the α -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent. The catalyst showed efficient for the degradation of other organic dyes as well. After five reaction cycles the catalyst still showed high photocatalytic activity (91%), which showed that the magnetic catalyst possessed very stable, highly reactive, and easy to separate by an external magnetic field. Hence, this facile and high efficiency method may be extended to fabricate other types of magnetic materials.

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1. Introduction

Dye pollutants used in textile industries were major sources of environmental contamination (Rapsomanikis et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2015). Dye pollutants caused the utmost concern because of their nearly ubiquitous use, lasting color and poorly biodegradable by traditional aerobic wastewater treatment (Chen et al., 2015a, 2015b). Most of them have complex chemical structure, which make them stable and recalcitrant to oxidant and resistant to be bleached by sunlight (Qin et al., 2014). In order to eliminate the negative environmental impact of dye, a wide range of chemical and physical methods have been developed, such as adsorption (Qin et al., 2014), ion-exchange (Choi et al., 2007), photocatalysis (Papoulis et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2015) and ozonation (Zhou et al., 2015).

Among the methods used for removal pollutants, advanced oxidation processes (AOP) that have been defined as promising alternatives based on the generation of highly reactive transitory species (OH, O₂) to initiate non-selective oxidation destruction of organic pollutants (GarridoRamírez et al., 2013). The Fenton reaction $(H_2O_2 + Fe^{2+} Fe^{3+})$ has attracted widely attention among the AOPs due to reaction's strong oxidative capacity for the degradation of organic contaminants (Wang et al., 2014). The Fenton reaction was a potentially convenient, economical, and environmentally friendly method for wastewater treatment (Ma et al., 2015). The Fenton process uses Fe²⁺ as the catalyst to generate highly reactive hydroxyl radicals (OH) from hydrogen peroxide (Garrido-Ramírez et al., 2010). Fenton reaction can be written in its general form (Kouraichi et al., 2015):

 $M^{n+}+H_2O_2 \rightarrow M^{(n-1)+}+OH^-+HO(M = Fe, Cu, Mn)$

However, several drawbacks of the homogenous Fenton process limit the scale-up of its application, including the narrow acidic pH range, high cost of H_2O_2 , and the accumulation of iron-containing sludge, which are regarded as a secondary pollution involving the loss of catalyst (Dorraji et al., 2015). To overcome these drawbacks, many efforts have been made to develop heterogeneous Fenton and photo-Fenton catalysts, including the immobilization of Fe ions, Fe clusters,

^{*} Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* lzyongclin@sina.com (Z. Liu).

or iron oxides (Lan et al., 2015). To date, various supports have been used to prepare heterogeneous Fenton catalysts, such as resin (Shu et al., 2010), zeolites (Navalon et al., 2010), silica (Panda et al., 2011), clay (Daud and Hameed, 2011; Liu et al., 2015), activated carbon (Duarte et al., 2013). Bentonite was found by its unique characteristics, abundant, natural, environmentally benign as well as low cost to make it has the suitable choice as catalyst support (Xu et al., 2013). It was reported that Fe-pillared bentonite can exhibit high catalytic activity and good long-term stability for degradation of RhB in heterogeneous Fenton system (Hou et al., 2011). However, in some reports, the organic modifiers can change the surface properties of the clays from hydrophilic to hydrophobic, which significantly enhance their affinity for organic contaminants (Li and Wu, 2010; Stathatos et al., 2012). The surface modification of the clays by organic cations leads to an increase in adsorption capacity (Anirudhan and Ramachandran, 2015). Therefore, organic-inorganic complex modified bentonite have attracted great attention to improve swelling properties, enhance hydrogel strength, and reduce production cost of corresponding superabsorbents (Bulut et al., 2009). For example, Chen et al. (2013) reported CTAB as expanding agents in the TiO₂ pillared montmorillonites and these can control the size of the pillars. Ma and Zhu (2006) reported that the modified bentonite, with both Fe polycations and CTMAB, was an effective sorbent for simultaneous removal of phenanthrene and phosphate from water. In addition, it is well known that magnetic nanoparticles became very interesting and economically viable because they allow easier and more convenient processes for separation and recycling of photocatalysts by applying an external magnetic field (Liu et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). Therefore, there has been a growing interest in magnetic iron-based materials pillared organobentonite (Sun et al., 2011). Wu et al. (2013) synthesized of Organo-bentonite-Fe₃O₄ poly by solution copolymerization technique. Ma et al. (2005) successfully prepared of stable adduct γ -Fe₂O₃/CTAB/Clay with sandwich-like architecture and at the same time it also proved that the periodic nanostructures can be created by using inorganic or organic matter intercalation. Although much research has focused on the magnetic organobentoniteiron oxides, little attention has investigated its performance as the heterogeneous Fenton catalyst. In addition, to the best of our knowledge, most studies on the magnetic organobentonite-iron oxides report the form of Fe₃O₄ or γ -Fe₂O₃ methods in the surface of organobentonite that are difficult and complex.

As reported in some literatures the γ -Fe₂O₃ phase was prepared easily using cationic surfactant cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) (Liu et al., 1999; Ramezanzadeh et al., 2015). In this study, we designed a simple method for the preparation of γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent with the addition of CTAB surfactant. CTAB not only acts as expanding agent of the layered clay to control the size of pillars, but also serves as a template to control the formation of γ -Fe₂O₃ (Fig. 1). The heterogeneous catalyst γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent was then applied for degradation of RhB under ultraviolet light with aqueous H₂O₂. The attempt was to determine whether the γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent catalyst could promote the degradation rate and better than the α -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent. Meanwhile, the effects of different operating parameters such as catalyst addition, initial pH, catalyst dosage, and H₂O₂ dosage were optimized in detail. Finally, the stability of the catalyst and the degradation of different organic dyes including methylene blue (MB) and methyl orange (MO) was studied.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

The bentonite (Na⁺-Mt, 98%) used in this study came from Huzhou, Zhejiang, P.R. China. The cation exchange capacity of bentonite was determined to be 0.8 meq/g. Ferric nitrate nonahydrate ($Fe(NO_3)_3 \cdot 9H_2O$) and Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2 , 30%, w/w) were purchased from Chengdu Kelong Chemical Reagent Company. Rhodamine B (RhB) was procured from Tianjin Guangfu Fine Chemical Research Institute (Tianjin, China). Sodium carbonate anhydrous (Na₂CO₃) was bought from ShengAo Chemical Reagent Company (Tianjin, China). Cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB, 99%) was obtained from Solarbio. Chemicals used in the experiment were analytical grade and were used without any further purification. Deionized water was used throughout the whole experiment.

2.2. Preparation of γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent

2.2.1. The preparation of polymeric hydroxyl iron pillared agent

Iron pillaring agent was prepared as follows: Na₂CO₃ solution (0.5 M, 20 mL) dropwise into a Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O solution (0.2 M, 50 mL) under vigorous stirring for 2 h at 60 °C until the molar ratio of [Na⁺]/[Fe³⁺] became 1:1. Then the solution was aged for 24 h.

2.2.2. The preparation of γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent

1 g bentonite and 0.2 g CTAB was dispersed in 50 mL deionized water under vigorous stirring at 60 °C for 2 h. Continue to maintain the temperature, add the pillaring solution to the suspension under stirring to obtain a Fe/bentonite ratio of 10 mmol/g in accordance to previous published results (Chen and Zhu, 2007). Then the suspension was aged for 24 h. Afterwards, the precipitate was separated by centrifuging and washed with deionized water several times. Finally the product dried in air at 60 °C and calcined at 400 °C for 3 h. Then, the γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent catalyst was obtained.

The $\alpha\mbox{-}\mbox{Fe}_2\mbox{O}_3\mbox{-}\mbox{P-Bent}$ was also prepared using above procedures but without CTAB.

2.3. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples were obtained from 1° to 70° of 2 θ using a Bruker D8 X-ray diffractometer with a Cu Ka radiation (40 kV, 40 mA) at a scanning speed of 6°/min. The microstructure of samples was observed with a scanning electron microscopy (SEM JSM-6490LV) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM Tecnai G2 F20). N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms were measured at 77 K on a Quantachrome Autosorb 3-B apparatus. The specific surface area and pore size distribution were calculated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) methods at 77 K (ASAP 2020 V USA) and DR method respectively. The magnetic property (M-H curve) of γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent was also examined at room temperature on a SQUID magnetometer made by quantum design corporation.



Fig. 1. The formation process of γ -Fe₂O₃-P-Bent material.

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