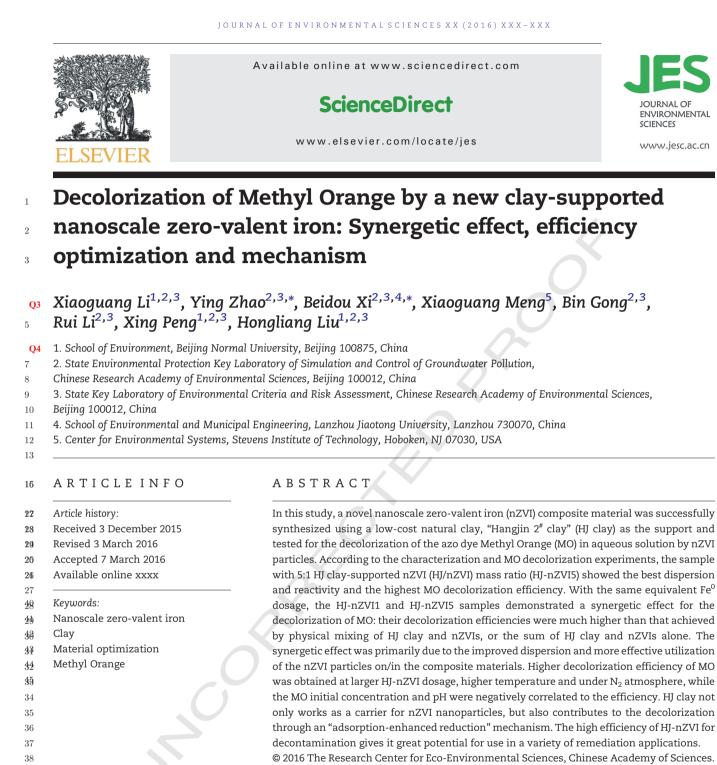
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### 50 Introduction

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Based on the intrinsic properties of nanoscale zero-valent iron
(nZVI), such as small particle size, large specific surface area,
high number of reactive surface sites, high reactivity and mild

reaction conditions (Liu et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2015), nZVI 55 particles have been extensively used as a new tool for the 56 remediation/treatment of groundwater and wastewater con-57 taminated with various organic and inorganic pollutants in 58 the past 20 years (Crane and Scott, 2012; Fu et al., 2014; Guan 59

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et al., 2015; Tosco et al., 2014). However, there are still some 60 technical challenges associated with its application. On the 61 one hand, nZVI particles tend to agglomerate readily in an 62 aqueous environment, due to inter-particle magnetic and Van 63 der Waals interactions, and thus form big dendritic flocs and 64 subsequent network structures, which cause a considerable 65 decrease in their dispersibility and mobility (Li et al., 2015; Xu 66 et al., 2014). On the other hand, nZVI nanoparticles can be 67 68 oxidized easily, which diminishes their reactivity due to the 69 formation of oxide layers blocking the serviceable active surface sites (Guan et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015; Sun et al., 70 2014a; Xu et al., 2014). 71

To overcome these drawbacks, offering a support for nZVI 72particles is an alternative option. In recent years, porous 73 materials such as kaolinite (Chen et al., 2013; Jin et al., 2015), 74 75bentonite (Li et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2013), resin (Fu et al., 2013), activated carbon (Xiao et al., 2015), 76 mesoporous carbon (Ling et al., 2012), mesoporous silica (Tang 77 et al., 2015), pumice (Liu et al., 2015), graphene (Liu et al., 78 2014a) and SBA-15 (Sun et al., 2014a, 2014b), have been tested 06 as supports to inhibit the aggregation of nZVI particles and 80 hence increase the reaction performance. Technically, an 81 appropriate support material for nZVI particles should pos-82 83 sess the following features: (1) stability compatible with the 84 preparation process; (2) easily dispersed in aqueous solution; 85 and (3) having large surface area for the payload of nZVI 86 particles. In addition, from an engineering perspective, the 87 support material needs to be readily available, low-cost and free of secondary pollution after its use. 88

"Hangjin 2<sup>#</sup> clay" (HJ clay) is a kind of natural non-metallic 89 clay mineral which was discovered in Inner Mongolia 90 Hangjinqi China in the 1990s. The crystal structure of HJ clay 91 generally consists of a central octahedral Al-O sheet 9293 sandwiched between two tetrahedral Si-O sheets. Compared with other clays, such as kaolinite, montmorillonite and 94 bentonite, HJ clay has many good characteristics, such as 95larger surface area, bigger pore size and more total pore 96 volume. These favorable properties of HJ clay inspired us to 97 consider that it may be an excellent support material for nZVI, 98 because its unique microstructure may increase the payload 99 efficiency of nZVI and maximize the reactivity of nZVI. 100101 Furthermore, due to the isomorphic substitution and crystallographic defects in the crystal structure, HJ clay possesses 102structural negative charges that are compensated by ex-103changeable cations that reside at or near the clay surface (Gu 104 et al., 2010). Single-atom nZVIs may form via the reduction of 105Fe<sup>3+</sup>, which binds as an exchangeable cation onto the surface 106107 of HJ clay.

In this study, a novel nZVI composite material, HJ 108 clay-supported nZVI (HJ-nZVI), was synthesized and tested 109110 as a decontamination material for the first time. The optimal mass ratio of HJ/nZVI in the preparation was obtained in 111 terms of the decolorization efficiency of Methyl Orange (MO). 112 The performance of HJ-nZVI materials for MO decolorization 113 114 was also compared with that obtained by physically mixing nZVI with HJ clay (HJ + nZVI). The morphology, properties and 115 116reactivity of the as-prepared HJ-nZVI were further analyzed to reveal the reason for the superior performance of HJ-nZVI. 117 Finally, we investigated the variables influencing the MO 118 decolorization efficiency (e.g., dosage, N2, initial pH, initial 119

concentration and temperature), and an "adsorption-enhanced 120 reduction" mechanism for MO decolorization by HJ-nZVI was 121 proposed. We hope that the study here not only provides a 122 novel nZVI composite for decontamination, but also provides a 123 method to ascertain the optimum load conditions for a support 124 material to maximize the efficiency of nZVI. 125

### 1. Materials and methods

1.1. Materials and chemicals

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The natural HJ clay used in this study was obtained from the 129 region of Hangjinqi of the Ordos area in Inner Mongolia. The 130 properties and composition of HJ clay are as follows (suspen-131 sion with 1:4 soil/water ratio): pH 8.8–9.1; cation exchange 132 capacity (CEC) 32.2 cmol/kg; SiO<sub>2</sub> 50.9 wt.%; Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 15.2 wt.%; 133 CaO 6.4 wt.%; Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 5.9 wt.%; MgO 3.6 wt.%; K<sub>2</sub>O 3.6 wt.%; 134 Na<sub>2</sub>O 0.9 wt.%; TiO<sub>2</sub> 0.6 wt.%; and loss of ignition 12.9%. After 135 drying overnight at 80°C, the HJ clay was ground and sieved 136 through a 200 mesh screen prior to use.

Sodium borohydride (NaBH<sub>4</sub>), iron(III) chloride hexahydrate 138 (FeCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O), MO, hydrochloric acid (HCl), sodium hydroxide 139 (NaOH), absolute ethanol (99%), MO (99%), and sulfanilic acid 140 (>99%) were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. 141 Ltd. (China). All the chemicals were analytical reagent grade and 142 used without further purification. MO solution with various 143 concentrations was prepared by diluting a stock solution to the 144 target concentration using deionized water. Deionized water 145 from a Millipore Milli-Q system (18 MΩ/cm) was used for all 146 experiments. 147

#### 1.2. Preparation of HJ clay-supported nZVI particles

HJ-nZVI samples with different mass ratios of HJ/nZVI were 149 prepared under N2 atmosphere using a conventional 150 liquid-phase reduction of ferric iron (Shi et al., 2011; Zhang 151 et al., 2010). Taking the HJ-nZVI sample with 1:1 HJ/nZVI as an 152 example, first, 2.0 g HJ was placed into a three-necked open 153 flask, and a ferric solution prepared by dissolving ferric 154 chloride hexahydrate (9.66 g) in an ethanol/water solution 155 (50 mL, 4:1  $\nu/\nu$ ) was added and stirred for 20 min. Subse- 156 quently, a freshly prepared solution (3.54 g of NaBH<sub>4</sub> in 157 100 mL) was added at the speed of 1-2 drops per second into 158 the mixture, which was vigorously stirred under a N2 159 atmosphere. Black particles were gradually produced as the 160 color of mixture turned from red brown to light yellow and 161 eventually to black. Afterwards, the mixture was further 162 stirred for 1 hr. To remove the excess NaBH<sub>4</sub>, the formed 163 suspension was filtered by vacuum filtration and the black 164 nanoscale precipitates were washed three times with abso-165 lute ethanol. Finally, the precipitate was dried in a 50°C oven 166 under vacuum overnight and kept in a nitrogen atmosphere 167 prior to use. The obtained HJ-nZVI samples were denoted as 168 HJ-nZVI1 (1:1 HJ/nZVI), HJ-nZVI5 (5:1 HJ/nZVI) and HJ-nZVI10 169 (10:1 HJ/nZVI) for the sake of discussion. The actual nZVI 170 loading amounts onto the HJ clay were measured to be 80.9, 171 84.3 and 92.4 mol% of the added ferric salts, for HJ-nZVI1, 172 HJ-nZVI5 and HJ-nZVI10, respectively. As such, the mass 173 percents of nZVI in the composites were 40.5%, 13.9% and 174

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