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Simultaneous photocatalytic removal of nitrate and oxalic acid over $Cu₂O/TiO₂$ and $Cu₂O/TiO₂$ -AC composites

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 $Cu₂O/TiO₂$ (1–10 wt% Cu₂O) and 2.5% Cu₂O/TiO₂-AC (2.5–20 wt% AC) photocatalyst composites were synthesised by an ethanol reduction method. The materials were characterised by a number of techniques which confirmed the presence of $Cu₂O$ in contact with the TiO₂. Pure TiO₂ alone was not active for the simultaneous photocatalytic removal of nitrate and oxalic acid under conditions employed, however, photocatalytic activity was observed for TiO₂ and TiO₂/AC in the presence of Cu₂O. This may have resulted from suppression of charge recombination via creation of a p -n heterojunction between Cu₂O and TiO₂. Within the series, 2.5% Cu₂O/TiO₂ exhibited the best photocatalytic performance with 57.6 and 99.8% removal of nitrate and oxalic acid, respectively, with selectivities of 45.7, 12.4 and 41.9% to NH $_4^{\rm +}$, NO_2^- and N_2 , respectively after 3 h. For the carbon containing photocatalysts, 2.5% Cu₂O/TiO₂-2·5AC displayed the highest activity with 42.5 and 96.6% removal of nitrate and oxalic acid, respectively, with 32.7, 11.6 and 55.7% selectivities to NH_4^+ , NO₂⁻ and N₂, respectively. The highest AC loading tested resulted in selectivity to NH₄⁺ of 21.6 with no NO₂⁻ detected, together with an improved N₂ selectivity (78.4%) albeit at lower (12.7%) nitrate conversion. Data suggests that $Cu₂O/TiO₂$ can be used in the photocatalytic reduction of nitrate and improved selectivity towards N_2 can be attained by influencing factors which control the relative rate of oxalic acid consumption.

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1. Introduction

Nitrate has become one of the most prevalent contaminants in groundwater, which originates from intensive agricultural activities, poor urban sewage management and waste disposal, as well as industrial effluents $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and is seen as a serious global problem [\[2\].](#page--1-0) Organic pollutants are present in wastewater discharge from different industries including textiles, plastic, refinery, petrochemical, pharmaceutical, agrochemical and pulp and paper and may co-exist with nitrate $[3,4]$. Oxalic acid and other short organic acids are most likely to exist as intermediates following biological mineralisation of large organic molecules [\[3\]](#page--1-0) and/or as one of incomplete mineralisation products of advanced oxidation treatments (AOT) [\[5\].](#page--1-0)

Photocatalysis includes scope to simultaneously destroy residual organics and reduce inorganic ions such as nitrate from aqueous

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[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2017.05.091](dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2017.05.091) 0926-3373/© 2017 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. solution [\[5\]](#page--1-0) and are adjudged as a viable and promising technology for water pollution remediation $[6]$. TiO₂ is the most commonly explored photocatalyst although some studies indicate that $TiO₂$ is inactive for such a redox process [\[7,8\],](#page--1-0) while others suggest either low activity [\[9\]](#page--1-0) or high activity but with over-reduction of nitrate to ammonia $[10,11]$. Surface modification of TiO₂ with metals has been shown to be an effective manner of improving the efficiency of the photocatalytic reduction of nitrate in water $[7,9,11-24]$ often by creation of Schottky barriers which act as sinks for photogenerated electrons. This consequently suppresses electron-hole recombination, as well as causing a negative shift in the Fermi level of the deposited metal [\[25,26\],](#page--1-0) leading to increased reductive power.

Alternatively, a number of studies indicate that n-type $TiO₂$ combined with p-type metal oxide semiconductor may form a heterojunction which serves as an effective way of retarding recombination $[27-30]$. From research to date, n-type TiO₂ combined with p-type $Cu₂O$ shows promise and uses a low-cost metal compared to others such as Ag [\[31,32\].](#page--1-0) This approach has been shown to be effective for diverse applications including degradation of organics [\[32–35\]](#page--1-0) and the production of hydrogen [\[30,36,37\].](#page--1-0) It has been reported that p-type Cu₂O has a band gap of 2.0 eV $\left[38\right]$ and a conduction band edge of $-1.64V$ [\[37\].](#page--1-0) Therefore, Cu₂O/TiO₂ can be exploited in the photocatalytic reduction of nitrate in the presence of organic hole scavengers, since the conduction band (CB) of TiO₂ is situated beneath that of Cu₂O and thus, electron-hole transfer between the heterojunction is thermodynamically permitted. Photogenerated electrons can move from $Cu₂O$ to TiO₂ while holes migrate from the valence band (VB) of TiO₂ to Cu₂O, and as a result, the photodegradation mechanism of nitrate and oxalic acid over such composite differ from that of copper metal supported on $TiO₂$.

 $TiO₂$ also suffers from an inherently low specific surface area and thus limited adsorption capacity because of crystallite growth during elevated calcination temperatures. Pre-adsorption of reactants, particularly the electron accepting species, on the photocatalyst surface is often deemed to be a prerequisite for rapid interfacial charge carrier trapping that leads to effective photochemical conversion $[10]$. It has been reported that coupling TiO₂ with activated carbon (AC) enhances photocatalytic degradation of pollutants because of increased adsorption capacity and improved interfacial charge transfer rate [\[39\].](#page--1-0) Such improvement in the photocatalytic efficiency of $TiO₂/AC$ composites have been reported elsewhere $[40-43]$. In addition, the presence of activated carbon in TiO₂-AC composites may influence the photodegradation reaction pathway by generating different intermediate species compared to $TiO₂$ alone $[44]$. In this study, Cu₂O/TiO₂ and Cu₂O/TiO₂-AC photocatalyst composites were prepared and characterised and their ability to simultaneously photodegrade nitrate and oxalic acid assessed.

2. Experimental

2.1. Preparation of photocatalysts composites

All photocatalysts were prepared by an ethanol-based reduction method $[30]$. TiO₂ (Aeroxide P25, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich) was dispersed in anhydrous ethanol and stirred for 1 h before slow addition of the desired amount of $Cu(NO₃)₂$. After vigorous stirring for 2 h, the solvent was removed by drying at 60° C for 6 h and the resultant sample was subsequently calcined at 350 ◦C for 2 h in air. The ethanol reduction method has been shown to produce materials with Cu loadings lower than the nominal values (more pronounced difference for higher loadings) [\[30\].](#page--1-0) Regardless, the as-prepared photocatalysts are denoted as $x\%$ Cu₂O/TiO₂, where x% represents nominal weight percent of loaded copper (1, 2.5, 5 or 10 wt%). Carbon containing $Cu₂O/TiO₂$ -AC composites were prepared following the same method except that the desired amounts of activated carbon (AC) and $TiO₂$ were dispersed in anhydrous ethanol and stirred vigorously for 1 h before slow addition of the desired amount of $Cu(NO₃)₂$.3H₂O. The resulting composites were labelled as $2.5 \text{ Cu}_2\text{O/TiO}_2$ -yAC (2.5 wt% was deemed to be the optimum copper loading − see later) where y reflects the loading of activated carbon (2.5, 5, 10 and 20 wt%) in the composites.

2.2. Photocatalysts characterisation

The X-ray diffraction pattern of the photocatalysts was examined using an X'Pert Pro Diffractometer (PANalytical) with a Cu K α radiation source (λ = 0.15418 nm) in the range 5–80° 2 θ . Textural properties (surface area, pore volume and pore size) were determined by collecting N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms at −196 ◦C on a Tristar-3000 instrument (Micromeritics). The optical properties of the photocatalysts were studied using a UV–vis spectrometer (Cary 60, Perkin-Elmer) in diffuse reflectance mode using a 60 mm diameter integrated sphere and BaSO $_4$ as the internal reference standard. To establish whether Cu influenced the band gap

of TiO₂ in the photocatalysts, plots of $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus E_{photon} was applied by fitting the absorption data to the equation. Reducibility of the copper component of the photocatalysts was investigated by temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) using a TPDRO 1100 instrument equipped with TCD detector. Samples were heated from 40 to 600 °C at 5 °C/min in a 5% H_2/N_2 mixture. The amount of hydrogen consumed was quantified based on a response factor determined using a CuO reference standard. The nature of exposed sites on the copper component was probed by studying the adsorption of CO by FTIR (Perkin-Elmer 1750 series spectrometer). The sample was pressed into a self-supporting disc and held in a quartz holder in a vacuum line which allowed for heating, evacuation and controlled gas manipulation. Samples were first outgassed and heated to 120° C to remove surface water. The sample was then cooled to beam temperature and outgassed to a residual pressure of ca. 4×10^{-5} Torr before an initial spectrum (25 scans, 4 cm⁻¹ resolution) was collected prior to exposure to increasing CO overpressures (0.3–40 Torr). Results are presented as difference spectra relative to the initial scan collected before exposure to CO.

XPS measurements were carried out using a Kratos AXIS Ultra $\rm DLD$ XPS spectrometer with monochromated AlK α X-rays and hemispherical analyser with a pass energy of 160 eV. The powdered samples were mounted on copper tape and binding energies were normalised to the C 1 s signal from adventitious carbon at 284.6 eV. Background subtraction was performed using a Shirley background and Casa XPS [\[45\].](#page--1-0)

2.3. Photocatalytic tests

Photocatalytic reactions were carried out in a stirred, batch reactor fitted with a primary cooler (Fischer Scientific 3016S) to maintain the reaction temperature at 25° C. A secondary cooling system was also incorporated to control heat given out by the 400W UV lamp (Hereaus BQ 512 E, 400W, 230V and a maximum wavelength of 365 nm). Water was used as the coolant in this secondary cooling system by running a constant flow through a Pyrex cooler which encased the UV lamp. The Pyrex glass sleeve also functioned to filter out the light of wavelengths less than 290 nm which might otherwise lead to direct photolysis of nitrate and oxalic acid. Therefore, only light in the range between 290 and 365 nm were available for experiments conducted (Figure SI-1). In the experimental design, initially, 1.0 g/L photocatalyst composite was stirred in 1.5 L of ultra-pure water and N_2 bubbled for 30 min to displace dissolved oxygen. Thereafter, 100 mL stock solutions of nitrate (100 ppm) and optimal oxalic acid concentration (0.005 M) were added to the suspension. The reactor was stirred for another 1 h in the dark, which was determined to be beyond the minimum time required to ensure adsorption-desorption equilibrium was established. A sample was then taken to determine the equilibrium concentrations of the model pollutants in solution before the light was turned on $(t=0)$. During the photocatalytic reaction test, samples were withdrawn with a $0.45 \mu m$ syringe filter at fixed time intervals over a 3 h reaction period. The net concentrations of nitrate and oxalate, as well as nitrite (one of the by-products of nitrate reduction), were measured using ion chromatography (Dionex DX-120), while ammonium was measured using a Merck Spectroquant ammonium test kit which follows the indophenol test for ammonium $[46]$. Thereafter, the degradation $(\%)$ of both model pollutants was calculated using Eq. (1).

$$
Degradation(\%) = \frac{C_t}{C_0}, \times 100
$$
 (1)

where C_0 is the initial concentration at zero time, and C_t is the concentration after a particular period of illumination. The selecDownload English Version:

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