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Oxalate-TiO₂ complex-mediated oxidation of pharmaceutical pollutants through ligand-to-metal charge transfer under visible light



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HIGHLIGHTS

G R A P H I C A L A B S T R A C T

- Oxidation of ranitidine proceeds on pure TiO₂ with oxalate under visible light.
- Oxalate-TiO₂ complex absorbs visible light and initiates interfacial electron transfer.
- O₂⁻⁻/HO₂⁻ is primarily involved in the oxidation of ranitidine among various ROS.
- Various pharmaceuticals are oxidized in the pure TiO₂/oxalate/visible light system.
- Oxalate-TiO₂ complex is more efficient than other organic ligand-TiO₂ complexes.

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ABSTRACT

Oxalate-adsorbed TiO₂ shows visible activity for the oxidation of ranitidine, although neither oxalate nor pure TiO₂ alone absorbs visible light. The formation of an oxalate-TiO₂ complex facilitates electron transfer from oxalate to the TiO₂ conduction band (CB) (i.e., a ligand-to-metal charge transfer (LMCT)) and generates superoxide/hydroperoxyl radicals (O₂⁻⁻/HO₂⁻), which are primarily responsible for ranitidine oxidation, under visible light. The attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectra of oxalate-adsorbed TiO₂ indicates that the formation of a LMCT complex between oxalate and TiO₂ occurs through bidentate carboxylate linkages. The visible light-induced generation of photocurrent (I_{ph}) on the TiO₂/FTO electrode in the presence of oxalate confirms the LMCT mechanism in the oxalate-TiO₂ complex under visible light. Kinetic studies with varying oxalate concentrations, initial pH values, and TiO₂ types demonstrate that the oxidation efficiency increases as the adsorption of oxalate and the molar fraction of O₂⁻⁻ increase. Not only ranitidine but also other pharmaceutical pollutants, such as cimetidine, propranolol, imidazole, and nizatidine, were oxidized in the pure TiO₂/oxalate/TiO₂ complexes (i.e., citrate-, EDTA-, malonate-, acetate-, and glucose-TiO₂ complexes). In this regard, the pure TiO₂/oxalate/visible light system can be proposed as a practical method for the treatment of pharmaceutical-contaminated water and wastewater.

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1. Introduction

Semiconductor photocatalysis has been considered an eco-friendly method for water treatment. Among various semiconductor photocatalysts, titanium dioxide (TiO2) has been most frequently studied because of its practical merits such as nontoxicity, high stability, and low material cost [1-3]. However, the wide bandgap (3.0-3.2 eV) of TiO₂ limits the absorption and utilization of visible light, which accounts for approximately 50% of natural sunlight [4]. A variety of techniques have been employed to extend the utilization of TiO₂ to the visible region; they include doping of elements such as N, S, C, Fe, and Pt into the TiO_2 lattice [5–9] and coupling with visible light-active materials such as plasmonic metal nanoparticles [10,11] and semiconductors with narrow bandgap [12,13]. These techniques can also be applied to other photocatalysts with wide bandgap [14]. However, these approaches are not usually cost-effective for water treatment because of the high cost of materials (i.e., doped TiO₂ and visible lightactive material/TiO₂ composite) and the large volume of water to be treated.

Sensitization method facilitates the use of "pure TiO_2 " for water treatment under visible light. Some pollutants, which absorb visible light or form visible light-active ligand-to-metal charge transfer (LMCT) complexes with TiO_2 , can be oxidized on pure TiO_2 under visible light through sensitization processes (Eqs. (1)-(3)) [15–19].

dye pollutant+TiO₂(or pollutant-TiO₂ LMCT complex)+visible light \rightarrow TiO₂(e_{cb}) + pollutant⁺ (1)

 $TiO_2 (ne_{cb}^{-}) + O_2 + mH^+ (n = 1 \sim 3 \text{ and } m = 0 \sim 2)$

→ TiO₂ + reactive oxygen species (ROS, i.e.,
$$O_2^{-}/HO_2^{-}$$
, H_2O_2 , and OH) (2)

 $ROS + pollutant \rightarrow ROS^- + pollutant^+$ (3)

However, the oxidation of a pollutant through the sensitization process is highly pollutant-specific, which limits its broad application for water treatment. Despite the formation of various ROS through Eqs. (1) and (2), ROS-mediated oxidation of other pollutants, which do not absorb visible light or form visible light-active LMCT complexes with TiO₂, is usually inefficient because all pollutants in multicomponent wastewater compete for the same ROS [20]. If the ROS generated from the sensitization process hardly react with a pollutant that induces visible light absorption (i.e., if ROS selectively react with other pollutants that are not involved in visible light absorption), this new type of sensitization process can have the potential to be more convenient and practical because its application to various pollutants is possible.

Recently, concerns over pharmaceutical pollutants have been growing due to the frequent detection of pharmaceutical pollutants in surface waters and the verification of their adverse effects on aquatic organisms and even humans [21–23]. Because the removal efficiency of pharmaceutical pollutants is very low in conventional water treatment plants, various advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), such as UV/H₂O₂ (or UV/peroxydisulfate) system [24–26], photo-Fenton process [27], ozonation [28], plasma treatment [29], photocatalysis [30,31], and electrolysis [32], have been employed as an alternative to the treatment of pharmaceutical-contaminated water and wastewater. Despite such extensive efforts, developing an efficient and economical method for the oxidation of pharmaceutical pollutants has been a challenging issue.

In this study, the visible light-induced oxidation of ranitidine (target pharmaceutical pollutant) on pure TiO_2 with oxalate (inducer of visible light absorption through the formation of LMCT complex with TiO_2) has been investigated. The formation of the visible light-active oxalate- TiO_2 complex was verified by various surface analyses. The oxidation rate of ranitidine in the pure TiO_2 /oxalate/visible light system was measured as a function of various experimental parameters. The ROS that was primarily involved in ranitidine oxidation and its generation

mechanism were investigated in detail. Furthermore, the applicability of the pure $TiO_2/oxalate/visible$ light system to various pharmaceutical pollutants was explored, and the oxidation efficiency of the oxalate- TiO_2 complex was compared with that of other organic ligand- TiO_2 complexes.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals and materials

Chemicals were used as received without further purification. They include ranitidine hydrochloride ($C_{13}H_{22}N_4O_3S$ ·HCl, Sigma, $\geq 98.0\%$), propranolol hydrochloride ($C_{16}H_{21}NO_2$ ·HCl, Sigma, \geq 99.0%), cimetidine ($C_{10}H_{16}N_6S$, Sigma, 100%), imidazole ($C_3H_4N_2$, Sigma, $\geq 99.0\%$), nizatidine (C12H21N5O2S2, Sigma-Aldrich, 100%), potassium oxalate monohydrate (C₂K₂O₄·H₂O, Fluka, \geq 99.0%), sodium citrate tribasic dihydrate (C₆H₅Na₃O₇·2H₂O, Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 99.0%) ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt dihydrate (EDTA, $C_{10}H_{14}N_2Na_2O_8$ ·2 H_2O_7 , Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 99.0%), malonic acid (C₃H₄O₄, Sigma-Aldrich, 99.0%), sodium acetate (C₂H₃NaO₂, Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 99.0%), glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆, Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 99.5%), N,Ndiethyl-p-phenylenediamine (DPD, C10H16N2, Aldrich, 97.0%), peroxidase from horseradish (POD, type VI, Sigma), ascorbic acid (C₆H₈O₆, Junsei, 99.6%), *tert*-butyl alcohol (TBA, $C_4H_{10}O$, Junsei, \geq 99.0%), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂, Daejung, 30.0%), coumarin (C₉H₆O₂, Sigma, \geq 99.0%), tetranitromethane (CN₄O₈, Aldrich, 100%), acetonitrile (CH₃CN, J. T. Baker, \geq 99.0%), phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄, Junsei, 85.0%), sodium carbonate (CNa₂O₃, Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 99.5%), sodium bicarbonate (CHNaO₃, Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 99.7%), and lithium perchlorate (LiClO₄, Sigma-Aldrich, \geq 95.0%).

Hombikat UV100 (Sachtleben Chemie GmbH) was used as the main TiO_2 material. Seven other commercial TiO_2 materials (PC-100 (Millennium Inorganic Chemicals), P-25 (Degussa), anatase (Aldrich), nano-sized rutile (Aldrich), micro-sized rutile (Aldrich), anatase (Junsei), and ST-01 (Ishihara Sangyo Kaisha)) were also tested. All solutions were prepared with ultrapure deionized water (18.3 M Ω -cm) that was obtained from a Human-Power I + water purification system (Human Corporation).

2.2. Characterization

The surface areas of the TiO₂ materials were measured using a surface area analyzer (Micromeritics ASAP 2010). The surface areas were as follows: $316 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for Hombikat UV100, $314 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for ST-01, $85 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for PC-100, $54 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for P-25, $25 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for nano-sized rutile, $10 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for anatase (Aldrich), $9 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for anatase (Junsei), and $3 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for micro-sized rutile.

The oxalate-adsorbed TiO₂ (or ranitidine-adsorbed TiO₂) sample was prepared as follows. Oxalate (500 μ M) (or ranitidine (100 μ M)) solution was added to an aqueous TiO₂ suspension (0.25 g/500 mL), and the pH of the suspension was adjusted to 5.0 with a HClO₄ solution. After the suspension was magnetically stirred for 30 min, the oxalate-adsorbed TiO₂ (or ranitidine-adsorbed TiO₂) powder in the suspension was filtered through a 0.45 μ m PVDF disc filter (Pall) and dried at room temperature overnight.

The UV–visible absorption spectra of liquid samples (i.e., oxalate, ranitidine, and the mixture of oxalate and ranitidine) were directly recorded with a UV–visible spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-2600). In the case of solid samples (i.e., pure TiO₂, oxalate-adsorbed TiO₂, and ranitidine-adsorbed TiO₂ powders), the diffuse reflectance UV–visible spectra were measured using a UV–visible spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere attachment (Shimadzu UV-2600) and then transformed to UV–visible absorption spectra through the Kubelka-Munk function [33]. The coordination structures of oxalate-adsorbed TiO₂ were characterized using attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR, Thermo Scientific Nicolet

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