

Combining the Photocatalyst Pt/TiO₂ and the Nonphotocatalyst SnPd/Al₂O₃ for Effective Photocatalytic Purification of Groundwater Polluted with Nitrate

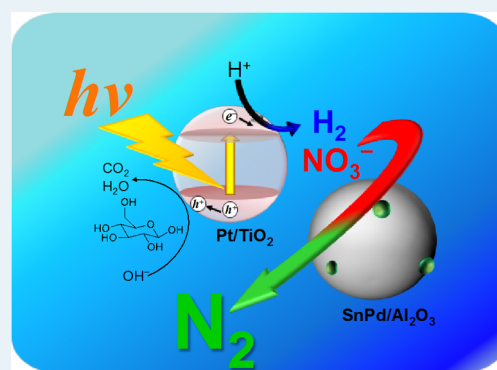
Jun Hirayama[†] and Yuichi Kamiya^{*‡}

[†]Graduate School of Environmental Science, [‡]Research Faculty of Environmental Earth Science, Hokkaido University, Nishi 5, Kita 10, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-0810, Japan

S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: We investigated photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in real groundwater in the presence of the photocatalyst Pt/TiO₂ and the nonphotocatalyst SnPd/Al₂O₃, which were dispersed in the groundwater, under irradiation at $\lambda > 300$ nm, with glucose as a hole scavenger. In this system, photocatalytic H₂ evolution ($2\text{H}^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$) proceeded over Pt/TiO₂, and nonphotocatalytic, that is, conventional catalytic, reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ ($\text{NO}_3^- + 5/2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 1/2\text{N}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{OH}^-$) occurred over SnPd/Al₂O₃. NO₃⁻ (1.0 mmol dm⁻³) in the groundwater completely and selectively decomposed to N₂ (yield 83%) after 120 h with a 300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 300$ nm) over the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system in combination with photooxidative pretreatment of the groundwater over Pt/TiO₂ to decompose organic compounds. The decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ in the groundwater was still slower than that in an aqueous NO₃⁻ solution even after the pretreatment of the groundwater. The lower photocatalytic performance was due to poisoning of Pt/TiO₂ with sulfate and silicate ions and poisoning of SnPd/Al₂O₃ with polymerized silicate ions. On the other hand, cations, including Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, and Ca²⁺, in the groundwater did not affect the photocatalytic and catalytic performances of the system. Sulfate ions adsorbed on the Pt sites on Pt/TiO₂, where H₂ evolution occurs, and silicate ions deactivated the oxidation sites on TiO₂ by reacting with the surface hydroxyl groups, leading to a decline in the photocatalytic performance of Pt/TiO₂.

KEYWORDS: photocatalysis, nitrate reduction, platinum-modified titanium dioxide, groundwater purification, tin-palladium bimetal, hydrogenation



INTRODUCTION

Pollution of groundwater with nitrate (NO₃⁻) as a result of intensive agricultural activities using nitrogen fertilizers, human sewage, and industrial effluents is a serious global problem.¹ NO₃⁻ is reduced to nitrite (NO₂⁻) in the human body, which causes methemoglobinemia in infants (i.e., blue-baby syndrome) and is a possible precursor of carcinogenic nitrosamine.² Thus, the World Health Organization recommends that the concentration of NO₃⁻ in drinking water should be below 0.8 mmol dm⁻³, which corresponds to 50 mg dm⁻³.³ Since groundwater is an important fresh water resource that is indispensable to human society, NO₃⁻ needs to be removed from polluted groundwater.

In recent years, photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in water has been extensively investigated as a promising technology to remediate NO₃⁻-polluted groundwater.^{4–19} Guan's group⁸ and Kominami's group¹⁰ have reported that Ag/TiO₂ and CuPd/TiO₂, respectively, show high selectivity to N₂ in the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in aqueous NO₃⁻ solutions under UV irradiation in the presence of a hole scavenger. However, there are only a few reports on the photocatalytic

reduction of NO₃⁻ in real groundwater. Westerhoff et al. first reported the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in groundwater in 2012.¹⁵ They use TiO₂ to photocatalytically reduce NO₃⁻ in groundwater under UV irradiation. Although NO₃⁻ decomposes in the presence of formic acid, the conversion decreases from 51% in aqueous NO₃⁻ solution to 37% in groundwater. To the best of our knowledge, the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ to N₂ with high selectivity in real groundwater has not been reported so far.

Photocatalytic reactions over semiconductor photocatalysts, such as TiO₂ and WO₃, proceed via three sequential reactions:^{20,21} (1) photoexcited electrons (e^-) and positive holes (h^+) are produced in the bulk of the semiconductor photocatalyst by photoabsorption, (2) e^- and h^+ migrate to the surface, (3) e^- and h^+ undergo reduction and oxidation, respectively, with the substrates adsorbed on the surface, and (4) unreacted e^- and h^+ recombine, which does not cause any

Received: March 18, 2014

Revised: May 23, 2014

Published: May 28, 2014

chemical reactions to occur with the substrates. Observed rates of the chemical reactions, i.e., rates of reactant consumption and of product formation, depend on the rates of these three reactions. The reaction rates of (1) and (3) positively influence the observed rate, whereas the reaction rate of (4) negatively influences it.

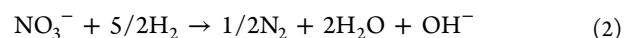
Generally, semiconductor photocatalysts themselves, i.e., unmodified bare photocatalysts, show low photocatalytic activities. However, the photocatalytic activity is dramatically increased when a small amount of metal is added.^{14,22} There are a few reasons for the increase in the photocatalytic activity. One reason is that e^- are trapped on the modified metal, leading to elongation of the charge-separated state of e^- and positive holes, which decreases the rate of (4). Another reason is that the modified metal becomes an adsorption site for the reactants, resulting in an increase in the rate of (3). However, addition of metal into the photocatalyst may increase the rate of (4) because the excess metal acts as recombination sites for e^- and h^+ .^{7,9} Therefore, an optimal balance among the loading amount, kind, crystalline structure, location, and particle size of the metal must be obtained to afford high-performance photocatalysts.

In some photocatalytic reactions, not only the loading amount and particle size but also the elemental species of metal strongly affect the photocatalytic performance. Photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- in water over a semiconductor photocatalyst is a quite typical case that the elemental species of metal strongly affects the photocatalytic performances. Semiconductor photocatalysts modified with silver and Cu–Pd particles have high activity and high selectivity to N_2 in the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- ,^{9,10,14} but Pt- and Rh-modified ones show extremely low activities in the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- ,^{5,14} because Ag and Cu–Pd form adsorption sites for NO_3^- , which become activated. Since the metal particles activate NO_3^- via adsorption, they must have a high surface area for high photocatalytic activity. In addition, the modified metal must help in the charge separation of the e^- – h^+ pairs. If the two functions are maximized simultaneously by optimizing the loading amount, elemental species, crystalline structure, location, and particle size of the metals, extremely high-performance semiconductor photocatalysts can be obtained. However, it is usually difficult to achieve this with semiconductor photocatalysts modified directly with metals, because excess metal provides the recombination sites for e^- and h^+ .

Recently, reaction systems in which various catalytic functions are distributed to separate catalysts present in the same solution have been actively investigated to maximize the performance of catalysts. Artificial Z-scheme-type photocatalytic water splitting, which affords H_2 and O_2 , is an example of function-distribution on separate catalysts. In the artificial Z-scheme photocatalytic system, O_2 and H_2 evolution sites are built on separate semiconductor photocatalysts (e.g., WO_3 for O_2 evolution and TaON for H_2 evolution), and two catalysts are added to the reaction solution with a redox shuttle between the two catalysts.^{23–27} The combination of a biocatalyst and a conventional catalyst (metal complexes and precious metal-supported catalysts are examples for the latter) has been reported to be a highly efficient system.^{28,29} In this reaction system, the biocatalyst promotes difficult reactions with high chemo-, regio-, and stereoselectivities, and conventional catalysts perform relatively simple reactions with high

reaction rates. However, the biocatalysts and conventional catalysts perform their reactions successively.

We have previously reported that the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- in an aqueous NO_3^- solution is effectively and selectively promoted under light irradiation in the presence of a photocatalyst (Pt/TiO_2 ¹⁷ or $\text{Pt}/\text{SrTiO}_3\text{:Rh}$ ¹⁸) and a nonphotocatalyst ($\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$). In this photocatalytic system, H_2 is formed by a photocatalytic reaction over Pt/TiO_2 (eq 1), and the formed H_2 thermally reduces NO_3^- in water over $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (eq 2):



The combined photocatalytic system shows much better photocatalytic performance in terms of both activity and selectivity than does TiO_2 directly modified with Sn–Pd particles. The photocatalyst (Pt/TiO_2) and nonphotocatalyst ($\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$) can be designed separately to maximize their performance levels for the photocatalytic (eq 1) and nonphotocatalytic (eq 2) reactions, respectively.

In the present study, we investigated the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- in real groundwater in the presence of both the photocatalyst Pt/TiO_2 and the nonphotocatalyst $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ under light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm). We chose glucose as a hole scavenger for the photocatalytic reaction because it is a readily available organic compound and has a high efficiency of H_2 production by photocatalysis. Moreover, the effects of compounds in the groundwater on the photocatalytic and nonphotocatalytic performance levels over Pt/TiO_2 and $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, respectively, were systematically investigated, and we have proposed a guideline for the remediation of real groundwater by photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- .

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Preparation of Catalysts. AEROXIDE TiO_2 P25 (Evonik) was used as a TiO_2 photocatalyst. TiO_2 was modified with 0.5 wt % Pt by using photodeposition. TiO_2 (2 g) was dispersed in distilled water (135 cm^3), and then CH_3OH (15 cm^3 , Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.) and $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1.25 cm^3 , 0.04 mol dm^{-3} , Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.) were added to the suspension. The suspension, which was in a Pyrex glass cell, was purged with a stream of N_2 (15 $\text{cm}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$) for 30 min and then irradiated using a 300 W Xe lamp ($\lambda > 300$ nm, USHIO Inc., Optical Modulex) for 3 h with stirring. The suspension was centrifuged to separate the catalyst powder, and the resulting supernatant solution was replaced with distilled water (200 cm^3). The suspension was stirred for a few minutes and centrifuged again. This process was repeated three times. Finally, the catalyst powder was dried in air at 333 K overnight. The obtained catalyst is denoted as Pt/TiO_2 .

The nonphotocatalytic catalyst, 2.3 wt % Sn–4.2 wt % Pd/ Al_2O_3 (molar ratio of Sn/Pd was 0.5, denoted as $\text{SnPd}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$), was prepared by using an incipient wetness method. Al_2O_3 (AEROXIDE, Alu C, Evonik) was heated in air at 523 K for 4 h before use. An aqueous solution of PdCl_2 (7.38 cm^3 , 0.112 mol dm^{-3} , Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.) was dropped onto the Al_2O_3 (2.0 g), and then the resulting wet solid was dried in air at 373 K overnight, followed by calcination in air at 523 K for 3 h. An aqueous solution of $\text{SnCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (2.31 cm^3 , 0.172 mol dm^{-3} , Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.) was dropped onto the resulting solid, and then the wet solid was dried in air at 373 K overnight, followed by calcination in air at 523 K for 3 h. TiO_2

Table 1. Concentrations of the Components Contained in the Groundwater and Reaction Solutions Used in this Study

reaction solution	initial pH	concentration/mmol dm ⁻³									
		NO ₃ ⁻	Cl ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	SiO _x ⁿ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	TOC ⁱ
GW ^a	8.1	1.0	0.5	1.1	1.1	<0.01	1.0	0.1	0.7	1.6	3.3
GW-Ox ^b	8.1	1.0	0.5	1.1	0.7	<0.01	1.0	0.1	0.7	1.6	0.2
GW-Ox-Cation-removal ^c	7.8	1.0	0.5	1.1	0.7	0	0	3.0	0	0	0.2
GW-Ox-Anion-removal ^d	5.3	1.0	0	0	0	<0.01	1.0	1.1	0.7	1.6	0.2
KNO ₃ -aq ^e	5.5	1.0	0	0	0	0	0	1.0	0	0	0
KNO ₃ -Cl ⁻ -aq ^f	5.4	1.0	1.0	0	0	0	0	2.0	0	0	0
KNO ₃ -SO ₄ ²⁻ -aq ^g	5.5	1.0	0	1.0	0	0	0	3.0	0	0	0
KNO ₃ -SiO ₃ ²⁻ -aq ^h	9.8	1.0	0	0	1.0	0	0	3.0	0	0	0

^aGroundwater obtained from a well in Kitami, Hokkaido, Japan. ^bGW treated with photocatalytic oxidation in the presence of Pt/TiO₂. ^cGW from which cations were removed by passing GW through a cation-exchange resin, followed by treatment with photocatalytic oxidation to decompose organic matter. ^dGW from which anions were removed by passing GW through an anion-exchange resin, followed by treatment with photocatalytic oxidation to decompose organic matter. After treatment, KNO₃ was added to the water to adjust the concentration of NO₃⁻ to 1.0 mmol dm⁻³. ^eAqueous KNO₃ solution. ^fAqueous KNO₃ solution with KCl. ^gAqueous KNO₃ solution with K₂SO₄. ^hAqueous KNO₃ solution with K₂SiO₃. ⁱTotal organic carbon (ppm).

modified with 2.3 wt % Sn and 4.2 wt % Pd was prepared by using a procedure similar to that for SnPd/Al₂O₃ and is denoted as SnPd/TiO₂.

Just before the photocatalytic and nonphotocatalytic reactions, SnPd/Al₂O₃ was reduced with NaBH₄ (Wako Pure Chem, Ind., Ltd.). NaBH₄ (molar ratio of NaBH₄/(Sn + Pd) = 10) was added to an aqueous suspension (30 cm³) of SnPd/Al₂O₃, and the suspension was stirred at room temperature for 30 min. The catalyst powder was filtered and washed with distilled water (~200 cm³) to afford the reactants. SnPd/TiO₂ was reduced by using a procedure similar to that for SnPd/Al₂O₃.

Component Analysis of Groundwater. Groundwater polluted with NO₃⁻ was obtained from a well in Kitami, Hokkaido, Japan (denoted as GW). Concentrations of the anions and cations in the groundwater were determined by using two ion-chromatographs (Tosoh Co., IC-2001). Analytical conditions are described in detail in our previous report.¹⁸ The concentrations of Si species in the groundwater were determined by using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) on a Shimadzu ICPS-7000. The Si species present in the groundwater were anions (silicate ion, SiO_xⁿ⁻) because no Si was detected in the groundwater that was treated with an anion-exchange resin. The amounts of the organic compounds in the groundwater were measured by using a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Shimadzu Co., TOC-5000A). Components contained in the groundwater (GW) are listed in Table 1.

Reaction Solutions. The reaction solutions and their compositions are listed in Table 1. GW-Ox stands for GW pretreated with photocatalytic oxidation in the presence of Pt/TiO₂ (500 mg dispersed in 300 cm³ of GW) to decompose the organic compounds. The suspension in a Pyrex glass cell was purged with a stream of air (100 cm³ min⁻¹) and then irradiated with a 300 W Xe lamp for 24 h. The catalyst was separated from the suspension by filtration. TOC decreased from 3.3 in GW to 0.2 ppm in GW-Ox by the treatment. The concentrations of the other components besides SiO_xⁿ⁻ were not affected by the treatment. The concentration of SiO_xⁿ⁻ decreased from 1.1 to 0.7 mmol dm⁻³.

The cations were removed by passing GW through a glass column with a cation-exchange resin (ORGANO Co., AMBERLYST 70), followed by addition of KOH to adjust the pH of the solution to 7.8 (GW-Ox-Cation). The obtained

solution was further treated with the photocatalytic oxidation, like GW-Ox was. The anions were removed from GW (GW-Ox-Anion) by using a procedure similar to that for GW-Ox-Cation, but an anion exchange resin (ORGANO Co., AMBERLITE IRA410 OH AG) and CO₂ were used instead of the cation-exchange resin and KOH, respectively. To adjust the concentration of NO₃⁻ to 1.0 mmol dm⁻³, KNO₃ (Wako Pure Chem, Ind., Ltd.) was added to the solution.

KNO₃ was dissolved in distilled water to afford KNO₃-aq. The concentration of NO₃⁻ in the solution was adjusted to 1.0 mmol dm⁻³. KNO₃-Cl⁻-aq, KNO₃-SO₄²⁻-aq, and KNO₃-SiO₃²⁻-aq were prepared by adding KCl (Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.), K₂SO₄ (Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.), and K₂SiO₃ (Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.), respectively, to KNO₃-aq.

Photocatalytic Reduction of NO₃⁻ in Water. Photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in water was carried out in a Pyrex reaction vessel connected to a closed gas circulation system. Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃ were suspended in the reaction solution (250 cm³, [NO₃⁻] = 1.0 mmol dm⁻³) containing glucose (1.0 mmol dm⁻³, Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.), and the suspension was stirred using a magnetic stirrer. The reaction suspension was thoroughly degassed and then exposed to He (101.3 kPa). A 300 W Xe lamp covered with Pyrex glass ($\lambda > 300$ nm) was used as the light source. The evolved gases were analyzed using an online gas chromatograph (Agilent Technology Inc., 3000 A Micro GC, He carrier) with columns of molecular sieves (for H₂, O₂, and N₂) and Porapak Q (for N₂O). The concentrations of NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, and NH₄⁺ in the reaction solution were determined by using two ion chromatographs.

Nonphotocatalytic (conventional catalytic) Reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ in Water. Nonphotocatalytic reduction, that is, conventional catalytic reduction, of NO₃⁻ with H₂ in water was carried out in a batch reactor at 298 K in the dark. The reaction solution (250 cm³, [NO₃⁻] = 1.0 mmol dm⁻³, 14 mg N dm⁻³) containing SnPd/Al₂O₃ (10 mg) was purged with a stream of He (30 cm³ min⁻¹) for 30 min. Then the gas was changed to a mixture of H₂ (0.5 atm) and CO₂ (0.5 atm) to start the reaction. A small portion of the reaction solution was periodically withdrawn and analyzed by using two ion chromatographs to determine the concentrations of NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, and NH₄⁺.

Photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ Evolutions. Photocatalytic H₂ evolution from the reaction solution with glucose over Pt/TiO₂ was carried out by using a procedure similar to that for the

Table 2. Photocatalytic Reduction^a of NO₃⁻ in Groundwater (GW) under Light Irradiation

entry	catalyst	glucose	conversion [%]	selectivity [%]			amnt of H ₂ detected in gas phase/ μ mol
				NO ₂ ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	N ₂	
1	Pt/TiO ₂	absence	<1	—	—	—	60
2	Pt/TiO ₂	presence	<1	—	—	—	227
3	SnPd/Al ₂ O ₃	presence	0	—	—	—	n.d. ^d
4	Pt/TiO ₂ +SnPd/Al ₂ O ₃	presence	23	3	22	75	18
5	Pt/TiO ₂ +SnPd/Al ₂ O ₃ ^b	presence	0	—	—	—	n.d. ^d
6	Pt/TiO ₂ +SnPd/Al ₂ O ₃	absence	<1	—	—	—	n.d. ^d
7	SnPd/TiO ₂ ^c	presence	5	0	38	62	21

^aReaction conditions: catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg and SnPd/Al₂O₃, 100 mg; reactant NO₃⁻, 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ with 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ glucose; reaction volume, 250 cm³; light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm) and reaction time, 12 h. ^bUnder dark conditions. ^c2.3 wt % Sn-4.2 wt % Pd/TiO₂. The amount of the catalyst loaded in the reactor was 500 mg. ^dNot detected.

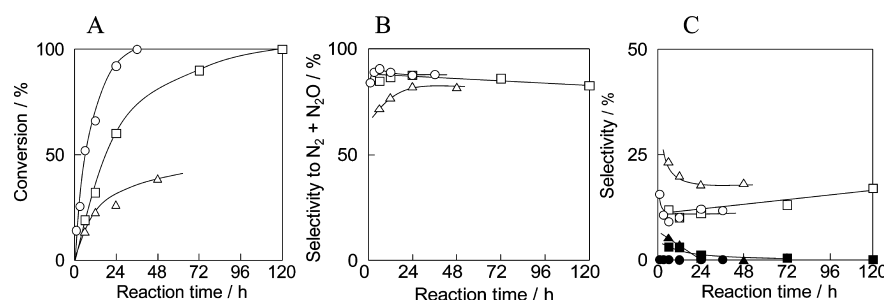


Figure 1. Time courses for photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in (Δ) GW, (□) GW-Ox, and (○) KNO₃-aq in the copresence of Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃. (A) Conversion of NO₃⁻, (B) selectivity to N₂ + N₂O, and (C) selectivities to NO₂⁻ (closed symbols) and NH₄⁺ (open symbols). Reaction conditions: catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg and SnPd/Al₂O₃, 100 mg; reactant NO₃⁻ (from KNO₃), 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ with 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ glucose; reaction volume, 250 cm³; light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm).

photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in water, as described above, but in the absence of SnPd/Al₂O₃. In addition, photocatalytic O₂ evolution from the reaction solution with AgNO₃ (10 mmol dm⁻³, Wako Pure Chem., Ind., Ltd.) was conducted by using a procedure similar to that for the photocatalytic H₂ evolution. To prevent the formation of silver colloid, the pH of the reaction solution was adjusted to 8.0 by adding HNO₃ to the solution with AgNO₃ and K₂SiO₃.

Adsorption Measurement. The amount of adsorption of SiO₃²⁻ on Pt/TiO₂ at 303 K was measured as follows. Pt/TiO₂ (30 mg) was added to an aqueous SiO₃²⁻ solution (10 cm³), which was prepared from K₂SiO₃, and the suspension was heated at 303 K with stirring. After 24 h, Pt/TiO₂ was filtered off, and the concentration of SiO₃²⁻ in the filtrate was determined using ICP-AES. The initial concentrations of SiO₃²⁻ were varied from 0.1 to 8.0 mmol dm⁻³. Adsorption reached equilibrium within several hours.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Photocatalytic Reduction of NO₃⁻ in Groundwater (GW). Table 2 summarizes the data from the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in groundwater (GW) samples under light irradiation for 12 h. Pt/TiO₂ alone in the absence of glucose (entry 1) showed negligible activity for the decomposition of NO₃⁻, whereas H₂ was produced. The H₂ evolution under light irradiation was due to a photocatalytic reaction over Pt/TiO₂ (eq 1) consuming organic substances (3.3 ppm TOC), which were originally present in GW (Table 1) and acted as a hole scavenger because the amount of CO₂ in the gas phase increased with an increase in the reaction time (data not shown). Pt/TiO₂ alone hardly decomposed NO₃⁻ even in the presence of glucose (entry 2), but the amount of H₂ evolved in

the gas phase was larger than that for entry 1. SnPd/Al₂O₃ alone (entry 3) showed no photocatalytic or catalytic activity for the decomposition of NO₃⁻ or for the evolution of H₂ even under light irradiation.

On the other hand, relatively high NO₃⁻ conversion was obtained when both Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃ (Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃) were dispersed in the reaction solution in the presence of glucose (entry 4). In addition, the formation of undesirable NO₂⁻ was greatly suppressed (3% selectivity), and desired N₂ selectively formed (75% selectivity at 23% conversion of NO₃⁻), though the selectivity may change with further conversion. At the time, only N₂ formed as a gaseous nitrogen-containing product. When the reaction was conducted in the dark, the conversion of NO₃⁻ was negligible even using Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ (entry 5). Thus, photocatalysis is responsible for the decomposition of NO₃⁻ in entry 4. When the reaction was conducted in the absence of glucose under light irradiation (entry 6), NO₃⁻ did not decompose, and no H₂ evolved in the gas phase. Although H₂ evolved during the photocatalytic reaction over Pt/TiO₂ even in the absence of glucose (entry 1), no photocatalytic reactions, including the decomposition of NO₃⁻ and H₂ evolution, occurred when Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃ were copresent in GW (entry 6). This is probably because the organic compounds are removed from GW by adsorption on SnPd/Al₂O₃, which consequently quenches the photocatalytic H₂ evolution over Pt/TiO₂.

TiO₂ directly modified with SnPd particles exhibited photocatalytic activity for the decomposition of NO₃⁻ (entry 7). However, it was much less active than the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system was under the same reaction conditions. Since H₂ evolution, as well as NO₃⁻ decomposition, occurred over SnPd/TiO₂ under light irradiation, photoexcited e⁻ formed in SnPd/TiO₂ were consumed for the reduction of NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻

+ 6H⁺ + 5e⁻ → 1/2N₂ + 3H₂O) and for H₂ evolution (2H⁺ + 2e⁻ → H₂). We calculated the number of e⁻ consumed during the reaction in entry 7 to be 116 μmol. On the other hand, that calculated for the reaction in entry 4 (the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system), in which H₂ evolved and NO₃⁻ decomposed, was 369 μmol. A comparison of the amount of consumed e⁻ in entries 4 and 7 clearly indicates that the photocatalytic performance of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system is much higher than that of SnPd/TiO₂. In addition, SnPd/TiO₂ is less active toward the nonphotocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻ + 5/2H₂ → 1/2N₂ + 2H₂O + OH⁻) than SnPd/Al₂O₃ is because a similar amount of H₂ formed over both SnPd/TiO₂ and Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃. On the other hand, in the case of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system, the photocatalytic function on Pt/TiO₂ and nonphotocatalytic function on SnPd/Al₂O₃ can be individually optimized. Therefore, we concluded that this reaction system showed superior activity for the decomposition of NO₃⁻ under light irradiation than SnPd/TiO₂ did.

Figure 1 shows time courses for the conversion of NO₃⁻ and selectivities to N₂ + N₂O, NO₂⁻, and NH₄⁺ for the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in GW, GW-Ox, and KNO₃-aq over the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system. The conversion of NO₃⁻ increased as the reaction progressed up to 12 h in GW but only slightly increased after that (Figure 1A: Δ). That is, the catalytic activity in GW was less than that in KNO₃-aq. Since GW contained various compounds (Table 1), these compounds must have a negative effect on the activities over Pt/TiO₂, SnPd/Al₂O₃, or both.

In order to clarify the influence of the compounds in GW, we conducted the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system in KNO₃-aq, which did not contain any cations other than K⁺, anions other than NO₃⁻ ions, and organic compounds other than glucose. NO₃⁻ in KNO₃-aq decomposed more rapidly than it did in GW, and the conversion of NO₃⁻ reached 100% at 36 h (Figure 1A: ○) without any catalyst deactivation. At 100% conversion, the selectivity to N₂ + N₂O was 88% (Figure 1B: ○). From these results, it was concluded that the compounds in GW decreased the photocatalytic or catalytic performances (activity and selectivity) of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system. During the initial 24 h of the reaction in KNO₃-aq, N₂O formed in addition to N₂ but was completely transformed to N₂ at 36 h (shown in Figure S1 in the Supporting Information [SI]).

To investigate the effects of the organic compounds in GW on the photocatalytic performance of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system, we treated GW with photocatalytic oxidation in the presence of Pt/TiO₂ to decompose the organic compounds (see Experimental Methods) and conducted the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in the treated solution (GW-Ox, Table 1) over the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system. The decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ in GW-Ox was nearly twice that in GW, and NO₃⁻ was completely decomposed at 120 h (Figure 1A: □). At 100% conversion (120 h), the selectivity to N₂ + N₂O was 83% (Figure 1B: □), which was almost the same as that in KNO₃-aq. Thus, removing the organic compounds from GW makes it possible to decompose NO₃⁻ selectively to N₂ and N₂O. However, the reaction rate for NO₃⁻-decomposition in GW-Ox was slower than that in KNO₃-aq (Figure 1A), indicating that compounds other than the organic ones in GW negatively affected the catalytic performance of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system. This will be discussed later.

In order for the water obtained by the photocatalytic decomposition of NO₃⁻ to be used as drinking water, glucose and its partially oxidized compounds must ultimately be removed from the water. Figure 2 shows time courses for

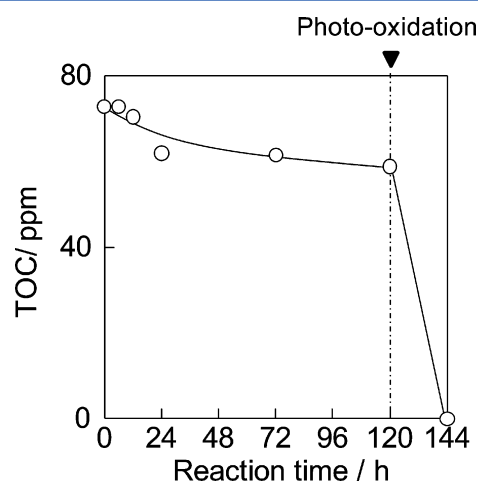


Figure 2. Changes in the concentration of total organic compounds (TOC) during the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in GW-Ox in the presence of Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃. Reaction conditions ($t \leq 120$ h): catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg and SnPd/Al₂O₃, 100 mg; reactant NO₃⁻ (from KNO₃), 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ with 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ glucose; reaction volume, 250 cm³; light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm). The catalyst powder (Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ mixture) was separated from the reaction solution at 120 h and fresh Pt/TiO₂ (500 mg) was added to the solution, followed by light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm) with a flow of air to decompose the organic matter in the solution by photocatalytic oxidation. Reaction conditions ($t > 120$ h): catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg; reactant concentration, 1.0 mmol dm⁻³; reaction volume, 250 cm³; air flow rate, 100 cm³ min⁻¹; light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm).

TOC during the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in GW-Ox over the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system. The initial TOC was 73 ppm, and it decreased as the reaction progressed, reaching 59 ppm at 120 h, at which time NO₃⁻ was completely decomposed. To completely decompose the organic compounds in the reaction solution, the catalyst powder (Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ mixture) was separated from the reaction solution at 120 h, and fresh Pt/TiO₂ was added to the solution, followed by light irradiation with a stream of air flowing into the reactor (100 cm³ min⁻¹). After an additional 24 h, the organic compounds in the reaction solution were completely decomposed. In other words, glucose added in GW and its partially oxidized compounds can be easily decomposed so that the groundwater can be used as drinking water.

Effects of the Compounds in the Groundwater (GW) on Photocatalytic and Catalytic Performance. Figure 3a shows the conversion of NO₃⁻ and selectivity for N₂ + N₂O in the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ using the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system in the various reaction solutions under light irradiation for a period of 12 h with an initial concentration of NO₃⁻ of 1.0 mmol dm⁻³ in each reaction solution. Although the pH of the solutions was different in each case, as shown in Table 1, it barely affected the photocatalytic performance (Figure S2A in the SI).

As was described above, compounds other than the organic compounds still caused the NO₃⁻-decomposition activity of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system to decrease. Thus, cations and

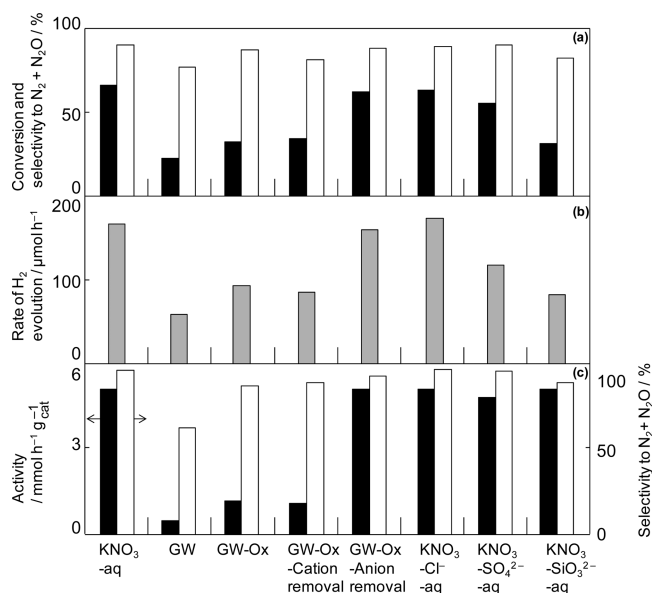


Figure 3. Effects of different compounds in the groundwater on photocatalytic and catalytic performances. (a) Photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in water in the copresence of Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃ under light irradiation. (■) Conversion of NO₃⁻, and (□) selectivity to N₂ + N₂O. Reaction conditions: catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg and SnPd/Al₂O₃, 100 mg; concentration of NO₃⁻, 1.0 mmol dm⁻³; concentration of glucose, 1.0 mmol dm⁻³; volume of reaction solution, 250 cm³; light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm). (b) Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution over Pt/TiO₂ under light irradiation. Reaction conditions: catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg; concentration of glucose, 1.0 mmol dm⁻³; volume of reaction, 250 cm³; light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm). (c) Nonphotocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ in water over SnPd/Al₂O₃ under the dark conditions. (■) Conversion of NO₃⁻, and (□) selectivity to N₂ + N₂O. Reaction conditions: catalyst weight, SnPd/Al₂O₃, 10 mg; concentration of NO₃⁻, 1.0 mmol dm⁻³; volume of reaction solution, 250 cm³; gas composition, H₂/CO₂ = 1/1; gas flow rate, 30 cm³ min⁻¹.

anions were removed from GW by passing it through ion-exchange resins, followed by photocatalytic oxidation over Pt/TiO₂. The solutions obtained from GW by passing through a cation- and an anion-exchange resins are denoted as GW-Ox-Cation-removal and GW-Ox-Anion-removal, respectively. The conversion of NO₃⁻ and the selectivity to N₂ + N₂O in GW-Ox-Cation-removal were almost the same as those in GW-Ox, indicating that the cations in GW did not affect the photocatalytic and nonphotocatalytic performance levels of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system. However, in GW-Ox-Anion-removal, the conversion of NO₃⁻ and the selectivity to N₂ + N₂O were recovered, being almost the same as those in KNO₃-aq. The results clearly indicate that the anions in GW render the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system ineffective.

Next, we investigated the influence of each anion (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and SiO₃²⁻), which is contained in GW, on the photocatalytic performance of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system toward the reduction of NO₃⁻ by using aqueous NO₃⁻ solutions that contained each anion separately. Cl⁻ in KNO₃-Cl⁻-aq did not affect the conversion of NO₃⁻ and selectivity to N₂ + N₂O (Figure 3a). On the other hand, when SO₄²⁻ or SiO₃²⁻ was present in the solution, the conversion of NO₃⁻ decreased. In particular, the decrease in the conversion was most notable in KNO₃-SiO₃²⁻-aq.

Since the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ over Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ proceeded with photocatalytic H₂ evolution over

Pt/TiO₂ and nonphotocatalytic (conventional catalytic) reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ over SnPd/Al₂O₃, both reaction rates affect the overall reaction rate of the NO₃⁻ decomposition and the selectivities. Thus, to clarify the influence of the organic and anionic compounds in GW on the performance of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system, their effects on the photocatalytic performance of Pt/TiO₂ toward H₂ evolution and the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃ for the reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ must be individually investigated.

Figure 3b shows the photocatalytic H₂ evolution rate over Pt/TiO₂ in the presence of glucose but the absence of SnPd/Al₂O₃ in various reaction solutions. The H₂ evolution rate ($\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$) was estimated from the amount of H₂ formed in 1 h from the beginning of the reaction. Although the pH values of the reaction solutions were different, as shown in Table 1, the pH had little impact on the photocatalytic performance of Pt/TiO₂ (shown in Figure S2B in the SI). The H₂ evolution rate was 167 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ in KNO₃-aq, whereas it was only 59 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ in GW. The H₂ evolution rate was 93 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ in GW-Ox, indicating that H₂ evolution over Pt/TiO₂ was inhibited by the organic compounds in GW. However, the H₂ evolution rate in GW-Ox was still slower than that in KNO₃-aq. The effects of the cations and anions in GW on the H₂ evolution rate over Pt/TiO₂ were investigated in both GW-Ox-Cation-removal and GW-Ox-Anion-removal. It was found that the cations in GW had no impact on the H₂ evolution rate, whereas the anions in GW inhibited the photocatalytic H₂ evolution over Pt/TiO₂. In KNO₃-Cl⁻-aq, the H₂ evolution rate was the almost same as that in KNO₃-aq. In contrast, when either SO₄²⁻ or SiO₃²⁻ was present in KNO₃-aq, the H₂ evolution rate was significantly slower than that in KNO₃-aq. In particular, SiO₃²⁻ dramatically inhibited H₂ evolution. From these results, it was concluded that the organic compounds, SO₄²⁻, and SiO_xⁿ⁻ in GW decreased the photocatalytic performance of Pt/TiO₂, following the trend organic compounds > SiO₃²⁻ > SO₄²⁻, which also corresponds to the photocatalytic performance of the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system toward NO₃⁻ decomposition (Figure 3a). The mechanism for the inhibition of the photocatalytic reaction over Pt/TiO₂ by SO₄²⁻ and SiO₃²⁻ will be discussed in detail later.

Next, we investigated the influence of the compounds in GW on the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃. Figure 3c shows the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ and selectivity for N₂ + N₂O in the nonphotocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ over SnPd/Al₂O₃ in the absence of Pt/TiO₂ in the dark. The decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ in KNO₃-aq was 5.2 mmol h⁻¹ g_{cat}⁻¹, and the selectivity for N₂ + N₂O was 97%. Since the amount of N₂O was negligible due to very low selectivity (less than 1%), the formation of N₂O did little harm to the environment. In the case of GW, the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ was much slower than that in KNO₃-aq, with a value of 0.5 mmol h⁻¹ g_{cat}⁻¹, and the selectivity for N₂ + N₂O was only 63%. The decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ in GW-Ox was still about a quarter of that in KNO₃-aq, and the selectivity for N₂ + N₂O was 88%, indicating that the organic compounds in GW significantly affected the nonphotocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ over SnPd/Al₂O₃. Since the activity and selectivity in GW-Ox-Cation-removal were similar to those in GW-Ox, the cations in GW did not affect the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃. On the other hand, in GW-Ox-Anion-removal, the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ and selectivity to N₂ + N₂O were the same as those in KNO₃-aq. Thus, the anions in GW inhibited the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃. However,

Table 3. Catalytic Reduction^a of NO₃⁻ in the Dark in an Aqueous KNO₃ Solution over SnPd/Al₂O₃ in the Presence of K₂SiO₃, KCl, and K₂SO₄

entry	anion	activity/mmole h ⁻¹ g _{cat} ⁻¹	selectivity/[%]			absorbance @ 440 nm ^c
			NO ₂ ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	N ₂ + N ₂ O ^b	
1	NO ₃ ⁻	5.2	0	3	97	—
2	NO ₃ ⁻ , SiO ₃ ²⁻ , Cl ⁻ , SO ₄ ²⁻	1.7	1	7	92	0.38
3	NO ₃ ⁻ , Cl ⁻ , SO ₄ ²⁻	5.2	0	4	96	—
4	NO ₃ ⁻ , SiO ₃ ²⁻ , SO ₄ ²⁻	5.2	1	6	93	0.46
5	NO ₃ ⁻ , SiO ₃ ²⁻ , Cl ⁻	3.9	<1	5	95	0.43
6	NO ₃ ⁻ , SiO ₃ ²⁻	5.1	1	8	91	0.47

^aReaction conditions: catalyst weight, SnPd/Al₂O₃, 10 mg; reactant NO₃⁻ (from KNO₃), 1.0 mmol dm⁻³; reaction volume, 250 cm³; gas composition, H₂/CO₂ = 1/1; gas flow rate, 30 cm³ min⁻¹. Initial concentrations of K₂SiO₃, KCl, and K₂SO₄ were 1.1, 0.5, and 1.1 mmol dm⁻³, respectively. ^bSelectivity to N₂ + N₂O was calculated by subtracting the selectivities of NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺ from 100%. ^cDetermined by using a molybdenum yellow method.³⁰

when the anions, including Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and SiO_xⁿ⁻, were individually present in KNO₃-aq, the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ by the catalytic reduction with H₂ over SnPd/Al₂O₃ and the selectivity for N₂ + N₂O were almost the same as those in KNO₃-aq.

Thus, we thought that the anions (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and SiO_xⁿ⁻) only had a significant effect on the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃ when a combination of these anions was present. Therefore, we determined the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃ for the reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ in solutions containing different combinations of Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and SiO_xⁿ⁻. Table 3 summarizes the results for the catalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ over SnPd/Al₂O₃ without irradiation in reaction solutions containing Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and SiO₃²⁻ in the same concentrations (0.5, 1.1, and 1.1 mmol dm⁻³, respectively) as those in GW. In the reaction in entry 2, the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ was significantly slower in comparison with that in KNO₃-aq (entry 1). On the other hand, the decomposition rates of NO₃⁻ in the solutions containing SO₄²⁻ and Cl⁻ (entry 3) and SO₄²⁻ and SiO₃²⁻ (entry 4) were comparable to that in KNO₃-aq (entry 1). In contrast, in a solution containing SiO₃²⁻ and Cl⁻ (entry 5), the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ decreased to 3.9 mmol h⁻¹ g_{cat}⁻¹, which was slower than that in KNO₃-aq (5.2 mmol h⁻¹ g_{cat}⁻¹). A possible reason for the deactivation of SnPd/Al₂O₃ with SiO₃²⁻ in solutions that also contained Cl⁻ or Cl⁻-SO₄²⁻ is that SiO₃²⁻ polymerizes in the presence of Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻, after which the formed silicate oligomers are adsorbed on SnPd/Al₂O₃.

Thus, the amount of SiO₃²⁻ monomer in each reaction solution was determined by using a molybdenum yellow method,³⁰ where Mo⁶⁺ is added to the solution and reacts with monomeric silicate ions to form a heteropolyanion ([SiMo₁₂O₄₀]⁴⁻). The amount of [SiMo₁₂O₄₀]⁴⁻ in the solution is determined from the absorbance at 440 nm in a UV-vis spectrum of the solution. Therefore, if the intensity of the absorbance at 440 nm decreases, then the amount of silicate oligomers has increased. Table 3 lists the absorbances at 440 nm in the reaction solutions after 1 h of the catalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂ over SnPd/Al₂O₃.³¹ The absorbance in entry 4 (A₄₄₀ = 0.46) was almost the same as that in entry 6 (A₄₄₀ = 0.47). On the other hand, the absorbances in entries 2 and 5 (A₄₄₀ = 0.38 and 0.43, respectively), in which the catalytic performance was smaller, were lower than that in entry 6. In particular, the absorbance in entry 2 was much smaller than that in entry 5. The results indicate that a larger amount of silicate ions was polymerized in the reaction solution in entry 2 than it was in entry 6. The catalytic activity correlated with the

absorbances (Table 3). This correlation clearly indicates that the polymerized silicate ions deactivate SnPd/Al₂O₃ in the nonphotocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ with H₂.

From the results mentioned above, we concluded that K₂SO₄, K₂SiO₃, and organic compounds in GW decreased the photocatalytic performance of Pt/TiO₂ and that the organic compounds and polymerized silicate ions in GW lowered the nonphotocatalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃. Thus, the decomposition rate of NO₃⁻ and selectivity to N₂ + N₂O by the Pt/TiO₂-SnPd/Al₂O₃ system also decreased for the photocatalytic reduction of NO₃⁻ in GW and GW-Ox.

Mechanism for Deactivation of Pt/TiO₂ by K₂SO₄ and K₂SiO₃. As described above, SO₄²⁻ and SiO_xⁿ⁻ in GW decreased the photocatalytic activity of Pt/TiO₂ (Figure 3b). Possible reasons for the deactivation of Pt/TiO₂ by SO₄²⁻ and SiO_xⁿ⁻ are poisoning of the reduction sites (Pt e⁻), oxidation sites (TiO₂ h⁺), or both on Pt/TiO₂ with SO₄²⁻ and SiO_xⁿ⁻ (Figure S3 in the SI). In order to clarify which sites were poisoned by SO₄²⁻ and SiO_xⁿ⁻, we investigated the influence of the concentrations of both compounds on the photocatalytic performance for H₂ evolution (2H⁺ + 2 (Pt e⁻) → H₂ + 2Pt) from an aqueous glucose solution over Pt/TiO₂ and for the O₂ evolution (2H₂O + 4 (TiO₂ h⁺) → O₂ + 4H⁺ + 4TiO₂) from an aqueous AgNO₃ solution over bare TiO₂. The former reaction can be used to estimate the level of poisoning of Pt e⁻ sites due to these compounds, and the latter one can be used to estimate the level of poisoning of TiO₂ h⁺ sites.

The H₂ evolution rate over Pt/TiO₂ under photocatalytic conditions was 298 μmol h⁻¹ in the absence of K₂SO₄ (Figure S4 in the SI). When 0.1 mmol dm⁻³ of K₂SO₄ was added to the solution, the H₂ evolution rate decreased to 245 μmol h⁻¹. Further addition of K₂SO₄ did not change the H₂ evolution rate. Since a small amount of K₂SO₄ had a substantial effect on the H₂ evolution rate over Pt/TiO₂, we concluded that SO₄²⁻ was strongly adsorbed on the H₂ evolution sites on Pt/TiO₂, i.e., Pt atoms exposed on the surface of the Pt particles, resulting in the deactivation of Pt/TiO₂. In contrast to the H₂ evolution rate, the presence of SO₄²⁻ in the solution did not cause a decrease in the O₂ evolution rate over the bare TiO₂, indicating that SO₄²⁻ did not poison the TiO₂ h⁺ sites on TiO₂ (Figure S4 in the SI).

Figure 4 shows the effects of the concentration of K₂SiO₃ on the H₂ evolution rate from the photocatalytic reaction over Pt/TiO₂ in an aqueous glucose solution and on the O₂ evolution rate from the photocatalytic reaction over bare TiO₂ in an aqueous AgNO₃ solution. The H₂ evolution rate did not change with the concentration of K₂SiO₃ up to 0.5 mmol dm⁻³,

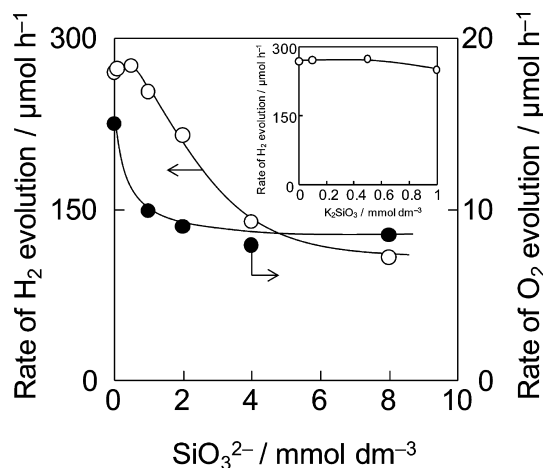


Figure 4. Effects of the concentration of SiO_3^{2-} on the rates of (O) H_2 evolution for the photocatalytic reactions in an aqueous glucose solution over Pt/TiO₂ and (●) O_2 evolution for the photocatalytic reaction in an AgNO_3 solution over TiO₂. Reaction conditions for H_2 evolution: catalyst weight, Pt/TiO₂, 500 mg; reactant glucose, 100 mmol dm⁻³; reaction volume, 250 cm³; and light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm). Reaction conditions for O_2 evolution: catalyst weight, TiO₂, 500 mg; initial pH, 9.8; reactant AgNO_3 , 10 mmol dm⁻³; reaction volume, 250 cm³; and light irradiation ($\lambda > 300$ nm).

although the total amount of SiO_3^{2-} (125 μmol) in the 0.5 mmol dm⁻³ K_2SiO_3 solution was much larger than the number of exposed Pt sites on the surface (3 μmol), which was estimated from the adsorption amount of CO at 323 K.³² Therefore, the adsorption of SiO_3^{2-} on the surface of the Pt particles was very weak. On the other hand, the O_2 evolution rate significantly decreased, even in the presence of a small amount of K_2SiO_3 (1.0 mmol dm⁻³). These results clearly indicated that $\text{TiO}_2\text{-}h^+$ sites on TiO₂ were deactivated with K_2SiO_3 . Although the rate-limiting step for the H_2 evolution reaction from the aqueous glucose solution over Pt/TiO₂ was the H_2 evolution reaction from the $\text{Pt-}e^-$ sites and SiO_3^{2-} deactivated $\text{TiO}_2\text{-}h^+$ sites on TiO₂, the H_2 evolution rate decreased when an excess amount of K_2SiO_3 (>1.0 mmol dm⁻³) was added. This is probably because the rate-limiting step for the H_2 evolution reaction from the aqueous glucose solution changed from the consumption of $\text{Pt-}e^-$ to form H_2 to that of $\text{TiO}_2\text{-}h^+$ due to the poisoning of most of the $\text{TiO}_2\text{-}h^+$ sites with SiO_3^{2-} when excess SiO_3^{2-} was present in the reaction solution.

Figure 5 shows an adsorption profile for SiO_3^{2-} on Pt/TiO₂ at 303 K. The dashed line in Figure 5 represents the number of surface hydroxyl groups on Pt/TiO₂ (295 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$), which was calculated from the surface area of the Pt/TiO₂ and the density of surface hydroxyl groups (3.3 OH nm⁻²).³² The adsorption amount of SiO_3^{2-} increased with an increase in the concentration of SiO_3^{2-} and saturated at $\sim 350 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$, which was approximately equal to the number of surface hydroxyl groups (295 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$). This result implies that SiO_3^{2-} stoichiometrically reacted with the surface hydroxyl groups in a 1:1 ratio (Ti–O–Si–OH) and supports the hypothesis that the $\text{TiO}_2\text{-}h^+$ sites were poisoned by SiO_3^{2-} .

CONCLUSIONS

Nitrate in real groundwater was decomposed mainly into N_2 with an 83% selectivity by using a photocatalytic reaction system composed of the photocatalyst Pt/TiO₂ and the

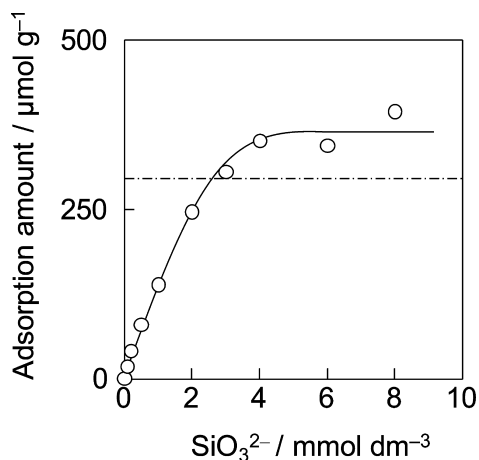


Figure 5. Adsorption of SiO_3^{2-} on Pt/TiO₂. Adsorption conditions: weight of Pt/TiO₂, 30 mg; initial concentration of SiO_3^{2-} (from K_2SiO_3), 0.1–8.0 mmol dm⁻³; temperature, 303 K; and volume of solution, 10 cm³.

nonphotocatalyst SnPd/Al₂O₃, which were dispersed in the groundwater, irradiated at $\lambda > 300$ nm in the presence of glucose as a hole scavenger. However, pretreatment of the groundwater by photooxidation with Pt/TiO₂ was necessary to remove the organic compounds from the groundwater because they poisoned both Pt/TiO₂ and SnPd/Al₂O₃. The decomposition rate of NO_3^- and the selectivity to $\text{N}_2 + \text{N}_2\text{O}$ in the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- in the groundwater were lower than those in an aqueous solution of KNO_3 . The lower photocatalytic performance of the Pt/TiO₂–SnPd/Al₂O₃ system in the groundwater was due to sulfate and silicate ions and the organic compounds in the groundwater. Sulfate and silicate ions deactivated $\text{Pt-}e^-$ and $\text{TiO}_2\text{-}h^+$ sites, respectively, on the Pt/TiO₂ surface by adsorption, causing a decrease in the photocatalytic performance toward H_2 evolution. In addition, polymerized silicate ions in the groundwater decreased the catalytic performance of SnPd/Al₂O₃ for the hydrogenation of NO_3^- with H_2 .

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Time courses for the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- , influence of pH on the photocatalytic reduction of NO_3^- , and dependences of concentrations of glucose and AgNO_3 on the rates of H_2 and O_2 evolutions, respectively, as mentioned in the text. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: kamiya@ees.hokudai.ac.jp. Tel/Fax: +81-11-706-2217.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

REFERENCES

- Wakida, F. T.; Lerner, D. N. *Water Res.* **2005**, *39*, 3–16.
- Cantor, K. P. *Cancer, Causes Control, Pap. Symp.* **1997**, *8*, 292–308.
- WHO. *Guidelines for drinking-water quality. First addendum to volume 1, Recommendations*, 3rd edition; World Health Organization: Geneva, Switzerland, 2006.

- (4) Kudo, A.; Domen, K.; Maruya, K.; Onishi, T. *Chem. Lett.* **1987**, 1019–1022.
- (5) Ranjit, K. T.; Viswanathan, B. J. *Photochem. Photobiol., A* **1997**, *108*, 73–78.
- (6) Bems, B.; Jentoft, F. C.; Schlögl, R. *Appl. Catal., B* **1999**, *20*, 155–163.
- (7) Hamanoi, O.; Kudo, A. *Chem. Lett.* **2002**, 838–839.
- (8) Gao, W.; Jin, R.; Chen, J.; Guan, X.; Zeng, H.; Zhang, F.; Guan, N. *Catal. Today* **2004**, *90*, 331–336.
- (9) Zhang, F.; Jin, R.; Chen, J.; Shao, C.; Gao, W.; Li, L.; Guan, N. *J. Catal.* **2005**, *232*, 424–431.
- (10) Kominami, H.; Nakaseko, T.; Shimada, Y.; Furusho, A.; Inoue, H.; Murakami, S.; Kera, Y.; Ohtani, B. *Chem. Commun.* **2005**, 2933–2935.
- (11) Sà, J.; Agüera, C. A.; Gross, S.; Anderson, J. A. *Appl. Catal., B* **2009**, *85*, 192–200.
- (12) Wehbe, N.; Jaafar, M.; Guillard, C.; Herrmann, J. M.; Miachon, S.; Puzenat, E.; Guilhaume, N. *Appl. Catal., A* **2009**, *368*, 1–8.
- (13) Li, L.; Xu, Z.; Liu, F.; Shao, Y.; Wang, J.; Wan, H.; Zheng, S. J. *Photochem. Photobiol., A* **2010**, *212*, 113–121.
- (14) Gekko, H.; Hashimoto, K.; Kominami, H. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* **2012**, *14*, 7965–7970.
- (15) Doudrick, K.; Monzon, O.; Mangonon, A.; Hristovski, K.; Westerhoff, P. *J. Environ. Eng.* **2012**, *138*, 852–861.
- (16) Doudrick, K.; Yang, T.; Hristovski, K.; Westerhoff, P. *Appl. Catal., B* **2013**, *136–137*, 40–47.
- (17) Hirayama, J.; Kondo, H.; Miura, Y.; Abe, R.; Kamiya, Y. *Catal. Commun.* **2012**, *20*, 99–102.
- (18) Hirayama, J.; Abe, R.; Kamiya, Y. *Appl. Catal., B* **2014**, *144*, 721–729.
- (19) Shand, M.; Anderson, J. A. *Catal. Sci. Technol.* **2013**, *3*, 879–899.
- (20) Maeda, K. *ACS Catal.* **2013**, *3*, 1486–1503.
- (21) Ohtani, B. *J. Photochem. Photobiol., C* **2010**, *11*, 157–178.
- (22) Amano, F.; Yasumoto, T.; Shibayama, T.; Uchida, S.; Ohtani, B. *Appl. Catal., B* **2009**, *89*, 583–589.
- (23) Sayama, K.; Mukasa, K.; Abe, R.; Abe, Y.; Arakawa, H. *Chem. Commun.* **2001**, 2416–2417.
- (24) Sayama, K.; Mukasa, K.; Abe, R.; Abe, Y.; Arakawa, H. *J. Photochem. Photobiol., A* **2002**, *148*, 71–77.
- (25) Abe, R.; Sayama, K.; Sugihara, H. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2005**, *109*, 16052–16061.
- (26) Abe, R.; Takata, T.; Sugihara, H.; Domen, K. *Chem. Commun.* **2005**, 3829–3831.
- (27) Kato, H.; Hori, M.; Kōta, R.; Shimodaira, Y.; Kudo, A. *Chem. Lett.* **2004**, *33*, 1348–1349.
- (28) Schwartz, T. J.; Goodman, S. M.; Osmundsen, C. M.; Taarning, E.; Mozuch, M. D.; Gaskell, J.; Cullen, D.; Kersten, P. J.; Dumesic, J. A. *ACS Catal.* **2013**, *3*, 2689–2693.
- (29) Denard, C. A.; Hartwig, J. F.; Zhao, H. *ACS Catal.* **2013**, *3*, 2856–2864.
- (30) Potapov, V. V.; Serdan, A. A.; Kashpura, V. N.; Gorbach, V. A.; Tyurina, N. A.; Zubakha, S. V. *Glass Phys. Chem.* **2007**, *33*, 44–49.
- (31) Two cubic centimeters of a 10% (w/v) aqueous $(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24}$ solution and 1 cm^3 of hydrochloric acid (6 mol dm^{-3}) were added to 50 cm^3 of the reaction solution (entries 2 and 4–6 in Table 3). The solution was allowed to stand for 5 min at 293 K, and then the absorbance of the solution at 440 nm was measured on a spectrophotometer to estimate the amount of $[\text{SiMo}_{12}\text{O}_{40}]^{4-}$ in the solution.
- (32) Erdem, B.; Hunsicker, R. A.; Simmons, G. W.; Sudol, E. D.; Dimonie, V. L.; El-Aasser, M. S. *Langmuir* **2001**, *17*, 2664–2669.