



Photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO₂ under UV-irradiation

Dianbo Dong^{a,b}, Peijun Li^{a,*}, Xiaojun Li^a, Chengbin Xu^c, Dawei Gong^d,
Yinqiu Zhang^{a,b}, Qing Zhao^{a,b}, Peng Li^{b,e}

^a Institute of Applied Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wenhua Road No.72, Shenyang 110016, China

^b Graduate University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

^c School of Environmental Science, Liaoning University, Shenyang 110036, China

^d Liaoning Provincial Center of Disease Control and Prevention, Shenyang 110005, China

^e Fujian Institute of Research on the Structure of Matter, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Fuzhou 350002, China

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ABSTRACT

Photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO₂ was investigated. After being spiked with phenanthrene and pyrene, soil samples loaded with different dosages of nanometer rutile TiO₂ (0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 wt%) were exposed to UV-irradiation for 25 h. The results indicated that the photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene followed the pseudo-first-order kinetics. The catalyst dosage of 2 wt% was chosen as the optimal one for further studies. According to the half-life, the degradation rate of the phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces was related to their absorption spectra in soil and oxidation-half-wave-potential. In addition, the degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene increased along with increasing H₂O₂, light intensity and humic acids. All results indicated that the photocatalytic method in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO₂ was an advisable choice for the treatments of PAHs polluted soil in the future.

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1. Introduction

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), a class of POPs, are widely distributed in the environment. Many of them are toxic and carcinogenic [1–5], and 16 PAHs are listed by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) as priority pollutants [6,7]. These compounds may be produced by oil processing, accidental spilling, coal liquefaction and gasification, or organic oil seepage and surface run-off from forest/brush fires and natural geologic processes and are often found in contaminated soils [8,9]. In China, the backgrounds of PAHs in arable soils vary between 10 and 20 μg kg⁻¹, while the concentrations of PAHs have been found to be as high as 10²–10⁴ μg kg⁻¹ in some contaminated areas [10], which may pose great threats to the agricultural food quality, human health, and ecological security. Thus great attentions have been paid to the remediation of the contaminated soils [11].

Heterogeneous photocatalysis of organic pollutants using TiO₂ under UV-irradiation and/or solar light has been successfully demonstrated in various systems for remediation of polluted soil.

The addition of small amounts of TiO₂ enhanced the photodegradation of p,p'-DDT on soil surfaces significantly [12,13]. Photocatalytic treatment using TiO₂ combined with solar light was very efficient in the destruction of pesticide Diuron in the top 4 cm of contaminated soil [14]. The organic contaminants were destroyed in a relatively short time when the contaminated soil containing atrazine, 2-chlorophenol and 2,7-dichlorodibenzodioxin were mixed with TiO₂ and exposed to simulated solar radiation [15,16].

Photocatalytic degradation might be an efficient way to eliminate PAHs. It is extensively reported that PAHs can be photocatalytically degraded in pure solid phase such as silica, alumina, Fe₂O₃ [17–22] and liquid phase [23–25]. However, few studies investigated the photocatalytic degradation of PAHs on soil surfaces in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO₂.

In this paper, the result of the photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces with the addition of nanometer rutile TiO₂ under UV-irradiation was presented and the possibility of heterogeneous photocatalysis using nanometer rutile TiO₂ in remediation of phenanthrene and pyrene contaminated soils was discussed. The main influencing factors, such as H₂O₂, the light intensity and the humic acids (HA) were taken into consideration.

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86 24 83970367; fax: +86 24 83970368.
E-mail address: lipeijun@iae.ac.cn (P. Li).

Table 1
Physical properties of the experimental soil.

pH	TOC(%)	Texture (%)			Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)
		Sand	Silt	Clay	
6.8	1.78	21.4	46.5	32.1	2.53

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Reagents and materials

Phenanthrene and pyrene were purchased from Fluka (Germany). Methanol (HPLC grade) was purchased from Shandong Yuwang Company (China). Hexane and dichloromethane (Analytical grade) were purchased from Tianjin Concord Technical Company (China). NaN₃ was purchased from Zhejiang Hailan Chemical Co., Ltd. (China). Nanometer rutile TiO₂ (chemical purity) was obtained from the Hangzhou Wang Jing New Material Co., Ltd. (China). H₂O₂ (AR, 30% content) was purchased from Shenyang Chemistry Reagent Corporation (China). Humic acid was purchased from Tianjin Jinke Company (China).

Soil samples (0–10 cm) were collected from the Ecological Station of the Shenyang, Institute of Applied Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The soil samples were sterilized by soaking in NaN₃ solution for about 48 h and then dried in an oven at 105 °C. After drying, the soil samples were passed through a 1 mm sieve. The sieved soil samples were then stored in dark before use. The physical properties of the experimental soil samples were presented in Table 1. Mineral components of the experimental soil samples were analyzed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) and the results were listed in Table 2.

For the individual experiments, the soil samples were treated with methanol solution of phenanthrene and pyrene, mixed thoroughly and then air-dried to evaporate the methanol. The concentration of phenanthrene and pyrene in the resulting soil samples was 40 mg kg⁻¹, respectively.

2.2. Photodegradation experiments

Photodegradation experiments were conducted in a chamber with UV lamps fixed at the top and separated by 60 mm as shown in Fig. 1. The UV lamps (Phillips ATLD 20W, Model UVA) had a wavelength of 253.7 nm. In all experiments, three replicates of 5.00 g of soil samples were evenly spread on Petri dishes and randomly located in the photodegradation chamber under the UV lamps. Light proof Petri dishes also containing 5.00 g of uniformly spread soil samples were used as controls for the measurement of non-photolytic phenanthrene and pyrene loss for all experimental treatments. Petri dishes containing soil samples were placed on the shelves for UV-irradiation. The height of the lamps above the soil samples was 100 mm. Temperature within the chamber was held constant at 25 °C using a heater and fans throughout all experiments. Soil samples were taken at 5 h intervals from the Petri dishes exposed to UV-light irradiation.

Table 2
Main elements and components of the experimental soil.

Element	Concentration (mg kg ⁻¹)	Element	Concentration (mg kg ⁻¹)	Component	Concentration (%)
As	8.95	Ni	26.70	SiO ₂	68.22
Ba	676.65	Mn	577.70	Al ₂ O ₃	13.41
Ce	123.00	Pb	37.00	Fe ₂ O ₃	4.19
Zn	70.45	Rb	109.75	MgO	1.13
Co	11.70	Sr	189.75	CaO	1.16
Cr	67.65	Th	13.00	Na ₂ O	1.78
Cu	36.70	Ti	4,459.40	K ₂ O	2.43

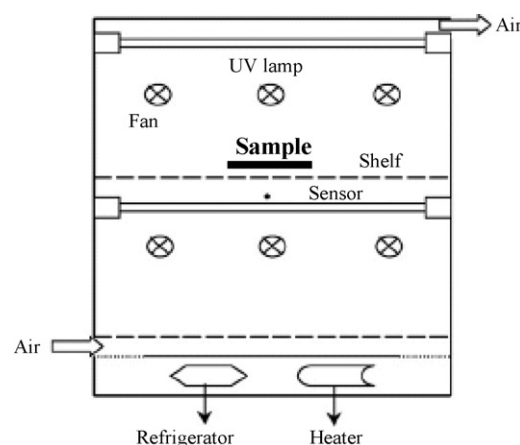


Fig. 1. Schematic experimental device for photocatalytic degradation of pyrene on soil surfaces.

Obtained soil samples were spiked with nanometer rutile TiO₂ powder in a similar way as the method described by Higarashi and Jardim [14]. The catalyst load was made by adding desired dosage of TiO₂ to the phenanthrene and pyrene spiked soil.

Effect of H₂O₂ on the photocatalytic degradation was investigated by loading the desired dosage of H₂O₂ to the soil samples in the presence of 2 wt% TiO₂.

The different number of UV lamps was adjusted accordingly to change the light intensity. Three different levels of light intensity were obtained corresponding to three different number of UV lamps, respectively.

Effect of HA on the degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene was also examined. Ten grams of HA was dissolved in 0.1 M NaOH solution, diluted with 1000 ml distilled water as storage solution. Different dosages of HA stock solution were added to contaminated soil samples to give concentrations of HA of 0, 10, 20, 30 and 40 mg kg⁻¹. After being air-dried, the soil samples were mixed with 2 wt% TiO₂.

2.3. PAHs extraction procedure

Concentrations of PAHs in the irradiated and non-irradiated soil samples were obtained by the following method: the soil samples were transferred into 100 ml Teflon tubes and mixed 20 ml dichloromethane. Each sample was extracted for 2 h in an ultrasonic bath in which the water temperature was lower than 35 °C. The mixtures were then centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 5 min to separate the supernatant from the soil samples. An aliquot of 0.5 ml of extraction was passed through a glass column containing 0.9 g of silica gel wetted with hexane. The extraction was eluted with 1 ml hexane:dichloromethane (1:1, v/v) four times. The eluate was completely dried under a gentle stream of nitrogen. The solid residue was re-dissolved in 1 ml of methanol for HPLC analysis.

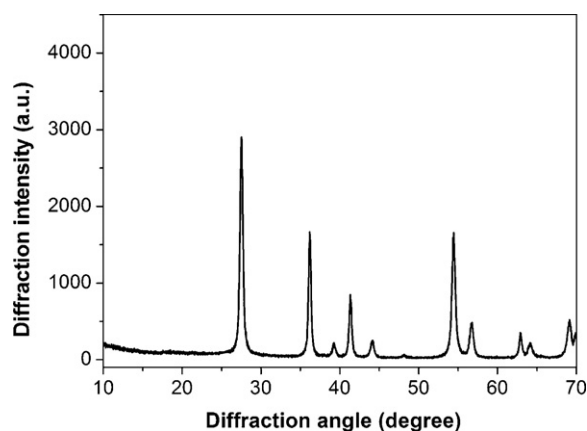


Fig. 2. X-ray diffractometer (XRD) pattern of nanometer rutile TiO₂ after calcination.

2.4. Analytical methods

Quantification of PAHs in methanol solutions was conducted using an Agilent model 1200 HPLC with a variable wavelength detector set at 254 nm (Agilent Technologies, USA). The mobile phase used was methanol:water (90:10, v/v) at a flow rate of 0.7 ml min⁻¹. Injection volume was 10 μl. Three replicates were performed for analysis.

The crystalline of TiO₂ was determined by X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku, RINT2200, Japan). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) which was operated using JEM 2010 electron microscope (JEOL company, Japan) at 200 kV.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of nanometer rutile TiO₂ particles after calcination

It is well known that there are three naturally occurring phases of titania: rutile, anatase and brookite. The photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ is related to their crystalline phase. In order to characterize the nanometer TiO₂ which was calcined at 450 °C, the crystalline phase of TiO₂ was determined by X-ray diffractometry (XRD), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to determine the size of the TiO₂ particles. Fig. 2 shows the XRD patterns over a scan range from 10° to 70° for a calcined sample. The XRD data for the sample matched the standard rutile pattern (peaks at 27.8). There were no diffraction peaks at 25° or 31°, indicating that samples were free of anatase and brookite TiO₂ [27,28]. Fig. 3 shows the TEM for a sample which indicates a crystal size of the sample of about 15–25 nm.

3.2. Effect of TiO₂ dosage

The dosage of catalyst is an important parameter in photocatalytic degradation processes. To determine the optimal dosage of photocatalyst, various dosages of TiO₂ (0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 wt%) were used to investigate the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ toward degrading the phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces. Experimental results indicated that photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene fitted the pseudo-first-order kinetics.

The pseudo-first-order kinetics form is:

$$-\ln \frac{C_t}{C_0} = kt \quad (1)$$

where C₀ and C_t are the phenanthrene and pyrene concentrations at time zero and t, respectively, and k is the rate constant.

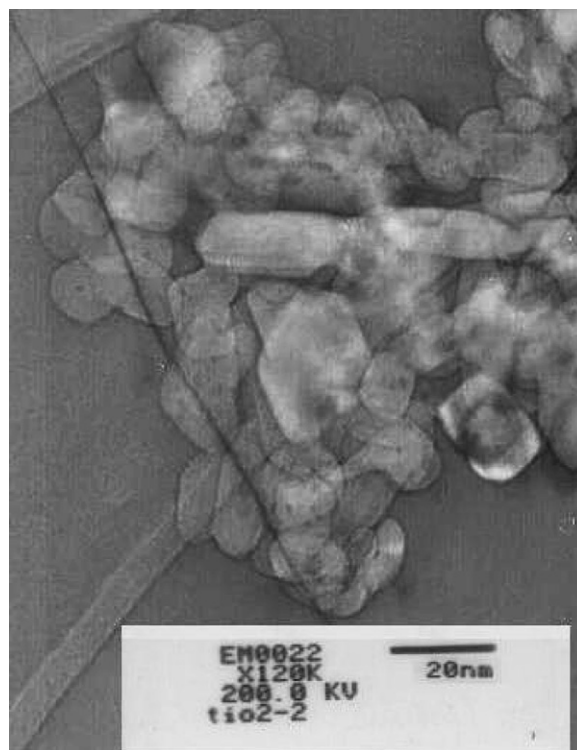


Fig. 3. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of nanometer rutile TiO₂ after calcination.

Half-life $t_{1/2}$ was calculated using Eq. (2) which was derived from Eq. (1) by replacing C_t with C₀/2:

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k} = \frac{0.6931}{k} \quad (2)$$

The pseudo-first-order rate constant (k) in the presence of 0, 1%, 2%, 3% and 4% TiO₂ in soil were listed in Table 3.

It was found that the rate constants of phenanthrene and pyrene in the absence of nanometer rutile TiO₂ were 0.0131 and 0.0151 h⁻¹, respectively. When nanometer rutile TiO₂ dosage increases from 1% to 2%, the rate constants of phenanthrene and pyrene increase from 0.0137 and 0.0162 h⁻¹ to 0.0147 and 0.0175 h⁻¹, respectively; however, further increase in TiO₂ dosage results in a slight decrease in the rate constants of phenanthrene and pyrene to 0.0139 and 0.0163 h⁻¹, respectively. This indicates that nanometer rutile TiO₂ is capable of promoting the degradation of PAHs on soil surfaces.

Many studies have demonstrated that the rates of photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants on soil surfaces are strongly affected by the dosage of the TiO₂ used [31]. Adequate

Table 3

Kinetic parameters for the photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces at different TiO₂ dosages.

Compound	Catalyst dosage (wt%)	k (h ⁻¹) ± S.D.	t _{1/2} (h)
Phenanthrene	0	0.0131 ± 0.00014	52.90
	1	0.0137 ± 0.00007	50.59
	2	0.0147 ± 0.00035	47.15
	3	0.0142 ± 0.00021	48.81
	4	0.0139 ± 0.00017	49.86
Pyrene	0	0.0151 ± 0.00007	45.90
	1	0.0162 ± 0.00035	42.78
	2	0.0175 ± 0.00014	39.61
	3	0.017 ± 0.00021	40.77
	4	0.0163 ± 0.00007	42.52

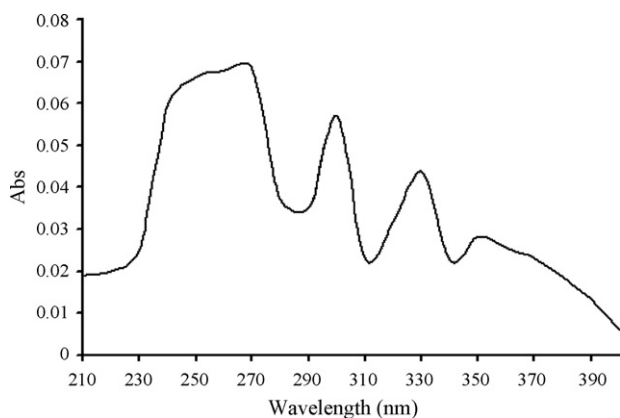


Fig. 4. The molar absorption spectrum of phenanthrene on soil surfaces.

dosage of nanometer rutile TiO_2 increases the generation rate of electron–hole pairs; thus, the formation of superoxide radical anion ($\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$) for enhancing the photodegradation. However, an excess dosage of nanometer rutile TiO_2 decreases the light penetration via increasing the depth of soil and hence reduces photocatalytic rate. On the basis of the experiments discussed above, a catalyst dosage of 2% was chosen as the optimal one for further studies.

It is well established that the photodegradation of organic pollution on soil surfaces includes direct photolysis and photocatalytic oxidation [12]. As shown in Table 3, the results indicate that the photodegradation of pyrene is higher than phenanthrene. There are two reasons contributing to results: firstly, according to photochemical theory, the direct photolysis of phenanthrene and pyrene is highly dependent on their molar absorption spectra on soil surfaces, Xia et al. has reported the similar result in the liquid phase [26]. It can be seen in Figs. 4 and 5, that the phenanthrene absorption peaks have a fewer number than that of pyrene in the range of 253.7–400 nm. Hence, the more absorption peaks the pyrene molecules have, the more easily the pyrene molecules degrade. Secondly, the “oxidation-half-wave-potential” ($E_{1/2}$) illustrates the difficulty of photocatalytic oxidation of the PAHs. The lower $E_{1/2}$ is, the more easily PAHs can be oxidized. The oxidation-half-wave-potentials are 1.50 and 1.54 for phenanthrene and pyrene, respectively [29]. The obvious difference of $E_{1/2}$ does not exist between phenanthrene and pyrene. Therefore, the photocatalytic degradation of pyrene is slightly faster than that of phenanthrene on soil surfaces in the presence of the nanometer rutile TiO_2 according to their absorption spectra in soil and oxidation-half-wave-potential (Table 3).

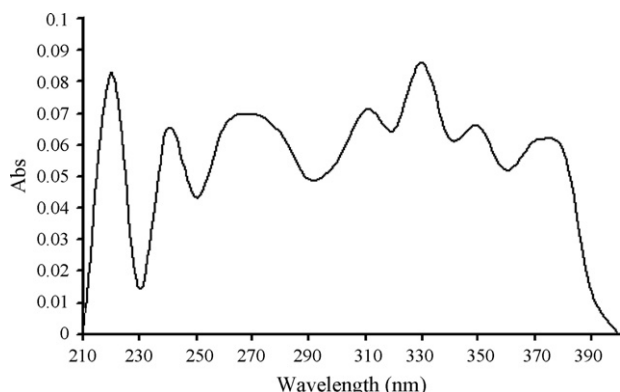


Fig. 5. The molar absorption spectrum of pyrene on soil surfaces.

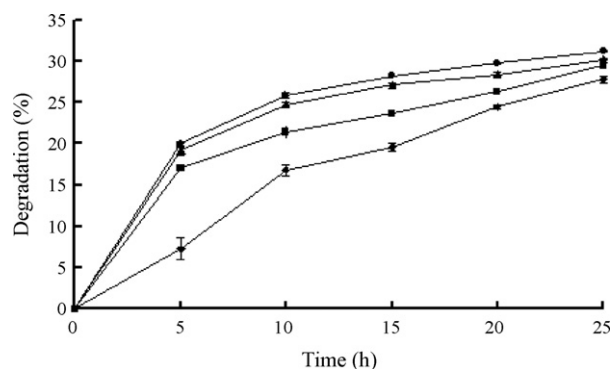


Fig. 6. Effect of H_2O_2 on phenanthrene degradation: (◆) 0%, (■) 10%, (▲) 20%, and (●) 30%.

3.3. Effect of H_2O_2

Hydrogen peroxide has been shown to accelerate the degradation of organic pollution, depending on its concentration and the nature of reductants [30]. The effect of H_2O_2 in the range of 0–30% (w/w) on the degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene was examined over 25 h. The results are shown in Figs. 6 and 7. The addition of H_2O_2 from 0% to 30% (w/w) leads to an increase in degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene from $27.54 \pm 0.35\%$ and $33.59 \pm 0.64\%$ to $32.49 \pm 0.02\%$ and $38.70 \pm 0.05\%$, respectively. The da Rocha et al. [32] had reported that the degradations of phenanthrene were 36.43% for white light and 38.88% for black light and the degradations of pyrene were 52.17% for white light and 29.67% for black light in the presence of H_2O_2 . Some factors such as the main components of experimental samples, the sample depths, the size of sample particle, the temperature within the chamber and the crystalline of TiO_2 , etc. can influence the effect of photocatalytic degradation of PAHs. Hence, the photocatalytic degradation of PAHs in this research is different from that of Rocha et al.’s research. It is evident that the degradation of PAHs on soil surfaces increases with increasing H_2O_2 concentration. The observed enhancement by H_2O_2 of phenanthrene and pyrene degradation was due to both the increase of soil moisture and the oxidative effect of hydroxyl radicals formed from the H_2O_2 .

The photodegradation of phenanthrene and pyrene could increase with increasing soil moisture. Hilarides et al. [33], Shelton and Parkin [34], Frank et al. [35] and Graebing et al. [36] have reported that the photodegradation of organic pollution could increase with increasing soil moisture. There are two probable reasons contributing to this. Firstly, the superoxide radical anion ($\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$) and hole can react with water (H_2O) to produce hydroxyl radicals (OH^{\bullet}) which can enhance the degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces. Secondly, there is a direct radiation

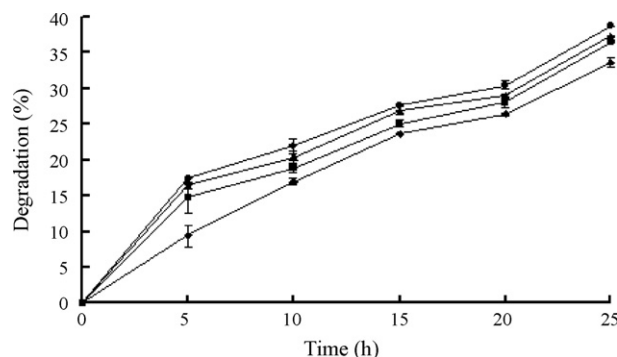


Fig. 7. Effect of H_2O_2 on pyrene degradation: (◆) 0%, (■) 10%, (▲) 20%, and (●) 30%.

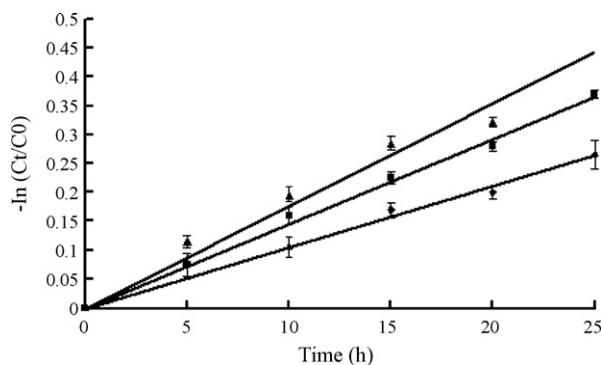
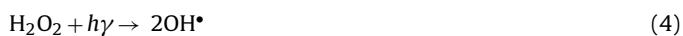


Fig. 8. Degradation kinetics of phenanthrene on soil surfaces under different light intensities: (◆) 119 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$, (■) 238 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$, and (▲) 357 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$.

effect; water greatly increases the amount of radiation absorbed in the soil.

H_2O_2 could also increase the formation rate of hydroxyl radicals in two ways. Firstly, H_2O_2 could enhance the degradation by providing additional hydroxyl radicals through trapping of photogenerated electrons shown in Eq. (3) [37]. Secondly, the self-decomposition by illumination would also produce hydroxyl radicals shown in Eq. (4) [37,38].



3.4. Effect of light intensity

UV light intensity is an important factor in the process of photocatalytic degradation. The effect of the UV light intensity (119–357 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$) on the degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces was studied in the presence of TiO_2 . It is found that all the reactions still follow the first-order kinetics (Figs. 8 and 9). The degradation rate constants with a light intensity of 119, 238 and 357 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$ are 0.0106 ($R^2=0.9827$), 0.0147 ($R^2=0.9955$) and 0.0177 ($R^2=0.9639$) h^{-1} for phenanthrene and 0.0126 ($R^2=0.9827$), 0.0175 ($R^2=0.9834$) and 0.0192 ($R^2=0.9745$) h^{-1} for pyrene, respectively.

Apparently, UV light intensity has a positive effect on the rate of PAHs photodegradation. This phenomenon may be explained as following: under the higher light intensity, the enhancement was considerably higher because that the electron–hole formation is predominant and, hence, electron–hole recombination is negligible; however, at lower light intensity, electron–hole pair separation competes with recombination which in turn decreases the formation of free radicals, thereby, causing less effect on the degradation of the phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces [39].

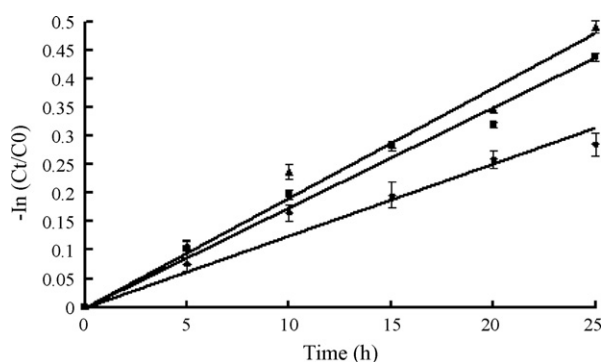


Fig. 9. Degradation kinetics of pyrene on soil surfaces under different light intensities: (◆) 119 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$, (■) 238 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$, and (▲) 357 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$.

Table 4

Effect of humic acid on photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces with 2% TiO_2 .

Compound	Humic acid (mg kg^{-1})	k (h^{-1}) \pm S.D.	$t_{1/2}$ (h)
Phenanthrene	0	0.0147 ± 0.00035	47.15
	10	0.0154 ± 0.00023	45.01
	20	0.0165 ± 0.00046	42.01
	30	0.017 ± 0.00037	40.77
	40	0.0173 ± 0.00009	40.06
Pyrene	0	0.0175 ± 0.00014	39.61
	10	0.0186 ± 0.00031	37.26
	20	0.019 ± 0.00024	36.48
	30	0.0192 ± 0.00025	36.10
	40	0.0195 ± 0.0008	35.54

3.5. Effect of humic acids

Humic acids are complex organic molecules produced by the decomposition of plant and animals remained in soil, they can either enhance [40–44] or inhibit photolysis [45,46]. The effect of humic acids on the photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene was studied when the concentration increased from 0 to 40 mg kg^{-1} . The pseudo-first-order rate constants were 0.0147, 0.0154, 0.0165, 0.017 and 0.0173 h^{-1} for phenanthrene and 0.0175, 0.0186, 0.019, 0.0192 and 0.0195 h^{-1} for pyrene, respectively, as listed in Table 4.

It can be seen from Table 4, humic acids have accelerating effects on the photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene in the presence of TiO_2 . Humic acids can enhance the degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene in two ways. Firstly, Zepp and Schlotzhauer [47] have found that the photosensitized reactions can be sensitized by humic substances (HS) only when the pollutants with triplet state energies are less than 250 kJ mol^{-1} . Phenanthrene and pyrene with triplet state energies are less than 250 kJ mol^{-1} [48], the absorption of light by HA can lead to rapid photosensitized reactions of phenanthrene and pyrene via energy transfer from molecules in its triplet state. Secondly, ultraviolet irradiation also induces a variety of photochemical changes in HA and leads to production of reactive oxygen species (e.g., singlet oxygen, free radicals) [49,50]. These reactive oxygen species could oxidize the phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces.

4. Conclusions

The photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO_2 under UV-light irradiation followed pseudo-first-order kinetics. Photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene were enhanced by TiO_2 dosage from 0 to 4 wt%. A catalyst dosage of 2% was chosen as the optimal one. The degradation rate of the phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces was related to their absorption spectra in soil and oxidation-half-wave-potential. The increases of the addition of H_2O_2 , the concentration of HA and irradiation intensity sped up the photocatalytic degradation of phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO_2 .

The obtained results demonstrate that the phenanthrene and pyrene on soil surfaces can be decomposed by the method of photocatalytic degradation in the presence of nanometer rutile TiO_2 . Meanwhile, some important parameters (such as catalyst dosage, the addition of H_2O_2 , the concentration of HA and light intensity, etc.) needed to be monitored in order to control the degradation.

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