



Favorable recycling photocatalyst TiO₂/CFA: Effects of loading method on the structural property and photocatalytic activity

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ABSTRACT

In order to more easily separate TiO₂ photocatalyst from the treated wastewater, TiO₂ was immobilized on the surface of coal fly ash by employing three kinds of approaches, sol–gel procedure, ambient hydrolysis procedure and hybrid slurry procedure. The effects of loading method on the structural property of TiO₂-coated coal fly ash (TiO₂/CFA), such as morphology, crystal structure, porous property and ultraviolet-visible absorption were investigated, and the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/CFA was evaluated by the photocatalytic depigmentation and mineralization of methyl orange solution. The results show that TiO₂/CFA particles are easy to precipitate and recover from water. The hybrid slurry procedure is a more proper method to immobilize TiO₂ on coal fly ash than the other two procedures because the TiO₂/CFA sample prepared by hybrid slurry procedure exhibits higher photocatalytic activity and better repeatability.

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1. Introduction

The environmental pollution is increasing in recent decades due to rapid industrialization and population growth throughout the world [1,2]. Water quality is continuously deteriorating due to addition of toxic as well as colored effluents from textile, paper, carpet, leather, distillery and printing industries, pharmaceutical plants [2–6]. Many technologies, including physical, chemical, and biological methods, have been developed to deal with environment pollution [7–10]. Among them, the photocatalytic oxidation process using heterogeneous photocatalysis is regarded as a promising technology to decompose harmful pollutants to final non-toxic products [11–13]. Titanium dioxide in anatase form has attracted much interest of many researchers because of its high stability, nontoxicity and inexpensiveness [14–16]. In the past decade, the TiO₂-photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants under UV irradiation has proven to be a very effective process, which could accelerate the complete mineralization of organic pollutants [17–20]. However, one of the main problems limited the practical applications of TiO₂ to water treatment so far is that the suspended TiO₂ particles are very difficult to separate and recover from water because of their small particle size [21–23].

This problem can be solved, in part, if TiO₂ is immobilized on some substrates without the loss of activity [24–28]. Silica, zeolite, alumina, activated carbon, and activated carbon fibers have

been used as substrates by some researchers for TiO₂ immobilization in the removal of the pollutants from water [8,29–32]. Among them, activated carbon is most commonly used as substrate for TiO₂ immobilization due to its porous structure and adsorption property [33,34]. But activated carbon is a costly material, which will increase the cost of water treatment.

Coal fly ash (CFA) is one of the solid wastes largely produced from power generation. It is well known that CFA is a valuable and desirable additive to cement concrete because of its spherical shape and pozzolanic properties [35,36]. Currently, its applications are only limited to civil engineering including cement and brick production and as a filling in road work [37]. The rate of increase in demand in these applications is far less than the rate of increase in production. There are growing concerns about CFA disposal problems. Therefore, research is needed to develop new alternative environmental friendly applications that can further exploit CFA.

Immobilizing TiO₂ on the surface of CFA, and then using the prepared material as photocatalyst for the treatment of organic compounds in water, may be a good attempt to solve these problems described above. CFA particles are easy to precipitate in water because of their larger particle size and heavier weight comparing with nanometer TiO₂ particles, so the separateness and recovery of catalyst from water will be realized when TiO₂ is immobilized on CFA. At the same time, a new application of CFA will be developed. However, the investigations immobilizing TiO₂ on the surface of CFA have seldom been reported. To the best of our knowledge, only two reports mentioning the immobilization of TiO₂ on CFA can be found in the literature [38,39]. Yu [38] immobilized TiO₂ on CFA by a precipitation method using TiCl₄ and NH₄HCO₃ as the reaction

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reagent, and studied the photocatalytic property of the prepared material by the removal test of NO gas, but the recycling property of TiO₂/CFA had not been investigated. Shin et al. [39] also prepared TiO₂-coated CFA by the same method (precipitation method), and they researched the influences of pH of the solution, the addition rate of NH₄HCO₃ and the stirring speed of magnetic stirrer on the photocatalytic property of TiO₂/CFA by the decomposition of acetic acid. However, the recycling property of TiO₂/CFA had not been researched, either.

Although TiO₂ have been immobilized on the surface of CFA successfully by Yu [38] and Shin et al. [39] in previous work, several questions remain unclear: (1) is the precipitation method necessary, or is it possible to immobilize TiO₂ on CFA by a more simple method? (2) Is the photocatalyst TiO₂/CFA easy to separate from the treated wastewater? (3) What is the recycling property of TiO₂/CFA? The objective of the current work is not only to clarify these important issues, but also to explore the effects of loading method on the structural property and photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/CFA. We immobilized TiO₂ on the surface of CFA by using three methods, sol–gel procedure, ambient hydrolysis procedure and hybrid slurry procedure, respectively. Sol–gel is a versatile technique of metal oxides preparation and has been used widely to load TiO₂ on some substrates [40–42], but we have not found that sol–gel procedure was utilized to load TiO₂ on CFA. Moreover, as far as we know that the ambient hydrolysis procedure and hybrid slurry procedure have not been reported in previous articles. In addition, we investigated in detail the effects of loading method on the structural property of TiO₂/CFA, such as morphology, crystal structure, porous property and ultraviolet–visible absorption. At the same time, the photocatalytic activity and the recycling property of TiO₂/CFA were evaluated by the photocatalytic depigmentation and mineralization of methyl orange (MO) solution.

2. Experimental procedures

2.1. Materials

All the reagents used in this work were of analytical grade and were used without any further purification: methyl orange was purchased from the SSS Reagent Company, Ltd., Shanghai, China. All the other reagents, such as tetrabutyl titanate, acetic acid and absolute ethanol were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Company, Ltd., China. Deionized water was used to prepare the solutions in our experiments. Titanium dioxide P25 was purchased from Degussa Corporation (76 wt% anatase and 24 wt% rutile, 99.8% purity). The CFA was obtained from thermal power plant of Songyu, Xiamen, China. Before using as substrate in our experiments, the CFA was calcined at 600 °C for 2 h in an air atmosphere (The obtaining CFA was mainly composed of quartz and mullite).

2.2. Preparation of TiO₂-coated coal fly ash

2.2.1. Sol–gel procedure

Before TiO₂ was loaded on CFA, TiO₂ sol had been prepared by sol–gel route as follows: tetrabutyl titanate (TEBT, 17.02 ml) and ethanol (30 ml) were mixed in a conical flask. A solution of ethanol (28.32 ml), deionized water (7.2 ml) and acetic acid (20 ml) was slowly added to the above mixture under agitation for 1 h at ambient temperature. The mixture was aged for 6 h at room temperature, and the transparent sol was obtained. Then, 10 g CFA was added into the above TiO₂ sol under vigorous stirring for 3 d. The final product was dried at 80 °C in an oven, finally, calcined at 600 °C for 2 h in air atmosphere. For convenience, the sample prepared by this procedure was labeled as TiO₂/CFA-1.

2.2.2. Ambient hydrolysis procedure

10 g CFA was added into a conical flask containing 17.02 ml TEBT under vigorous stirring. After agitating for 1 h, the mixture was poured on a flat and dry salver. The TEBT enwrapped on CFA was slowly hydrolyzed by adsorbing the vapor in ambient air. After finishing the hydrolysis reaction, the product was collected and calcined at 600 °C for 2 h in air atmosphere. For convenience, the sample prepared by this procedure was labeled as TiO₂/CFA-2.

2.2.3. Hybrid slurry procedure

10 g CFA was added into a conical flask containing 17.02 ml TEBT under vigorous stirring. After stirring for 1 h, 3.6 ml deionized water was added drop by drop into the mixture under agitation, then, hybrid slurry was obtained. The hybrid slurry was dried at 80 °C in an oven, finally, calcined at 600 °C for 2 h in air atmosphere. For convenience, the sample prepared by this procedure was labeled as TiO₂/CFA-3. In addition, a sample labeled as TiO₂/CFA-4 was prepared by the same method as TiO₂/CFA-3 except that 10 g CFA was changed into 5 g, which implied that TiO₂/CFA-4 was coated with a double amount of TiO₂ as compared to other TiO₂/CFA samples. (The theoretical TiO₂ contents of TiO₂/CFA-1, TiO₂/CFA-2 and TiO₂/CFA-3 anchored on 10 g CFA are 3.995 g, but for TiO₂/CFA-4, it is 3.995 g TiO₂ immobilized on 5 g CFA).

2.3. Preparation of TiO₂-uncoated coal fly ash

TiO₂-uncoated coal fly ash was also prepared for comparison. The TiO₂ sol prepared by sol–gel route was aged for 6 h at 60 °C, and then was dried at 80 °C in an oven. After that, it was milled to powder by a ceramic mortar. Then, the powder sample was calcined at 600 °C for 2 h in air atmosphere. We sign the sample prepared by this procedure as Ti600 in current work.

2.4. Characterizations

The morphologies of samples were observed by scanning electron microscope (SEM, JEM-7500, Japan). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of all samples were obtained at room temperature with a diffractometer (X'pert PROMPD, Holand) with copper K_{α1} radiation. The nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms, pore size distributions and specific surface areas were measured at 77 K using a micromeritics (Tristar 3000, America). Ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) absorption spectroscopies of all samples were recorded by a Shimadzu spectrophotometer (UV-2450, Japan) equipped with an integrating sphere. The baseline correction was done using a calibrated sample of barium sulfate.

2.5. Photo reactor system and experimental procedures

The process of photo reaction was carried out in a photo reaction system. A 500-W medium-pressure mercury lamp with major emission at 365 nm, positioned in the center of a water-cooled quartz jacket, was used to offer ultraviolet irradiation. At the side of quartz jacket, a 50-ml cylindrical glass vessel was used as the reactive bottle to load reaction solution. The distance between mercury lamp and reactive bottle is 40 mm. In the bottom of the reactive bottle, a magnetic stirrer was equipped to achieve effective dispersion. Air was bubbled through the reaction solution from the bottom of the reactive bottle to ensure a constant dissolved oxygen concentration. The temperature of the reaction solution was maintained at 30 ± 0.5 °C by water-cooling. The initial concentration of MO was 20 mg l⁻¹ and the initial volume of MO was 50 ml. At the given time intervals, 2 ml of samples were taken from the suspension and immediately centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 30 min to eliminate the solid particles. The filtrate was stored in the dark for needed analysis.

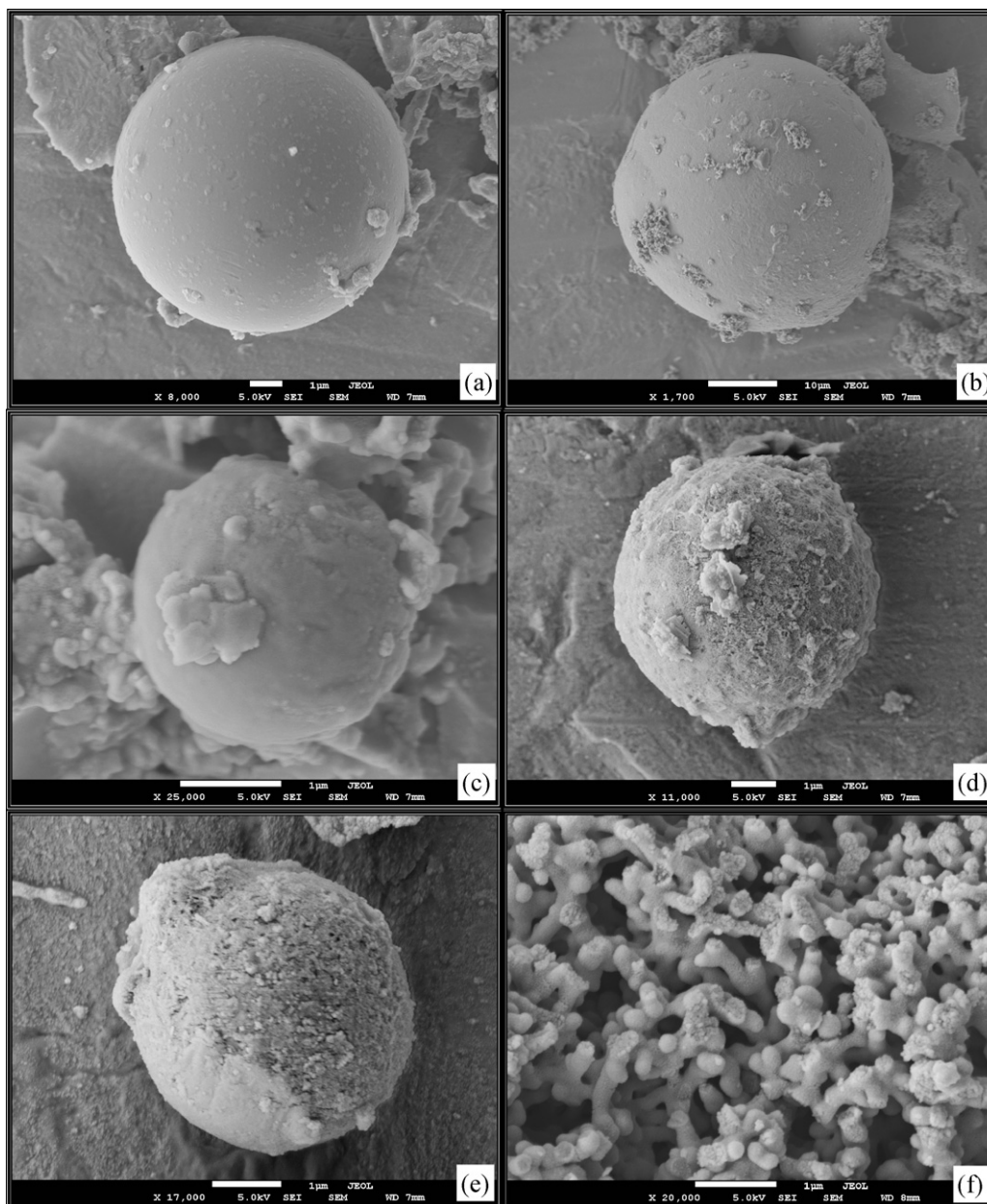


Fig. 1. SEM images of CFA and TiO_2/CFA samples: (a) CFA; (b) TiO_2/CFA -1; (c) TiO_2/CFA -2; (d) TiO_2/CFA -3; (e) and (f) TiO_2/CFA -4.

2.6. Reuse of the photocatalyst

Recycle experiment on photocatalytic decomposing of MO by TiO_2/CFA was designed to examine the recycling property of TiO_2/CFA . After finishing a cycle, the catalyst particles were precipitated in a quiescent condition for 60 min. Then the clear solution was removed from the reactive bottle and 50 ml fresh MO solution (initial concentration is 20 mg l^{-1}) was injected into the reactive bottle, and then the next cycle began. Each cycle lasted 40 min under ultraviolet irradiation. The recycle experiment was carried out for six cycles.

2.7. Analytic method

To measure MO concentration, a spectrophotometer (Spectra-Max M5) was used to determine the absorbance of MO at the wavelength of 465 nm. The total organic carbon (TOC) concentra-

tion was determined using a Total Organic Analyzer instrument (Shimadzu TOC-V CPH, Japan).

3. Experimental results and discussion

3.1. Morphology of samples

The SEM images of CFA and TiO_2 -coated CFA are illustrated in Fig. 1. It can be observed from Fig. 1a that CFA is composed of smooth sphere and agglomerates, which are result from the cooling of molten products of the combustion of clay compounds in the original coal [43]. From Fig. 1b, it can be found that only a small part of TiO_2 is anchored on the surface of sphere, most of TiO_2 are congregated into many agglomerates and dispersed away from CFA sphere, which indicates that it is difficult to load TiO_2 on the surface of CFA by sol-gel procedure. Fig. 1c shows that the CFA sphere is totally covered by TiO_2 film, and the surface of TiO_2 film is very

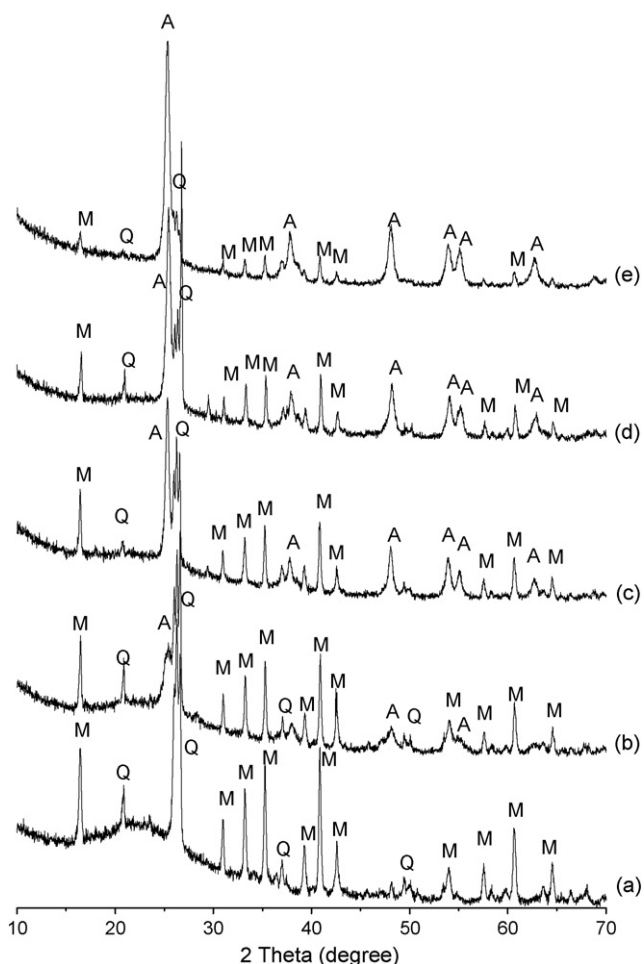


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of CFA and TiO₂/CFA samples (M: mullite; Q: quartz; A: anatase): (a) CFA; (b) TiO₂/CFA-1; (c) TiO₂/CFA-2; (d) TiO₂/CFA-3; (e) TiO₂/CFA-4 (M: mullite; Q: quartz; A: anatase).

smooth, which may be attributed to two facts that CFA is easy to be enwrapped by TEBT because of the glutinous property of TEBT, and the hydrolyzation of TEBT may be more uniform by adsorbing the vapor in ambient air. Fig. 1d shows that TiO₂ is loaded on CFA by the hybrid slurry procedure, but the surface of TiO₂ layer is very rough, which is unlike the sample prepared by the ambient hydrolysis procedure. The coating layer of TiO₂ loaded on CFA shown in Fig. 1e is very similar with that shown in Fig. 1d, which is due to the fact that the two samples were prepared by the same procedure. However, it is interesting that a three-dimensional (3D) network structure appears in the TiO₂/CFA-4 sample shown in Fig. 1f, and it can be observed from the image that the 3D network structure is formed by the interlocking together of many club-shaped materials.

3.2. Crystal structure of samples

XRD patterns of CFA and TiO₂/CFA are illustrated in Fig. 2. The XRD pattern of CFA shows that CFA sample contains quartz and mullite in large amount [44]. It can be observed that TiO₂ anchored on CFA all present anatase structure. Comparing with CFA, the intensity of diffraction peaks correlated with quartz and mullite becomes weak in TiO₂/CFA samples, which implies that TiO₂ have been loaded on the surface of CFA. The peak appeared at $2\theta = 25.4$ is the 101 plane of anatase TiO₂ [38], which is stronger in TiO₂/CFA-4 sample than that in other TiO₂/CFA samples. The peak appeared at $2\theta = 26.08$ is the diffraction peak of quartz [44], which becomes very weak in TiO₂/CFA-4 sample. The reason may attribute to the

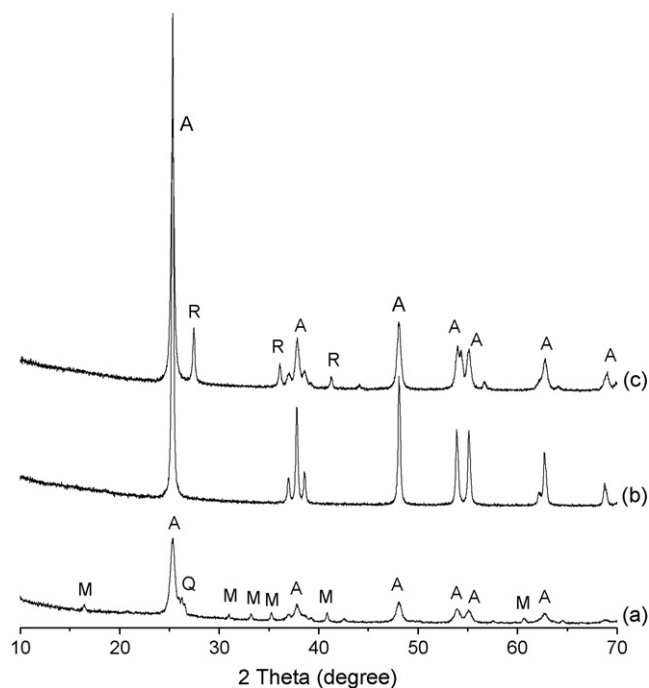


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of TiO₂/CFA-4 (a), Ti600 (b) and P25 (c); (M: mullite; Q: quartz; A: anatase; R: rutile).

fact that more anatase TiO₂ was immobilized on the surface of CFA in TiO₂/CFA-4 sample.

Fig. 3 depicts the XRD patterns of TiO₂/CFA-4, Ti600 and P25 for comparison. It can be seen that TiO₂ existed in TiO₂/CFA-4 and Ti600 samples both present anatase phase, but some rutile structures appear in P25. Comparing with Ti600 sample, the diffraction peaks of anatase phase of TiO₂/CFA-4 sample become broader in width and weaker in intensity, which implies that CFA can inhibit the growth of nanocrystallite size of TiO₂. The result is also confirmed by the crystalline size of TiO₂ estimated from the (101) peak in the XRD pattern by applying the Scherrer formula [45,46] (The crystalline size of TiO₂ in Ti600, TiO₂/CFA-1, TiO₂/CFA-2, TiO₂/CFA-3, and TiO₂/CFA-4 is 51.9, 39.5, 47.4, 26.4 and 47.6 nm, respectively).

3.3. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherm and porous property of samples

Fig. 4 shows the nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of CFA and TiO₂/CFA samples. CFA and TiO₂/CFA-2 show an isotherm of type II (according to Brunauer's classification) and no hysteresis, referring to non-porous material [47]. While in case of TiO₂/CFA-1, TiO₂/CFA-3 and TiO₂/CFA-4, there is a hysteresis and almost matches a type IV isotherm, which is characteristic of mesoporous materials [48]. Moreover, it can be seen that all TiO₂/CFA samples have higher adsorption capacity than CFA, which increases in the order CFA < TiO₂/CFA-1 < TiO₂/CFA-2 < TiO₂/CFA-3 < TiO₂/CFA-4. The highest adsorption capacity of TiO₂/CFA-4 may be attributed to the rough surface of TiO₂ layer covered on ACF and the pores formed by the 3D network structure.

The pore size distributions of CFA and TiO₂/CFA samples are expressed in Fig. 5. The pore size distributions of TiO₂/CFA-3 and TiO₂/CFA-4 are very similar and have a sharp maximum at about 3.4 nm because of the same preparation procedure. Comparing with other samples, it can be concluded that many pores have been formed in the two samples, which indicate that the hybrid slurry procedure is a good method to synthesize TiO₂/CFA material with large specific surface area. The specific surface area of

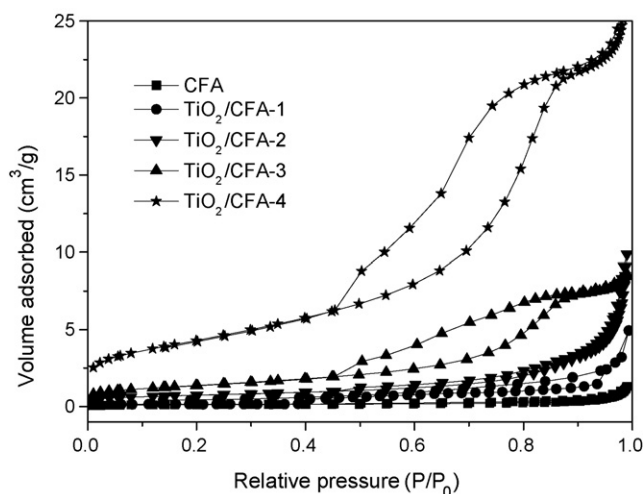


Fig. 4. Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of CFA and TiO₂/CFA samples.

CFA, TiO₂/CFA-1, TiO₂/CFA-2, TiO₂/CFA-3, and TiO₂/CFA-4 is 0.4, 0.6, 2.5, 4.9 and 15.5 m² g⁻¹, respectively, which is consistent with the adsorption capacity of samples deduced from Fig. 4.

3.4. UV-vis absorption spectroscopy of samples

Fig. 6 presents the UV-vis absorption spectroscopy of TiO₂/CFA samples, and CFA, Ti600 and P25 are also measured for comparison. It can be seen that CFA, with the color of gray, exhibits strong absorption in whole range of wavelength employed. All of the spectrums (except for CFA) clearly show the characteristic absorption edge of semiconductor TiO₂. Comparing with Ti600 and P25, the absorbances of TiO₂/CFA samples increase at the region of visible light starting at around 400 nm, and the absorption profiles of TiO₂/CFA samples shift to a longer wavelength region because of the impact of CFA.

3.5. Photocatalytic activity of samples

The photocatalytic activity of samples was measured by the depigmentation ratio of MO solution without concerning the degradation intermediates in detail, that is:

$$\eta_D(\%) = \frac{100(C_0 - C_t)}{C_0}(\%)$$

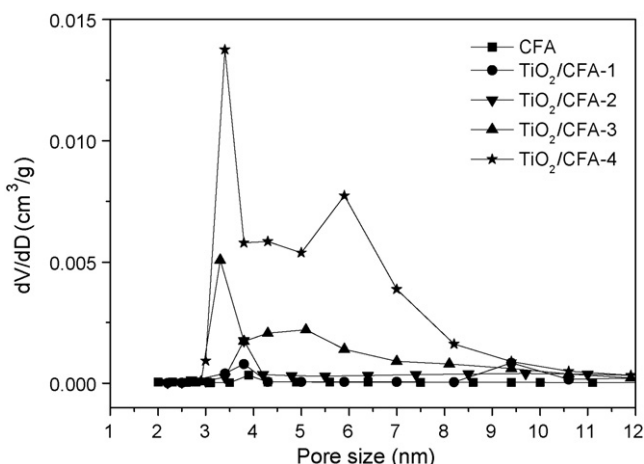


Fig. 5. Pore size distributions of CFA and TiO₂/CFA samples.

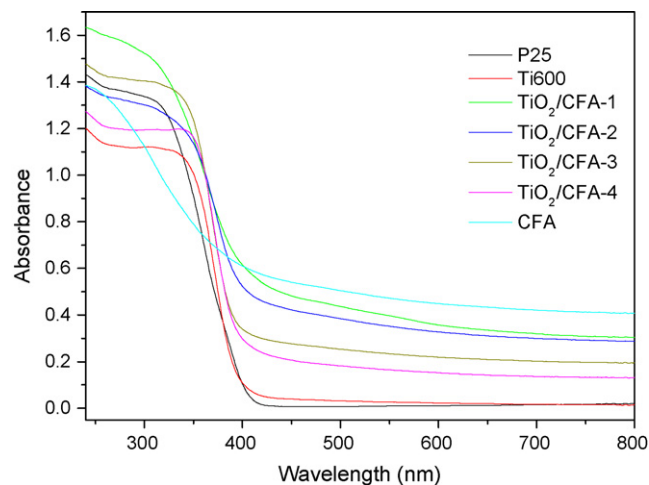


Fig. 6. UV-vis absorption spectroscopy of samples.

Where, η_D is the depigmentation ratio of MO solution, C_0 and C_t are the concentration of MO solution at the initial time and t time, respectively. For comparison, the photocatalytic activity of Ti600 and P25 was also tested. The added amount of sample is 0.3 g for CFA and TiO₂-coated CFA samples, and 0.1 g for Ti600 and P25, respectively, which are the optimal added amount for the two kinds of samples in our experimental condition. The depigmentation ratio of MO solution versus photocatalytic time under mercury lamp irradiation is shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen from blank test (no added powder) that MO molecules are very difficult to be decomposed under UV irradiation only. The depigmentation ratio of CFA is lowest among all samples because CFA has not photocatalytic activity in nature. The photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/CFA samples increases in the order TiO₂/CFA-1 < TiO₂/CFA-2 < TiO₂/CFA-3 < TiO₂/CFA-4, which is consistent with the specific surface area of samples. Ti600 and P25 have higher photocatalytic activity than TiO₂/CFA samples.

It is well known that the photocatalytic reaction occurs on the surface of the catalysts, and recombination of the photogenerated electron and hole is very fast, so interfacial charge carrier transfer is possible only when the donor or acceptor is pre-adsorbed before the photocatalytic reaction. The preliminary adsorption of the sub-

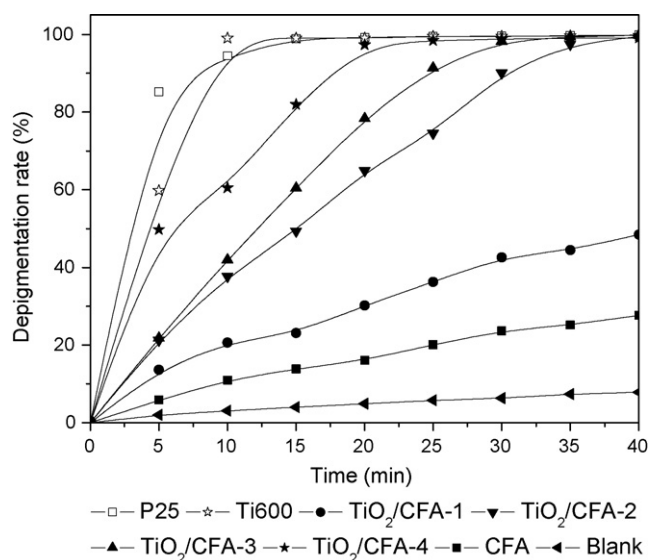


Fig. 7. Depigmentation ratio of MO solution versus photocatalytic time.

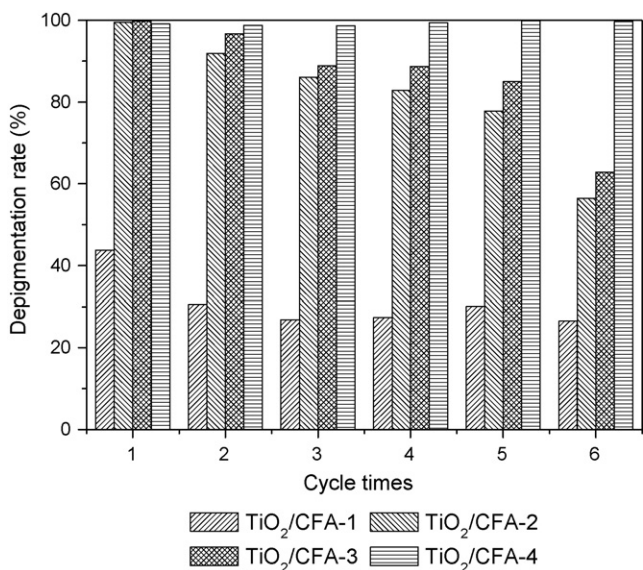


Fig. 8. Depigmentation ratio of MO solution versus cycle times.

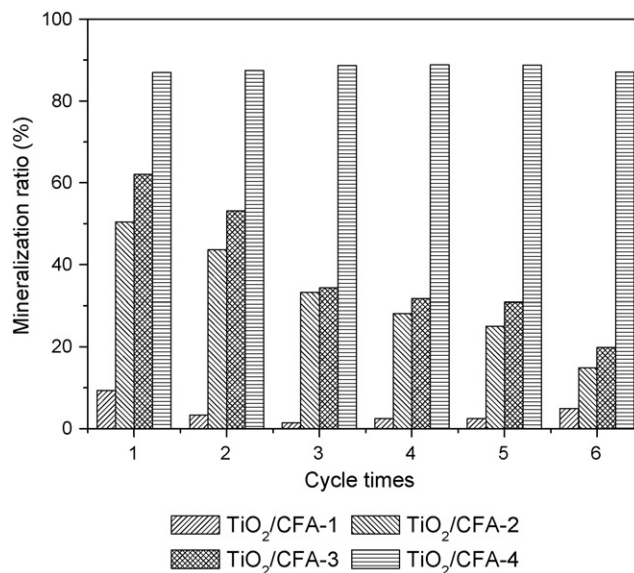


Fig. 9. Mineralization ratio of MO solution versus cycle times.

strates and the adsorption capacity of samples are very important pre-requisites for highly efficient degradation [49]. Larger specific surface area means more adsorption site. Samples with larger specific surface area can pre-adsorb more MO molecules on the surface of samples [50]. It may be the reason that the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/CFA samples is positive correlation to the specific surface area of samples.

Comparing with TiO₂/CFA samples, TiO₂ powder samples (Ti600 and P25) are more effective to perform the depigmentation of MO solution. But the particle filtration after the decomposition increases the cost of this operation in industrial or large-scale applications. In addition, the cleaning and recycling of the powder catalyst are frequently impracticable due to the irreversible adsorption of some intermediate compounds, impregnation of organic matter and particles of substances used in the coagulation [51,52]. The use of TiO₂/CFA photocatalyst can be a remarkable alternative because the filtration step is not required. So it is worthy to improve the reused property of catalyst by sacrificing the photocatalytic activity in a certain extent.

Fig. 8 displays the depigmentation ratio of MO solution versus cycle times. It can be observed that the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/CFA-1 is lowest among the four TiO₂/CFA samples from the first cycle to the sixth cycle, which may correlate with its smaller specific surface area and lower adsorption capacity. The photocatalytic activities of TiO₂/CFA-2 and TiO₂/CFA-3 are degressive with the increase of cycle times. Comparing with TiO₂/CFA-2, TiO₂/CFA-3 has a higher photocatalytic activity, which is due to its larger specific surface area. TiO₂/CFA-4 sample always keeps the highest photocatalytic activity from the first cycle to the sixth cycle, which may be attributed to its larger specific surface area, porous structure formed by the 3D network and more TiO₂ photocatalyst contained in its structure.

3.6. Mineralization of MO

The ultimate product of the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutions can be CO₂, H₂O and relevant inorganic ions. In order to evaluate the extent of mineralization of MO, the TOC of MO solution was tested. Fig. 9 shows the mineralization ratio of MO degradation after 40 min under UV light irradiation with six times cycles. The mineralization ratio is calculated by using the formula

as follows:

$$\eta_M(\%) = \frac{100(\text{TOC}_0 - \text{TOC}_t)}{\text{TOC}_0}(\%)$$

Where, η_M is the mineralization ratio of MO solution, TOC₀ and TOC_t are the TOC of MO solution at the initial time and *t* time, respectively. It can be seen that the mineralization ratio by using TiO₂/CFA-1 as photocatalyst is under 10% from the first cycle to the sixth cycle, indicating low photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/CFA-1 sample. The depigmentation ratio of MO reaches 99% at the first cycle when TiO₂/CFA-2 or TiO₂/CFA-3 is used as photocatalyst (see Fig. 8), but the mineralization ratio only arrives to 50.4 and 62.1, respectively. The mineralization ratio is lower than the depigmentation ratio, because the mineralization ratio is attributable to the TOC removal, while the depigmentation ratio for MO is attributable to the breakage of –N=N– in the molecules of MO [53]. The mineralization ratio decreases gradually with the increase of the cycle times, however, when TiO₂/CFA-4 sample is utilized to degrade MO, a high mineralization ratio (up to 88%) is always maintained from the first cycle to the sixth cycle.

4. Conclusions

TiO₂/CFA samples were prepared by three kinds of methods, sol-gel procedure, ambient hydrolysis procedure and hybrid slurry procedure, respectively. The photocatalyst TiO₂/CFA particles are easy to separate from the treated wastewater, which is very important for the practical applications of TiO₂ to water treatment. Therefore, TiO₂/CFA may be a promising material for application in the removal of organic pollutants from water in the future. From the above experimental results and discussion, it can be concluded that:

- (1) The precipitation method is not unique approach to load TiO₂ on CFA. Ambient hydrolysis procedure and hybrid slurry procedure both are good choice and simple method to realize the immobilization of TiO₂ on CFA. The photocatalyst TiO₂/CFA particles prepared by ambient hydrolysis procedure have a smooth appearance. However, the surface of TiO₂ layer covered on the surface of CFA is very rough when hybrid slurry procedure was utilized, which is advantaged to its larger specific surface area. Comparing with the two preparation approaches, sol-gel pro-

cedure is a poor loading method because TiO₂ is difficult to be anchored on the surface of CFA by this procedure.

- (2) The photocatalyst TiO₂/CFA particles are easy to separate from the treated wastewater by precipitating in a quiescent condition for some time because of the heavy weight of CFA (See Fig. S1 in the Supporting Information), which provides dependability for the recycling property of TiO₂/CFA.
- (3) The photocatalyst TiO₂/CFA-4 prepared by hybrid slurry procedure presents the highest photocatalytic activity and the best recycling property among all TiO₂/CFA samples. When TiO₂/CFA-4 particles are used as photocatalyst, the high depigmentation ratio (near to 100%) and mineralization ratio (up to 88%) of MO solution are always maintained from the first cycle to the sixth cycle, which may attributed to its larger specific surface area, porous structure formed by the 3D network and more TiO₂ photocatalyst contained in its structure.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.molcata.2009.01.016.

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