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Engineered Porous Media for Groundwater Contaminant Remediation: Applications of Nano-TiO₂

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ENGINEERED POROUS MEDIA FOR GROUNDWATER CONTAMINANT
REMEDATION: APPLICATIONS OF NANO-TiO₂

A Thesis

by

SHENG YIN

Submitted to the Graduate College of
The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley
In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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ENGINEERED POROUS MEDIA FOR GROUNDWATER CONTAMINANT
REMEDICATION: APPLICATIONS OF NANO-TiO₂

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July 2019

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ABSTRACT

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Nonmetallic arsenic and hydrocarbon BTEX are the most harmful contaminants commonly found in groundwater. Many oxide, biological and metal based adsorbent materials have been investigated in the laboratory and in the field environment. These materials, especially nano-TiO₂, have been extensively studied in laboratory due to its high efficiency and remediation outcomes. Two forms of synthetic nano-TiO₂, aggregated dendritic nano-scale anatase TiO₂ and polymorphed rutile nano-TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂, were compared to study the feasibility of nano-TiO₂ in geo-environmental engineering applications. Characterization of crystal structure, purity/mixture, and morphologic, microscopic features of the materials were examined by XRD, XRF and SEM, respectively. The arsenic and BTEX removal rate/efficiency were compared between the two materials. The tested nano-TiO₂ were found efficient in mixing ratio and can be potentially scalable in field applications for multiple contaminants.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Importance of water and scarcity can't be over-stated in the increasing influence of climate change. Freshwater resources, which only accounts for less than 3% of the total water sources of the earth, support ecosystem health and many human activities in urban and rural areas (Gleick, 1993). However, many countries and regions around the world are facing a lack of clean water supplies and a series of health related issues that followed (Oki and Kanae, 2006). According to the latest United Nation report, approximately half the global population are already living in potential water shortage areas, while the corresponding number of the population is still increasing (UNESCO, 2018).

In order to help mitigate this issue, related technologies and management methods are constantly being proposed, such as seawater desalination, use of groundwater, and wastewater treatment. In contrast, groundwater is more affordable in its sustainability usage, management, and technical research (Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson, 2012). During the treatment of groundwater, As and benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene (BTEX), have received more attention for various reasons, including their high toxicity, carcinogenicity, and environmental hazards of pollutants. Many adsorption-based materials, including and not limited to activated

carbon, organic polymer materials, and metals and their oxides, have been synthesized and improved in the laboratory for such contaminants. Although some of these materials have been used in engineering sites, still many materials that lack an assessment of the potential of the relevant engineering.

The goal of this project is to engineer an efficient and cost-effective nano porous material that can remove As and BTEX in groundwater, and also be suitable for in-situ application at remediation sites. Research objectives are to: (1) investigate characteristics, forms, structures of two types of lab-engineered synthetic Nano-TiO₂; and (2) examine their efficiency in removing As and BTEX. The lab-scale flow column experiment setup is designed to simulate field in-situ applications such as permeable reactive barrier (PRB).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As in Groundwater

With the widespread use of groundwater, some environmental and health issues have been concerned. Arsenic (As), is one of the most anxious pollutants in groundwater not only because it is indiscernible, tasteless, and odorless, but also due to its natural presence and widespread distribution in groundwater in many parts of the world. It moves into groundwater through natural processes and a range of biological and human activities, including agricultural activities, weathering processes and volcanic eruptions (Nordstrom, 2002; Smedley and Kinniburgh, 2002). As a result of acute and chronic exposure to high levels of As, human in the danger of the adverse health effects, such as gastrointestinal symptoms caused by arsenic, even genotoxicity, mutagenesis, and carcinogenesis (NRC, 1997). Therefore, arsenic has been pointed out by the World Health Organization (WHO) and United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) as the most serious inorganic contaminants in drinking water, specifically, the maximum contaminant level (MCL) of arsenic in drinking water is 10 ug/L in the US (US EPA, 2001), which is same as stated by the WHO guidelines (WHO, 1998).

Multitudinous technologies have been utilized in the treatment of arsenic-containing

water. Table 1 shows some of the commonly used measurement technologies for arsenic in groundwater in the laboratory and on site. Based on factors such as cost, operability and stability, subsurface barriers and solidification are more suitable for use in current practical projects without significantly reducing the removal efficiency (Evanko and Dzombak, 1997; Mulligan, et al., 2001).

To begin with, alum as well as iron (and iron salt), by the processes of coagulation and filtration, is diffusely used to remove the arsenic from water (Kartinen and Martin, 1995). Moreover, anion exchange and reverse osmosis techniques can be used to remove arsenic from water. Similarly, filtration adsorption of adsorbent media is also a potential technology to be used, while many related adsorbent materials, such as biochemical materials, chemical synthetic materials, and metals and their oxides or inorganic compounds, have been proposed by researchers (Mohan and Pittman, 2007; Gupta and Chen, 1978; Hering, et al., 1996; Kim, et al., 2004). For metals and their inorganic solid compounds are used as adsorbents, such as activated alumina, iron, iron hydroxide, iron oxide, and titanium dioxide (TiO_2), have been evaluated their effectiveness about removing arsenic by numerous studies (Kanel, et al., 2005; Pierce and Moore, 1982; Katsoyiannis and Zouboulis, 2002; Kim, et al., 2004; Pena, et al., 2005). Among these adsorbents, TiO_2 , especially nano- TiO_2 , have an outstanding effect of removing arsenic at $\text{pH}=6.5-8.5$, which is as well as the natural water pH range (Bang, et al., 2011).

Due to the potential of nano- TiO_2 in removing arsenic from water, in the laboratory, the research, including the influencing factors of adsorption, on the removal of arsenic in water by

nano-TiO₂ has also achieved some progress. First of all, the size of TiO₂ and the pH value can affect on As(V) and As(III) adsorption and As(III) photo-oxidation (Pena, et al., 2005; Pena, et al., 2006; Xu and Meng, 2009). In detail, the TiO₂ was effective for As(V) removal at pH=8 while the maximum removal for As(III) is when pH at approximate 7.5 in wastewater (Pena, et al., 2005). As for the size of the nano-TiO₂, Nano-anatase TiO₂, for arsenic removal, is the most efficient, especially the size of 6.6nm. Additionally, the other characters of the material itself, such as TiO₂ content, degree of crystallization, nano-TiO₂ arrangement, has a certain effect on the results of the adsorption (Bang, et al., 2005; Jegadeesan, et al., 2010). However, contact time for adsorption is also indispensable, in the laboratory, the common adsorption time is generally from 30mins to 24h (Pena, et al., 2005; Guan, et al., 2012). Factors such as temperature, pressure, and liquid flow rate all have an effect on the adsorption of TiO₂ (Adamson and Gast, 1967). The target in this study is groundwater, and these factors more stable in groundwater (Fitts, 2002).

BTEX in Groundwater

With the rapid development of the complex industry, a large number of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were produced, which compounds migrate to soil and groundwater and contaminates them. The BTEX, one type of VOCs, which refers to compounds benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene, is another pollutant of concerns (Zytner, 1994; Paixão, et al., 2007). The BTEX is mainly derived from human activities, including the wildy use of petroleum and related products, exhausted automobile exhaust, burnt coal and biomass, the usage of paint and leakage from the petrochemical industry (Zalel and Broday, 2008). BTEX would transport with

water and inevitably affect human activities and production, such as drinking water, agricultural water and industrial water. BTEX has different levels of harm to human health. For instance, benzene and ethylbenzene are classified as carcinogens and potential carcinogens, respectively, while toluene and xylene are classified as non-carcinogens (WHO, 1998). Therefore, the USEPA regulates MCL of BTEX in drinking water, which is shown in Table. 2.

In order to remove the BTEX from the natural water and drinking water, a series of potential and novel researches and methods were proposed. One of the studies is the use of biological materials or microbial materials, such as the biosorption and degradation of large biomass, including algae and special bacteria (Crawford R, and Crawford D, 2005; Costa, et al., 2012; Ciesielczuk, et al., 2019; Khodaei, et al., 2017). Although biosorption has been used in the treatment of sewage, whether it can be used in in-situ groundwater treatment still requires long-term observation because of its strict requirements on the adsorption environment, and potential ecological pollution (Crini and Lichtfouse, 2018; Hlihor, et al., 2017; Reinhard, et al., 2005). On the other hand, non-biosorbent materials have also made notable advancement. The modified zeolite and different active carbon have made good progress in removing BTEX (Ranck, et al., 2005; Lu, et al., 2008; Su, et al. 2010). In addition, metal-based materials and nanotechnology, such as calcium, iron, zinc, and titanium, also have great potential for catalytic degradation (Xue, et al., 2018; Aziz and Kim, 2017; Bharatvaj, et al., 2018). There are few important studies in BTEX removal. For example, it was found that the mixing conditions of nitrate and sulphate can accelerate the natural attenuation of BTEX (Cunningham et al., 2001; Schreiber and Bah, 2002). However, in the prior technology, metals and their oxides, specially

TiO₂, are operable in the treatment of groundwater.

In term of the applications of TiO₂, it is commonly used as a photocatalyst, which has low-toxicity, durability, photocatalytic activity and stability at pH range 6.5-8.5 (Alizadeh Fard, et al., 2013; Han, et al., 2009). Alizadeh Fard et al. (2013) studied the effects of the factor including pH, reaction time, hydrogen peroxide concentration and some related ions. Moreover, TiO₂-based composites are also being used for BTEX removal, with many materials with removal efficiencies exceeding 90% or even about 99%. (Alizadeh Fard, et al., 2013; Li, et al., 2005; Li, et al., 2009; Peerakiatkhajorn, et al., 2012; Zou, et al., 2006).

For this research, the form in which groundwater is in contact with the catalyst or adsorbent material in field is applied to provide the feasibility of two different forms nano-TiO₂ to remove the As and BTEX for field applications. XRF was used for elemental composition analysis, while the XRD was carried out for crystal structure information, and surface morphology were characterized with SEM. The removal efficiency of two materials for As and BTEX was collected, under different flow rate (or contact time), and different initial pollutant concentrations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND FINDINGS

Materials and Methods

Materials

All chemicals used were the analytical grade, while all solutions are prepared with deionized (DI) water. As stock solutions were prepared from sodium arsenate dibasic heptahydrate ($\text{Na}_2\text{HAsO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$) (Sigma-Aldrich Science, St. Louis, MO, USA) dissolved in DI water, and the BTEX-contaminated water. In addition, the chemicals for preparing nano-TiO₂ include hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ, USA), sodium hydroxide solution (NaOH) (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ, USA), SiO₂, titanium chloride (TiCl_3) (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ, USA), and 2.0M hydrochloric acid (HCl) (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ, USA). However, the pH was adjusted within a reasonable range of 6.5-8.5 by adding 0.1M NaOH, and 0.1M HCl during the experiment.

20.9 mg of $\text{Na}_2\text{HAsO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ is weighed and dissolve in DI water, and 50 mg/L of As(V) solution is prepared using a 100 ml volumetric flask. Subsequently, 3 ml and 12 ml of the solution are taken out, and approximate 0.15 mg/L and 0.60 mg/L As(V) solution are respectively prepared using a 1000 ml volumetric flask. Finally, the exact concentrations were

determined with an inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Thermo Jarrell Ash, the U.S.), which has a working range from ppb to ppm concentrations, after each experiment.

Gasoline saturated water is prepared by mixing 90 mL of gasoline, which bought from a local gas station, and 900 mL DI water in a 1 L glass bottle and stirring continuously for 48 hours with a magnetic stirrer (Mao, et al., 2010). Two 10 ml saturated solutions were taken twice and the concentrations (total BTEX) were diluted to 4.5 ppm and 10 ppm, respectively. For the experiment, two sets of 480ml of the same solution were taken, and then added 20ml of H₂O₂ and DI water respectively. The extract concentration was determined with Sitalab UVF-3100 (Sitalab Corporation, Massachusetts, USA) after the experiment for total BTEX.

Two different forms of nano-TiO₂ were used in this study. The first one is aggregated dendritic nano-scale TiO₂, which was produced by using a modified hydrothermal method in the presence of H₂O₂ and NaOH (Mao, et al., 2006). Another form is polymorphed nano-TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂. In other words, the nano-TiO₂ was uniformly attached (e.g., coating) to nano-SiO₂ by adding 0.166 M TiCl₃ in 2.0 M HCl and SiO₂, while simultaneously passing O₂ through the mixture at 100 mL/min (Leal, et al., 2017).

The first material was made by synthetic sodium hydrogen titanate nanostructures (Figure. 1a). 35 mL of a 2.5M NaOH solution and 3 mL of 30% H₂O₂ solution were initially mixed into a 45 mL autoclave, with a 1 × 1 cm² titanium foil. Then, the autoclave was sealed and heated for 12 h at 150 °C in order to produce the sodium hydrogen titanate. Subsequently, the prepared

nanomaterials that have been washed were neutralized with 30 ml of 0.1 M HCl. After washing, it was annealed at 450 °C for 10 h to obtain the final nano-TiO₂.

The synthesis of the mixed TiO₂ and SiO₂, shown in Figure. 1b, was repeatedly carried out by adding 0.166 M TiCl₄ and 2 - 5g SiO₂, whose particle diameter was less than 125 μm, to 2.0 N HCl. Subsequently, the sample was continuously stirred at a temperature of 60 °C and O₂ was passed through the mixture at 100 mL/min for about 8 hours. The sample was then naturally cooled to room temperature and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes. Finally, the material was washed several times with deionized water, centrifuged, and oven dried at 700 °C, which converts TiO₂ into rutile form, overnight to the final material.

Material Analysis and Characterization

X-ray fluorescence (XRF), a in-house Bruker XRF Tracer IV-SD (XRF, Bruker, U.S.), was applied to determine the elemental composition of materials. It equipped with Silicon Drift Detector (SDD) technology with a 150 eV resolution. The spectra and data were collected by the BrukerS1 analytical program. Measurements were performed at 40 Kev and 15 microamps, with Pd collimator, and the analysis area is ellipse shape with a area about 4x6 mm.

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD), was performed to obtain crystal structure information about two different dried nano-TiO₂. Diffraction patterns of TiO₂ crystal structures were collected with a Bruker D8 ADVANCE (XRD, Bruker, the U.S.), which settled in Chemistry, X-ray diffraction meter with Cu Ka₁ radiation ($\lambda = 1.54\text{\AA}$). Moreover, the XRD data were collected by utilizing a scanning mode of 2θ value, whose ranging from 20° to 90° with a scanning step size of 0.005° and a scanning rate of 1.0° min⁻¹.

Scanning electron microscope (SEM). was used to observe the mic-morphology of dried nano-TiO₂. using a Sigma VP Carl Zeiss scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, Zeiss, the German), which was placed in the engineering department, manipulated at 5 kV.

Batch experiments

For arsenic adsorption experiment, it was divided into two parts. The first part is to put two kinds of 2-3g TiO₂-based materials into 100ml arsenic solution with a concentration of 0.15 and 0.6 mg/l, sealed and placed in the oscillator for 1h at 150 rpm. And 10 mL aliquot at specific time intervals to determine its adsorption efficiency

The second part was based on the laboratory injection system to study the relationship between injection speed and removal efficiency. Both of arsenic adsorption and BTEX catalytic degradation were conducted under the same system. A schematic diagram of the system used in the lab experiment is shown in Figure. 2. The system is consisted of the Erlenmeyer flask, as storage for contaminated groundwater; and the syringes in the pump are used to collect clean water separately; the switch to control the progress of the experiment; the Pump 11 Elite Infusion/Withdrawal Programmable Dual Syringe (Harvard Apparatus, Cambridge, MA, USA), for regulating the rate of water flow or total water flow, simultaneously control the flow direction; and the column filled with 2g TiO₂ may be made from glass, plexiglass, or other suitable material. The column is packed with the reactive medium in such a way as to ensure a homogeneous matrix (Figure. 2). A small amount of white fine sand and some mesh filter materials are placed at the bottom of the column to prevent nano- or micron scale titanium dioxide from entering the

final clean water with water flow, besides, those sand can also, to some extent, simulate the environment in groundwater, and adjust the permeability of the entire adsorbent material.

Furthermore, water was driven in the column from bottom to top throughout the whole experiment, in order to better simulate lower flow rates and to minimize the interference of trapped air in the column. All experiments were performed at least three times and results are presented as averages.

Specifically, Figure. 2a is designed for As removal, while Figure. 2b is designed for BTEX removal. Considering the volatility of BTEX, in Fig 2b, the conical flask was sealed, and the pumping gas was used to flow the BTEX-containing water from bottom to top through the TiO₂. In addition, the UV lights are used to support provide the photocatalytic environment for this experimental design (Figure.2b). Also in BTEX experiment, the polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tubing and H₂O₂ were used to prevent BTEX from being absorbed by tubing and affecting the concentrations during experiment.

Moreover, the parameters of environmental condition in the experiment are shown in Table 3. The temperature and pressure of the whole experiment were held constant at 25°C and 101.325 kPa, respectively. The initial concentrations of As and BTEX were set as 0.15-0.7 and 4.5-10.5 mg/L (ppm) separately. The pH value of the solution was 7 ± 0.5 , which is consistent with the pH of fresh water in nature. And the flow rate, which controlled the injected 10 ml of wastewater, was kept between 0.66-10.0 ml/min for As removal, and 0.14-1.0 ml/min for BTEX experiment, in order to make the contaminant better in contact with nano-TiO₂. The quality of

both materials in the two parts of the experiment is 3.5g. The removal efficiency of pollutants at different flow rates and the change of pollutant removal efficiency after repeated TiO₂ at the same flow rate were measured.

TiO₂ regeneration

One of the advantages of TiO₂ as an adsorbent is that it can be regenerated, restored, and reused repeatedly. In this study, aggregated TiO₂ based materials for arsenic removal would be regenerated with strong acids and bases. First, the TiO₂ was immersed in 2M NaOH for one hour, the solid-liquid ratio was about 1:10, and the solid component was continuously washed with DI water to neutrality. Subsequently, TiO₂ was soaked in 2M HCl for one hour, and after centrifugation, the solid was rinsed to neutral for later use. XRF was used to examine the regeneration of the adsorbent. For attached TiO₂, directly washed repeatedly by DI water and dry in order to prevent damage to its structure. In terms of the TiO₂ which removes BTEX, both materials can be directly washed repeatedly by DI water, dried after centrifugation and then put them into use. In addition, XRF was also used for analyzing the regenerated TiO₂ in order to compare the XRF pattern and obtain the purity (i.e., mixture) of materials.

Results and Discussions

Characterization of materials

XRF Analysis. XRF spectrum pattern of two different form nano-TiO₂ is shown in Figure. 3. The analysis before the batch experiments was mainly to detect and confirm the purity of experimental materials, while the XRF analysis after experiments is predominantly to study the

changes in the composition of two different nano-TiO₂ after removing contaminants, and the present form of contaminants on the surface of the material.

In Figure. 3, the red line is aggregated dendritic TiO₂, while the blue curve represents TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂. In both XRF of the aggregated TiO₂ and the attached TiO₂, the two highest peaks are in the interval of the element of Ti when compared to the standard range, and those two distinct peaks are significantly and far higher than the other peaks. This result indicates that the element-purity of the two nano-TiO₂ prepared in our experiments is extremely high. Notably, because the materials tested were at nanoscale. Plastic bags and related holders were used to ensure the proper testing of TiO₂ under XRF. In Figure. 3, the peak, which is far lower than Ti peak is only detected in attached TiO₂ is the interval of the element of Si. While the content of Si was much smaller than the content of Ti in the material. It is the result of the 2 - 5g SiO₂ we added to the reaction solution when we made attached TiO₂. At the same time, it also proves that TiO₂ in the material of attached nano-TiO₂ is enough to completely enclose the surface of the nano-SiO₂.

XRD Analysis. Pre-experimental XRD analysis was conducted to collect material surface structure information, including crystal structure, particle size etc., while the post-experimental XRD analysis was directed to check the changes in surface structure of the material in order to analyze potential alterations in material structure and effects on these processes during adsorption and catalytic adsorption.

According to the XRD results, the aggregated TiO₂ (red) is fully crystalline anatase TiO₂. In Figure. 4, the red XRD pattern showed contains the two highest and strong diffraction peaks of 2θ values at 25° and 48°, which the specific values of the peaks are 25.5°, 38.9°, 48.3°, 55.2° and 63.1° respectively. Likewise, the aggregated TiO₂ is hexagonal anatase phase of TiO₂ according to its diffraction peaks. The peaks were in consistent with the standard spectrum (Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards, JCPDS Card No. 21-1272) and few earlier studies (Mao, et al., 2006; Thamaphat et al, 2008). In addition, no peak of rutile or brookite phase was detected in the XRD results of the aggregated TiO₂, indicating high purity of the product structure. In other words, the product of aggregated TiO₂ is almost completely crystallized and forms a high-purity hexagonal anatase nano-TiO₂.

Similarly, as for the XRD result (blue) of nano-TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂, the attached TiO₂ is more inclined to be rutile polymorph (Figure. 4). The major strong diffraction peaks, which at 2θ=27.9°, 36.6°, 54.9°, were displayed in the blue XRD pattern. While the other less intense diffraction peaks are concentrated separately at 2θ values of 41.7° and 57.2°. The positions and intensities of diffraction peaks conform to the standard documents (JCPDS Card No. 21-1276) and expected result as well as aggregated TiO₂. Obviously, the TiO₂ wrapped on the surface of SiO₂ is completely rutile without any anatase phases or brookite phases. This material was prepared at 60°C, which is consistent with previous research results (Leal, et al., 2017).

SEM Characterization. In SEM observations, the specific morphology and preliminary

combination of the two different nano-TiO₂ were observed from Figure. 5 (a) the aggregated dendritic TiO₂, (b) the TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂. In terms of morphology, the anatase-type TiO₂ surface has a dense dendritic feelers (Figure. 5a), because it is purposeful in the process of making sodium titanate to have a high specific surface area, which can well contact with water. The SEM characterization of the intermediate product, sodium titanate, which is shown in Figure. 6. The prepared aggregated sodium titanate already has a dendritic initial structure. Specifically, the surface of the sodium titanate (Figure. 6) has numerous tentacles that extend outward, and which has no dendrites like the subsequent TiO₂. However, the main characteristics of TiO₂ formed by neutralization and high-temperature annealing of sodium titanate remain unchanged (Figure. 5a). As for attached TiO₂ (Figure. 5b), It was observed that there were many spherical and hemispherical protrusions, whose size ranges from 50nm to 2μm, on the surface of the material, those protrusions increased the specific surface area of the material, making the contact area of the material with the water flow larger in subsequent experiments. Moreover, there are many nano-scale small protrusions on the main part of the larger protrusions and materials, which make the surface of the material not smooth, and even make the surface of the material appear uneven. This is an alternative to increase the specific surface area of the attached TiO₂.

In terms of combination, both materials are micron-sized particles that are aggregated by nano-TiO₂ (Figure. 5). More combination details can be described by SEM images of different sizes. Figure. 7 and Figure. 8 are aggregated TiO₂ and attached TiO₂, respectively, at different

magnifications SEM observations. In Figure. 7, due to the presence of numerous dendritic tentacles, these micron-sized spherical material component particles, which aggregated by anatase nano-TiO₂, are present in many hollows, which allows the combined materials to have high porosity and permeability. While in Figure. 8, the rutile nano-TiO₂, which attached to SiO₂, exhibits irregular angular crystal micron-sized particles, compared with the hollow nature of aggregated TiO₂, the attached TiO₂ is more closely bonded to each other, and the material particles themselves do not have too much porosity, therefore, the permeability can be controlled according to the macroscopic combination of the material particles in subsequent lab experiments.

Contaminant removal

Arsenic adsorption curve. In this part, a small amount of TiO₂ material is mixed with a large amount of the arsenic solution and stirred to obtain an adsorption curve. The concentration of arsenic solution prepared for the experiment was determined by ICP-OES to be 634ppb (Figure. 9. Group a) and 167ppb (Figure. 9. Group b), respectively, and the adsorption efficiency curve of different Arsenic concentrations is shown in Figure. 9 and Table. 5. In Figure. 9. the two red curves mean the adsorption efficiency of aggregated dendritic TiO₂ in different concentrations of the arsenic solution, while two blue curves are the representative of TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂.

By comparing the curves, the anatase-based TiO₂ material aggregated obviously has better removal efficiency (Figure 9). Also during the one hour of sampling, the Rutile-based attached

TiO₂ has higher adsorption speed in the initial stage of adsorption and can reach the equilibrium of adsorption faster. Moreover, for both of two TiO₂ materials, the higher the substrate concentration of the arsenic solution, the higher the adsorption efficiency of TiO₂. The standard error of the first ten minutes was large, but not more than 10%. The entire mixing system did not reach an equilibrium state at the beginning of the experiments, resulting in a certain deviation of the sample. In the subsequent time, the mixed system operation begun to stabilize, and the standard error of the samples do not exceed 2% (Table 5).

On the one hand, when the low-concentration arsenic-containing wastewater far exceeds the adsorbent material, the adsorption effects of the two materials are similar, while the adsorption rate of the attached TiO₂ is faster. On the other hand, for high concentration (Figure. 9. Group a), the adsorption rate of attached TiO₂ is slightly higher than that of aggregated TiO₂, but the overall adsorption effect of aggregated TiO₂ is a little better than that of attached TiO₂.

Arsenic removal rate. In the second part of arsenic removal is based on the laboratory injection system. In each experiment, 10 ml of the arsenic solution flows through the collected TiO₂, so that arsenic in a small volume of solution can be better removed. This part is to simulate and get the result of the best arsenic removal effect on site. Their result is shown in Figure. 10. and Table 6. Analogously, the red and blue curves aggregated dendritic TiO₂ and TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂, respectively. In Figure. 10. the same arsenic solution, whose different initial concentration of are (a) 634ppb and (b) 167ppb, is also used.

The arsenic is more fully removed when a small amount of solution flows over the

aggregated material. For aggregated TiO₂, the removal efficiencies are 96% (Figure. 10a) and 82% (Figure. 10a) for the two concentrations of the arsenic solution, respectively. While the attached TiO₂ is 92% and 81%. Through the error analysis, the standard error of the arsenic removal rate obtained by the two materials is less than 4% (Table 6).

Furthermore, similar to the Arsenic adsorption curve, in the 15mins of the experiment, aggregated TiO₂ has better removal rate, although the attached TiO₂ has higher adsorption efficiency in the initial stage. Also, the substrate concentration of the arsenic solution is positively correlated with the removal rate.

Overall, the process of adsorption of arsenic by TiO₂ is basically consistent with the first-order kinetics:

$$\ln(\text{arsenic removal rate}) = -k \cdot t \quad (1)$$

The above two sets of experiments show that both TiO₂ materials have the potential to be used in engineering for arsenic removal. Both materials may have similar removal efficiencies during the initial stages of arsenic removal. After that, due to the slightly faster adsorption rate of the attached TiO₂, the attached TiO₂ will first reach the adsorption saturation, but in general, the aggregated TiO₂ will have better arsenic removal efficiency.

Total BTEX degradation. The total BTEX degradation efficiencies for TiO₂ catalysis and H₂O₂ concentration are tested in the UV system to evaluate the catalytic effects of the two materials (Figure. 11; Table 7). In Figure. 11 (a) and (b) respectively aggregated TiO₂ and attached TiO₂ in three different environments, which including only UV lighting (black),

TiO₂+UV lighting (red), and TiO₂+UV lighting+H₂O₂ (blue).

In Figure. 11. C₀ is the initial concentration of BTEX, which is tested as 4.25 ppm, C is the BTEX concentration in collected solution after different injection times. By comparing the case of only the UV lighting environment, the decomposition of BTEX is very dilatory. However, the adding of TiO₂ alone or with H₂O₂ significantly alter the decomposition rate of BTEX over a period of time. The standard error of the catalytic effect of aggregated TiO₂ is not more than 3%, the standard error of while attached TiO₂ is almost no more than 5%, except for a point of about 10% at 40mins (Table. 7).

Moreover, the higher concentration was used, which measured as 10.17 ppm, also to compare the removal efficiencies for total BTEX (Figure. 12; Table 8). In Figure. 12. the red curve is aggregated dendritic TiO₂, while the blue curve means TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂. The removal efficiency without any TiO₂ is 96.5% in 70 mins. For aggregated TiO₂, the removal efficiency is 21%, and it is 32% for attached TiO₂. The standard error of the catalytic effect (Table 8) of two TiO₂-based is not more than 3%.

All BTEX degradation processes are consistent with first-order kinetics:

$$\ln\left(\frac{C_t}{C_0}\right) = -k \cdot t \quad (2)$$

Where the C_t is the concentration of As (M), C₀ is the initial concentration of As (M) and k is the first-order rate constant for species degradation (min⁻¹).

Specifically, in the case of UV/TiO₂ system (no added H₂O₂), the decomposition efficiency of BTEX for the two materials in 70mins is 87% (a) and 75% (b). While the

efficiencies significantly change to 95% (a) and 91% (b) when the H_2O_2 is added to the system. For the systems without H_2O_2 , the catalytic efficiency of aggregated TiO_2 is significantly better than that of attached TiO_2 (Figure. 11 and 12), but after adding H_2O_2 , the catalytic efficiency of the two materials is not much different (Figure. 11). For the two forms of TiO_2 , the rutile is a stable crystal form with the good crystal structure, fewer crystal defects, and fewer oxygen vacancies, while the anatase has more oxygen vacancies, which can capture electrons and increase the separation time of electron holes. Thus, anatase has a better photocatalytic effect (Anpo and Kamat, 2010). In this experiment, aggregated TiO_2 is mainly anatase, and attached TiO_2 is mainly rutile, so the former in the experiment is obviously superior to the latter in the photocatalytic effect on BTEX.

Regeneration of materials.

The XRF pattern of the regenerated TiO_2 , which treated arsenic and BTEX separately, is compared with the pre-experiment XRF. Figure. 13 shows (a) the XRF of the aggregated dendritic TiO_2 , and (b) the XRF of TiO_2 attached to the surface of SiO_2 . The green line represents the XRF pattern of the material before the experiment, while the red and blue curves are respectively the XRF pattern of regenerated TiO_2 after arsenic and BTEX treated. The regeneration of both of the materials is excellent.

In Figure. 13a., the XRF diagram for regenerate dendritic TiO_2 , which removes BTEX, the composition of the elements is not much different from the composition of the TiO_2 element before the experiment. Differently, as for TiO_2 for removing arsenic, a small amount of arsenic

remains on the surface of TiO_2 after regeneration. In addition, there are very few increases in chlorine in the material, probably because the use of HCl in the arsenic solution for pH adjustment or during regeneration leads to more chloride, which is not fully removed by DI water.

In terms of the XRF of attached TiO_2 , analogously, after adsorption of arsenic, chloride and arsenic elements, which have not appeared before the experiment, are detected in the regenerated TiO_2 powder. Especially, during the regeneration process, there is a small decrease in silicon content, probably because it is consumed in the reaction of acid and alkali, or it may be because the initial silicon content of the sampled powder material is different.

Through the comparison before and after the regeneration experiment, the two TiO_2 materials can be recycled repeatedly, so the conclusion can be concluded that TiO_2 has outstanding engineering application potential due to the good recyclability of the material.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The two nano-TiO₂ materials have different characterizations, forms, and arrangement, as shown in Table 4. The aggregated TiO₂, which is anatase form, is consistent with not only the standard spectrum of JCPDS Card No. 21-1272, but also the previous studies (Mao et al., 2006; Thamaphat et al., 2008). While the attached nano-TiO₂, which is a polygon rutile, form conformed with the spectrum by JCPDS Card No. 21-1276.

In terms of characterizations of produced nano-materials, there are many dendritic tentacles on the aggregated TiO₂ surface, and the particles are tightly bound together with many hollow and voids of different sizes. As for attached nano-TiO₂, it has the rugged surface and those surface has many spherical and hemispherical bulges. The aggregated material particles are tightly connected and do not have large voids or hollow.

In terms of the effectiveness of the adsorption of arsenic and the catalytic decomposition of BTEX, both TiO₂-based materials demonstrate outstanding capabilities. For arsenic removal, aggregated dendritic TiO₂ has a larger capacity in As adsorption, while the attached TiO₂ has a faster adsorption rate for arsenic removal. It indicates that the attached TiO₂ has advantages for higher flow rates of arsenic-containing wastewater treatment. The dendritic TiO₂ is main based

on anatase, while the attached TiO_2 is mainly formed by rutile.

The results of anatase form having better arsenic adsorption than rutile is consistent with previous studies (Ma and Tu, 2011; Bang, et al., 2005). Another possible explanation is that with the same mass of materials, the attached TiO_2 has less TiO_2 mass due to the presence of added SiO_2 , hence lesser adsorption than the actual unit mass of TiO_2 .

For BTEX degradation, aggregated dendritic TiO_2 has more significant advantages, due to more oxygen vacancies, anatase can capture electrons and increase the separation time of electron holes. Therefore, anatase has better photocatalysis (Anpo and Kamat, 2010; Su et al., 2011). Moreover, the photocatalytic effect of the attached TiO_2 is better than that of the individual rutile in the literature. This is because the presence of SiO_2 enhances the photocatalytic activity, thereby improving the degradation of BTEX by the material (Zou, et al., 2006; Anderson and Bard, 1997). In short, considering the respective advantages of the materials, including the reuse of materials, and the good removal effect for BTEX and As, both materials tested have great potential in engineering application

CHAPTER V

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Few potential limitations might need to be considered in future work. First, although the cost of synthetic production is relatively lower in the laboratory, the cost of TiO_2 is higher than other materials on the market. In addition, there are energy input requirements, such as high temperature during material production and the needs of continuous UV exposure during operation for hydrocarbon remediation. Water hardness can also be an important factor as magnesium and calcium ions would affect the removal of both of As and BTEX (Yan, et al., 2016; Choi, et al., 2010). Finally, scaling up experimental setting to field applications can also add complications to efficiency and removal rate. There are considerable scaling factor that can contribute to the field significantly but also add errors as indicated in literature (Cheng et al. 2013).

For future work, few areas can be future studied, which are to (1) increase the SiO_2 content ratio in the mixture material to reduce cost of TiO_2 ; (2) apply engineered TiO_2 under visible light to evaluate BTEX removal (energy reduced mode); (3) employ numerical model to simulate scaling scenarios to assess efficiency and quantify possible errors.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

TABLES

Table 1. Treatment technologies for arsenic in groundwater

Technology	Cost	Operability	Removal Effect	Stability for long-term
Subsurface Barriers	low	high	high	high
Solidification	low	high	high	moderate
Vitrification	moderate	high	high	moderate
Biological Treatment	moderate	very high	very high	low
Physical Separation	very high	moderate	very high	high
Pyrometallurgical Extraction	very high	low	very high	high
Electrokinetic Treatment	very high	Low	very high	moderate

Table 2. The maximum contaminant level (MCL) of BTEX

Chemical	MCL(mg/L)
benzene	0.005
toluene	1
ethylbenzene	0.7
xylenes (total)	10

Table 3. Laboratory experimental parameters

Parameter	Value	Unit
Flow rate	0.1-10.0	ml/min
Initial concentration of arsenic	0.15-0.7	mg/L
Initial concentration of gasoline (BTEX)	4.5-10.5	mg/L
pH	7 ± 0.5	
Temperature	25	°C
Pressure	101.325	kPa

Table 4. The characterizations of two nano-TiO₂

	Aggregated dendritic TiO ₂	Nano-TiO ₂ attached to the SiO ₂
Characterizations	Spreading many of these dendritic tentacles on the surface of materials.	The surface of the material is uneven, and there are many spherical and hemispherical bulges.
Form	Anatase	Rutile
Arrangement	There are large holes between the aggregated particles	Material coverage is tight

Table 5. The data of arsenic adsorption efficiency curve

C ₀ =634ppb					
Aggregated TiO ₂	mean	SE	Attached TiO ₂	mean	SE
0	0		0	0	
5	0.09858	0.0145	5	0.04259	0.051
10	0.15457	0.065	10	0.18849	0.0785
20	0.37618	0.0115	20	0.42192	0.0005
30	0.63407	0.01	30	0.57965	0.0155
40	0.69322	0.0035	40	0.66009	0.0125
50	0.73896	0.0025	50	0.69322	0.0025
60	0.7295	0.0015	60	0.6877	0.018

C ₀ =167ppb					
Aggregated TiO ₂	mean	SE	Attached TiO ₂	mean	SE
0	0		0	0	
5	0.05389	0.002	5	0.12874	0.0015
10	0.07784	0.001	10	0.20359	0.001
20	0.11078	0.0005	20	0.23353	0.002
30	0.27246	0.0015	30	0.23653	0.0005
40	0.30539	0.001	40	0.28743	0.001
50	0.29641	0.0025	50	0.28743	0.001
60	0.29341	0	60	0.2994	0.001

Table 6. The data of Arsenic removal rate

C ₀ =634ppb					
Aggregated TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE	Attached TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE
0	0		0	0	
1	0.54	0.018	1	0.6	0.02
2	0.65	0.039	2	0.69	0.012
4	0.82	0.026	4	0.79	0.025
6	0.92	0.033	6	0.9	0.04
8	0.93	0.025	8	0.91	0.021
10	0.96	0.040	10	0.92	0.03
12	0.94	0.042	12	0.92	0.028
15	0.95	0.024	15	0.93	0.013

C ₀ =167ppb					
Aggregated TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE	Attached TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE
0	0		0	0	
1	0.46215	0.019	1	0.48896	0.039
2	0.54259	0.026	2	0.58833	0.025
4	0.66088	0.032	4	0.63249	0.033
6	0.71451	0.044	6	0.72658	0.031
8	0.75237	0.039	8	0.77445	0.043
10	0.78076	0.01	10	0.79653	0.034
12	0.82019	0.009	12	0.8265	0.043
15	0.83523	0.025	15	0.82019	0.031

Table 7. The data of total BTEX degradation efficiencies in different condition

Only UV($C_0=4.25\text{ppm}$)	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.99215	0.00333
20	0.98038	0.00333
30	0.96782	0
40	0.95761	0.00882
50	0.94741	0.00667
60	0.93485	0.00577
70	0.92229	0.00667

Aggregated TiO_2		
UV+ TiO_2	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.85322	0.01856
20	0.70801	0.01333
30	0.53768	0.01453
40	0.36028	0.00577
50	0.22449	0.01453
60	0.15856	0.02906
70	0.13265	0.01764

UV+ $\text{TiO}_2+\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.53925	0.01528
20	0.38619	0.03215
30	0.26688	0.0393
40	0.15934	0.02028
50	0.10518	0.01453
60	0.08477	0.00577
70	0.05573	0.00882

Attached TiO ₂		
UV+TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.83516	0.04055
20	0.64678	0.05796
30	0.50157	0.02646
40	0.35479	0.04667
50	0.29827	0.03528
60	0.27786	0.03215
70	0.25432	0.03464
UV+TiO ₂ +H ₂ O ₂	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.50157	0.04041
20	0.34223	0.03756
30	0.26609	0.02646
40	0.14129	0.05115
50	0.11617	0.02404
60	0.11381	0.01453
70	0.09105	0.01202

Table 8. The data of total BTEX degradation efficiencies for two TiO₂

Only UV(C ₀ =10.17ppm)	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.99475	0.00333
20	0.99279	0.00333
30	0.98721	0.00882
40	0.9823	0.01202
50	0.97541	0.00882
60	0.97049	0.00333
70	0.96459	0.01202

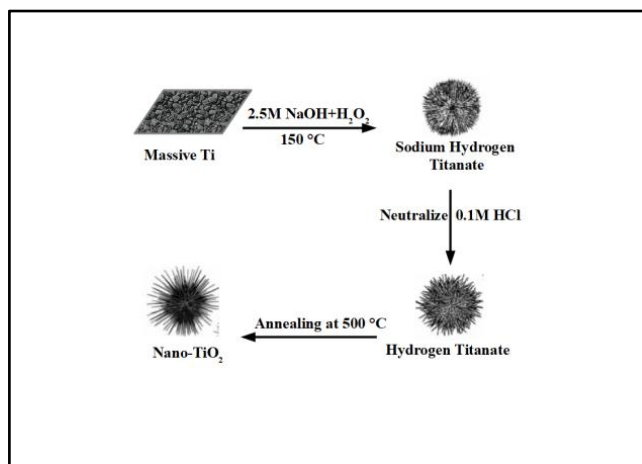
Aggregated TiO ₂		
UV+TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.89541	0.00667
20	0.77869	0.00882
30	0.6082	0.00882
40	0.42557	0.01202
50	0.29934	0.01202
60	0.2377	0.02333
70	0.21443	0.00577

Attached TiO ₂		
UV+TiO ₂	Mean(%)	SE
0	1	
10	0.87705	0.02603
20	0.67508	0.02603
30	0.5777	0.02728
40	0.44754	0.01732
50	0.36623	0.01764
60	0.33607	0.02028
70	0.31902	0.02333

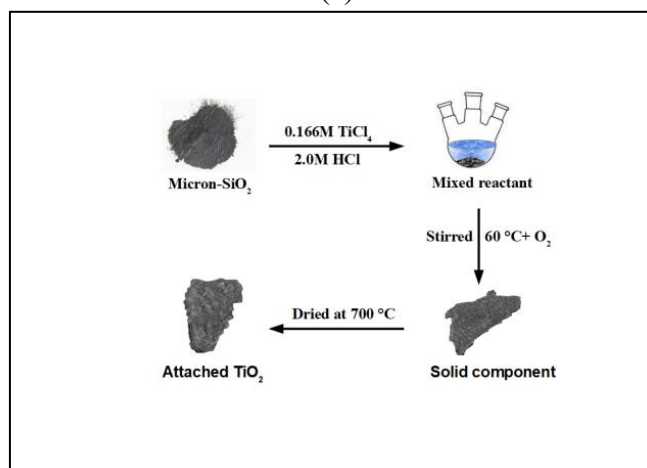
APPENDIX B

APPENDIX A

FIGURES

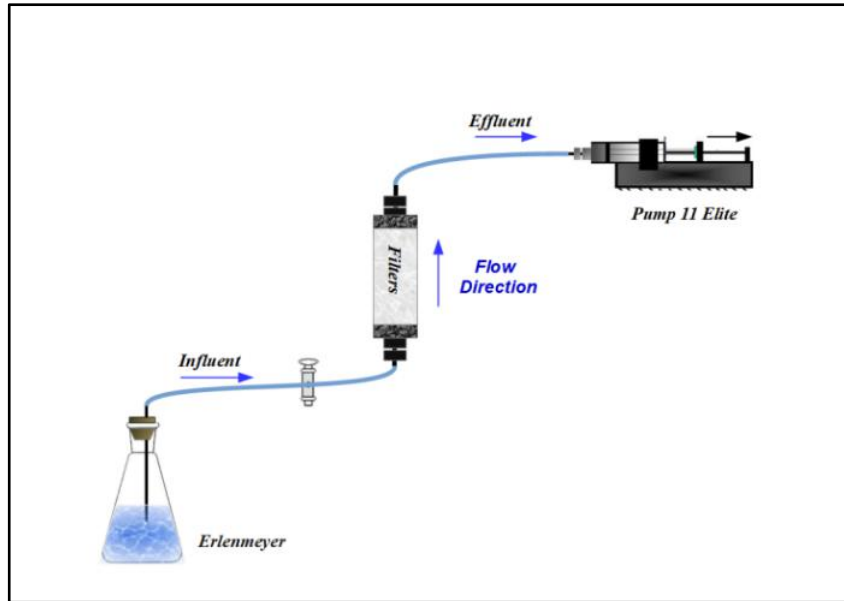


(a)

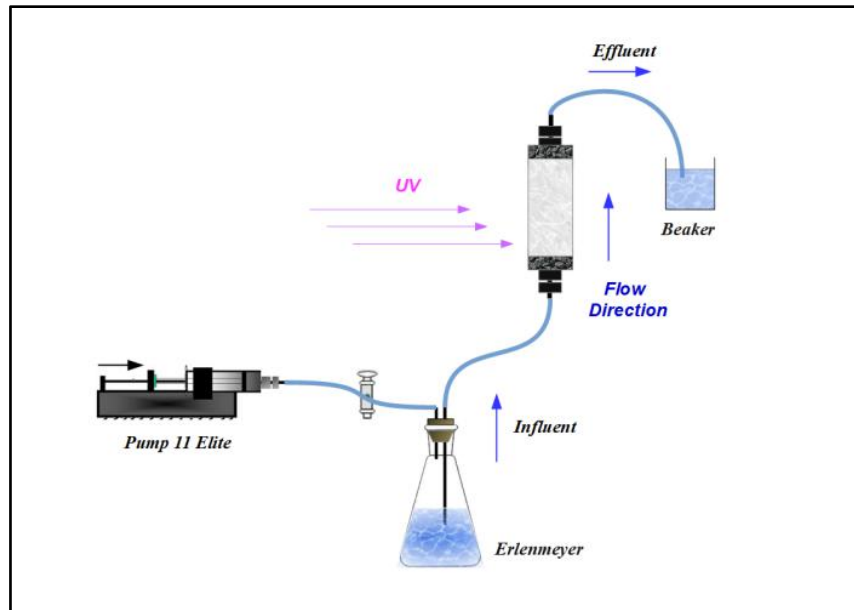


(b)

Figure. 1. Preparation of two kinds of TiO₂ in laboratory. (a) the aggregated dendritic nano-scale TiO₂, (b) nano-TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂



(a)



(b)

Figure. 2. Synoptical diagram of the system used in the experiment, including the Erlenmeyer, switch, pump 11 Elite, Column Filters, and Catheter. (a) the experimental design for removing As., (b) the experimental design for removing BTEX.

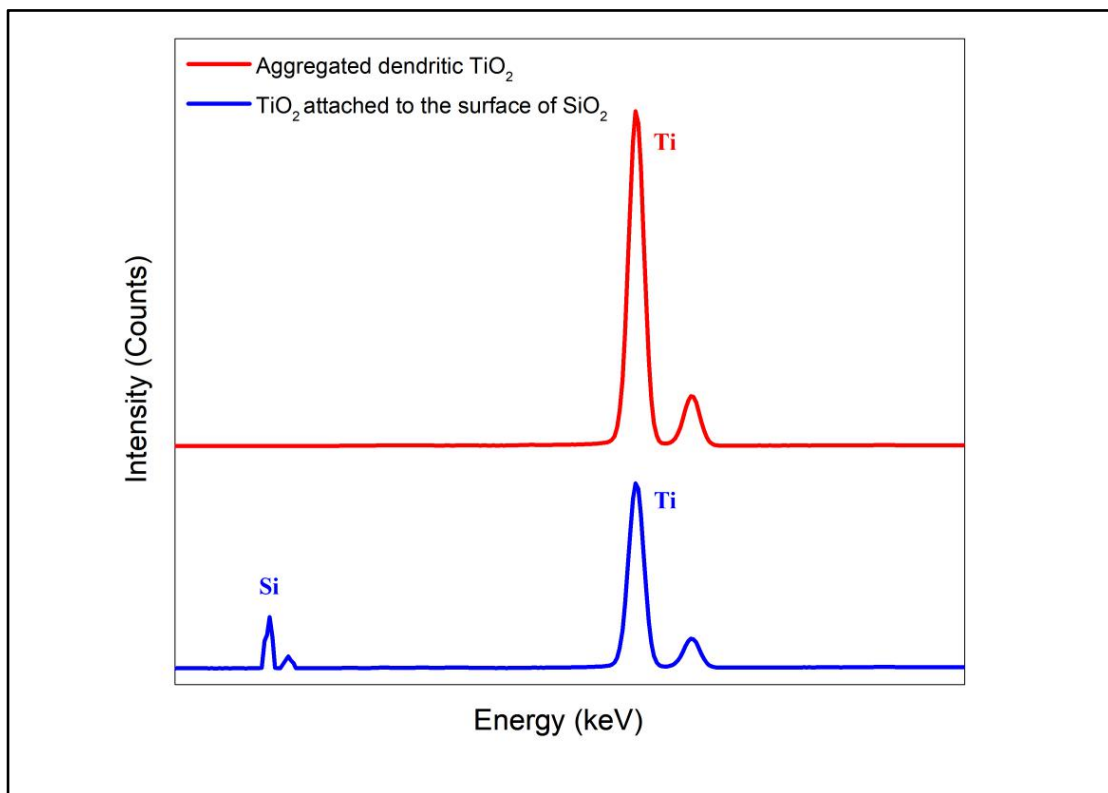


Figure. 3. The XRF of two materials before the experiment. The red curve is aggregated dendritic TiO₂, while the blue curve is TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂.

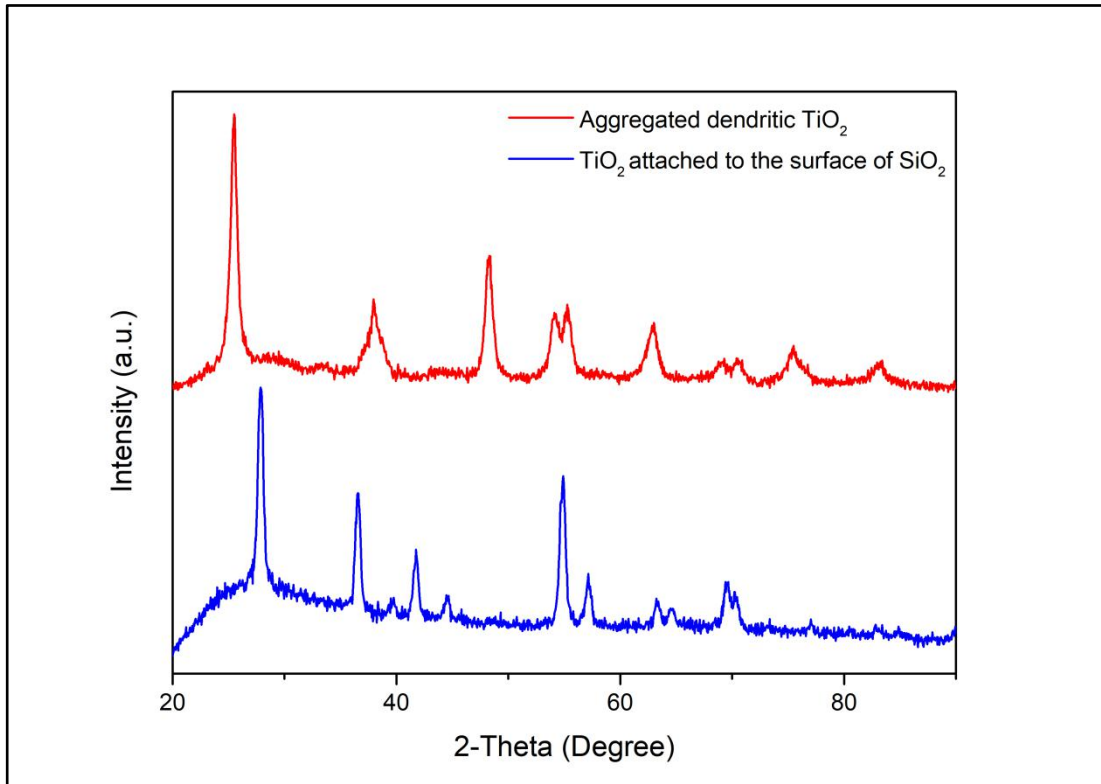
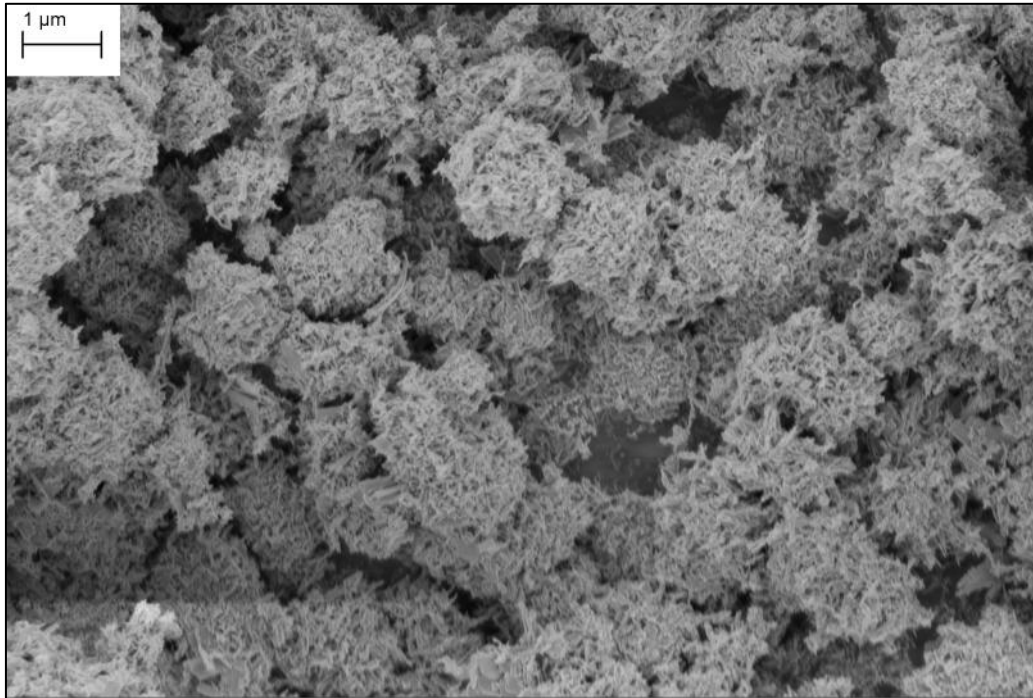
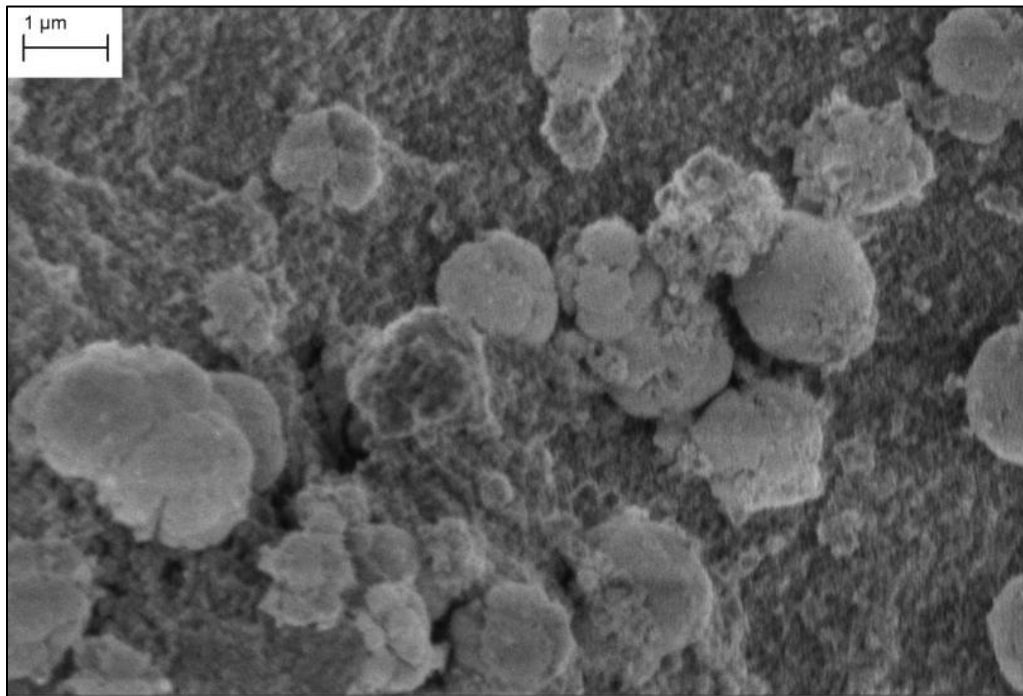


Figure. 4. The XRD pattern of different nano-TiO₂ before the experiment. The red curve means aggregated dendritic TiO₂, and the blue curve is the representative of TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂



(a)



(b)

Figure. 5. Characterization of two nano-TiO₂ observed using SEM. (a) the aggregated dendritic TiO₂, (b) the TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂.

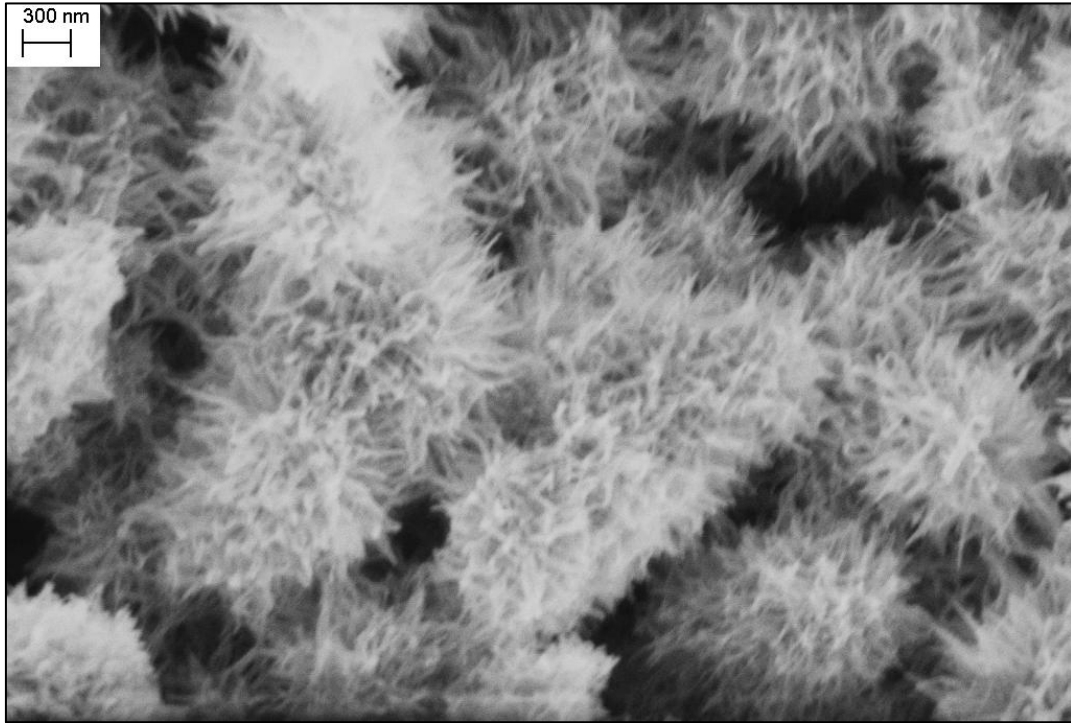


Figure. 6. The SEM characterization of sodium titanate, which was papered for making aggregated dendritic TiO_2 .

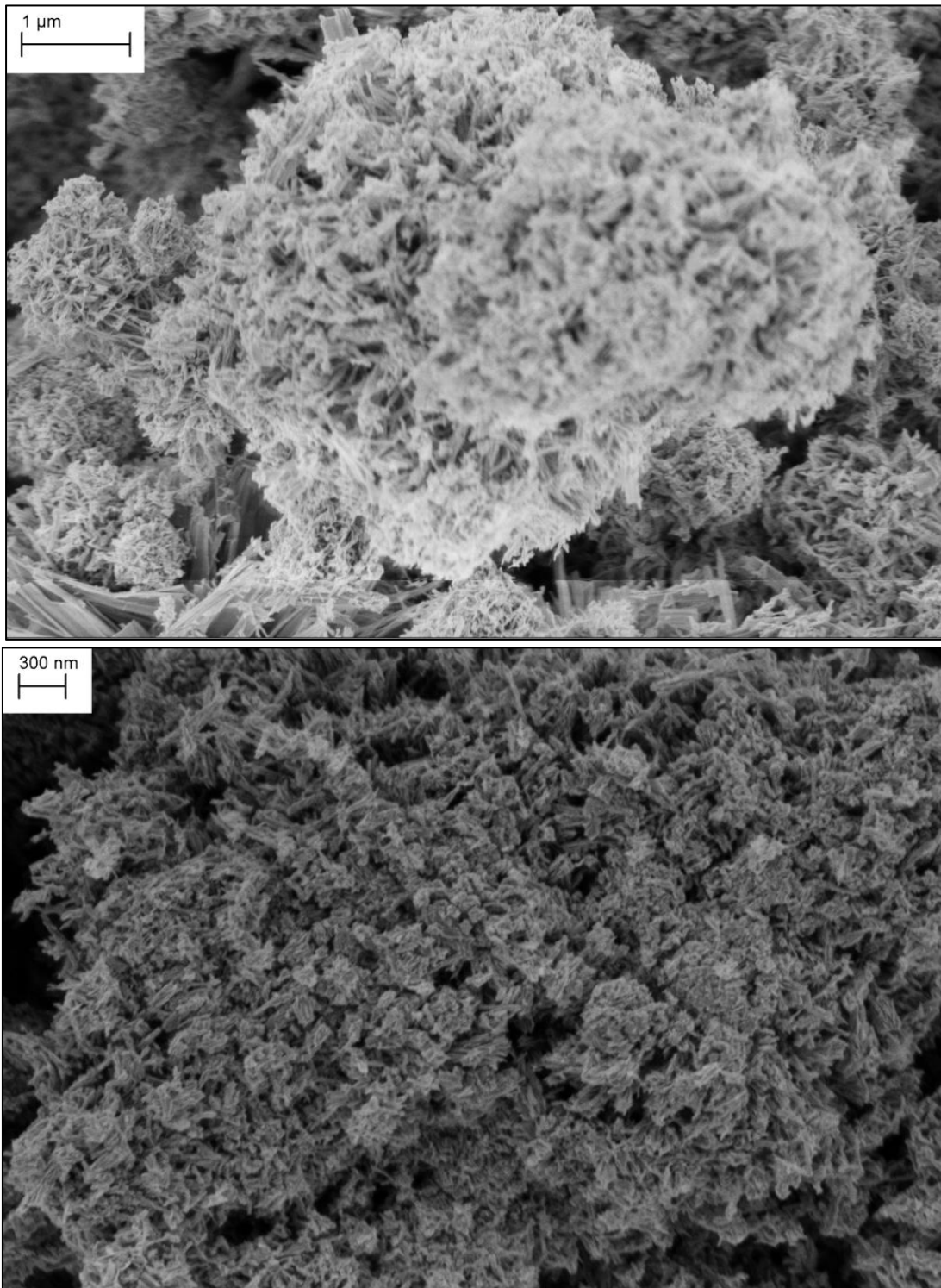


Figure. 7. The SEM observations of aggregated dendritic TiO₂ at different magnifications

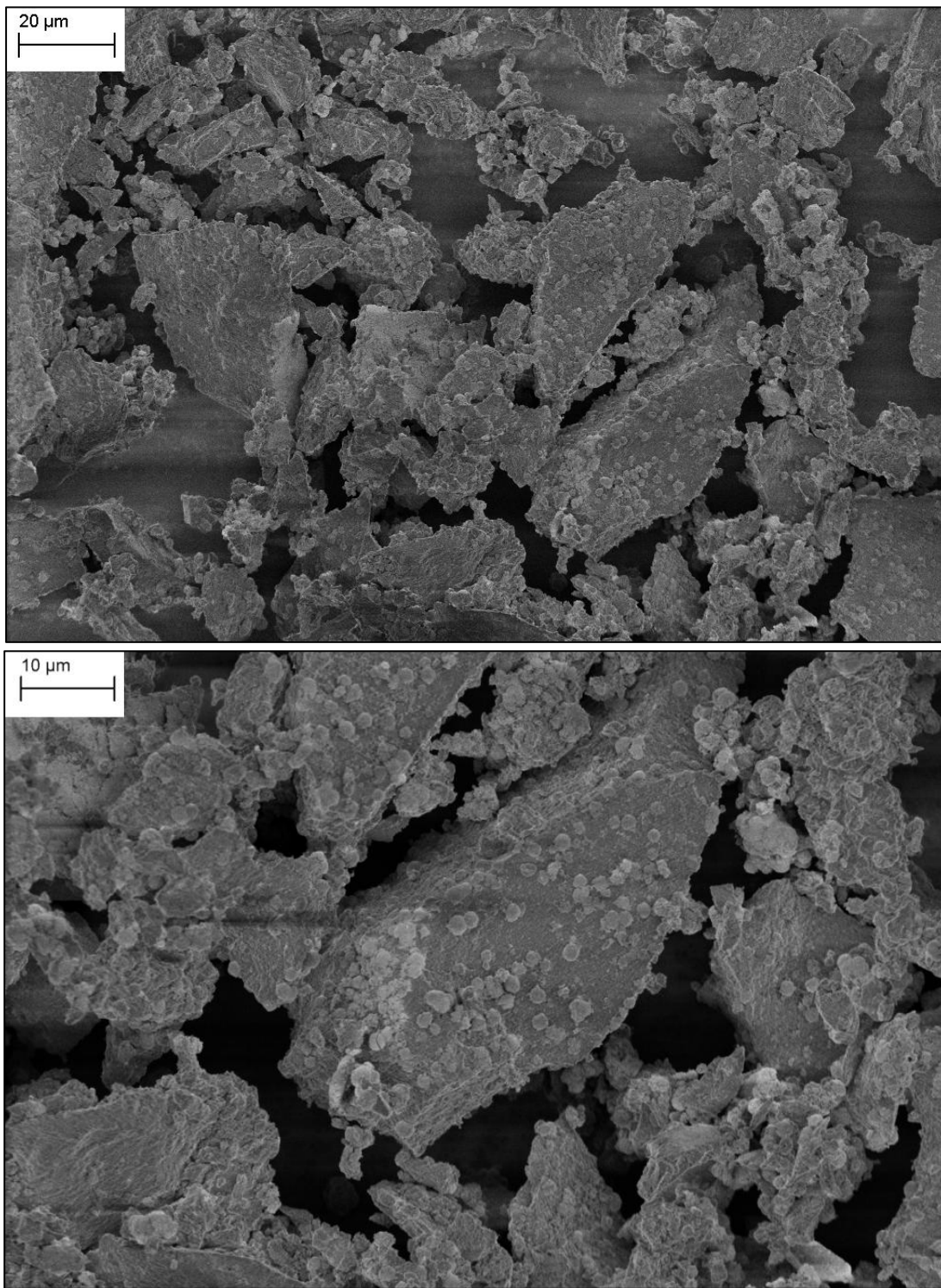


Figure. 8. The SEM observations of TiO_2 which attached to the surface of SiO_2 at different magnifications.

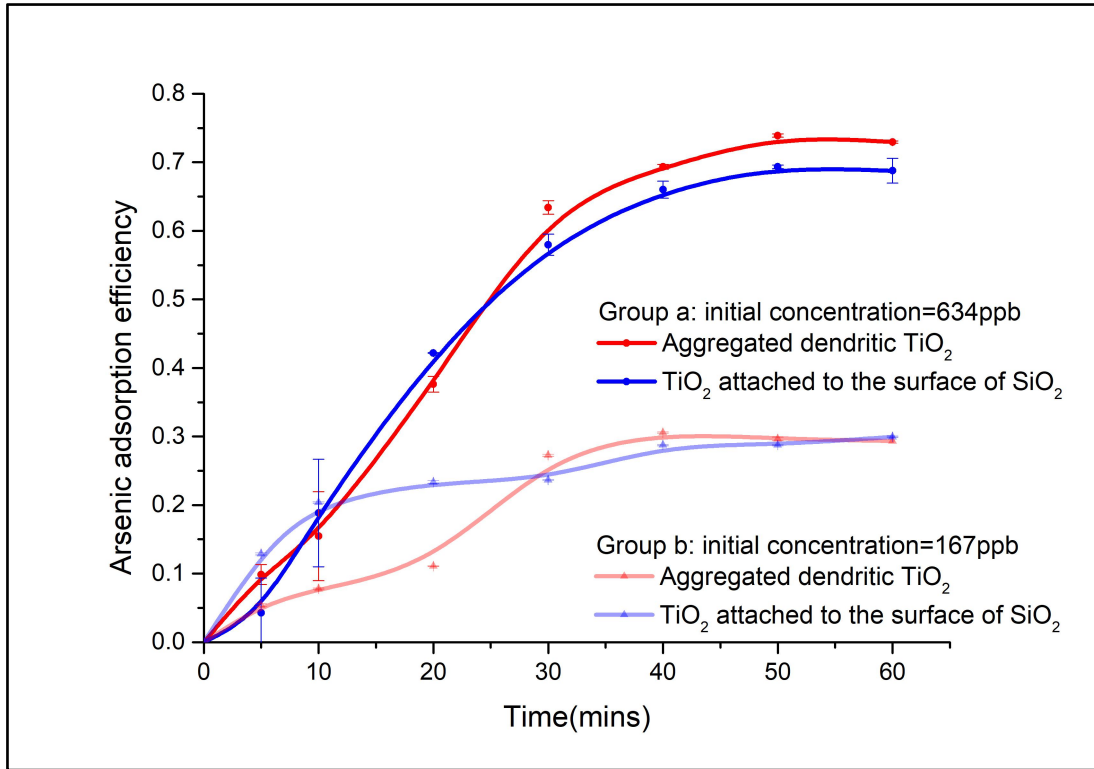
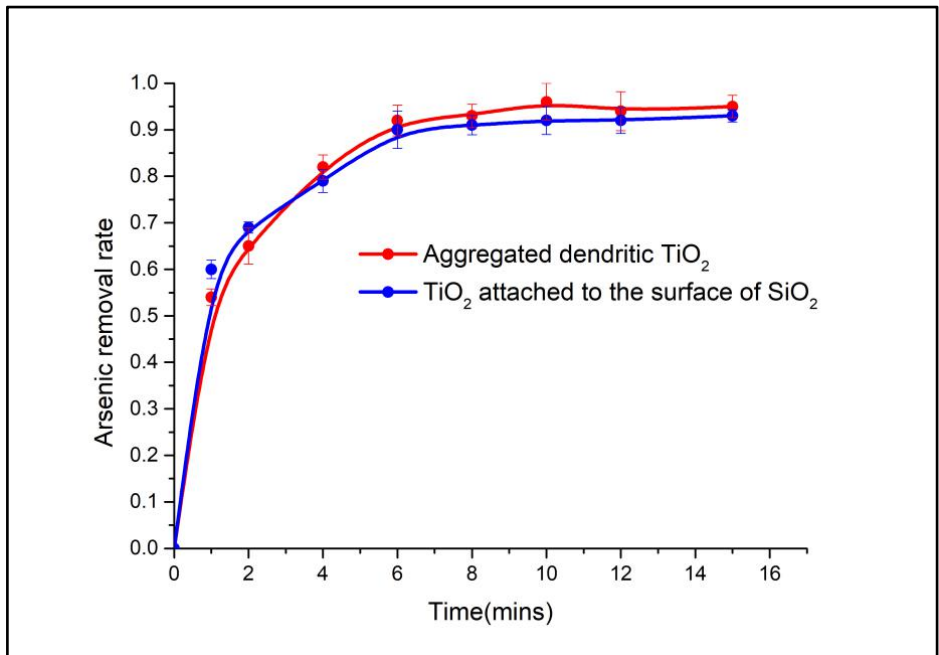
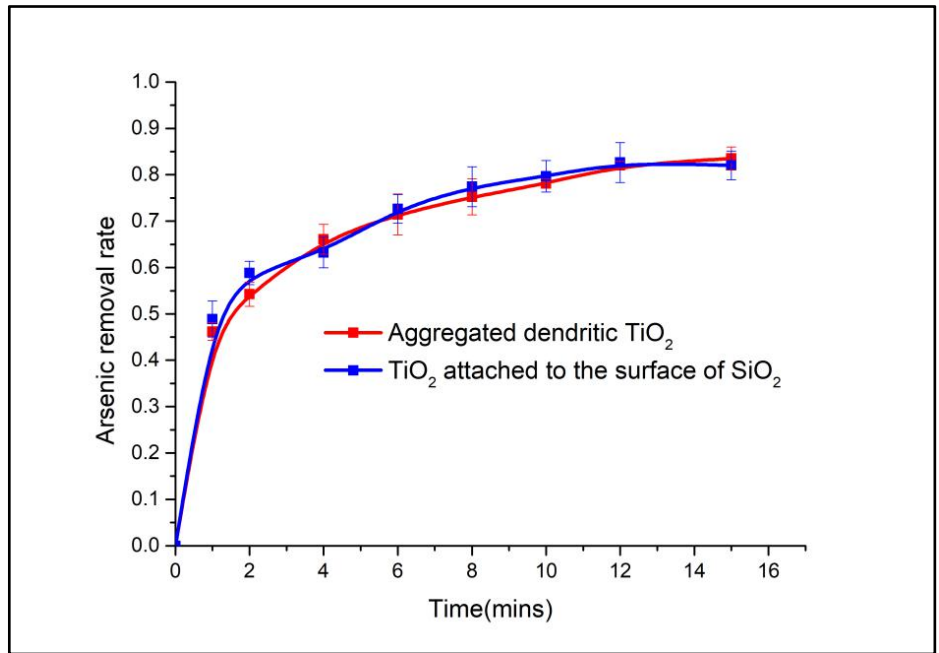


Figure. 9. Adsorption efficiency curve of different arsenic concentrations. The red curve means aggregated dendritic TiO₂, and the blue curve is the representative of TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂. and the Group a and b represent arsenic concentrations of 634ppb and 167ppb, respectively.

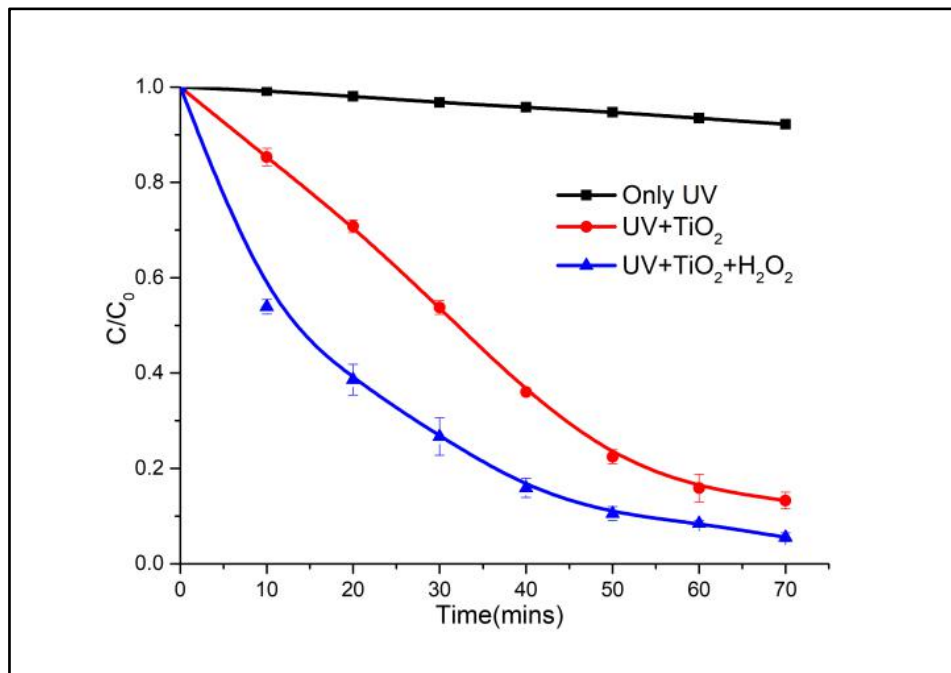


(a)

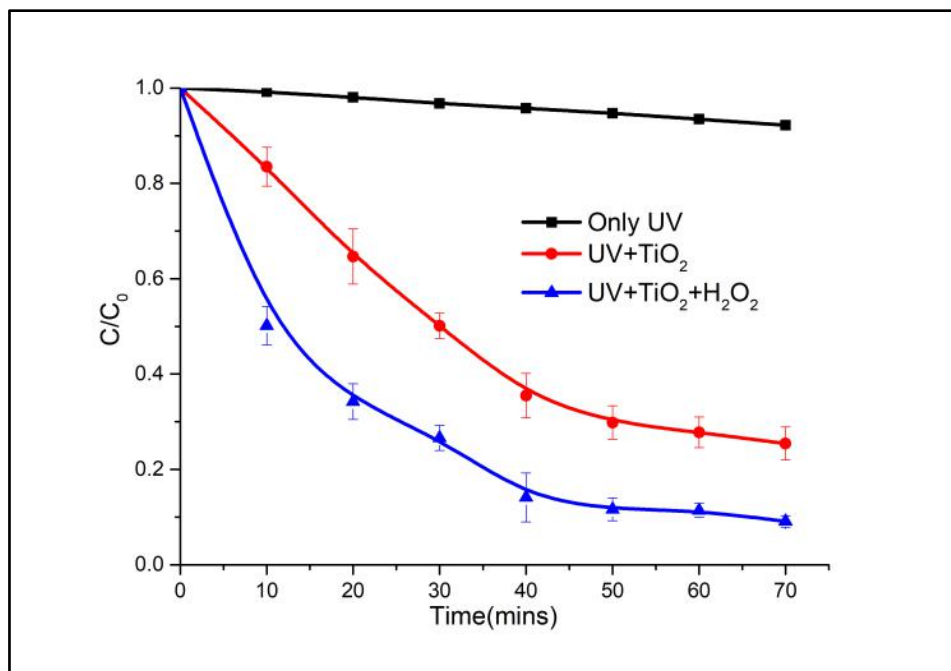


(b)

Figure. 10. Arsenic removal rate on the laboratory injection system. The red curve is aggregated dendritic TiO_2 , and the blue curve is TiO_2 attached to the surface of SiO_2 . (a) The initial concentration of arsenic solution is 634ppb, and (b) is 167ppb.



(a)



(b)

Figure. 11. The total BTEX degradation efficiencies in three different condition. (a) is aggregated dendritic TiO₂, and (b) is TiO₂ attached to the surface of SiO₂. C₀=4.25ppm

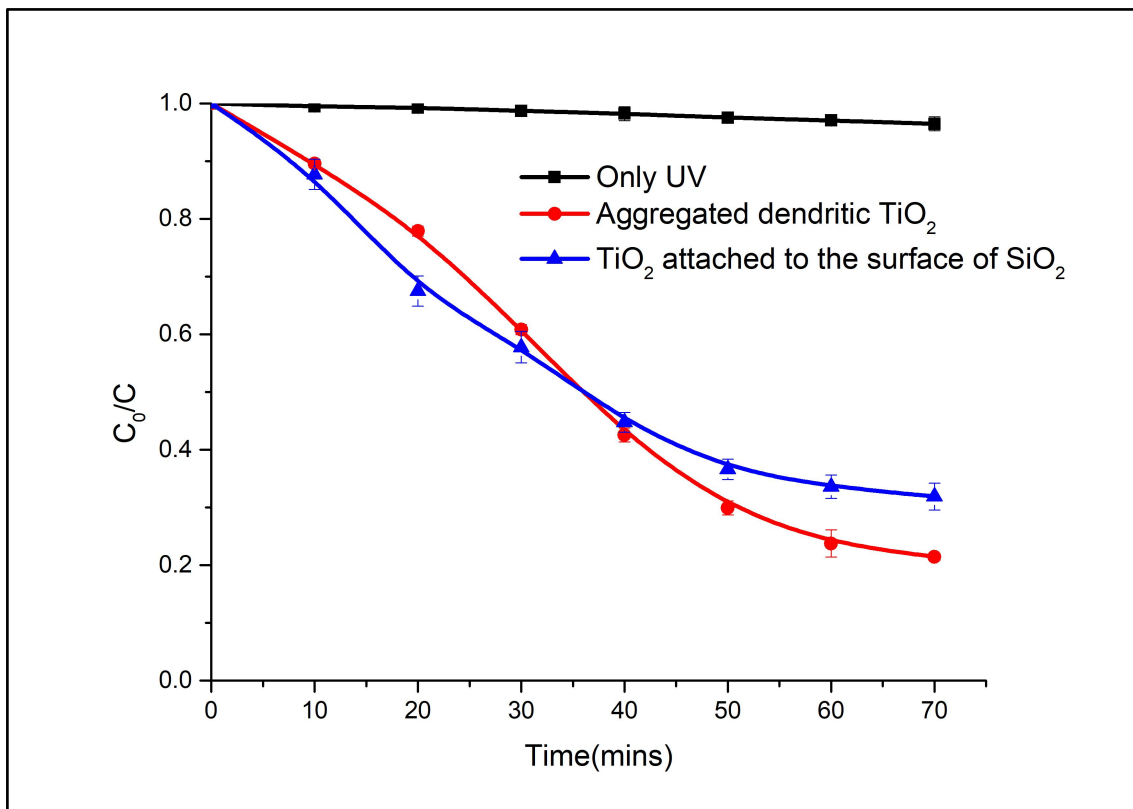
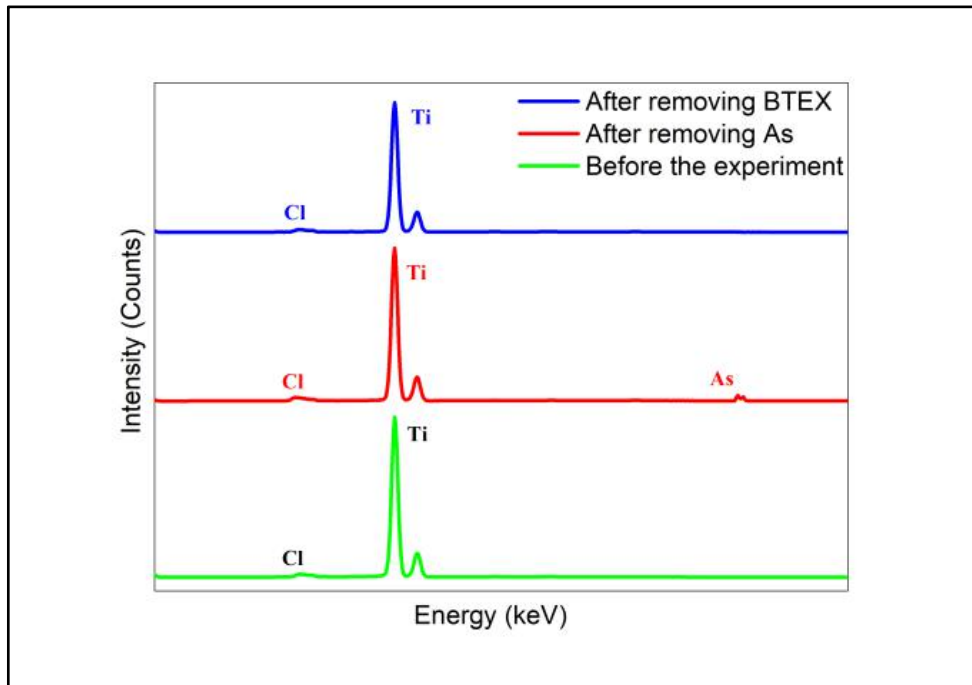
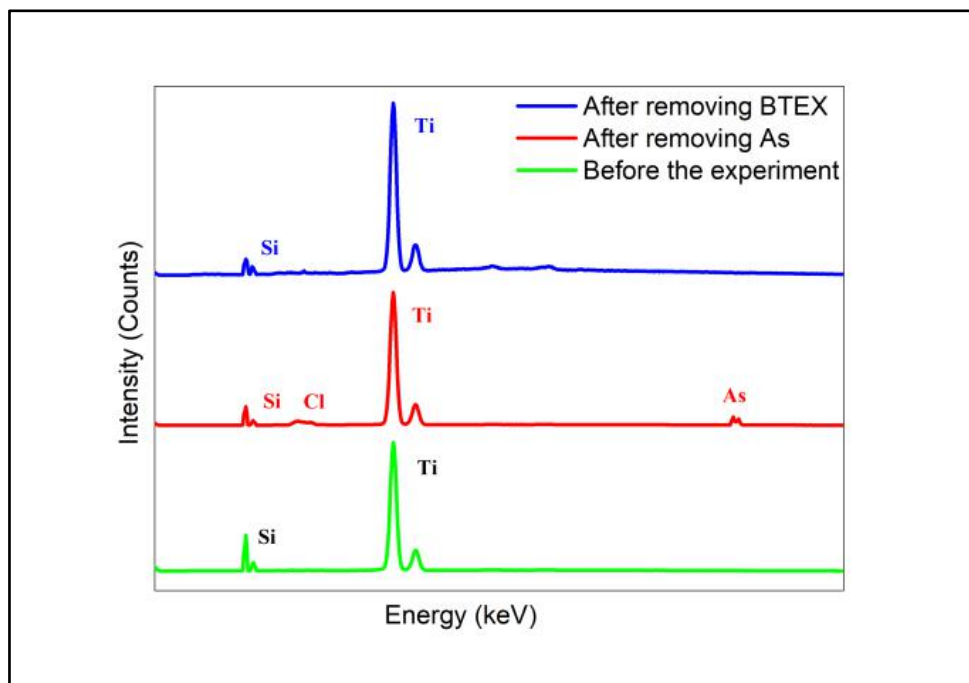


Figure. 12. The removal efficiencies for high total BTEX concentration ($C_0=10.17\text{ppm}$).

The red curve is aggregated dendritic TiO_2 , while the blue curve means TiO_2 attached to the surface of SiO_2 .



(a)



(b)

Figure. 13. XRF diagram before and after the experiment. (a) the XRF of the aggregated dendritic TiO_2 , (b) the XRF of TiO_2 attached to the surface of SiO_2 .

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Sheng Yin was born in Wuhan, China in 1994. He received his bachelor's degree in environmental engineering from the Wuhan Institute of Technology in Fall 2016. He earned the master's degree in Agricultural, Environmental, and Sustainability Sciences under School of Earth, Environmental and Marine Sciences from the University of Texas Rio Grande Valley in Summer 2019. He will be pursuing his Ph.D. degree in Environmental Engineering and Science or Environmental Chemistry in Fall 2019 (school TBD). He aims to continue his research in the applications engineered materials for environmental remediation and water treatments.

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