

Chapter 13

Titania–Montmorillonite for the Photocatalytic Removal of Contaminants from Water: Adsorb & Shuttle Process



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Abstract Recently, TiO₂–Montmorillonite-based composites have attracted a great deal of attention as efficient photocatalysts for the degradation/reduction of organic contaminants and heavy metals in waters and wastewaters. It can be claimed that the most popular benefits of using TiO₂–Montmorillonite photocatalysts are an enhancement in the photocatalytic removal of contaminants due to their high adsorption capacity, high photocatalytic activity of nanoscaled TiO₂ deposited on Montmorillonite surface and low costs. Otherwise, the use of naked nanoscaled TiO₂ is not recommended because of its low adsorption ability, fast agglomeration in water and due to the issue of recovery of such small particles from water. Differently from naked TiO₂, the photocatalytic removal of contaminants by TiO₂–Montmorillonite is enhanced through the mechanism so-called Adsorb & Shuttle (A&S) which is based on the use of highly adsorbing domains to increase the quantity of contaminants near TiO₂ photocatalytic sites. Adsorb & Shuttle process can be affected by TiO₂–Montmorillonite characteristics (i.e. TiO₂ loading, surface area, pore size and degree of TiO₂ crystallinity) as well as the type of contaminant. In this chapter, the following points will be highlighted: (i) mechanisms of TiO₂ photocatalysis for the removal of organic contaminants and heavy metals, (ii) recent progress on synthesis of TiO₂–Montmorillonite photocatalysts via different methods and (iii) recent discussions regarding the photocatalytic removal of contaminants by TiO₂–Montmorillonite composites.

Keywords TiO₂–Montmorillonite · Photocatalysis · Adsorb & Shuttle · Water remediation · Organic contaminants · Heavy metals

13.1 Introduction

Due to the dramatic increase in population growth and agricultural and industrialization activities, water demand has increased up to ninefold in the twentieth century (Shenvi et al. 2015). Many countries are expected to face water crisis in the next decades. Thereby, water purification and reuse have become one of the major global concerns in scientific community. Researchers are developing water purification technologies that might be environmentally friendly, economical, and efficient. Among these technologies, the photocatalysis has been considered as one of the most efficient and low-cost processes for water decontamination (Malato et al. 2009; Zheng et al. 2013; Shenvi et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2018). Titanium dioxide has been extensively in environmental remediation due to its desirable photocatalytic activity, high photostability, non-toxicity, low cost and biocompatibility (Hashimoto et al. 2005; Nakata and Fujishima 2012; Fagan et al. 2016; Waqas et al. 2017). The photocatalysis process is focused on the absorption of UV light by TiO₂ leading to photoexcite the electrons from the valence band to conduction band; therefore, electron/hole pair charges will be formed at the surface of TiO₂. Organic pollutants can be directly degraded by positive holes at the valence band or by the

produced hydroxyl radicals via H_2O /positive holes reaction, while the reduction of heavy metals to lower/higher metallic states occurs at the conduction band of TiO_2 by the photogenerated electrons in the presence of hole scavenger molecules (Lee and Park 2013, Lu 2013, Djellabi et al. 2014, Djellabi and Ghorab 2015a, b, Litter 2015, Djellabi et al. 2016a, b, c, Djellabi et al. 2017, Litter 2017, Marinho et al. 2018).

One of the major obstacles facing the implementation of photocatalysis stems from the fact that the photocatalytic removal of pollutants from water depends on adsorption rate of pollutants on the photocatalyst surface. Therefore, it is difficult to photodecompose many hazardous pollutants that hardly adsorb on TiO_2 surface, due to poor affinity of TiO_2 for hydrophobic organic substances. Additionally, industrial wastewaters usually contain several organic and inorganic pollutants which compete for the adsorption sites of the TiO_2 surface, thus inhibiting the efficiency of the process. On the other hand, the photo-oxidation of single organic pollutant can produce many harmful by-products/intermediates that could not be adsorbed on TiO_2 surface for further degradation. It is worth noting that, in practice, the use of nanoscale TiO_2 particles is not recommended due to the issue of recovery of such fine particles from water, and also these nanoscale particles are prone to agglomerate in water limiting the photoactivity. In order to overcome drawbacks of commercial TiO_2 , many offers have been made to design new composite photocatalysts via several strategies including metal/non-metal doping, sensitization and coupling of semiconductors. In particular, the combination of TiO_2 nanoparticles with porous adsorbent materials has been proved to be a successful strategy for enhancing the photocatalytic efficiency as reported by several authors (Bhattacharyya et al. 2004; Romero et al. 2006; Zou et al. 2006; Yahiro et al. 2007; Mahalakshmi et al. 2009; Yang et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2009; Manova et al. 2010; Yu et al. 2012; Vicente et al. 2013; Djellabi et al. 2014; Du and Zheng 2014; Wang et al. 2014; Belver et al. 2015; Yang et al. 2015; Belver et al. 2016; López-Muñoz et al. 2016; Belver et al. 2017; Gebru and Das 2017; Petronella et al. 2017; Srikanth et al. 2017; MiarAlipour et al. 2018). Among these minerals, Montmorillonite has been widely used. Montmorillonite contains layered structure and exhibits very high porosity and high external and internal surface area and large CE capacity which allow the adsorption of organic or metallic pollutants via electrostatic or ion exchange within its inter-laminar spaces (Kameshima et al. 2009a; Chen et al. 2012). It is important to point out that the introduction of TiO_2 nanoparticles into layered Montmorillonite enhances the photocatalytic activity due to synergistic effects resulting from the combination of adsorbent and TiO_2 . On the other hand, the Montmorillonite can stabilize TiO_2 nanoparticles and increase the concentration of pollutants into the surface of the composite leading to facilitate their degradation/reduction by the photoactive TiO_2 particles. Certain aspects regarding the recent progress on synthesis and application of TiO_2 –Montmorillonite for water remediation will be highlighted in the chapter.

13.2 Mechanism of TiO₂ Photocatalysis for Water Treatment

The photonic and mechanistic pathways underlying the phenomenon of TiO₂ photocatalysis for water/air remediation have been extensively investigated and reported (Herrmann 1999; Fujishima et al. 2000; Rauf and Ashraf 2009; Byrne et al. 2017). Photocatalysis is a green strategy that can be employed for environment remediation and energy production using semiconductor photocatalysts under light irradiation. As above-mentioned, titanium dioxide semiconductor (TiO₂) has been largely applied because of its special physical and photonic characteristics. When TiO₂ surface is irradiated by photon energy ($h\nu$) of higher than or equal to TiO₂ band gap energy, which is known to be 3.2 eV (anatase) or 3.0 eV (rutile), photo-induced electrons/positive holes changes will be formed at the surface of TiO₂ via the excitation of electrons from the valence band (VB) to conduction band (CB) in femtoseconds. Figure 13.1 illustrates the possible pathways for the production of electron/hole pairs on TiO₂ particle. For TiO₂ case, usually, the photonic excitation requests a light wavelength < 400 nm. A positively charged empty valence band will be produced when the electron moves to the conduction band. Different redox reactions occur at the surface of photoexcited TiO₂ which are responsible for the oxidation and reduction of pollutants and widely reported as follows:

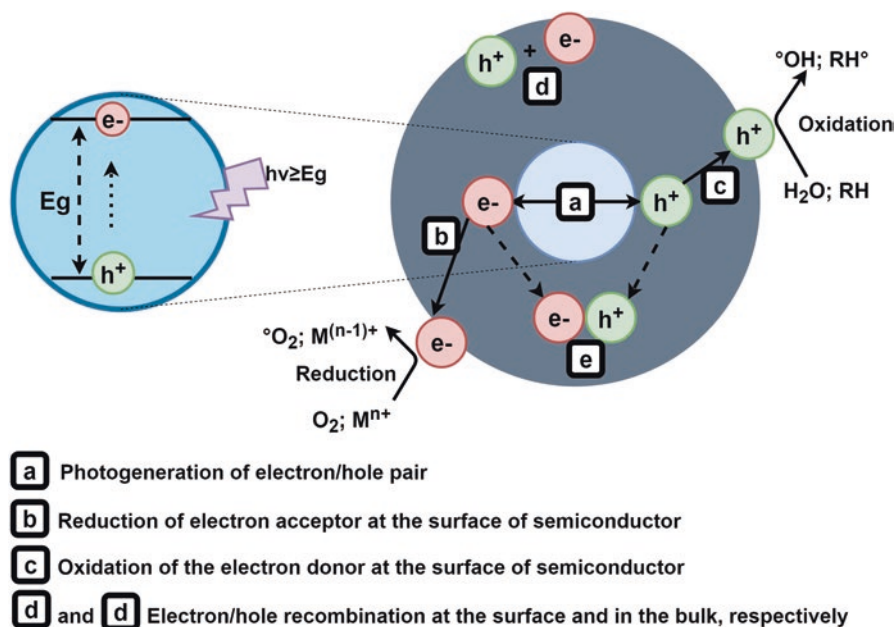
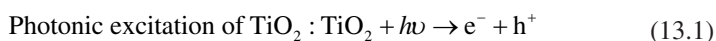
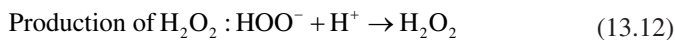
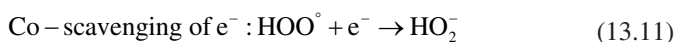
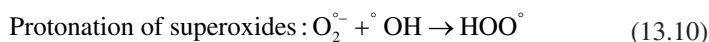
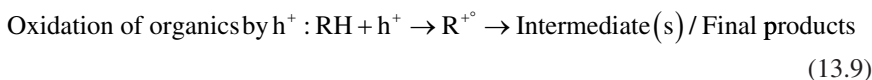
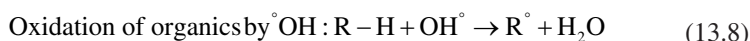
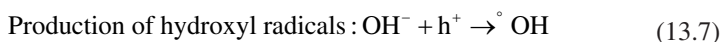
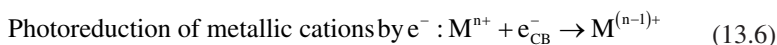
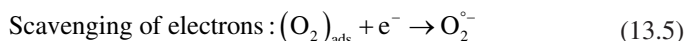
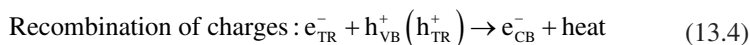
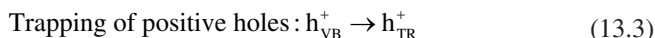
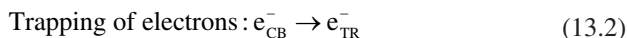


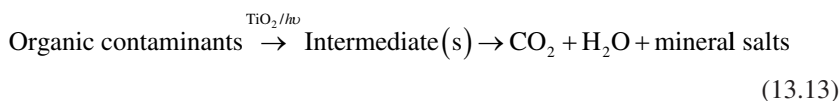
Fig. 13.1 Mechanistic pathways occurring at the photoexcited semiconductor particle



e_{TR}^- and h_{TR}^+ in (Eq. 13.4) show the trapping of electrons at the conduction and the holes at the valence band, respectively. It is important to note that the trapping of charges takes place at the surface of the semiconductor, while their recombination does not occur immediately after the photonic excitation (Fujishima et al. 2000). Without the presence of electron scavengers such as oxygen in the medium, the photogenerated electrons can easily recombine with the positive holes accompanying with dissipation of heat energy. Therefore, in order to carry out the photocatalysis action, the presence of electrons acceptor is imperative to avoid the quick electron/hole recombination (enhanced separation of charges ensures an efficient photocatalytic reaction). As shown in Eq. 13.5, the presence of oxygen molecules inhibits the combination of electron/hole pair charges; therefore, the production of superoxides radical $\text{}^{\circ}\text{O}_2^-$ takes place. Afterwards, $\text{}^{\circ}\text{O}_2^-$ species can be further protonated to produce the hydroperoxyl radical HOO° and then H_2O_2 as indicated in Eqs. 13.10, 13.11 and 13.12. It was reported that HOO° species may also play the role of electrons scavenging at the conduction band which enhances the separation charges. It was deduced that all photocatalytic pathways occur because of the presence of both dissolved oxygen (DO) and water molecules to balance the redox reactions at the surface of the semiconductor. In the absence of water, the highly reactive hydroxyl radicals ($\text{}^{\circ}\text{OH}$) can not be produced by the positive holes which limits the oxidation of organic pollutants. Some researchers have reported that the degradation of organics by photocatalytic action does not take place without H_2O

molecules. However, Byrne and Eggins reported that some small organic molecules (e.g., oxalate and formic acid) can be oxidized by photocatalytic system without water (Byrne and Eggins 1998).

While h_{TR}^+ has been extensively considered to be a powerful oxidant (+1.0 to +3.5 V against NHE) for the degradation of organic species directly without hydroxyl radicals formation step, this pathway is still quite inconclusive. However, e_{TR}^- is known to be a good reductant (+0.5 to -1.5 V against NHE), which depends on the kind of the semiconductor as well as the reaction condition. Because the photocatalytic oxidation and reduction pathways take place mainly at the surface of the photoexcited semiconductor, the comprehension of the involved steps during the oxidation of organic pollutants is very important in the formulation of kinetic expression. Overall, the degradation of organics usually includes the formation by-products (intermediates) and further mineralized to CO_2 and H_2O as shown in (Eq. 13.13).



Therefore, photocatalysis reaction can be divided into five steps as reported by Fogler and Herrmann (Fogler 2006; Herrmann 1999), as schematically revealed in Fig. 13.2:

1. Transfer of the pollutant species from the solution to the surface of the semiconductor.
2. Pollutant species adsorption into the surface of the photoexcited semiconductor.
3. The photocatalytic reaction takes place for the adsorbed phase at the surface of the photoexcited semiconductor (oxidation of organics and reduction of heavy metals).
4. Desorption of the organics by-products or metallic/metal species from the surface of the semiconductor.
5. Mass transfer of the intermediate(s) from the interface domain to the bulk solution. However, by-products could also be adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface.

Beside the oxidation of organics by photocatalytic action, photocatalytic removal of metal ions from solution by different photocatalysts has attracted much attention recently. The reduction of several metallic cations was investigated and reported in the literature which includes Ag^+ , Au^{3+} , Cd^{2+} , Cr^{6+} , Cu^{2+} , Fe^{3+} , Hg^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , Pb^{2+} , Pt^{4+} , Rh^{3+} , Tl^+ , U^{6+} , Zn^{2+} and As^{3+} (Litter 1999; Kajitvichyanukul et al. 2002; Ruvarac-Bugarčić et al. 2005; Cristante et al. 2006; Kabra et al. 2008; Murruni et al. 2008; Williams et al. 2008; Litter 2009; López-Muñoz et al. 2009; Rodríguez et al. 2010; Lenzi et al. 2011; Singh and Chaudhary 2013; Mahlamvana and Kriek 2014; Mohamed and Salam 2014; Mahlamvana and Kriek 2015; Anggraini et al. 2016; Saien et al. 2016; Guo et al. 2017; Lee et al. 2017; Fontana et al. 2018; Marinho et al. 2018). It is important to note that the photocatalytic ability of a semiconductor such as TiO_2 for the reduction of metal cation can be obtained usually from the correlations of the metal cation redox potentials relative to the TiO_2 conduction band edge, as shown in Fig. 13.3. Many researchers have reported that these potentials can be

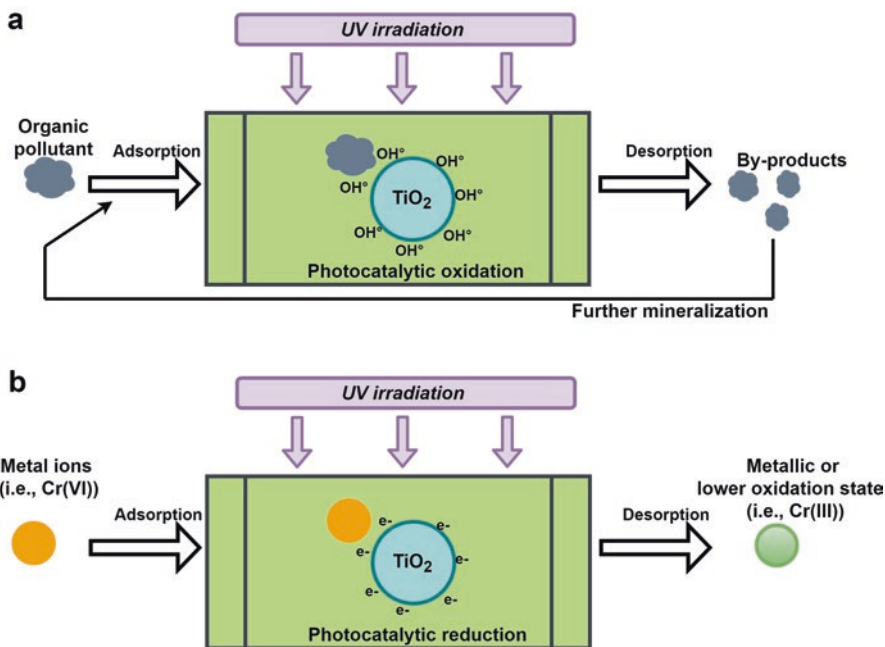
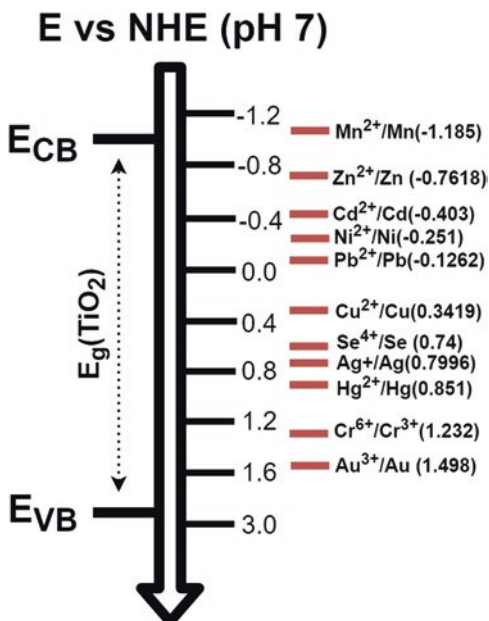


Fig. 13.2 Steps in heterogeneous photocatalytic reaction. (a) Oxidation of organic pollutants, (b) reduction of metal cations

Fig. 13.3 Positions of CB and VB edges of TiO₂ relative to the standard potentials of several redox couples



shifted by pH or by solution conditions such as the concentration of species and the presence of co-adsorbates. The deposition of produced metal species after the photoreduction reaction on the photocatalyst surface can take place (Djellabi et al. 2016a, b, c). Moreover, in order to ensure an efficient reduction of metal cations, the addition of hole scavenger molecules (sacrificial electron donor) to the solution is very important. The oxidation of organic molecules on the photocatalyst surface allows the separation of electrons for metal cation reduction, as well as inhibits the reoxidation of metal cation. Furthermore, the choice of the hole scavenger molecule (usually a small organic molecule) is a key parameter, since the efficiency of metal cation reduction depends on the balancing oxidation reaction (Tan et al. 2003; Djellabi and Ghorab 2015a, b; Djellabi et al. 2016a, b, c). In addition, several groups have reported that the coordinated ligands to a metal cation such as EDTA can play the role of hole scavenger for the photocatalytic reduction of metal cations.

The mechanisms of metal cations photoreduction by TiO_2 can occur by direct or indirect reduction pathways (Fig. 13.4). The direct reduction takes place via the photogenerated electrons at the CB of the photocatalyst, in which, the conduction band edge of the photocatalyst must be more negative than the $\text{M}^{n+}/\text{M}^{(n-1)+}$ redox potential. When the metal cation valance charges are higher than 1 (i.e. Cr(VI)), single-electron transfer versus multiple-electron transfer pathways are still not clear. Testa et al. (Testa et al. 2001; Testa et al. 2004) have reported that, via EPR analysis, the single-electron transfer can take place for the photoreduction of Cr(VI) by photocatalysis, in which the reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) passes by the formation of metastable Cr(V) . While most researchers envision the direct transfer from CB of TiO_2 to metal cation, some groups (Marinho et al. 2017) have reported that indirect reduction of metal cation could also be possible. They suggested that species, such

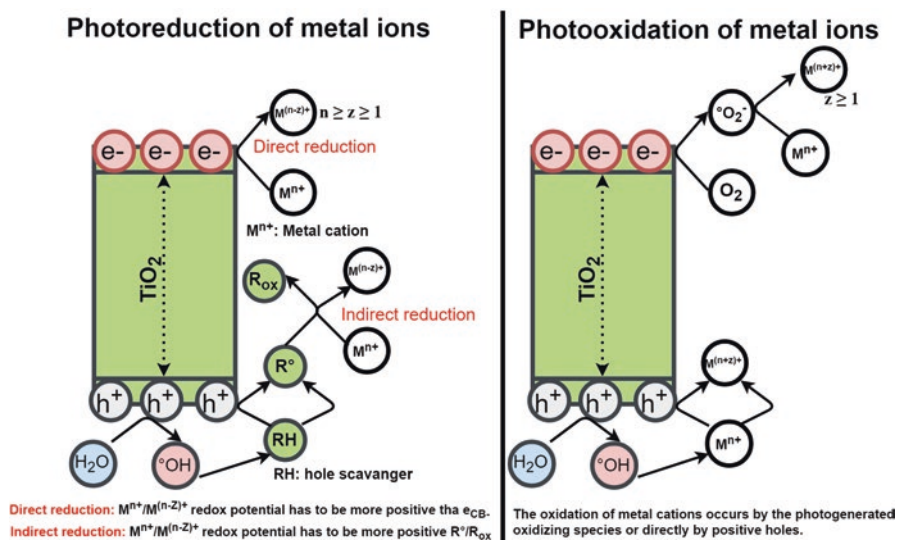


Fig. 13.4 Pathways of photocatalytic reduction and oxidation of metal ions on TiO_2

as $\text{CO}_2^{\cdot-}$ ($E_0(\text{CO}_2/\text{CO}_2^{\cdot-}) \approx -2.0$ V), produced through the oxidation of electron donor molecules (hole scavengers) can reduce some metal cations. It is claimed that the indirect electron transfer system occurs independently of the redox potential of the metal ions. Additionally, the oxidation of metal cations, which can reach a higher oxidation state such as As(III) to As(V), can also occur by the photogenerated oxidizing species or directly by positive holes at the conduction band (Fig. 13.4).

13.3 TiO_2 –Montmorillonite-Based Composites

Aluminosilicate clay minerals have been widely used as adsorbents and to immobilize TiO_2 nanoparticles for water and wastewater purification. They are inexpensive, abundantly available and non-toxic and have good sorption properties and ion-exchange potential for pollutants (Özcan et al. 2005). They possess a wide pore size distribution, ranging from micro- (<20 Å) to mesopores (20–500 Å). The high porosity of these minerals is produced from fractures in the particle surfaces, staggered layer edges, whereas spaces are generated by overlapping of stacked layers and interlayer areas (Rutherford et al. 1997). The incorporation of various species and nanoparticles into the interlayer space allows aluminosilicates to be utilized as new functional materials (Yariv 2002). The basic structure of aluminosilicate minerals consists of a tetrahedral sheet of polymerized silica and octahedral sheet of alumina. The alumina octahedra can polymerize in two dimensions by sharing four O atoms, in which two oxygen atoms are left unshared, providing a 2- negative charge. This negative charge is counterbalanced by hydrated cations, e.g. Na^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , etc., which are located in the interlamellar space. Such interlamellar cations are typically exchangeable, while the quantity of exchangeable cations shows the cation-exchange capacity (CEC) of the clay minerals. The Montmorillonites are aluminosilicate minerals which possess 2:1 layer phyllosilicates: two Si tetrahedral sheets are separated by one Al octahedral sheet (T-O-T) (Fig. 13.5). The isomorphic exchanges in the sheets, mostly in octahedral ones for Montmorillonite clays, create deficits of positive electric charges (Volzone et al. 2002). A fundamental

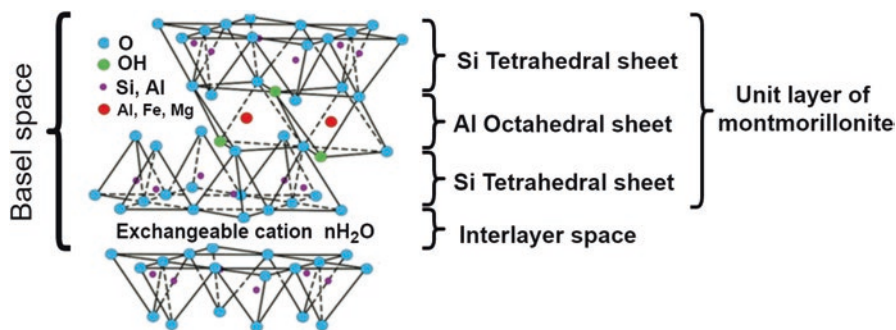


Fig. 13.5 Structure of Montmorillonite

characteristic of Montmorillonite is to absorb water and expand. Therefore, the volume of Montmorillonite increases, and the swelling pressure occurs (Fig. 13.6). The swelling behaviour of Montmorillonite is produced due to two mechanisms defined as crystalline swelling and osmotic swelling. These mechanisms work differently depending on the degree of hydration and the nature of cation in the interlayers.

In recent years, aluminosilicates, especially Montmorillonite, have been widely used as supports of TiO_2 for photocatalytic water treatment. Insertion of TiO_2 into aluminosilicates not only enhances the elimination of organic/inorganic pollutants via simple adsorption due to their high adsorption capabilities but also enhances the overall photocatalytic efficiency by increasing the concentration of species to be oxidized or reduced by active TiO_2 sites. Furthermore, the introduction of TiO_2 particles into the interlayers of mineral clay leads to the formation of well-distributed TiO_2 nanoparticles with small size which increases the photocatalytic efficiency (Fig. 13.7). In addition, clay-based photocatalysts are easy to separate from the solution after the photocatalytic treatment. In general, an effective TiO_2 support (i) must be chemically

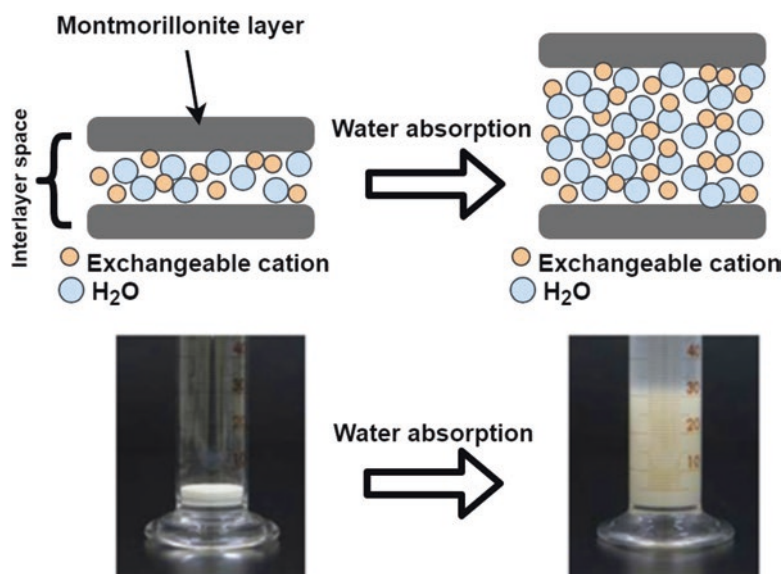


Fig. 13.6 Swelling of Montmorillonite



Fig. 13.7 Main advantages of TiO_2 -Montmorillonite-based composites compared to TiO_2

inert, (ii) can form bonds with titanium dioxide without diminishing its photoactivity, (iii) has a large surface area and (iv) must be easy to remove after treatment.

13.3.1 Synthesis Methods

For the synthesis of TiO_2 -clay/adsorbent-based photocatalysts, there are two ways (Fig. 13.8): (i) insertion/diffusion of TiO_2 nanoparticles powder (commercial or pre-synthesized) into material interlayers by diffusion and (ii) in situ synthesis of TiO_2 deposited into either material interlayers or on the external surface. For the in situ synthesis, the most applied, there are many techniques such as sol-gel, impregnation, chemical vapour deposition and hydrothermal. Various TiO_2 –Montmorillonite have been synthesized using different methods for the photocatalytic removal of organics and heavy metals, and a brief comparison is shown in Table 13.1.

13.3.1.1 Sol-gel Method

Sol-gel has been widely used to design of TiO_2 /porous support composites. In general, it involves hydrolysis polymerization, followed by drying and thermal treatment steps. The pillaring ways for the synthesis of pillared TiO_2 /porous support are usually included in three steps: (i) Ti(VI) -containing compound is hydrolyzed to get Ti(OH)_4 sol particles; (ii) intercalation of Ti(OH)_4 sol particles into the Montmorillonite interlayers; and (iii) the mixture then is dried and calcined to transform the metal polyoxocations into TiO_2 pillars. However, most of Ti(OH)_4 colloidal could not introduce into the interlayer space of Montmorillonite and remained on the external surface, in which TiO_2 –Montmorillonite sandwiched structure cannot be obtained. To solve this problem, many research groups have used organic surfactants in order to homogeneously intercalate TiO_2 nanoparticles within the interlayer space of Montmorillonite (Fig. 13.9). These surfactants usually facilitate

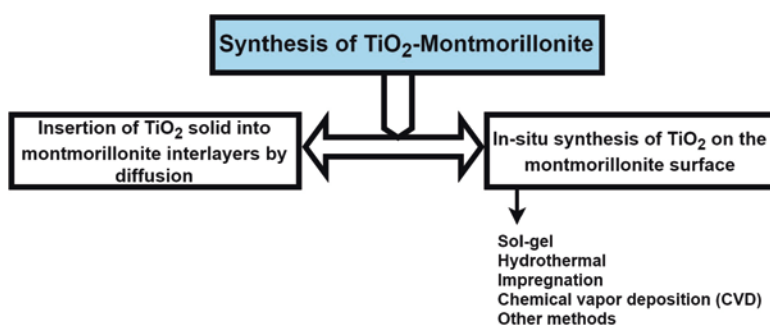


Fig. 13.8 Commonly used techniques for the synthesis of TiO_2 –Montmorillonite composites

Table 13.1 TiO₂–Montmorillonite-based composites for the photocatalytic water remediation

Photocatalyst	Synthesis method	Light	Pollutant	References
TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal method with pH switching	UV	Methyl orange	Huo et al. (2018)
TiO ₂ –M	Solid diffusion	UV	Methylene blue	Liang et al. (2017)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	1,4-Dioxane	Kameshima et al. (2009a)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	As(V), As(III)	Li et al. (2012)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Hg(II)	Dou et al. (2011a, b)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Methylene blue	Chen et al. (2012)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel using conventional heating and microwave heating	UV	Solophenyl red 3BL	Damardji et al. (2009a, b)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Di-n-butyl phthalate	Ooka et al. (2003)
			Diethyl phthalate	
			Dimethyl phthalate	
			Bisphenol-A	
M ₁ –TiO ₂ –M (M ₁ : Ag, au, Pd)	Sol-gel	UV, Vis	Chlorobenzene benzaldehyde	Mishra et al. (2018)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Congo red	Dvininov et al. (2009)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Methylene blue	Chen et al. (2014)
TiO ₂ –M	Electrophoretic deposition	UV	Methylene blue	Rastgar et al. (2013)
TiO ₂ –M	Intra-gallery templating	UV	Methylene blue	Yang et al. (2013)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Dimethachlor	Belessi et al. (2007)
TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal	UV	Methyl orange rhodamine B	Butman et al. (2018)
TiO ₂ –M	Impregnation	UV	Methylene blue remazol black	Sahel et al. (2014)
Ag–TiO ₂ –M				
TiO ₂ –M	Impregnation	UV	Chlorobenzene methylene blue	Mishra et al. (2017a, b)
TiO ₂ –M	Impregnation	UV	Methylene blue	Miao et al. (2006)
TiO ₂ –M	Solvothermal	UV	Methylene blue	Liu et al. (2009)
TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal method/solid diffusion	UV	Methyl orange	Yuan et al. (2011)
TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal method/solid diffusion	UV	2,4-Dichlorophenol	Zhang et al. (2015)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	2,4-Dichlorophenol	Manova et al. (2010)
TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV	Methylene blue, <i>E. coli</i>	Fatimah (2012)
TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal method	UV	Pharmaceuticals	Hassani et al. (2017a, b)

(continued)

Table 13.1 (continued)

Photocatalyst	Synthesis method	Light	Pollutant	References
TiO ₂ –M	Impregnation	UV Solar	Crystal violet, rhodamine B, congo red, methylene blue methyl orange, Cr(VI)	Djellabi et al. (2014), Djellabi et al. (2016a), Djellabi et al. (2016b, c)
TiO ₂ –M	Impregnation	UV	Methylene blue	Rossetto et al. (2010)
TiO ₂ –M	Wet grinding in an agate mill	UV-Vis	Phenol	Ménesi et al. (2008)
TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal	UV	Trichloroethylene	Ooka et al. (1999)
Ag–TiO ₂ –M	Thermal decomposition method	UV	<i>S. aureus</i> , <i>E. coli</i>	Krishnan and Mahalingam (2017)
Ag–TiO ₂ –M	Microwave heating/impregnation	UV, Vis	Chlorobenzene	Mishra et al. (2017a, b)
TiO ₂ –Fe–M	Impregnation	UV	Toluene	Liang et al. (2016)
TiO ₂ –Fe ₃ O ₄ –M	Sol-gel/coprecipitation under N ₂	UV	Methylene blue	Chen et al. (2015)
CdS–M	Hydrothermal method	UV-Vis	Methylene blue rhodamine 6G	Boukhatem et al. (2013)
Fe(III)/TiO ₂ –M	TiO ₂ pillarization followed by Fe(III) ion exchange	UV	Methylene blue	Fatimah et al. (2015)
N–TiO ₂ –M	N-doped TiO ₂ impregnation with Montmorillonite	Visible	Bisphenol-A	Hsing et al. (2018)
g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ –M	Hydrolysis, dehydroxylation and crystallization	Visible	Organics	CN105107542A
V–TiO ₂ –M	Sol-gel	UV-Vis	Sulforhodamine B	Chen et al. (2010), Chen et al. (2011)
C–TiO ₂ –M				
CdS/TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal synthesis	Visible	Methylene blue	Wang et al. (2015)
MgO–TiO ₂ –Al ₂ O ₃ /M	Inflating, intercalation and reassembling method	/	/	Dou et al. (2011a, b)
TiO ₂ –CeO ₂ –M	Water-based method	Solar	Parathion methyl	Henych et al. (2017)
SiO ₂ –TiO ₂ –M	Hydrothermal method/solid diffusion	/	/	Kameshima et al. (2009b)
TiO ₂ –M/PTP–SDS	In situ chemical oxidative polymerization	UV	Rhodamine 6G	Khalfaoui-Boutoumi et al. (2013)

the access of Ti(OH)₄ into the interlayer space of Montmorillonite. Therefore, this method not only improves the dispersion of TiO₂ onto Montmorillonite surface but also leads to improvement the pore size and the surface area by increase of basal space of the Montmorillonite.

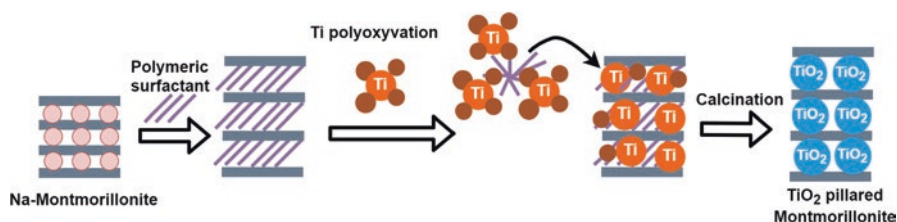


Fig. 13.9 Synthesis of TiO_2 -Montmorillonite by sol-gel using organic surfactants

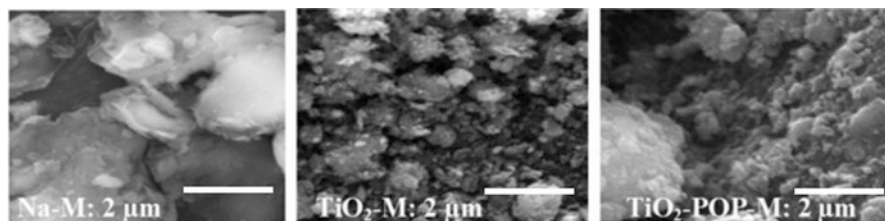


Fig. 13.10 SEM images of Na-Montmorillonite and TiO_2 -Montmorillonite synthesized by sol-gel method. (Reproduced with permission: Chen et al. 2012)

Sun et al. (2015) have used cetyltrimethylammonium (CTA^+) surfactant to synthesize TiO_2 -Montmorillonite by sol-gel method. They found that the basal space was enlarged from 15.54 \AA for the original Ca-Montmorillonite sample to 38.71 \AA for CTA^+ -Montmorillonite. Tahir et al. (Tahir and Amin 2013) have synthesized TiO_2 -Montmorillonite by sol-gel method using isopropanol as a surfactant. They reported that the Montmorillonite controls the crystal growth of TiO_2 : the size of TiO_2 nanoparticles decreased from 18.73 (pure TiO_2) to 13.87 nm after adding the Montmorillonite, while the BET surface area and pore volume increased. Chen et al. (2012) have synthesized TiO_2 -Montmorillonite by sol-gel method with the high-molecular-weight polymer surfactant POP (polyoxypropylene-backboned diquatery salt) as an expand species. They reported that the use of polymer surfactant POP leads to the formation of the delaminated structure and considerably improves the porosity and surface area of the composites. Also, the resulting TiO_2 -Montmorillonite exhibited a good thermal stability after calcination at $800 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The anatase to rutile phase transformation was not detected even under calcination at $900 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (SEM images in Fig. 13.10). On the other hand, they reported that the increase of POP amount leads to decrease the size of TiO_2 particles in the composite.

13.3.1.2 Hydrothermal Method

TiO_2 -Montmorillonite composites can be also synthesized by hydrothermal method. It is carried out usually under controlled temperature or pressure using steel pressure vessels (autoclaves) with or without Teflon liners. The temperature is frequently elevated above the boiling point of water. Aydin Hassani et al. (2017a, b) have

synthesized TiO_2 –Montmorillonite using cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) as a surfactant, by hydrothermal method (Fig. 13.11). They found that the average crystalline size was 25 nm for pure TiO_2 and 20 nm for TiO_2 in TiO_2 –Montmorillonite (SEM images are shown in Fig. 13.12). They suggested that the Montmorillonite can control the crystal growth in TiO_2 . However, they obtained that the deposition of TiO_2 did not improve the basal space of the Montmorillonite, which could be explained by the deposition of TiO_2 nanoparticles on the external surface of the Montmorillonite. Zhou et al. (2014) have synthesized CdS– TiO_2 –Montmorillonite by hydrothermal method. They reported that the small angle in the XRD spectrum was disappeared after the insertion of CdS– TiO_2 nanoparticles which indicates that the basal space of the Montmorillonite had been blocked by CdS– TiO_2 particles.

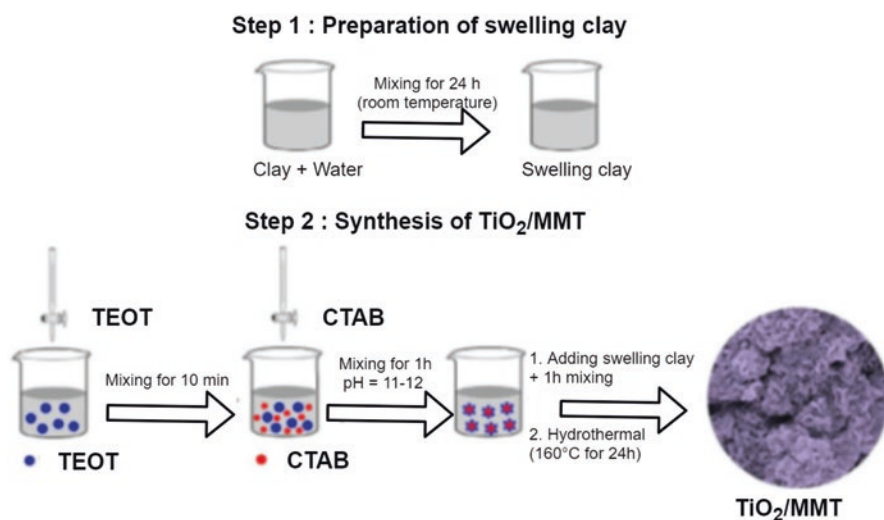


Fig. 13.11 Synthesis of TiO_2 –Montmorillonite by hydrothermal method. (Reproduced with permission: Hassani et al. 2017a, b)

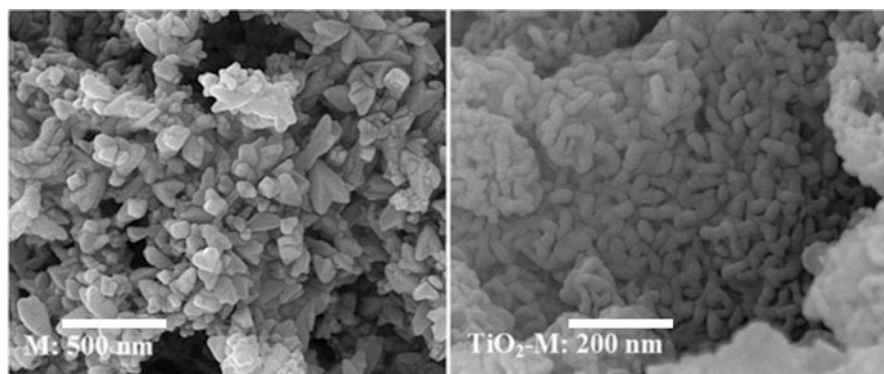


Fig. 13.12 SEM images of Na–Montmorillonite and TiO_2 –Montmorillonite synthesized by hydrothermal method. (Reproduced with permission: Hassani et al. 2017a, b)

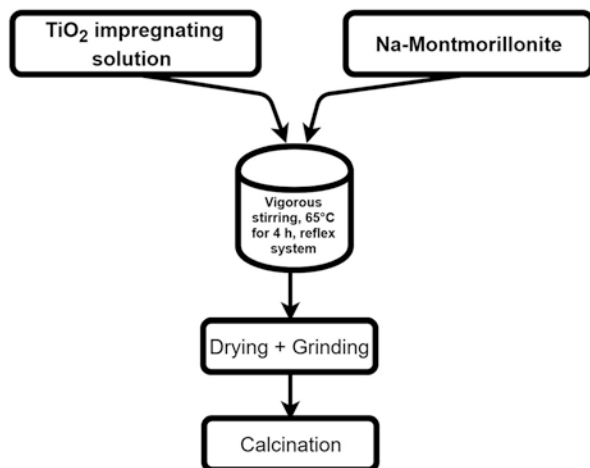


Fig. 13.13 Synthesis of TiO_2 -Montmorillonite by impregnation method

13.3.1.3 Impregnation Method

The synthesis of TiO_2 -Montmorillonite by impregnation could be simplified as is illustrated in Fig. 13.13, which includes three main steps: (i) contacting the Montmorillonite with the TiO_2 precursor solution, (ii) filtration and drying the composite and (3) calcination of the composite to form TiO_2 crystals.

Djellabi et al. (2016a, b, c) have synthesized TiO_2 -Montmorillonite with different weight ratios (g/g) (5, 10, 20 and 30%) by impregnation with TiCl_4 (dissolved in C_2H_2) followed by calcination at 350 °C. They reported that the basal spacing of Montmorillonite decreases slightly with TiO_2 loading, while the surface area of all samples was similar to that of Na-Montmorillonite. On the other hand, the average crystallite size of anatase was estimated to be 14–20 nm for all samples (SEM images are shown in Fig. 13.14). Compared to sol-gel method, impregnation method usually does not improve the based space and the surface area since the deposition of TiO_2 nanoparticles takes place mostly on the external surface of the Montmorillonite, while the sandwiched structure could be obtained by sol-gel. Rossetto et al. (2010) have synthesized TiO_2 -Montmorillonite samples using different kinds of Montmorillonite by impregnation with TiCl_4 (dissolved in cyclohexane), and they found that the surface area of some samples decreased after impregnation of TiO_2 .

13.3.1.4 Solid Diffusion

Solid diffusion or power sintering is a simple method to make strong binding force between TiO_2 nanoparticles and porous supports thermal diffusion effect (Wang et al. 2018). Zhang et al. (2015) and Yuan et al. (2011) have synthesized TiO_2 -Montmorillonite via the immobilization of pre-dispersed nanoscaled TiO_2 particles

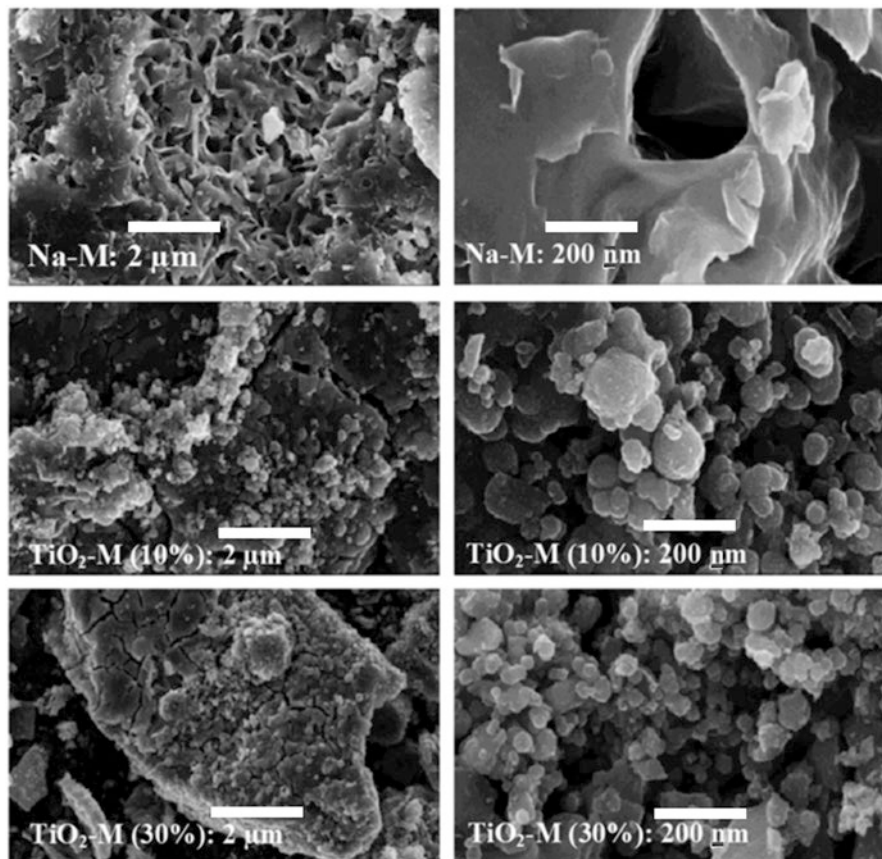


Fig. 13.14 SEM images of Na-Montmorillonite and TiO₂-Montmorillonite synthesized by impregnation method. (Reproduced with permission: Djellabi et al. 2016a, b, c)

onto external surface of Montmorillonite. Firstly, they prepared nanoscaled TiO₂ hydrothermal method with an average size less than 5 nm. Then, they mixed nanoscaled TiO₂-cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) solution with swelling-Montmorillonite, and finally, the products were calcined at 500 °C. Yuan et al. (2011) reported that the nanoscaled TiO₂ (with 4.66 nm) could be intercalated into the interlayer of Montmorillonite due to the presence of CTAB (basal spacing increased from 1.26 to 1.87 nm and surface area increased from 28 to 67 m²/g). Zhang et al. (2015) reported that the increase of CTAB surfactant increases slightly the basal spacing, while, the anatase-to-rutile transformation was observed during calcination at 500 °C. However, it was found that the characteristic reflection for the anatase phase at $2\theta = 25.3^\circ$ was slightly decreased with CTAB increasing (from 0.1 to 0.5 wt.%). They explained that the high CTAB concentrations lead to decreasing numbers and increasing particle size deposited TiO₂ particles into the interlayer. With low CTAB amounts, more TiO₂ pillars can be immobilized in the interlayer

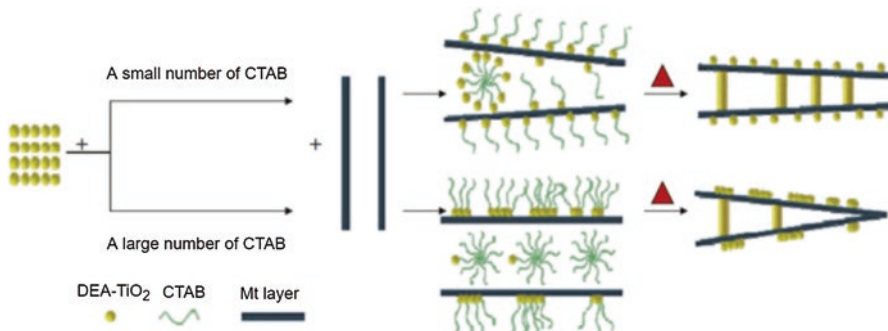


Fig. 13.15 Formation process of TiO_2 -CTAB-Montmorillonite according to different CTAB contents. (Reproduced with permission: Zhang et al. 2015)

space, and at the same time, a number of TiO_2 particles with smaller size could be fixed on the external surface of Montmorillonite. On the contrary, with high CTAB concentrations, more CTAB species can block the pores of Montmorillonite, which inhibits the access of TiO_2 colloids to settle into the pores of Montmorillonite (as shown in Fig. 13.15).

Liang et al. (2017) have immobilized pure TiO_2 (P25, Degussa) onto external surface of Montmorillonite using power sintering method proceeding with the following steps: (i) Montmorillonite material and 1 g of P25- TiO_2 were mixed; (ii) a volume of ethanol was added, and the mixture was milled for 30 min and dried at 300°C for 6 h; and (iii) the obtained solid was grinded. They prepared a series of TiO_2 -Montmorillonite of different loads (40%T/M (TiO_2 /Montmorillonite), 70%T/M, 80%T/M, 90%T/M, 95%T/M, 98%T/M). The results of TEM morphologies showed that the nano- TiO_2 is loaded successfully onto the Montmorillonite surface. However, when TiO_2 content increases, TiO_2 particles on Montmorillonite surface are prone to agglomeration (Fig. 13.16).

13.3.2 Mechanisms of Photocatalytic Removal of Contaminants by TiO_2 -Montmorillonite

The immobilization of nanoscale TiO_2 particles onto the Montmorillonite can assist in improving the contact between the TiO_2 particles and pollutants via the so-called Adsorb & Shuttle (A&S) due to its adsorption capability and hydrophobicity property. In general, this concept is based on the use of highly adsorbing domains to increase the amount (concentration) of contaminants near TiO_2 photocatalytic sites and therefore enhance the overall efficiency of the photocatalytic process as shown schematically in Fig. 13.17. Nevertheless, a second mechanism by which the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants is obtained through the use of adsorbent support is the diffusion of hydroxyl radicals from TiO_2 from the photocatalytic sites to the adsorbed pollutants on the adsorptive domains, named as “Remote Degradation” (Fig. 13.17).

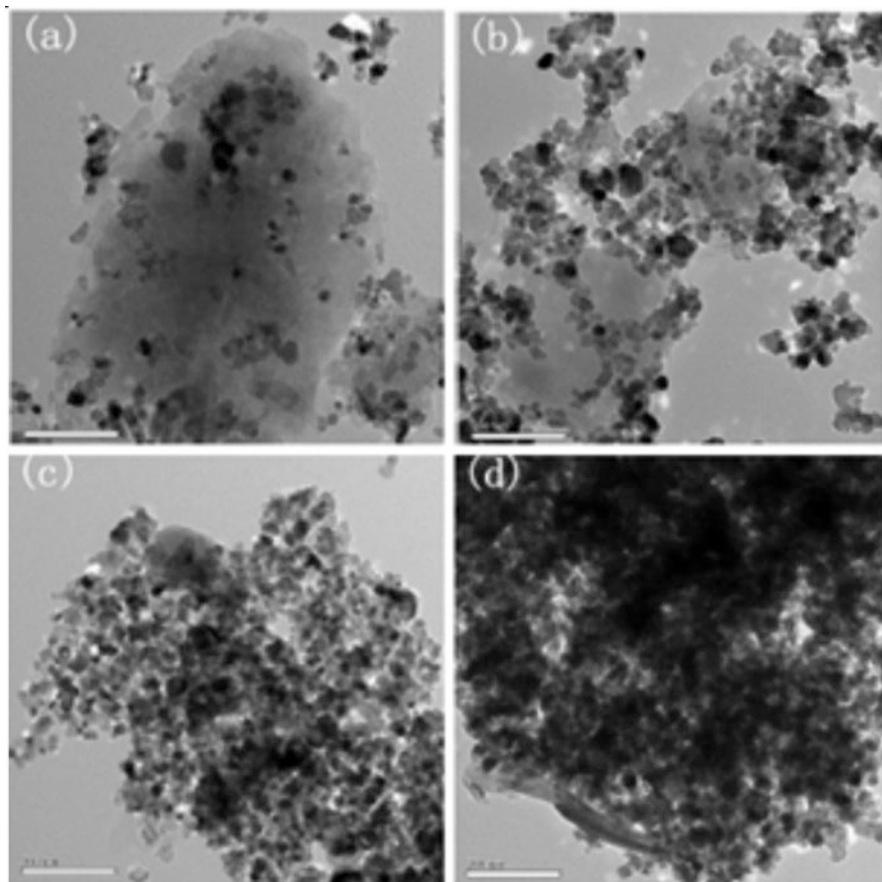


Fig. 13.16 TEM images of TiO_2 –Montmorillonite synthesized by solid diffusion process with different load ratios (a) 70%T/M, (b) 80%T/M, (c) 90%T/M, and (d) 95%T/M. (Reproduced with permission: Liang et al. 2017)

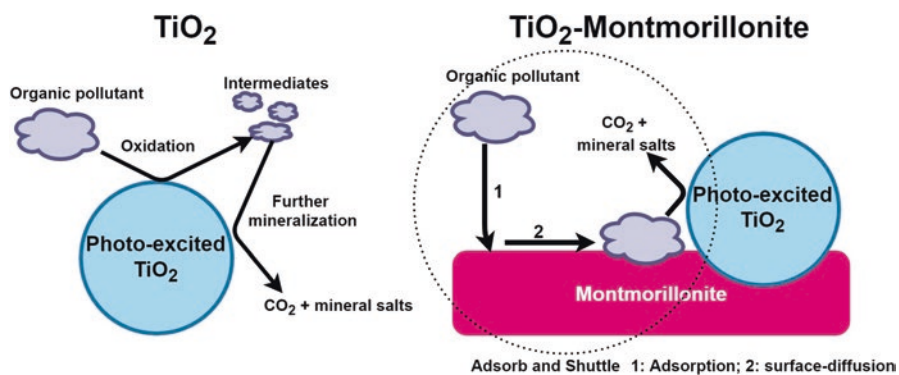


Fig. 13.17 Mechanisms of the photocatalytic removal of pollutants on the surface of TiO_2 and TiO_2 –Montmorillonite

Many research studies reported that TiO₂–Montmorillonite composite was more efficient than commercial or synthesized naked TiO₂ (Rossetto et al. 2010; Dou et al. 2011a; Yuan et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2012; Liang et al. 2017; Mishra et al. 2017a, b; Butman et al. 2018). TiO₂–Montmorillonite can combine the adsorption and photocatalytic reaction to efficiently remove contaminants from water (Dvininov et al. 2009; Djellabi et al. 2014). Moreover, TiO₂–Montmorillonite-based composites may retain reaction by-products that are produced during the photocatalytic reaction for further mineralization. Additionally, employing of TiO₂–Montmorillonite overcomes the issue of photocatalyst separation in water purification systems. Because the TiO₂ loading onto Montmorillonite can affect the morphology, surface area, pore size and TiO₂ particle size, it has an important impact on the *Adsorb & Shuttle process*. For higher A&S efficiency, the optimum diffusion distance (distance between the adsorbing domains and TiO₂ sites) should be obtained. Nevertheless, the optimal TiO₂ loading value depends not only on the type of TiO₂–Montmorillonite characteristics but also on the type of pollutant. Higher interaction between the pollutant species and TiO₂–Montmorillonite surface is likely to push the optimum TiO₂ loading towards small values, since high TiO₂ content on Montmorillonite may require a large diffusion distance of pollutant molecules that adsorb strongly on the surface. For the pollutant molecules that adsorb hardly on the surface of TiO₂–Montmorillonite, the reverse is true. It is worth to note that, there is a bottleneck state, in which, the excessive TiO₂ content can block the penetration of light irradiation. At the optimal TiO₂ loading value, the TiO₂–Montmorillonite needs to adsorb contaminants efficiently and then oxidizes/mineralizes them photocatalytically to regenerate the surface for recycling. Djellabi et al. (2016a) have studied the effect of TiO₂ loading onto the Montmorillonite for the photocatalytic removal of Cr(VI) and crystal violet under sunlight. They have synthesized TiO₂–Montmorillonite with different weight ratios (g/g) (5, 10, 20 and 30%), and they reported that the dark adsorption of crystal violet decreases with TiO₂ content increasing, while the Cr(VI) species adsorbs very hardly on TiO₂–Montmorillonite surface (~ 12% for all samples). For the photocatalytic removal under sunlight, they reported that the sample with 10% of TiO₂ loading was the most efficient for crystal violet photodegradation, while for Cr(VI) reduction, the removal rate increases proportionally with TiO₂ loading, and the sample 30% was the most efficient. In a straightforward manner, the fact that the efficiency of TiO₂–Montmorillonite varies from one pollutant to another, using the same sample with 10% of TiO₂ loading, Djellabi et al. (2014) reported that the efficiency of TiO₂–Montmorillonite for the removal of five dyes under UV light was more pronounced for cationic dyes than anionic in the order crystal violet (97.1%) > methylene blue (93.20%) > rhodamine B (79.8%) > methyl orange (36.1%) > congo red (22.6%), which is due to the strong interaction between cationic dyes and the negatively charged TiO₂–Montmorillonite surface.

Dou et al. (2011a) reported that TiO₂–Montmorillonite (with a 22 wt% TiO₂ load) had higher adsorption and photocatalytic activities than synthesized TiO₂ nanoparticles for the removal of Hg(II) from water. They observed that both photocatalysts turned black with Hg(0) nanoparticles under UV illumination. They found

that the photo-efficiency of TiO₂–Montmorillonite and TiO₂ nanoparticles decreases after 40 min due to the deposition of Hg metal on the TiO₂ surface, resulting in less reactivity. Li et al. (2012) have used TiO₂–Montmorillonite as an adsorbent to remove As(III) and As(V) from water with or without UV irradiation. They reported that, with UV irradiation of TiO₂–Montmorillonite, the removal rate of As(III) and As(V) increased from 94.58% to 97.71% and from 98.56% to 99.65%, respectively. They suggested that As(III) oxidation to As(V) takes place by TiO₂ particles, followed by fast As(V) adsorption on TiO₂–Montmorillonite surface.

The pore size of TiO₂–Montmorillonite can also affect the A&S process. As explained before, the synthesis conditions including the method, type of surfactants, calcination and TiO₂ loading could affect directly the pore size of TiO₂–Montmorillonite. In general, based on the pore size, materials could be divided into three groups: microporous (< 2 nm), mesoporous (2–50 nm) and macroporous (> 50 nm). Meso- and macroporous adsorbents are suitable for the adsorption/absorption of contaminant molecules with different sizes, which in turn facilitate their photocatalytic decomposition. This was indeed observed by Yuan et al. (2011), who reported that the TiO₂–Montmorillonite sample with higher pore size and pore volume exhibited a higher photocatalytic efficiency for organic molecules. Chen et al. (2012) reported that the photoactivity of TiO₂–Montmorillonite was not a function of TiO₂ loading of the composite photocatalyst, but it depends on the contact between TiO₂–Montmorillonite surface and the dye species. Yang et al. (2013) have synthesized TiO₂–Montmorillonite samples with ordered interlayer mesoporous structure, and they reported that the photocatalytic efficiency for the degradation of methylene blue increases proportionally with increase of pore size.

Butman et al. (2018) have synthesized TiO₂–Montmorillonite samples with high degree of crystallinity (nanocrystals) for degradation of methyl orange and rhodamine B under UV. They reported that the high decolourization rate was due to the higher degree of crystallinity for TiO₂ pillars and higher porosity. On the other hand, they suggested that the anatase and rutile phase ratio can strongly influence the rate of photocatalytic oxidation of dyes. Also, they proposed that the formation of Ti–O–Si cross-links between pillars and silicate layers of Montmorillonite may limit the electron/hole recombination. Therefore, the higher the crystallites of TiO₂, the greater the number of cross-linking bonds can be formed; thus, a higher photocatalytic efficiency is found.

Mishra et al. (2018) have prepared metal-loaded TiO₂–Montmorillonite composites (M = Ag, Au, Pd; 1% by wt.) for the photodegradation of chlorobenzene and benzaldehyde under UV and visible light. It was found that the surface area and pore size increased slightly in the presence of metals. They reported that both the dark adsorption and the photocatalytic degradation of chlorobenzene and benzaldehyde by Metal–TiO₂–Montmorillonite were higher than TiO₂–Montmorillonite under UV and visible irradiations. It is worth to note that, based on their results, TiO₂–Montmorillonite exhibited a photocatalytic activity under visible light. They found that, among the as-synthesized composites, Ag–TiO₂–Montmorillonite shows the highest photocatalytic efficiency for chlorobenzene and benzaldehyde degrada-

tion under visible light. They suggested that the high photocatalytic performance of Ag–TiO₂–Montmorillonite may be due to the high excitation lifetime (2.60 ns).

13.4 Conclusions

- Coupling of nanoscale TiO₂ particles with Montmorillonite promotes the photocatalytic performance for the removal of organic pollutants and heavy metals.
- Montmorillonite samples with high specific surfaces areas, high adsorption capacity and high hydrophobicity could be a good choice for the synthesis of effective TiO₂–Montmorillonite.
- Many researchers reported that the Montmorillonite can control the crystal growth and the thermal stability of TiO₂ better than naked TiO₂.
- The use of polymer surfactants during the synthesis of TiO₂–Montmorillonite such as cetyltrimethylammonium (CTA⁺) and polyoxypropylene-backed diquatary (POP) allows intercalating homogeneously TiO₂ nanoparticles within the interlayer space of Montmorillonite (obtain a sandwich structure) and reduces the agglomeration of TiO₂ particles, and it improves the pore size and the surface area by increasing of basal space of the Montmorillonite. It is worth noting that the concentration of surfactant should be optimized.
- TiO₂ loading in the Montmorillonite can affect significantly the structure of TiO₂–Montmorillonite depending on the synthesis conditions; at high loading, TiO₂ is prone to agglomerate and block the pore of the Montmorillonite.
- The photocatalytic removal of organic pollutants and heavy metals is carried out through the so-called Adsorb & Shuttle (A&S), in which pollutants adsorbed on the adsorbing domains (Montmorillonite) diffuse on the surface to the TiO₂ photocatalytic. The Adsorb & Shuttle process efficiency depends strongly on the TiO₂–Montmorillonite characteristics (TiO₂ loading, pore size, adsorption capacity and TiO₂ particle size) as well as the type of pollutant.
- Unlike naked nanoparticles TiO₂, TiO₂–Montmorillonite is a low-cost and environmentally friendly photocatalyst which prevents the release of TiO₂ nanoparticles to the environment, and it can retain reaction by-products that are produced during the photocatalytic reaction for further mineralization.

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