

57 (2016) 2104–2112 January



# Sonocatalytic degradation of phenol catalyzed by nano-sized zero valent Cu and Ni

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Received 28 May 2014; Accepted 23 October 2014

#### ABSTRACT

In this study, a successful degradation of phenol was achieved using nanosized zero-valent copper (NZVC) or nanosized zero-valent nickel (NZVN) in combination with  $H_2O_2$  and 20 kHz ultrasound irradiation. The effect of  $H_2O_2$  concentration, initial pH, catalyst amount, and ultrasonic irradiation time on the degradation efficiency was investigated, and the reaction kinetics was discussed. The results showed that the degradation extent increases with increasing catalyst amount and irradiation time, but decreases with increasing initial pH value. These results also revealed that the degradation of phenol is intensified in the presence of NZVC or NZVN and  $H_2O_2$ , which can be attributed to the enhanced production of 'OH radicals in the system. Thus, an appropriate selection of operating conditions will lead to an economical and highly efficient technology with eventual large-scale commercial applications for the degradation of organic pollutants in aqueous effluents.

Keywords: Ultrasound; Phenol; Advanced Fenton process; Heterogeneous Fenton; Zero-valent metals

### 1. Introduction

Phenol is a common and an important pollutant as it is found in a variety of effluent streams from chemical industries (resins, plastics, textiles, pulp and paper, coal conversion, etc.) and is often used as a model pollutant in wastewater remediation studies [1]. Conventional chemical, physical, and biological treatments, such as adsorption using activated carbon particles and fibers or air stripping, have been used for "dephenolization" of industrial wastewater [2]. Recently, chemical treatment methods, based on the generation

In the last decades, several studies have focused on the use of ultrasound for the degradation of phenol and its byproducts [8]. Nucleation, growth, and finally implosion of the cavities generated by ultrasound irradiation lead to extremely high local conditions of temperature and pressure which allow the formation of reactive radicals, such as H<sup>•</sup>, HO<sup>•</sup>, and O<sup>-</sup><sub>2</sub>, as well as

of hydroxyl radicals, known as advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), have been applied for pollutant degradation, due to the high oxidative power of the OH radical. The most widely studied AOPs include; heterogeneous photocatalytic oxidation [3], treatment with ozone [4],  $H_2O_2/UV$  systems [5], Fenton [6] and modified Fenton-type reactions [7].

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the homolytic splitting of pollutant compounds [9–11]. However, ultrasound alone does not produce sufficient oxidizing species from water to carry out degradation. So, often it is utilized along with Fenton reactions (Fenton and Photo-Fenton) [12]. The application of Fenton-like system in combination with an ultrasound system has been of most interest. Since, the reaction between  $H_2O_2$  and (either homogeneous or heterogeneous) Fenton-type catalysts referred to as a Fenton-like process is known to produce hydroxyl radicals capable of oxidizing a wide range of organic compounds. Fenton reagent  $(Fe^{2+}/H_2O_2)$  has also been widely studied. However, the use of stoichiometric quantities of ferrous ions is the major drawback of the traditional Fenton process, and so alternatives such as advanced Fenton process (AFP) which utilize zerovalent iron (ZVI) as a catalyst have been successfully applied [13,14]. The advantage of using a heterogeneous system is the ease of catalyst removal by filtration. Moreover, ultrasonic irradiation generates benefits in heterogeneous catalytic systems by decreasing mass transfer limitations and fragmentation of catalyst into small particles that provide a higher surface area [15]. ZVI has been applied due to the effectiveness, low cost, and benign environmental impact of the in situ remediation of groundwater. Over the last decade, several studies have demonstrated that ZVI effectively reduces the concentration of several organic and inorganic pollutants [16,17]. It has been reported that the combination of ultrasound with ZVI is a good alternative to enhance the oxidative capacity of ZVI due to the synergistic mechanism obtained with the combined system [18-20]. AFP using ZVI as a catalyst has been studied as a potential technique to degrade different pollutants in wastewater [21]. Moreover, Chakinala et al. [22] and Bremner et al. [23] have reported the degradation of organic compounds using ultrasound combined with the Fe<sup>0</sup>/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system, although in these cases degradation had always been examined in the presence of excess hydrogen peroxide. Recently, the use of zero-valent metals (ZVMs), such as iron, copper, nickel, and zinc, have played a significant role in mineralizing the organic pollutants in wastewater [24].

The present work describes the phenol degradation by advanced Fenton-like processes using nanosized zero-valent copper (NZVC) or nanosized zero-valent nickel (NZVN) as catalysts in conjunction with  $H_2O_2$ and 20 kHz ultrasound irradiation. These nanoparticles are fully characterized and their catalytic effectiveness is examined. The effect of  $H_2O_2$ concentration, initial pH, ultrasonic irradiation time, and catalyst amount on the degradation efficiency is investigated, and the reaction kinetics is discussed. To the best of our knowledge, the use of these nanoparticles in the sonocatalytic degradation of phenol has yet to be published.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Reagents

Phenol (99%) and NaBH<sub>4</sub> were obtained from (Sigma–Aldrich), and hydrogen peroxide (30% W/W) was purchased from Fluka (USA). CuCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, NiCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O, and sodium hydroxide (96%) were purchased from Merck, (Germany).

### 2.2. Synthesis of $Cu^0$ and $Ni^0$ nanoparticles

The nanoparticles were prepared according to the procedures described in the literature [25]. Briefly, CuCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O (6.2 g) was dissolved in deionized water (100 mL). The pH was adjusted to 6.2-7 using NaOH (3.8 M) and then NaBH<sub>4</sub> (3.1 g) was added under vigorous stirring. The reaction was allowed until no bubbles were observed. No special precautions were taken to eliminate oxygen from the reaction vessel. The resulting black solid was washed with deionized water, and then washed with ethanol and acetone to eliminate water. The obtained particles were dried in a vacuum oven overnight [26]. For storage, a thin layer of ethanol was added to preserve the nanoparticles from oxidation. The same method was used to synthesize the NZVN, with the weight ratio of metal to borohydride adjusted appropriately.

#### 2.3. Catalysts characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples were recorded in the range  $2\theta = 4-80^{\circ}$  using a Philips powder diffractometer with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation (k = 0.154 nm). The instrument was operated at 40 kV and 40 mA. The spectra were recorded with a  $2\theta$  step of 0.02° at a scanning rate of 2°  $\theta$ /min. Surface area, pore volume, and average pore size were obtained from the N<sub>2</sub> adsorption–desorption isotherms determined at 196°C using a Quantachrome Nova 3200 instrument (USA). Prior to measurements, the samples were perfectly degassed at 100°C for 12 h under vacuum (10–5 mm Hg). TEM images were obtained using a JEOL JEM-2100 (Japan) operated at 200 kV.

#### 2.4. Catalytic oxidation of phenol and analytical procedures

A standard aqueous solution of phenol was used in all the experiments with a concentration of 25-mg  $L^{-1}$  solution. A commercial sonicator, VCX-750 (Sonics and Materials, Inc.) equipped with a titanium probe (diameter 13 mm) capable of operating continuously at a fixed frequency of 20 kHz with a variable electric output power up to 125 W was used. Experiments were carried out in a glass reaction vessel with thin and indented bottoms for uniform and more efficient energy transmission. Ultrasound power output was set at 100 W for all the experiments. The power dissipated ( $P_{diss}$ ) was estimated to be 6.3 W, and the Power density was found to be 0.126 W/mL.

Nanosized ZVMs of 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> were dispersed into phenol solution (25 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) followed by shaking for 15 min to ensure a proper dispersion of the catalysts, then they were filled into the reactor. Afterward, this reactor was placed in an ultrasound apparatus and irradiated according to the experimental requirements. Sonication was applied in continuous mode and the tip of the titanium probe was placed about 2 cm below the surface of the phenol solution. During the degradation, the reactor was immersed in a water bath adjusted at  $25 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C. The reaction temperature was monitored by a thermocouple located inside the reactor.

The degradation of phenol was initiated by the rapid addition of the oxidizing agent (10, 20, 30, 40, and 50 mM of  $H_2O_2$ ) to the reactor and immediately turning on the ultrasonic apparatus at regular time intervals (10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 min). Eventually, 20-mL aliquots of the reaction solution were sampled, immediately centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 15 min using EBA-21 centrifugal, Hettich, Germany, to remove the catalysts and then the solution was ready for HPLC analysis.

Samples were analyzed by an HPLC system equipped with pump Waters 515, sample injector, Waters 2489 UV–Visible detector set at 280 nm, Column Waters (X Bridge<sup>TM</sup> C18 5  $\mu$ m 4.6 × 250 mm), and guard column. A mixture of acetonitrile-Milli-Q water solution (30:70 by volume) at 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup> was used as the mobile phase throughout the analysis.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characteristics of the prepared NZVC and NZVN

The XRD patterns of NZVC and NZVN are shown in Fig. 1. The average size (*D*) of the particles can be determined according to the Scherrer equation: D = k( $\lambda/\beta \cos \theta$ ). Where *k* is a constant equal to 0.89,  $\lambda$  is the X-ray wavelength equal to 0.154 nm,  $\beta$  is the full width at half maximum, and  $\theta$  is the half diffraction angle (18.14°). The calculated results reveal that the average size of NZVC and NZVN is approximately 20 and 52 nm, respectively.



Fig. 1. XRD spectra of (a) NZVC and (b) NZVN.

TEM is used to describe the shape and determine the size of NZVC and NZVN. Fig. 2 shows that NZVC and NZVN are on the nanometer scale with sizes approximately (15–20 nm) and (20–50 nm), respectively, which are in good agreement with that obtained using XRD. The values of specific surface area are calculated using BET-equation,  $A_{\text{BET}}$ , are given in Table 1 together with the values of total pore volume, *V*p, taken at  $P/P_o = 0.975$  single point.

#### 3.2. Silent mode system (without sonication)

To examine the role of sonication, the reaction was carried out in the system using catalyst and  $H_2O_2$ 



Fig. 2. TEM images of (a) NZVC and (b) NZVN.

Table 1Texture data and crystallite size of NZVC and NZVN

Catalyst	$A_{\rm BET}~({\rm m}^2/{\rm g})$	Pore volume $(cm^3/g)$	Crystallite sizes (nm)
NZVC	52.5	0.143	15–20
NZVN	19	0.052	20–52

without ultrasound. The results show that the extent of phenol degradation in the silent mode reaction reached 8 and 5% with NZVC and NZVN, respectively, after 1 h as shown in Fig. 3. These results evidence a negligible impact in silent conditions.

#### 3.3. Degradation of phenol using ultrasound solely

Initially, the extent of phenol degradation was investigated using ultrasound, and the obtained results are shown in Fig. 4. It is obvious that the extent of degradation is 20% after 60 min as shown in Fig. 4. Sonolysis alone (20 kHz) is not capable to entirely degrade the phenol. The sonolysis of aqueous solutions generates a highly reactive hydroxyl radical (·OH) and hydrogen atom (H·) that in the presence of oxygen forms HO<sub>2</sub> radicals. Formation of hydrogen peroxide can take place via combination of two HO<sub>2</sub> or two 'OH [27]. The value of the rate constant (k) for reaction of H<sup>•</sup> with oxygen is  $2.1 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and for the combination of two hydroxyl radicals is  $5.2-6.2 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . For the reactions between phenol and  $\cdot$ OH, k is  $6.6 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  [28]. Thus, a great loss of formed 'OH and H' occurs before participation in the process of phenol degradation that explains the low efficiency of sonication alone under the used conditions. However, some studies have reported that a



Fig. 3. Degradation of phenol (25 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) using the catalyst and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> without ultrasound (silent mode system). Reaction conditions: NZVC or NZVN (1 g L<sup>-1</sup>), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration (65 mM), pH (7), and 25 °C.



Fig. 4. Influence of ultrasonic irradiation time on phenol (25 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) degradation ratios. Reaction conditions: pH (7) and 25 °C.

higher sonication frequency has resulted in increasing the extent of phenol degradation using 300 kHz US reactor with phenol being undetectable only within 25 min [29].

# 3.4. Degradation of phenol using a combination of ultrasound and hydrogen peroxide

The controlling mechanism of sonochemical degradation of phenol is the production of free radicals and their subsequent attack on the pollutant species. Considering this mechanism and knowing that hydrogen peroxide also dissociates in the presence of ultrasound giving hydroxyl radicals, a combination of ultrasound and hydrogen peroxide was investigated as a treatment strategy. A simple mechanism for radical formation during sonication of an aqueous solution of hydrogen peroxide is given by:

$$H_2O \rightarrow OH + H$$
 (1)

$$H_2O_2 \rightarrow OH + OH$$
 (2)

The sonolytic degradation of phenol was investigated using the  $H_2O_2$  concentration range of 10–50 mM. Fig. 5 reveals that the extent of phenol degradation is substantially enhanced by the addition of  $H_2O_2$  to the ultrasound system. The enhancement in the degradation extent of phenol can be mainly due to the contribution of hydroxyl radicals that are produced from hydrogen peroxide since hydroxyl radicals can be also formed by the sonication of aqueous solutions of hydrogen peroxide. The bond energy of O-O in hydrogen peroxide  $(139 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1})$  is lower than the bond energy (463 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) of O-H in water [30]. The degradation extent increased from 30% at 10-mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to 40% at 20-mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> after 30 min of sonication. However, the degradation decreased to 15% when the  $H_2O_2$  concentration increased to 60 mM. On the one hand, hydrogen peroxide acts as a source of free radicals by the dissociation process, but on the other hand, it acts as a scavenger of the generated free radicals at high concentration, which indeed retard the degradation of organic compounds by consuming more  $H_2O_2$ . Thus, when the system contains no other organic substances that can be oxidized by radical species, the radical species generated via the decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> would be finally terminated to produce molecular oxygen and water [31-33] as follows:

$$OH' + H_2O_2 \rightarrow OH'_2 + H_2O \tag{3}$$

$$HO_2^{\boldsymbol{\cdot}} + H_2O_2 \rightarrow OH^{\boldsymbol{\cdot}} + H_2O + O_2 \tag{4}$$

$$OH' + HO'_2 \to H_2O + O_2 \tag{5}$$

Similar trends have been observed for degradation of 2,4-dinitrophenol where  $H_2O_2$  concentration was varied from 100 to 800 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and for phenol,  $H_2O_2$  concentration was varied from 1 to 5 g L<sup>-1</sup> [34,35]. Our results also suggest that the concentration of



Fig. 5. Influence of  $H_2O_2$  concentration on phenol (25 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) degradation ratios. Reaction conditions: pH (7), 25 °C, and 30 min of sonication.

hydrogen peroxide must be kept at optimum levels in order to achieve high phenol decomposition efficiency.

# 3.5. Degradation of phenol using ultrasound assisted with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and nanosized ZVMs

Advanced Fenton-like process was investigated for quantifying the degradation extent under different operating conditions. In this case, NZVC and NZVN were used in combination with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the presence of ultrasonic treatment. Ultrasonic irradiation generates benefits in heterogeneous catalytic systems by decreasing mass transfer limitations and fragmentation of catalyst into small particles that provide a higher surface area [36]. Moreover, the additional generation of free radical species in ultrasound systems should enhance the overall catalytic performance [15]. The introduction of catalysts is another way to drive the decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for the oxidation of organic contaminants. It is obvious that the phenol degradation is markedly higher in the combined method (US and catalyst) than in the individual cases (US only).

The enhancement in the degradation extent of phenol can be mainly due to the presence of heterogeneous catalyst, which can promote the decomposition of  $H_2O_2$  under ultrasonic irradiation and the generation of 'OH radicals. The increase in the efficiency can be attributed to the increase in the 'OH production due to the increased bubble explosion at particle crevices. As shown in Fig. 6, the obtained results reveal that the maximum degradation extent of 65 and 60% was achieved using 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> of NZVC and NZVN, respectively, in the presence of 20-mM  $H_2O_2$  after 60 min of sonication. The mechanism proposed by Weiss for the  $H_2O_2$  decomposition at metal surfaces



Fig. 6. Influence of ultrasonic irradiation time on phenol (25 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) degradation ratios. Reaction conditions: NZVC or NZVN (1 g  $L^{-1}$ ), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration (20 mM), pH (7), and 25 °C.

[37], is thought to be applicable for metal oxides. Petrier et al. [38] and Nosaka et al. [39] reported that both hydroxyl radicals 'OH and superoxide radicals  $HO_2^{\circ}/O_2^{\circ}$  can be measured indirectly by chemiluminescence method. In addition, Drijvers et al. [40] concluded that during the decomposition of  $H_2O_2$  by different catalysts, the most intensive luminescence was observed in the case of CuO and this might explain why NZVC has a higher catalytic activity than NZVN.

# 3.6. Influence of the catalyst amount on the sonocatalytic degradation of phenol

The influence of the catalyst amount on the sonocatalytic degradation efficiency of phenol is shown in Fig. 7. The results show that the sonocatalytic degradation efficiency of phenol increases with an increase in the catalyst amount. The degradation efficiency of phenol reached 65 and 60% for NZVC and NZVN, respectively, using 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> of catalyst in the presence of 20-mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> after 60 min of sonication. NZVC has higher catalytic activity than NZVN because NZVC has large numbers of active sites on its surface, which can increase the chances to produce point of contact between cavities and phenol.

#### 3.7. Influence of pH on sonocatalytic degradation of phenol

The influence of pH on the sonocatalytic degradation of phenol was studied and the results are shown in Fig. 8. As well known, the chemical forms of many organic pollutants in aqueous solution and the surface properties of NZVC and NZVN particles depend on the solution pH value [41]. In general, the point of zero charge (PZC) of NZVC and NZVN is approxi-



Fig. 7. Influence of catalyst amount on phenol ( $25 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) degradation ratios. Reaction conditions:  $H_2O_2$  concentration (20 mM), pH (7),  $25^{\circ}$ C, and 60 min of sonication.



Fig. 8. Influence of pH value on phenol (25 mg  $L^{-1}$ ) degradation ratios. Reaction conditions: NZVC or NZVN (1 g  $L^{-1}$ ); H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration (20 mM), 25 °C, and 60 min of sonication.

mately pH 8.5 and 8, respectively. Above these pH values, the surface of NZVC and NZVN is negatively charged, while below these pH values it is positively charged. Hence, when the solution pH value is below the PZC, phenol should be adsorbed on the surfaces of NZVC and NZVN particles easily, thus, phenol will be subjected to the higher number of generated 'OH radicals on the surface of the catalysts, accordingly increases the degradation efficiency. It is obvious that the degradation extent is enhanced under acidic conditions; however, the probability of metal dissolution cannot be ruled out. By contraries, under strong alkaline condition, because of the repulsion force due to the negatively charged surface, phenol anions in the aqueous solution are mainly degraded through radical (OH) oxidation, which is a slow-motion degradation process due to the fast decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> at strong basic conditions [11,42].

# 3.8. Influence of surface area on the catalytic efficiency

As heterogeneous catalysis is a surface phenomenon, it is well documented that the overall kinetics of the oxidation process is highly dependent on the surface area that participates in the reaction [43]. In practice, only some part, so-called active sites of the catalyst surface area are available for the reaction. However, it is quite difficult to estimate the number of active sites that are present in the catalytic system due to the catalyst deactivation processes, which lead to a low catalytic efficiency. When ultrasound irradiation is applied, the significant variation in the surface area occurs with the possible increase in the number of active "clean" sites and consequently, the increase in the reaction rates may be observed. Table 1 shows that BET surface area and pore volume of the NZVC catalyst are much higher than that of NZVN. This implies that high accessibility of reactants to copper active sites and/or a higher number of active sites. Nevertheless, the sites themselves could be less active.

#### 3.9. Kinetic study

The rate constants in presence of 20-mM  $H_2O_2$  and 1-g  $L^{-1}$  of NZVC are higher than the corresponding rates of NZVN. The calculated values of first-order rate constants of phenol degradation are listed in Table 2 and the plots of the linear representation of first-order equation are shown in Fig. 9. Prior to any kinetic studies, the effect of heat and mass transfer limitations during the oxidation process has to be established. Thus, the resistance to the mass transfer must have been negligible between the liquid bulk of the reactant and the outer surface of the catalyst particles [44]. Moreover, applying ultrasound decreased the heat and mass transfer limitations due to the physical effects induced by cavitation [45]. Table 2 reveals that the reaction rate constant for NZVC is higher than

Table 2

The calculated values of first-order rate constants of phenol degradation using ultrasound in the presence of nanosized  $ZVMs^a$ 

Catalyst	$k \;(\min^{-1})$	$R^2$
NZVC	0.012	0.9505
NZVN	0.010	0.9368

Note: <sup>a</sup>Reaction conditions: NZVC or NZVN (1 g L<sup>-1</sup>), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration (20 mM), pH (7), and 25 °C.



Fig. 9. First-order rate constant  $(min^{-1})$  of phenol (25 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) degradation ratios. Reaction conditions: NZVC or NZVN (1 g L<sup>-1</sup>), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration (20 mM), pH (7), and 25 °C.

NZVN. Thus, NZVC has higher catalytic activity than NZVN.

#### 4. Conclusions

The use of ultrasound for destroying phenol in water and wastewater is a promising approach as an environmental remediation. The combination of ultrasound and the AFP could effectively degrade phenol. The highest phenol oxidation was observed using NZVC under the US/NZVC/H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> system. Degradation efficiency of phenol increased with the increase in the ultrasonic irradiation time and catalysts amount, and decreased with the increase in the pH value. The reaction rate constant for NZVC is higher than NZVN. Thus, NZVC has higher catalytic activity than NZVN.

# Acknowledgments

The authors wish to acknowledge the financial support of this research by Egyptian Petroleum Research Institute.

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