



## The role of fly ash in solar photocatalytic water treatment

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### ABSTRACT

To investigate the possibility of using waste material in the water purification, fly ash (FA0) was modified and built-in within composite TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA. In that purpose, titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) was prepared *in-situ* by sol-gel synthesis in the presence of FA. The morphology, surface, structure and optical properties of obtained composite were compared to those of pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, synthesized by the same procedure as TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA. Both photo catalysts were then used in solar driven treatment of reactive azo dye Reactive Red 45 (RR45), exploring the influence of following process parameters: initial pH, photo catalyst dosage and initial RR45 concentrations, on the overall effectiveness. The reusability of TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA and TiO<sub>2</sub> has also been explored. Modification of FA0 significantly increased its surface area. Synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> was highly crystalline and of anatase phase only, regardless the presence of FA. Band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA is slightly lower than that of TiO<sub>2</sub>, indicating that composite might have higher activity under solar irradiation. However, it was found that TiO<sub>2</sub> is more effective, except at extreme conditions tested (the lowest pH and highest photo catalyst dosage), presumably because composite had 16 wt% less photo catalytically active component. On the other hand, composite underwent easier separation after the treatment that facilitated its reuse more efficiently.

**Keywords:** Fly ash; Material synthesis and characterization; TiO<sub>2</sub>-based composite; Solar photo catalysis; Water treatment

### 1. Introduction

Among various types of advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), photo catalytic processes using semi conducting materials, particularly active under solar irradiation, present an effective and low-energy consumption solution for sustainable water treatment. A common semi conducting material used in photo catalytic purposes is titanium (IV) oxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>); widely promoted due to: (i) high photo catalytic activity under the incident photon wavelength of 300 <math>\lambda</math> <math>< 390</math> nm, and (ii) multi-faceted functional properties (chemical and thermal stability, and attractive mechanical properties) [1,2]. However, harvesting a broader spectrum

of solar irradiation involves the lowering of the band gap of semi conducting material (e.g. TiO<sub>2</sub> has 3.1–3.2 eV) [2], while inhibiting the recombination of photo generated charges. These can be accomplished by: doping with non-metals, incorporation or deposition of noble metals (ions), and material engineering solutions based on composites formation involving various additional constituents (transition metals, carbon nanotubes, dye sensitizers, conductive polymers, graphene (oxide) and semi conducting materials) [3–5]. Another challenges related to the application of photo catalytic treatment are agglomeration during the operation and requirements for the separation of fine nano-sized particles after the treatment. The solution is the immobilization of photo catalytically active material on either fixed (glass plates, alumina sheets, reactor parts) or movable (porous particles of larger size) supports [2,3,6]. In later case, either

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natural (e.g. rice husks, natural zeolites, clays) [3,7,8] or artificially/engineered (e.g. synthetic zeolites, polymers, fly ash) [6,9–12]) materials may be applied. Considering the postulates of circular economy, particularly related to the reuse of waste materials, the application of fly ash, a solid waste generated in large quantities in thermal power plants [13], as a potentially valuable material in any aspects of environmental protection is of high interest [14]. Fly ashes pertain to a group of dispersive powders; it has a crystalline structure with the main constituents: aluminosilica, ferriferous glass, quartz and unburned carbon, with spherically shaped particles with sizes of  $\sim 20 \mu\text{m}$  [11–13].

Accordingly, in this study we have investigated the application of fly ash as an appropriate  $\text{TiO}_2$  carrier, as well as its potential as a co-catalyst in solar driven photo catalytic water treatment. In such manner, the waste (fly ash) would be recycled into a value-added product, as of utmost importance in the recycling waste process. In that purpose,  $\text{TiO}_2$  and composite made of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and fly ash (FA) were synthesized and then characterized for their morphology, surface, structure and optical properties. The photo catalytic activity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA under solar irradiation was tested in the treatment of model solution containing an organic pollutant of choice; reactive azo dye C.I. Reactive Red 45 (RR45). Despite the current focus set on micro pollutants and contaminants of emerging concern [15,16], the colored waste waters still present rather serious environmental problem, not only from the aesthetic point of view. Namely, the production and application of dyes needed in vast array spheres of everyday life, increase continuously [17]. Among them, reactive azo dyes are most commonly used in textile industry due to their excellent applicative properties. However, they are characterized with a high hydrolyzation rate, yielding large dye content in dye bath effluents and eventually in waste streams of dye houses [18]. Such streams are documented to pose health hazards caused by non-biodegradable nature of present constituents, as well as their toxicity and potentially carcinogenic nature [19,20]. Thus, they need to be treated prior to discharge into the natural effluents. Accordingly, solution containing reactive dyes is quite representative case for testing a potential tertiary treatment option.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Chemicals and materials

Following chemicals were used in the study without any further purification: hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37%, Kemika), acetic acid (HAc) ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$ , 99.8%, Kemika), ethanol (EtOH) ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ , 99.7%, Kemika), sulphuric acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , >96%, Kemika), sodium hydroxide (NaOH, p.a., Kemika), potassium nitrate ( $\text{KNO}_3$ , p.a., Kemika), potassium hydroxide (KOH, p.a., Kemika), nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\geq 90\%$ , Sigma Aldrich), tetra-n-butyl titanate (TBT) ( $\text{Ti}(\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$ , 99%, Acros Organics), and didecyl dimethyl ammonium chloride (DDAC) ( $\text{C}_{22}\text{H}_{48}\text{ClN}$ , 97%, Lonza Ltd). The reactive azo dye C.I. Reactive Red 45 (RR45) was used as a model organic pollutant in the study. Fly ash (FA0) was obtained from Plomin Power Plant, Croatia. All aqueous solutions were prepared with the ultra pure water from the Millipore Direct-Q3 UV (Merck, Germany) water purification system.

### 2.2. Synthesis of photo catalytic materials

Two photo catalytic materials were synthesized;  $\text{TiO}_2$  and composite made of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and fly ash ( $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA). The procedure for the synthesis of  $\text{TiO}_2$  was as follows. Firstly, the solution A was prepared by mixing of TBT and EtOH in the volume ratio 1 : 1 (20 mL of each chemical was used). The solution was afterwards enriched with HAc (20 mL of 3 M), added drop wisely under vigorous stirring (250 rpm). The final solution was additionally stirred for another 15 min at room temperature. Solution B was obtained by mixing DDAC (2.1 mL), EtOH (60 mL) and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (20 mL) distilled water; stirring took for 15 min at room temperature. Afterwards, the obtained solution B was added drop wisely into solution A and the resultant mixture was three times mixed for 15 min with high-speed disperser (7500 rpm) (T25 digital ULTRA-TURRAX, IKA, Germany). The mixture was then transferred in the Erlenmeyer flask, heated at  $85^\circ\text{C}$  in the laboratory oven (UN55, Memmert, Germany) for another 24 h until the transparent sol was obtained. The obtained precipitate,  $\text{TiO}_2$ , was washed for several times with distilled water, then dried at  $100^\circ\text{C}$  for 12 h, and afterwards calcined in the laboratory furnace (LP-08, Instrumentaria, Croatia) at  $400^\circ\text{C}$  for 3 h.

Prior the synthesis of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, originally obtained FA samples (FA0) were treated with 3.5 M HCl, at elevated temperature in a water bath ( $95^\circ\text{C}$ ) for 24 h and constant stirring (150 rpm), in order to increase its surface area by dissolving present  $\text{CaCO}_3$  in its structure. According to the elemental analysis of FA0, performed by the supplier, the sample did not contain any traces of heavy metals. Such treated FA was coupled with  $\text{TiO}_2$  to obtain  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA composite using the procedure described above for  $\text{TiO}_2$  synthesis; 16 wt% of FA was added into the solution A prior its coupling with solution B, while further steps remained the same as above.

### 2.3. Photo catalytic activity test

The experiments were performed in a water-jacket cooled batch reactor ( $V = 150 \text{ mL}$  and  $T = 25.0 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ ) using RR45 dye as a model organic pollutant ( $V_{\text{RR45}} = 100 \text{ mL}$ ) under simulated solar irradiation. As an irradiation source, 450 W Xenon arc lamp (Osram, Germany) situated in an appropriate lamp housing (Oriol/Newport, USA) with collimating optics, was used. An Oriol AM1.5 G air mass filter was situated in the path of the collimated beam, therefore mimicking the spectral characteristics of the solar spectrum when the Sun is at a zenith angle of  $48.2^\circ$ . The measured light intensity was  $124.78 \pm 0.11 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ , determined using pyranometer CMP21 (Kipp & Zonen, Netherland). The intensity of UV-A fraction was determined to be  $2.05 \pm 0.07 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ , using UVX radiometer equipped with UVX-36 longwave sensor (both UVP, UK). The concentration of RR45 in model solution was varied (10, 20, 30, 40, 80 and  $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ), along with the process parameters: initial pH values (from 3 to 11) and dosages of photo catalyst used ( $\text{TiO}_2$  or  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA) (from 0.2 to  $3.0 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ) (Table 1). The later were varied through set matrix by used design of experiment (central composite design, CCD, Table 2). Adequate mixing of the solution was ensured using a magnetic stirrer (250 rpm). The experimental pro-

Table 1  
Applied experimental range and the levels of independent variables used in studied solar photo catalytic treatment of RR45 dye using TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA

Process parameter	Coded value	Levels				
		–1	–0.5	0	0.5	1
pH	X1	3	5	7	9	11
$\gamma$ (catalyst) (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	X2	0.2	0.9	1.6	2.3	3.0

Table 2  
Central composite design matrix with two independent variables expressed in coded units and actual value, and RR45 removal obtained by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> and solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA during initial dark period and total

Exp #	Variables				Experimental results			
	Variable 1, X <sub>1</sub>		Variable 2, X <sub>2</sub>		Dark (ads)		Total	
	Coded	pH	Coded	$\gamma$ (catalyst) g L <sup>-1</sup>	TiO <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -FA	TiO <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -FA
					Removal, %			
1	–1	3	–1	0.2	2.85	3.52	5.21	10.31
2	1	11	–1	0.2	0.62	0.96	2.03	3.45
3	–1	3	1	3	31.92	25.91	81.75	81.38
4	1	11	1	3	2.22	0.85	10.72	9.89
5	0	7	1	3	12.12	7.69	41.82	29.56
6	1	11	0	1.6	2.14	2.13	7.90	5.80
7	0	7	–0.5	0.9	8.78	2.59	35.54	3.16
8	–1	3	0	1.6	17.64	14.16	58.17	37.04
9	–0.5	5	0.5	2.3	22.34	20.42	52.24	43.90
10	0.5	9	0.5	2.3	12.13	6.63	42.05	10.77
11	0	7	–1	0.2	2.15	2.13	4.13	2.60
12	–1	3	–1	0.2	2.90	3.42	4.86	9.80
13	1	11	–1	0.2	0.52	0.88	2.00	3.52
14	–1	3	1	3	32.13	26.41	82.05	82.62
15	1	11	1	3	2.13	0.98	9.97	9.55
16	1	11	0	1.6	2.21	2.23	8.07	6.13

cedure was following. (i) A desired concentration of RR45 solution was prepared by dissolving an adequate aliquot from “mother” solution (1 g L<sup>-1</sup>) in water. (ii) The initial pH value of solution was adjusted at desired value (according to CCD used) by 1 M NaOH or H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. (iii) The adequate amount of photo catalyst (TiO<sub>2</sub> or TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA) requested to reach desired value according to CCD was then added into the reactor. (iv) The obtained suspension was stirred firstly in the dark for 30 min in order to ensure the adsorption/desorption equilibrium, and then was exposed to simulated solar irradiation for the requested period of treatment time. The duration of experiments varied according to their intention. The overall duration of experiments (including dark period and period under solar irradiation) was 90 min (the screening of influence of process parameters and RR45 concentration on the process effectiveness; 1<sup>st</sup> set), 210 min (experiments with prolonged treatment time; 2<sup>nd</sup> set) or 120 min (the testing of re-usability of stud-

ied photo catalysts; 3<sup>rd</sup> set). The samples were taken from the reactor in the predefined periods: –30, 0, 15, 30, 45, 60 for 1<sup>st</sup> set; –30, 0, 1, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 45, 60, ...195, 210 for 2<sup>nd</sup> set; and –30, 0, 30, 60, 90 for 3<sup>rd</sup> set, then filtered using Chromafil XTRA RC (25 mm, 0.45  $\mu$ m, Macherey Nagel, Germany) and immediately submitted to analyses. All experiments in 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> set were repeated three times, while experiments in the 2<sup>nd</sup> set were performed in octuplets by varying the sampling period between them in order to achieve respective results to calculate their average and not to spend more than 10% of reaction solution during experiment for the analytical purposes. The reproducibility of the experiments was >95.9%.

The studied photo catalysts TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA were tested for its reusability through three consecutive cycles, where experiments under identical conditions (3<sup>rd</sup> set) were performed. After each cycle the photo catalysts were recovered from the solution by decantation, submitted to drying

cycle at room temperature for 12 h, and afterwards were reused in the next cycle.

#### 2.4. Analyses

The gas sorption analysis, performed using ASAP 2000 instrument (Micro meritics, USA), was used to determine the specific surface area and total pore volume of both original and treated fly ash (FA0 and FA). The samples were degassed at 400°C and subjected to N<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area was calculated from BET plot, while total pore volume was calculated using Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) model. The crystal phases in original (FA0) and as-prepared samples (FA, TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA) were identified by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using Shimadzu XRD6000 device (Japan) with CuK $\alpha$  radiation under accelerating voltage of 40 kV and current of 30 mA. Data were collected in 2 $\theta$  range 5–70° in a step scan mode with steps of 0.02° and counting time of 0.6 s. Qualitative analysis was performed using X'Pert High Score Plus software. Diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of original (FA0) and as-prepared samples (FA, TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA) were measured over the range 200–800 nm at a spectral resolution of ~0.3–10 nm using USB 2000+ UV/Vis Spectrometer (Ocean Optics, USA). The acquired reflectance *vs.* wavelength spectra were transformed into the Kubelka–Munk function (KM) *vs.* photon energy (*h* $\nu$ ) in order to obtain the band gap values of primarily photo catalytic materials [21,22]. Microstructure and the morphology of the studied particles (FA0, FA, TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA) were analyzed using scanning electron microscope (SEM) Tescan Vega 3 (Czech Republic) at 20 kV. Before analyzes the samples were sputter coated with thin layer of Au/Pd.

Decolorization of RR45 model dye solution was monitored by UV/VIS spectrophotometer, Lambda EZ 201 (Perkin Elmer, USA), measuring the absorbance in visible spectra at characteristic wavelength of used RR45 dye ( $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 542$  nm). The mineralization of RR45 dye solution was established on the basis of total organic carbon content measurements (TOC), performed by Total Organic Carbon analyzer; TOC-V<sub>CPN</sub> (Shimadzu, Japan). Chemical (COD) and biochemical oxygen demand (BOD<sub>5</sub>) were determined by colorimetric methods using HACH DR2800 spectrophotometer, and reagent kits LCK414 (for COD) and LCK554 (for BOD), all Hach-Lange, USA. Handylab pH/LF portable pH-meter (Schott Instruments GmbH, Germany) was used for adjusting pH prior photo catalytic treatment and for pH monitoring during potentiometric titration applied for the determination of point of zero charge (pH<sub>PZC</sub>) values of synthesized materials (TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA). The pH<sub>PZC</sub> values were determined applying modified procedure of Uppal et al. [23]; detail description provided in our previous study [24].

#### 2.5. Calculations

The influence of process parameters; initial pH values and dosages of photo catalyst used (TiO<sub>2</sub> or TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA), on the effectiveness of solar photo catalytic treatment of RR45 dye solution was screened by means of response surface modeling (RSM). The values of aforementioned process parameters were transferred into the dimensionless coded

values and represented by independent variables: X<sub>1</sub> and X<sub>2</sub> (Tables 1 and 2). The experimental space, covering the ranges of studied parameters and their combinations, was described using Central composite design (CCD) (Table 2). Two responses were chosen for each photo catalytic process (solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> and solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA); RR45 decolorization during initial dark period and after entire treatment period. In such manner, the adsorption ability and photo catalytic activity of studied photo catalysts (TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA) were evaluated. The combined influence of studied parameters on process performance is described by quadratic polynomial equation representing RSM models [25]. The fitting of RSM models was evaluated by coefficient of determination (R<sup>2</sup>) and the analysis of variance (ANOVA), using STATISTICA 12.7 (Stat Soft & Dell, USA) and Design-Expert 10.0 (Stat Ease, USA). Because decolorization was chosen as a system response, the influence of RR45 concentration on the process effectiveness was evaluated using traditional “one-factor-at-a-time” approach.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterization of fly ash and photo catalytic materials

The fly ash (FA0), obtained as a waste material from a power plant, had no traces of heavy metals but was characterized with a large content of CaCO<sub>3</sub> (Table S1, Supplementary material). Accordingly, FA0 was treated using HCl in order to modify its structural properties by dissolving CaCO<sub>3</sub> with the aim at increasing of adsorption capacity, providing potential improvements in its ability to serve as TiO<sub>2</sub> carrier. Hence, fly ash samples before (FA0) and after HCl treatment (FA) were characterized using nitrogen isothermal adsorption-desorption method in order to determine the surface area characteristics. The results are given in Fig. 1A and Table 3. As can be seen, the specific surface area (BET) and total pore volume of FA sample are approximately three times higher than that of FA0 (Table 3), indicating on rather significant removal of CaCO<sub>3</sub> by HCl treatment. The typical isotherm hysteresis for the porous systems can be seen for both FA0 and FA samples (Fig. 1A). It corresponds to nitrogen mono layer at relatively low pressure, and nitrogen multilayer at relatively higher pressures [26]. In the case of FA the adsorption isotherm and hysteresis loop significantly increased at lower relative pressures, indicating higher number of pores than in the case of FA0. The shape and position of the hysteresis of FA0 sample shows presence of very low fraction of pores, as can be observed from the value of the volume absorbed (Fig. 1A). Additionally, SEM analysis of FA0 and FA samples (Fig. 1B and C, respectively) revealed completely different morphology between them; the treated sample (FA) exhibits morphology with globules, while untreated (FA0) is less shape-defined.

Table 3  
Specific surface area and total pore size of used fly ash samples

Samples	BET (m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	Total volume pore (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )
FA0	3.9310	6.312 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>
FA	12.8021	16.120 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>

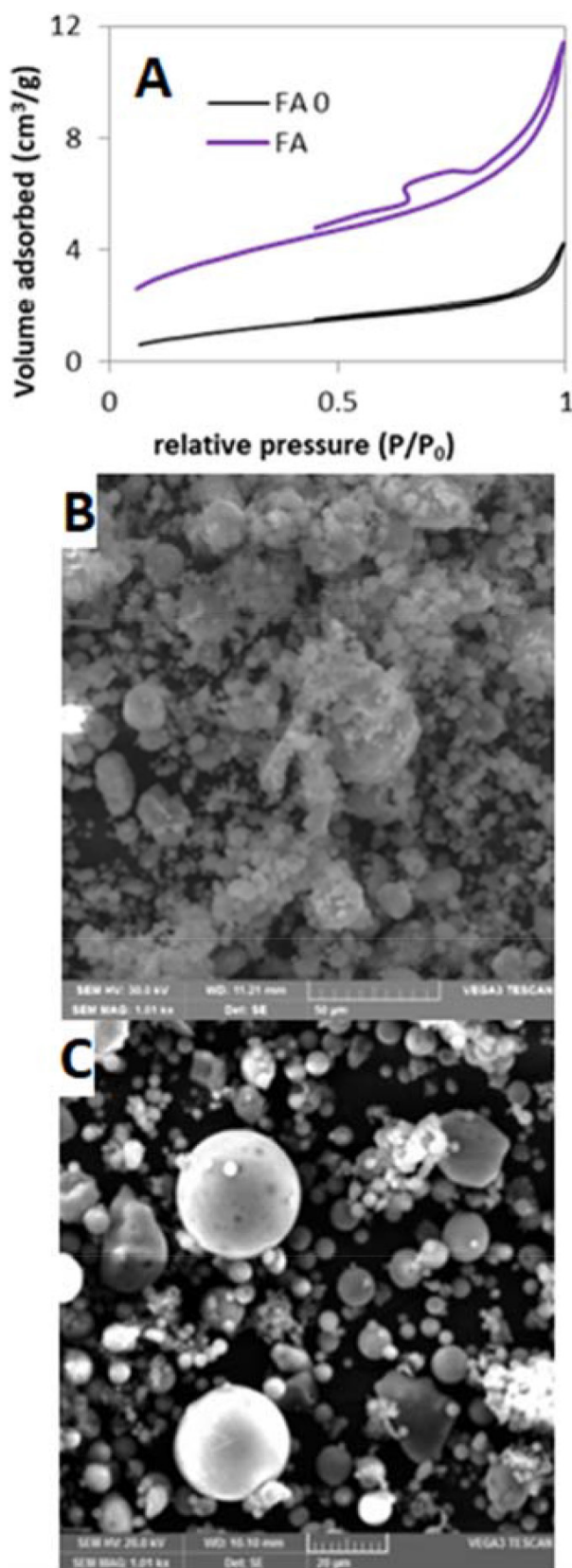


Fig. 1. Characterization of fly ash before (FA0) and after treatment (FA): nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms (A), SEM micrographs of FA0 (B) and FA (C).

The both fly ash samples, along with synthesized photo catalysts ( $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$ ) were characterized by XRD analysis (Fig. 2). Obtained diffractograms consist of narrow diffraction lines suggesting well-crystalline materials (Fig. 2A). FA0 yields crystalline phases: quartz (ICDD PDF#46-1045), mullite (ICDD PDF#79-1450), calcite (ICDD PDF#05-0586), calcium silicate (ICDD PDF#49-0442), hematite (ICDD PDF#33-0664) and magnetite (ICDD PDF#19-0629), all common in crystalline composition of fly ash [27]. The amorphous phase is also observed at broad hump centered at  $23^\circ 2\theta$ , and most likely corresponds to amorphous silica, also common in fly ash composition. FA sample, corresponding to the treated fly ash, yields the same phases as FA0, with an important exception (Fig. 2A). The calcite fraction is completely leached out while the remaining crystal phases increased as a consequence of the modification process i.e. the dissolution of  $\text{CaCO}_3$ . It is worth of noting that the amorphous quantity in FA sample remains almost unchanged upon modification process using HCl (Fig. 2A). Taking into account the differences in morphology and crystallinity between FA0 and FA (Fig. 1B and C, Fig. 2A), one can conclude that less-defined morphology of FA0 is related to the presence of  $\text{CaCO}_3$ . Hence, calcite covered the surface of globules, thus decreasing the surface properties of the untreated material, FA0. In Fig. 2B the diffractograms of synthesized photo catalytic materials  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$  are compared with that of AEROXIDE  $\text{TiO}_2$  P25, a benchmark material. As can be clearly seen synthesized materials are characterized with peaks at  $25.4^\circ$  and  $48.0^\circ$ , confirming the presence of anatase structure within. On the other hand, their XRD patterns lack the peaks at  $27.5^\circ$ ,  $36.1^\circ$  and  $54.4^\circ$ , typical for rutile phase, that are present in benchmark material  $\text{TiO}_2$  P25 (Fig. 2B). Accordingly, the diffractograms of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$  exhibit anatase (ICDD PDF#21-1272) as the only crystalline phase related to  $\text{TiO}_2$ , while their broad shape indicates on the nano size of synthesized particles. In the composite sample,  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$ , the additional lines in diffractogram can be observed, pertaining to FA constituents with the highest content (i.e. strongest crystalline lines as observed in Fig. 2A); quartz (ICDD PDF#46-1045) and mullite (ICDD PDF#79-1450).

The UV/Vis reflectance spectra of studied materials are given Fig. 3; the shapes for  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$  are very similar, while those corresponding to FA0 and FA show significant deviation in reflectance. Their reflectance started at 15% and did not change significantly in range from 200 to 320 nm, while it increased up to 32 and 38 % at 800 nm for FA and FA0, respectively. On the other hand,  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$  show rather broad band; both samples are characterized with lower reflectance in the range of 220–380 nm, while in the visible spectra (380–800 nm) significantly higher reflectance with no maximum was observed. The light reflectance intensity indicates on the material photo activity in certain UV/Vis spectra range [28,29], while corresponding band gaps values provide more clear relationship. Hence, we transferred obtained reflectance using Kubelka–Munk function (K-M) and presented obtained results *vs.* photon energy ( $h\nu$ ), (Fig. 3B). As can be seen, the plotted  $F(R)^{1/2}$  *vs.*  $E_g$  exhibit flat sections only in the case of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}$ , thus indirect band gap values are calculated only for them. The band gap of 3.05 eV was calculated for  $\text{TiO}_2$ , which is a similar value to corresponding materials of anatase struc-

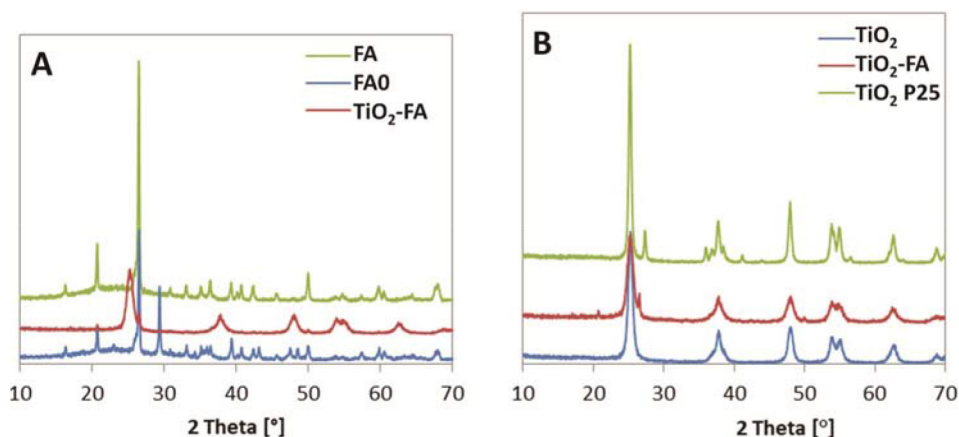


Fig. 2. X-ray diffraction patterns of studied materials: FA0, FA, and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA (A), and  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA and AEROXIDE  $\text{TiO}_2$  P25 (B).

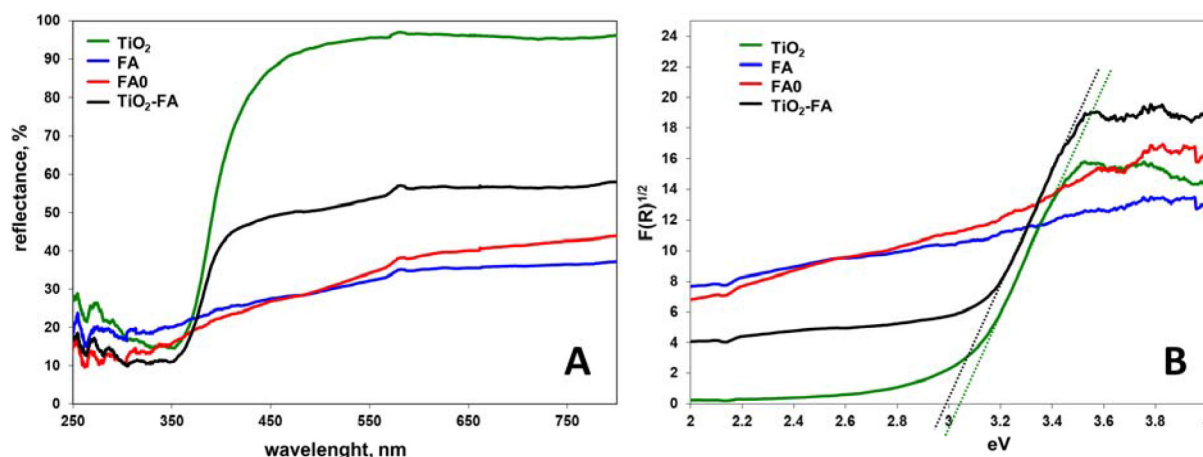


Fig. 3. Diffuse reflectance spectra of studied materials: FA, FA0,  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA (A), and corresponding plots of transformed Kubelka-Munk function vs. the energy of the light (B).

ture in the literature [21,24]. On the other hand, the composite showed slightly lower band gap value, 2.99 eV (Fig. 3B), indicating that  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA might be more active under visible irradiation. In addition, the intensity of reflectance for the composite is between the reflectance for the pure components ( $\text{TiO}_2$ , FA), presumably due to its homogeneous composition as results of the established interactions between  $\text{TiO}_2$  and FA (Fig. 3). The result of the SEM micro graphs, shown in Fig. 4, supports this assumption since the larger agglomerates of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  or FA has not been observed. On the contrary, the aggregation of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  has been reduced (as can be seen in Fig. 4a).

In Fig. 4 SEM micro graphs of synthesized species,  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, are presented. As it can be seen from Fig. 4A,  $\text{TiO}_2$  is present in smaller crystalline structures (Fig. 2B), as well as in bigger chunks, presumably agglomerated  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles. On the other hand, in the case of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA composite (Fig. 4B), besides smaller structures, presumably  $\text{TiO}_2$  not bonded into composite, globules structures, pertaining to FA, partially covered with  $\text{TiO}_2$  crystallites can be observed (marked white circle). Accordingly, it can be concluded that composite structure is not quite uniform and consists of self-standing  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  deposited onto FA.

### 3.2. Photo catalytic activity of studied materials

The photo catalytic activity of synthesized  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA was studied under solar irradiation and on the model solution containing RR45 reactive azo dye. In the first step, the adsorption capacity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA in dark conditions toward RR45 dye, as well as susceptibility

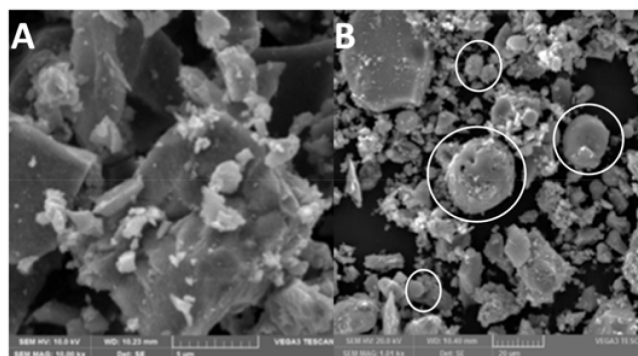


Fig. 4. SEM images of studied  $\text{TiO}_2$  (A), and FA- $\text{TiO}_2$  (B).

of RR45 dye to be degraded directly under applied solar irradiation, were studied (Fig. S1, Supplementary material). The blank test related to the adsorption of RR45 in a dark is important due to the fact that reveals the adsorption of targeted pollutant onto used photo catalytic material. Additionally, it may provide an information on the appropriate dark period to establish adsorption/desorption before conducting the photo catalytic test under induced radiation. Namely, the adsorption is one of preconditions for effective photo catalytic degradation [2,3,30]. Hence, the blank test revealed two important effects; (i) the entire adsorption occurred in the first 30 min, and (ii) both materials exhibit similar adsorption of RR45 (17.3 and 14.5% by  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, respectively) at studied conditions (pH 3 and  $1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$  of photo catalytic material). Accordingly, the initial dark period prior exposure to solar irradiation in duration of 30 min would ensure adsorption/desorption equilibrium between RR45 and studied photo catalytic materials. Another blank test performed, the direct photolytic RR45 degradation under solar irradiation, is important in order to distinguish the photo catalytic and photolytic effects occurring in the overall degradation of targeted pollutant. According to obtained results, it can be concluded that RR45 degradation under solar irradiation is rather limited in the absence of any photo catalytic material; after 90 min treatment a rather negligible decolorization extent of RR45 dye solution, 0.3%, was achieved (Fig. S1, Supplementary material).

Taking into account the findings from performed blank tests, the photo catalytic activity of studied materials toward RR45 dye is performed varying the process parameters: pH and dosage of photo catalyst (experimental matrix set by CCD, Table 2), as well as initial RR45 concentration. In Fig. 5 a comparison of RR45 removals using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA under solar irradiation at conditions set by CCD is presented (Table 2). As can be seen, a noticeable RR45 removal after entire photo catalytic treatment (>80%) is achieved only in experiments #3 and #14 (Fig. 5), which are actually replicates performed at pH 3 and with  $3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$  of photo catalysts. Interestingly, the overall effectiveness of processes conducted with  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA did not differ, in spite of slightly better adsorption results in initial dark period achieved with  $\text{TiO}_2$ ; for 6% better RR45 removal in

comparison to the case using  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA (exps. #3 and #14, Fig. 5, Table 2). In all other conditions studied, process using  $\text{TiO}_2$  showed better or remarkably better (e.g. exps. #5, #7, #8, #9 and #10, Fig. 5) overall effectiveness comparing to that using composite. The exceptions are cases with rather poor RR45 removal; lower than 10% in overall (exps. #1, #2, #12, and #13, Fig. 5). Since no clear pattern in behavior of both processes was observed through given presentation, the obtained RR45 removals, both after initial dark period and overall, were modeled using RSM.

Using this approach one may get insight in the influence of the process parameters of the photo catalytic treatment avoiding the misleading information that might be obtained using “one-parameter-at-the-time” approach [2,31]. The first postulate for such action is to have accurate, significant and predictive models. Most commonly, the evaluation of RSM models is based on statistical parameters, either numerical obtained from analysis of variance (ANOVA): Fisher  $F$ -test value ( $F$ ), its probability value ( $p$ ), regression coefficients (pure;  $R^2$ , adjusted;  $R_{\text{adj}}^2$ , predicted;  $R_{\text{pre}}^2$ ),  $t$ -test value, or graphical based on so-called “residual diagnostic” (RD): normal probability test, Levene’s test, and constant variance test [25,32–34]. Hence, the multiple regression analysis was applied on CCD matrix and RR45 removal extents obtained after initial dark period and overall photo catalytic treatment i.e. system responses (Table 2), yielding polynomial equations given in Table S2 (Supplementary material). Afterwards, such obtained models M1–M4 are characterized by ANOVA (Tables S3 and S4, Supplementary material) and RD (example is given in Fig. S2, Supplementary material). Basically, all models were found to be significant (all having  $p < 0.0001$ ), and accurate ( $0.961 < R^2 < 0.989$  and  $0.941 < R_{\text{adj}}^2 < 0.984$ ), while RD revealed that (i) there are no violations in the assumptions that errors are normally distributed and independent of each other, (ii) the error variances are homogeneous, and (iii) residuals are independent. Accordingly, these M1–M4 models can be used hereinafter as a tool to enlighten the influence of studied parameters (initial pH and photo catalyst dosage) on RR45 adsorption and solar driven photo catalytic treatment using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA.

Fig. 6 shows 3D surface and contour presentations of the influence of initial pH and photo catalyst dosage on RR45 removal after initial period and overall solar photo catalytic treatment using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA modeled by M1, M2, M3 and M4, respectively. Although 3D surfaces for dark adsorption are rather similar (Fig. 6A and 6C), several differences can be noticed. Regardless the photo catalyst applied, adsorptive removal of RR45 is fairly limited at basic conditions, but is promoted at acidic conditions, especially at higher dosages of applied photo catalysts. However, somewhat higher RR45 removal extents were achieved with  $\text{TiO}_2$  at comparable conditions. Similar results were also obtained during blank tests (Fig. S1, Supplementary material). Such results can be assigned to the higher overall adsorptive capacity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  over  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, presumably due to differences in surface area and  $\text{pH}_{\text{PZC}}$  values (Fig. S3, Supplementary material). Namely, it was established that  $\text{pH}_{\text{PZC}}$  value of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is higher than that of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA;  $6.62 > 4.41$ . It should be noted that determined  $\text{pH}_{\text{PZC}}$  value of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is in accordance with literature findings [24,35]. The obtained  $\text{pH}_{\text{PZC}}$  value for the composite  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA can be associated

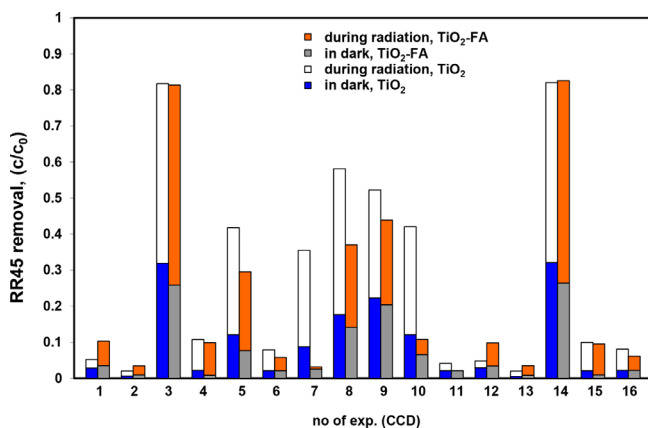


Fig. 5. Comparison of RR45 removal using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA under solar irradiation at conditions set by CCD (Tables 1 and 2).

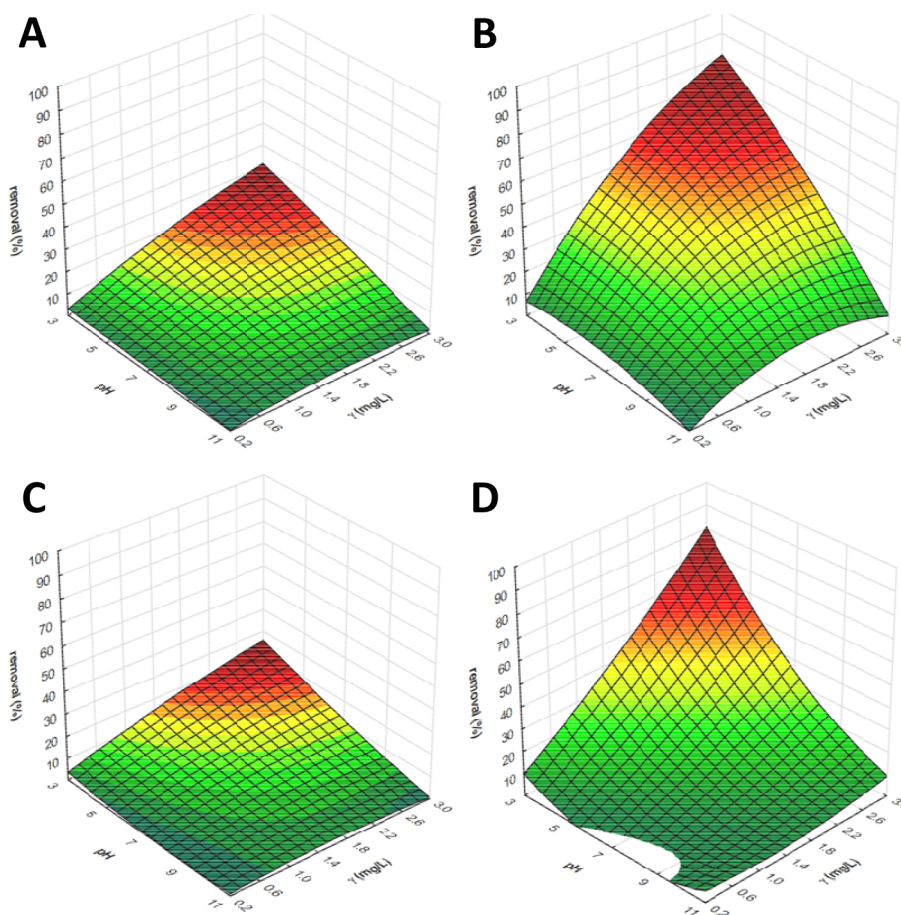


Fig. 6. 3D response surface and contour diagrams showing the effects of the mutual interactions of initial pH and  $\gamma$ (catalyst) on the RR45 obtained by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> during initial dark period (A) and total (B) and by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA during initial dark period (C) and total (D).

with the remained acidic content during FA treatment. The 3D surface plots representing the influence of initial pH and photo catalyst dosage on the overall photo catalytic effectiveness, although sharing maximum area (lowest pH and highest photo catalyst dosage), are of completely different shape. The one corresponding to solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> process (Fig. 6B) has concave shape, while the other corresponding to solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA process is of convex shape (Fig. 6D). Usually concave shape, observed for solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> process (Fig. 6B), can be assigned to the saturation effect, i.e. too high dosage of photo catalytic particles in the system, yielding increased recombination of photo generated electron-hole ( $e^-/h^+$ ) pairs and photon-shielding effect due to decreased transparency, both lowering the process effectiveness [2,3,36]. If we consider that photon-shielding effect would take place in solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA process as well (although in smaller extent due to larger and heavier FA particles), the convex shape observed here can be assigned to the fact that TiO<sub>2</sub> content was not the same as the weight of added photo catalyst. TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA had 16 wt.% of non-photo catalytically active particle (FA), and most likely the increased recombination of formed  $e^-/h^+$  pairs was not reached in the studied range. Thus, the process effectiveness remarkably increased by increasing TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA dosage (Fig. 6D). Common effects observed in photo catalytic treatment using TiO<sub>2</sub> and

TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA are similar to those observed in dark adsorption; limited RR45 removal at basic conditions and significant improvements in processes effectiveness by decreasing pH and increasing photo catalyst dosage (Fig. 6.). According to the photocatalysis mechanism, the precursors for hydroxyl radicals ( $HO^\bullet$ ) and super oxide radicals ( $O_2^{\bullet-}$ ) formed at photo generated  $h^+$  and  $e^-$  upon the excitation of photo catalytic material by the sufficient energy, are  $HO^-$  and (dissolved)  $O_2$  [1,2]. In theory  $HO^\bullet$  formation, as the main reactive specie in the non-aerated system (as ours), would be higher at elevated pH (due to higher concentration of  $HO^-$ ) [1–3]. Thus, one may conclude that process effectiveness would be higher at basic conditions. However, our results clearly support the above-stated importance of adsorption within photo catalytic degradation mechanism. Namely, the effective adsorption on the catalyst surface precedes effective degradation of organics by photo catalytic treatment. In such case, the degradation occurs at the surface directly on photo generated  $h^+$  or indirectly by formed reactive oxygenated species (ROS, predominately  $HO^\bullet$  and  $O_2^{\bullet-}$ ), overcoming mass transfer limitations related to their diffusion into the solution [2,37]. The increase in process effectiveness by increasing the photo catalyst dosage is logical; (i) more photo catalytic material means more active places where  $h^+$  and  $e^-$  can be generated, and (ii) higher sur-



face area for adsorption of targeted organic pollutant [2,38]. However, the negative influence of too high dosage related to saturation effect should be considered as well. Actually, that effect was in part reflected in the case of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , resulting with the concave shape of 3D surface (Fig. 6B).

The results obtained within testing the influence of initial RR45 concentration on the effectiveness of solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA processes are presented in Fig. 7 (comparison of studied processes for each initial RR45 concentration) and Fig. S4 (Supplementary material) (comparison of studied initial RR45 concentrations for each process). Three common effects can be seen from Fig. 7. (i) When absolute

values are considered, RR45 removal during dark period is the same regarding the same particle type;  $\sim 3.5$  and  $\sim 3.2$  mg are removed by  $1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$  of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, respectively. (ii) Regardless the catalyst type and initial RR45 concentrations, RR45 removals achieved after exposure to solar irradiation obeyed first-order kinetics, which is in accordance with the literature [3,39]. (iii) Solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  process showed higher effectiveness at all studied RR45 concentrations comparing to the process with  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA. Although in some cases the differences seem to be large (between 10 and 15%) (Fig. 6(A) and 6(B)), when absolute values are compared the difference in effectiveness is almost similar

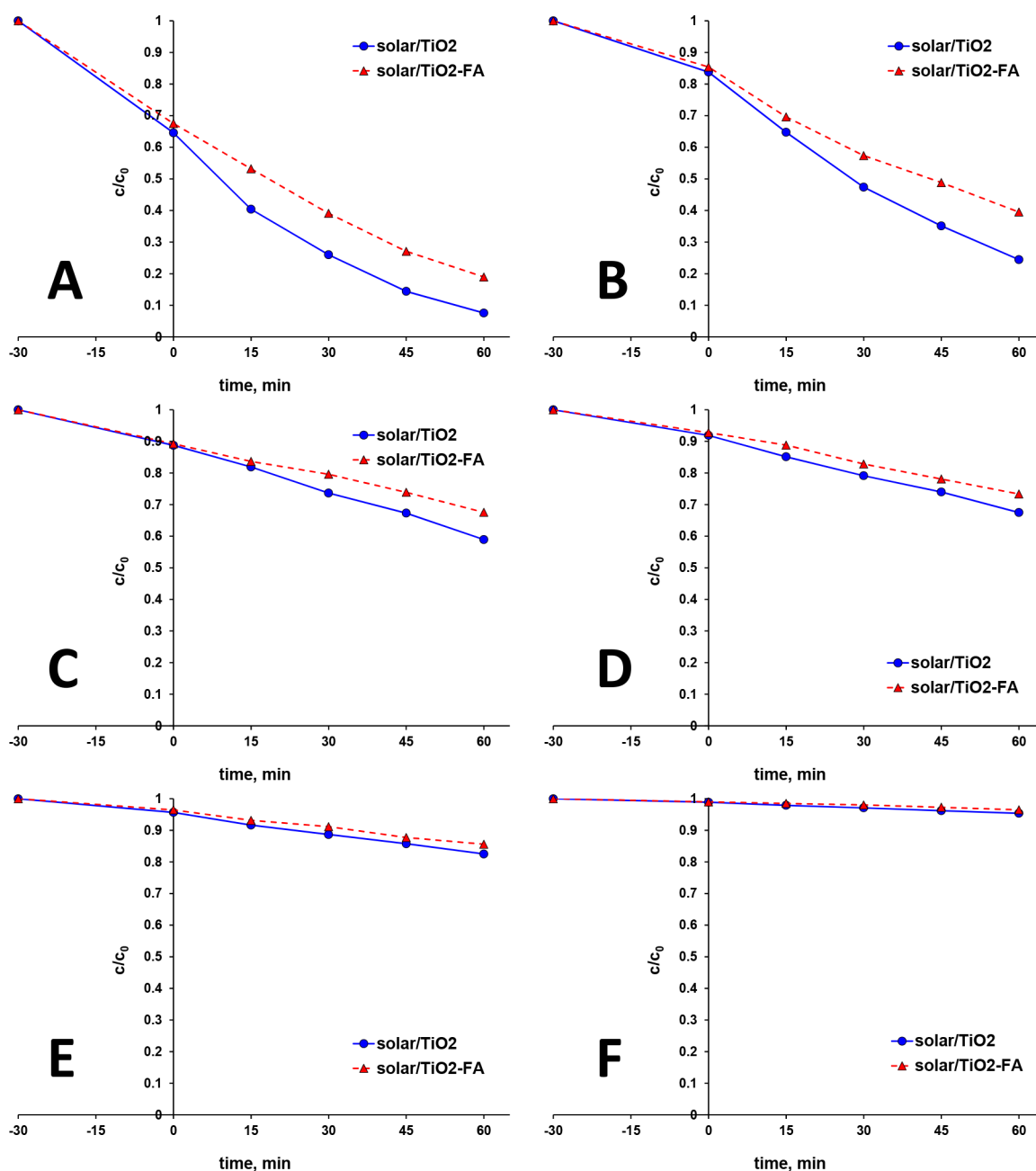


Fig. 7. The influence of initial RR45 concentration on the effectiveness of solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA:  $10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (A),  $20 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (B),  $30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (C),  $40 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (D),  $80 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (E), and  $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (F) (pH 4.8,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ )

regardless the initial RR45 concentration;  $\sim 2.8$  mg of RR45 remained non-degraded by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA process. This result speaks in favor to the above-mentioned lack of photo catalytic material in the case of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA when comparing the processes with dosages of  $\text{TiO}_2$  or  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA. Considering the relative RR45 removal efficiency, as presented in Fig. 7, one can conclude that process effectiveness decreases with the increase of initial RR45 concentration. However, when observing absolute values the effect is not straightforward. For example, when the concentration of dye increased from 10 to 20  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ , the process effectiveness also increased; from 9.2 to 14.5 mg and from 8.1 to 12.1 mg degraded by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, respectively (Figs. 7(A) and (B), and S4, Supplementary material). The further increase in initial dye concentration up to 30, 40 and even 80  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  resulted in somewhat lower process effectiveness;  $\sim 12.5$  and  $\sim 10.5$  mg of RR45 were degraded by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, respectively (Figs. 7(C), (D) and (E), and S4, Supplementary material). When initial RR45 concentration increased at 100  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  the significant drop in process effectiveness was observed; less than 5 mg of RR45 was degraded in both studied processes (Figs. 7F and S4, Supplementary material). Taking into account that (i) same conditions (initial pH and photo catalyst dosage) were applied, (ii) similar RR45 removals during initial dark period were achieved (in absolute values), and (iii) photo-shielding effect occurred as a consequence of increased initial RR45 concentration, such behavior can be explained with the fact that most probably organic radical species were formed during partial RR45 degradation. Hence, more RR45 molecules present in the system, more organic radicals were formed and involved in further RR45 degradation. Similar effects were reported in the literature [40,41]. However, it seems that such positive effect was overcome by non-transparent nature of reaction solution when RR45 concentration increased to 100  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ , resulting in rather poor effectiveness of solar driven photo catalytic process (Figs. 7 and S4, Supplementary material).

In the next test, the influence of treatment time on the effectiveness of studied solar driven photo catalytic processes using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA was investigated. The results obtained during prolonged treatment, i.e. upon achieving the complete RR45 removal, with at least one process, are presented in Fig. 8. An interesting effect can be observed

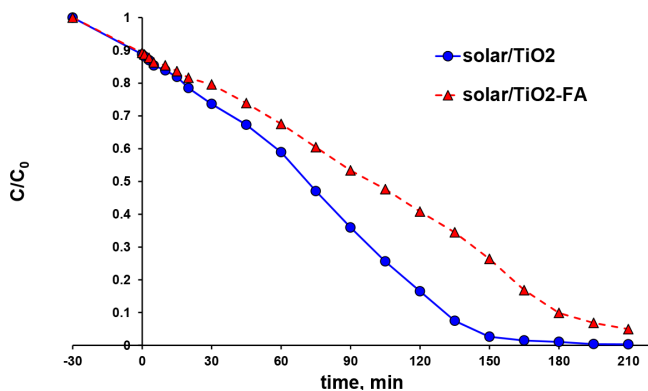


Fig. 8. The influence of treatment time on the effectiveness of solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA (pH 4.8,  $\gamma(\text{RR45}) = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ).

during initial period of treatment under solar irradiation; rather similar RR45 removal extents were recorded regardless the catalyst applied. The discrepancies in process effectiveness started to be more evident after 15 min treatment and were enlarged with the treatment time prolongation. The obtained results are most likely the consequence of different content of photo catalytically active material in spite of the same overall weight of photo catalysts. According to here obtained results, the mineralization effectiveness was compared. The mineralization of RR45 dye solution was determined at the same decolorization extents (Fig. 9). As can be seen, when 25% decolorization of RR45 solution was achieved, rather low amount of organic content was mineralized;  $<1\%$  in both processes. By progressing of RR45 degradation, i.e. by increasing the decolorization extent up to 50% and 75%, more significant mineralization extents were recorded; 14.5 and 25.0 % by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and 11.7 and 21.0 % by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA. Finally, a remarkable amount of organic content was mineralized after achieving almost complete decolorization of RR45 solution; 52.3 and 37.9 % by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, respectively (Fig. 9). Taking into account the degradation mechanism of dyes with similar structure [40,41], one can conclude that chromophoric group of RR45, responsible for the coloration of solution, is the weakest part of dye molecule and was firstly attacked by ROS. Hence, decolorization in higher extent must precede the mineralization. Observing the differences in mineralization effectiveness regarding the photo catalyst type applied, one can conclude that mineralization is more promoted when  $\text{TiO}_2$  was used. The reason for such behavior may be found in the fact that more active places at catalyst surface existed when only  $\text{TiO}_2$  was present in the system. However, the determined biodegradability of RR45 dye solution at 90% decolorization showed similar results for both processes. Namely,  $\text{BOD}_5/\text{COD}$  values were improved significantly comparing to the initial value of untreated RR45 solution; from 0.05 (characterizing highly non-biodegradable water) to 0.42 and 0.41 (over biodegradability limits [42]) in the cases of solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, respectively. These results indicate that degradation path-

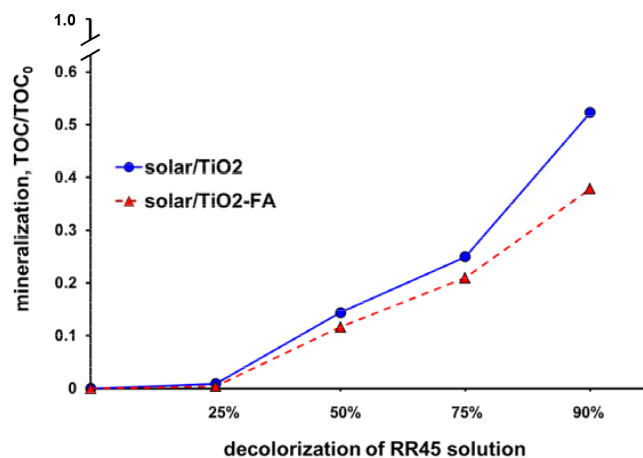


Fig. 9. Mineralization of RR45 dye solution regarding the decolorization percentage achieved by solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA (pH 4.8,  $\gamma(\text{RR45}) = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ).

ways occurring in performed solar driven photo catalytic treatments might be different; in spite of rather high discrepancy in mineralization achieved at 90% decolorization, similar biodegradability was obtained.

The final performed test within the study was a reuse of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA through consecutive cycles (Fig. 10). As can be seen, the photo catalyst reuse resulted in the decreased effectiveness of both (i) adsorption during dark period and (ii) overall photo catalytic treatment, regardless the photo catalyst type. Hence, the adsorption capacity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in dark period lowered for ~4.5% in each consecutive cycle (Fig. 10A). Similar drop in adsorption effectiveness was recorded in the case  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA, resulting with almost negligible adsorption during dark period of 3<sup>rd</sup> cycle (Fig. 10B). Similarly, overall effectiveness of photo catalytic treatments decreased between 7 and 10% through the cycles. Even higher drop in process effectiveness can be seen for achieved mineralization through the consecutive cycles (Fig. 10C). This effect can be assigned to the organic content remained at the catalyst surface from previous run, and in such manner (i) lowering the surface area and (ii) blocking the active sites for the formation of ROS [44]. Both effects would have negative influence on process effectiveness in reuse cycles.

The organic content can be either RR45 dye molecules or formed by-products during RR45 degradation, adsorbed at the catalyst surface during the treatment process due to altered adsorption/desorption equilibrium. Similar effects were observed in our previous study [9]. Although easy to handle and maintain, the simple reuse of studied photo catalysts is not a favorable option, thus the reactivation of studied photo catalysts using either washing (water or bases) or more advanced techniques (thermal, UV, ozone, etc) [43–47] should be used to retain activity in the consecutive cycles.

Based on the above presented results, the set hypothesis of using FA as potential co-catalyst promoting overall composite photo activity under solar irradiation has not been confirmed. In spite of slightly lower band gap value, composite material had 16% lower content of sole photo catalytically active material ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ), which caused lower effectiveness of process using composite. The other hypothesis; the use of FA, a waste material from power plant, as a carrier for  $\text{TiO}_2$  in water treatment process, is partially confirmed by (i) morphology inspection, as well as (ii) reuse tests, where the separation of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA was much easier than that of sole  $\text{TiO}_2$ ; the latter formed much thicker suspensions.

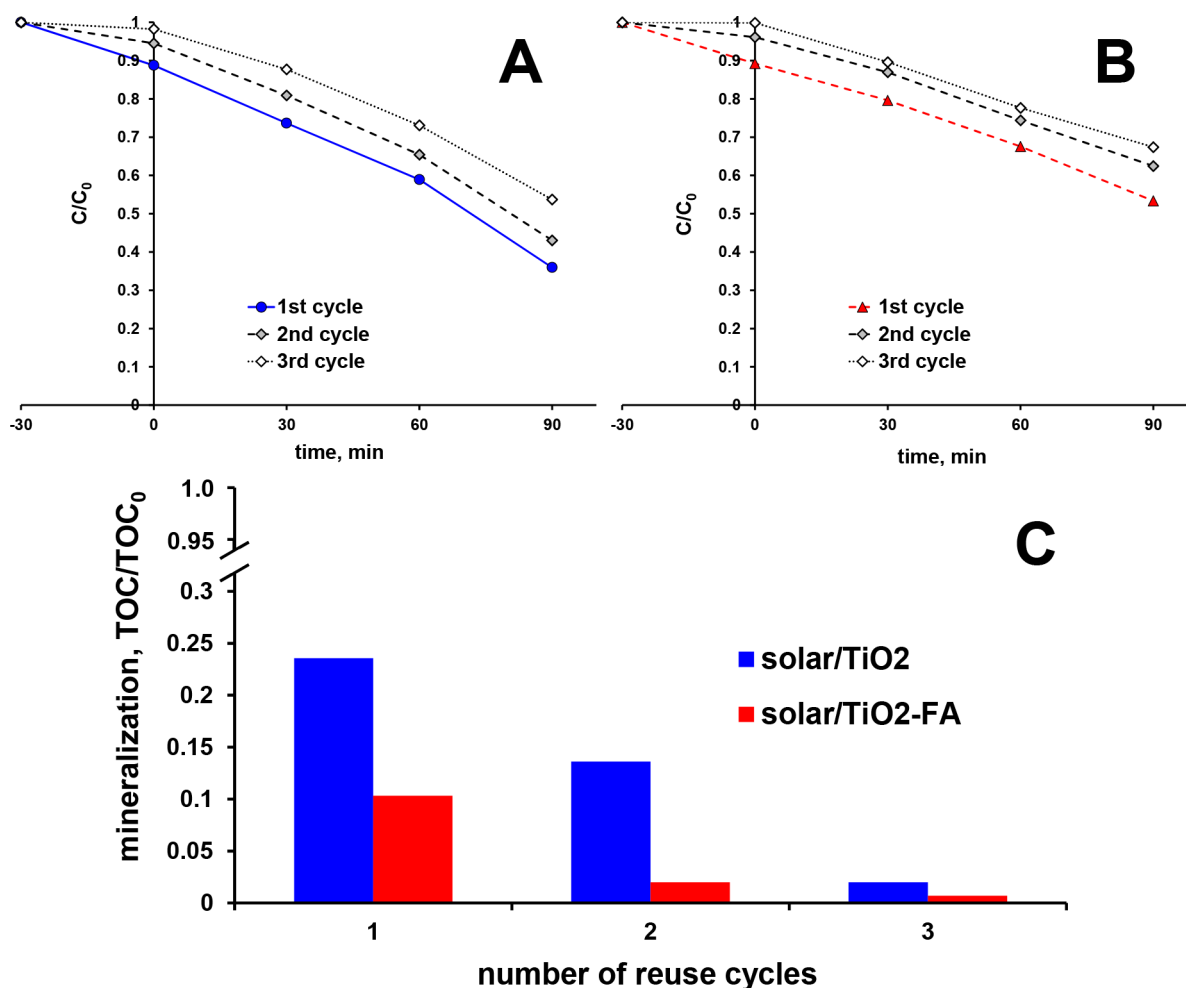


Fig. 10. Catalyst reuse study; effectiveness of solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and solar/ $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA in RR45 solution decolorization and mineralization through 3 consecutive cycle (pH 4.8,  $\gamma(\text{RR45}) = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ).

#### 4. Conclusions

The results of characterization of modified fly ash (FA) revealed the increased surface area due to removal of  $\text{CaCO}_3$ , confirmed by XRD and SEM analysis; complete leaching of calcite and clear spherical shapes were observed. Thus, the modification of fly ash successfully enhanced its property for the intended use as the  $\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst carrier. The results from XRD analysis showed that synthesized  $\text{TiO}_2$  is consistent of only anatase crystalline phase. The results of DRS analysis and corresponding Kubelka-Munk plots showed that modified fly ash contributed to the lower band gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA composite comparing to pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , indicating that its photo activity under visible irradiation might also increase. SEM analysis revealed that  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA composite does not have uniform composition but is consistent of self-standing  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  deposited onto FA.

The both studied photo catalysts  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA showed similar adsorption capacity throughout studied range of pH and applied dosages;  $\text{TiO}_2$  exhibited slightly better RR45 removal during dark periods, presumably as consequence of its surface properties. Influence of studied processes parameters (initial pH, photo catalyst dosage and initial RR45 concentration) on RR45 degradation efficiency using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA under solar irradiation was also similar. It was established that RR45 removal increased by decreasing the initial pH and increasing the photo catalyst dosage, mirroring the adsorption efficiency during initial dark period. Additionally, RR45 removal (in absolute values) was quite stable regardless of initial concentration (up to 80 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), indicating the involvement of organic radical species in the RR45 degradation. However, throughout studied range of process parameters, except the optimal area mentioned above (highly acidic pH and the highest photo catalyst dosage applied), process using  $\text{TiO}_2$  showed better results than that using  $\text{TiO}_2$ -FA. Such effect can be assigned to the fact that composite had 16 wt% less photo catalytically active component ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ). However, composite underwent easier separation after the treatment, but again, exhibited lower effectiveness than reused  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

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### Supplementary material

Table S1

The composition of original fly ash sample (FA0)

Constituent	SiO <sub>2</sub>	CaO/CaCO <sub>3</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	SO <sub>3</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> O	MgO
Content (%)	42.01	24.30	20.31	5.55	2.37	2.35	1.20

– TiO<sub>2</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>O, P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, CuO < 1%– SrO, WO<sub>3</sub>, MnO, Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, ZnO, NiO, PbO; in traces

Table S2

Model equations of derived RSM models for RR45 removal by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> and solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA during initial dark period and total

Process	Model #	Model equation
Adsorption on TiO <sub>2</sub>	M1	$Y = 2.60 - 1.05 \times X_1 + 0.92 \times X_2 - 0.25 \times X_1 \times X_2 - 0.67 \times X_{12} - 0.78 \times X_{22}$
Adsorption on TiO <sub>2</sub> -FA	M2	$Y = 2.04 - 1.10 \times X_1 + 0.60 \times X_2 - 0.50 \times X_1 \times X_2 - 0.25 \times X_{12} - 0.69 \times X_{22}$
Solar/TiO <sub>2</sub>	M3	$Y = 39.25 - 19.71 \times X_1 + 20.50 \times X_2 - 16.58 \times X_1 \times X_2 - 4.92 \times X_{12} - 10.56 \times X_{22}$
Solar/TiO <sub>2</sub> -FA	M4	$Y = 13.06 - 18.99 \times X_1 + 18.66 \times X_2 - 16.61 \times X_1 \times X_2 + 10.09 \times X_{12} + 3.09 \times X_{22}$

Table S3

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the RSM models M1 and M3 predicting RR45 removal by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> during initial dark period and total

Factor (coded)	Statistical analysis									
	SS		df		MSS		F		p	
	M1	M3	M1	M3	M1	M3	M1	M3	M1	M3
Model	25.77	11704.16	5	95	5.15	2340.83	135.34	52.10	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
X <sub>1</sub>	12.46	4360.62	1	1	12.46	4360.62	327.26	97.05	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
X <sub>12</sub>	1.25	67.65	1	1	1.25	67.65	32.89	1.51	0.0002*	0.2479
X <sub>2</sub>	9.12	4503.79	1	1	9.12	4503.79	239.39	100.24	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
X <sub>22</sub>	1.76	318.92	1	1	1.76	318.92	46.11	7.10	<0.0001*	0.0237*
X <sub>1</sub> × X <sub>2</sub>	0.50	2231.28	1	1	0.50	2231.28	13.24	49.66	0.0045*	<0.0001*
Residual	0.38	449.30	10	10	0.038	44.93				
Total	26.15	12153.46	15	15						

\*p &lt; 0.05 are considered as significant.

Table S4

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the RSM models M2 and M4 predicting RR45 removal by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA during initial dark period and total

Factor (coded)	Statistical analysis									
	SS		df		MSS		F		p	
	M2	M4	M2	M4	M2	M4	M2	M4	M2	M4
Model	21.17	10534.22	5	5	4.23	2106.84	49.08	186.42	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
X <sub>1</sub>	13.67	4048.31	1	1	13.67	4048.31	158.42	358.20	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
X <sub>12</sub>	0.18	284.09	1	1	0.18	284.09	2.06	25.14	0.1813	0.0005*
X <sub>2</sub>	3.82	3733.09	1	1	3.82	3733.09	44.26	330.31	<0.0001*	<0.0001*
X <sub>22</sub>	1.37	27.33	1	1	1.37	27.33	15.91	2.42	0.0026*	0.1510
X <sub>1</sub> × X <sub>2</sub>	2.03	2240.06	1	1	2.03	2240.06	23.50	198.20	0.0007*	<0.0001*
Residual	0.86	113.02	10	10	0.086	11.30				
Total	22.04	10647.24	15	15						

\*p &lt; 0.05 are considered as significant.

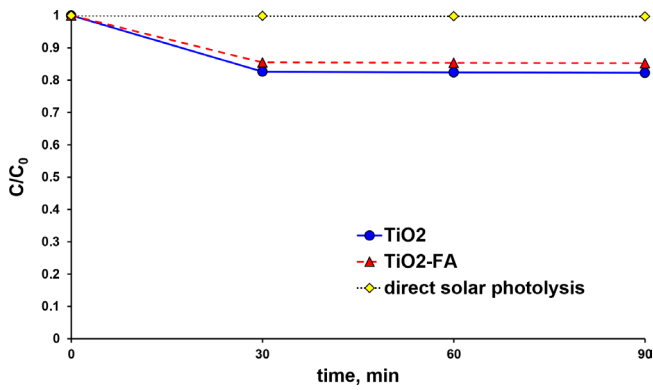


Fig. S1. Adsorption of RR45 dye onto TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA in the dark (pH 3,  $\gamma(\text{RR45}) = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ) and degradation of RR45 by direct solar photolysis (pH 3,  $\gamma(\text{RR45}) = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ).

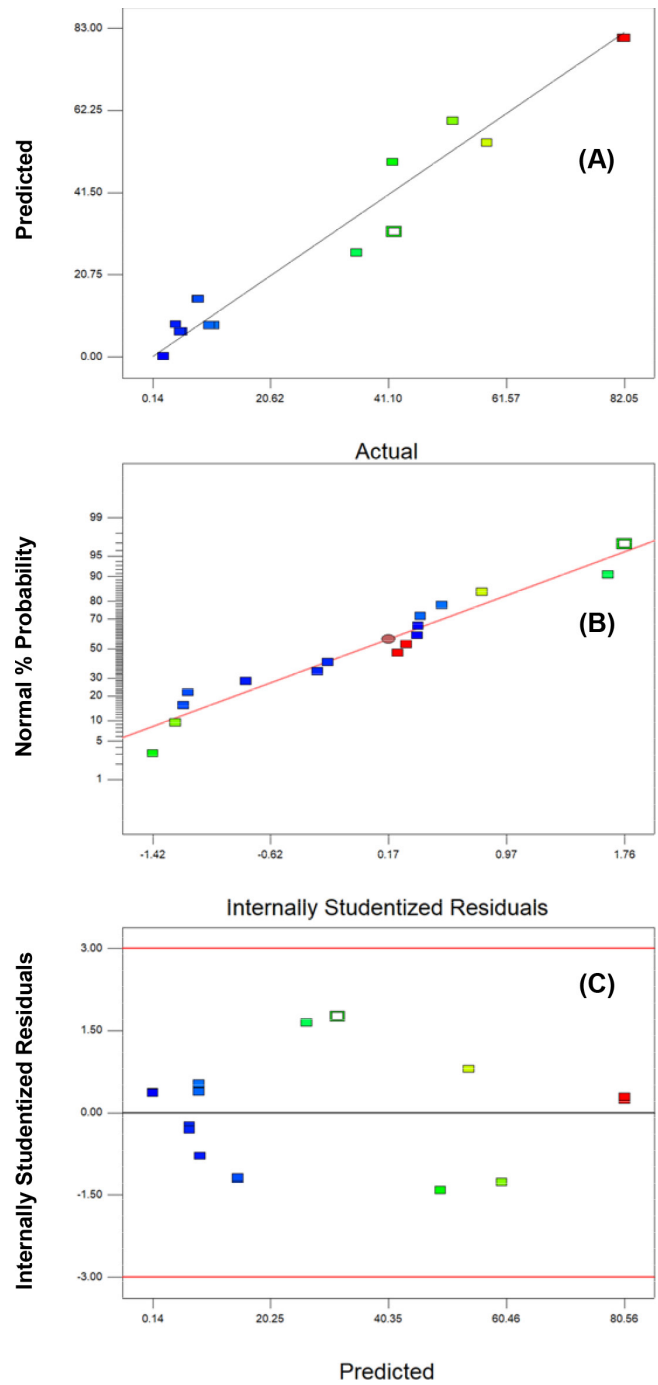


Fig. S2. Residual diagnostics of model M3 for the prediction of the total removal of RR45 by solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> process: (A) observed vs. predicted plot, (B) normal probability plot, and (C) internally studentized residuals vs. predicted values plot.

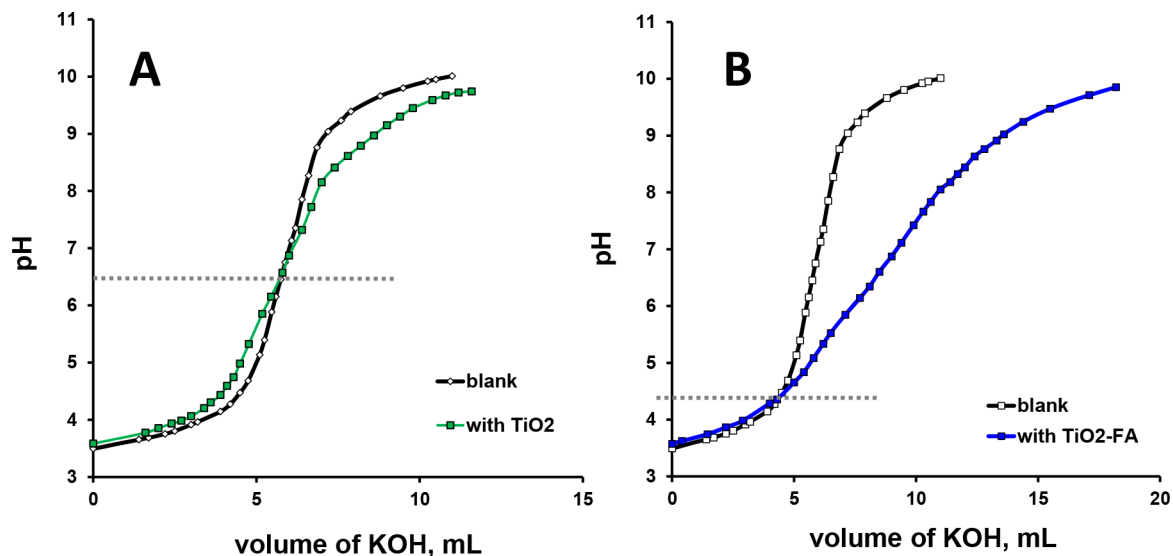


Fig. S3. Determination of point of zero charge (PZC) for TiO<sub>2</sub> (A) and TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA (B).

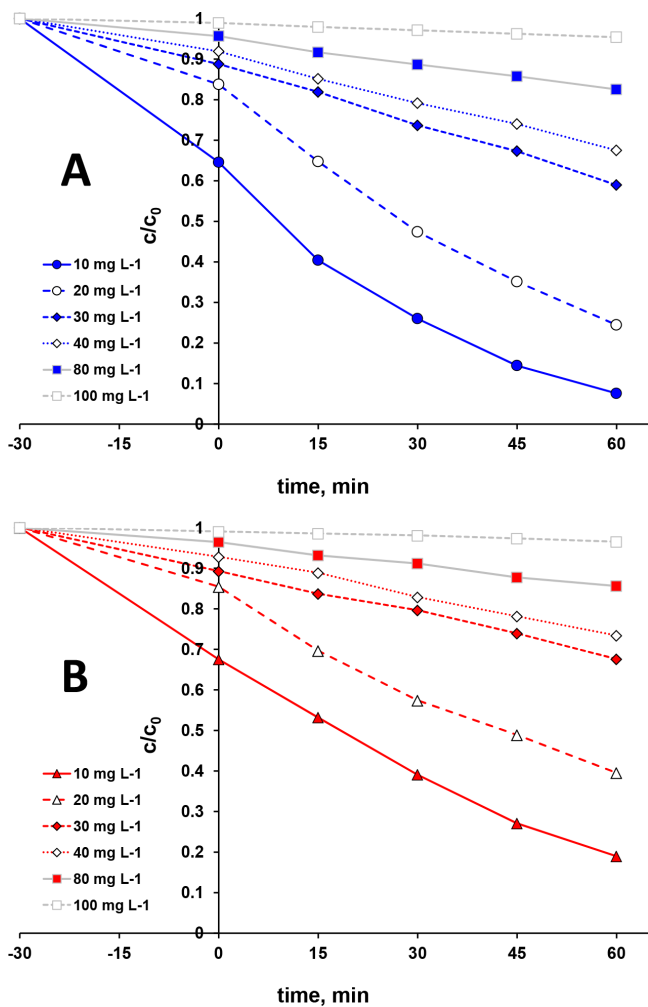


Fig. S4. The influence of initial RR45 concentration on the effectiveness of solar/TiO<sub>2</sub> (A) and solar/TiO<sub>2</sub>-FA (B) (pH 4.8,  $\gamma(\text{RR45}) = 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ,  $\gamma(\text{TiO}_2\text{-FA}) = 1.6 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ).