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A Review on Applicability of Photocatalyst Titanium dioxide for Treatment of Greywater

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ABSTRACT

Greywater reuse has attracted great attention for sustainable management of water especially under water scarcity conditions. However, the effort has been limited by the presence of toxic organics in the effluent which in turn inhibits the public acceptance of recycling water. The existence of those organic pollutants, which cannot be eliminated by conventional primary and secondary treatment processes, can be problematic. Hence it is necessary to explore a sustainable, robust and affordable method for treatment of greywater. Photocatalytic oxidation is an emerging technology that could be suitable to remove refractory organic compounds found in greywater. Recently titanium dioxide (TiO₂) gained wide attention for photocatalytic oxidation of organic matter of wastewater. Because it is biologically and chemical inert, resistant to chemical corrosion and can work at ambient temperature and pressure, without addition of chemical species. The irradiation of titanium dioxide dispersions by ultraviolet (UV) (300-400 nm) light can lead to the formulation of highly reactive hydroxyl radicals which attack the pollutant molecule to degrade it into carbon dioxide, water and mineral acids.This technology has advantages, such as, the integration into small places, low maintenance and easy operation. *Keywords* - Greywater, Photocatalytic oxidation, Refractory organic compounds, Titanium dioxide (TiO₂).

I. Introduction

Nowadays water is becoming rare source in the world. Globally water use increased six-fold during the twentieth century and by the year 2025 about 1.8 billion people will live under absolute water scarcity conditions and two thirds of the world's population will experience water stress. It is therefore essential to reduce surface and ground water use in all sectors of consumption to substitute fresh water with alternative water resources and to optimize water use efficiency through reuse options. These alternative resources include rainwater and greywater.[1]\

Greywater is commonly defined as wastewater generated from bathroom, hand basins, kitchen sinks and laundry machines. It account for approximately 50-80% of a household's total greywater with daily generation rates usually ranging from 30 to 120 L capita⁻¹ in low and middle income countries. The concentration of salts, solids, organic matter, nitrogen, phosphorus and pathogens in greywater vary widely and it is generally depend on country, location, personal habits, and cleaning products used in the home.[1,2]

The main target in greywater treatment is the reduction of easily degradable organic compound. The organic matter in treated water is the major precursor of disinfection by-products when chlorine is used for disinfection. Therefore removal of organic matter is usually desired before chlorination. The conventional primary and secondary treatment processes such as coarse filtration, chemical and biological processes are ineffective and costly for removal of organic pollutants from greywater. The advanced wastewater treatment systems such as microfiltration (MF) and ultrafiltration (UF) membrane systems also used for greywater treatment. In spite of the various advantages MF and UF systems offer, poor removal of organic pollutants are two major obstacles for treatment of greywater.[2]

Besides, greywater treatment technologies must be robust to handle variations in organic and pathogen concentration in greywater influent, and to consistently produce an effluent of an appropriate and safe quality to meet the required standards for reuse. Those characteristics are easily achieved by same advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), and more specifically by photcatalytic processes.[3]

Photocatalytic oxidation is an emerging technology that could be suitable to remove refractory organic compounds found in greywater. Recently titanium dioxide (TiO_2) gained wide attention for photocatalytic oxidation of organic matter of wastewater. Because it is biologically and chemical inert, resistant to chemical corrosion and can work at ambient temperature and pressure, without addition of chemical species. The irradiation of titanium dioxide dispersions by UV (300-400) light can lead to the formulation of highly reactive

hydroxyl radicals which attack the pollutant molecule to degrade it into carbon dioxide, water and mineral acids. This technology has advantages, such as, the integration into small places, low maintenance and easy operation.[3,4,5]

II. Characteristics of Greywater

The organic matter content in greywater ranges between 13 and 8000 mg COD (Chemical Oxygen Demand) L⁻¹. The organic material originates from detergents, food, dirt and skin residues and is highly degradable under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. The nitrogen content can range from 0.6 to 74 mg L⁻¹, which is low compared with household wastewater. The phosphorus level depends on whether phosphorus containing detergents are used, or prohibited by local or regional regulations. Phosphorus levels are within 4-14 mg P L⁻¹ in nonphosphorus detergent greywater and 6-23 mg P L⁻¹in areas where phosphorus containing detergents are still in use. Greywater can be contaminated with E.coli and enterococcus, while salmonella can be introduced into kitchen wastewater during food handling. Table 1 shows the typical greywater composition.[1]

 TABLE 1

 Typical Greywater Composition [1]

Parameters	Concentration
pH	6.3-8.35
Temperature	-
Suspended solids (mg/L)	76-1396
Total dissolved solids (mg/L)	-
Biochemical oxygen demand	129-2287
(BOD) (mg/L)	
COD (mg/L)	13-8000
NH ₃ -N (mg/L)	25-211
Total Phosphorus (mg/L)	2.4-27
E-coli (MPN/100 mL)	2×10^{5}
COD (mg/L) NH ₃ -N (mg/L) Total Phosphorus (mg/L)	25-211 2.4-27

III. Photocatalytic Redox Reactions

When titania particles absorbs ultraviolet energy, which is comparable to its band gap, photoexcitation of electron takes place and an electron-hole pair is produced. Reduced by the excited electron, oxygen forms super oxide anion (O_2) . The hole reacts with water producing hydroxyl radicals (OH). The heterogeneous photocatalytic sequence reactions occur in water are described below [6]:

$$TiO_2(e^{-}cb)+O_{2ads}+H^{+} \longrightarrow TiO_2+HO_2^{-}$$
(1)

$$TiO_2 + HO_2$$
 \checkmark $O_2 + H^+$ (2)

 $HO_2 + TiO_2(e^{-}cb) + H^+ \longrightarrow H_2O$ (3)

$$2HO_2 \longrightarrow H_2O_2 + O_2 \tag{4}$$

$$H_2O_2 + O_2 \stackrel{\cdot}{\longrightarrow} HO^{\cdot} + O_2 + HO^{-}$$
(5)

$$H_2O_2 + hv \longrightarrow 2 HO^{-1}$$
 (6)

$$H_2O_2 + TiO_2(e^{-}cb) \longrightarrow HO^{-} + HO^{-}$$
 (7)

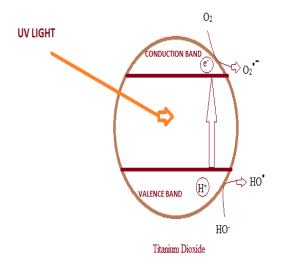


Fig.1 Simplified diagram of the heterogeneous photocatalytic reaction occurring on illuminated TiO₂ particle.

IV. Various Litreature on Treatment of Greywater as well as other Wastewater by Photocatalyst Titanium dioxide

Haruna Banno et al. (2014), they found the effect of TiO₂ (Pt-loaded) crystallite diameter on the photocatalytic water splitting rate. They used TiO₂ powders with a wide range of crystallite diameters from about 16 to 45 nm with a blank region between about 23 and 41 nm were prepared by various annealing processes and methanol as an oxidizing sacrificial agent. It was found that the photocatalytic water splitting rate was sensitively affected by the crystallite diameter of the TiO₂ (Pt-loaded) powder. They found steep improvements in hydrogen production rates from around 15 and a little over 2 to about 30 μ mol.m⁻² hr⁻¹ in the two TiO₂ crystallite diameters ranging from 16 to 23 and from 41 to 45 nm respectively.[7]

Zhao Jin-hui et al. (2011), he conducted UV/ TiO₂ photocatalytic experiments on the filtered water of local waterworks. He used self-made glass supported nano-TiO₂ film and photocatalytic reactor for the experiment. He found that the supported TiO₂ thin film has a good removal effect on trace organic pollutants in drinking water, TOC removal efficiency can reached 45%-63% within 2h-3h which also increase the chemical safety of drinking water. He also studied influencing factors such as light intensity, dissolved oxygen (DO), reaction time and pH which affect the photocatalytic process. He suggested that various factors should be reasonably controlled, and the light intensity should be controlled in 2-3 mW/cm², while reaction time is 2-3h.[8]

M. Sanchez et al.(2010), they conducted study of photocatalytic oxidation of grey water over titanium dioxide particles. In this study they conducted experiments on grey water coming from two different sources, a hotel and a household. They used different catalyst concentration for removal of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and the result of experiments showed that the DOC removal was not proportional to the catalyst dosage while in hotel grey water DOC decreased when TiO_2 dosage increased. Hotel grey waters showed 65% of DOC removal in 150 minute of treatment at dosage of 2 g/l and the higher reduction for anionic surfactants concentration was 0.5 g/L.[3]

G.Em.Romanos et al. (2011), they used prototype chemical vapor deposition reactor for the deposition of the TiO₂ layers on the nanofiltration (NF) membranes (γ -alumina). The pollutant degradation efficiency of the active TiO₂ modified membranes was investigated in a continuous flow photocatalytic purification device and they examined that double side active TiO2-modified membranes photodegraded almost double amount of a common pollutant like methyl orange, when operating in the common cross flow membrane mode under UV irradiation of both sides. The membranes exhibited high rate of purified water yield with no signs of fouling tendency. This novel device provided the the possibility to effectively illuminate with UV light each membrane surface (internal and external) separately and in this way it was possible to discriminate between the fractions of pollutant that were removed due to adsorption on the alumina substrate and the TiO₂ layer, due to photolysis and due to the TiO₂ photodegradation.[9]

Seiichi Deguchi et al. (2014), they found that the for enhancing photocatalytic water splitting rates with Pt/ TiO₂ powder, sufficient agitation of the biphasic medium is required to switch surficial reactions to volumetric reactions. They also studied water splitting rates under different heating conditions and examined that the hydrogen production was increase significantly with increase in temperature. They seen that the shallower solution increase the photocatalytic water splitting rates and they also concluded that Rayleigh convection approximately doubled photocatalytic water splitting rates. The rate enhancement achieved through Rayleigh convection is a result of its ability to disperse the ultrafine Pt/ TiO₂ particles throughout the whole medium leading to volumetric reactions. [10]

Xuning Li et al. (2014), they designed heterogeneous photo-Fenton catalyst by using Prussian blue/ titanium dioxide nanocomposites (PB/ TiO_2 NPs) to increase the Fe⁺² recovery in degrading organic contaminants in water. They synthesized PB/TiO₂ NPs with different loading of PB. The high photo-Fenton activity for decomposing selected organic pollutants by PB/TiO₂ NPs was investigated. By series of experiments they were concluded that weaker acidic conditions were favorable for the photo-Fenton process. They used Mossbauer spectroscopy study of excited electrons of TiO_2 by UV irradiation could accelerate the cycle of low spin Fe^{+3} to Fe^{+2} in PB and then led to the higher activity. The generation of OH radicals in the reaction system was identified using electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopic techniques. The removal efficiency for rhodamine B (RhB) was still as high as 95 % noted. PB/ TiO₂ NPs were confirmed to have great potential applications on the degradation of various organic pollutants because of its stability and wide working pH range (2-11).[11]

Hisao Hidaka et al. (1989), they found that various kinds of anionic, cationic and nonionic surfactants have been photodegraded in a heterogeneous dispersion of TiO₂ semiconductor particles under UV illumination. These surfactants are ultimately converted to CO₂. They studied the relationship between the structure of surfactants and the photodegradation rate. CO₂ evolution from the photooxidation of anionic surfactants is faster than that observed from cationic surfactants in the initial stages of irradiation. The anionic surfactants were determined by the methylene blue active substance method. The nonionic surfactants photodegrade more slowly evolving CO₂ at about 20% mineralization vield. UV illuminated titanium dioxide affords strongly oxidizing catalytic sites, irrespective of the structure of surfactant.[12]

L.Zhang et al. (2009), they proposed a rotatingdrum reactor coated with a TiO₂ photocatalyst, in which TiO₂ powders loaded with Pt are immobilized on the outer surface of a glass-drum. The reactor can receive solar light and oxygen from the atmosphere effectively. They were examined that phenol can be decomposed rapidly by this reactor under solar light. By experiments they concluded that the phenol with an initial concentration of 22 mg/m³ was decomposed within 60 min and was completely mineralized through intermediate products with 100 minutes.[13]

Xianhuai Huang et al. (2007), they studied potential of TiO_2/UV photocatalytic oxidation to control fouling of membranes by natural organic matter (NOM). They investigated decomposition kinetics of NOM by using a commercial TiO_2 catalyst, and the effect of various experimental parameters including TiO_2 dosage and initial total organic carbon (TOC) concentration. They examined that the reaction kinetics was increase with increasing TiO_2 dosage, but decrease with increasing initial TOC concentration. At a TiO_2 concentration of 0.5 g/L, fouling of both an MF and a UF membrane was completely eliminated after 20 min of treatment. The reduction in membrane fouling is attributed primarily to the changes in NOM molecular characteristics resulting from preferential removal of high molecular weight (MW), hydrophobic NOM molecules, which are the major NOM fraction responsible for membrane fouling.[14]

V. Concluding Remarks

After study of various literature. the photocatalyst titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is effective for treatment of greywater as well as other wastewater. There are also a possibility of low cost treatment of greywater by photocatalytic reaction by TiO₂ in the presence of ultraviolet light. Treatment by using TiO₂ will become intermediate treatment process for reuse and recycling of greywater by advanced treatment processes. The titanium dioxide coating on inert film or media also reduces the loss of TiO₂ powder and deposition of TiO₂ particles at the bottom of photocatalytic reactor. TiO2 coated film also increases the exposure of light to TiO_2 , so indirectly it also increase the degradation of organic matter present in wastewater.

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