



## Photocatalytic Degradation and Kinetics of Dyes in Textile Effluent Using UV – TiO<sub>2</sub>-W System

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**Abstract:** This study investigates the photodegradation of a mixture of 4 azo dyes (direct orange 39, chlorantine fast red 5B, viscose black B and direct sky blue K) present in textile effluents and the influence of catalyst dose, irradiation time, UV power intensity and temperature on the overall photodegradation kinetics of the process. The photocatalytic experiments were conducted in a batch stirred photoreactor equipped with a 10 W, 30 W and 60 UV lamps, magnetic stirrer and thermometer. The photocatalysts used was titanium nanoparticle doped with tungsten (TiO<sub>2</sub>: W = 93.8: 5.8, 10 nm). The results obtained showed that variation in the physical parameters influenced the efficiency of photodegradation. The kinetic study indicated that the photodegradation of the dyes present in the effluent from the textile industry followed the Langmuir-Hinshelwood model that is modified to accommodate reactions occurring at a solid-liquid interphase. At the catalyst dose of 0.5 g/l, the apparent first order rate constant K<sup>1</sup>, was 0.00463 min<sup>-1</sup> but at 2.5 g/l it reduced to 0.00338 min<sup>-1</sup>. The best degradation was at the catalyst dose of 2.0 g/L with the rate constant of 0.00992 min<sup>-1</sup>.

## 1. Introduction

Dyes and pigments are essentially those chemicals that are used to add or change the colour of materials and are widely used in the textile, pharmaceutical, food, cosmetics, plastics, paint, ink, photographic and paper industries (Khezrianjoo & Revanasidappa, 2013). It is known that about fifty percent of the world's dye consumption is within the textile industry alone (Lellis *et al.* 2019). Among the several classes of textile dyes, it is the reactive dyes that are most commonly in use with azo and anthraquinone groups being the most common chromophore groups (Lee & Pavlostathis, 2019).

There is considerable dye loss in textile waste-water during manufacturing or processing operations (Dinder & Icli, 2001; Rais *et al.* 2008). These synthetic dyes in these textiles waste-water impact adversely on life forms when discharged directly into the environment (Khezrianjoo & Revanasidappa, 2013; Galindo *et al.* 2016). The presence of sulphur, naphthol, vat dyes, nitrates, acetic acid, soaps, enzymes, chromium compounds and heavy metals in the textile waste-water make the textile effluent highly toxic (Kant, 2012; Medjahed *et al.* 2013). The colloidal matter present along with dyes increase the turbidity, thus preventing the penetration of sunlight necessary for the process

of photosynthesis within the water bodies these effluents are discharged into (Islam *et al.*, 2015). This interferes and impedes the oxygen transfer mechanism useful for marine life and the self-purification process of water. Therefore, it is important to remove these dyes from the waste waters before their final disposal.

Consequently, technological systems for the removal of organic pollutants such as adsorption on activated carbon (Wang *et al.*, 2014; Jodeh *et al.*, 2014; Kankou *et al.*, 2021), reverse osmosis (Jamil *et al.*, 2020), ion exchange on synthetic resins (Davaisy *et al.*, 2023), ozonation (Otieno, *et al.*, 2019) and biological methods (Meena *et al.*, 2021) have been developed to deal with this problem. However, most of these methods face the drawbacks of having high operational cost and lower efficiency in removing the dyes from effluents (Tien *et al.*, 2022). To this end, advanced oxidation processes have been developed to circumvent these stated drawbacks and these processes are based on the generation of very reactive species that can oxidize these dyes in waste water effluents. The generated reactive species can oxidize a broad range of organic pollutants quickly and non-selectively (Qutub *et al.*, 2022). Heterogeneous photocatalysts have appeared as an emerging option for the generation of reactive chemical species needed in the oxidization of environmental pollutants. This process consists of the non-selective destruction of organic compounds in the presence of ultra-violet light (UV light) and photocatalysts such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, CdS, WO<sub>3</sub> and ZnO.

Among the various photocatalysts, TiO<sub>2</sub> has been one of the most promising material due to its non-toxicity, chemical inertness, photochemical activity and moderate cost (Qutub *et al.*, 2022; Goa *et al.*, 2018). However, the small surface area, poor photo response under visible light and the high rate of photogenerated electron/hole pair recombination among TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles are the main factors limiting further improvement of its photocatalytic efficiency. Another very prominent problem associated with the use of TiO<sub>2</sub> is its wide band gap which limits its UV absorption ability (Konstantinou & Albanis, 2004). Many researchers are of the opinion that the photocatalytic properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> can be improved considerably when doped with suitable element or compound (Ekwere *et al.*, 2018). Other photocatalysts have been developed that are composites in nature or are doped with other materials to improve their efficiencies. For instance, a composite assembled from nano zinc oxide (ZnO) and nanocellulose has been used as a photocatalyst in the degradation of congo red dye (Jamal *et al.*, 2020). In the same vein, a study has reported the synthesis and evaluation of the mixed metal oxides MgO/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZnO/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> as heterogeneous photocatalysts for the photodegradation of a mixture of organic dyes such as methylene blue and methyl orange (Castro *et al.*, 2021). Similar works but with different types of photocatalysts, mostly in the form of doped nanoparticles or composites have been reported in literature (Yadav *et al.*, 2022; Diyana *et al.*, 2019; Nathan *et al.*, 2019; Nyong *et al.*, 2022).

Consequently, the objective of this work is to study or investigate the kinetics, influence of various physical parameters (irradiation time, catalyst loading, light intensity and temperature) on the photocatalytic mineralization of dyes in actual textile effluent, in the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> doped with tungsten, irradiated by the UV light in a batch stirred reactor. TiO<sub>2</sub> doped with tungsten is actually a novel photocatalyst whose capacity at photodegradation and the kinetics of such photodegradation of a typical textile effluent has not been studied.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1 Sourcing and preparation of samples for the experiments

The materials that were used for these experiments include titanium dioxide doped with tungsten (TiO<sub>2</sub>-W) nanoparticles. The TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles was obtained from US Nano Incorporated, with

the average size of 10 nm as well as 99.99 % purity. It consisted of 93.8 weight percent of TiO<sub>2</sub> (anatase) and 5.8 weight percent Tungsten (W). This TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles was used as the photocatalyst without further treatment. The textile effluent, consisting of dyes, was obtained from SAVCO Garments and Printers, Aba in Abia State, Nigeria and it was also used directly without any further processing. The photocatalytic degradation of the effluent dyes was effected in a rectangular batch stirred reactor with a capacity of 150 cm<sup>3</sup>. This reactor has an inserted thermometer to monitor the temperature, a magnetic stirring mechanism and UV lamps, placed 5 cm from the sample. The ultra-violet (UV) lamps (manufactured by Sandiz Energy Limited) used had 10 W, 30 W and 60 W power rating. For the ultra-violet spectrophotometric analysis, the UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Labomed 1286 series) was used. High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) Enhanced Integrator was used to determine the components of the dye effluent and their concentration.

## 2.2 Experiments

### 2.2.1 Evaluation of the chemical composition of the textile effluent

We used the High-Performance Liquid Chromatographic technique to evaluate the chemical constituents of the textile effluents that was obtained from SAVCO Garments and Printers.

### 2.2.2 Photodegradation test (photolysis)

50 ml of the textile effluent was introduced into the photocatalytic reactor and was stirred continuously with a magnetic stirrer for 30, 60, 90, 120 and 180 minutes respectively under UV light irradiation. After these specified time frames of exposure of the textile effluent to UV-irradiation, some of the effluent samples were analyzed via the UV spectrophotometer to determine the dye concentration.

### 2.2.3 Procedure for dark reaction in presence of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles

50 ml of the effluent mixed with 0.1 g of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles was again introduced into the photocatalytic reactor and this suspension was further agitated in the dark by means of magnetic stirring for 30, 60, 90, 120 and 180 minutes respectively. The resultant dye suspension was filtered and the suspended photocatalyst removed. The remaining effluent solutions were analyzed using the UV spectrophotometric technique, to determine if there were any changes in the concentrations of the chemical constituents. The differences in concentrations (before and after the adsorption test) was attributed to the photodegradation of the dyes by the photocatalyst.

### 2.2.4 Procedure for photocatalytic degradation of the textile effluent

50 ml each of the effluent was mixed with 0.1 g of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W in the photocatalytic reactor, as done previously in 2.2.3. The suspension was continuously stirred magnetically while being irradiated by the ultra-violet light from ultra-violet lamps rated at 10 W, 30 W and 60 W respectively. This irradiation was done at room temperature. Aliquots of the mixture (5 ml) were centrifuged, filtered and analyzed periodically at 0, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 minutes respectively. The degradation process again was monitored via the UV spectrophotometric technique. The percentage degradation of the dyes present in the effluent with respect to its initial concentration at any time can be obtained from [Eqn. 1](#).

$$x = \frac{C_0 - C}{C_0} * \frac{100}{1} \quad \text{Eqn. 1}$$

where C<sub>0</sub> and C are the initial and final concentrations at a given time.

### 3. Results and Discussion

The results obtained from these experimental procedures are presented and discussed as follows.

#### 3.1 Chemical Composition of Textile Effluent

The results of the HPLC performed on the textile effluent are stated in **Table 1**. The textile effluent was found to consist of Direct Orange 39, Chlorantine Fast Red 5B, Viscose Black G and Direct Sky-Blue K dyes. The dominant dye in the effluent is Chlorantine Fast Red 5B. The reddish colour of the textile effluent is therefore due to the dominance of Chlorantine Fast Red 5B in its composition.

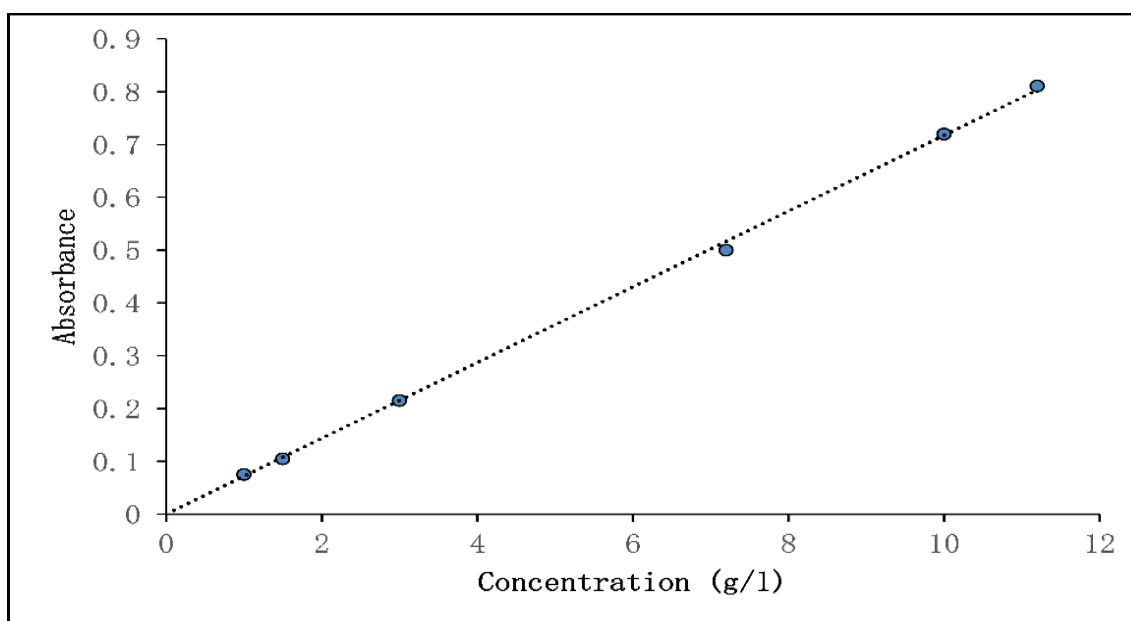
**Table 1.** The chemical composition of textile effluent from SAVCO Garments and Printers, Nigeria

Chemical Composition	Amount (mg/l)
Direct orange 39	3.20
Chlorantine fast red 5B	6.06
Viscose black G	0.31
Direct sky blue K	1.64
Total	11.21

A total concentration of the dyes is determined by the addition of the amounts, in mg/l, of these various dyes that were identified by the HPLC analysis and the value of 11.21 mg/l was obtained. This value is lower than the standard textile effluent concentration (30-50 mg/l) (Konstantinou & Albanis, 2004).

#### 3.2 Working Curve

In order to determine the changes in the concentration of the dyes in the effluent, during the course of our experiments, a working curve which is presented in **Figure 1** was generated with standard concentrations of the effluent.



**Figure 1.** Calibration curve of the dye's concentration (mg/l) (Wavelength of absorbance at 510 nm)

#### 3.3 Effect of only UV irradiation on the Textile Effluent

The changes in the concentrations of the various dyes that constitutes the textile effluent are presented in the **Table 2**. These changes in the concentrations are due only to the UV irradiation action

as there was no photocatalyst present. As can be seen in **Table 2**, there was only a small decrease in the concentrations. In this case, the concentration of the dyes in the textile effluent decreased from an initial concentration of 11.21 mg/l to a final concentration value of 11.0 mg/l after 3 hours, indicating 1.80 % removal of the dyes when the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles photocatalyst was absent.

### 3.4 Effect of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles on the Dyes present in the Textile Effluent in the absence of UV-light Irradiation

With TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles dose of 2.0 g/l, the level of degradation in the absence of UV irradiation was still insignificant as can be seen in **Table 2**. The TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles only caused the dyes to degrade from an initial total concentration value of 11.21 mg/l to 10.68 mg/l when the experiments were done in the dark, in the absence of UV irradiation. This implied that only 5% of the dyes were removed after 180 minutes of exposing the effluents to the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles only. Therefore, the processes explained in sections 3.3 and 3.4 played limited, inconsequential roles in the degradation and mineralization of the dyes contained in the effluent.

**Table 2:** Variation of concentration and degradation efficiency with time during photolysis and dark experiment

Time (mins.)	Final concentration (without TiO <sub>2</sub> -W)	Final concentration (without UV light)	% degradation (without TiO <sub>2</sub> -W)	% degradation (without UV light)
0	11.21	11.21	0.00	0.00
30	11.10	11.05	0.90	1.42
60	11.10	11.05	0.90	1.42
90	11.00	10.90	1.80	2.76
120	11.00	10.70	1.80	4.54
180	11.00	10.68	1.80	4.72

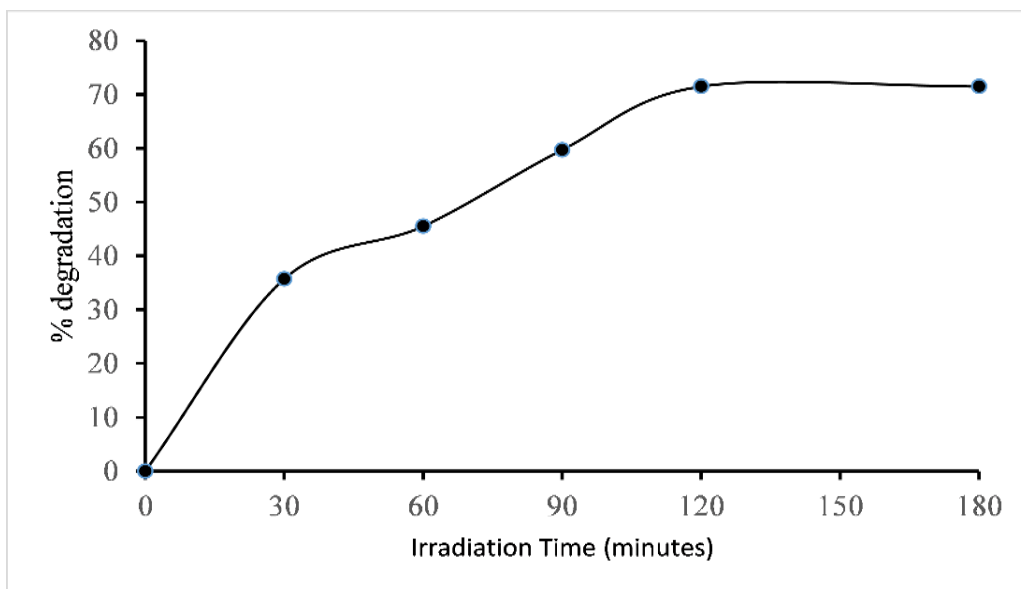
### 3.5 Effect of Irradiation Time

Under the experimental conditions, 71.5% of the dye mineralized within 120 minutes of irradiation. The effect of the time of UV irradiation of the effluent is presented in **Table 3** where the % degradation of the dyes in the effluent at the different irradiation periods of 30, 60, 90, 120 and 180 minutes are expressed. These values were obtained for the optimum photocatalyst loading of 2.0 g/l. The photocatalytic degradation of the dyes occurs on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles that served as a photocatalyst. In this case, oxygen and hydroxyl radicals are trapped in the holes present on the nanoparticles surfaces on which the dyes present in the effluent are adsorbed. These radicals are strong enough to break the bonds of the dyes' molecules resulting in their degradation (Saïen *et al*, 2008).

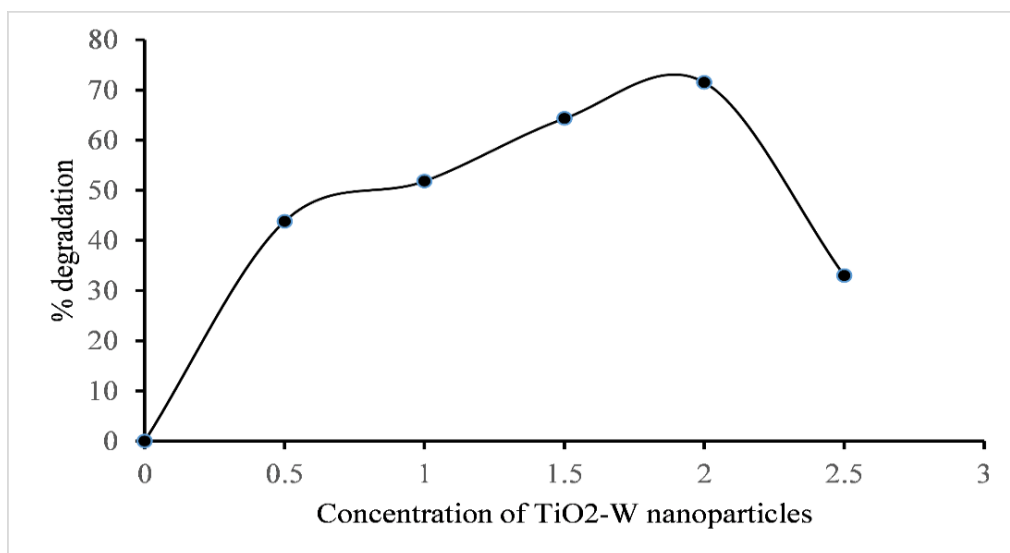
When the intensity of light and concentration of dye are constant, it is known that the number of radicals increase with increase irradiation period. As the irradiation time increases, several intermediate products are formed due to fragmentation of the dyes' molecules. These intermediates undergo degradation on further irradiation (Mathews, 1990). For the irradiation periods of 0, 30, 60, 90, 120 and 180, the concentrations of the dyes in the effluent decreased from an initial concentration of 11.2 mg/l to 7.20, 6.10, 4.51 and 3.20 mg/l for the corresponding irradiation periods respectively. This corresponded to the percent degradation efficiencies of 35.7, 45.5, 59.7 and 71.5 %. It should be noted that there was no change in the concentration of dyes when the irradiation time increased above 120 minutes. This may be due to opacity problem caused by too many fragmented molecules, preventing further penetration of UV light into the suspension (Neena *et al*, 2018). **Figure 2** shows the variation of the percent degradation efficiencies of the dyes as a function of the irradiation time.

### 3.6 Effect of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W Photocatalyst Concentration

The variation of the concentration and the % degradation of the dyes in the textile effluent with the amount of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W photocatalyst showed that as the amount of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W increased, the concentration of the dyes in the effluent reduced, with attendant increase in the % degradation efficiency. Using 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0 and 2.5 g/l as the concentration of the photocatalyst, concentration of the dyes in the effluent varied from its initial concentration of 11.21 mg/l to 6.3, 5.4, 4.0, 3.2 and 7.5, respectively. This corresponded to the degradation efficiencies of 43.8%, 51.8%, 64.3%, 71.5% and 33.0% as depicted in **Figure 3**.



**Figure 2.** Effect of irradiation times on degradation of the dyes. UV = 30 W, catalyst concentration = 2.0 g/l, pH = 10.7, initial dye concentration = 11.21 mg/l



**Figure 3.** Effect of the amount of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W on the degradation of dyes in textile effluent at irradiation time of 180 min, dyes concentration 11.21 mg/l, UV=30 W, pH=10.7

The percent photodegradation efficiency increased with the increase in the amount of photocatalyst until 2.0 g/l and then decreases sharply. As stated earlier, this increase is due to the availability of more active sites for photocatalysis due to the higher concentration of TiO<sub>2</sub>-W nanoparticles. This causes



enhancement in the hydroxyl and oxygen radical generation and which also led to the increase in the degradation power because the greater number of the dye molecules could be absorbed on catalyst surface. Equally, photocatalyst concentration above 2.0 g/l results in enhancement of opacity which causes a reduction in the UV light penetration throughout the solution and a drop in the percent degradation efficiency (Lee et al, 2015).

### 3.7 Effect of UV Power Intensity

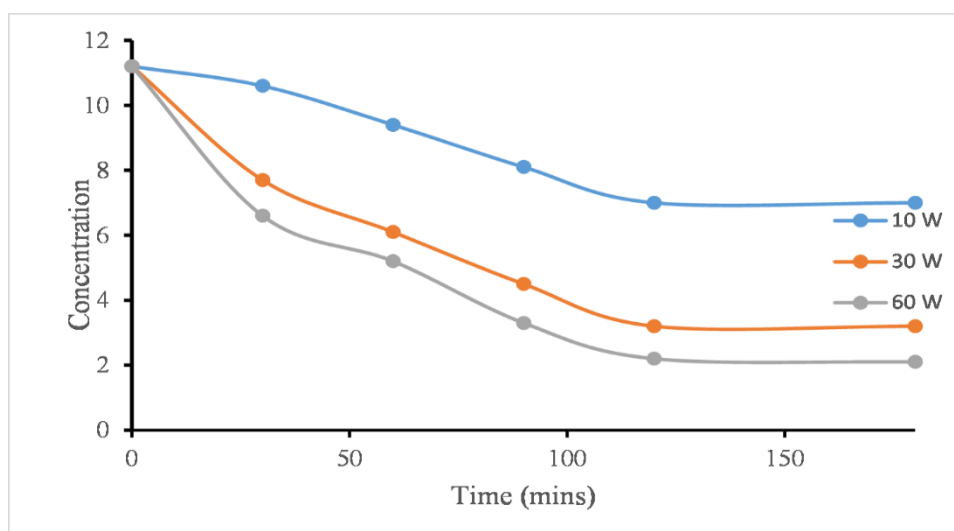
Due to the fact that the dye decomposition is a heterogeneous reaction occurring on the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W particle surface with the active site concentration increasing with the UV energy received, a higher UV power intensity is expected to give a higher decomposition rate (Valente et al, 2006). A series of experiments were conducted under the same operating conditions but varying UV power intensities and the results are shown in Table 3. The interception of more light provides increased adsorption of the light on the photocatalyst surface thereby making the surface more active. The simple implication of this is that as the power rating of the UV light source increased, the capacity of the light to trigger the creation of reactive species within the system increased. As can be seen in Figure 4, the decrease in the concentration of the dyes in the effluent was least when the light source was 10 W and most when the light source used was 60 W. For the duration of 180 minutes in which this experiment was carried out, the concentration of the dyes in the textile effluents changed from its initial value by 0.023 mg/l per minute, 0.044 mg/l per minute and 0.051 mg/l per minute when the UV power source used were 10 W, 30 W and 60 W respectively.

**Table 3:** The concentration of the dyes in the textile effluent at different irradiation times under 10 W, 30 W and 60 W UV light source

Time (m)	10 W UV source Concentration (mg/L)	30 W UV source Concentration (mg/l)	60 W UV source Concentration (mg/L)
0	11.2	11.2	11.2
30	10.6	7.2	6.6
60	9.4	6.1	5.2
90	8.1	4.5	3.3
120	7.0	3.2	2.2
180	7.0	3.2	2.1

### 3.8 Effect of Temperature

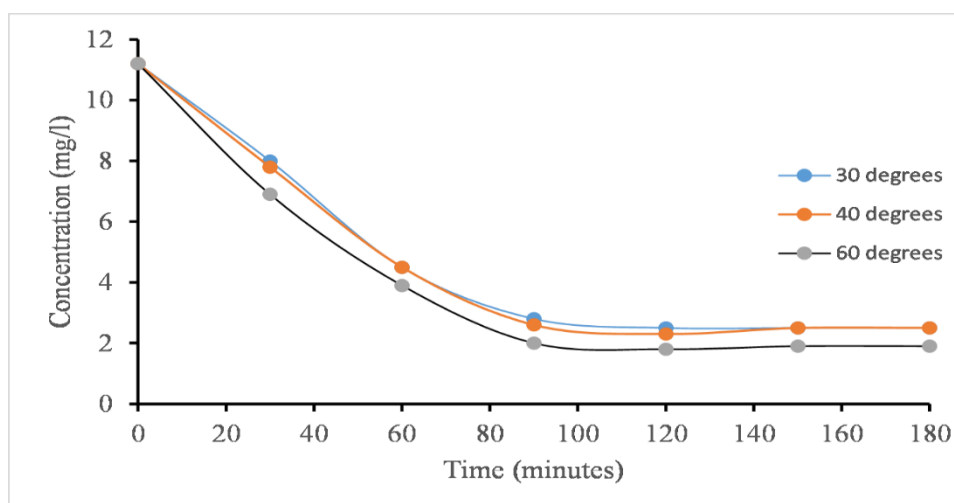
From the experiments carried out under the same operating conditions but varying reaction temperatures, the following results were obtained as shown in Table 4. The dye decomposition rate increases with the temperature. This presented graphically in Figure 5. A higher temperature will give a faster decomposition rate because at higher temperatures, the activation energies of the dye reaction and the UV penetration through the dye solution are positive (Valente et al, 2006). This means that a higher temperature favors the dye degradation reaction and UV penetration. Also, at higher temperatures, the heat of adsorption of the dye molecules onto the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W particle is more exothermic meaning a lower free energy. This enhances the overall rate of degradation. In addition, at high temperature, mobility of holes and electrons are enhanced.



**Figure 4.** Effect of UV irradiation of different intensities on the degradation of the dyes in the textile effluent. Initial dye concentration in textile effluent = 11.21 mg/l, optimum TiO<sub>2</sub>-W concentration = 2.0 g/l

**Table 4.** Variation of concentration of dyes with time at different temperature

Time (min.)	Concentration (mg/l) at 30 °C	Concentration (mg/l) at 40 °C	Concentration (mg/l) at 60 °C
0	11.2	11.2	11.2
30	8.0	7.8	6.9
60	4.5	4.5	3.9
90	2.8	2.6	2.0
120	2.5	2.3	1.8
150	2.5	2.5	1.9
180	2.5	2.5	1.9



**Figure 5.** Effect of degradation temperature on the dye concentration

### 3.9 Kinetics of Degradation of Dyes in Textile Effluent

The kinetics of the photocatalytic degradation of many organic compounds in suspensions of photocatalysts under illumination has been modeled using the equation of Langmuir-Hinshelwood (Ad *et al*, 2016; Valente *et al*, 2006). This model considers that the reaction rate is proportional to the photocatalyst surface fraction covered by the substrate as shown in Eqn. 2 & 3:



$$r = \frac{-dC}{dt} = k\theta \quad \text{Eqn. 2}$$

$$\theta = \frac{K_1 C}{1 + K_1 C} \quad \text{Eqn. 3}$$

where  $k$  is the kinetic constant,  $K_1$  is the constant of the reactant adsorption on the surface of the photocatalyst and  $C$  is the concentration of the dye solution in mol/litre.

Substituting **Eqn. 2** in **Eqn. 3** yields:

$$r = \frac{-dC}{dt} = \frac{KK_1 C}{1 + K_1 C} \quad \text{Eqn. 4}$$

Integrating **Eqn. 4**:

$$\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right) + K_1(C_0 - C) = KK_1 t \quad \text{Eqn. 5}$$

where  $t$  is the irradiation time and  $C_0$  is the initial concentration.

**Eqn. 5** is zero order when the concentration  $C$  (mol/l) is high but when the solution is diluted the reaction is an apparent first-order reaction with an apparent kinetic constant of a pseudo first order reaction as shown in **Eqn. 6**.

$$r = \frac{-dC}{dt} = KK_1 C \quad \text{Eqn. 6}$$

Integrating **Eqn. 6**, we have:

$$-\int_{C_0}^C \frac{dC}{C} = \int_0^t K_{ap} dt \quad \text{Eqn. 7}$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right) = K_{ap} t \quad \text{Eqn. 8}$$

Plotting  $\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right)$  versus  $t$ , it is possible to determine the apparent kinetic constant. The plot gives a straight line, and its slope from linear regression represents the value of  $K_{ap}$ . This approach is considered as the main path for evaluating dye degradation kinetics.

The regression analysis of the variation of the natural logarithm of the normalized concentration of the dye effluent with the irradiation time, gave a good approximation over the range of 0.5 g/l to 2.5 g/l catalyst concentration within the period of 120 minutes. Considering that our kinetic model represents a pseudo first-order reaction, we can evaluate the half-life from the relationship given in **Eqn. 8**.

The increase in the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W loading from 0.5 g/L to 2.0 g/L increased the apparent rate constant from 0.004635 to 0.00992. Beyond this optimal dose,  $K_{ap}$  values decreased. These values for the  $K_{ap}$ ,  $R^2$ , from the regression analysis and  $r_0$  are presented in **Table 5**. This can be rationalized in terms of availability of active sites on the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W surface and the penetration of photoactivating light into the suspension. The availability of active sites increases with catalyst loading, but the light penetration and hence the photoactivated volume of the suspension shrinks (Hegyí *et al*, 2023; Sleiman *et al*, 2007).

**Table 5:** The calculated values of  $K_{ap}$ , half-life ( $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ ), regression coefficient ( $R^2$ ), and the rate of degradation ( $r_0$ )

Concentration of TiO <sub>2</sub> -W	$K_{ap}$ (min <sup>-1</sup> )	half-life ( $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ ), (min)	$R^2$	$r_0$ (mg/min)
0.5	0.004635	149.5	0.9976	0.05191
1.0	0.007293	95.0	0.9699	0.08168
1.5	0.007805	88.7	0.9767	0.08742
2.0	0.00992	69.8	0.9951	0.11111
2.5	0.003384	204.4	0.9996	0.03790

The trade-off between these two effects is that at low solution concentration, when there are excess active sites, the balance between the opposing effects is evenly poised and change in photocatalyst loading makes little difference on the rate of degradation (Shaw *et al*, 2011). At high catalyst concentration, availability of excess active sites outweighs the diminishing photoactivated volume and significantly greater rate of degradation is achieved at increased TiO<sub>2</sub>-W loading. The decreased value at higher catalyst loading may be due to the deactivation of activated molecules by collision with ground state molecules (Shankar *et al*, 2003; Erdemoğlu *et al*, 2008; Lee *et al*, 2022; Effiong *et al*, 2023).

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the degradation efficiency of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-W photocatalyst with respect to the textile effluent was 71.5% under optimum experimental conditions. It was found that the catalyst loading, irradiation time, temperature and UV power intensity influenced the photodegradation process. Generally, it was observed that the mineralization process of the effluent followed the pseudo-first-order-kinetics as confirmed by their high correlation, R<sup>2</sup> values. The apparent first order rate constant, increases as the catalyst loading increases. Catalyst loading beyond 2.0 g/L witnessed a reduction in the value of K<sub>ap</sub>.

**Disclosure statement:** *Conflict of Interest:* The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

*Compliance with Ethical Standards:* This article does not contain any studies involving human or animal subjects.

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