HETEROGENEOUS PHOTOCATALYSIS OF GLOVE WASTEWATER OVER GREEN SYNTHESIZED ZNO IMMOBILIZED ON NATURAL HYDROXYAPATITE

LEOW GUO QUAN

UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

HETEROGENEOUS PHOTOCATALYSIS OF GLOVE WASTEWATER OVER GREEN SYNTHESIZED ZNO IMMOBILIZED ON NATURAL HYDROXYAPATITE

Leow Guo Quan

A project report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Engineering (Hons) Petrochemical Engineering

Faculty of Engineering and Green Technology

Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman

May 2019

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this project report is based on my original work except for citations and quotations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that it has not been previously and concurrently submitted for any other degree or award at UTAR or other institutions.

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| Name | : |
| ID No. | : |
| Date | : |

APPROVAL FOR SUBMISSION

I certify that the project report entitled "Heterogeneous Photocatalysis of Glove Wastewater over Green Synthesized ZnO Immobilized on Natural Hydroxyapatite" was prepared by LEOW GUO QUAN has met the required standard for submission in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Engineering (Hons) Peterochemical Engineering at Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman.

Approved by,

| Signature | : | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Supervisor | : DR Sin Jin Chung | | |
| Date | : | | |
| | | | |
| Signature | : | | |
| Co-Supervisor: DR Lam Sze Mun | | | |
| Date | : | | |

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Specially dedicated to

My beloved parents, supervisor, lecturers, seniors and friends

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HETEROGENOUS PHOTOCATALYSIS OF WASTEWATER FROM GLOVE INDUSTRY

ABSTRACT

Photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater has been studied in this research to treat the ongoing water pollution from the glove industry. The green synthesized using plant extracts was emerged as a renewable, cost effectively and environmental friendly method that can be used to synthesis zinc oxide (ZnO) photocatalyst. Corn husk extract was used to synthesis ZnO without the usage of harmful chemicals. Besides that, the ZnO also coupled with the natural hydroxyapatite (HAp) that obtained from buffalo bone to enhance the photocatalysis. ZnO, HAp and ZnO/HAp was characterized through numerous analyses which included X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive X-ray (EDX), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), Ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS), and Particle Size Analysis (PSA). The ZnO was observed as hexagonal wurtzite structure and HAp was indicate in the XRD analysis. Green synthesized ZnO, HAp and ZnO/HAp was observed as porous and fluffy in nature in the SEM analysis. The fine particle of ZnO and ZnO/HAp was observed through PSA. EDX analysis determines the composition of element that presented in the photocatalyst. The content of HAp on the ZnO was studied in this research by varying 20 wt% to 50 wt % of HAp. The optimum HAp content on ZnO was ZnO-50%HAp was achieved 100 % photocatalytic degradation efficiency of glove wastewater. The effects of initial wastewater concentration and ZnO/HAp catalyst loading were studied. The optimal ZnO-50%HAp catalyst loading was found to be 1 g/L. Consequently, the effect of various scavengers was also investigated to determine the role of each active species in the reaction mechanism. The h+ radicals was observed to be the main reactive species in this study.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS

| · OH | Hydroxyl Radicals |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| Co | Concentration of pollutant after 30 min of dark run, mg/L |
| C_t | Concentration at the reaction time(t), mg/L |
| t | Reaction time, min |
| С | Light velocity, m/s |
| h | Planck's constant, eV |
| hv | Photon energy, eV |
| λ | Wavelength of adsorption, nm |
| E_g | Band Gap Energy |
| 1-D | One-Dimensional |
| 3-D | Three-Dimensional |
| AOP | Advanced Oxidation Process |
| С | Carbon |
| CB | Conduction Band |
| CO_2 | Carbon Dioxide |
| CdS | Cadmium Sulphite |
| C ₂ H ₅ OH | Ethanol |
| O ₃ | Ozone |
| . 0 ₂ ⁻ | Superoxide anion radical |
| H_2O_2 | Hydrogen Peroxide |

| OH∙ | Hydroxyl Radical |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| UV | Ultraviolet Radiation |
| ZnO | Zinc Oxide |
| TiO ₂ | Titanium Oxide |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | Iron(II) Oxide |
| WO ₃ | Tungsten Trioxide |
| НАр | Hydroxyapatite |
| BOD | Biological Oxygen Demand |
| COD | Chemical Oxygen Demand |
| TSS | Total Suspended Solid |
| XRD | X-Ray Diffraction |
| SEM | Scanning Electron Microscope |
| EDX | Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy |
| TEM | Transmission Electron Microscopy |
| WZ | Wurtzite |
| ZB | Zinc Blende |
| CB | Conduction Band |
| VB | Valance Band |
| tr | trapped charge particles |
| HO ₂ | Hydroperoxyl Radicals (HO2) |
| ZnO | Zinc Oxide |
| НАр | Hydroxyapatite |
| ppm | Part Per Million |
| g/L | Gram per litre |
| C/C_0 | Concentration /initial concentration |

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of study

In recent years, continuous development of the industries and technologies leads to the environmental pollution. The water pollution is one of the important issues due to the emerging of the manufacturing industry. Water is the most essential natural resource for all living organisms and also the most valuable asset on earth. Besides that, water is the prime element of the life and human body also consists of 75 % of water. Nevertheless, water has been classified as the freshwater from the world's total water resources, is gradually decreasing with the emerging of the industries and technologies. Therefore, the quality of the water is the major concern of the government authorities and non-government authorities too. Water polluition cab be defined by the exceeding amount of toxic chemical and biological agents that present in water bodies such as ground water, rivers, lakes and oceans. (Environmental Pollution Centres, 2017). The presence of the toxic chemical and biological agent will change the physical properties, chemical properties and biological properties of the water and will have a detrimental consequence on the living organisms and environment. The water pollution will lead to destruction of ecosystem which causes the ecosystem to collapse and bring harmful effect to our daily life since water is the most important and natural resource on the planet.

Water pollution can be categorised into two different sources which are point sources and non-point sources. The point sources mean the sources that can be recognised, controlled and monitored easily, whereas non-point sources are difficult to control. The point sources are also known as direct sources which are normally from the manufacturing industries, waste management facilities, refineries, and sewage treatment plant. Whereas, indirect sources are the sources that are hard to be controlled, which is the pollutant enters the water bodies via ground water or soil or via the atmosphere as acid rain. According to the report of department of environment (2012), 1,662,329 water pollution point sources were identified, which comprised of 4,595 manufacturing industries, 9,883 sewage treatment plants (not including individual and communal septic tanks), 754 animal farm (pig farming), 508 agro-based industries, 865 wet markets and 192,710 food services establishments (Department of Environment, 2012). Therefore, the manufacturing industries play the most important role to reduce water pollution. The manufacturing industries wastewater are often contaminated with metals, toxic, chemical, petroleum products and other pollutants that are harmful to water sources. In Malaysia, the Environment Quality Act 1974 is an act that used for prevention, control of pollution and enhancement of the environment (Elaw, 2018). The discharge of the wastewater from any facility is required to have the permit from the Department of Environment. Even though this act restricts the waste discharged to the environment, the pollution issue still exists.

Malaysia is the primary rubber based product manufacturers in worldwide such as tyres and latex related product. Rubber based product industry in Malaysia contributes MYR 32.3 billion earnings in 2017 for exporting the rubber product, whereby rubber based product accounted for 30.2 % of Malaysia's overall exports for manufacturing products (Star, 2018). However, the emerging of the rubber based industry in these few years leads to a big issue which is generation of environmental damages. This is owing to the rubber industry which has large quantities of wastes and effluent as their by-product owing to the consuming of large amount of water, uses chemical and other utilities for manufacturing. Therefore, the waste and effluents discharge from the rubber based industry consume in large quantity. Thus, the water pollution in Malaysia can be majorly contributed from the rubber wastewater from the rubber based industry. The wastewater which is straight discharged into the water bodies likes wells, streams, rivers, lakes, oceans, and ground without any pre-treatment will inevitably pollute the water sources. Discarding of the untreated effluent of the rubber based industry to the water bodies will result to the serious depletion of dissolved oxygen and affect the aquatic life inside the water bodies (Mohammadi.M, 2010). The effluent from the rubber-based industry includes of wash water, minor amounts of un-coagulated latex and serum which contain protein, carbohydrates, lipids, carotenoids and salts (Mohammadi.M, 2010). The serum effluents from the rubber manufacturing industry are mainly of the nitrogenous compound which will cause the will cause the algal bloom and result in the eutrophication of the water bodies.

With the sustainable development of the rubber based industry, the industry should eliminate and minimize the waste that discharged straight to the water bodies without any treatment which will result in the environmental pollution and any harmful effect to the living organisms. Manufacturing industry should focus on cleaner production technology, waste minimization, wastewater treatment, resources recovery and recycling of water sources. Wastewater treatment is commonly used to minimize and eliminate the waste and potential harm to the water bodies. The wastewater treatment is a method that utilized to treat the water sources that are no longer needed or no longer suitable to be used to clean water so that can be recovered or discharged to the environment (Conserve Energy Future, 2018). Wastewater treatment can be originated into biological treatment, physical treatment and chemical treatment. The biological treatment systems are more common to utilise for treating the household water and business premises to produce the water that is suitable for drinking purpose. It uses the biological matter and bacteria to collapse the waste matter and nutrients. The biological treatment is an important process which always treats the wastewater into the clean and fresh water for drinking purpose to avoid the harmful effect brings to our body. The method that is used for treating the wastewater from industries, factories and manufacturing firms is physical treatment system such as sedimentation, aeration and filtration are involved in the physical treatment process to treat the wastewater for making the water cleaner and quality better. (Amna, Adnan, 2010). The physical wastewater treatment systems use the chemical reaction as well as physical processes to treat wastewater. Owing to most of the wastewater from these industries contains chemical and others toxins that can bring the harmful effect to the environment and aquatic life. Chemical wastewater treatment systems are utilising the chemical to treat the wastewater. The chemical treatment that most common for using to treat the industrial wastewater is called neutralization which utilises the base or acid to level its pH. The biological wastewater treatment process consumes high amount of energy. Furthermore, the biological wastewater treatment also requires large lands and higher maintenance cost. Therefore, the chemical treatment is more suitable for treating the large amount of water that discharged from the industry and factories daily. The continuous emerging of the chemical wastewater treatment provides the new environmentally friendly process to treat the wastewater without consuming high energy and lowers the emission of carbon dioxide (CO₂). The chlorination method that used for treating the harmful effect to human health and safety risk for storage the large amount of chlorine which is toxic chemical. Therefore, the continuous development of the wastewater treatments technology by the researchers has been carried out with safer and also often more effective oxidation technique to treat the wastewater.

The chemical wastewater treatment technology that generated by the researchers with safer and also more effective oxidation technique is advanced oxidation processes (AOPs). AOPs has been developed which also emerges as the environmental friendly technology used for accelerating the oxidation and degradation of organic matters in wastewater. AOPs are to perform the wastewater treatment method which can be optimized the treatment and yield a product suitable for reclamation and reusable. AOPs are the processes that generate the significant amount of hydroxyl radical (OH) in the mechanism that leads to the degradation of target contaminants, which includes the organics, inorganics, metals and pathogens. AOPs combines the reagents such as ozone with OH· and ozone (O₃) with hydrogen peroxide H_2O_2 which will generate the OH radicals as strong oxidants to oxidize the organic matters and inorganics contaminants inside the water bodies. AOPs are also used to increase the wastewater biodegradability which performs as the pre-treatment prior to an ensuing biological treatment. The commonly used advance oxidation processes to treat the manufacturing industries wastewater are using the fluorine, hydroxyl radical, ozone, hydrogen peroxide, chlorine, bromine and iodine.

AOPs is performed by different external energy sources such as electricity, ultraviolet irradiation (UV) or sun light. Moreover, AOPs have been developed into different type of methods that are used to treat the wastewater includes the homogenous and heterogeneous photocatalytic processes. Photocatalytic process is the type of advanced oxidation processes that involve catalytic reactions that proceed under the effect of light which also known as the light driven AOPs. Photocatalytic reaction is performing under presence of catalyst, light energy and oxygen sources. Photocatalytic reaction is carried out by formation of strong oxidants such as ozone, hydrogen peroxide and photocatalyst is often used at the same time for the generation of hydroxyl radical. Catalyst that used in conventional catalysis is activated by heat. Therefore, the photocatalyst is activated under irradiation of ultraviolet light to generate powerful oxidants. Advantage of utilising the photocatalytic process is its auto-cleaning effects which reduce the material conservation and maintenance cost. Owing to photocatalyst will avoid the deposition of dust/dirt on photocatalyst surface in greater extent than in photocatalyst surfaces not treated and also reduce the odours of the biocide and organoleptic character. (Melanie, R., 2010)

Heterogeneous photocatalysis is a technology that accelerates the photoreaction in the presence of catalyst. Heterogeneous photocatalysis performs the degradation of organic pollutant or photoreaction which is controlled by combined actions of a photocatalyst, light energy, and oxidizing agents. Light sources with semiconductor catalyst is utilized to initiate the photoreaction and conduct oxidation and reductions simultaneously. Heterogeneous photocatalytic uses semiconductors catalyst for removing organic species in the water pollutant and acts as an electrode. The heterogeneous photocatalysis can be used to degrade the organic pollutant to generate Carbon dioxide and water through OH \cdot radicals attack in the bulk solution and direct H₊ oxidation on the semiconductor catalyst surface as compared with conventional treatment. The semiconductor catalysts that commonly used for photocatalytic process are ZnO, TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, and WO₃. The semiconductor catalysts such as ZnO and WO₃ are most probably used in photocatalysis reaction. This is owing to their advantages such as low cost and good chemical stability (Akkari et al, 2018). The photocatalyst with wide band gap energy is better than the low band gap which has higher free energy of photo generated charge carriers formed, low chemical and photochemical stability.

In recent years, the semiconductor that most probably used as the photocatalyst for degradation of emerging pollutant in wastewater is Zinc Oxide (ZnO) among the others owing to its extraordinary physical properties that function well in heterogeneous photocatalysis. ZnO is a semiconductor with excellent physiochemical and wide band gap showing good optoelectronic, catalytic, excellent photochemical properties. ZnO is also a semiconductor with low cost, excellent UV shielding property, environmental stability and nontoxicity. (Akkari et al., 2018). With the sustainable development, ZnO can be prepared by several structures with a several type of morphologies structures such as nanorods, nanocuboids, hierarchical and complex ZnO microarchitectures to perform better with different type of wastewater to be treated (Lam et al., 2018).

The ZnO nanoparticles are normally synthesised through physical and chemical method. Different methods that used to synthesize the ZnO nanoparticles through physical and chemical method such as thermal evaporation, sol-gel, wet chemical solution, hydrothermal, and template assisted growth. With the sustainable development, the Advanced Oxidation Processes is going toward the direction of 'Green'. The physical and chemical method are no longer chosen to be used because these methods consume a lot of energy and non-environmental friendly chemical reagents, which may cause harmful effect to nature. The development of eco-friendly synthesised methods is through the green synthesised of nanoparticles. Green synthesised are able to overcome the problems from physical and chemicals method. The green synthesised of nanoparticles is using the plant extracts which are the cleanest, biocompatible, and eco-friendly methods for large-scale production of nanomaterials (Karthik et al., 2017). The plant extracts are suitable to be used for green synthesised owing to the main components inside the plant extracts which consist of poly-ol, which can stabilize the formation of metallic nanoparticles and act as a chelating and capping agent for speedy biosynthesised of nanomaterials. (Karthik et al., 2017). The semiconductors catalysts that fabricated through the green synthesised routes are performed with excellent structure and better physiochemical properties. Modification of ZnO with hydroxyapatite (Hap) was reported as a promising way to develop its photocatalytic activity. Hydroxyapatite (Hap) is a calcium phosphate as well as the human hard tissue in morphology and composition. The hydroxyapatite is used as a support for the semiconductor catalyst to perform the photocatalysis reaction. This is owing to the stability of the hydroxyapatite, strong adsorption capability, surface acidity/basicity and ion exchange ability (Fluidinova, 2018).

1.2 Problem Statement

The rubber based industry is emerging in the world in recent years especially in Asia and this sector also provides significant benefits for human being by manufacturing different kind of important rubber goods. However, water that discharged from this sector is one of the major environment problems that faced by the world. Owing to the rubber based industry consumes large amount of water and energy, large amount of chemical and other utilities which will generate significant amount of waste and effluents. The water pollution issues are caused by the wastewater that discharged from rubber glove industry or latex industry that used for production process and washing of the maturation container that contains suspended latex particles. The maturation process is the pre-treatment of rubber latex by chemicals. The large amount of the suspended solid that cannot be wiped off easily during the process makes it highly polluted. The wastewater discharged from the rubber based industry normally contains high biological oxygen demand (BOD) and ammonia. The high concentration of ammonia present in the wastewater effluent without any treatment will cause the harmful effect to the aquatic organisms. Besides that, the acidic effluent is also one of the major effluents that discharged from the rubber industry owing to the utilisation of acid in latex coagulation. Therefore, the acidic effluent mainly consists of carbonaceous organics material, nitrogen, and sulphate.

In the glove industry, the four sources of water effluent that used to clean the gloves are glove former cleaning tank, latex dipping tank, leaching tank, and latex compounding tank. The glove former cleaning tank consists of acid tank and alkali

tank which collect the acid and alkali to clean the former. Furthermore, the leaching tank is used for removing the chemical and protein from the gloves. The latex dipping and compounding tank contain the wastewater from the latex container, uncoagulated latex and sludge. The effluent from these 4 sources that discharged to the water bodies contains high concentration of organic matters which will cause and led to serious water pollution and killed the aquatic organism. Therefore, the conventional wastewater treatment must be applied inside the glove or rubber based industry prior the discharge of wastewater to the water bodies. The wastewater treatments that are commonly used can be categorized into physical, chemical, and biological wastewater treatment. Both of these method has its own disadvantages. Biological treatment requires large and takes longer time for treating the toxic substances inside the effluent owing to which can affect the growth of microorganism. The disadvantage of the physical treatment method is it requires large land area for the process which includes the sedimentation tank, aeration tank and filtration tank. Besides that, the cleaning of the physical treatment method is hassle and the temperature changes will affect the tank greatly. The conventional chemical wastewater treatment systems are utilising different types of chemical to treat the wastewater. Chlorine, ozone, and neutralisation method are the more common method that used for chemically treating the wastewater. However, conventional chemical and physical wastewater treatment method are not suggested to use owing to these methods consumed more energy, hazardous chemical reagents, high cause of chemical consumption, high labour cost, and high maintenance cost.

Therefore, the chemical wastewater treatment that is selected in this study to be used to treat the wastewater is Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) because of its environmental friendly technology that are used for accelerating the degradation of a wide range of organic matters in wastewater. Nevertheless, these processes cannot completely eliminate the organic content present inside wastewater. Therefore, advanced oxidation processes have been developed into photocatalysis reaction. Photocatalysis also known as the light driven AOPs and it is performing in the presence of photocatalyst, oxygen sources, and light energy. The photocatalytic process relies on the production of hydroxyl radicals (OH \cdot) which has oxidant reduction potential to oxidize the organic compound present in water and perform the degradation under UV irradiation and its advantages is auto cleaning effect to reduce the material conservation and maintenance cost. Photocatalyst will avoid the deposition of dirt/dust on photocatalyst surface in greater extent than in surfaces no treated and also reduce the odours of the biocide and organoleptic character. (Melanie, R., 2010). The photocatalysis processes perform well in the degradation of the water pollutant but these processes are expensive and consume large scale of energy. Hence, an environmental friendly and more economic method to perform the photocatalytic process may involve the use of heterogeneous photocatalysis. Heterogeneous photocatalysis is emerging as the promising wastewater treatment method as it performs well in degrading the aromatic compound which presents a potential hazard to water bodies. For the heterogeneous photocatalysis reaction, the semiconductor catalyst is utilized as an electrode for initiating the photoreaction and removing organic species in the water pollutant. The most common catalyst used for the heterogeneous photocatalysis reaction to treat the wastewater is TiO₂ owing to its excellent physical properties, high ultraviolet absorption, and high stability. However, the ZnO has been selected as a photocatalyst in our research. This is owing to ZnO is presented with the great interest to develop the novel photocatalysis and ZnO has higher wide gap band energy than TiO₂. In general, wide band gap energy semiconductor catalyst is better than the low band gap semiconductor catalyst which has higher free energy of photo generated charge carriers formed, low chemical and photochemical stability. Besides that, ZnO is also showing good optoelectronic, piezoelectric, biocompatibility and photochemical stability. By comparing the ZnO and TiO₂, the ZnO is able to absorb over a larger region of solar spectrum which enhance the efficiency of photocatalytic. Therefore, ZnO has been proven with better physical properties than TiO₂ to deserve as the better candidate for the photocatalysis of high organic content wastewater. ZnO takes the advantages of having the direct band gap energy (3.3ev), an excition binding energy (60 meV than TiO₂, 4meV), and can be synthesized easily in low temperature and different structure. (Roge et al., 2016).

ZnO can be synthesized through different methods or techniques. The physical and chemical synthesises are the conventional synthesis techniques of the ZnO semiconductor photocatalyst. The chemical synthesized technique such as solgel and hydrothermal synthesis method are the relatively easy methods for synthesizing ZnO particles into a narrow size distribution and outstanding crystallinity. Though, chemical synthesis method requires high temperature and pressure for their initiation, whereas some methods require inert atmosphere protection. Besides that, the chemical synthesis technique that is used for stabilizing the ZnO nanoparticles consumed toxic will cause the production of non-eco-friendly by products (Sidra Sabir et al., 2014). Physical synthesis technique such as metal organic chemical vapour deposition employed at high temperature and low pressure. The green synthesis technique to synthesis the ZnO nanoparticles is emerging and reducing the use of physical and chemical synthesises nthesized techniques owing to the chemical and physical synthesises have their own disadvantages which consumed much energy and non-eco-friendly chemical reagents. The green synthesis overcomes the problems of physical and chemical synthesises techniques due to its use of less toxic chemical reagents, eco-friendly nature and one step method for green synthesis of ZnO nanoparticles. Green synthesis techniques generate the nanoparticles by using the plan extract. (Karthik et al., 2017). The green synthesis technique is the cleanest, biocompatible and eco-friendly method for large scale production of the nanoparticles using plant extract. The green synthesis nanoparticles are stable due to the core components in plant extract, such as poly-ol which acts as the chelating and capping agent for rapid biosynthesizing of nanoparticle and stabilizing the formation of the nanoparticles (Karthik et al., 2017).

After the green synthesised of the nanoparticles by using the plant extract, the prepared nanoparticles will effectively have coated with the hydroxyapatite as the support. The main reason of chosen hydroxyapatite as photocatalyst support owing to it can easily obtain from buffalo bone and environmental friendly. The hydroxyapatite is used as a support of nanoparticles due to the stability of the hydroxyapatite, strong adsorption capability, surface acidity/basicity and ion exchange ability (Fluidinova, 2018). It has been using as a porous support owing to the presence of the phosphate group which can stabilize the structure of active site. The ion exchange and adsorption ability properties of the hydroxyapatite promote the well-defined monomeric active species can be immobilized on photocatalyst surface based on the cation exchange capability and adsorption ability. The hydroxyapatite is used as support for semiconductor catalyst to perform the photocatalysis reaction and

explore its functional properties like UV protection, hydrophobicity, and excellent textural property.

1.3 Objective

This research paper aims to investigate the photocatalytic degradation of the rubber wastewater using green synthesised of ZnO photocatalyst with the hydroxyapatite (ZnO/Hap) as photocatalyst support under UVlight irradiation. The objective of this research contain:

- 1. To prepare and characterize the ZnO/Hap via the corn husk-mediated green synthesis.
- 2. To determine the performance of the prepared photocatalysts for glove wastewater degradation under UV light irradiation.
- 3. To determine the respective roles of active species using radicals scavenging chemicals.

1.4 Scope of study

This research concerned on the photocatalytic degradation of rubber wastewater utilizing green synthesized corn husk ZnO as photocatalyst. The primary stage of this study was to synthesize the corn husk ZnO photocatalyst and coupled with the natural synthesized HAp to enhance photocatalytic degradation. After that, the prepare catalyst will be characterized by using energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), Fourier transform Infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), x-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscope (SEM), UV-vis DRs, and particle size analyser (PSA). Additionally, main process parameters such as photocatalyst loading (0.5 g/L -1.5 g/L), , and initial wastewater concentration (10 ppm – 50 ppm) on the degradation of rubber wastewater will also be experimented.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 ZnO as Photocatalyst

2.1.1 Introduction of ZnO

ZnO is the molecular formula of zinc oxide. Zinc oxide is presented as a white powder and it is insoluble in water. It is extensively used as an additive in numerous products such as ceramics, rubber, lubricants, glasses, paints, plastics, adhesives, foods, pigments, batteries, ferrites and fire retardants. Zinc oxide is normally produced through the synthetic method routes in industry. Moreover, it also performs as the semiconductor in materials science. The zinc oxide is performing well as a semiconductor catalyst owing to its unique physical properties includes excellent transparency, high electron mobility, wide band gap, and strong room temperature luminescence. ZnO is type of the metal oxide semiconductors that is able to perform the photocatalyst. The metal oxide semiconductor catalyst that is used for photocatalysis is usually photostable and a non-toxic semiconductor that can absorb the ultraviolet or visible light. ZnO is also able to perform the photocatalysis either in micro and nanoscale which absorbs the ultraviolet light easily. The chemical reactions are to be induced by suitable irradiation taken place by contacting between their surfaces and fluid when applied in the photocatalysis reaction for water treatment. Besides, ZnO is able to perform the photocatalysis in different morphologies including nanoparticles, nanorods, nanowires, nanotubes, nanosheets and nanoflowers. ZnO is chosen to use in photocatalysis reaction because of its unique physical properties. This is owing to their advantages such as low cost and good chemical stability (Akkari et al., 2018).

The photocatalyst with wide band gap energy is better than the low band gap which has higher free energy of photo generated charge carriers formed, low chemical and photochemical stability. ZnO is a semiconductor metal oxide that featuring both ionic and covalent behaviour. ZnO takes advantages of having the large band gap energy (3.3ev), an excition binding energy (60 meV than TiO₂, 4meV), and can be synthesized easily in low temperature and different structure. In recent years, the semiconductor that is most probably used as the photocatalyst for degradation of emerging pollutants in wastewater is ZnO among others due to its extraordinary physical properties that can function well in heterogeneous photocatalysis. ZnO is a semiconductor catalyst with excellent physiochemical and wide band gap showing good optoelectronic, catalytic, excellent photochemical properties. ZnO is also a semiconductor with low cost, excellent UV shielding property, environmental stability and nontoxicity. (M.Akkari et al, 2018). ZnO is a II - IV binary compound featuring both ionic and covalent bonding. ZnO is an extensively known pyro and piezoelectric material owing to its central role that is employed by crystalline structure. ZnO can be exist in 3 different types of crystallined structure which are rocksalt, wurtzite, and cubic structure (Zinc Blende). Referring to the figure 2.1, there are three different type of crystallined structure of ZnO. The white and black spheres in the crystallined structure represent zinc and oxygen atom. The closed circle, open circle, and thick solid line indicate presence of cation, anion, and projection of two bonds, respectively.



Figure 2.1: Three different atomic structure of ZnO (a) zincblende, (b) wurtzite and (c) rocksalt structures. (Hanada., 2009)

Zinc atom is tetrahedraly coordinated with four oxygen atom in wurtzite (WZ) crystal structure which is nearest atomic coordination as zinc blende (ZB) type structure. Crystal structure of the ZnO is usually hexagonal WZ structure owing to this crystal structure is thermodynamically stable at ambient condition. WZ hexagonal crystal lattice belongs to the space group P6³mc and it is described by two interconnecting sublattices of Zn²⁺ and O²⁻, such as Zn ion is surrounded by a tetrahedral of O ions. The tetrahedral coordination of the ZnO WZ structure rises the polar symmetry along the hexagonal axis. Polarity of ZnO includes the properties of piezoelectricity and spontaneous polarization in crystal growth, etching and defect generation of ZnO WZ structure. The face terminated of the WZ ZnO includes the

polar and non-polar. The polar include the Zn terminated (0001) and O terminated (0001) faces (c-axis oriented) which poses their chemical and physical properties, while non polar (1120) (a-axis) and (1010) faces which both include an equal number of Zn and O atoms. However, ZB ZnO is stable only when it growth on cubic structures and rocksalt structure is a high pressure metastable phase forming at around 10 GPa.

Compare between the WZ crystal structure and ZB crystal structure, the difference between them is the former has AaBbAaBbAaBbAaBb stacking sequence along with the [0001] axis and the latter has the AaBbCcAaBbCc stacking sequence along the [111] axis. The A (a), B (b) and C(c) represent three kinds of cation and anion positions in the lattice sequence on the [0001] WZ planes and [111] ZB planes. Besides, the constant of triangular WZ lattice structure a and c have relation as $\frac{c}{a} = \sqrt{\frac{8}{3}} = 1.633$ while internal parameter $u = \frac{3}{8} = 0.375$, where *uc* corresponds to the length of the bonds parallel to [0001]. (Hanada., 2009).

Cation and anion atoms of the WZ structure is connected by dashed line along [0001] direction in figure above and attracted to each other by electrostatic force. The electronic interaction of the crystal structure make WZ-ZnO is more stable than ZB-ZnO owing to the ionicity of these compounds are bigger among the III-V and II-VI compound semiconductor. Therefore, length of dashed line of the wurtzite structure in the figure above tends to be shorter than ideal one. Owing to the previous can be complete mostly with angle deformation of the bond pairs so that it is easier to shorten the interlayer distances between A-b and B-a than to shorten A-a and B-b.

2.1.2 Semiconductors ZnO

The semiconductors are utilized to perform the heterogenous phototcatalytic degradation reaction contains ZnO, TiO₂, WO₃, Fe2O₃, CdS, ZnS, WS₂ ZrO₂, MoS₂ and SnO₂. Oxide based semiconductors are extensively used as heterogeneous photocatalyst owing to they are stable against photocorrision. Semiconductors are used as heterogeneous photocatalyst and perform as electrodes.

The semiconductor catalysts have small band gap between the valance and conduction bonds. Therefore, they have advantages to perform the photocatalytic reaction with the heterogeneous photocatalyst. The conduction band (CB) and valance band (VB) of the photocatalyst need to overcome oxidation and reduction potential in order to photo-oxidize an environmental contaminant. The semiconductor photocatalysts that are well positioned of CB and VB have priority to choose as semiconductor catalyst to perform the photocatalytic reaction. The efficient semiconductors have the oxidation potential of hydroxyl radical (E°O₂·OH) = 2.8 V vs. NHE) and the reduction potential of superoxide radical (E°O₂·OH) = 0.28 V vs. NHE) positioned within the band gap. In the figure 2.3, the valance band, conduction band, and band gap energy was stated inside the table. The ZnO have the highest band gap energy.

| Semiconductors | VB (V vs NHE ± 0.1 | CB (V vs NHE ± 0.1 | Eg (ev) |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|---------|
| | V) | V) | |
| ZnO | +3.0 | -0.3 | 3.3 |
| TiO ₂ | +3.1 | -0.1 | 3.2 |
| Fe ₂ O ₃ | +2.9 | +0.6 | 2.3 |
| SnO ₂ | +4.1 | +0.3 | 3.8 |
| ZnS | +1.4 | -2.3 | 3.7 |
| CdS | +2.1 | -0.4 | 2.5 |

Table 2.1: VB (valence band); CB (conduction band); and Eg (band gap energy). (Lam et al., 2012)

Furthermore, ZnO performs as a semiconductor catalyst for the photocatalytic reaction owing to ZnO has higher wide band gap energy than other semiconductors. The wide band gap energy are taking the advantages over the low band gap energy semiconductors owing to wide band gap energy semiconductors that has higher free energy of photo generated charge carries formed, low chemical and photochemical stability. TiO2 is the semiconductor catalyst that is more preferred for the photocatalytic reaction owing to its 3.2eV band gap. However, ZnO has the advantages to perform as photocatalyst due to its advantages of direct band gap energy (3.2 ev) and an excition binding energy (60 meV than TiO₂, 4 meV). According to the research and study, ZnO was performed well in photocatalytic reaction than other semiconductor catalysts showed in table 2.1. The semiconductors with small band gap are suffered from limit photoactivities, lacked reproducibility and less photoactivity. Besides, ZnO costs lower than other semiconductor catalysts and it is able to absorb over a large portion of the solar spectrum than other semiconductor catalyst. Therefore, ZnO takes the priority to utilize as semiconductor photocatalyst.

2.2 Principles of mechanism of ZnO photocatalyst

The efficient heterogeneous photocatalyst that perform well in photocatalytic reaction must have well positioned on conduction band (CB) and valance band (VB). Heterogeneous photocatalysis reaction will give a rise on the rate of thermodynamically and allow photocatalyst reaction to improve originating from the formation of new reaction pathways involving phototgenerated species and reduction of the activation energy (Lam et al., 2012). Main four steps in mechanism of heterogeneous photocatalysis on the ZnO semiconductors catalyst surface includes charge carrier generation, trapping, recombination and photocatalytic degradation of rubber chemical processes pollutants.

2.2.1 Mechanism of ZnO photocatalyst

The direct band gap energy of the ZnO semiconductor photocatalyst is 3.3 ev. The e^- of the ZnO will be excited from valance band to conduction band when the UV light energy for irradiation of ZnO is equal or greater than its band gap energy. The photoexcited of the e^- from the VB to CB give the rise of formation h+ in VB. The photoexcition leaves behind a h^+ in the VB and formation of the e^- hole pair.

$$ZnO + hv(UV) \rightarrow e^{-}(CB) + h^{+}(VB) \qquad 2.1$$

The h^+ that forms upon the photoexcition is a strong oxidant that can direct oxidation with the absorbate pollutant or formation of hydroxyl radical OH reacting with the water or hydroxyl ion as electron donors.

$$h^+(tr) + H_2 O \rightarrow OH + H^+ \qquad 2.2$$

$$h^+(tr) + 0H^- \to 0H \qquad 2.3$$

The charge carrier of the e^- hole pair will produce heat through the recombination themselves result in lower photocatalytic efficiency or trapped by recombination and excition to the photocatalyst surface (Lam et al., 2012).

$$e^{-}(CB) + h^{+}(VB) \rightarrow heat$$
 2.4

$$e^{-}(CB) \rightarrow e^{-}(tr)$$
 2.5

$$h^+(VB) \rightarrow h^+(tr)$$
 2.6

When the trapped charge (tr) particles is under aqueous environment, the photocatalyst would be in electrostatic equilibrium. Therefore, the photoexcition of the e^- hole pair to the surface is equal. Besides, it is important for the trapped $e^-(CB)$ scavenged by an e^- acceptor to maintain the charge equilibrium and inhibit its recombination with the h^+ hole trapped in valance band. The oxygen molecule is efficient e^- acceptor where they undergo the reduction with e^- to generate reactive superoxide radical anions (O₂.-). On the other hand, the $\cdot OH$ radicals can be

generated through other oxidizing species includes hydroperoxyl radicals $(HO_2 \cdot)$ and hydrogen peroxides. Oxygen is the most common to employ as electron scavenger owing to it is cost effective as it is simple and cheap to spurge solution with air. The series of further reactions that can occur to form the $\cdot OH$ radical are shown in equation below (Lam et al., 2012).

$$\boldsymbol{O}_2 + \boldsymbol{e}^- \to \boldsymbol{O}_2 \cdot^- \qquad \qquad 2.7$$

$$O_2 \cdot \overline{} + H^+ \to HO_2 \cdot 2.8$$

$$HO_2 \cdot +O_2 \cdot^- \rightarrow HO_2 \cdot +O^- \qquad 2.9$$

$$H_2 O_2 + O_2 \cdot^- \to \cdot OH + O_2 + HO^-$$
 2.10

$$H_2O_2 + e^- \rightarrow \cdot OH + HO^- \qquad 2.11$$

$$H_2O_2 + hv \rightarrow 2 \cdot OH \qquad 2.12$$

The $\cdot OH$ radical generated is a powerful oxidizer that can convert the organic contaminants inside the wastewater into less harmful product such as CO₂ and H₂O. Table 2.1 below shows some organic pollutants degraded by ZnO photocatalyst.

Organic Pollutant +
$$\cdot OH$$
 + $O_2 \rightarrow CO_2$ + H_2O + *inorganic salt*

| CLASS | EXAMPLES | REFERENCE |
|-------------------|------------------------|---|
| Halophenols | 4-nitrophenol, | Rajamanickham and |
| | Chlorophenol | Shanthi (2016); Hariharan |
| | | (2006) |
| Dyes | Rhodamine B, Methylene | Amani and Ashrafi (2015) |
| | Blue, Arridine Orange | |
| Phenolic compound | Phenol, p-Cresol | Sin et al. (2013); Abdollahi et al. (2011) |
| Surfactants | Polyethoxylate | Giahi, Ghanbari and Issazadeh (2013) |

Table 2.2: List of Oranic pollutants degradable by ZnO photocatalyst
| Aromatics | Aniline, Benzoquinone | Pirsaheb et al. (2017; |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| | | Abdollahi et al. (2012) |
| | | |
| Alcohols | N-butanol | Kirchnerova et al. (2005) |
| | | |
| Aromatic Carboxylic acid | Benzoic acid | Benhebal et al. (2013) |

2.3 Green Synthesized of ZnO Nanomaterials

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Nanoparticles are extensively integrated by different methods which enhance the chemical reactivity, thermal conductivity, non-linear optical performance and chemical steadiness due to its larger surface area to volume ratio. There are different synthesis methods that are available for synthesizing the nanoparticle such as chemical, physical and green synthesis method. The physical method is applying the physical force to generate the large, stable and well defined nanostructure. However, the physical method is utilized of high cost equipment, high pressure and temperature, requires of large area for setting up the machine. Chemical and physical synthesis technique involve the use of capping and stabilizing agent as well. On the other hand, the chemical and physical synthesis method involve the use of toxic chemical for synthesizing the nanoparticle. Therefore, the nanoparticles that synthesized from both physical and chemical method may prove hazardous in their application. (Spitia et al., 2011)

With the sustainable development of the synthesis method, the green synthesis method is preferring to apply owing to these methods are environment friendly, cost effective and biocompatible methods for synthesis the nanoparticle. The green synthesized nanoparticle can be synthesized through plant, bacteria, fungi, algae etc. The green synthesis method allows the large scale production of ZnO nanaoparticles with less impurities and reduces the use of costly equipment and toxic chemical for synthesizing. Besides, the nanoparticle that is synthesized through the green method also perform with more catalyst activity. The green synthesis method

of nanoparticles through plant extract that is formed at ambient temperature, neutral pH, low cost and environmental friendly. Among the green synthesis methods through biological alternatives, the plant and plant extracts are better choices for synthesizing the nanoparticles owing to plant extracts method require low maintenance and cost efficient. The green synthesized of nanoparticles through different plant extract will give different natures of the nanoparticles. The plant extract from different sources may contain different amounts and concentrations of organic reducing agents.

Green synthesized method through the plant extract are presenting superiority over both chemical and physical synthesized method. The photocatalyst that synthesized from the plant extract act as both reducing and stabilizing agent due to the supplement inside the plant. The nanoparticles that synthesized through the chemical method cause the rise of adverse effect on the ecology. Therefore, the plant extract synthesized method is preferred by the researcher owing to its salubrious nature towards the environment. From the point of view of the industry, the plant extract synthesized method produces much lesser toxic waste (Lakshmi at al, 2017).

The chemical method requires the costly equipment and expensive chemical to synthesize the nanoparticles. However, the plant extract method is provided with the low maintenance cost and the waste disposal requires less effort among other factors. The plant extract method is preferring to use than the biological method owing to the maintenance system of all plant synthesized method is much lesser than a culture bacterium which need a myriad of phenomena to be taken care of The research from recent studies are also shown that the therapeutic effects of nanoparticles that synthesized from the plant extract eliminate the need of artificially generation of a drug for that particular ailment.

The synthesized method for generating the ZnO photocatalyst are continuously developed by the researcher. The synthesized method for ZnO nanoparticles without using of the toxic chemical and environmental friendly method is green synthesized method. The ZnO nanoparticles that apply for photocatalysis reaction synthesized by the green method will show with no hazardous to the environment. Since the green synthesized method will reduce the toxicity so that the toxicity of nanoparticles or toxicity of reaction environment also will decrease. Therefore, the green synthesized ZnO nanoparticles are suitable for different applications such as skin care and food industry. The green synthesized method allows the large scale production of ZnO nanoparticles with zero impurities and reduce the use of costly equipment and toxic chemical for synthesizing (Elumalaia et al., 2016).

| Plant Name | Part of plant taken as | Size(nm) | Structure | References |
|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | extract | | | |
| Aloe Vera | Leaf Extract | XRD - 8-20 | Spherical, Oval, | (Ali et al.,2016) |
| | | | Hexagonal | |
| Black Nighetshade | Leaf Extract | XRD and FE-SEM – | Wurtzite, hexagonal, | (Ramesh et al., 2015) |
| | | 20-30, 29.79 | quasi-spherical | |
| | | TEM - 25-65 | | |
| Kapurli | Leaf Extract | XRD - 56.24 | Hexagonal Wurtzite, | (Anbuvannan et al., |
| | | FE-SEM - 20-40 | quasi-spherical | 2015) |
| | | TEM - 30-40 | | |
| Drumstick tree | Leaf Extract | XRD – 24 | Spherical and granular | (Elumalai et al., 2015) |
| | | FE-SEM – 16-20 | nano sized shape | · · · · |

Table 2.3: The green synthesized of ZnO through the different leaf and fruit extract

| Water hyacinth | Leaf extract | SEM and TEM – 32-36 XRD – 32 | Spherical | (Vanathi et al., 2014) |
|----------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| Mexican Mint | Leaf extract | SEM - 50-180 | Rod shape nanoparticle with agglomerates | (Fu et al., 2015) |
| Red Rubin Basil | Leaf extract | EDS – 50 XRD – 14.28 | Hexagonal WZ | (Abdul et al., 2014) |
| Stone Breaker, Bhuiamla | Leaf extract | SEM and XRD – 25.61 | Hexagonal wz structure, quasi spherical | (Anbuvammam et al., 2015) |

| Plant Name | Part of plant taken as | Size (nm) | Structure | |
|------------|------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| | extract | | | |
| Dog Rose | Fruit Extract | XRD - 13.3 (CH), 113 | Spherical | (Jafarirad et al., 2016) |
| | | (MI) | | |
| | | DLS - 25-204 (CH), | | |
| | | 21-243 (MI) | | |
| Rambutan | Fruit peels | XRD - 20.95 | Needle-shaped forming agglomerates | (Yuvakkumar et al., 2014) |
| Coconut | Coconut water | TEM - 20-80 | Spherical and | (Krupa et al., 2016) |
| | | XRD - 21.2 | predominantly hexagonal | |
| | | | without any | |
| | | | agglomeration | |
| | | | | |

 Table 2.4: The green Synthesized of ZnO through the fruit extract.

2.4 ZnO supported on hydroxyapatite (ZnO/Hap)

ZnO is an important fuctional oxide with 3.3ev band gap are very suitable as a semiconductor photocatalyst owing to its outstanding photocatalytic activity/ degradation, low cost and environmental friendly as compared with others metal oxides. Generally, 3D hierarchical ZnO structures assembled can deliver more reaction interface than other nanostructure. The study from Wang et al proved that the three dimensional ZnO taking better photocatalytic reaction for organic pollutants degradation owing to their high surface area compared to ZnO powder and ZnO nanocone. Nevertheless, the fast recombination of e^- hole pairs of ZnO unavoidably hindered the outward diffusion of the charge carrier. Therefore, it will decelerate the redox reactions at the solid-liquid interface. Therefore, few studies have reported that decorating of ZnO with photocatalyst support was an advantageous method to enhance the photocatalysis of ZnO.

Hydroxyapatite is emerged to use as a support of nanoparticles due to the stability of the hydroxyapatite, strong adsorption capability, surface acidity/basicity, and ion exchange ability (Fluidinova., 2018). Besides that, one of the main reason of chosen hydroxyapatite as photocatalyst support owing to it can easily obtain from buffalo bone and environmental friendly. It has been using as a porous support owing to the presence of the phosphate group which can stabilize the structure of active site. The ion exchange and adsorption ability properties of the hydroxyapatite promote the well-defined monomeric active species can be immobilized on their surface based on the cation exchange ability and adsorption capacity. The design of the heterogeneous catalyst based on the hydroxyapatite as a support of catalyst is emerged and also exhibits the well performance in the reaction owing to its physical and chemical properties.

High performance of the heterogeneous catalysts can be designed by employing the hydroxyapatite as a microligand for catalytically active centres. The heterogeneous catalyst generated as nanocluster on the hydroxyapatite surface has proven as a catalytically active species. Non porous structure of the hydroxyapatite takes the advantage to solve the problem towards mass transfer limitation. Furthermore, the weak acid base properties also minimize side reactions induced by the support itself. By varying calcium and phosphate ratio, phosphate group of hydroxyapatite (HAp) is allowed to control the acid base properties.

The heterogeneous photocatalyst that is supported by the HAP, $Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6(OH)_2$), has been studied that it exhibits a greater photocatalytic activity compared with either photocatalyst itself or hydroxyapatite. Refer to Hu et al (2018), the hydroxyapatite itself has no activity for photocatalytic degradation owing to it is too wide band gap which is 4.85 ev which exceeds the limitation of the UV lamp. The optical band gap energies for hydroxyapatite varies greatly and found with 4.85 ev of band gap which is close to the reported one. Density Functional Theory calculation proves that an O vacancy from the OH group resulted generating high band gap energy of more than 5 ev. Band gap energy of the hydroxyapatite (4.8 ev) may include intrinsic OH vacancies in its structure. The TiO₂/HAP in Hu et al (2018) study are found to have 3.4 ev which is larger than the band gap of individual TiO₂ (3.22ev). Since the band gap energy of the ZnO are 3.4 ev, coupling ZnO photocatalyst with the hydroxyapatite are estimated to have higher band gap energy than 3.4 ev. The wide band gap energy photocatalyst has been proven that more sensitive under experiment UV region (Bystrov et al., 2016).

Activation energy of the photocatalyst doped with hydroxyapatite are found lower than the individual photocatalyst without doped with hydroxyapatite. Photocatalytic reaction is not involved heating and usually operate at ambient temperature attribute to the photonic activation during photocatalysis reaction. Activation energy of the hydroxyapatite doped photocatalyst which is lower indicates that it is more active for the photocatalytic degradation. On the other hand, the insertion of the photocatalyst such as ZnO into the HAp lattice increase the light absorption in the UV with the adsorption being stronger for higher photocatalyst ions concentration (Buazar et al, 2014). This is owing to strong absorption properties of the hydroxyapatite. Besides, the UV irradiation of the photocatalytic degradation leads to create an O vacancy in the hydroxyapatite lattice. The hydroxyapatite vacancy leads the transfer of an electron to the atmospheric oxygen which generate the charged O_2 - species. The O_2 - species will react with the liquid/ gaseous molecules and degrade them. Refer to the study from Buazar et al, 2014 the degradation efficiency of the ZnO/Hap nanocomposites used for degrade the 2-

| Photocatalyst/ Hydroxyapatite | Eg, Band Gap Energy | Application | References |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| ZnO/ Ca5(PO4)3OH | | Degradation of 2-mercapto- | (Buazar et al., 2014) |
| | | benzole (MBO) | |
| TiO2/Ca5(PO4)3OH | 3.3 ev | Reduce the toxicity to half | (Fabrício., 2018) |
| | | | |
| Fe3O4/ Ca5(PO4)3OH | | degradation of the insecticide | (Yang et al., 2010) |
| | | diazinon under UV irradiation | |
| | | | |
| TiO2/Ca5(PO4)3OH | 3.3 ev | photo-degradation of MB | (Guo et al., 2017) |
| | | | |
| Ni/ Ca5(PO4)3OH, | | Steam reforming reaction of | (Hakim et al., 2016) |
| Ce/ Ca5(PO4)3OH, | | glycerol. | |
| Cu/ Ca5(PO4)3OH | | | |
| | | | |
| Pa/ Ca5(PO4)3OH | | Selective Oxidation of | (Mori et al., 2004) |
| | | Alcohols by Use of Molecular | |
| | | Oxygen | |
| Au/ Ca5(PO4)3OH | | water gas shift reaction | (Venugopal., 2003) |
| Ru/ Ca5(PO4)3OH | | | |

 Table 2.5: Hydroxyapatite as a Catalyst Support

2.5 Review on the glove wastewater

Glove industry is one of the manufacturing industries that generates large amount of wastewater and pollutes the water sources owing the rubber industries dominates large number of manufacturing industries in Malaysia. The effluent of the rubber industry consists of large amount of water, uses chemical and other utilities from the manufacturing that will kill aquatic life. Natural rubbers are extensively used in glove manufacturing and products. It can be derived from the milky colloidal suspension or latex and synthesized from chemical isoprene. There are some chemicals that are used for manufacturing the natural rubber such as organic and inorganic acid and ammonia in various quantities are used. The operating procedure of a glove production requires dipping process for cleaning the gloves former which needs some alkaline and acid are hazardous. Therefore, the wastewater from the glove or rubber industry without treated is classified as hazardous and it will bring harmful effect to the aquatic life. The wash water, unreacted chemicals and settleable solid from the processing of glove contain high biochemical oxygen demand (BOD), chemical oxygen demand (COD), nitrogen, pH, total suspended solid (TSS) and ammonia. Table 2.5 shown that characteristic of the glove wastewater is classified as acidic water in the range of pH 3.7-5.5 and it also contained large amount of suspended solids, total nitrogen (200-1800) and sulphate content.

| Parameter | Range |
|----------------|------------|
| рН | 3.7-5.5 |
| BOD | 1500-7000 |
| COD | 3500-14000 |
| TSS | 200-700 |
| Total nitrogen | 200-1800 |
| Sulphate | 500-2000 |

 Table 2.6: The characteristic of glove wastewater.

The disposal of these glove processes effluent into the water sources will cause serious depletion of dissolved oxygen. Therefore, the effluent will affect the environment that supports the aquatic life. The glove manufacturing wastewater consists of mainly nitrogenous compound. The presence of the nitrogenous compound inside the effluent owing to the ammonia are utilized for the preservation of the latex. Algal will emerge to growth when there is high level of NH⁴⁺ and other plant nutrient resulting in the eutrophication of water bodies. Therefore, it needs some acts to regulate the manufacturing industries to discharge their waste and follow the laws and regulation. Besides, sulphuric acid is also applied in the coagulation of the skim latex during the processing and resulting in composition of high level sulphate in the rubber effluent.

Hydrogen sulphide will cause the malodour problems and inhibit digestion process which give lower organics pollutants removal efficiency. Odours can be detected even at low concentration and make water unpalatable for several hundred miles downstream from the processing plant. According to the Malaysia Environmental Law, Environment Quality Act 1974 and Malaysia Environmental Quality (Sewage and Industrial Effluent) Regulations, 1979, 1999, 2000 has generated some limitations for the effluent that discharges (Elaw., 2018). The table 2.6 is the parameter limits of effluent of standards a and b that regulated by the Malaysia Environmental Law. Besides that, few study also carried out the analysis of the rubber and glove wastewater characteristic that shown in table 2.7. The studied from the Loh (2001), observed that the high BOD level of the glove wastewater is 85-1035 mg/L and COD is 300 mg/L-4360 mg/L. The glove wastewater also contained large amount of total suspended solid up to 1305 mg/L.

| Parameter | Unit | Standard A | Standard B |
|------------------------|------|----------------|------------|
| Temperature | °C | 40 | 40 |
| рН | | 6.0-9.0 | 5.5-9.0 |
| BOD at 20 °C | ppm | 20 | 50 |
| COD | ppm | 50 | 100 |
| TSS | ppm | 50 | 100 |
| Mercury level | ppm | 0.005 | 0.05 |
| Cadmium level | ppm | 0.01 | 0.02 |
| Lead | ppm | 0.10 | 0.5 |
| Copper | ppm | 0.20 | 1.0 |
| Nickel, Tin, Manganese | ppm | 0.20 | 1.0 |
| Zinc | ppm | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Boron | ppm | 1.0 | 4.0 |
| Iron (Fe) | ppm | 1.0 | 5.0 |
| Free Chlorine | ppm | 1.0 | 2.0 |
| Sulphide | ppm | 0.50 | 0.50 |
| Oil and Grease | ppm | Not detectable | 10 |
| Phenol | ppm | 0.001 | 1.0 |
| Cyanide | ppm | 0.05 | 0.10 |
| Arsenic | ppm | 0.05 | 0.10 |
| Chromium | ppm | 0.2 | 1.0 |
| Trivalent | ppm | 0.2 | 1.0 |

Table 2.7: Limits of Effluent of Standards A and B (Elaw., 2018)

| Rubber Industry | Hazardous | Wastewater Characteristic | References |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | | DOD 05 1025 // | (L. L. 2001) |
| Rubber Glove Processing | - | BOD 85-1035 mg/L | (Lon., 2001) |
| Plant | | TSS 32 mg/L – 1305 mg/L | |
| | | $COD \ 300 \ mg/L - 4360 \ mg/L$ | |
| | | | |
| Natural rubber (NR) | Ammonia | $pH 5.7 \pm 0.30$, | (Pillai et al., 2014) |
| processing sector | | TDS (mg / l) 2240 ± 3.4 , | |
| | | TSS (mg / l) 3512 \pm 4.8 , | |
| | | TS (mg / l) 5752, | |
| | | Ammonia (mg / l) 94 \pm 3.0 , | |
| | | Phosphate (mg / l) 48 ± 2.0 , | |
| | | BOD (mg / l) 1340 ± 2.0 , | |
| | | COD (mg / l) 2834 ± 1.9 | |
| | | | |

 Table 2.8: The research paper on the characteristic of rubber wastewater

2.6 Photocatalyst Degradation of the Rubber Wastewater

Although the biodegradation is common to use for treat wastewater, however, biodegradation by using bacteria is sensitive to the level of toxicity and environmental condition in the ground. The condition for the biodegradation must be conductive to microbial activity and these degradation is required to consider temperature and pH. If the process is not under controlled or monitored, the organic contaminants may not be fully broken down. Therefore, the toxic by product could be more volatile than initial contamination. With the sustainable development of the degradation method, the oxidation degradation methods are employed for destruction of organic contaminants in wastewater. Advanced oxidation process (AOps) were first proposed in 1980s used for potable water treatment which involves two oxidation stages. The process is first in formation of highly reactive hydroxyl radicals as strong oxidant by converting hydrogen peroxide and followed by reaction of oxidants with organic matter in water. The organic matter will undergo mineralization and become less harmful inorganic components (water, carbon dioxide and salts) (Mazille., 2008). Ozone and hydrogen peroxide are often used to remove hazardous water pollutants owing to its high oxidation potential. High reactive hydroxyl radical (OH-) produced when combination of the ozonation and UV radiation and making it a more effective advanced oxidation process. Hydrogen peroxide makes the pollutant more susceptible to ozone attack in advanced oxidation process (AOps) whereas UV-light provides energy to break chemical bonds. Equation below shows degradation mechanism of organic contaminants by OH radical. (Munther., 2010).

$$RH + \cdot OH \rightarrow H_2O + \cdot R$$
 2.13

$$2 \cdot 0H \to H_2 O_2 \qquad \qquad 2.14$$

$$\cdot R + H_2 O_2 \to ROH + \cdot OH$$
 2.15

$$\cdot R + O_2 \rightarrow ROO \cdot 2.16$$

 $ROO \cdot + RH \rightarrow ROOH + R \cdot$ 2.17

Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) are performed by different external energy sources which can be categorized into photochemical or not photochemical. Photochemical utilizes the solar light and UV light which is known as light driven AOP method. The photochemical is more common to use owing availability of sunlight in places where high water scarcity is detected. Table below shows the example of photochemical and non-photochemical AOPs (Lam et al., 2012).

| Non-photochemical AOP | Photochemical AOP |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| Ozone (O3) | Photolysis (UV+H2O2) |
| Fenton (Fe2+ + H2O2) | Photocatalysis(Light + Catalyst) |
| Electrolysis (Electrodes + Current) | Photo-Fenton (Solar Light + Fenton) |
| Sonolysis (Ultrasounds) | |

 Table 2.9: Examples of non-photochemical AOPS (Lam et al., 2012)

AOPs can be categorized into different types of methods that can be used to treat the wastewater including the homogenous and heterogeneous photocatalytic processes. Homogenous AOPs are single phase process and heterogeneous AOPs are utilizing catalyst support on semiconductors such as ZnO, TiO2 and WO3. Homogenous process involves chemical reaction through interaction between reagents and target compound. Hence, Heterogonous AOPs involve adsorption of reactant and desorption of product at the surface of catalyst. Therefore, pore structure and surface characteristic of catalyst may affect the reaction effectiveness.

Heterogeneous photocatalysis is the process focus in this study. The photocatalyst reaction follows free radical mechanism initiated through interaction between a catalyst and photons with certain energy level. In this study, the photocatalyst that is chosen to used is ZnO owing to its extraordinary physical properties that function well in heterogeneous photocatalysis reaction. Heterogeneous photocatalysis has limited application in drinking or wastewater treatment owing to ozonation. However, heterogeneous photocatalysis still receive enormous amount of research interest owing to the extraordinary advantages of the process. The generation of sufficient ·OH radical by using the combination of natural sunlight with appropriate catalyst is relatively low cost.

2.7 Effect of operating parameter

2.7.1 Effect of Photocatalyst Loading

The phootcatalyst loading also one of the important factors that will affect the degradation efficiency of the photocatalytic reaction. The decomposition efficiency of the organic pollutants was found to be increase with the increase of the photocatalyst loading. This is owing to the increased of the effective surface of the catalyst area and able to absorb large amount of light. In fact, there are more active site of the ZnO catalyst for carrying out the photocatalytic reaction by increasing the quantity if active surface area of catalyst. Hence, there are more catalyst exposed to the light and increase the amount of photon absorption. When the photocatalytic reaction increases, the number of active radical generated also increases. Therefore, degradation of the pollutants increases and enhance the degradation efficiency to increase as well.

If photocatalyst loading overloaded, the degradation efficiency can be decreased owing to the interception of the light by suspension. The turbidity of the suspension resulting in the reduction of the effective photoactivated volume of suspension. Therefore, light penetration decreases with the amount of photon absorbed also decreases. As a result, the number of the active sites of the ZnO nanocatalyst decreases so that the degradation efficiency also decreases. With these two phenomena clashing with each other, it is important to obtain the optimum amount of photocatalyst to prevent unnecessary excess catalyst as well as to ensure maximum photon absorption that can efficient photocatalytic degradation of pollutants (Lam et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2016).

Research from the Buazar et al. (2014) studied the effect of catalyst loading with the initial concentration 0.1 g/L on the photodegradation of 2-mercaptobenzoxazole(MBO) pollutant using ZnO/Hap photocatalyst. The optimum photocatalyst loading in their study is 0.05 g/L with given degradation efficiency of 99%. Uti, Laouedj and Ahmed (2011) studied the effect of catalyst loading with the initial dye concentration (20 mg/L) on the photodegradation Congo Red Dye pollutant using ZnO photocatalyst. The optimum amount obtained from this study is the 0.25 to 0.5 g/L of photocatalyst loading with given the degradation efficiency increased from 68.73 % to 95.02 %. On the other hand, the overload photocatalyst loading in this study by increasing the amount to more than 0.5 g/L showed a decrease in degradation efficiency of the dye. Another study is the Methyl Orange dye as model pollutant from Kaur, Bansal and Sighal et al (2013). This research examines the photocatalyst activities using ZnO nanocatalyst at different catalyst dosage loading from 0.25 to 2.0 g/L. When amount of catalyst increased from 0.25 to 2.0 g/L, degradation efficiency increased from 58.9% to 95.3 %. As a result, obtaining the optimum amount of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst loading may increase the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst catalyst

| Targeted Pollutant | Semiconductor | Range of | Optimum | Degradation | References |
|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Catalyst | photocatalyst | catalyst | / | |
| | | concentration | concentratio | Mineralizati | |
| | | (g/L) | n | on Efficiency | |
| | | | (g/L) | | |
| 2-mercapto- | ZnO/Hap | 0.001-02 g/L | 0.05 | 99% | (Krishnakumar & Swaminathan., 2011) |
| benzoxazole(MBO) | | | | | |
| Textile Effluent | ZnO-TiO2-HAp | | 5 | 99.99% | (Mordirshala et al., 2011) |
| Acid Yellow 36 | ZnO | 0.25-0.15 | 1.0 | 90% | (Khezrianjoo & Revanasiddappa., 2013) |
| Brilliant Golden Yellow | ZnO | 0.1-3.0 | 1.0 | 99% | (Ashan Habib et al., 2012) |
| Brilliant Red | ZnO | 0.1-0.7 | 0.4 | 100% | (Jayamadhava et al., 2014) |
| Mordant Black 11 | ZnO | 0.1-0.4 | 0.4 | 99% | (Miao et al., 2014) |
| Reactive Black 5 | ZnO | 0.25-1.5 | 1.25 | 100% | (Kansal, Kaur & Singh., 2009) |
| Reactive Orange 4 | ZnO | 0.75-1.5 | 1.0 | 100% | (Kansal, Kaur & Singh., 2009) |
| | | | | | |

 Table 2.10: Effect of semiconductor catalyst loading on the photocatalysis experiment.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Flowchart of the Work

This study comprised of several experiment steps. Figure 3.1 summarize overall steps that were conducted in this study:



Figure 3.1: General Flow Chart of the work

3.2 Material and Chemicals

| Chemical/ Material | Purity | Supplier | Application |
|--|---------|------------------|----------------------|
| Ethanol (C ₂ H ₆ O) | 99.8% | ChemSoln | Synthesized of |
| | | | photocatalyst |
| | | | Active Species Study |
| | | | |
| Distilled Water | | Gainson Advanced | Synthesized of |
| | | Technology | photocatalyst |
| | | | pH adjustor |
| | | | |
| Sodium Hydroxide | ≥96% | Uni-Chem | pH adjust |
| (NaOH) | | Reagents | |
| Potassium Iodide | 99.995% | Merek Sdn Bhd | Active Species |
| (KI) | | | analysis |
| Sulphuric acid | 95-97 % | QRec | pH adjustment |
| (H2SO4) | | | |
| Zinc(II) Nitrate | 98% | Sigma-Alrich | Zinc precursor |
| Hexahydrate | | | |
| (Zn(NO ₃) ² .6H ₂ O) | | | |

Table 3.1: List of chemicals and materials utilized in this study

3.3 Photocatalytic Degradation Experiment Setup

A batch reaction system was used in laboratory experiment setup. The photocatalysis were conducted in a 250 mL beaker under the presence of light source. Light source for this experiment was UVc lamp irradiated on the wastewater sample surface. The wavelength of fluorescent lamp ranged from UV to visible light. It was placed 12 cm above the surface of the wastewater sample. All the experiment setups including the UV lamp, beaker, and stirrer were located inside an acrylic black box to ensure that there was no stray light can enter into the photolysis system. Air pump using in this experiment was provided by the Sobo was utilized to introduce the air into the sample through the experiment. The flow meter supplied by Dwyer were utilized to control the amount of air flowed. A chilling blower fan supplied by Toyo was utilized for chilling purpose. The schematic diagram of this photocatalytic degradation laboratory setup is shown in Figure 3.2.



Figure 3.2. Schematic Diagram of the Photocatalysis System under UV-c irradiation. (Chin et al., 2018)

3.4 Preparation of ZnO-supported Hap photocatalyst

3.4.1 Preparation of Corn Husk Extracts

The plant wastes of corn husk, used for this experiment were collected from local markets in Kampar, Perak, Malaysia. Plant wastes such as corn husk were washed separately with tap water to remove dust particles and dried in oven at 40-50 °C for 2 days. After that, the dried plant wastes were blended using a commercial blender (CJX-SP450, Selangor, Malaysia). The blended plant waste was measured and poured into the thimble before put inside the soxhlet extractor. Each blended plant wastes was extracted separately in a soxhlet extractor using 50% ethanol aqueous solution. The extraction is carried out 2 hours and heating at 100°C to extract the blended plant waste by using the heating mental and reflux condenser. The extracts were dried over a water bath at 90 °C for 2hr to obtain crude extracts, filtered and placed into individual air-tight bottle before stored in a refrigerator at 4 °C.



Figure 3.3: Flow Chart of preparation of green extracts

3.4.2 Preparation of Green synthesized corn husk ZnO

Firstly, 0.1 M of Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O was prepared with 60 mL of water. Then, 20 mL of plant waste extract taken out from the refrigerator was added into the mixture and continuously stirred afterwards. Then, the mixture solution was adjusted to approximate pH 12 with addition of 5M of NaOH. The resultant mixture was stirred continuously by using the magnetic stirrer at 80 °C for 4 hours (Sohrabnezhad and Seifi., 2016). The pale white precipitate was obtained through centrifugation and washed with ethanol and water before filtered down to a filter paper. The filter paper that contains the white precipitate will then be allowed to dry in the oven at 90 °C. After drying, the dry product was placed in the muffle furnace at 400 °C for 1 h. The calcined product was allowed to cool in a desiccator. The product was then ready (Sohrabnezhad and Seifi., 2016).



Figure 3.4: Flow Chart of preparation of ZnO

3.4.3 Preparation of Bone derived photocatalyst (Hydroxyapatite)

The bovine bone (femur) waste was collected from a local butchery in Kampar, Perak, Malaysia. The adhering soft tissues of the bovine bone were removed manually with a stiletto knife and washed under tap water. The bones were then sawed into smaller pieces with a hacksaw and boiled for 3 h to facilitate the removal of any organic substance on the bone. An alkali-heat treatment was then conducted to de-fat and de-proteinase the bone. In the alkali-heat treatment, bones were treated with a 20 wt% sodium hydroxide aqueous solution and heated in water bath at 80 °C for 10 h. The treated bones were later dried at 80 °C for 3 h and grinded using RETSCH Ultra Centrifugal Mill ZM 200. The powdered bone was sieved with a 250 µm mesh size and its product was calcined in a muffle furnace at 550 °C for 2 h.



Figure 3.5: Flow chart preparation of Bone derived photocatalyst (Hydroxyapatite)

3.4.4 Preparation of Green Synthesized ZnO/HAp

Firstly, the ZnO/HAp composites were prepared by dispersing 1.0 g of the green synthesized prepared ZnO and different amounts of HAp in deionized water. The mixture was ultrasonicated for 30 min and mechanical mixed for 17 hours under room temperature. Then, the ZnO/HAp composites were collected by centrifugation, dried at 65 °C for 12 hours and calcined at 450 °C for 2 hours (Chin et al., 2018). The synthetic procedure for preparing the ZnO/HAp composites is schematically depicted in Figure 3.6. The obtained samples with 20, 30, 40 and 50 wt% HAp nanoparticles were denoted as ZnO-20%HAp, ZnO-30%HAp and ZnO-40%HAp, respectively (Chin et al., 2018).



Figure 3.6 Flow Chart of preparation of Green Synthesized ZnO/HAp

3.5 Characterization of Photocatalyst

3.5.1 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

The crystal phase of ZnO/HAp photocatalyst was analysed by X-Ray Diffraction machine (XRD-600) supplied by Shimadzu. The XRD data were scanned at 2θ from 20° to 70°. This study was carried out at the Faculty of Science, UTAR.

3.5.2 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX) Spectroscopy

The surface morphology analysis of the ZnO/ HAp samples was determined by using FESEM (Quanta FEG 450). The analysis was performed by evenly placing the developed powder of photocatalyst on a double sided carbon tape which was then attached to an aluminium sample stub. On the other hand, The EDX are utilized to determine the chemical compositions of ZnO/HAp photocatalyst via Oxford Instrument 50mm² supplied from United Kingdom. This study was carried out at Faculty of Engineering and Science, UTAR.

3.5.3 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

FTIR analyses of ZnO/HAp photocatalyst was carried out to investigate the functional group. The FTIR data were scanned from 4000 cm⁻¹ to 400 cm⁻¹. The analysis were carried out at Faculty of Science, UTAR.

3.5.4 Ultraviolet-visible Diffuse Reflectance Spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS)

The UV-vis DRS analysis was conducted using Perkin Elmer Lambda 35 to measure the characteristic of reflectance spectrum of the photocatalyst sampling was sent to Universiti Sains Malaysia.

3.5.5 Particle Size Analysis (PSA)

Particle Size Distribution (PSD) is conducted to determine different size of particle which are presented as proportions. The refractive index of the sample is first measured by the refractive index meter. Measurement is conducted by referring relative particle amount as a percentage where the total amount of particles is 100% in the sample particle group.

3.6 Photocatalytic Activity

The pollutant in the rubber wastewater as the pollutant in this reserach. Photocatalytic degradation by using ZnO/HAp photocatalyst were investigated in this study. The photocatalytic degradation of the photocatalyst was conducted in batch reaction system under UV irradiation with the apparatus set up shown in Figure 3.2. The experiment started with the preparation of 400 ml of glove wastewater in appropriate volume and distilled water. 400 ml substrate solution was prepared with 1g/L of photocatalyst as initial parameter was poured into a reactor. Air was supplied into solution mixture at an adjusted flow rate of 2.5 L/min throughout the experiment. The hot plate was using to ensure the continuous agitation at 350 rpm stirring rate throughout the experiment. 5 ml of suspensions from reaction mixture was taken at a fixed interval and utilizing syringe filters. The degradation efficiency was calculated using the equation below.

Degradation efficiency =
$$\frac{C_o - C_t}{C_o} \times 100\%$$
 3.1

Where Co indicates pollutant concentration after 30 minutes of dark adsorption and C_t indicates the pollutant COD level at reaction time, t (min)

3.7 Effect of HAp weight percent on ZnO/HAp nanoparticles

The effect of ZnO weight percent on ZnO/HAp photocatalyst on the photocatalytic degradation of rubber wastewater organic pollutants under UV irradiation was conducted in the range of 10 wt% to 50 wt%. The ZnO/HAp photocatalyst of different ZnO weight percent were synthesized by controlling the amount of HAp added correspond to 1g of ZnO

3.7.1 Effect of Catalyst Loading

The effect of catalyst loading on the photocatalysisof glove wastewater organic pollutants over the ZnO photocatalyst in the presence UV irradiation was experimented in the loading range of 1 g/L. The range was chosen are refer to the literatures (Khezrianjoo & Revanasiddappa., 2013; Kansal, Kaur, & Singh., 2009). The experiment was conducted with initial wastewater concentration of 0.5 mg/L.

3.7.2 Scavenger Test

The radical scavenger experiment was conducted to indicate the importance and function of active species in the photocatalysis of glove wastewater over ZnO/HAp photocatalyst under UV irradiation. The reaction was carried out similarly except that 2mM of radical scavengers such as ethanol, potassium iodide and benzoquinone were added to rubber wastewater pollutants prior to addition of ZnO/HAp photocatalyst. The scavengers used for the photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater were Isopropanol (IPA), Benzoquinone (BQ)and Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt (EDTA-2Na). The IPA was utilized to scavenge OH radical, BQ was utilized to identify O2 - radicals and the EDTA-2Na was applied to detect h+ in photocatalytic reaction. Other experiment parameters remain the same except for the presence of radical scavengers.

3.8 Phytoxicity Testing

The phytoxicity of the samples before and after glove wastewater degradation was examined using mung bean seeds. The surface of the seeds was first sterilized with NaOCl (0.5 wt%, 30 min). 9 green bean seeds were place in each petri dish together with the cotton wool. In the defined time interval (12hr), the cotton was wetted using distilled water and incubated at room temperature for 6 days. After 6 days, the radicle length of each samples were measured and phytotoxicity was calculated by using equation

$$Phytotoxicity (\%) = \frac{Radicle \ length \ of \ control-Radicle \ length \ of \ Sample}{Radicle \ length \ of \ Control} 3.2$$

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Characterization

The characterization analyse of the Corn Husk ZnO phtocatalyst and Coupling of ZnO with HAp so as to describe their features. These analyses were Xray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscope (SEM), energy dispersion Xray (EDX) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM).

4.1.1 X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

The purpose of doing XRD analysis was to observed the crystalline structure of the zinc oxide photocatalyst. Figure 4.1 illustrates that XRD result of green synthesized corn husk ZnO, buffalo bone HAp and ZnO coupled with 50 wt% of HAp. The characteristic diffraction peaks at 31.84°, 34.5°, 36.34°, 47.62°, 56.68°, 62.92°, 66.46°, 68.04°, 69.2° can be matched to the diffraction plane of (100), (002), (101), (102), (110), (103), (200), (112), and (201), respectively. All this peaks were indicated that the hexagonal wurtzite Corn Husk ZnO crystal structure. The pattern spotted in the XRD result of the phase purity of the corn husk ZnO photocatalyst was proven that no additional crystalline impurities. Strong and narrow diffraction peaks that can observed from the result means the well crystalline of obtained photocatalysts. The XRD result of ZnO are similar to the results of several literatures. (Ghule et al., 2011; Miao et al., 2014).

The HAp crystalline structure was confirmed by the diffraction peaks observed at typical 2h values of 26.08°, 31.96°, 40°, 46.88°, 49.66° which is similar result from the literatures. (Zhao et al., 2014). The diffraction peaks of ZnO/HAp XRD patterns revealed principal components of HAp and ZnO at figure 4.1. The crystallinity of the HAp in the ZnO-50%HAp structure can be indicated by the reflections observed at typical 2h values 25.94°, 31.96°, 46.06°. Meanwhile, the narrow peak at 34.58°, 36.4°, 47.68°, 56.74°, 63.02°, 66.48° can be corresponded to the diffraction plane of (002), (101), (102), (110), (103), (200) respectively were attributed to the hexagonal structure of ZnO Np doped on the HAp. (Buazar et al., 2014; Ghule at a1., 2011; Miao et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014)



Figure 4.1: XRD pattern of ZnO, HAp, and ZnO-50%HAp

4.1.2 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

The morphrology and nanostructure Corn Husk ZnO, HAp, ZnO/HAp nanocomposites were observed by SEM analyses. The SEM image of Hydroxyapatite(HAp), Corn Husk ZnO, Coupling of ZnO and weight percent of HAp was perfomed at the figure 4.2. From the figure 4.2, it was shown that the ZnO displayed as a flower shape structure whereas pure HAp appeared as oval shape nanostructure. Figure C to E shown the SEM image of the green synthesized coupled of ZnO/HAp photocatalyst with different weight percent of HAP. The ZnO were observed that well attached on the HAp nanostructure, indicating successful generated of ZnO/HAp nanocomposites. On the other hand, the HAp contact with the ZnO can help in promoting efficiency of transfering photo generated charge carriers and absorption efficiency.





Figure 4.2: SEM image of Green Synthesized (a) Corn Husk ZnO (b) HAp (c) ZnO-20%HAp (d) ZnO-30%HAp (e) ZnO-40%HAp (f) ZnO-50%HAp photocatalyst at x5K magnification

4.1.3 Energy Dispersion X-ray (EDX)

EDX analysis was performed on the corn husk extract mediated ZnO, pure HAp and ZnO/HAp nanocomposites to confirm its elemental composition. According to the EDX analysis from figure 4.3, the peaks of Zn, O, Ca, P, H element can be easily observed. By referring to the result, the higher weight percent of ZnO coupled with the HAP was observed with more different peaks through EDX analysis owing to the presence of the elemental composition hydroxyapatite and ZnO. Furthermore, the C peak was also observed which can be originated from the supporting carbon tape.





Figure 4.3: EDX spectrum of Green Synthesized (a) Corn Husk ZnO (b) HAp (c) ZnO-20%HAp (d) ZnO-30%HAp (e) ZnO-40%HAp (d) ZnO-50%HAp
4.1.4 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

The FTIR spectra analyses show in the Figure 4.4 were the Corn Husk ZnO, HAp, ZnO-50%HAp. Purpose of doing FTIR analysis is to determine the nature and purity of the green synthesized corn husk ZnO, natural obtained HAp and Coupled ZnO with the HAp. Generally, metal oxide such as corn husk ZnO have absorption below 1000 cm⁻¹ owing to the inter–atomic vibrations. The peaks detected from the Corn Husk ZnO (blue line) at 3854 cm⁻¹ and 3402 cm⁻¹ are owing to the O-H groups and H2O molecules strongly bond to the catalyst surface (Xiong et al., 2006; Wahab et al., 2007). Additionally, a strong vibration band was observed at 497 cm⁻¹ and 431 cm⁻¹ which means distinct stretching mode of crystal ZnO and the characteristic absorption of ZnO bond. (Kadhim et al., 2015). Other peaks that observed in the corn husk ZnO at 1630 cm⁻¹ were related to and hydroxyl surface functional group and 2369 cm⁻¹ and 2345 cm⁻¹ was indicated as presence of carbon dioxide impurities.

The result of the HAp in the FTIR spectra was observed. The first peak at the 3569 and 3648 cm⁻¹ are due to the O-H stretching. Strong vibration band was detected in the HAp FTIR spectra at 1090 and 1046 cm⁻¹ was indicated as the C-O stretching in the Hydroxyapatite. The peaks of 632, 602 and 570 cm⁻¹ that found in the FTIR spectra analysis of presence of impurities like alkenes. Referring to the FTIR result of ZnO-50% Hap, the first peak 3448 cm⁻¹ presence was owing to the O-H group and H₂O molecules strongly bond to the catalyst surface and the peaks at 605 and 564 cm⁻¹ is because of the presence of impurities (Xiong et al., 2006; Wahab et al., 2007). ZnO-50% HAp was coupling the ZnO and 50 wt% of HAp, so that the peaks observed at the 1090 and 1046 cm⁻¹ indicate the C-O stretching of the hydroxyapatite and peaks at 485 and 431 cm⁻¹ was because of the distinct stretching mode of crystal ZnO and the characteristic absorption of ZnO bond (Kadhim et al., 2015).



Figure 4.4: FTIR result of ZnO, HAp, ZnO-50%HAp.

4.1.5 Ultraviolet-visible Diffuse Reflectance Spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS)

The optical absorption spectrum of buffalo bone HAp, Corn Husk ZnO and ZnO-50wt%HAp photocatalyst was showed in Figure 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. A trailing stream to the reflectance spectrum was detected near UV region which was a common trait of a semiconductor with a direct band gap (Lam et al., 2014). The light reflectance of the HAp, ZnO and ZnO-50%HAp increased steeply as it approaches 270 nm, 350 nm, and 290 nm respectively owing to the band gap transition. Consequently, the band gap energy can be calculated through the Equation 4.1 (Lam et al., 2014):

$$E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \tag{4.2}$$

Where

- E_g = Band Gap Energy, eV
- h = Planck's Constant (4.135667 x 10⁻⁵ eVs)
- $c = \text{Light Velocity} (3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m/s})$
- λ = Wavelength pf absorption, nm



Figure 4.5: UV-vis DRS Spectrum of Buffalo Bone HAp



Figure 4.6: UV-vis DRS Spectrum of Green Synthesized Corn Husk ZnO



Figure 4.7: UV-vis DRS Spectrum of ZnO-50%HAp

It can observe that the absorption edge of HAp, Corn Husk ZnO and ZnO-50%HAp was approximately 290 nm, 365nm, and 320 nm respectively. By applying the equation 4.2, the measured bad gap energy of HAp, Corn Husk ZnO and ZnO-50%HAp were 4.28 eV, 3.39 eV, 3.87 eV respectively. The band gap measurement result indicates that the ZnO after coupled with the HAp has higher band gap to absorb the light spectrum compare with Corn Husk ZnO. The pure HAp has the highest band gap energy which already exceed the UV light spectrum range for photocatalysis. These finding were similar with the literature report. (Buazar et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2018)

4.1.6 Particle Size Analysis

The particle size of the ZnO, ZnO-50% HAp and HAp were obtained in the result below. Referring to the figure 4.8, the particle size distribution of the ZnO, ZnO-50% HAp and HAp in the narrow particle size ranging from 0.04 to 0.316 μ m. Summary of the physical properties of the photocatalyst obtained by the PSA were shown in the Table 4.1. The ZnO, ZnO-50% HAp and HAp particle distribution is narrow, with mean diameter 0.118, 0.118 and 0.150 respectively. Fine particle has higher specific surface area as compared to coarse particle. According to the physical properties obtained from the PSA analysis, the HAp (39.9 m²/g) has lower specific surface area than the ZnO (50.7 m²/g) and ZnO-50% HAp (50.8 m²/g) which means the HAp are coarser particles.

Table 4.1: Refractive Index

| Sample | Refractive Index |
|---------------|------------------|
| Corn Husk ZnO | 1.337 |
| НАр | 1.334 |
| ZnO-50%HAp | 1.337 |



Figure 4.8: Particle Size Analysis of (a) Corn Husk ZnO (b) ZnO-50%HAp and (c) HAp

| Sample | Physical Properties | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| | Mean Diameter (µ m) | Specific Surface Area | |
| | | (m^2/g) | |
| Corn Husk ZnO | 0.118 | 50.7 | |
| НАр | 0.118 | 50.8 | |
| ZnO-50%HAp | 0.150 | 39.9 | |

Table 4.2: Physical Properties of the Photocatalyst

4.2 Control Experiment

At the starting stage of photocatalytic degradation, three set of control experiments were conducted to determine the effect of dark adsorption, photolysis and photocatalysis. In the preliminary step, 10 ppm of diluted glove wastewater and ZnO photocatalyst loading of 1 g/L were used for the photocatalytic degradation experiment. Photolysis degradation of glove wastewater was studied by conducting the experiment in the presence of UV Lamp irradiation without using photocatalyst. The semiconductor catalyst was used to study the effect of dark adsorption without UV lamp irradiation. The purpose of the dark adsorption is to study the catalyst adsorption when the dark run with only presence of the photocatalyst. On the others hand, the photocatalytic degradation was carried out by using ZnO photocatalyst and presence with the UV lamp irradiation. Figure 4.6 show the degradation efficiency of the glove wastewater under different control process condition.



Figure 4.9: Photocatalytic Degradation of Glove Wastewater under different conditions. Condition: Diluted initial 10 ppm Glove Wastewater, ZnO-50%Hap Catalyst Loading=1g/L.

By referring to Figure 4.6., the dark adsorption and the photolysis degradation were running very slow because the concentration of glove wastewater after the experiment remained almost unchanged. In the dark adsorption, it only has low degradation performance of 8.07%. Concentration of the glove wastewater was just slightly decreased inside the dark adsorption owing to the adsorption of organic compounds on the photocatalyst surface. The result also similar with the research from Mohsin, Juda, & Mashkour (2013). In their research, they have conducted the dark run of degradation by using Sunset Yellow Dye over similar ZnO photocatalysis. The result in their study reported the reduction efficiency of 8.53% at the first 30 min. This result proved that the reduction in Sunset Yellow pollutant concentration because of the adsorption of dye pollutants on the ZnO photocatalyst and there was no photocatalytic degradation occur (Mohsin, Juda., & Mashkour., 2013). The photolysis degradation of the glove wastewater in this study was negligible. The degradation efficiency of the photolysis in this study is only 0.7 % under the UV irradiation. Small reduction in glove wastewater concentration proved that the photolysis degradation showed negligible interference of photocatalytic degradation.

The photocatalytic degradation by Corn Husk ZnO photocatalyst under the UV irradiation reached the highest degradation of the glove wastewater. The photocatalytic degradation achieved almost complete degradation of textile dye inside the glove wastewater at 300 min. It is obvious the use of green synthesized ZnO semiconductor catalyst have large improved the photocatalytic degradation. This is owing to the photoexcitation of a semiconductor during the solar energy irradiation. The energy state of electrons was promoted along with the generation of electron-hole pair on the catalyst surface with the illumination of photocatalyst with light irradiation. The presences of the eletctron-hole pair on the catalyst surface which can enabled the generation of strong oxidizing agents (.OH radical) that are functioned to degrade the organic pollutants. Therefore, high degradation efficiency of the glove wastewater can be achieved when there is presences with both light and semiconductor catalyst. Compare the results of photolysis, dark absorption and photocatalytic degradation observed that the organic pollutants degradation experiments were conducted at an almost pure photocatalytic condition (Ahmed et al., 2010; Lam et al., 2012; Ribeiro et al., 2015)

4.3 Effect of Hap Content in ZnO

In this research, it is important to study the effect of HAp content in the ZnO/HAp nanocomposites on the photocatalytic degradation glove wastewater. The coupling of the Hydroxyapatite (HAp) and Zinc Oxide (ZnO) was varied with the weight percent of the Hap, The Hap content in ZnO/HAp photocatalyst was varied from the 20 wt% to 50 wt%. Figure 4.7 shows the photocatalytic degradation efficiency of glove wastewater using ZnO/HAp with different weight percent of Hap. In this experiments, the samples include Corn Husk Pure ZnO, ZnO-20%HAp, ZnO-30%HAp, ZnO-40%HAp, ZnO-50%HAp and Pure HAp.



Figure 4.10: Effect of Hap content in ZnO/Hap nanocomposites for photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater. Conditions: Diluted 10 mg/L glove wastewater, 1g/L catalyst loading.

In the first 30 min, the degradation efficiency for all sample is low for the dark absorption. The experiments conducted with Corn Husk ZnO and Pure HAP semiconductor catalysts showed low glove wastewater degradation efficiencies of 62.5% and 56.5% respectively under a 30 min UVc Lamp photocatalytic degradation.

As for the photo degradation using the ZnO couple with the Hap (ZnO/HAp) with different weight percent of HAp showing the higher photocatalytic degradation efficiency. The ZnO-20% HAp showed the moderate degradation efficiency of 27% under photocatalysis. The ZnO/HAp with higher percentage of Hap than 20% (30%, 40%, and 50%) showed higher photocatalytic degradation efficiency. The ZnO-30% and ZnO-40% have reached the very high degradation efficiency of 93.5% and 97.5% in 30 min. Based on the figure shown that, the highest photocatalytic degradation efficiency of the glove wastewater is the ZnO-50% HAP. ZnO-50% HAP fully degrade the glove wastewater under the presence of UV lamp in 30 min. The higher content of hydroxyapatite couple with the ZnO, it will enhance the adsorption surface to improve the degradation efficiency as well. Therefore, the highest content of the Hap couple with the ZnO showed the highest photodegradation efficiency.

The effect of HAp content in the ZnO/HAp photocatalyst on the photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater was explained in terms of adsorption ability and the effectiveness of charges carrier. The presences of the Hap will enhanced the photocatalytic degradation owing to the surface adsorption ability. Besides, the UV irradiation of the photocatalytic degradation leads to create an O vacancy in the hydroxyapatite lattice. The hydroxyapatite vacancy leads the transfer of an electron to the atmospheric oxygen which generate the charged O₂- species. The O₂- species will react with the liquid/ gaseous molecules and degrade them. According to the figure, the degradation efficiency of glove wastewater increased as the HAp content increased from 20wt% to 50wt%. The degradation efficiency is low when the HAp content is low. This is owing to the low content of HAp will led the unobvious charge carrier's separation effect and the lower light absorption ability. When the HAp content is increased to 50 wt%, it will substantially increase the light absorption in the UV, which will also increase the electron transfer to the atmospheric oxygen which generate more charged O₂- to enhance the photocatalytic degradation efficiency. The higher HAp content also will improve the efficiency of interfacial charge transfer which will have resulted in better photocatalytic properties. This is owing to the recombination of photo-generated electron and hole will inhibited (Lam et al., 2012). Besides that, the addition of HAp also can improve the adsorption of organic pollutants to the surface of ZnO. As HAp is an adsorbent, more

pollutants on the surface of ZnO can accelerate the contact of pollutant and radicals on the photocatalyst surface which lead to higher activity. The pollutant absorbed by HAP will be suggested to migrate to photocatalyst surface. The studied carried out by the (Buazar et al., 2014) proved that the ZnO dope with the HAp will enhance the photocatalytic reaction than single ZnO and HAp. In their results, the ZnO/HAp has the highest removal efficiency of 2-mercaptobenzoxazole (MBO) (99.45%) under UV irradiation. The trend of photocatalytic activity of their studied nanophotocatalyst for degradation MBO was ZnO/HAp > ZnO> HAp.

4.4 Radical Scavenger Test

It was generally accepted that the photocatalytic degradation involved massive amount of main reactive oxygen species including O_2 - radicals, OH radicals and h+. Thus, the effects of different of radical scavengers on both photodegradation of pretreated glove wastewater were evaluated in attempt to explain the reaction mechanism. Therefore, scavenger test is carrying out to indicate the role of each active species in assisting in photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater. This test also aimed to determine the degradation efficiency in the absence of these active species by eliminating them through addition of scavengers. The scavengers used for the photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater were Isopropanol (IPA), Benzoquinone (BQ) and Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt (EDTA-2Na). The IPA was utilized to scavenge OH radical, BQ was utilized to identify O2 - radicals and the EDTA-2Na was applied to detect h+ in photocatalytic reaction. All the experiments were conducted at with 10 mg/L initial concentration of glove wastewater and 1 g/L of catalyst loading.



Figure 4.11: Effect of radical scavengers testing at 0.5Mm on UV irradiation degradation of glove wastewater over ZnO nanocomposites. Conditions: Diluted 10 mg/L Initial glove wastewater concentration and 1g/L of catalyst loading.

Influence of a series of scavengers on the COD removal efficiency of glove wastewater using the ZnO/HAp semiconductor catalyst is shown in the figure 4.8. From the result, the experiments without presence any scavengers showed the best degradation performance among the other three set experiment without presence of scavengers. The experiment without presence of any scavengers perform with 100 % of COD removal efficiency compared to 16%, 20.5% and 30% for IPA, BQ and EDTA-2Na respectively. All three oxidative species also performed their roles in photocatalysis as the reduction was significant as compared to 100%. Addition of the IPA scavenger was largely inhibited the COD removal of glove wastewater. Implying that the OH radicals were the dominant reactive species partook in the photocatalytic process and also play larger role in the photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater. Although, addition of BQ and EDTA-2Na decrease the COD removal efficiency of glove wastewater to lesser extent, which demonstrated that the O₂ -radicals and h+ played minor roles on the photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater. Referring to the research from Yang et al (2017), the similar degradation result on the photodegradation of methylene blue (MB) was obtained. Their study

reported that addition of tert-butyl alcohol which was similar with the IPA as a OH radicals scavenger into the reaction system, the degradation of MB decreased significantly from 44.5 % to 12.5% as compared with addition of benzoquinone which resulted in drop of degradation efficiency from 44.6% to 34.6% (Yang et al, 2017). The research from the Djebbar, Zertal and Sehili (2006) also showed that the degradation of glove wastewater was inhibited by 70% in the presence of ethanol which is similar with IPA as \cdot OH radical scavengers. The ethanol reduced the degradation efficiency due to the absence of \cdot OH radicals to oxidize the organic pollutant. Besides that, another study use the potassium iodide which is similar with EDTA-2Na to scavenge h+ ion owing to its efficient formation of I₂ and I₂ \sim was shown in the scavenger reaction sequences below. (Equations 4.1-4.3) (Palominos et al, 2009; Sin et al, 2014).

$$h_{vb}^{+} + I^{-} \to I \cdot$$

$$I \cdot + I^- \to I_2 \cdot^- \qquad \qquad \mathbf{4.4}$$

$$h_{vb}^{+} + I_2 \cdot \overline{} \to I_2 \tag{4.5}$$

In the photocatalytic degradation , BQ was often used as scavenger to investigate the effect of $O_2 \cdot \overline{}$ radicals owing to its capability to trap all the radicals by electron transfer mechanism that showed in equation 4.4 (Palominos et al, 2009; Palaez et al, 2012; Sin et al, 2014).

$$BQ + O_2 \cdot \overline{} \rightarrow BQ \cdot \overline{} + O_2 \qquad 4.6$$

Photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater over ZnO nanocomposites under presence of different acvengers at 0.5 mM were shown in Figure. The experiments were conducted with 10 mg/L initial glove wastewater concentration, 1 g/L catalyst loading.

4.5 Phytoxicity

Wastewater that discharge from the glove industry may contain some chemical that will lead the damage of aquatic life and serious environmental pollution. The chemical content inside the glove wastewater include of nitrogenous compound. To study the phytotoxicity of samples before and after photocatalytic degradation of the glove wastewater by using the mung bean seeds. The figure 4.9 showed the obtained result of phytotoxicity of samples. Referring to the result, it can be seen that there was an observably decrease in phytotoxicity of the samples after degradation. The calculated phytotoxicity level of 63.15 % was obtained for the samples after degradation, while the samples before degradation has phytotoxicity level of 100%.



Figure 4.12: Phytoxicity Test

After the 6 days period for conduct the experiment, the radical length was observed from the sample after degradation was 1.4 cm. The mung bean seeds treated with the samples before degradation showed the 0.2 cm radical length. The radical length for the samples after degradation reduced almost 50% from the radical length in the control. This result indicates that the effectiveness of photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater using ZnO-50%HAp as photocatalyst. The figure

4.9 also showed the observed condition of mung bean seeds indifferent samples after 6 days growth. Referring to study of the Samir et al,2015, the phytotoxicity testing on the lepidium sativum seeds by using TiO_2 as photocatalyst. The results in this study showed that the stem inhibition up to 85% was recorded for the samples of glove wastewater before undergoing photocatalytic degradation.

4.6 Effect of Operating Parameter

In our research, there are 2 significant parameters for study the process parameter which are initial wastewater concentration and catalyst loading.

4.6.1 Effect of initial wastewater concentration

The dependency of the photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater on the initial concentration was investigate in the presence of 1g/L of catalyst loading. The catalyst using in this experiment was the optimum degradation efficiency coupling ZnO-50wt%HAp. The effect of the initial wastewater concentration on the photocatalytic degradation was observed by varying the initial wastewater concentration from 10 mg/L to 50 mg/L. Figure 4.10 illustrates the performance of the photocatalytic degradation with different initial wastewater concentration with constant 1g/L catalyst dosage.



Figure 4.13: Effect of initial glove wastewater Concentration on the photocatalysis of glove wastewater over ZnO/HAp nanocomposites. Conditions: 1g/L catalyst loading.

From the result, it can be noted that the degradation efficiency at low glove wastewater concentration of 10 mg/L (100% COD removal efficiency) was higher than the 20 mg/L (44 % COD removal efficiency), 30mg/L (26% COD removal efficiency), 40 mg/L (19.05% COD removal efficiency) and 50 mg/L (13 % COD removal efficiency) of glove wastewater concentration. Therefore, the lowest initial wastewater concentration (10 mg/L) demonstrated best photocatalytic activities as compared with other higher initial wastewater concentration. This was owing to the light cannot pass through the high concentration at dark environment. The degradation efficiency would be higher when the pollutant to be degraded is lesser. This also can be explained in the studies by Subash et al (2013). In their studies, the better photocatalytic degradation efficiency was evaluated when there is presence of less pollutants. Their results display the highest photocatalytic degradation efficiency was observed when there was low concentration of 1 x 10^{-4} M Acid Black 1 dye with 3 g/L WO3-Ag-ZnO under 30 min compared to other higher dye concentration.

In addition, low initial wastewater concentration allowed less interface of less pollutants inside the glove wastewater towards the light photons. It would allow more photons to attach to the surface of the semiconductor catalyst for production of photogenerated e_{CB}^{-} thus amplifying the photocatalytic efficiency (Chamjangali and Boromund., 2013). The other studies carried out by the Yang et al (2017) also reported that the degradation efficiency of Rhodamine B dye under photocatalytic degradation over ZnO nanorods decreased from the 93.31% to 27.82% when the wastewater concentration varied from 10 mg/L to 50 mg/L.

The phenomenon where the degradation efficiency decreased when the initial wastewater concentration increased could be due to decrease in the concentration of generated active radicals. The intermediate product that released from the wastewater pollutants would compete with the pollutants for available ZnO/HAp active sites. The higher amount of the pollutants molecules would be attached to the active sites of the photocatalyst as dye concentration. This will increase the competence between the pollutants and photocatalyst and reduce the degradation efficiency. The higher the concentration of the wastewater concentration will generate more intermediate

product which would reduce the degradation efficiency since the available amount of active sites is fixed with continuous UV light intensity.

The 10 mg/L of initial wastewater concentration showed the 100% degradation efficiency under 30 min owing to the lesser pollutants in the system compared to other varied initial wastewater concentration. The competition with O_2 and OH⁻ ions on the durface of photocatalyst would be lessen when the presence of pollutant in lesser amount. Referring to the research paper that conducted by the Khatee et al (2014), low dye concentration of Acid Red 17 dye as less amount of dye molecules were attached at the active sites of catalyst would lead to high photocatalytic degradation efficiency of 67% Acid Red 17 dye. This is owing to the vacant active site of catalyst would generate •OH radicals from O2 and OH⁻ ions which will lead to higher photocatalytic degradation. As a result, the 10 mg/L of initial wastewater concentration was selected as it showed the optimum COD removal efficiency of glove wastewater compare to other initial glove wastewater concentration.

4.6.2 Effect of Photocatalyst Loading

Photocatalyst loading in photocatalytic process is one of the important factor that can influence the efficiency of glove wastewater degradation. Therefore, it is important to obtained the optimum amount of catalyst loading in photocatalytic process. In this experiments, the catalyst loading for the photocatalytic process was varied from the 0.5 g/L - 1.5 g/L of ZnO-50%HAP and the COD reduction after 30 min irradiation. Figure 4.11 shows the COD removal efficiency of glove wastewater under different amount of ZnO nanocomposites photocatalyst. Based on the results shown in figure 4.14, the COD removal efficiency of the glove wastewater increased from the 56.5% to 100% when the photocatalyst loading increased from 0.5 g/L to 1 g/L. However, the COD removal efficiency droped from 100 % to 81.6% when the catalyst loading

reached 1.5 g/L. Therefore, the optimum value of the ZnO-50%HAp nanocomposites photocatalyst to degrade the glove wastewater was 1 g/L.



Figure 4.14: Effect of Photocatalyst Loading on Photocatalysis of Glove Wastewater over ZnO/HAp nanocomposites. Condition: 10 mg/L of initial wastewater concentration.

The effect of photocatalyst loading on the glove wastewater can be described in terms of the amount of active sites available, absorption area available for generate active radicals and the amount of light can be penetrated. As the amount of catalyst increased, the amount of the active site available on the photocatalyst surface increased and resulting higher adsorption area that is available for the formation of active radicals to degrade the pollutant (Ahmad et al., 2010; Lam et al., 2012. The studies from Chen et al (2011) was conducted the photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange by ZnO and varied with the amount of catalyst loading. Their study reported that the photocatalytic degradation efficiency increased when photocatalyst loading increase to an optimum value of 2.5 g/L. This is owing to the amount of active surface area of the photocatalyst ZnO nanocomposites available increased. Nevertheless, the catalyst loading increase over certain amount was led to reduction of the degradation efficiency. This is owing to the light scattering effect and increase in the aggregation of photocatalyst. Another study by Kansal, Kaur &Singh (2009) was obtained the similar result on the photocatalytic degradation of Reactive Orange 4 Dye over ZnO photocatalyst. Their study showed that the excess loading of photocatalyst leading an increase in the turbidity level of the mixture and decrease the light penetration decreased. Thus, resulted in lower degradation efficiency.

Commonly, the optimum loading of photocatalyst for ZnO based photocatalyst was observed to be 0.16 g/L to 10.0 g/L from various studies from previous study which was reliant on on the nature, of photocatalyst, reactor configuration, light energy and pollutants (Jiang et al., 2008; Lam et al., 2012; Rao et al., 2012). Consequently, the optimum loading for the ZnO/HAP photocatalyst in this study was 1.0 g/L.

4.7 Glove wastewater characteristic

Table 4.3: Comparison of raw glove wastewater and degraded glove wastewater after 30 min irradiation time. (COD of raw discharged glove wastewater = 1254 mg/L)

| Parameter | Initial Wastewater | Degraded Wastewater | Removal |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------|
| | (Diluted to 10 ppm) | after 30 min | efficiency |
| Turbidity (NTU) | 32.1 | 10.65 | 66.8% |
| Colour (Pt-Co) | 42 | 13.62 | 67.5% |
| Ammonia | 1.03 | 0.53 | 48% |
| (NH ₃ -N) | | | |
| TSS (g) | 0.0152 | 0.003 | 80.3% |
| pH | 11.48 | 8.03 | - |
| COD (mg/L) | 10 | 0 | 100% |

Removal efficiency of the turbidity, colour, Ammonia, and TSS after 30 minutes of UV irradiation time were observed as 66.8%, 67.5%, 48% and 80.3% respectively. The complex functional group of different dyes and presences of inorganic ions such as Cl- will indirectly affect photodegradation of glove wastewater. The pH of the glove wastewater was recorded reduction from 11.48 to 8.03 could be attributed to the generation of aliphatic carboxylic acid that converted from the destroyed intermediate during photocatalytic degradation. (Delnavaz et al., 2012)

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMRNDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

In our research, zinc oxide (ZnO) has been successfully synthesized through corn husk extract. This study focuses the green synthesized method through plant mediated extract to synthesized the photocatalyst and thus achieved the generation of environmental friendly and low cost semiconductor catalyst. Furthermore, the Hap obtained from the buffalo bone was utilized to doped with ZnO as photocatalyst support to enhance the adsorption of pollutant and photocatalytic activity. ZnO was doped with Hap through sonication to form coupled ZnO/HAp. This project also studies the effect of HAp weight percent in ZnO content to observed the optimum weight percent of ZnO to enhance the photocatalytic degradation and has been characterized. Result from the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image, microflower structure ZnO was found to be adhering on two the Hap with pellet shape three dimensional nanocomposites structure, which represent successful coupling of the catalyst and the catalyst support. In addition, the energy dispersion X-ray (EDX) spectrum of ZnO/HAp revealed the presences of different composition, which were Zn, O, Ca, P, H in the plant mediated extract synthesized photocatalyst. Based on the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of ZnO, HAp, and ZnO-50%HAp photocatalyst, the clear and intense diffraction peaks indicated the well-crystalline hexagonal wurtzite structure of ZnO.

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) was also carried out to indicate the composition of photocatalyst Zn-O bond and Zn-O-HAp bond were found in the infrared spectrum.

The control experiment in this study revealed the low degradation efficiency of glove wastewater during the photolysis and dark adsorption compared to photocatalysis. Additionally, the effect of HAp weight percent in the green synthesized ZnO/HAp catalyst on the degradation of glove wastewater was also studied. In this study, the ZnO weight percent was varied from 20wt % to 50wt%, the completely COD removal efficiency was achieved when the HAp weight percent reached 50wt%. Therefore, the optimum Hap weight percent in ZnO/HAp catalyst was found to be 50 wt%.

Besides that, the role of each active species in photocatalysis of glove wastewater using ZnO/HAp as photocatalyst under UV light irradiation was also through scavenger's test. All three oxidative species, which are Isopropanol (IPA), Benzoquinone (BQ) and Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt (EDTA-2Na) also performed their roles in photocatalysis as the reduction was significant as compare to 100%. The result showed that each active species played its role in assisting photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater. Nevertheless, EDTA-2Na as a h+ radical scavenger, was found to have more obvious inhibition effect on the degradation of glove wastewater as its degradation efficiency dropped from 100% to 70% compared to isopropanol and benzoquinone which gave removal efficiency of 84% and 79.5% respectively.

5.2 Recommendation

Few recommendations were suggested for the use of the future research:

1. Current study on effect of HAp weight percent in coupled ZnO/HAp catalyst was shown to have significant impact on photocatalytic degradation of glove wastewater. However, the effect of adsorption and desorption study of ZnO/HAp catalyst, optimum time of photocatalysis, solution pH, light intensity, presence of oxidizing agent were not evaluated yet. Therefore, systematic study can be performed to understand the impact of these parameters on the degradation performances.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A



Appendix A: SEM image of Corn Husk ZnO with different magnification. (a) x5,000 (b) x10,000 (c) x15,000 (d) x20,000

APPENDIX B



Appendix B: SEM image of HAp with different magnification. (a) x5,000 (b) x10,000 (c) x15,000 (d) x20,000

APPENDIX C



Appendix C: SEM image of ZnO-20%HAp with different magnification. (a) x5,000 (b) x10,000 (c) x15,000 (d) x20,000

APPENDIX D



Appendix D: SEM image of ZnO-30%HAp with different magnification. (a) x5,000 (b) x10,000 (c) x15,000 (d) x20,000

APPENDIX E



Appendix E: SEM image of ZnO-40%HAp with different magnification. (a) x5,000 (b) x10,000 (c) x15,000 (d) x20,000

APPENDIX F



Appendix F: SEM image of ZnO-50%HAp with different magnification. (a) x5,000 (b) x10,000 (c) x15,000 (d) x20,000