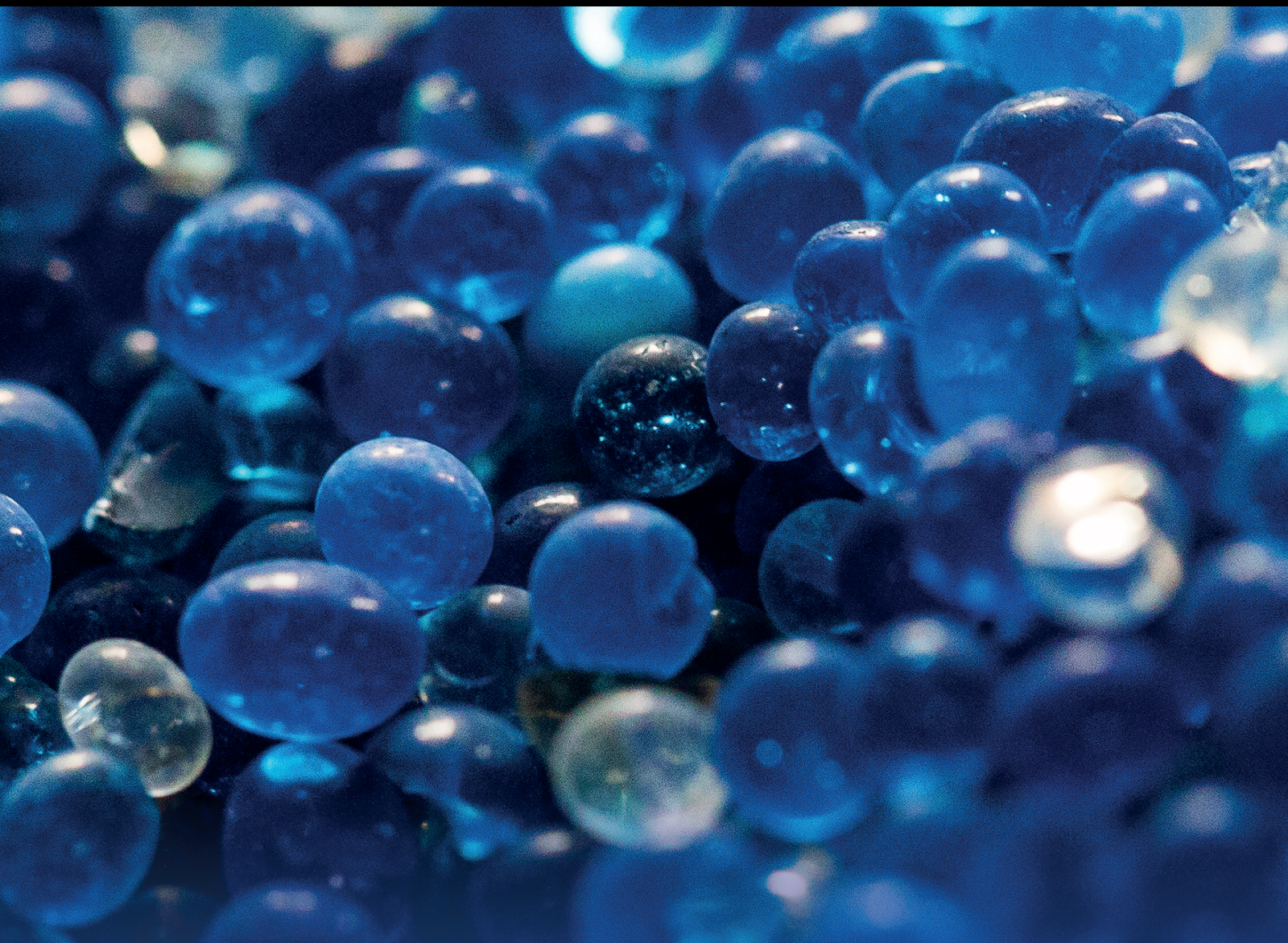



Synthesis, Characteristics, and Applications of Novel Nanomaterials in Adsorption and Catalysis

Lead Guest Editor: Tien Duc Pham

Guest Editors: Thi Ngoc Mai Pham, Thanh Son Le, and Ngo Nghia Pham





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Adsorption Science & Technology

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Research Article

N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ Dual Photocatalysts for Efficient Oxytetracycline Hydrochloride Photodegradation and CO₂ Photoreduction

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A series of $x\%$ (wt) N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ composites was synthesized by calcination and hydrothermal methods (labeled x TiCN, x : 5, 10, and 15). All composites were characterized by X-ray diffraction, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, transmission electron microscopy, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. The photocatalytic activity of these composites was evaluated through oxytetracycline hydrochloride (denoted as OTC) photodegradation and CO₂ photoreduction. The x TiCN composites exhibited higher OTC photodegradation than bulk g-C₃N₄. 10TiCN was slightly more active than 5TiCN and 15TiCN, with a photodegradation yield of 97% after 5 h of light irradiation and constant rate of 0.647 h⁻¹. For CO₂ photoreduction, it was observed that 5TiCN exhibited the highest activity among the synthesized composites, with 7.0 ppm CH₄ formed. This CH₄ concentration was 7.8 times higher than the concentration formed by bulk g-C₃N₄ (0.9 ppm). A Z-scheme mechanism was proposed to explain the enhanced photocatalysis by $x\%$ (wt) N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ composites. The Z-scheme structure increased redox ability, caused better separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, and broadened the light absorption zone of the photocatalysts.

1. Introduction

Antibiotics are widely used to control bacterial infections in medical, agricultural, and veterinary sectors [1]. Oxytetracycline hydrochloride (OTC) is a commonly used tetracycline antibiotic. Large amounts of OTC have been released into the environment due to its extensive use [2, 3]. It has a long half-life due to its naphthacene core, persisting in the environment for long periods of time. Its environmental residue, especially in water sources, being carcinogenic, and causing antibiotic resistance in bacteria, is dangerous for human health and the ecosystem [3, 4]. Along with antibiotic water pollution, air pollution has also increased in recent times. With rapid worldwide industrial development, large amounts of CO₂ are released into the atmosphere, causing the greenhouse effect and global warming [5, 6]. Climate change, due to pollution, has caused severe meteorological phenomena, such as typhoons and floods. Thus, CO₂ emission reduction and its environmental remediation are an urgent necessity.

Among different ways to solve these above pollution problems, photocatalysis is an attracted one in recent times [7–12]. The photocatalysis can oxidize OTC to nontoxic compounds [13] and reduce CO₂ to useful chemical compounds, such as CH₄ and CH₃OH [14], reducing water and air pollution. It is a simple and green process, requiring only light irradiation for catalyst activation. The TiO₂ photocatalyst is commonly used because of its high photocatalytic efficiency, good stability, and nontoxicity [15, 16]. However, it is only activated under 380 nm light irradiation. UV light intensity in the sunlight spectrum is approximately 5%; therefore, the TiO₂ photocatalyst requires a UV light source, increasing the process cost. To overcome this drawback, numerous studies report reducing

the TiO_2 bandgap, activating TiO_2 at longer wavelengths (such as visible light), or combining TiO_2 with narrow bandgap semiconductors. In the first strategy, the TiO_2 oxide is doped with nonmetallic elements (N, F) or transition metals (Fe, Co) [17–22]. In the second method, TiO_2 is combined with other semiconductors, such as CuO , BiOBr , metal Au, Pt, or both [23–29]. When combining with an oxide-owned narrower bandgap energy, the new composite will be activated by a longer light wavelength, such visible light, and prevent electron-hole pair recombination. With metal deposition, the metallic phase conduction band attracts free electrons, reducing the recombination of electron-hole pairs.

Recently, graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$), a nonmetallic photocatalyst, has attracted immense interest [30–36]. Synthesized by facile and cost-effective methods, it exhibits high chemical and thermal stability. In particular, it exhibits potential for antibiotic-photocatalytic degradation in aqueous solutions and CO_2 photoreduction [37, 38]. A low bandgap of 2.7 eV enables their visible-light activation. However, rapid recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs is a limitation of the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ photocatalyst. The combining of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with other semiconductors to prevent this recombination is an interesting strategy [39].

Among the aforementioned photocatalyst improvement strategies, the construction of a heterojunction between two semiconductors is a promising method. In this structure, the photogenerated electron-hole pairs are separated into different zones, thus preventing recombination and enhancing photocatalytic activity. Further, the carrier transfer behavior has been altered by several photocatalytic mechanisms such as type-I, type-II, and, quite recently, the Z-scheme [40]. Among these mechanisms, the Z-scheme has garnered considerable attention as it not only exhibits electron-hole pair separation in two different zones but also enhances the redox properties. For instance, Guan et al. demonstrated that the activity of 20% $\text{LaFeO}_3/\text{BiOBr}$ was ~ 21.0 and ~ 1.3 times that of bare LaFeO_3 and BiOBr , respectively [41]. Additionally, in 2022, Cheng's group also revealed that the optimal photocatalyst 20% $\text{Bi}_4\text{Ti}_3\text{O}_{12}/\text{CdS}$ exhibited an activity 1.6 and 3.3 times that of bare CdS and $\text{Bi}_4\text{Ti}_3\text{O}_{12}$, respectively [42]. An improved photocatalytic activity was also observed on the $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_2\text{CO}_3$ photocatalyst [43]. The enhanced composite photoactivity was explained by improved photoexcited carrier separation in the composite. Therefore, with a similar targeted photocatalyst structure, TiO_2 - and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based composites were also developed, which exhibited positive results. Wang et al. demonstrated that the tetracycline (TCL) photodegradation on $\text{TiO}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was 75% and 12% greater than that on TiO_2 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, respectively [44]. Similarly, for CO_2 photoreduction, Reli et al. showed a twofold increase in CH_4 formation on $\text{TiO}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (0.3/1) as compared to $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ [45]. These studies indicate that along with the nature of coupled semiconductors, the morphology and interface interaction between two semiconductors play an important role in photocatalytic improvement.

In view of the above, this study demonstrates the coupling of TiO_2 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to obtain heterojunction photocatalysts, $x\%$ $\text{TiO}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. On the one hand, TiO_2 has the disadvantage

of a large bandgap energy, $E_g = 3.2$ eV; on the other hand, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, despite having a lower bandgap energy, $E_g = 2.7$ eV, demonstrates a fast recombination of electron-hole pairs. Therefore, the formation of a heterojunction composite through semiconductor coupling could allow overcoming the disadvantages of each constituent. Additionally, the CB/VB potential position of TiO_2 (-0.17 V/ $+3.0$ V) and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (-1.15 V/ $+1.5$ V) [44] would allow the establishment of a staggered band structure and the formation of a Z-scheme photocatalyst. The hydrothermal method, prevalently employed for tuning the morphology of synthesized compounds, was used to prepare the composite. Subsequently, calcination was conducted to enhance the interaction between TiO_2 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ such as an in situ nitrogen doping into TiO_2 . The photocatalytic activity was estimated through OTC oxidation in the liquid phase. OTC is the most stable compound in the TCL group, and as per our knowledge, no studies on OTC oxidation were reported using this composite type. To further evaluate the synthesized photocatalyst composites, CO_2 photoreduction was also investigated in the gas phase.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials. Chemical compounds, melamine ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_6\text{N}_6$) (Sigma-Aldrich), $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{36}\text{O}_4\text{Ti}$ (Sigma-Aldrich), CH_3COOH (China), $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ (China), TiO_2 (Evonik P25), and oxytetracycline hydrochloride (OTC) (Sigma-Aldrich), of analytical purity were used as obtained.

2.2. Synthesis of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{N-TiO}_{2-x}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ Composites

2.2.1. Synthesis of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and N-TiO_2 . Melamine calcination at 550°C , for 3 h, in nitrogen gas medium, was used to synthesize $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

The nitrogen-doped TiO_2 (N-TiO_2) synthesis was inspired by the work of Viswanath et al. [46]. In this typical procedure, titanium (IV) butoxide in ethanol solution and melamine in hot water-ethanol (1:3 volume ratio) solution were mixed, then stirred for 24 hours and aged for 5 days. The obtained gel was dried and calcined at 400°C for 3 hours.

2.2.2. Synthesis of $\text{N-TiO}_{2-x}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Calculated amounts of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, titanium (IV) butoxide, and acetic acid (1:30 in volume) were mixed in a 250 ml beaker, with 15 min magnetic stirring, and autoclaved at 140°C for 12 h. The resulting solution was centrifuged and rinsed several times with ethanol. The solid obtained was oven dried at 60°C for 24 h and calcined at 400°C for 3 h, under nitrogen gas. The $x\%$ (wt) $\text{N-TiO}_{2-x}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composites were denoted as $x\text{TiCN}$ (x : 5, 10, and 15).

2.3. Photocatalytic Procedure

2.3.1. OTC Photodegradation. Into a beaker containing 100 ml 10 ppm OTC solution (C_0), $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ or $x\text{TiCN}$ composite (0.1 g) was added with stirring (Figure 1(a)) and left in the dark for 1 h to attain adsorption equilibrium. The mixture was then illuminated with a 200 W LED lamp. Every 1 hour, 5 ml sample was taken, filtered, and analyzed by a

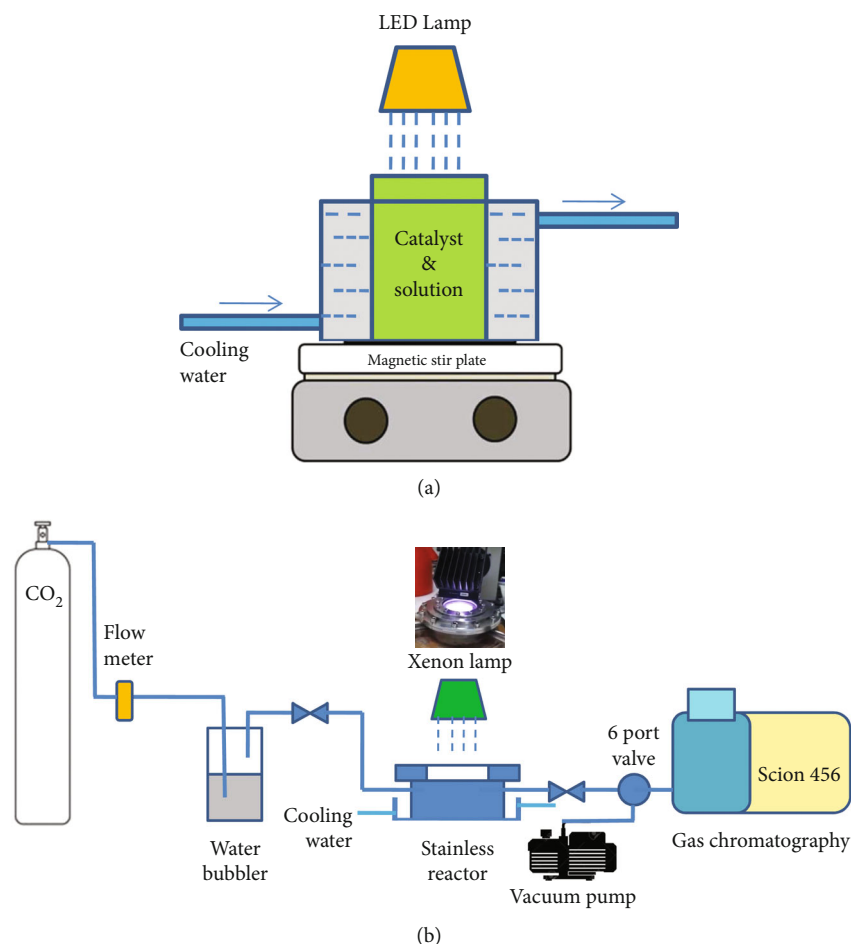


FIGURE 1: Scheme of the photocatalytic reactor used for OTC oxidation (a) and CO₂ reduction (b).

UV-vis spectrophotometer to detect OTC content (C_t) of the reaction mixture. The photostability test was performed 5 times. The separation of the catalyst and the reaction solution was carried out by centrifugation (6000 rpm).

2.3.2. CO₂ Photoreduction. Into a glass beaker (5 cm diameter) containing 15 ml deionized water, g-C₃N₄ or xTiCN composite (0.1 g) was added. After 15 min stirring, the mixture was evaporated in an oven, at 70°C, to obtain a well-dried, homogeneously dispersed powder. The catalyst-containing beaker was placed in a handmade closed stainless steel reactor (169 cm³ volume), equipped with a 6 cm diameter quartz window, and purged with high-purity (99.999%) 500 ml/min CO₂ flow for 30 min. The reactor was illuminated with a 150 W Xenon lamp (Newport model 67005) for 18 h. Gaseous products were analyzed using a gas valve system connected to a gas chromatograph, equipped with a thermal conductivity detector and flame ionization detector (TCD-FID) (Scion 456) (Figure 1(b)).

2.4. Characterizations. X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Bruker D8), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) (8101M Shimadzu), N₂ adsorption-desorption (TriStar 3000-Micromeritics), UV differential reflectance spectroscopy (UV-DRS) (Jaco V-530), transmission electronic microscopy (TEM, JEM 1400

Plus Jeon), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Thermo Scientific MultiLab 2000) were used to characterize g-C₃N₄ and xTiCN composites.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Structural Characterization. XRD patterns of xTiCN composites are shown in Figure 2(a). The formation of the g-C₃N₄ crystalline phase, with a characteristic peak at 27.8°, was observed in all XRD patterns, confirming the g-C₃N₄ structure after composite synthesis. Characteristic peaks at 25.5°, 38.0°, 48.1°, 54.2°, and 62.8°, corresponding to the TiO₂ anatase phase, were observed in the XRD patterns of all composites. In the N-TiO₂ XRD patterns, a small quantity of the rutile phase was recognized at 2 theta of 27.5 and 36.1°. To identify different components, FTIR characterization was carried out, and the spectra are shown in Figure 2(b). In the g-C₃N₄ spectrum, the peak at 802 cm⁻¹ was ascribed to the s-triazine bending mode [30]. The peaks at 1228 and 1311 cm⁻¹ were attributed to the C-N stretching vibrations [47, 48]. The peaks at 1392, 1535, and 1625 cm⁻¹ originated from the -C=N stretching vibrations in aromatic rings. The broad band at 3000–3500 cm⁻¹ corresponded to the stretching vibrations of the absorbed water hydroxyl group (-O-H) and terminal

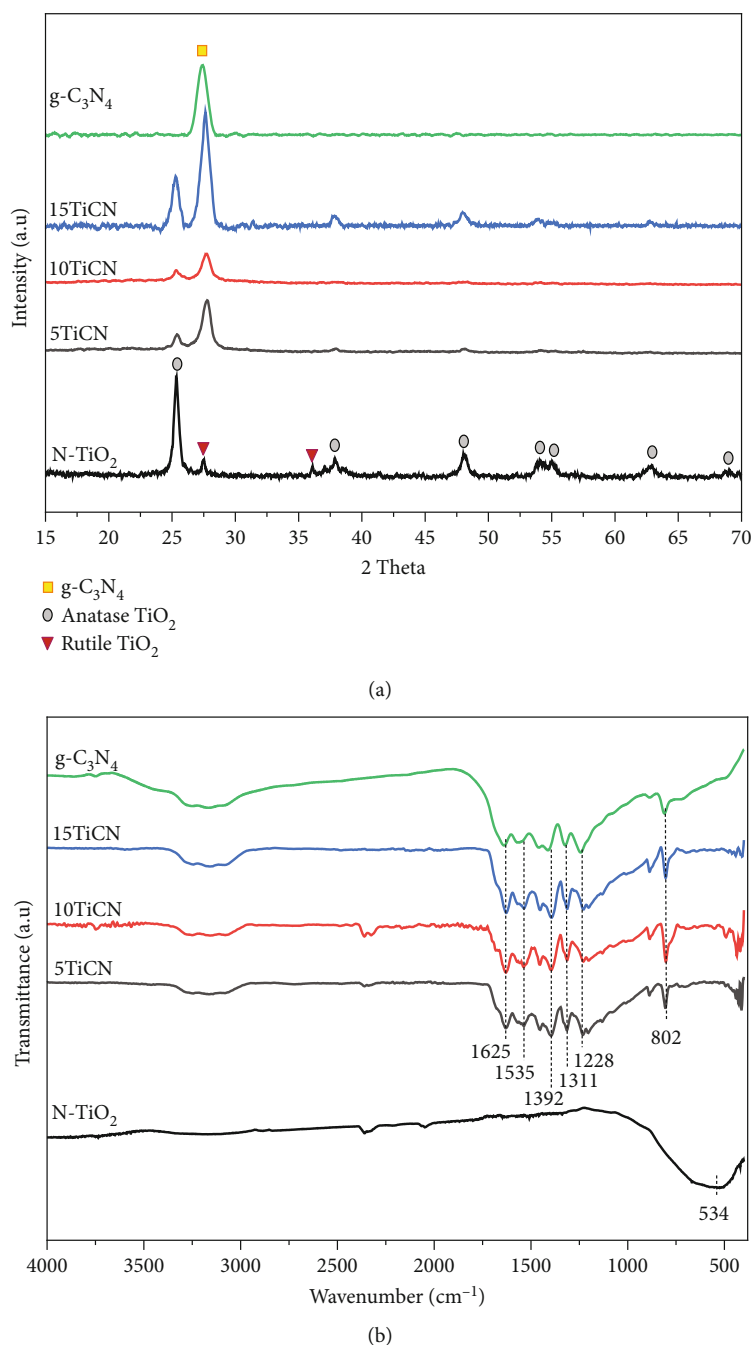


FIGURE 2: XRD patterns (a) and FTIR spectra (b) of g-C₃N₄ and *x*TiCN composites.

amino groups (-NH₂) [47, 48]. Finally, the broad peak at 534 cm⁻¹ was attributed to the Ti-O bond vibrations [49].

The light absorption abilities of the composites were analyzed by UV-vis DR spectra. Figure 3(a) shows the UV-vis DR spectra of g-C₃N₄ and *x*TiCN. The bandgap energies, calculated using the Kubelka-Munk function (results are shown in Figure 3(b)), were 2.58, 2.60, 2.63, 2.66, and 2.90 eV for g-C₃N₄, 5TiCN, 10TiCN, 15TiCN, and N-TiO₂, respectively. Increasing the TiO₂ content broadened the composite bandgap energy owing to a greater contribution of the large band gap energy by TiO₂ (3.2 eV) as compared

to g-C₃N₄ (2.58 eV). However, generally, all photocatalyst composites could be activated by visible light. The corresponding differential curves of UV-vis DR spectra are displayed in Figure 3(c). The absorption edges (λ_{abs}) of pristine TiO₂ (P25) and g-C₃N₄ are at wavelengths of 396.3 and 437.5 nm, respectively. In contrast, the *x*TiCN composites exhibit a slight shift of the g-C₃N₄ adsorption edge peak to a shorter wavelength, while that of TiO₂ slightly shifts to a longer wavelength. The longer-wavelength-shifted adsorption edge of the TiO₂ constituent is possibly due to nitrogen doping in TiO₂ during the composite synthesis.

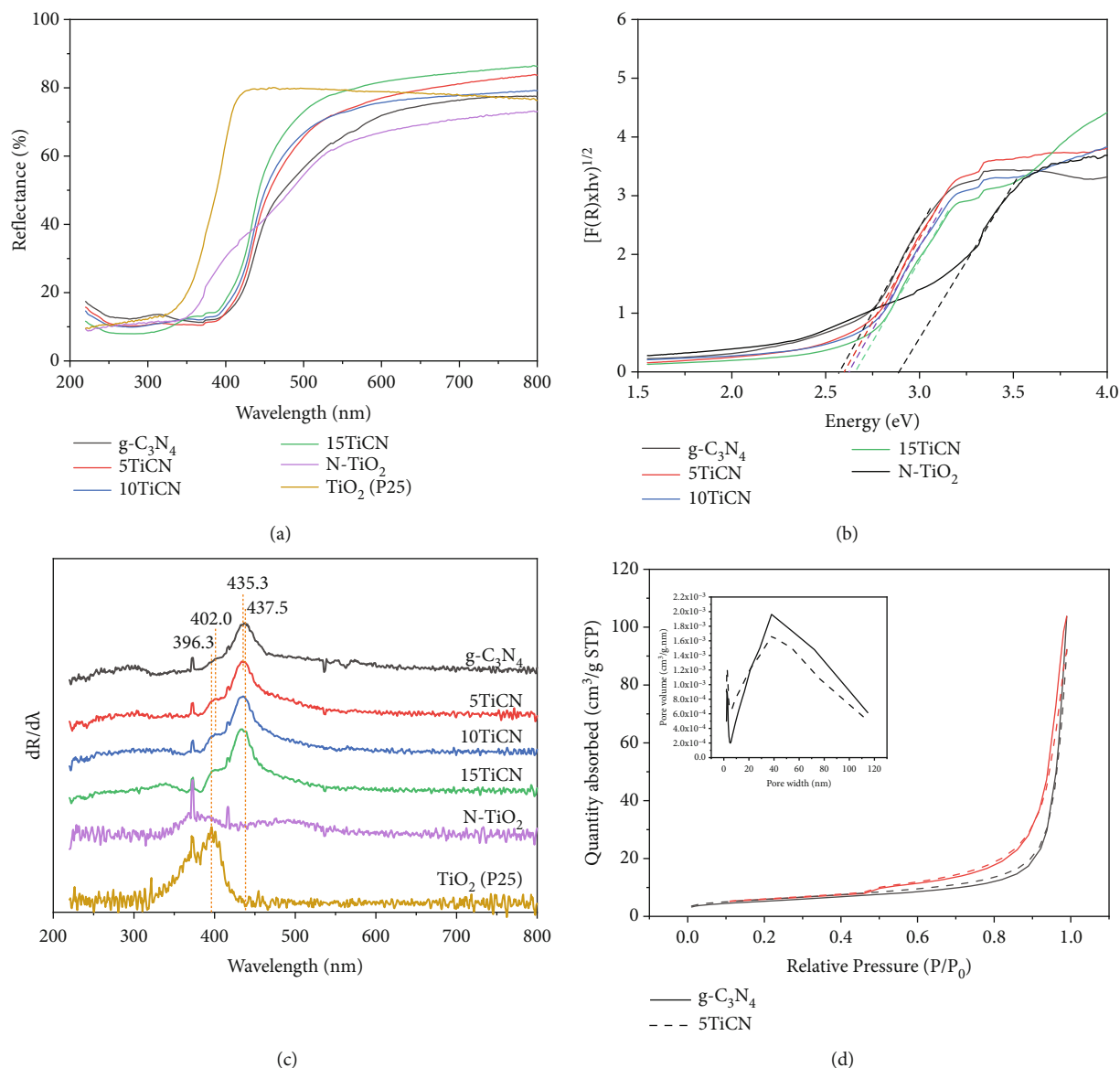


FIGURE 3: UV-vis DR spectra (a), energy bandgap determination by Kubelka–Munk function (b), and its corresponding differential curves (c) of g-C₃N₄, N-TiO₂, and x TiCN composites; N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms and corresponding pore distribution curves of g-C₃N₄ (solid line) and 5TiCN composite (dash line) (d).

These observations suggest an interaction between g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂, forming in situ-doped N-TiO₂. In the case of 5TiCN, the observed adsorption edge peaks of TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ correspond to wavelengths of 402.0 and 435.3 nm, respectively. Based on the relationship $E_g = 1240/\lambda_{\text{abs}}$, the calculated bandgap energies (E_g) of TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ are 3.08 and 2.85 eV, respectively. For the N-TiO₂ sample prepared by the hydrothermal method, the differential curve of the UV-vis DR spectrum exhibited a single weak and broad peak at 392.5 nm (or $E_g = 3.16$ eV). This peak is attributed to the adsorption edge of TiO₂.

The g-C₃N₄ and 5TiCN composites were selected to characterize its specific surface area, one of the important proper-

ties of heterogeneous catalysis. The results are presented in Figure 3(d). It is observed that two samples show the type-4 isotherms with H3 hysteresis loop, which indicate the presence of a mesopore. This is suitable with the obtained pore distribution curves. The BET surface areas are 18 and 20 m²/g for g-C₃N₄ and 5TiCN, respectively. Hence, the composite preparation did not seem to change the g-C₃N₄ structure.

The interaction between the TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ phases is better understood from the TEM images presented in Figure 4. It is observed that the TiO₂ particles (dark areas in Figures 4(a) and 4(b)) were formed in various sizes and shapes. Some TiO₂ particles were deposited on the g-C₃N₄ layer (e.g., position of cycle 1), while the others were covered by g-C₃N₄ multisheets, forming a core-shell structure (e.g.,

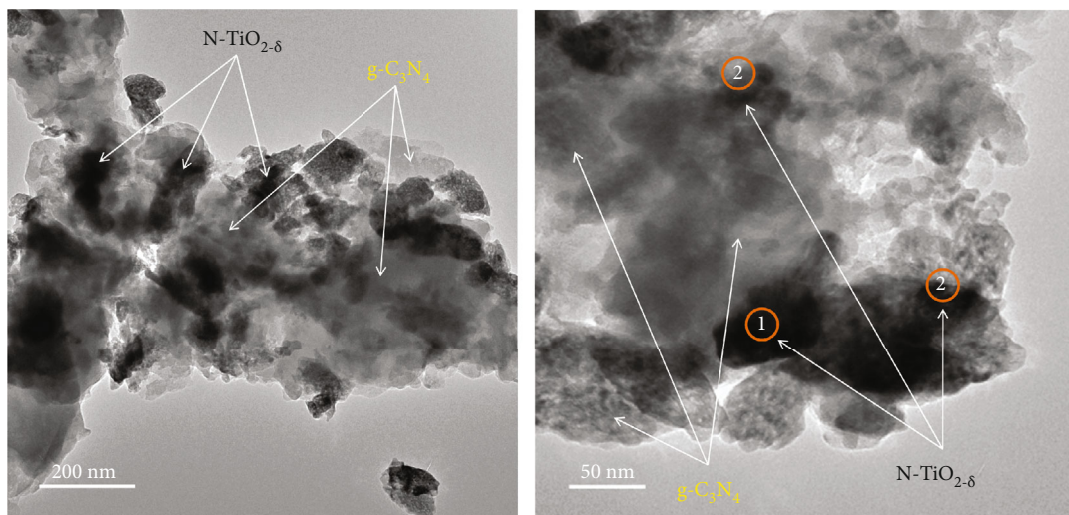


FIGURE 4: TEM images of 5TiCN.

position of cycle 2), thereby enhancing the interaction surface between the TiO_2 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ phases.

The elemental composition and oxidation state of the catalyst influence catalytic performance. Therefore, the 5TiCN composite was characterized using XPS, as shown in Figure 5.

Three peaks at binding energies of 458.5, 459.1, and 464.3 eV, corresponding to orbitals $\text{Ti}^{4+}2p_{3/2}$, $\text{Ti}^{3+}2p_{1/2}$, and $\text{Ti}^{4+}2p_{1/2}$, respectively, were observed in the $\text{Ti}2p$ high-resolution spectrum [50, 51]. As reported by Jia et al., binding energies of two prominent peaks (at 458.5 and 464.3 eV) exhibited 0.2 eV shifts compared to spectral peaks of pure TiO_2 . This could be due to the substitution of O^{2-} by N^{3-} , leading to the formation of N-Ti-O bonds [52]. This indicated N doping of TiO_2 during composite synthesis, decreasing the TiO_2 bandgap energy, leading to visible-light activation [17, 18]. The small peak of $\text{Ti}^{3+}2p_{1/2}$ confirmed oxygen vacancies in TiO_2 [51]. Hence, $\text{TiO}_{2-\delta}$ is a more accurate molecular formula than TiO_2 .

Deconvolution peaks for the O1s spectrum exhibited two peaks at 531 and 532 eV, assigned to O-H of absorbed water and the Ti-O bond [53], respectively. N1s spectrum exhibited three peaks at 398.6, 399.7, and 400.8 eV, ascribed to the sp^2C of C-N=C , tertiary N of N-(C)_3 group, and N-C=N bonds, respectively. The C1s spectrum exhibited three peaks at 284.9, 286.3, and 288.2 eV, corresponding to C-C, C-NH₂, and N-C=N bonds, respectively [53, 54].

3.2. Evaluation of Photocatalytic Activity

3.2.1. Photooxidation of OTC. Before performing the photocatalytic test, the adsorption equilibria were carried out (Figure 6(a)). The results demonstrated that all composites reached rapidly the adsorption equilibrium after only about 15 minutes, while 60 minutes was required for N-TiO_2 . The calculation indicated that the equilibrium adsorption quantities of OTC at 60 min were 11%, 14%, 17%, 12%, and 88% for $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, 5TiCN, 10TiCN, 15TiCN, and N-TiO_2 , respec-

tively. It remarked that there was a strong adsorption phenomenon of OTC on N-TiO_2 .

The photocatalytic activity of the catalysts was investigated through OTC photodegradation and CO_2 photoreduction. Figure 6(b) shows the photodegradation of OTC and UV-vis spectra of OTC solutions during test time, using 5TiCN. OTC concentrations were calculated from the absorbance intensity of UV-vis spectra at the 357 nm wavelength.

Figure 7 shows OTC photodegradation efficiency and kinetics. All composite photocatalysts exhibited excellent OTC degradation activity, with yields of 93%, 97%, and 92% for 5TiCN, 10TiCN, and 15TiCN, respectively. For N-TiO_2 , the adsorption phenomenon dominated, reaching 90% adsorbed OTC quantity after 1 hour of equilibrium, and the efficiency of OTC removal increased only ~4% when turning on the light for 5 hours. Hence, the photocatalytic reaction on N-TiO_2 was negligible. This behavior was possibly due to the formation of the melon structure formed during the synthesis, besides the process of nitrogen doping on TiO_2 [55]. The melon structure, which is not a semiconductor, could cover $\text{TiO}_2/\text{N-TiO}_2$ particles, preventing the photocatalytic process. A blank test (without catalyst) was also carried out for comparison. In the blank test, the OTC concentration decreased about 9% by photolysis. Hence, after 5 h light irradiation, the 10TiCN composite was slightly more active than those of 5TiCN and 15TiCN. It is noted that the adsorption phenomenon contributes a small part in the conversion calculation, only 14% in the case of 5TiCN as mentioned in the above adsorption equilibrium study. For these OTC conversion reactions, reaction kinetics were described by the following equation [56]:

$$\ln \left(\frac{C_0}{C_t} \right) = kt + \ln \left(\frac{C_0}{C'_0} \right), \quad (1)$$

where C_0 , C'_0 , and C_t are the initial, equilibrium, and time t concentrations of OTC during the test, respectively. Rate

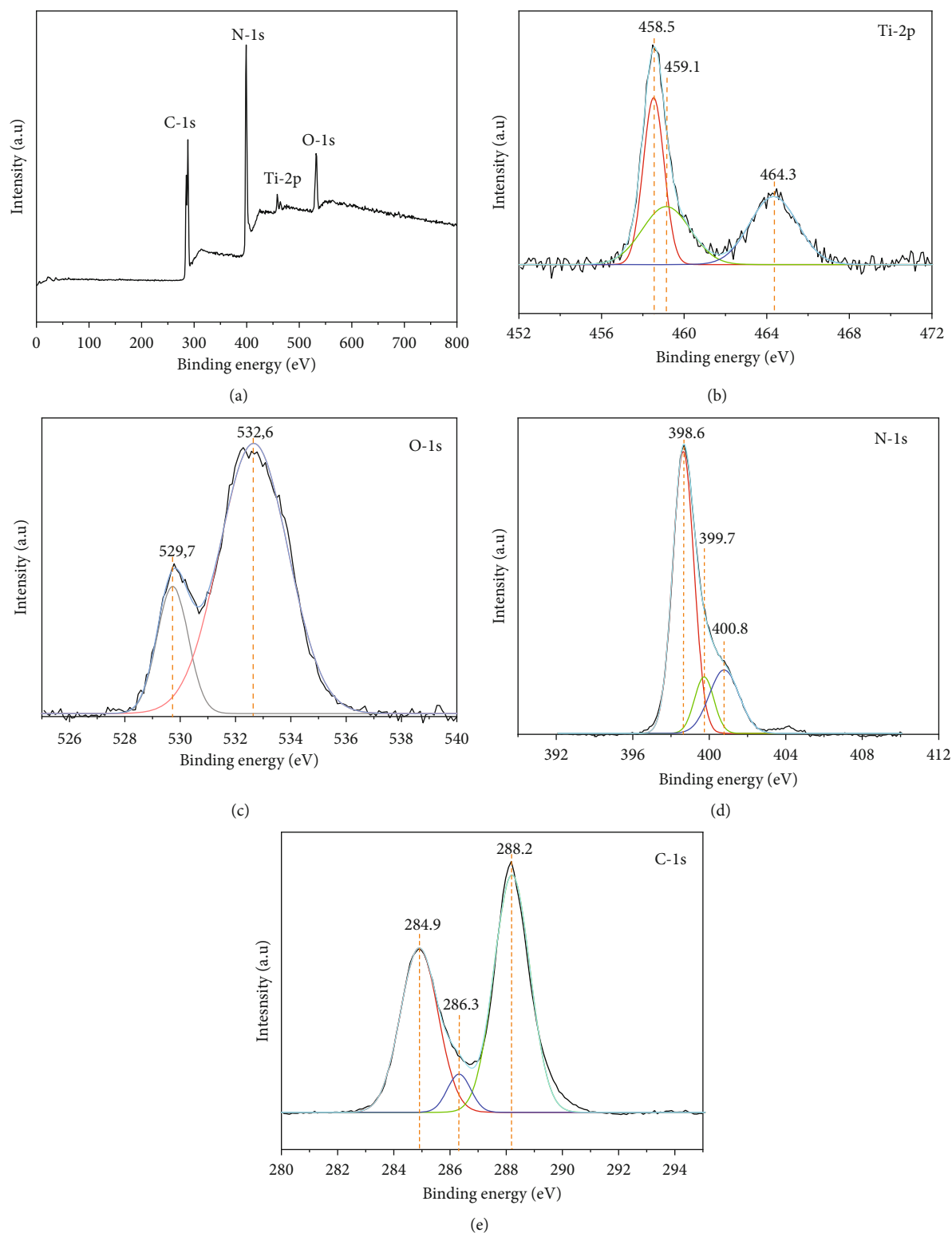


FIGURE 5: X-ray photoelectron spectra of 5TiCN: (a) survey spectra; (b) high-resolution spectra of Ti2p, (c) high-resolution spectra of O1s; (d) high-resolution spectra of N1s; (e) high-resolution spectra of C1s.

constants (k) were 0.389, 0.457, 0.647, and 0.451 h^{-1} for $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, 5TiCN, 10TiCN, and 15TiCN, respectively (from fitted lines in Figure 7(b)). The reaction kinetic on N-TiO_2 was not investigated as the catalytic activity was negligible

with respect to the adsorption phenomenon. Based on rate constant values, composite activities followed the following order: 10TiCN > 5TiCN \approx 15TiCN > $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The rate constant of 10TiCN was approximately 1.7 times that of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

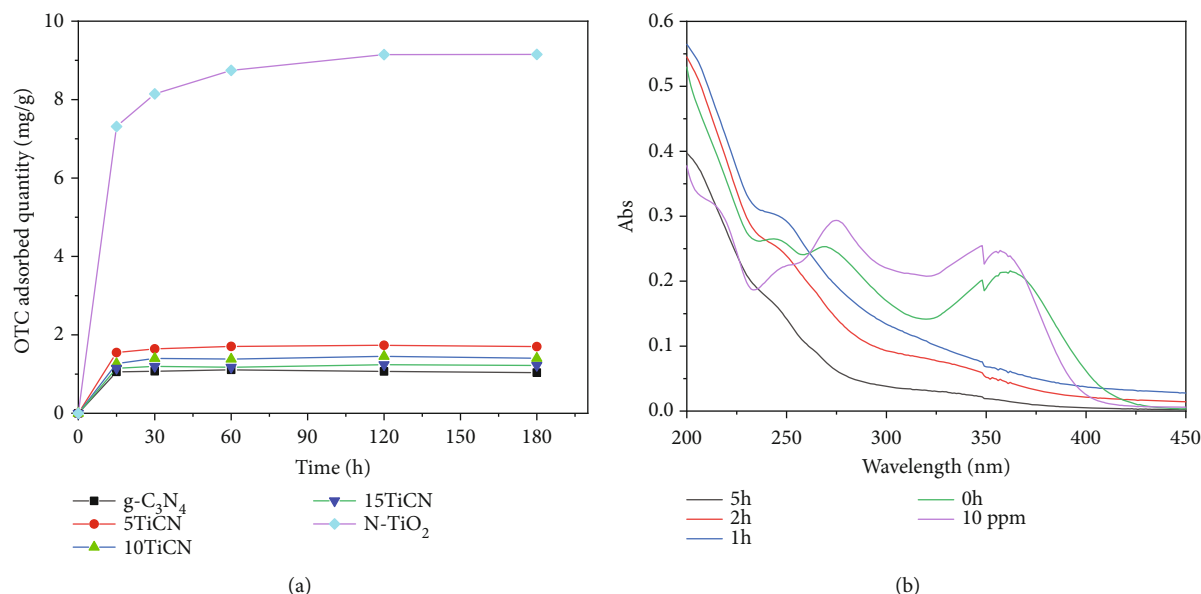


FIGURE 6: OTC adsorption equilibrium (a) on x TiCN and UV-vis spectra of OTC during test time on 5TiCN composite (b).

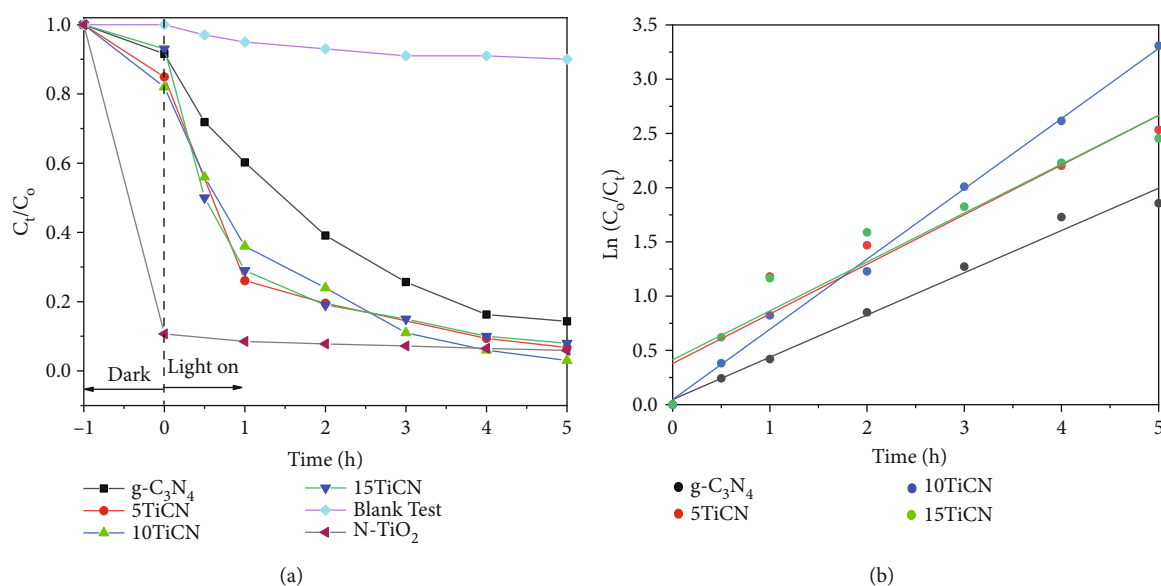


FIGURE 7: (a) Photodegradation efficiency of OTC on x TiCN composites versus irradiation time and (b) kinetic of OTC degradation reaction on x TiCN composites.

There are no reports of OTC photodegradation on TiO₂-g-C₃N₄ composites, while there are very few reports on tetracycline (TCL) photodegradation using such composites. Wang's research group reported 20 ppm TCL solution photodegradation using composites, such as TiO₂@g-C₃N₄ heterojunction, TiO₂@g-C₃N₄ core-shell quantum heterojunction, and TiO_{2-x}/ultrathin g-C₃N₄/TiO_{2-x} direct Z-scheme heterojunction [44, 57, 58]. TCL photodegradation rate on the TiO₂@g-C₃N₄ core-shell quantum heterojunction composite was 2 and 2.3 times higher than those on TiO₂ and bulk g-C₃N₄, respectively. Photoactivity of TiO_{2-x}/ultrathin g-C₃N₄/TiO_{2-x} direct Z-scheme heterojunction system was 20.1 and

1.3 times higher than those of TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄, respectively. Wang et al. reported a 3 times higher TCL degradation rate on N-TiO₂/O-doped N-vacancy g-C₃N₄ than on N-vacancy g-C₃N₄ [59]. Rao et al. reported a 4.4 times higher rate constant of 10 ppm TCL solution photodegradation using a hierarchical structure of anatase-rutile TiO₂/g-C₃N₄ (ARC), compared to g-C₃N₄ [60].

In general, the TiO₂-g-C₃N₄ heterojunction structure improved photoactivity remarkably compared to those of bulk TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄. OTC photodegradation yield reached up to 97%, with a 1.7 times higher rate constant with 10TiCN than with g-C₃N₄.

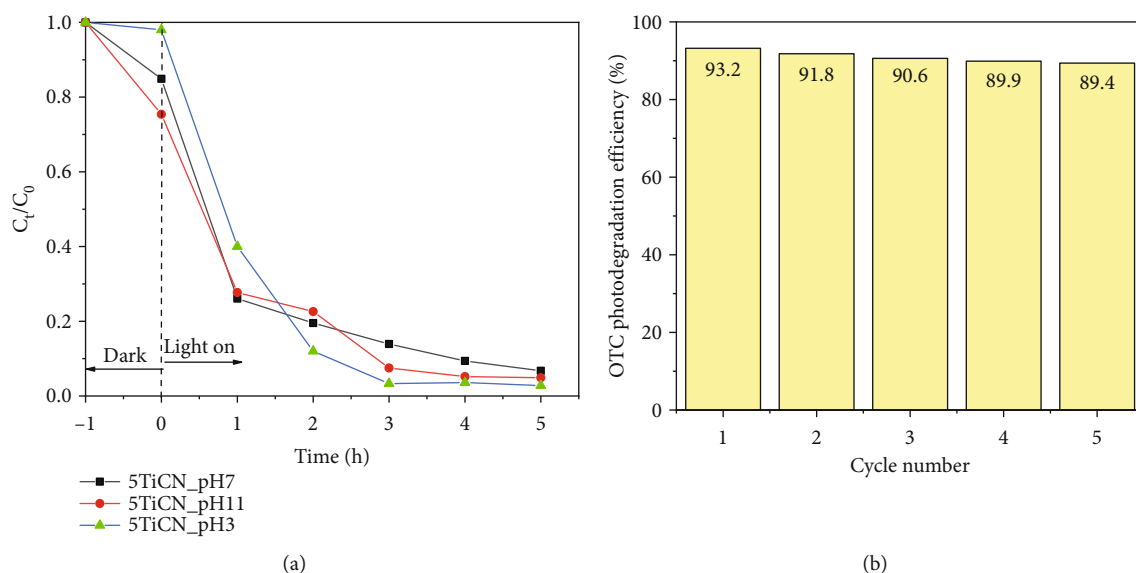


FIGURE 8: Photodegradation efficiency of OTC in function of pH (a) and photostability test on 5TiCN (b).

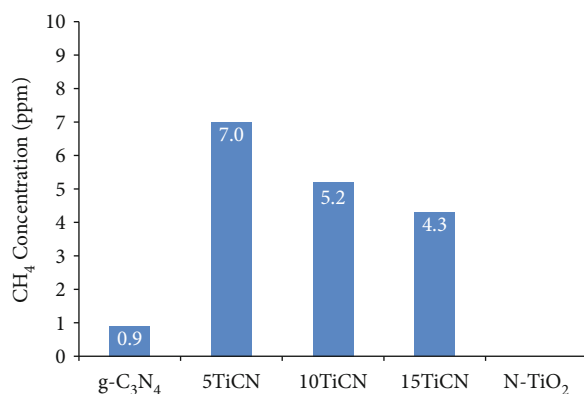


FIGURE 9: CH_4 concentration on $g-C_3N_4$ and $xTiCN$ composite.

The influence of pH on the photoactivity was evaluated. The researches focused on 5TiCN (Figure 8(a)). After 5 hours of irradiation, the photoactivity at pH 11 and 5 was slightly improved, in comparison with pH 7. In the study of Yu et al., the isoelectric point of $g-C_3N_4$ was about pH 5 [61]. It means that the $g-C_3N_4$ surface charge is positive at $pH < 5$ and negative at $pH > 5$. The OTC has the $pK_{a1} = 3.22$, $pK_{a2} = 7.68$, and $pK_{a3} = 8.94$ [62]. Therefore, the OTC exhibited a positive charge at $pH < 3.22$ in the form of H_3TC^+ and negative one at $pH > 9$ in the main form of OTC^{2-} . Thus, the charges on the $g-C_3N_4$ surface and OTC molecules in experimental pH conditions are the same, which prevent adsorption of OTC on the $g-C_3N_4$ surface by electrostatic repulsion force. That could explain why the pH 3 and pH 7 did not influence strongly on the OTC conversion as observed.

The stability tests were carried out for the 5TiCN composite (Figure 8(b)). The OTC conversion decreased from 93.4% to 89.4% after 5 cycles. This is the promising result in an application view.

3.2.2. Photoreduction of CO_2 . To investigate the dual photocatalytic behavior of $N-TiO_{2-6}/g-C_3N_4$ composites, they were used in the photoreduction of CO_2 by H_2O in the gaseous phase (Figure 9). Concentration of CH_4 (the only product detected) was monitored to analyze the photocatalytic behavior of the synthesized composites. 5TiCN exhibited the highest activity, with 7.0 ppm CH_4 concentration, followed by 10TiCN (5.2 ppm CH_4), 15TiCN (4.3 ppm CH_4), and $g-C_3N_4$ (0.9 ppm CH_4). No product was detected in the N-TiO₂ test. As mentioned in the OTC photooxidation results above, this low photoactivity of N-TiO₂ could be explained by the formed melon structure that covered $TiO_2/N-TiO_2$ particles and possibly the lower CB potential position of N-TiO₂ than the standard reduction potential of CO_2/CH_4 [55]. The detected CH_4 concentration was quite low over $g-C_3N_4$. Thus, the test was performed three times, and average value was taken. Hence, the CH_4 concentration was 7.8 times higher for 5TiCN (composite exhibiting maximum photocatalysis) than for pristine $g-C_3N_4$.

There are very few reports on photoreduction using a photocatalyst formed by TiO_2 and $g-C_3N_4$ [45, 63–69]. CO_2 photoreduction in the gaseous phase [45, 63–65] and liquid phase [66–69] has been reported. Gas phase studies, with CH_4 and CO products, indicate better photocatalytic activity for the TiO_2 - $g-C_3N_4$ -combined photocatalyst, compared to bulk TiO_2 and $g-C_3N_4$. Zhou et al. reported a 4 times higher CO formation on $g-C_3N_4$ -N-TiO₂ (14.73 μmol) than on P25 (TiO_2) [63]. In liquid phase photoreductions, besides CH_4 and CO, other oxygenated hydrocarbons (CH_3OH , $HCOOH$, and CH_3COOH) are formed. TiO_2 - $g-C_3N_4$ -combined photocatalysts exhibit also higher photoactivity compared to single-phase TiO_2 or $g-C_3N_4$. Badii et al. reported an 11.3 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ CH_3OH formation for $g-C_3N_4@TiO_2$, which was 5 and 10 times higher than those for $g-C_3N_4$ and P-25 (TiO_2), respectively [66]. Lu et al. reported a 283.9 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ CO formation for 2D $g-C_3N_4/$

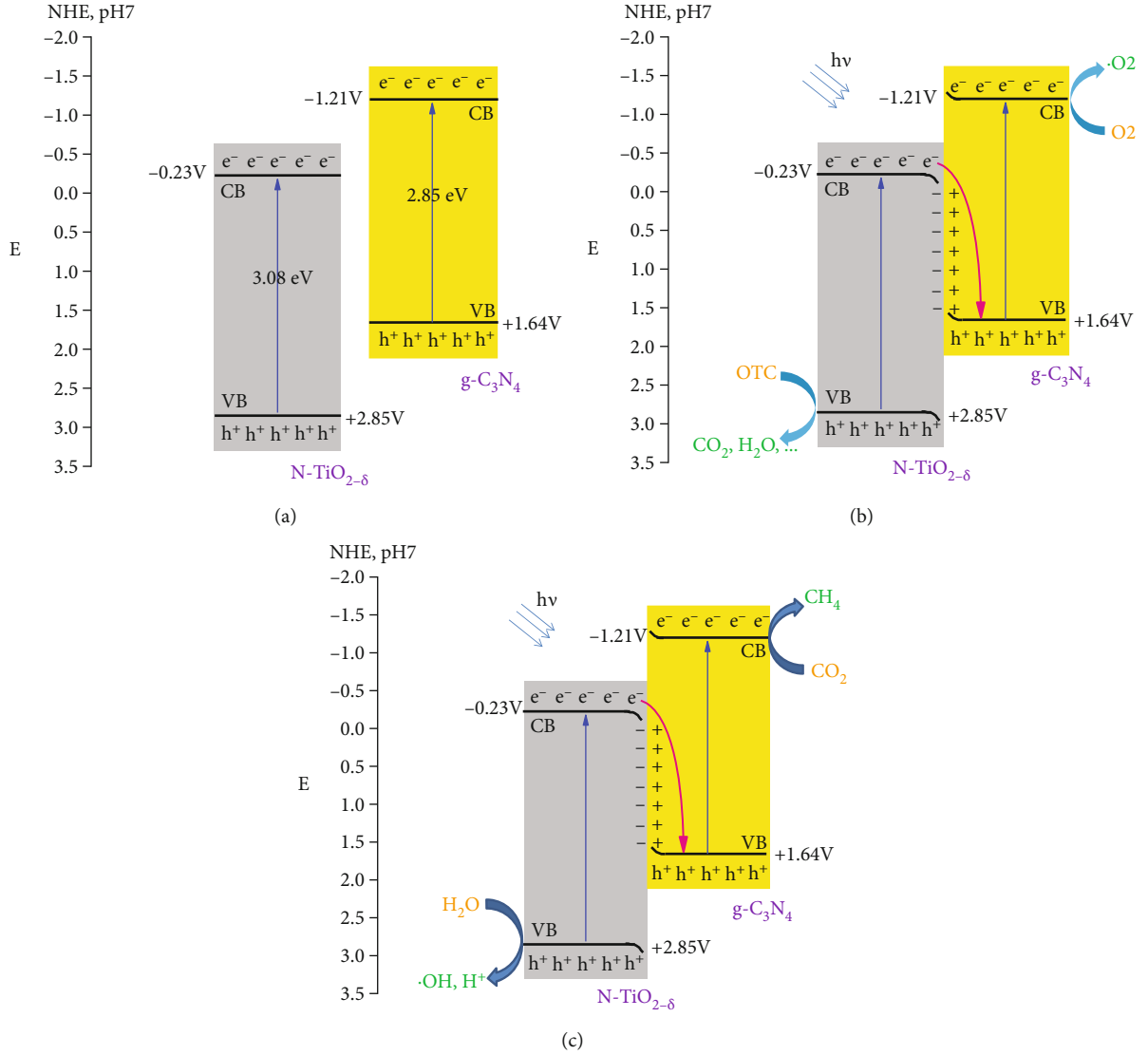


FIGURE 10: Schematic illustrations of the energy band structures of N-TiO_{2-δ} and g-C₃N₄ before contact (a), N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction composite for OTC photooxidation mechanism (b), and CO₂ photoreduction mechanism (c).

TiO₂, which was 292.2, 6.8, and 5.7 times higher than those for TiO₂, bulk g-C₃N₄, and mechanically mixed TiO₂/g-C₃N₄, respectively [67]. These results cannot be compared due to different experimental conditions. However, all studies indicate higher photoactivity using TiO₂-g-C₃N₄-combined photocatalysts. In this study, CH₄ production on 5TiCN was 7.8 times higher than that on bulk g-C₃N₄.

3.2.3. Photocatalytic Mechanism. An outstanding photocatalytic activity was exhibited by the *x*TiCN composites during OTC photodegradation and CO₂ photoreduction as compared to the pristine g-C₃N₄ and N-TiO₂. Hence, the coupling mechanism of g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ is worth investigating. From the UV-vis DR spectrum, the semiconductor conduction/valence edge energies (E_{CB}/E_{VB}) can be calculated using the electro-

negativity theory [70]. According to this theory, we have the following empirical formulas:

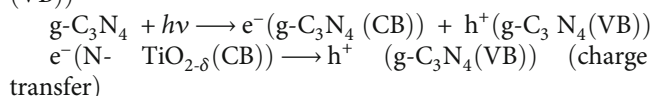
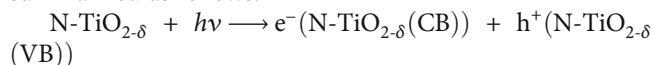
$$E_{CB} = X - E^e - 0.5E_g, E_{VB} = E_{CB} + E_g, \quad (2)$$

where X , E^e , and E_g are the semiconductor electronegativity (5.81 eV for TiO₂ [71] and 4.72 eV for g-C₃N₄ [30]), free electron energy corresponding to the hydrogen scale (4.5 eV), and semiconductor bandgap energy, respectively. As determined above from the differential curve of the UV-vis DR spectrum for 5TiCN, the bandgap energies are 3.08 and 2.85 eV, respectively, for the N-TiO_{2-δ} and g-C₃N₄ constituents. Using equation (2), E_{CB}/E_{VB} is -0.23 V/+2.85 V for N-TiO_{2-δ} and -1.21 V/+1.64 V for g-C₃N₄ (-0.14/+2.76 for separately synthesized N-TiO₂). With these calculated E_g and E_{CB}/E_{VB} values, the

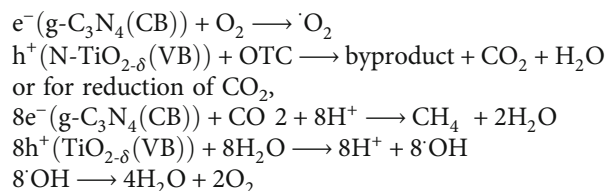
energy band diagram before the coupling of the N-TiO_{2-δ} and g-C₃N₄ phases is presented in Figure 10(a). As thoroughly discussed by Yang [70], when coupling two semiconductors, the built-in electric field formation and photoexcited carrier transfer occur by different routes depending on the semiconductor types, their Fermi level, and CB/VB potential positions. In x TiCN composites, N-TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ behave as n-type semiconductors [72, 73], and thus, their Fermi level is near the top conduction edge energy. As the N-TiO_{2-δ} Fermi level is higher than that of g-C₃N₄, spontaneous electron diffusion from N-TiO_{2-δ} to g-C₃N₄ occurs during their coupling and generates a built-in electric field with positive charge accumulation in the g-C₃N₄ interface zone and a negative one in the N-TiO_{2-δ} interface zone. This diffusion is gradually suppressed by the built-in electric field itself, and finally, a thermal equilibrium state is established in the N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction [70, 74]. On irradiating the composite, photogenerated electron (e⁻) and hole (h⁺) pairs formed on the CB and VB of each constituent. Subsequently, the built-in electric field promoted the photogenerated electrons on the CB of N-TiO_{2-δ} to the VB of g-C₃N₄. This transfer is displayed in Figures 10(b) and 10(c) and is well-known as the Z-scheme mechanism. In this system, the charge transfer between two phases caused the separation of photogenerated electrons and holes into different zones—electrons in the CB of g-C₃N₄ and holes in the VB of TiO₂—preventing their recombination or, simply put, prolonging their lifetime. Notably, this type of charge transfer enriched the photogenerated electrons on the negative CB of g-C₃N₄ and photogenerated holes on the positive VB of TiO₂, thereby strengthening the redox property of the composite. Additionally, a low bandgap of g-C₃N₄ broadened the light absorption region and improved the light utilization efficiency. All these factors contributed to the photocatalytic enhancement of N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ composites.

Note that the type-II and Z-scheme mechanisms entail a similar photocatalyst composite structure. However, in the type-II mechanism, reduction takes place on the CB of the semiconductor with a less negative CB potential. Hence, for the xTiCN composite, if the type-II mechanism had occurred, the CO₂ would have been reduced on the CB of the N-TiO_{2-δ} constituent. This is unlikely as the reduction potential of the N-TiO_{2-δ} constituent (-0.23 V) is less negative than that of the CO₂/CH₄ (-0.24 V) [14]. Nevertheless, the obtained experimental results show a remarkably higher CH₄ content formation than that of bare g-C₃N₄. This evidence suggests that the xTiCN photocatalyst composites entail the Z-scheme mechanism. It is also found that CO₂ photoreduction could not take place on separately synthesized N-TiO₂ as its CD potential position (-0.14 V) is less negative than that of CO₂/CH₄ (-0.24 V).

The photogenerated electron-hole pair transfers are summarized as follows:



Then, for oxidation of OTC,



4. Conclusions

Here, x% (wt) N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ composites were synthesized, and their textural and structural properties were analyzed by XRD, FTIR, UV-DRS, TEM, and XPS. All composites showed better activity than bulk g-C₃N₄ towards OTC photodegradation and CO₂ photoreduction. OTC photodegradation yields were higher for the composites (93%, 97%, and 92%, on 5TiCN, 10TiCN, and 15TiCN, respectively) than for bulk g-C₃N₄ (86%). Among these catalysts, the 10TiCN showed the highest rate constant of 0.647 h⁻¹. In CO₂ photoreduction, CH₄ was the only product detected. CH₄ concentrations of 0.9, 7.0, 5.2, and 4.3 ppm were detected using bulk g-C₃N₄, 5TiCN, 10TiCN, and 15TiCN, respectively. CH₄ formation of 5TiCN was 7.8 times higher than that of bulk g-C₃N₄. Enhanced composite photoactivities were attributed to their Z-scheme mechanism. With this structure, charge transfer between N-TiO_{2-δ} (CB) and g-C₃N₄ (VB) occurred, leading to recombination prevention of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and stronger redox abilities. The interesting obtained result above indicates the promising novel dual photocatalysts. Tuning composite morphology (e.g., specific surface area and porosity) and contact surface area between components (e.g., good dispersion phase and core-shell system) could enhance photoactivity of x% (wt) N-TiO_{2-δ}/g-C₃N₄ further.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

Acknowledgments

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Research Article

Adsorption Characteristics of Antibiotic Meropenem on Magnetic $\text{CoFe}_2\text{O}_4@\text{Au}$ Nanoparticles

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Adsorption characteristics of the antibiotic meropenem on a novel magnetic material synthesized by surface coating cobalt iron oxide (CFO) with gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) were systematically investigated. The AuNPs can enhance material adsorption capacity by having high affinity towards the thioether and amine groups in the meropenem structure. Au coverage on the CFO surface decreased the saturation magnetization from 55.8 emu/g to 48.8 emu/g, still allowing synthesized CFO@Au nanomaterials to be magnetically recoverable. The CFO@Au nanomaterials showed enhanced adsorption capacity of 25.5 mg/g at optimum conditions of pH 4.0 adsorption time 120 min, and adsorbent mass 0.05 g. Adsorption equilibrium was in accordance with a monolayer Langmuir isotherm, while the adsorption kinetics followed pseudo-first-order kinetics and intraparticle diffusion models. This work provides a simple method to prepare a magnetic composite material with high adsorption efficiency for meropenem and probably other thioether-containing substances.

1. Introduction

Recently, the combination of metal oxide materials with other functional components or other materials has been extensively studied to produce composite materials with novel properties and unique applicability. Due to the evident advantages of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs), structures of such nanoparticles on core-shell oxides have attracted great attention [1–3]. As an inert metal, Au is extremely valuable as a material coating for magnetic nanoparticle protection, surface modification versatility, strong catalytic capability, and biocompatibility [4–6]. Applications of Au/metal oxide nanocomposites include removal of toxic substances such as Hg, As [7, 8], catalysts for organic compound reduction [9], or CO oxidation

[10], analysis of various targets including catechols [11], prostate-specific antigen [10], malachite green [12], and drug carriers for biomedical applications [13, 14]. Among different Au-metal oxide composites, Au/magnetic oxide nanoparticles have frequently been studied since these materials can be used in various fields such as protein purification, biological separation, target delivery, magnetic resonance imaging, therapy, and biosensing. Fe_3O_4 and other iron-containing compounds such as CoFe_2O_4 attract much attention thanks to the capacity for surface functionalization as well as its excellent magnetic properties. In addition, it is easy to separate these compounds from solution using an external magnetic field [4, 15–20].

Many studies have been carried out on $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{Au}$ nanocomposites, however, not as many studies have focused on

Au and CoFe_2O_4 (CFO) composites. Among magnetic oxides, CFO has advantages of large anisotropy, high coercive field, moderate saturation magnetization, high electromagnetic performance, chemical stability, and good electrical conductivity [21–23]. Studies mostly focus on nanocomposite applications for analytical detection, catalysis, and drug delivery, nevertheless, applications for adsorption of -S- or -NH- containing substances, exploiting the strong affinity of gold for sulfur or nitrogen atoms has been scarce.

Meropenem is a pyrrolidinyl dimethyl carbamoyl derivative of thienamycin taken from *Streptomyces cattleya*. It is an injectable antibiotic which currently has the broadest antibacterial spectrum in the carbapenem group [24]. Meropenem is one of the strongest antibiotics to kill harmful microorganisms which are resistant to penicillin and cephalosporin antibiotics. Particularly, the carbapenems have been used as last-resort antibiotics for patients in cases of infectious diseases in intensive care units who are seriously infected with multidrug-resistant biota [25]. So far, the analogs of carbapenems in biological and pharmaceutical matrices have mostly been determined with common separation methods include liquid-liquid extraction and solid-liquid extraction (SPE). However, such methods require several steps and have limited selectivity [26]. Sample treatment coupled with magnetic nanoparticles can provide faster phase separation by applying an external magnetic field and is easily reused. To enhance the separation efficiency, magnetic particles have been surface-functionalized with small organic molecules, polymers, aptamers, antibodies, and metal nanoparticles [27].

The present study is aimed at combining magnetic CoFe_2O_4 with AuNPs (CFO@Au) and study the adsorption behavior of meropenem on the composite material, which can later be used for separation and enrichment of meropenem from complicated matrices. Since meropenem molecules contain thioether and amine groups, which strongly bind with the Au surface, adsorption of meropenem on Au-modified CFO particles should be enhanced in comparison with bare CFO material. Studies on the adsorptive removal of meropenem have been reported on adsorbents such as multiwalled carbon nanotubes [28] and rice husk functionalized with Mg/Fe-layered double hydroxides [29]. In these cases, the interaction between meropenem and adsorbents is mainly due to electrostatic, π - π EDA interactions, hydrophobic interactions, and hydrogen bonding to -OH and -NH- group. To the best of our knowledge, there is as yet no research examining adsorption of meropenem on CFO@Au.

The synthesis of Au/metal oxide composites usually involves mixing gold (III) salts with a suspension containing oxide nanoparticles and then reducing gold (III) by a suitable reductant such as sodium citrate [8], extract of the *Allium Sp* plant [9], or tetrakis (hydroxymethyl) phosphonium chloride (THPC) [12]. Aniline and dithiothreitol are used to stabilize AuNPs while substances like (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane (APTES) or polyethyleneimine dithiocarbamate (PEI-DTC) are used to functionalize the magnetic oxide surface to form better linkages with Au particles. In our study, CFO was prepared by a hydrothermal method, while AuNPs were prepared

and stabilized on the CFO surface by using the conventional sodium citrate or sodium borohydride (NaBH_4) reductants and poly (diallyldimethylammonium chloride) PDADMAC polycation as a stabilizer.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Reagents and Materials. All chemicals used were analytical grade and were directly used without further purification. Meropenem sodium salt 98% (Figure S1 of Supplementary data) was purchased from Toronto Research Chemicals (Canada). Other reagents were chloroauric acid tetrahydrate ($\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$), sodium borohydride (NaBH_4), sodium citrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), potassium hydroxide (KOH), hydrochloric acid (HCl), poly (diallyldimethylammonium chloride) (PDADMAC) solution with a molecular weight of 400–500 kg/mol (PDADMAC 20 wt% in H_2O) purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane (APTES) and tris(hydroxymethyl) aminomethane (Tris) buffer purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA), and Bondesil-C18, 40 μm , 100 gm purchased from Agilent (USA). Deionized water was used for preparing all solutions.

2.2. Synthesis of Materials

2.2.1. Synthesis of CoFe_2O_4 Nanoparticles. Powdered magnetic CFO materials were synthesized by a hydrothermal method. A solution containing $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ with the $\text{Co}^{2+}:\text{Fe}^{3+}$ molar ratio of 1:2.2 was added to a beaker and adjusted to pH 12 with NaOH . This mixture was then transferred to a thermo-hydrolysis vessel and hydrolyzed at 150°C for 2 h. After being hydrolyzed, the sample was taken out and washed several times with distilled water. The precipitate was collected using magnets and dried at 80°C to produce CoFe_2O_4 product as a black powder.

2.2.2. Synthesis of CoFe_2O_4 @Au Composites

(1) PDADMAC-Stabilized Au. AuNPs were obtained by reducing HAuCl_4 with NaBH_4 in the presence of PDADMAC as a stabilizer [30]. The freshly prepared dispersion of CFO (50 mg in 50 mL of water) was acidified with 0.1 M of HCl at pH 6.5. While continuous stirring, successively, 152 μL of (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane (APTES) and 200 μL of 50 mM HAuCl_4 were added. Then, 20 μL of PDADMAC was added to the formed dark brown colloidal nanoparticle solution, and the mixture was stirred for 10 minutes. After that, 2 mL of a freshly prepared solution of NaBH_4 (0.05 M) was added dropwise into the formed reddish-brown colloidal nanoparticle solution, and then, the mixture was stirred for 3 h. The obtained substance was collected with magnets, washed with deionized water and alcohol, and then dried at 80°C for 12 h.

(2) Citrate-Stabilized Au. CFO dispersion (0.4 g/100 mL) was mixed with 400 μL of 50 mM HAuCl_4 . The mixture was heated to boiling under continuous stirring; then, 16 mL of

50 mM sodium citrate was added. The solution was further heated for 20 min to form a reddish-brown colloidal solution. The obtained substance was collected with magnets, washed with deionized water and alcohol, and then was dried at 80°C for 12 h.

2.3. Material Characterization. The crystal structures of CFO and CFO@Au were investigated by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer (Bruker) with wavelength $\text{Cu}_{K\alpha} = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$ and the 2θ angle range of 20° to 80° . The morphology and particle size distribution of CFO and CFO@Au were analyzed on a JEM 1010 transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL) operated at an accelerating voltage of 100 keV. The magnetic hysteresis loops were measured by a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM, Lakeshore) at room temperature and in an external field up to 5 kG. The infrared spectra were recorded on a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FTIR-1S, Shimadzu). The absorption spectra of AuNPs, CFO, and CFO@Au were obtained with a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (UV 1601 PC, Shimadzu) using two 1 cm matched quartz cells at room temperature.

2.4. Meropenem Determination. The concentrations of meropenem before and after adsorption on adsorbent material are determined by capillary electrophoresis with a capacitively coupled contactless conductivity detector (CE-C⁴D). The CE instrument was built-in house with a commercial C⁴D (ER815, eDAQ, Denistone East, NSW, Australia). Uncoated fused silica capillary (ID of 50 μm and OD of 375 μm), total length 60 cm, effective length 53 cm, was used with buffered eluent composed of 10 mM Tris adjusted to pH 8.0 with acetic acid. Injection was carried out by siphoning at a height of 20 cm for 20 s. Separation voltage was +20 kV [31].

2.5. Batch Adsorption of Meropenem on CFO@Au. To evaluate the adsorption capacity, the adsorbent (0.03–0.1 g) was mixed with 10 mL of meropenem solution (pH from 3.0 to 8.0) having different initial concentrations (30 to 350 mg/L) in 15 mL falcon tubes. These falcon tubes were then shaken in the range of 60 to 300 min. The parameters investigated include solution pH, adsorption time, adsorbent mass, and initial concentration of meropenem.

The concentrations of meropenem after adsorption were determined by using CE-C⁴D measurement. The adsorption efficiency ($H\%$) was evaluated by the following equation:

$$H = \frac{C_0 - C}{C_0} \times 100\%. \quad (1)$$

The adsorption capacity q_e (mg/g) of meropenem onto CFO@Au was calculated by the following equation:

$$q_e = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{m} \times V, \quad (2)$$

where C_0 (mg/L) and C_e (mg/L) are the initial concentration and equilibrium concentrations of meropenem, respectively,

V (L) is the volume of the solution, and m (g) is the adsorbent mass.

Kinetics experiments used initial meropenem concentration of 50 ppm, pH = 4.0 adsorbent mass of 0.05 g, and time ranging 0 to 180 min, while experiments to evaluate adsorption isotherms used initial meropenem concentration varying from 30 to 350 ppm, pH = 4.0, adsorbent mass = 0.05 g, time = 120 min.

2.6. Adsorption Isotherms. Langmuir and Freundlich models were investigated for adsorption isotherms. The Langmuir adsorption isotherm is described by the following equation [32–34]:

$$q_e = \frac{q_m K_L C_e}{1 + K_L C_e}, \quad (3)$$

where q_e and q_m are equilibrium and maximum adsorption capacities (mg/g), respectively, and K_L is the Langmuir adsorption constant (L/mg) which relates to energy of adsorption.

The Freundlich model is as follows [33, 35]:

$$q_e = K_F C_e^{1/n}, \quad (4)$$

where K_F is Freundlich adsorption capacity (L/g) and n is an indicator for the degree of surface heterogeneity and describes the distribution of the adsorbed molecules on the adsorbent surface. The Freundlich equation is characteristic for a multilayer adsorption isotherm.

2.7. Kinetic Models. To evaluate the rate of the adsorption process, the pseudofirst-order, pseudosecond-order, and intraparticle diffusion models are frequently applied to fit the kinetics data. The correlation coefficient (R^2) is computed to evaluate how successfully the model fits the data and demonstrate the kinetics of adsorption [33].

The pseudofirst-order model is described by equation (5). This model assumes the physical adsorption of one adsorbate molecule onto one active site on the adsorbent surface [33]:

$$q_t = q_e \left(1 - e^{-k_1 t}\right). \quad (5)$$

The pseudosecond-order model follows equation (6). The pseudosecond-order model assumes the adsorption of one adsorbate molecule onto two active sites on the adsorbent surface, preferentially through chemisorption [33]:

$$q_t = \frac{q_e^2 k_2 t}{1 + q_e k_2 t}, \quad (6)$$

where q_e and q_t are equilibrium adsorption capacity (mg/g) and adsorption capacity at different time intervals (mg/g), respectively. t is adsorption time (min), and k_1 and k_2 are pseudofirst-order (1/s) and pseudosecond-order (g/mg.min) rate constants, respectively.

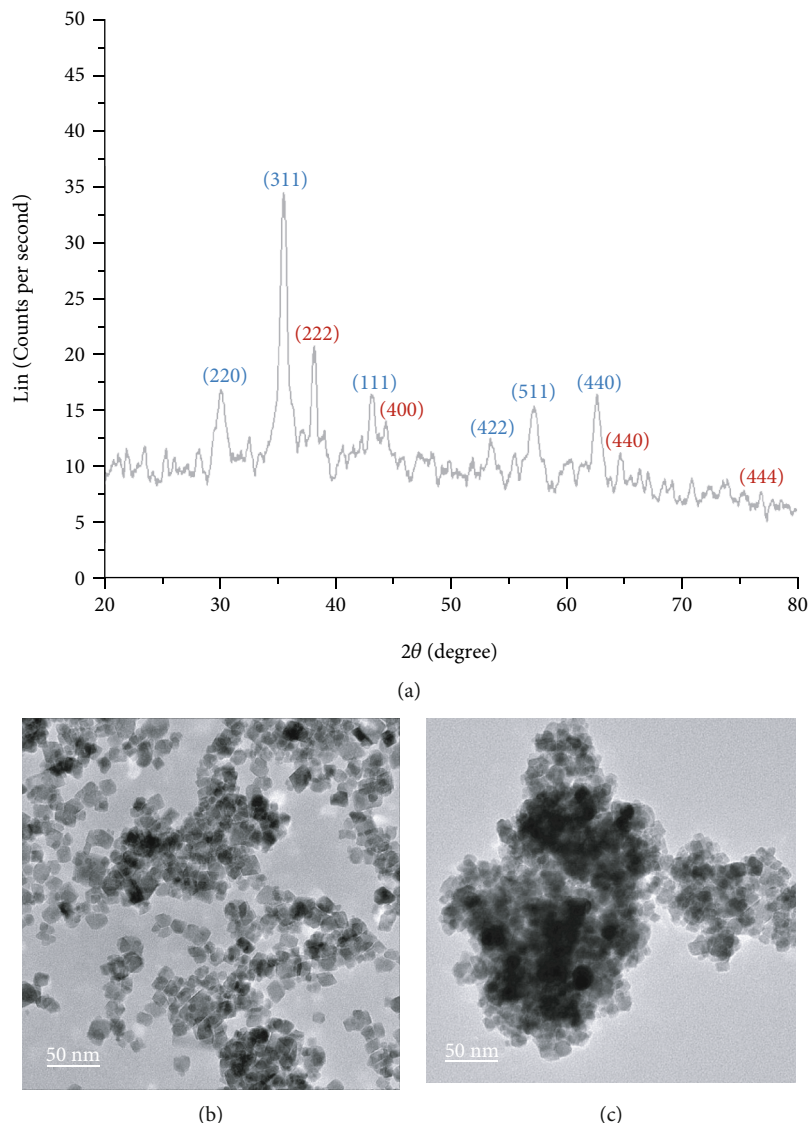


FIGURE 1: Characterization of CFO@Au: (a) X-ray diffraction pattern of the CFO@Au nanocomposites, (b) TEM images of CFO, and (c) TEM images of CFO@Au particles.

Intraparticle diffusion model provides information about the diffusion of adsorbate onto the adsorbent material and whether intraparticle diffusion is the rate-limiting step. Equation (7) describes the intraparticle diffusion model:

$$q_t = k_d t^{1/2}, \quad (7)$$

where k_d is the intraparticle diffusion rate constant ($1/\text{min}^{1/2}$).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Comparison of Meropenem Adsorptivity between CFO@Au-Citrate, CFO@Au-PDADMAC, CFO, and C18 Materials. The adsorption efficiencies of meropenem on CFO@Au composites, prepared by 2 methods, stabilized with citrate and stabilized with PDADMAC, were compared with bare CFO and conventional adsorption material C18 (10 mL

of 50 ppm meropenem, pH 4.0; contact time 120 min, adsorbent mass 0.10 g) as presented in Figure S2. Among the 4 materials, C18 provides the lowest adsorption efficiency of 24%, followed by CFO (62%), then CFO@Au-PDADMAC (72%), and the highest efficiency was obtained for CFO@Au-citrate (94%). The modification of CFO by AuNPs enhanced the adsorption efficiency of meropenem through affinity interaction between AuNPs on the surface with thioether and amine groups in the meropenem molecular structure.

The CFO and Au composites synthesized by 2 routes demonstrate not only different adsorption efficiencies but also different pH-dependent adsorption behaviors. For CFO@Au-PDADMAC, when the solution pH was varied from 3.0 to 8.0, the adsorption capacity changed insignificantly and had a maximum at pH 6.0. According to our previous research on the PDADMAC-Au system [30], the interaction between the analyte and PDADMAC is mainly hydrophobic interaction. Meropenem has isoelectric point

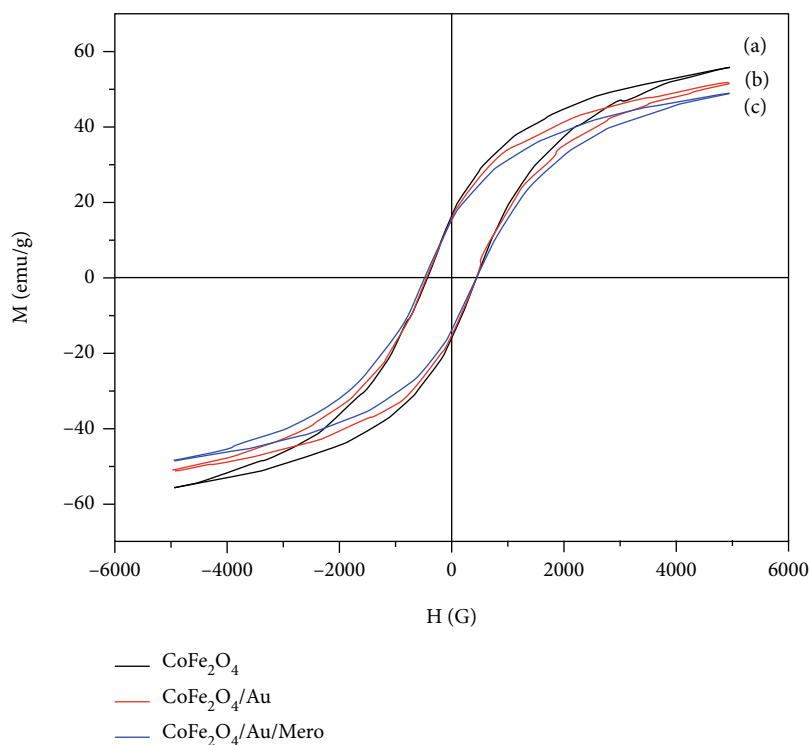


FIGURE 2: Hysteresis loops of (a) CFO, (b) CFO@Au, and (c) CFO@Au-meropenem.

pI~6.0, meaning that at pH 6.0, it is charge neutral. Thus, meropenem can be adsorbed and distributed very well on the hydrophobic surface of CFO@Au-PDADMAC. The maximum adsorption at pH 6.0 suggests the dominant contribution of hydrophobic interaction between meropenem and PDADMAC capped-AuNPs over the electrostatic interaction.

Meanwhile, for CFO@Au-citrate, the maximum adsorption capacity was obtained at pH 4.0 (94%). This is explained by the dominant electrostatic interaction between citrate-AuNPs and meropenem which vary with pH. Citrate-AuNPs are negatively charged at pH > pK = 3.1 of citric acid. For meropenem, at low pH, meropenem is positively charged and hence is well kept on the negatively charged surface of citrate-AuNPs. At higher pH, the positive charge is reduced; hence, the electrostatic attraction decreases, leading to decreased adsorption efficiency. Since the CFO@Au-citrate composite provides higher adsorption efficiencies than the CFO@Au-PDADMAC, in succeeding parts, we will focus our investigation only on the CFO@Au-citrate system, which is denoted simply as CFO@Au.

3.2. Characterization of CFO@Au. The XRD pattern of the CFO@Au sample is shown in Figure 1(a). Beside the diffraction peaks at 30.1, 35.4, 43.3, 53.6, 57.5, and 63.0°, corresponding to (220), (311), (111), (422), (511), and (440) planes of cubic spinel CFO, there are additional sharp peaks at 38.5, 44.0, 64.0, and 78.0° assigned to (222), (400), (440), and (444) planes of the face-centered cubic Au lattice [36, 37]. This result indicated that the composite of CFO@Au

has been successfully synthesized, and both phases are in well-developed crystalline structures.

3.2.1. Surface Morphology. The TEM images of the CFO material (Figure 1(b)) and the CFO@Au composite (Figure 1(c)) reveal that CFO particles have cubic or rectangular shapes with homogenous sizes from 10-20 nm. After coating with Au, the particles remain the same size but tend to form clusters, covered by additional small and round particles, which may correspond to the morphology of single sphere AuNPs prepared by the citrate method [38, 39].

3.2.2. Infrared Spectra. Comparison of FT-IR spectra of CFO@Au (Figure S3a) and CFO@Au-meropenem (Figure S3b) reveals the appearance of several weak bands at 1800-1600 cm⁻¹, typical for valence vibration of the C=O group (1620 cm⁻¹, 1744 cm⁻¹) in spectra of CFO@Au-meropenem [28, 40]. In addition, we have the absorption bands in 1600-1200 cm⁻¹ regions belonging to aromatic rings (1566 cm⁻¹, 1520 cm⁻¹, 1398 cm⁻¹, 1291 cm⁻¹); the bands at >3000 cm⁻¹ correspond to C-H in aromatic ring (3296 cm⁻¹, 3744 cm⁻¹) and a wide adsorption band in 3400-2400 cm⁻¹ to O-H and N-H groups [28, 29]. The existence of organic functional groups belonging to meropenem in FT-IR spectra of CFO@Au-meropenem proves the adsorption of meropenem on the nanocomposite surface.

3.2.3. UV-Vis Spectra. UV-Vis absorption spectra of AuNPs, CFO, and CFO@Au particles dispersed in water were recorded in the wavelength range 400-800 nm (Figure S4).

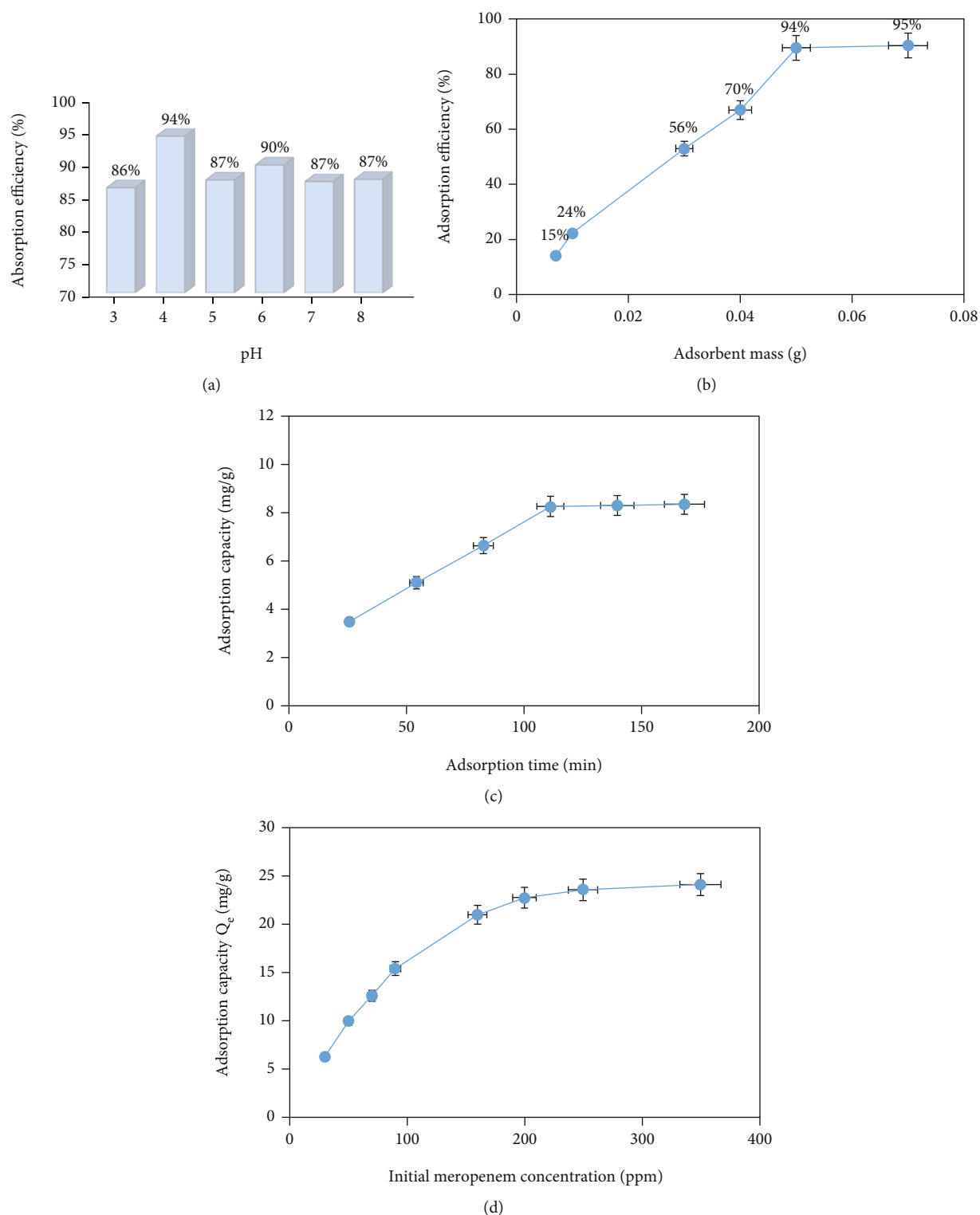


FIGURE 3: (a) The influence of solution pH on meropenem adsorption efficiency of CFO@Au, (b) the influence of adsorbent mass on meropenem adsorption efficiency, (c) the effect of adsorption time on kinetic adsorption, and (d) the effect of initial meropenem concentration on the adsorption capacity of the material.

CFO particles have no surface plasmon resonance (SPR) absorption in the investigated region, while AuNPs have a plasmon band with maximum absorption at 520 nm, typical for AuNPs having sizes of 10-30 nm [41, 42]. For

CFO@Au nanocomposite, a maximum absorption band was detected around 520 nm, but widened and slightly red-shifted. The appearance of the absorption band around 520 nm proved the existence of AuNPs on the surface of

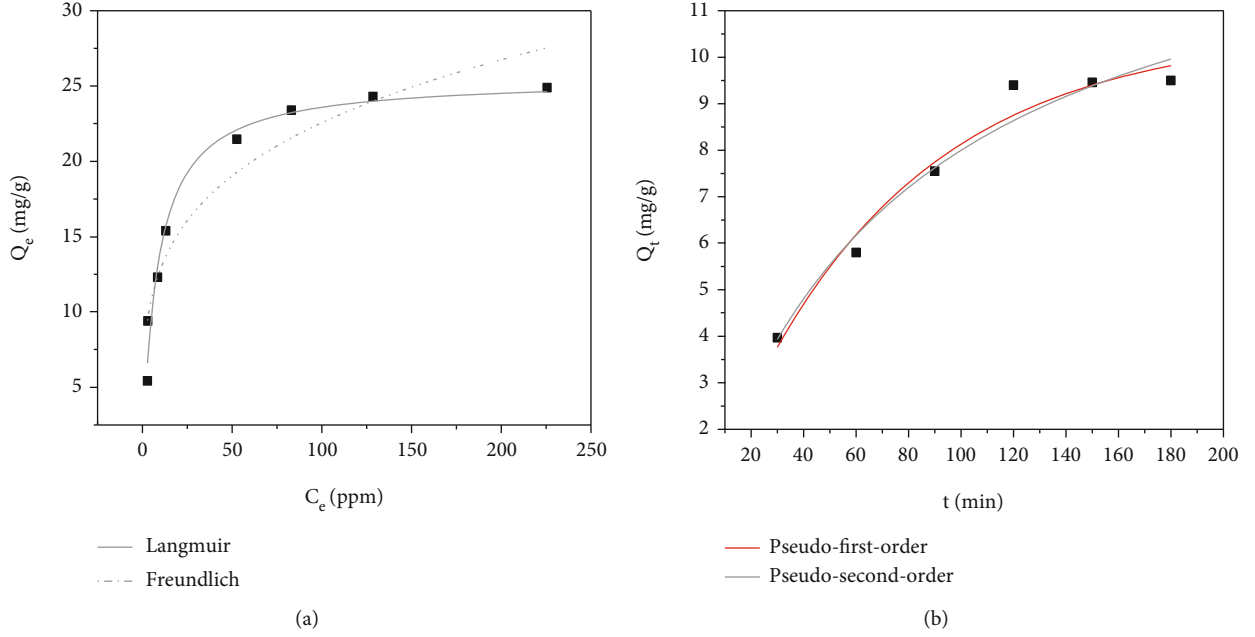


FIGURE 4: Isotherm and kinetic model fit with experimental data of meropenem adsorption on CFO@Au material. (a) Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm. (b) pseudofirst-order and pseudosecond-order kinetic model.

TABLE 1: Isotherm parameters of Langmuir and Freundlich models.

Langmuir model		Freundlich model	
Q_{\max}	25.5 mg/g	K_F	7.2918
K_L	8.15	$1/n$	0.24513
χ^2	1.509	χ^2	5.705
R^2	0.97693	R^2	0.91281

CFO, as confirmed by XRD measurement. The wavelength shift indicates the change in the dielectric constant of the material, which is inversely proportional to the plasmon vibrational frequency. The widening of the plasmon band is assigned to the decrease of electron exchange of AuNPs adsorbed on the CFO surface [43].

3.2.4. Magnetic Properties. In the CFO@Au composites as well as of CFO@Au-meropenem, CFO plays a role as magnetic support, which helps to easily recover material after using. The magnetic properties of CFO, CFO@Au, and CFO@Au-meropenem were characterized based on magnetic hysteresis loops $M(H)$. The $M(H)$ loops provided in Figure 2 show typical soft magnetic behavior. From these curves, characteristic parameters such as remanent magnetizations and coercivities were derived as $M_r \sim 16$ emu/g and $H_c \sim 430$ G, respectively. The saturation magnetizations M_s differ among these samples as 55.8 emu/g, 51.3 emu/g, and 48.8 emu/g for CFO, CFO@Au, and CFO@Au-meropenem, respectively. The decrease in M_s is due to the coverage of non-magnetic Au as well as meropenem on magnetic core CFO. Despite this change, the composites CFO@Au and CFO@Au-meropenem still possess good magnetic properties.

After meropenem adsorption, CFO@Au powders can be easily separated from the solution after 3 min by using external magnets (Figure S5).

From the above measurements, we confirm that the CFO@Au nanocomposite was successfully fabricated with particle size ranging from 10-20 nm, and that the material has high crystallinity and good magnetic properties. This material was further used to investigate adsorption behavior of meropenem in batch adsorption experiments.

3.3. Adsorption of Meropenem on CFO@Au

3.3.1. Effect of pH. As mentioned in Section 3.1, for CFO@Au-citrate, the highest adsorption efficiency was obtained at pH 4.0 (Figure 3(a)), which is resulted from the strongest attraction force between negatively charged Au-citrate particles and positively charged meropenem at this pH.

3.3.2. Effect of Adsorbent Mass. The adsorbent mass strongly influences the number of adsorption centers, hence, strongly influences the meropenem adsorption capacity. As the adsorbent mass was varied between 0.007 and 0.07 g (see Figure 3(b)), the adsorption efficiency increased and tended to a maximum at 0.05 g. The increase of adsorption capacity with increasing adsorbent mass can be explained by the increase in the number of adsorption centers. However, when the mass of the material is above a certain amount, the adsorption capacity reaches saturation, which corresponds to the saturated adsorption of meropenem. The optimum mass adsorbent was selected as 0.05 g for further studies.

3.3.3. Effect of Adsorption Time. The effect of adsorption time on the meropenem adsorption on CFO@Au was

TABLE 2: Pseudofirst-order adsorption and pseudosecond-order adsorption rate constants ($C_0 = 50$ ppm).

Model	Fit equation	R^2	k (g/mg.min)	q_e (exp) (mg/g)	q_e (cal) (mg/g)
Pseudofirst-order adsorption	$q_t = q_e \left(1 - e^{-k_1 t}\right)$	0.97178	0.01466	9.5	10.572
Pseudosecond-order adsorption	$q_t = \frac{q_e^2 k_2 t}{1 + q_e k_2 t}$	0.96455	0.000874	9.5	14.365

investigated in the range from 0 to 180 min with an initial meropenem concentration of 50 ppm, pH 4.0, and adsorbent mass of 0.05 g. Figure 3(c) shows that the uptake of meropenem (q_t) (mg/g) increased with increasing adsorption time and remained nearly constant after 120 min. The adsorption is rapid in the initial stages and gradually decreases with the progress of adsorption. All plots are single, smooth, and continuous curves leading to saturation.

3.3.4. Effect of Initial Meropenem Concentration. Initial meropenem concentration in the solution plays an important role as the movement of the constituents in the solution controls mass transfer between the solution and the adsorbent surface. Systematic investigation on the initial meropenem concentration was further carried out in a wide concentration range from 30 to 350 ppm, at pH 4.0, adsorbent mass of 0.05 g, and time of 120 min. As can be seen in Figure 3(d), the equilibrium adsorption capacity of meropenem increases significantly at low initial meropenem concentrations from 30 to 160 ppm, from 5.43 to 21.47 mg/g, then increases more slowly and reaches a maximum of 24.89 mg/g at meropenem concentration of 350 ppm. These data are further used to deduce the adsorption isotherms of meropenem on CFO@Au.

3.4. Study on the Adsorption Isotherms. The nonlinear regression fit of experimental results with Freundlich and Langmuir adsorption isotherm models are given in Figure 4(a). Comparing the fit parameters of the two models (Table 1), the Langmuir model provides a higher correlation coefficient R^2 of 0.97693 and lower χ^2 of 1.50 than the Freundlich model (R^2 of 0.91281 and χ^2 of 5.705), indicating better experimental agreement with the Langmuir rather than the Freundlich model. Hence, we conclude that the isothermal adsorption of meropenem on CFO@Au is by monolayer adsorption rather than multilayer adsorption, and the distribution of active sites on the surface of the adsorbent is uniform. The maximum adsorption capacity calculated from the Langmuir isotherm is rather high as 25.5 (mg/g), which suggests the potential of the composite material for meropenem adsorption in biomedical applications.

3.5. Study on Kinetic Models of Static Kinetic Adsorption. Diffusional mechanisms can be studied using three kinetic models including pseudofirst-order, pseudosecond-order, and intraparticle models. The regression correlation coefficient, R^2 , of these models was used to determine the best-fit model.

3.5.1. The Pseudofirst-Order Model and Pseudosecond-Order Model. Fitting lines and correlation parameters are presented in Figure 4(b) and Table 2. Both pseudofirst-order and pseudosecond-order models have high correlation factors R^2 (0.97178 for pseudofirst-order model and 0.96455 for pseudosecond-order model), indicating that both models could be satisfied and both physical diffusion and chemical adsorption via bonding between SH- group and gold surface are responsible for meropenem adsorption on CFO@Au material. Since the q_e value calculated from the fitted pseudofirst-order model (10.572 mg/g) is closer to q_e experimental (9.5 mg/g), the data seem to better follow the pseudofirst-order model. According to this model, the adsorption of meropenem on CFO@Au was assumed to proceed by diffusion through a boundary, and one adsorbate molecule was adsorbed onto one active site on the adsorbent surface [33].

Our observation on the simultaneous occurrence of physical diffusion and chemical adsorption agrees with other authors [28, 29], however, in their studies, the pseudosecond-order model provides a better account of meropenem adsorption on rice husk functionalized with Mg/Fe layered double hydroxides [29] and on multiwalled carbon nanotubes [28].

3.5.2. The Intraparticle Diffusion Model. Because the first two models did not convincingly describe the diffusion of meropenem onto the material surface, the intraparticle diffusion model was then tried as it is a widely used approach for the analysis of adsorption kinetics. This model states that adsorption changes roughly proportionally to $t^{1/2}$ rather than with contact time t . The adsorbate was most probably transported into adsorbent through an intraparticle diffusion process with three steps. The first step is instantaneous adsorption or external surface adsorption. The next step is the fast adsorption stage, where intraparticle or pore diffusion is rate-limiting, followed by the final equilibrium step, where intraparticle diffusion begins to decelerate due to extremely low adsorbate concentrations remaining in the solutions adjacent to the particles [44, 45]. Adsorption data for q_t versus $t^{1/2}$ is shown in three stages in Figure S6.

According to this model, a plot of q_t versus $t^{1/2}$ should be linear if intraparticle diffusion is involved in the adsorption process. The three steps of the adsorption process are shown by the distinct stages in Figure S6. The slope of the graph is steeper at the start, indicating a boundary layer effect. In this stage, meropenem diffuses fast to the sorbent's surface and into the pores thanks to the driving force of electrostatic

attraction between meropenem and CFO@Au and the affinity interaction between meropenem and Au surface. There is also external resistance to mass transfer around the particles [46]. The second region is the gradual adsorption stage, representing micropore diffusion. Intraparticle diffusion is the rate-limiting step in this region. There is also the third stage, as indicated in Figure S6, where intraparticle diffusion began to slow, because the adsorbent was saturated and the concentrations of solutes were low.

4. Conclusions

We have successfully synthesized a magnetic nanocomposite having high adsorptivity (maximum adsorption capacity of 25.5 mg/g) for meropenem, based on magnetic cobalt ferrite (CFO) and gold nanoparticles. Surface modification of CFO by AuNPs significantly enhanced the adsorption capacity efficiency of meropenem in comparison with bare CFO, thanks to affinity interaction between AuNPs on the surface with thioether and amine groups in the molecular structure of meropenem. The optimum conditions for adsorption of meropenem on CFO@Au were found to be pH 4.0, adsorption time 120 minutes, and adsorbent mass 0.05 g. The adsorption isotherm of meropenem CFO@Au follows well the Langmuir model; differences between first and second-order kinetic models are too small to resolve. Despite the presence of non-magnetic gold particles, the composite still possesses good magnetic properties, which is helpful for quickly collecting material after adsorption. CFO@Au material can be used for the separation and enrichment of meropenem from an aqueous solution and is also a potential candidate for other applications such as biological separation and target drug delivery.

Data Availability

All the data and supporting materials are included within the article.

Conflicts of Interest

All authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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Supplementary Materials

Figure S1: chemical structure of meropenem. Figure S2: adsorption efficiencies of meropenem on C18, CFO, CFO@Au-citrate, and CFO@Au-PDADMAC. Figure S3: IR spectra of (a) CFO@Au; (b) CFO@Au@meropenem. Figure S4: UV-vis absorption spectra of (1) CFO, (2) AuNPs, and (3) CFO@Au solution. Figure S5: separation of CFO@Au-meropenem from aqueous solution using a magnetic stirrer. Figure S6: intraparticle diffusion plots for the adsorption of meropenem. (*Supplementary Materials*)




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Research Article

Synthesis of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ Mixed Oxides for Low-Temperature Carbon Monoxide Oxidation

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In this study, the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide catalysts have been prepared by combustion method using gel-created tartaric acid. The ability of effective carbon monoxide (CO) oxidation to carbon dioxide (CO_2) by $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst under low-temperature conditions was also demonstrated. The calcined $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ material has a porous honeycomb structure and good gaseous absorption-desorption ability. The solid solution of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides was formed by the substitution of Fe^{3+} ions at some Ce^{4+} ion sites within the CeO_2 crystal lattice. The results also showed that the calcination temperature and the molar ratio of Ce^{3+} ions to Fe^{3+} ions (CF) affected the formation of the structural phase and the catalytic efficiency. The catalytic properties of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide were good at the CF ratio of 1 : 1, the average crystal size was near 70 nm, and the specific surface area was about $20.22 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$. The full conversion of CO into CO_2 has been accomplished at a relatively low temperature of 270°C under insufficient O_2 conditions.

1. Introduction

Every year, the world emits a large amount of CO gas from thermal power plants, metallurgical plants, vehicles, wood burning, and waste burning. According to research in several developmental countries, thousands of people are died each year due to CO gas poisoning [1, 2]. The easy cause of CO gas poisoning is because its colorless, odorless, and nontoxic

properties are difficult to recognize. CO gas is the incomplete oxidation product of carbon compounds at low temperatures and O_2 deficiency [3–5]. Under suitable conditions, CO exhibits strong reducing properties for medium metal oxides, so it has been studied and used in the metallurgical industry early [6]. Because of its possible toxic property to humans, the study and treatment of CO gas together with its secondary CO_2 product are very important. In some

technical and industrial fields, CO₂ has begun to be captured and applied to reduce the greenhouse effect [7]. There are two popular methods for CO treatment as follows: adsorbing to capture CO gas [8–10] or converting CO to CO₂ by metal oxide catalysts [11].

Nowadays, CeO₂ is one of the important metal oxides in gas conversion catalysis. Cerium (Ce) belongs to the rare earth family and orders the second in the lanthanide series. Ce reserves account for a small proportion of the earth's crust, so exploitation is difficult and expensive. Ce has the electron configuration [Xe]4f¹5d¹6s², which can exist in the oxidation states Ce⁺³ ([Xe]4f¹5d⁶s) and Ce⁺⁴ ([Xe]4f⁵d⁶s). Thus, CeO₂ and Ce₂O₃ are the compounds of Ce with oxygen, and CeO₂ is more stable due to the electron configuration of Ce⁺⁴ ([Xe]4f⁵d⁶s) being similar to that of the inert xenon gas [12]. The flexible conversion of the two Ce⁺⁴ and Ce⁺³ states through the electron donor mechanisms on the surface of CeO₂ makes it widely used in catalytic reactions such as wastewater treatment [13–16], water-gas phase transition [17], and gas conversion [18–21]. CeO₂ oxides can be prepared by hydrothermal method [21, 22], coprecipitation [23–25], sol-gel [19, 26], impregnation [27], and combustion [18]. The choice of the fabrication method decides the crystal structure, morphology, and physicochemical properties of CeO₂, leading to affect the CO conversion ability of the catalyst [21, 22, 28]. The surface of the fabricated CeO₂ crystals is often imperfect due to lattice defect, vacuous O²⁻ ion (denoted V_O) sites, and unsaturated bonds leading to the existence of Ce⁺³ and Ce⁺⁴ states [20, 29]. The ratio between the number of Ce⁺³ ions to Ce⁺⁴ ions (Ce⁺³/Ce⁺⁴) is related to the number of V_O vacancies on the CeO₂ crystal surface, so it determines the oxygen storage capability and oxygen lease capability [25]. When the Ce⁺³/Ce⁺⁴ ratio is large, the number of V_O vacancies on the surface is also large [30]. Besides, the number of V_O also depends on the crystal morphology, and it decreases gradually with nanorods > cubes nanoscale > nanopolyhedra [29]. The density functional theory (DFT) calculations show that for low-index faces, the energy to release an O²⁻ ion from the lattice to create a V_O vacancy of (111) face is the largest in comparison with the (110) and (100) face, so the number of V_O on the faces decreases in the order (110) > (100) > (111) [29]. In addition, CeO₂ is a direct band-gap semiconductor with bandgap energies of 2.56 eV for the bulk sample and 3.23 eV for the nanoscale, corresponding to the absorption transition energy 2p (O²⁻) → 4f (Ce⁺⁴) [26, 30]. When an O²⁻ ion on the crystal surface gets an excitation agent to promote the electron transition 2p → 4f, it will separate from the crystal lattice leaving a V_O vacancy in company with the oxidation state transformation Ce⁺⁴(4f⁰) → Ce⁺³(4f¹) [11]. V_O vacancies are capable of adsorbing CO or O₂ molecules at these positions, so they play an important role in catalytic reactions. An O₂ molecule can be captured by a V_O vacancy to form an O²⁻ lattice ion [31]. The combination reactions of CO molecules with the absorbed O₂ molecules on the surface of the oxide catalyst are occurred by the Langmuir-Hinshelwood (L-H) mechanism or with the O²⁻ ions of the lattice by the Mars-van Krevelen (M-K) mechanism [29]. The CeO₂ oxide catalyst

material becomes thermal stable, has a fast catalytic rate, and has a low catalytic temperature when combined with some rare metals such as Pt [32], Pd [33], Au [34], and Ag [35]. However, a current trend uses the low-cost transition metal iron (Fe) element to make Fe₂O₃-CeO₂ mixed oxides. In nature, iron exists in both Fe⁺² and Fe⁺³ oxidation states. The radius of Fe⁺³ ion (0.64 Å) is smaller than that of Ce⁺⁴ ion (1.01 Å), so the substitution of Fe⁺³ ions in some Ce⁺⁴ ion positions can shrink the CeO₂ crystal lattice, the 2θ diffraction angle positions of the (111) face is shifted towards the larger angle, and the formed possibility of V_O vacancies is also increased [36]. The optical absorption transition properties of Fe₂O₃ oxide include the direct charge transition O²⁻(2p) → Fe⁺³(3d) in the ultraviolet region and the indirect charge transition between Fe⁺³(3d) states in the visible region [37]. The conversion ability between Fe⁺³ and Fe⁺² ions become even more flexible in Fe₂O₃-CeO₂ composition, which is demonstrated through photochemical reactions treating organic pigments [15]. The O²⁻ ions of the Fe-O-Ce bonds react better with CO than that of the Ce-O-Ce bonds [38], even so than those of Fe-O-Fe bonds. The energy separates an O²⁻ atom from the surface to create a V_O vacancy of about 3.04 eV [39]. The redox potential of the Fe⁺³/Fe⁺² pair (0.71 eV) is smaller than that of the Ce⁺⁴/Ce⁺³ pair (1.61 eV), which facilitates the electron donor-acceptor processes and the oxidation state transformation of Ce⁺⁴/Ce⁺³ and Fe⁺³/Fe⁺² pairs [20]. Other studies show that the combination of Ce and Fe elements forms CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ mixed oxide, which can reduce the reactive catalytic temperature of 50% (T₅₀) and 100% (T₁₀₀) CO conversion in comparison with single oxide catalysts of CeO₂ and Fe₂O₃, depending on the fabrication method [31, 40, 41].

From the above-mentioned characteristics, it shows that the CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ mixed oxide material has many advantageous photochemical properties that need further studying and applying for life. This study was carried out with the purpose of making CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ mixed oxide materials from popular Fe metal, reducing the content of rare earth Ce and the reactive catalytic temperature of complete CO conversion to CO₂ while applying to treat the exhaust gas in simple incinerators.

2. Chemicals and Experiments

2.1. Preparation of Mixed Oxide Catalysts. High-purity chemicals were used as Fe(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (99.98%), Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (99.98%), and tartaric acid (TA) (99.98%). TA was dissolved with twice distilled water at 80 °C to get A solution. The above nitrate salts were also dissolved to give B solution such that the molar ratio of CF mixture to TA solution always was 1 : 3. A regulator matter was utilized to keep the pH of the solution equal to 2. The B solution was slowly added to the A solution, stirred, and heated at 80 °C for 2 h to obtain a pale-yellow homogeneous gel solution. The gel was then dried at 100 °C for 4 h to obtain a porous shape sample. The obtained sample was analyzed by TGA to investigate the phase transition of the sample in accordance with the calcination temperature. The samples calcined in turn at 450, 550, 650, 750, 850, and 950 °C for 2 h to obtain mixed

oxides which denote as CF450, CF550, CF650, CF750, CF850, and CF950. To investigate the influence of the CF molar ratio on the structural phase formation of mixed oxides, the weight of the nitrate salts in the B solution was calculated so that the CF molar ratio of the obtained gels is in turn 9:1; 3:1; 1:1; 1:3, and 1:9. These gels, calcined at 650 °C for 2 h, received the mixed oxides of CF91, CF31, CF11, CF13, and CF19, respectively.

2.2. Analytics

2.2.1. Differential Thermal Analysis and Thermogravimetric Analysis. Differential thermal analysis (DTA) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) were performed on a Labsys Evo 1600 system. Samples were measured in air, heating rate 10 °C.min⁻¹.

2.2.2. X-Ray Diffraction Analysis. X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements of the studied samples were performed on a Siemens D5000 X-meter.

2.2.3. Scanning Electron Microscopy Image. The surface morphology of the materials was recorded by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Samples were measured on a Hitachi S-4800 instrument operating at 10 kV with a magnification of 80000-100000 times.

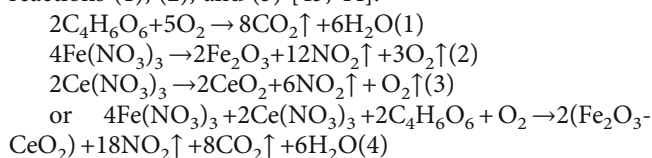
2.2.4. Determine the Specific Surface Area. The sample surface area was determined by the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method on the Autosorb IQ Station measuring system. BET equation: $P/[V(P_o - P)] = 1/V_m C + [(C - 1)/V_m C] \cdot P/P_o$, where P is the equilibrium pressure, P_o is the saturated vapor pressure of the adsorbed gas at experimental temperature, V is the volume of the adsorbed gas at pressure P , and V_m is the saturated gas volume of monolayer adsorption per 1 gram of adsorbent, and C is the BET constant. The specific surface area BET (S_{BET}) of the material is calculated according to the equation: $S_{BET} = (V_m/M) \cdot N A_m d$, where d is the density, M is the molar mass of the adsorbent, respectively, N is the Avogadro number ($N = 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ molecules.mol⁻¹), and A_m is the cross-sectional area of 1 molecule occupied on the surface adsorbent.

2.2.5. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectra. The Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of the samples were recorded in the range of wavenumbers from 400 cm⁻¹ to 4000 cm⁻¹ on the Impact 410 spectrometer.

2.2.6. Determination of CO Conversion. The TPSR temperature surface response program was conducted with a Siemens temperature controller. The CO conversion of the catalytic material performing on the microcurrent device was calculated by the following formula: $H(\%) = (C_f/C_o) \cdot 100\%$, where H is the CO (%) conversion and C_o and C_f are the CO concentrations before and after catalysis, respectively.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. DTA and TGA Spectra of CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ Mixed Oxides. The DTA and TGA spectra of the gel sample with the CF/TA ratio of 1:3 presented in Figure 1. The DTA curve showed the temperature increased from 100 °C to 250 °C. The sample weight decreased by 38.89%, with an endothermic peak at 217 °C. This reduction may be due to the physical evaporation of the adsorbed water on the gel surface [42, 43]. In the temperature range from 250 °C to 550 °C, the sample weight decreased by 34.83% on the TGA curve corresponding to the exothermic peak of 328 °C on the DTA curve, which was caused by the pyrolysis processes of the nitrate salts released O₂ and NO₂ gas; the combustion process of the TA released CO₂ gas and H₂O according to the following reactions (1), (2), and (3) [43, 44]:



When the temperature increased from 550 °C to 900 °C, the sample weight was almost unchanged, showing that the Fe₂O₃-CeO₂ mixed oxide was formed and stable.

3.2. FTIR Spectra of CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ Mixed Oxides. The appearance of vibrations characterized to the bonds of CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ mixed oxide determined via the FTIR spectra. In Figure 2, the FTIR spectra of all samples in the broad absorption range from 3000 cm⁻¹ to 3500 cm⁻¹ appeared a peak at about 3378 cm⁻¹ characterized by the stretching vibration of the O-H group because of the physically adsorbed water; however, this peak intensity decreased gradually as the calcination temperature of samples increased. A peak at about 2337 cm⁻¹ characterized the stretching vibration of adsorbed CO₂ molecules from the air for CF450, CF550, and CF650 samples, and this peak was completely suppressed for CF750 and CF850 samples. The peaks at 1630, 1380, and 1121 cm⁻¹ represented the C=O and C-O stretching vibrations of the -COO- group [42, 43]. At the high calcination temperature, the process of CO₂ separation occurred, so the absorption intensity of the band related to -COO- decreased and expanded into a large halo as on the CF850 sample. It is noteworthy that the appearance of the peak at 529 cm⁻¹ with strong absorption intensity for samples calcined at 850 °C was typical for Fe-O vibrations, the peaks of 643 and 443 cm⁻¹ were characteristic of Ce-O vibrations [42, 43, 45], and the above peaks appeared clear for the CF650 sample. This also shows that the characteristic phases of the CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ mixed oxide were soon formed, and it was also consistent with the result of the TGA-DTA analysis.

3.3. The Role of Calcination Temperature and Metal Ion Molar Ratio in the Structural Phase Formation of CeO₂-Fe₂O₃ Mixed Oxides

3.3.1. The Role of Calcination Temperature. The thermogravimetric analysis shows that the suitable calcination

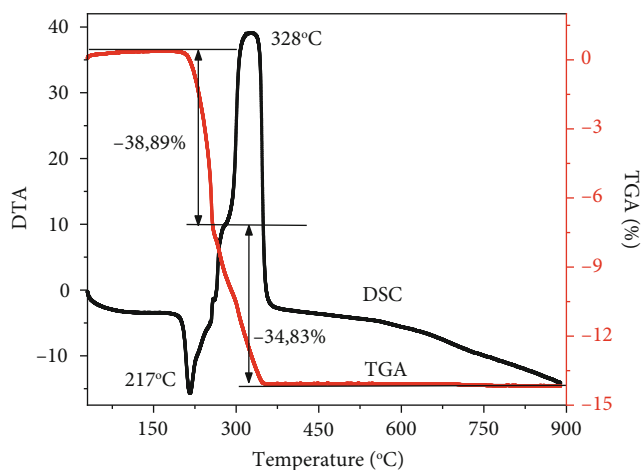


FIGURE 1: TGA and DTA spectra of the gel sample with the CF/TA ratio of 1:3.

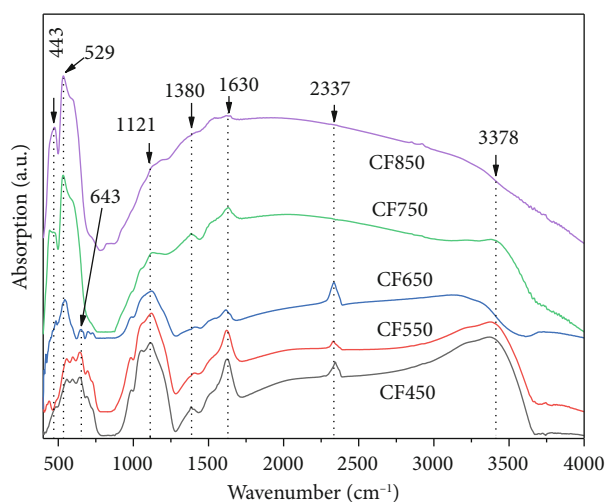


FIGURE 2: FTIR spectra of gel samples with the CF/TA ratio of 1:3 calcined at different temperatures for 2 h.

temperature range was from 450 to 900 °C. Figure 3 presents the XRD pattern of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides calcined at 450, 550, 650, 750, 850, and 900 °C for 2 h. At 450 °C and 550 °C, the XRD pattern of CF450 and CF550 only appeared the (111), (200), and (220) faces corresponding to the 2θ diffraction angles at 28.96°, 33.11°, and 47.47° (JCPDS No. 34-0394), in which the (111) face had the greatest intensity. These faces characterized the face-centered cubic structure of CeO_2 in mixed oxides [36]. Meanwhile, at these calcination temperatures, there were almost no faces that characterized the structural phase of Fe_2O_3 . This may be because the samples had not reached good crystallinity, and the crystal structure was not complete. At 650 °C, the reflection faces characterizing the structural phase of Fe_2O_3 also occurred clearly and intertwined with those of CeO_2 as the represented spectrum of the CF650 sample in Figure 3(b). The (311), (222), (400), (331), (420), (422), and (511) faces corresponded to 2θ diffraction angles of 56.32°, 59.02°, 69.42°, 76.66°, 79.92°, 88.39°, and 95.04° belonged to the CeO_2 crystal structure, but the (012), (110), (024), and (116) faces assigned to 2θ angles of 24.92°, 35.64°, 49.46°, and 54.02°, respectively, representing the hexagonal structure phase of Fe_2O_3 (JCPDS No. 33-0664) [14, 19, 27].

The diffraction intensity on all faces became narrower and stronger as the calcination temperature increased. This meant that the samples had better crystallinity, a complete crystal structure, and larger crystal sizes [46]. However, when the samples calcined to 750 °C and 850 °C, a separating tendency of mixed oxide phase into two single oxide phases of CeO_2 and Fe_2O_3 was happened because of these more thermal stable oxides. Based on the XRD pattern and Brass' formula, it is able to determine the a lattice constant via the (111) face of all the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides, as seen in Table 1.

The results showed that there was a slight increase of the a lattice constant from 5.3385 to 5.3530 Å, corresponding to a slight decrease of the 2θ diffraction angle from 28.96 to 28.89 Å. The increase of the a lattice constant together with the left shift of the 2θ angle indicated that the calcination sample at 450°C had formed in a solution of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide [23]. It is explained that the Fe^{3+} (0.64 Å) ion radius is smaller than the Ce^{4+} (1.01 Å) ion radius, so when the Ce^{4+} ions are replaced by Fe^{3+} ions at some CeO_2 lattice sites, these substitutions cause the shrink of the crystal lattice [36]. In contrast, the partial separation of the CeO_2 phase widened the crystal lattice and shifted the 2θ angle position of the (111) face towards a smaller angle as illustrated by CF450, CF650, and CF850 patterns in the small inset of Figure 3(b). Thus, it can be seen that the change in calcination temperature affected the formation of mixed oxide solution. At 650°C, the crystal was complete with the appearance of both CeO_2 and Fe_2O_3 phases. When the calcination temperature of the sample increased, the mixed oxides had good crystallization and tended to the segregation of single oxide phases.

3.3.2. *The Role of Metal Ion Molar Ratio.* XRD pattern of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides with different CF molar ratios calcined at 650 °C for 2 h, as seen in Figure 4. When the molar quantity of Ce^{3+} ions was more than that of Fe^{3+} ions (CF91 and CF31 samples), the XRD pattern manifested the (111), (200), (220), (311), (222), (400), (331), (422), and (511) faces corresponded to the 2θ diffraction angles of 28.82°, 33.11°, 47.47°, 56.32°, 59.07°, 69.41°, 76.64°, 79.91°, 88.39°, and 95.04° and characterized the crystalline structure phase of CeO_2 (for CF91 and CF31 samples in Figure 4(a)) [14, 19, 27].

This may be because with the calcination condition to 650 °C, and the used Fe^{3+} ion content was smaller in comparison with the Ce^{4+} ion content, so Fe^{3+} ions were dissolved in the crystal lattice of CeO_2 oxide [23]. When the molar quantity of Ce^{3+} ion and Fe^{3+} ions was equal, the characteristic faces of the Fe_2O_3 phase appeared and interwove with those of CeO_2 , and the XRD pattern of CF11 was presented again in Figure 4(b). The presence of the typical (110) face of Fe_2O_3 shows that the mixed oxide has

When the calcination temperature increased, the mixed oxides had good crystallization and tended to the segregation of single oxide phases.

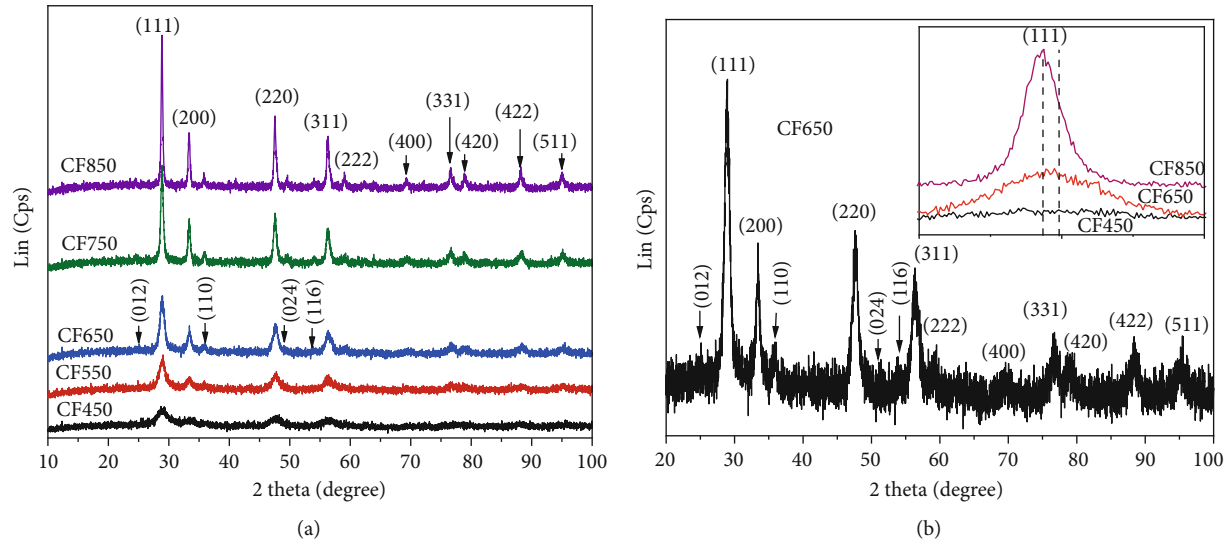


FIGURE 3: XRD pattern of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides. Samples with the CF molar ratio of 1 : 1 calcined at different temperatures for 2 h (a) and CF650 sample was redrawn (b).

TABLE 1: 2θ diffraction angle and a lattice constant of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides calcined at different temperatures for 2 h.

Sample	CF450	CF550	CF650	CF750	CF850
Diffraction angle 2θ (degree)	28.96	28.94	28.92	28.89	28.88
Lattice constant a (Å)	5.3385	5.3422	5.3458	5.3512	5.3530

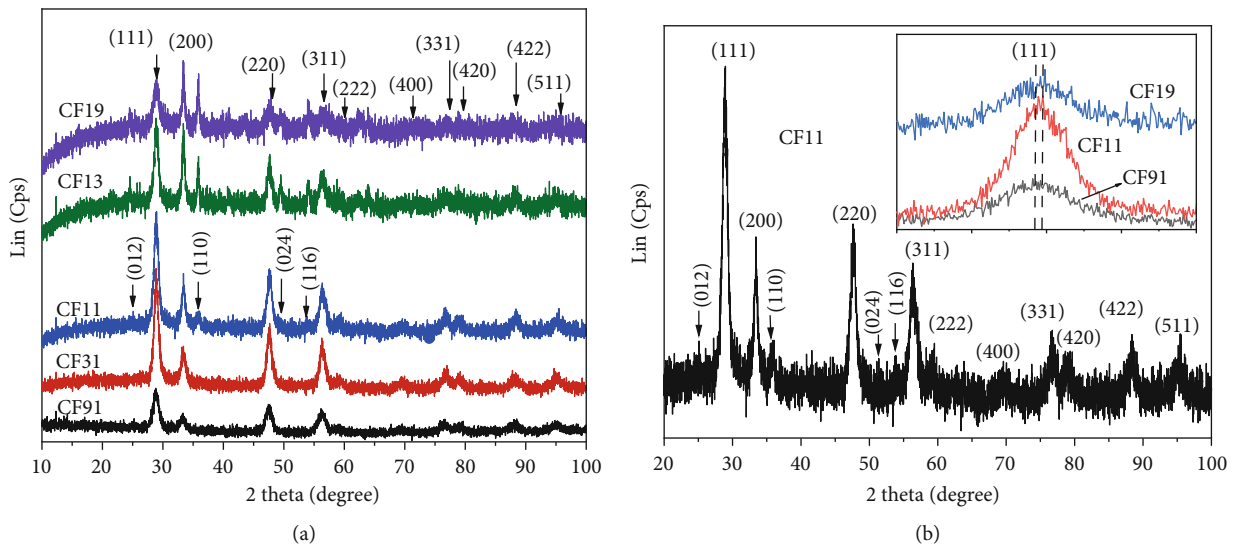


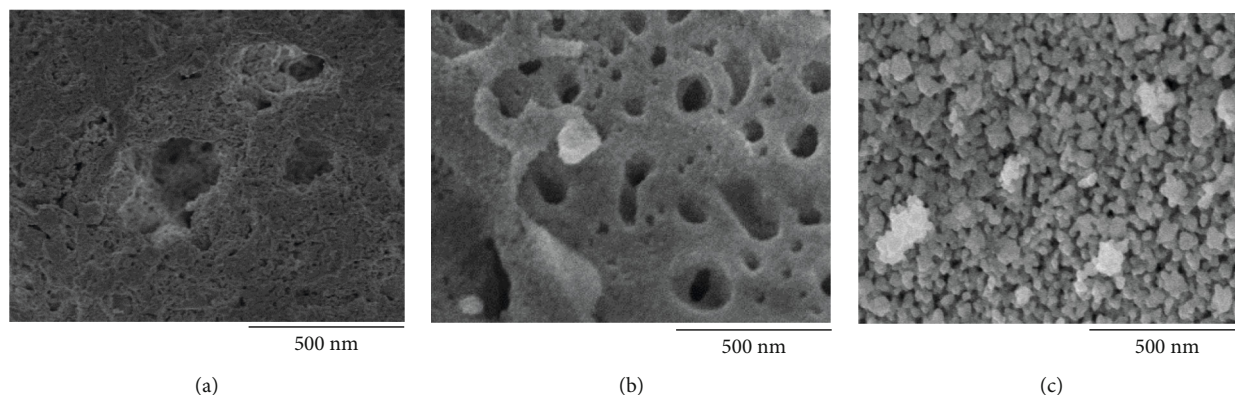
FIGURE 4: XRD patterns of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides. Samples with different CF molar ratios calcined at 650°C for 2 h (a) and CF11 sample was redrawn (b).

separated into phases [47]. When the molar quantity of Ce^{3+} ions was smaller than those of Fe^{3+} ions (for CF13 and CF19 samples), the diffraction intensity on the (110) face became more narrow and stronger. This phenomenon was known that the molar quantity of Fe^{3+} ions in mixed oxides was high, which led to the split gradually mixed oxides into

two individual oxide phases of CeO_2 and Fe_2O_3 [23]. The a lattice constants of CeO_2 were calculated from the (111) face in Table 2. As a result, there was a slight decrease of a lattice constant from 5.3639 Å to 5.3385 Å , while the 2θ diffraction angle of the (111) face shifted towards the greater diffraction angle from 28.82° to 28.98° , respectively. This

TABLE 2: 2θ diffraction angle and a lattice constant of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides with different CF molar ratios calcined at 650°C for 2 h.

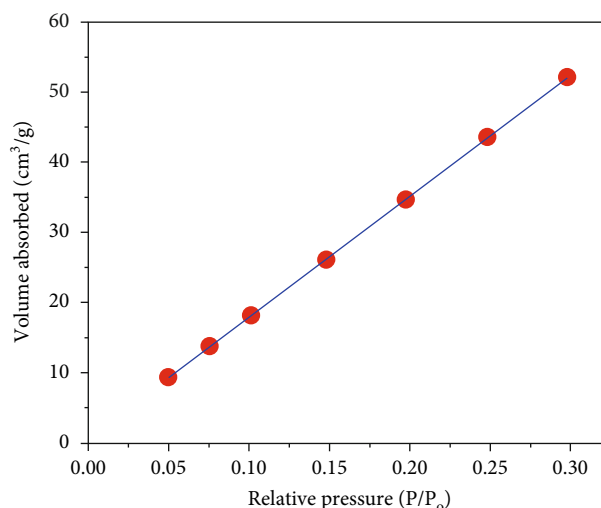
Sample	CF91	CF31	CF11	CF13	CF19
Diffraction angle 2θ (degree)	28.82	28.87	28.92	28.94	28.98
Lattice constant a (Å)	5.3639	5.3548	5.3458	5.3421	5.3385

FIGURE 5: SEM images of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides with the CF ratio of 1:1 calcined at 450°C (a), 650°C (b), and 850°C (c) for 2 h.

shift can observe clearly by CF91, CF11, and CF19, as seen in the small inset in Figure 3(b) [20, 23, 24, 36]. The above results showed that the change in CF molar ratio also affected the formation of the crystal structure phase of the mixed oxides. With a CF molar ratio of 1:1, there appeared characteristic reflection faces for the structural phases of CeO_2 and Fe_2O_3 . When the molar quantity of Fe^{3+} ions were high, the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide tended to separate into two oxide phases of CeO_2 and Fe_2O_3 .

3.4. Morphology of $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3\text{-CeO}_2$ Mixed Oxides. SEM images of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides were shown in Figure 5 with the CF molar ratio of 1:1 which were calcined at temperatures of 450°C , 650°C , and 850°C for 2 h. It is observed that the surface of the CF450 sample was porous. This is the characteristic of materials that are prepared by the combustion method using organic compounds to create gels (Figure 5(a)) [48]. For the CF650 sample, the porous property became clear to many honeycomb-like cavities. It can be explained that the molecular structure of TA consists of strongly polar functional groups $\text{HOOC}(\text{HO})\text{CC}(\text{OH})\text{COOH}$ that played the role of stretching and uniformly dispersing Ce^{3+} and Fe^{3+} ions in solution [49]. At 650°C , the decomposition of the organic component and the pyrolysis of nitrate salts led to a decrease in volume and mass, creating a system of space-connected microcapillary tubes (Figure 5(b)). This created a porous property of mixed oxides as well as the obtained result in other reports [50]. The average crystal size of the oxide was determined to be about 70 nm. For the CF850 sample, the crystals tended to break the spatial porous block into discrete nanosized particles (Figure 5(c)) [42].

From the dependence of $P/[V(P_0 - P)]$ on P/P_0 in the BET equation, the adsorption-desorption isotherm representing the relation between the adsorbed volume and the relative pressure was shown in Figure 6. The linear shape

FIGURE 6: Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide with the CF molar ratio of 1:1 calcined at 650°C for 2 h.

of the isotherm in the low P/P_0 value range indicated that monolayer adsorption occurred on the surface of the porous catalyst, and it is also suitable for the linear region in the range of P/P_0 from 0.05 to 0.35 of this material [51]. The specific surface area of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide, CF650 sample, was determined at about $20.22 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$.

3.5. Process of CO Conversion to CO_2 . The process of CO oxidation by $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide catalysts and the curves of CO conversion according to temperature is described via Figure 7. Under the catalytic temperature condition below 300°C and deficient O_2 gas, the activities of CO oxidation took place [6]. The CF91, CF31, CF13, and CF19

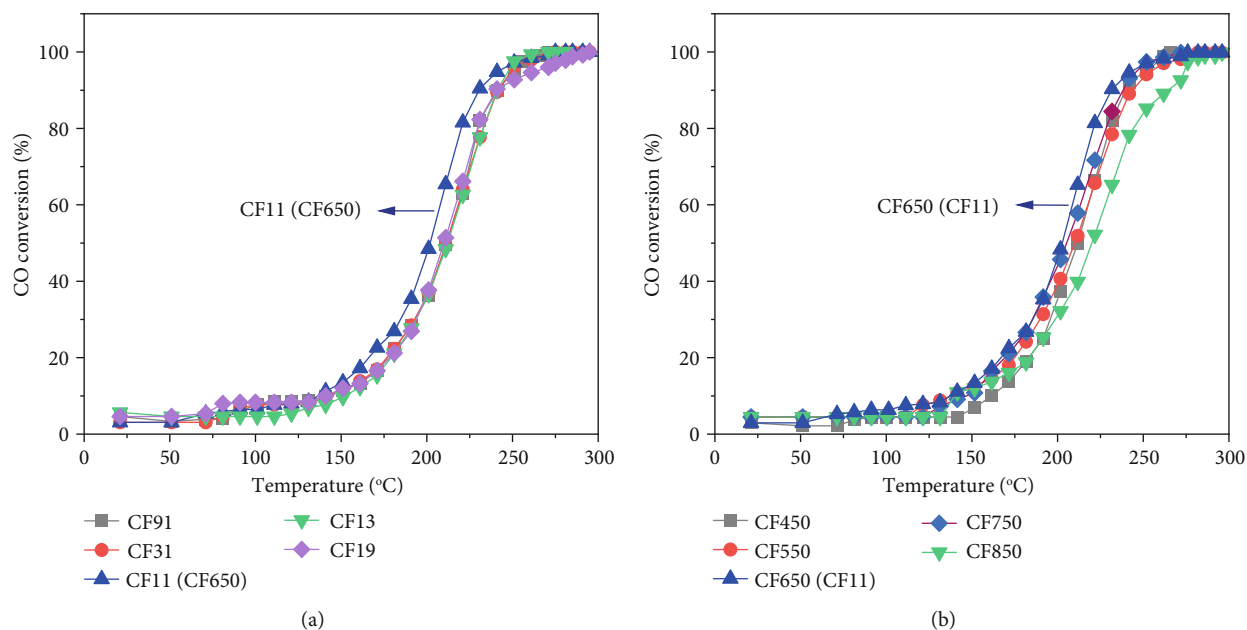
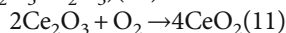
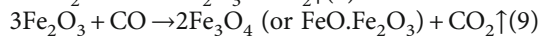
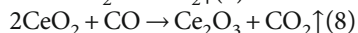
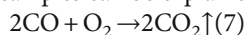


FIGURE 7: CO conversion of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ samples according to temperature. Samples with different CF molar ratios calcined at 650 °C for 2 h (a) and samples calcined at different temperatures for 2 h (b).

samples with the different molar quantities of Ce^{3+} and Fe^{3+} ions shown that the CO conversion curves were similar variation, and the ability of CO conversion was lower than that of the CF11 sample (Figure 7(a)). For the CF11 sample (also named as CF11(CF650) or CF650(CF11)), the CO conversion curve was left-skewed, meaning that at the same catalytic temperature, the CO conversion of the CF11 sample was higher and finished earlier than other samples. This can be because the molar quantity of Ce^{3+} and Fe^{3+} ions was the same, the quantity of O^{2-} ions in the $-\text{Ce-O-Fe}-$ bonds was more dominant than that in two $-\text{Ce-O-Ce}-$ and $-\text{Fe-O-Fe}-$ bonds of other samples, so the catalytic reactions of CF11 sample also happened better than the others [38]. The CO conversion for all samples can be explained by the following reactions:

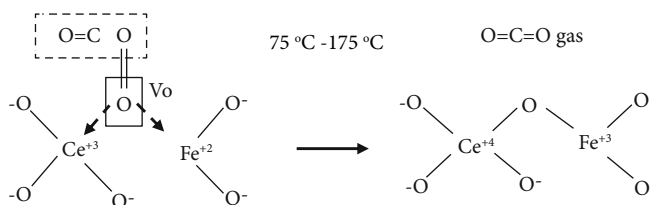


When the catalytic temperature increased from 75 °C to 175 °C, the amount of CO gas was converted about 12%; this may be because a part of CO gas was oxidized by O_2 in (7) [11]. In addition, these reactions can also occur between adsorbed CO and O_2 gases on the surface of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst to emit CO_2 by the J-H mechanism. When the temperature increased from 175 °C to 260 °C, the CO conversion was rapid for all samples but reached the fastest 50% at 211 °C for CF11. The intensification of CO oxidation can be because CO combines with an O^{2-} at the lattice sites in $-\text{Ce-O-Fe}-$, $-\text{Ce-O-Ce}-$ and $-\text{Fe-O-Fe}-$ bonds to release CO_2 by the M-K mechanism in (8) and (9) [27, 29]. The Fe_3O_4 product was a mixture of two $\text{FeO} \cdot \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ oxides, meaning that only a part of Fe^{3+} ions were reduced to Fe^{2+} ions. This low-temperature reaction was also carried out early by another researcher [6].

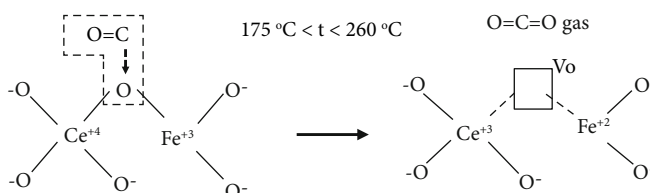
When the temperature was over 260 °C, the CO conversion process slowed down because it needed the recovery of the CeO_2 oxidizing agent from Ce_2O_3 according to (10) and (11) and then reached 100% at 275 °C faster for the CF11 sample. The recovery here was due to the redox potential of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ (0.711 V) < $\text{Ce}^{4+}/\text{Ce}^{3+}$ (1.61 V) [20], so a tendency happened the redox process $\text{Ce}^{4+} + \text{Fe}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Ce}^{3+} + \text{Fe}^{3+}$ [23, 52], or this was also the process of transferring an O^{2-} ion from Ce^{4+} ion to a neighboring Fe^{2+} ion, creating the charge balance [38]. The (11) reaction turned Ce^{3+} into initial Ce^{4+} , which was an important agent that helped Fe ion form a closed-loop bridge of oxidation states by the (9) and (10) reactions as follows: $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 \rightarrow \text{FeO} \rightarrow -\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$. The participation of Fe^{3+} ions in the mixed oxide made the deformation of lattice structure and increased the reaction centers of gases storage and release. Therefore, the conversion of CO to CO_2 became more efficient under low temperatures and O_2 deficiency [4, 5]. It can be seen that thanks to the redox process between Fe^{2+} and Ce^{4+} , the catalyst system was restored to its original properties and was not degraded.

With the same catalytic mechanisms above, among all $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide samples calcined at different temperatures for 2 h, the CO conversion of the CF650 sample was better than all of those (Figure 7(b)). The CF650 curve was also skewed to the left and rapidly reached 100% at 270 °C. It is possible that for the samples CF450 and CF550, the crystallization of the oxides had not been complete, and there were still carbonate components of organic combustion products as analyzed in the TGA-DGT and FTIR spectra, which interfered with the process of CO oxidation. For the CF750 and CF850 samples, the crystal grain size increased, and the surface area decreased, leading to a decrease in the contact and oxidation capacity. Moreover, at high calcination temperature, there was

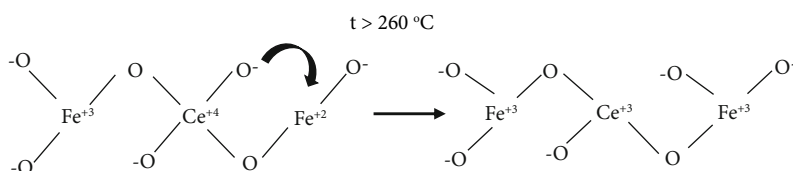
For the J-H mechanism, a CO molecule reacted with adsorbed an O_2 molecule at V_O vacancy to emit a CO_2 molecule (7):



For the M-K mechanism, a CO molecule combined with an O^{2-} ion of the crystal lattice to release a CO_2 molecule and a V_O vacancy (8) and (9):



The transformation of Ce^{+4} to Ce^{+3} and Fe^{+2} to Fe^{+3} (10):



The transformation of Ce^{+4} from Ce^{+3} after an O_2 molecule was captured by a V_O vacancy (11):

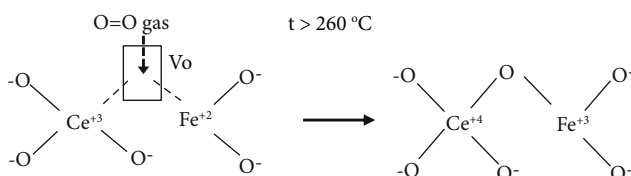


FIGURE 8: The mechanisms of CO oxidation and the oxidation state conversion of metal ions between Ce^{+4}/Ce^{+3} and Fe^{+3}/Fe^{+2} pairs on the $CeO_2-Fe_2O_3$ catalyst surface.

a tendency of phase separation into two single oxides as mentioned in the XRD pattern, so their oxidation ability became less than that of mixed oxide catalysts [23]. Thus, the calcination temperature changed the crystallinity and affected the CO catalytic ability of the $CeO_2-Fe_2O_3$ mixed oxides. From the above arguments, it is able to describe the mechanisms of CO oxidation, capture O_2 , and release O^{2-} ions, creating V_O vacancies on the surface of CeO_2 crystal, as shown in Figure 8.

For the J-H mechanism, a CO molecule reacted with adsorbed an O_2 molecule at V_O vacancy to emit a CO_2 molecule (7):

For the M-K mechanism, a CO molecule combined with an O^{2-} ion of the crystal lattice to release a CO_2 molecule and a V_O vacancy (8) and (9).

The transformation of Ce^{+4} to Ce^{+3} and Fe^{+2} to Fe^{+3} was in (10).

The transformation of Ce^{+4} from Ce^{+3} after an O_2 molecule was captured by a V_O vacancy (11):

TABLE 3: T_{50} and T_{100} temperatures of $CeO_2-Fe_2O_3$ samples. Samples with different CF molar ratios calcined at 650 °C for 2 h (a) and samples calcined at different temperatures for 2 h (b).

a			b		
Sample	T_{50} (°C)	T_{100} (°C)	Sample	T_{50} (°C)	T_{100} (°C)
CF91	211	275	CF450	211	275
CF31	211	275	CF550	211	280
CF11	200	270	CF650(CF11)	200	270
CF13	211	275	CF750	205	275
CF19	211	295	CF850	221	275

The CO conversion temperatures at T_{50} and T_{100} of all $CeO_2-Fe_2O_3$ samples are shown in Table 3. It can show that the change of the CF molar ratio and calcination temperature of samples affected the CO conversion of $CeO_2-Fe_2O_3$ mixed oxide catalysts. The T_{50} and T_{100} temperatures of all

TABLE 4: T_{50} and T_{100} temperatures of CeO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , and $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ oxides cited in some other references.

Oxide	Fabricated method	T_{50}	T_M/T_{100} ($T_M < T_{100}$)	Reference
CeO_2	Polyol method	250°C	350°C	[57]
CeO_2	Combustion method	x	~240°C ^a	[58]
CeO_2	Hydrothermal method	216	~230°C	[22]
CeO_2	Combustion method	330°C	~410°C	[52]
CeO_2	Combustion method	~210°C	~260°C ^b	[48]
CeO_2	Co-precipitation method	500 K	700 K	[23]
CeO_2	Microwave and combustion method	362°C	~475°C	[41]
CeO_2	Hydrothermal method	x	~610 K	[55]
CeO_2	Surfactant-templated method	~230°C	~300°C	[46]
CeO_2	Thermal decomposition method	300°C	x	[40]
CeO_2	Solvothermal reaction method	~320°C	~400°C	[56]
Fe_2O_3	Co-precipitation method	620 K	750 K	[23]
Fe_2O_3	Co-precipitation method	290°C	450°C	[54]
Fe_2O_3	Surfactant-assisted method	~220°C	270°C	[53]
$\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	Co-precipitation method	500 K	600 K	[23]
$\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	Cyclic molecular designed dispersion method	~465 K	548 K	[27]
$\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	Co-precipitation method	x	25°C ^c	[25]
$\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	Hydrothermal method	166°C	~280°C	[19]
$\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	Co-precipitation method	480 K	~575 K	[24]
CeFe_{10}	Thermal decomposition method	203°C	~280°C	[40]
$\text{Ce}_x\text{Fe}_{1-x}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$	Co-precipitation method	250°C	~450°C	[31]
$\text{Ce}_{0.98}\text{Fe}_{0.03}\text{O}_2$	Microwave and combustion method	298°C	~375°C	[41]

^{a,b,c}The maximum CO conversion catalytic temperatures (T_M) of 30%, 70%, and 96.17%, respectively. x is the reaction catalyst temperature that is unknown or out of measurement scale.

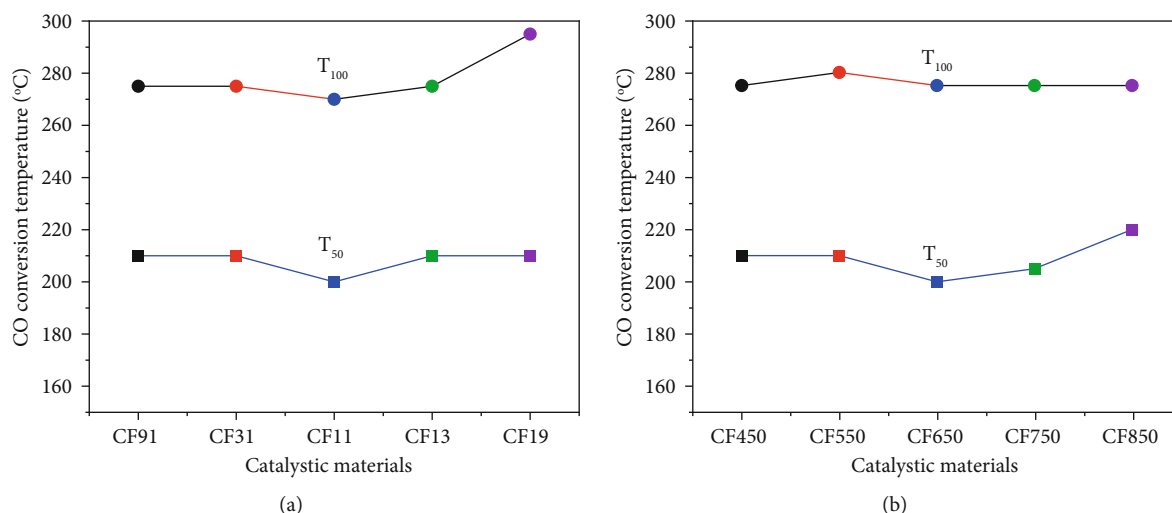


FIGURE 9: T_{50} and T_{100} temperatures of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ samples. Samples with different CF molar ratios calcined at 650 °C for 2 h (a) and samples calcined at different temperatures for 2 h (b).

samples are quite low, so it is considered an advantage of this fabrication method. Of all the samples, the T_{50} and T_{100} temperatures of the CF11 (CF650) samples are 200 °C and 270 °C, respectively, which are lower than those of the other samples (Table 3(a) and 3(b)).

Some publications have shown that the T_{50} and T_{100} of oxide catalysts are different depending on the fabrication method, as shown in Table 4. In some cases, if the single CeO_2 or Fe_2O_3 oxide is used as a catalyst, the T_{50} and T_{100} also decrease quite low [22, 53], but the rest is very high

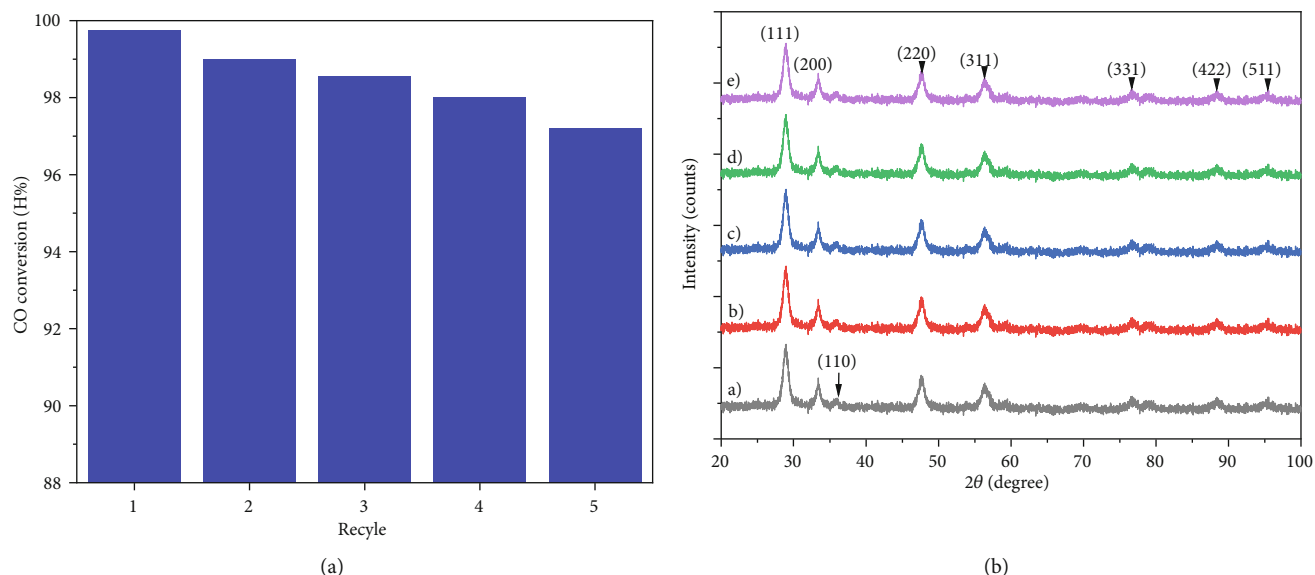


FIGURE 10: CO conversion of sample CF650(CF11) at T_{100} after 5 recycles (a) and corresponding XRD patterns (A) 1st, (B) 2nd, (C) 3rd, (D) 4th, and (E) 5th (b).

[23, 41, 46, 52, 54–56]. For $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst materials, several studies have achieved immediate maximum CO conversion (M) at room temperature but are not capable of 100% CO conversion [25]. Some results are quite similar [19, 27, 40], but the others are very high [23, 24, 31, 41].

The correlation between T_{50} and T_{100} temperatures of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides is shown in Figure 9. It is seen that the T_{50} and T_{100} are quite low for all samples and the conversion ability is the best corresponding to the CF11 sample calcined at 650°C for 2 h.

Figure 10 shows five oxidation cycles at T_{100} that were used to study the structural and mixed catalytic stability of sample CF11(650). After 5 oxidation cycles, the CO conversion efficiency was lowered to 97.18% (Figure 10(a)). This reduction in CO oxidation performance might be attributed to phase separation in the mixed oxide, as evidenced by the presence of the Fe_2O_3 phase at peak (110) (Figure 10(b)).

The studied results showed that Fe^{3+} ions joined in CeO_2 crystal lattice, which has caused the deformation of the lattice structure, increasing the quantity of V_O vacancies. The V_O vacancies acted as the reaction centers, thereby promoting easier oxidation processes. The $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide catalysts are fabricated by the combustion method using gel-created TA matter for CO conversion is effective.

4. Conclusion

$\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides have been prepared successfully by the combustion method using gel-created tartaric acid. The solid solution of $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides formed a molar ratio of Ce^{+3} ions to Fe^{3+} ions of 1:1 at 650°C for 2 h with a uniform average crystal size of 70 nm and a surface area of $20.22\text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$. In particular, the transformation of metal-ion states in $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\text{Fe}^{2+}$ and $\text{Ce}^{4+}/\text{Ce}^{3+}$ pairs through the redox processes have formed a closed loop

of Fe-ion oxidation states: $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 \rightarrow \text{FeO} \rightarrow \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, and maintains the catalytic properties of the $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxides. The participation of Fe-metal ions in $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide solution enhanced the density of V_O vacancies and promoted the catalytic reactions of CO conversion. The choice of Ce^{3+} to Fe^{3+} molar ratio of 1:1 has halved the needed Ce content. The complete conversion of CO into CO_2 has taken place at a low temperature of 270°C under deficient O_2 conditions. The studied results can open a prospect of using $\text{CeO}_2\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ mixed oxide catalysts for simple CO emission incinerators.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Research Article

Graphene Oxide/Fe₃O₄/Chitosan–Coated Nonwoven Polyester Fabric Extracted from Disposable Face Mask for Enhanced Efficiency of Organic Dye Adsorption

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Owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, huge amounts of disposable face masks have been manufactured and used, and these discarded face masks have to be treated. In this study, we propose a simple approach for reusing the nonwoven polyester fabric (NWPF) from disposable face masks. In this approach, NWPF is utilized as a supporter for coating of a layer of graphene oxide/Fe₃O₄/chitosan (GFC) to form a GFC/NWPF adsorbent at room temperature via a simple spray coating method that does not require any solvent. The specific properties of GFC, NWPF, and the GFC/NWPF adsorbent were analysed via X-ray diffraction, transmission electron microscopy, ultraviolet–visible spectroscopy, vibrating sample magnetometry, and field-emission scanning electron microscopy. Results showed that the presence of NWPF enhanced the adsorption capacity of GFC towards organic dyes. At high concentrations of the organic dyes, the adsorption efficiency of the GFC/NWPF adsorbent to the dyes reached 100% within 24 h. The adsorption capacity (q_{\max}) of the GFC/NWPF adsorbent to methylene blue, methyl orange, Congo red, and moderacid red was 54.795, 87.489, 88.573, and 29.010 mg g⁻¹, respectively, which were considerably higher than that of bulk GFC (39.308, 82.304, 52.910, and 21.249 mg g⁻¹, respectively).

1. Introduction

Organic dyes are widely used in many industries, such as textile, paper, rubber, plastic, leather, cosmetic, pharmaceutical, and food industries. However, the wastewater produced by these industries contains dyes and their products that contribute to water pollution, causing negative effects on humans and the environment, such as preventing the absorption of oxygen and sunlight and disrupting the respiration and growth of aquatic organisms. Furthermore, it causes adverse effects on the ability of microorganisms to decompose organic substances in wastewater [1–3]. Therefore, researchers have developed various wastewater treatment methods and have successfully applied them in removing colorants. These methods can be divided into three main categories, namely, biological, chemical, and physical methods [1]. Although physical and chemical methods, such as adsorption, photocatalysis, photocatalytic

decomposition, membrane separation, ultrasonication, and wet air oxidation, are effective, they can only be applied when the concentration of the dissolved substances is sufficiently high. Moreover, some methods are expensive and still produce toxic by-products. By comparison, biological treatment methods include removing dyes via anaerobic and aerobic systems and fermenting activated sludge from filamentous fungi, yeasts, bacteria, and bacterial and fungal biomes. However, these methods also have disadvantages, such as long processing time and poor performance in removing dyes with a durable and a high-molecular polymeric structure. Moreover, the composition of these organic dyes in wastewater often harms the microorganism biomes/populations used in the sludge [4]. Among the aforementioned wastewater treatment methods, adsorption is considered one of the preeminent methods owing to its advantages, such as easy implementation, generation of nontoxic substances during the treatment process, high efficiency, and

low cost [5]. Furthermore, various adsorbent materials from traditional materials can be used in adsorption, such as activated carbon, clay, agricultural by-products, banana peels, straw [5], rice husk [6], and red mud [7].

Graphene oxide (GO) and its composite-based adsorbents are excellent in adsorbing organic compounds, including organic dyes, as well as heavy metal ions [8–14]. GO is notable for its simpler fabrication and easier dispersion in water than other materials [15, 16]. Accordingly, GO is easy to use with a high adsorption efficiency. Functional molecules are utilized to generate functional groups to improve the adsorption capacity of GO to heavy metal ions or organic dyes. Chitosan (CS) molecule has several functional groups, such as primary $-OH$, secondary $-OH$, and $-NH_2$ groups. In these groups, the O and N atoms still have undivided electron pairs, making them the chemically active centres of CS. These groups are considered nucleophilic reagents and can participate in several specialized chemical responses [17] or complexed with almost all heavy metals and transition metals to help separate heavy metals from aqueous media easily [18]. Recently, Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles have been utilized to generate the magnetic property for adsorbents, thereby allowing them to be recovered and reused. In addition, the presence of Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles can improve the porosity of adsorbents [1, 2, 19, 20]. Therefore, GO/ Fe_3O_4 /CS (GFC) materials have excellent adsorption and recovery and regeneration abilities [21–23]. Hence, they are applied in the removal of organic dyes [2] and heavy metal ions [20].

Nonwoven fabric (NWPFs) is widely used in the production of medical disposable face masks and clothes [24–27]. NWPF can be combined with nanomaterials to enhance their properties, such as antibacterial, waterproof, and fire-proof properties [28, 29]. The COVID-19 pandemic has necessitated the manufacturing and use of huge amounts of disposable face masks, and these discarded masks have to be treated [26]. Several recent reports have proposed using the NWPF extracted from discarded face masks and clothes as an adsorbent for the clean-up of waters polluted with petroleum and oil products [30], as a support of photocatalysts [31–33] or as a reinforcement of cement composites [27].

In this study, we propose a new approach for reusing NWPF. In this approach, NWPF is extracted from discarded disposable face masks as a support of a GFC nanocomposite adsorbent. The GFC/NWPF adsorbent is fabricated by coating GFC onto NWPF via a simple and solvent-free spray coating method at room temperature (RT). Results showed that the presence of NWPF enhanced the adsorption capacity of the GFC adsorbent to various organic dyes. Therefore, the GFC/NWPF adsorbent will not only improve the adsorption capacity of GFC but also contribute to the efficient reuse of NWPF.

2. Experimental

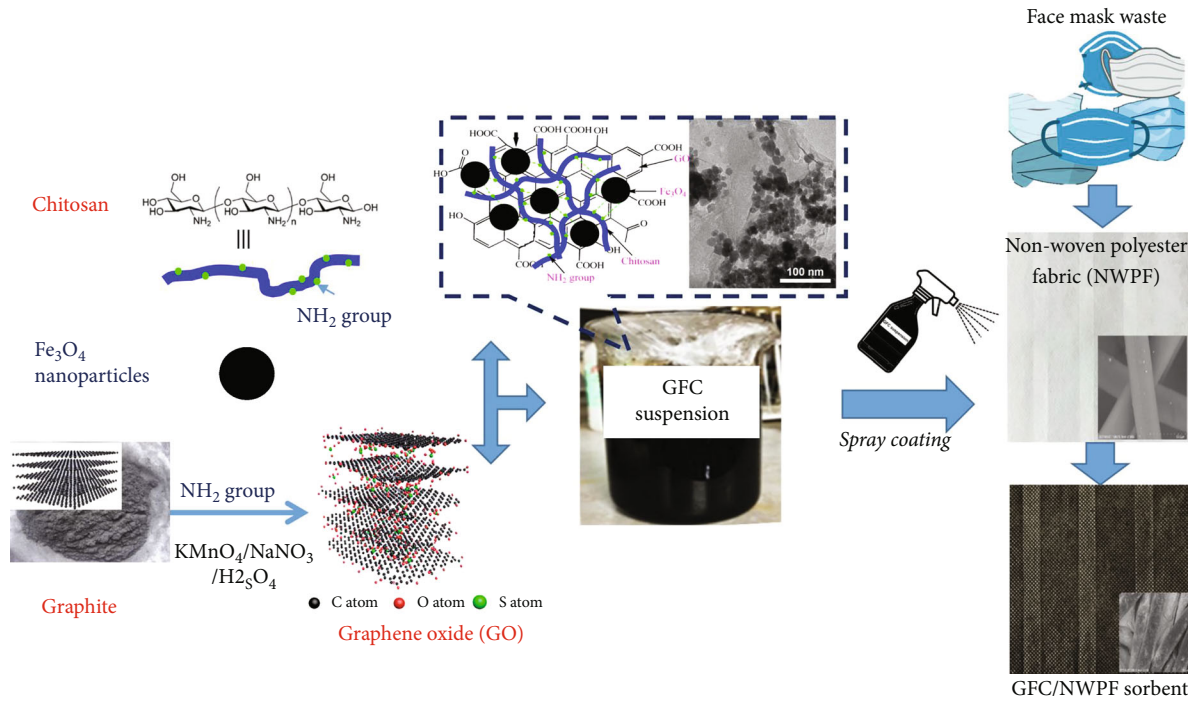
2.1. Chemicals and Reagents. Graphite (99 wt.%, $d = 60$ – $120\ \mu\text{m}$) was purchased from Vietnam Graphite Group (Vietnam). Sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 , 98 wt.%, AR), sodium

nitrate ($NaNO_3$, AR), potassium permanganate ($KMnO_4$, AR), iron (III) chloride hexahydrate ($FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$, AR), iron (II) sulfide heptahydrate ($FeSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, AR), sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 99 wt.%, AR), glacial acetic acid (CH_3COOH , 99 wt.%, AR), and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2 , 33 wt.%, AR) were bought from Xilong Chemical Company (China). Methylene blue (MB), methyl orange (MO), Congo red (CR), and moderacid red (RS) were procured from Van Minh Chemical Company (Vietnam).

GO was prepared from graphite flakes following Hummer's method as described in previous reports [2, 20, 34, 35]. The GO product obtained was characterized via X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Fig. SI.1). CS was prepared from shrimp shells in our laboratory in accordance with a previously published procedure [36]. The deacetylation degree (DD%) of CS was 85.0%; its average molecular weight (M_w) was 32.8 kDa. A $10\ \text{mg mL}^{-1}$ CS solution was prepared by dissolving 5 g of CS in 500 mL of 1% (v/v) acetic acid solution and stirring overnight at RT to obtain a homogeneous and colorless solution. Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles were prepared by coprecipitating a mixture of iron (III) chloride hexahydrate and iron (II) sulfide heptahydrate at the molar ratio of 2:1 [2, 20, 34]. NWPF was extracted from discarded disposable face masks, washed with soap, sonicated with 95% (v/v) ethanol for 5 min, and dried at 80°C .

2.2. Preparation of the GFC/NWPF Adsorbent. The GFC/NWPF adsorbent was manufactured by coating a layer of GFC ink onto NWPF via a simple spray coating method. The GFC ink was prepared by mixing 0.22 g GO, 0.85 g Fe_3O_4 , and 0.36 g CS. Afterwards, the mixture was dissolved in 100 mL 1 wt.% acetic solution and 0.5 mL glycerol by using a homogenizer under ultrasonic conditions for 30 min to obtain a black homogeneous ink of the GFC nanocomposite. The GFC ink was spray-coated onto the NWPF at RT. Finally, the NWPF was dried at 60°C for 2 h. This process was repeated five more times to increase the thickness of the coating. Finally, the NWPF was soaked in 1 M NaOH solution overnight, washed until it reached neutral pH, and dried at 80°C for 24 h to obtain the GFC/NWPF adsorbent. Subsequently, the GFC/NWPF adsorbent was cut into $1\ \text{cm} \times 1\ \text{cm}$ samples for later use. The process of preparing the GFC/NWPF adsorbent is illustrated in Scheme 1.

2.3. Adsorption Procedures. A piece of $1\ \text{cm} \times 1\ \text{cm}$ GFC/NWPF sample (each sample contained 1.49 mg of the GFC powder) was immersed in 10 mL of an organic dye solution (MB, MO, CR, or RS). The mixture was incubated at various contact times at different temperatures. The pH of each solution was adjusted from 2 to 10 by adding 0.1 M HCl and 0.1 M NaOH solutions. The concentration of dye residues in the solution after the adsorption process was measured via UV-Vis spectrometry and by using suitable calibration curves (Figs. SI.3–SI.6). The adsorption capacity of the GFC/NWPF adsorbent to the organic dyes was compared with that of bulk GFC by using 0.0194 g of the GFC powder instead of the GFC/NWPF sample. The dye removal



SCHEME 1: The process of fabricating a new adsorbent by coating graphene oxide/ Fe_3O_4 /chitosan (GFC) coated onto nonwoven polyester fabric (NWPF) extracted from discarded disposable face masks.

efficiency of each composition in the composite was determined by testing various NWPF samples (Table 1). Dye removal efficiency (R , %) was calculated using the following equation (1):

$$R(\%) = \left(\frac{C_o - C_e}{C_o} \right) \times 100. \quad (1)$$

The amount of dye uptake by the GFC absorbent (q_e , mg.g^{-1}) was calculated as follows (equation (2)):

$$q_e = \frac{C_o - C_e}{m_a}. \quad (2)$$

The Langmuir equation (3) and the Freundlich equation (4) isotherms were linearized into the following forms:

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{1}{K_L \times q_{\max}} + \frac{1}{q_{\max}} \times C_e, \quad (3)$$

$$\log q_e = \log K_F + \frac{1}{n} \times \log C_e, \quad (4)$$

where C_o and C_e (mg.L^{-1}) are the initial and equilibrium concentrations of organic dyes in solution, respectively; m_a is the mass of GFC (g.L^{-1}); q_e and q_{\max} are the equilibrium organic dye concentration on the adsorbent and the maximum adsorption capacity of the adsorbent (mg.g^{-1}), respectively; K_L is the Langmuir constant (L.mg^{-1}), which is related to the free energy of adsorption; K_F is the Freundlich constant (L.g^{-1}); and n (dimensionless) is the heterogeneity factor.

2.4. Characterization and Methods. The XRD patterns of each GFC sample were obtained at RT by using a D8 Advance diffractometer (Bruker ASX) with $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) within the range of $2\theta = 10 - 60^\circ$ at a scanning rate of 0.02 s^{-1} . The morphology of the GFC nanocomposite and the GFC/NWPF samples was analysed via TEM (JEOL) at $100 \text{ kV} \times 200,000$ magnification and FE-SEM (Hitachi S-4500), respectively. The magnetic behaviours of the samples were measured via vibrating sample magnetometry (VSM 880, DMS/ADE Technologies, USA) at fields ranging from -10 kOe to 10 kOe at 25°C with an accuracy of 10^{-5} emu . The concentration of organic dye residues in solution after the adsorption process was determined via UV-Vis spectrometry by establishing their calibration curves at the concentrations of $0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, 10$, and 20 mg.L^{-1} . Moreover, the calibration curves were established at pH 4, 5, 7, and 9. Afterwards, the spectra of these solutions were measured via UV-Vis spectrometry by using an Agilent 8453 UV-Vis spectrophotometer system within the wavelength range of $200-1200 \text{ nm}$. Subsequently, their optical density (OD) at the maximum adsorption was used to establish the calibration curves (OD vs. $C_{\text{mg/L}}$). The UV-Vis spectra and calibration curves are shown in the supporting information (SI) from Figs. SI.3 to SI.6.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterization of GFCs. The Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles agglomerated quite strongly because of their large specific surface energy; thus, the nanoparticles tended to agglomerate to reduce the surface energy (Figure 1(a)). The thickness of GO sheets was thin, only over $5 \mu\text{m}$ in size (Figure 1(b)).

TABLE 1: Removal efficiency (R%) of MB and MO by various coated NWPF samples at different pH levels.

Sample codes		M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9
Compositions	NWPFs	+(^a)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	GO	—(^b)	+	—	—	+	+	—	+
	CS	—	—	+	—	—	+	+	+
	Fe ₃ O ₄	—	—	—	+	+	—	+	+
Acidic medium	R%(^c) for MB	31.71	103.70	31.08	26.71	34.68	31.65	25.64	27.04
	R% for MO	4.55	34.65	31.48	14.95	26.07	27.97	57.01	53.51
Neutral medium	R% for MB	29.20	101.32	25.78	35.69	91.54	35.08	31.66	40.33
	R% for MO	4.58	20.73	17.78	6.73	14.67	6.68	9.64	8.19
Basic medium	R% for MB	35.08	105.37	39.78	39.78	99.25	99.82	46.63	86.66
	R% for MO	6.59	17.95	8.49	7.15	13.67	10.99	6.89	7.59

(^a)Presence; (^b)absence; (^c)removal efficiency (R%).

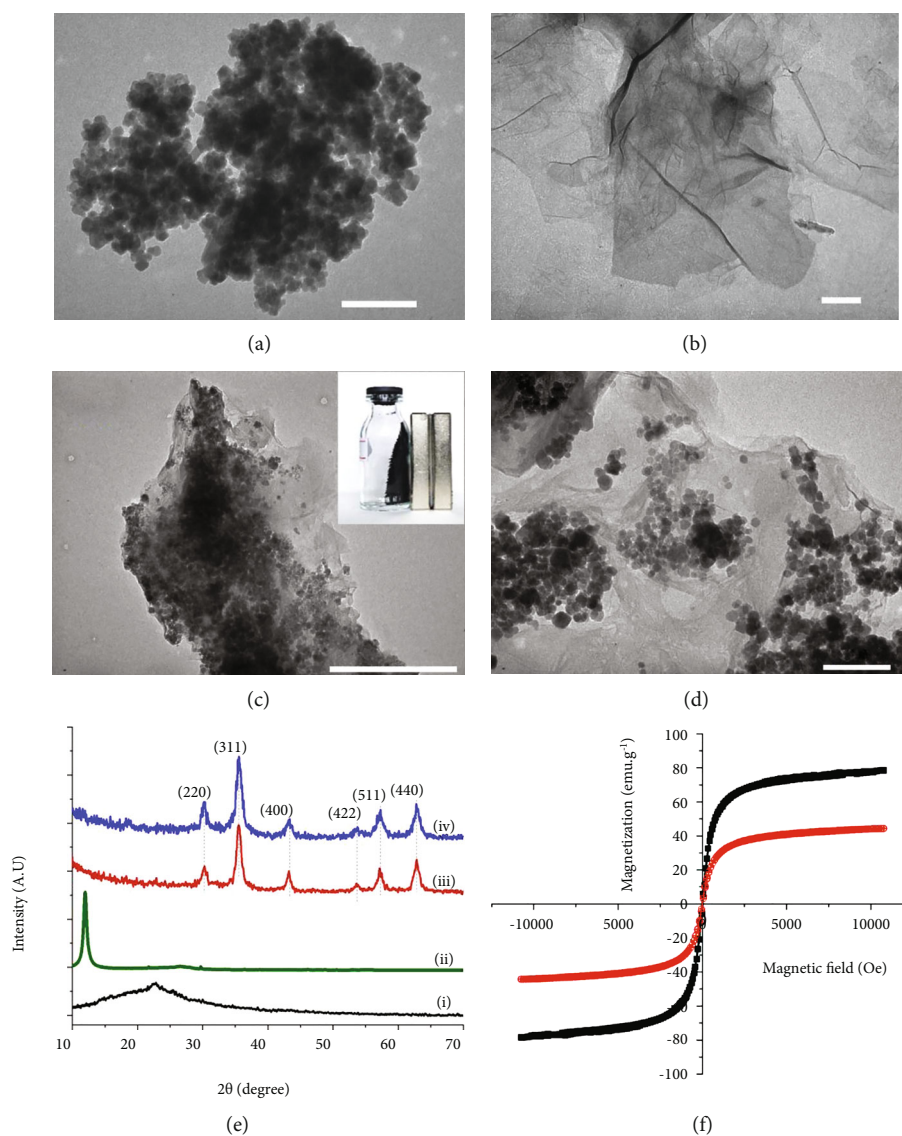


FIGURE 1: (a–d) TEM images of (a) Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles, (b) GO, and (c, d) GO/Fe₃O₄/CS (GFC) nanocomposite (inset: magnetic property of GFC nanocomposite); (e) XRD patterns of (i) CS, (ii) GO, (iii) Fe₃O₄, and (iv) GO/Fe₃O₄/CS; (f) VSM of (i) Fe₃O₄ and (ii) GO/Fe₃O₄/CS.

Spherical ferromagnetic particles of a fairly uniform size with an average diameter of about 30 nm scattered on the surfaces of GO and CS attached onto the thin GO sheets (Figures 1(c) and 1(d)). These spherical particles helped the Fe_3O_4 particles to attach onto the GO layer tightly. TEM results indicated that the GFC materials were successfully synthesized. No obvious peak could be observed from the XRD spectrum of CS (Figure 1(e), curve (i)). By contrast, a strong intensity peak (001) at $2\theta = 11.90^\circ$ could be observed from the XRD spectrum of GO (Figure 1(e), curve (ii)). The peak (002) of graphite at $2\theta = 27^\circ$ disappeared (Fig. SI.1b), indicating that GO was successfully synthesized. These results were similar to those of a previous study [37]. Both the XRD spectra of Fe_3O_4 (Figure 1(e), curve (iii)) and $\text{GO}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{CS}$ (Figure 1(e), curve (iv)) indicated that the synthesized Fe_3O_4 material was a single phase and had a low diffraction baseline, suggesting a complete crystalline phase. In the XRD spectrum of bare Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles (Figure 1(e), curve (iii)), six diffraction peaks appeared at 30.10° , 35.40° , 43.10° , 53.40° , 57.00° , and 62.50° , which corresponded to the (220), (311), (400), (422), (511), and (440) peaks of Fe_3O_4 (JCPDS File, PDF No. 65–3107) [11, 13, 22, 23], thereby confirming the formation of the magnetic spinel nanocrystal phase of Fe_3O_4 . Comparing with that of pure Fe_3O_4 , the diffraction spectrum of the $\text{GO}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{CS}$ sample retained the peaks of Fe_3O_4 . Thus, CS and GO coatings did not affect the phase change in Fe_3O_4 . The extension line in the figure was evaluated using the Debye–Scherrer equation, which describes the relationship between the width in XRD spectrum and particle size, as follows: $d = (k\lambda/\beta\cos\theta)$, where d is the thickness of the crystal, $k = 0.89$ (the Debye–Scherrer constant), $\lambda = 0.15406$ nm (X-ray wavelength), β is the width at half-height of the peak, and θ is the Bragg angle. The average crystal size of Fe_3O_4 in the bare Fe_3O_4 sample was 30 nm, whereas that of the calculated sample was 35 nm. This result was consistent with the TEM images (Figure 1). The magnetic property of GFC was tested with magnets. GFC exhibited strong interactions with the magnets (Figure 1(c), inserted figure). Theoretically, CS and GO are nonmagnetic. Thus, the magnetic property of the $\text{GO}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{CS}$ material was due to the presence of Fe_3O_4 . The magnetization curves of the Fe_3O_4 and $\text{GO}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{CS}$ samples (Figure 1(f)) demonstrated that they have superparamagnetic properties. The magnetic saturation (M_s) of the Fe_3O_4 sample was $\sim 80 \text{ emu g}^{-1}$ (Figure 1(f), curve (i)), whereas that of the GFC sample was $\sim 40 \text{ emu g}^{-1}$ (Figure 1(f), curve (ii)). Therefore, the coverage of CS and GO on the Fe_3O_4 particles substantially reduced the magnetization. As results show, the M_s of the GFC sample was still high (40 emu g^{-1}); thus, it was able to coat NWPF and endowed GFC/NWPF with magnetic properties to separate the GFC/NWPF after absorption process using an external magnet for the regeneration and circulation. According to the FTIR spectra of CS and GFC (Fig. SI.2), the main specific groups in CS included an adsorption at 3578 cm^{-1} , which was attributed to the stretching vibration of the O–H group; a band at approximately 2881 cm^{-1} , which was ascribed to the stretching vibration of C–H; and characteristic adsorption bands at 1674 and 1589 cm^{-1} , which corresponded to

C=O stretching and N–H blending in the amide groups, respectively [38–41]. However, in the FTIR spectrum of GFC, these specific bands of amide groups shifted to 1597 , 1516 , and 1394 cm^{-1} , respectively. The presence of amine and amide groups on the GFC surface plays an important role in organic dye removal [38–43].

3.2. Characterization of NWPF and the GFC/NWPF Absorbent. The $\text{GO}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{CS}$ materials were coated onto NWPF via a simple spray coating method. Five coats were applied to create a sufficiently thick and even coating. The mass density (d , g cm^{-2}) of the GFC coated onto the 1 cm^2 NWPF samples was calculated as follows:

$$d = \frac{m_{\text{GFC(g)}}}{S_{\text{NWPF}}(\text{cm}^2)}, \quad (5)$$

where m_{GFC} is the amount of GFC used for coating (g) and S_{NWPF} is the total area of NWPF covered (cm^2). In this experiment, $m_{\text{GFC}} = 0.22 \text{ g}$ of GO + 0.85 g of Fe_3O_4 + 0.36 g of CS ($= 1.43 \text{ g}$) and $S_{\text{NWPFs}} = 959 \text{ cm}^2$; hence, $d = 1.49 \text{ mg GFC cm}^{-2}$.

SEM images of NWPF and the GFC/NWPF absorbent are shown in Figure 2. The polyester fibres in NWPF were slippery and even, their surface was smooth, and it consisted of overlapping nonwoven fibres that were pressed by heat (Figures 2(a), 2(c), 2(e), and 2(g)). By comparison, after GFC was coated onto NWPF, the surface of the polyester fibres in the GFC/NWPF absorbent became rough and rugged (Figures 2(b), 2(d), 2(f), and 2(h)), and the coating cracked at some points (Figures 2(d), 2(f), and 2(h)). Moreover, the size of the fibres considerably increased. By contrast, the GO sheets (Figures 2(d) and 2(h)) and the Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles (Figure 2(h), inserted figure) became rumpled. These results indicated that GFC was successfully coated onto the surface of NWPF via the simple spray coating method adopted herein. Thus, this method can be employed in fabricating GFC/NWPF absorbents on a large scale.

3.3. Adsorption of Organic Dyes on GFC and GFC/NWPF Absorbents

3.3.1. Optimization of Adsorption Conditions. The adsorption conditions were optimized including the pH and compositions of the GFC/NWPF absorbent to enhance its adsorption of organic dyes. Eight coated NWPF samples with different compositions were prepared (Table 1). Their ability to absorb MB (a cationic dye) and MO (an anionic dye) was evaluated at different pH 5, 7, and 9. Organic dyes can be classified into three types: cationic organic dyes with a positive charge, anionic organic dyes with a negative charge, and nonionic organic dyes with no charge. Therefore, the adsorption of the dyes onto the adsorbents can be achieved via electrostatic interactions between dye ions and groups of opposite charge as the functional groups on an adsorbent's surface. However, this classification is only relative because an organic dye can be an anionic or a cationic dye depending on the environment (pH) (Table 2). The surface of the GFC/NWPF absorbent had abundant amine groups

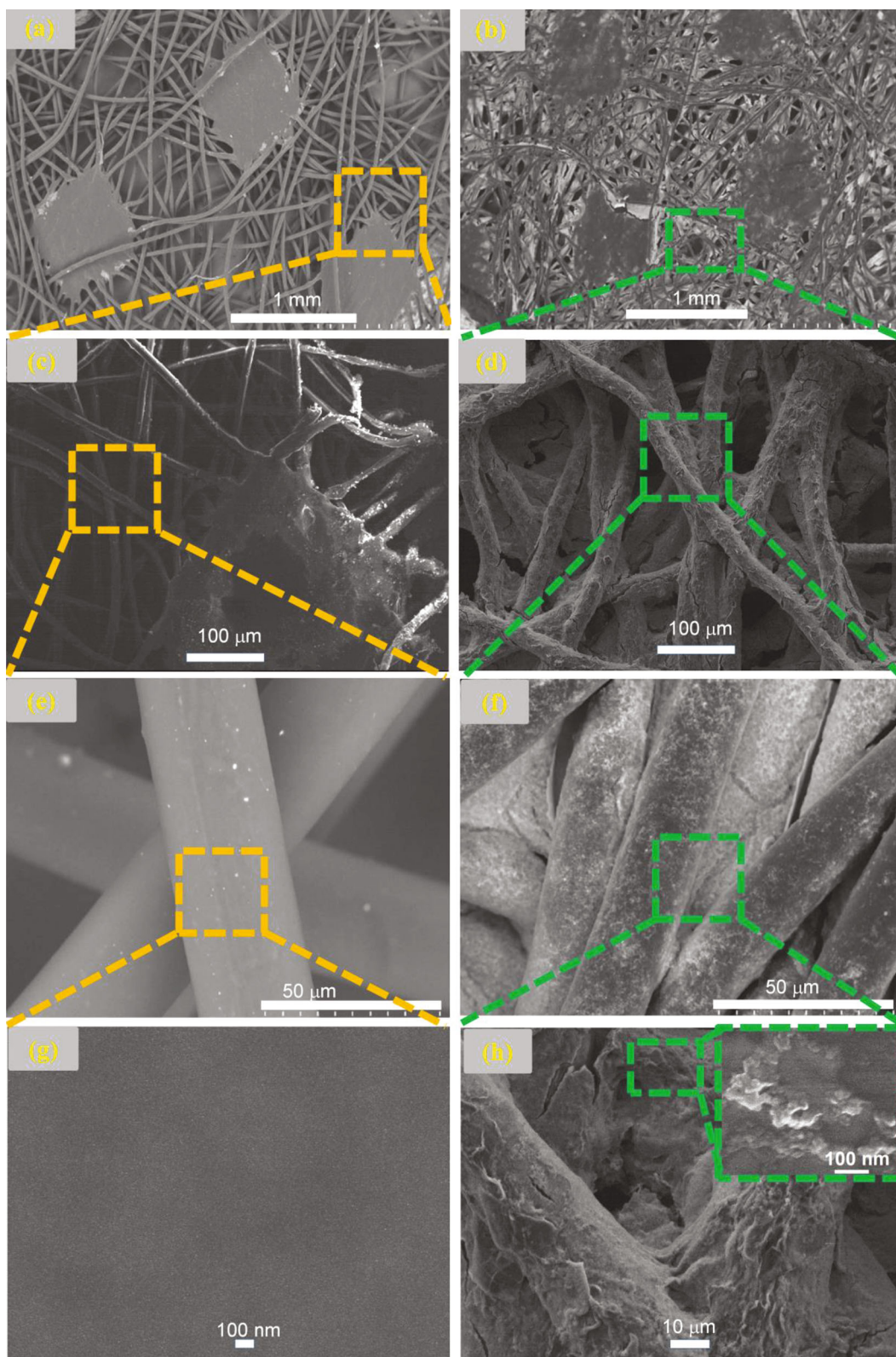


FIGURE 2: SEM and FESEM images of (a, c, e, g) NWPF and (b, d, f, h) GFCs/NWPF.

($-\text{NH}_2$) from CS and $-\text{COOH}$. The $-\text{OH}$ groups of GO are suitable for nonionic dyes when they are in a neutral environment. In an acidic environment, these groups will become $-\text{NH}_3^+$, $-\text{COOH}_2^+$, and $-\text{OH}_2^+$; thus, they are suit-

able for absorbing MO, RS, and CR. Moreover, in an alkaline environment, these functional groups will become $-\text{NH}_2$, $-\text{COO}^-$, and $-\text{O}^-$, respectively, which are suitable for absorbing MB [1, 2, 35, 44–47].

TABLE 2: Comparison of the adsorption capacity of the adsorbents assessed herein.

Dyes	Conditions	Adsorbents	Adsorption model		Freundlich	Comparison of q_{\max} (mg g ⁻¹) with that of other adsorbents
			Langmuir			
Methylene blue (MB)	pH = 9, RT, $T = 2$ h	GFC/NWPFs	$C_e/q_e = 0.018 * C_e + 0.096$ $R^2 = 0.980$ and $q_{\max} = 54.795$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.108 * \log C_e + 1.245$ $R^2 = 0.927$		GO- β -cyclodextrin-chitosan@Fe ₃ O ₄ : $q_{\max} = 84.32$ mg g ⁻¹ [52]; CS/Fe ₃ O ₄ /GO: $q_{\max} = 30.01$ mg g ⁻¹ [2]; Fe ₃ O ₄ /C core-shell structure: $q_{\max} = 44.38$ mg g ⁻¹ [53]
		GFC	$C_e/q_e = 0.025 * C_e + 0.125$ $R^2 = 0.970$ and $q_{\max} = 39.308$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.193 * \log C_e + 1.245$ $R^2 = 0.742$		
Methyl Orange (MO)	pH = 4, RT, $T = 2$ h	GFC/NWPF	$C_e/q_e = 0.011 * C_e + 0.401$ $R^2 = 0.9108$ and $q_{\max} = 87.489$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.736 * \log C_e + 0.550$ $R^2 = 0.990$		γ -Fe ₂ O ₃ /chitosan composite film: $q_{\max} = 29.41$ mg g ⁻¹ [54]; amine/Fe ₃ O ₄ -resin composite: $q_{\max} = 101$ mg g ⁻¹ [55]
		GFC	$C_e/q_e = 0.012 * C_e + 0.569$ $R^2 = 0.878$ and $q_{\max} = 82.304$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.753 * \log C_e + 0.411$ $R^2 = 0.978$		
Congo red (CR)	pH = 4, RT, $T = 2$ h	GFC/NWPF	$C_e/q_e = 0.011 * C_e + 0.905$ $R^2 = 0.947$ and $q_{\max} = 88.573$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.725 * \log C_e + 0.310$ $R^2 = 0.994$		XG-g-PAM/SiO ₂ nanocomposite: $q_{\max} = 209.2$ mg g ⁻¹ [56]; spherical microparticles MgO-GO: $q_{\max} = 227$ mg g ⁻¹ [57]
		GFC	$C_e/q_e = 0.019 * C_e + 0.212$ $R^2 = 0.945$ and $q_{\max} = 52.910$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.388 * \log C_e + 1.020$ $R^2 = 0.9342$		
Moderacid red (RS)	pH = 4, RT, $T = 2$ h	GFC/NWPF	$C_e/q_e = 0.034 * C_e + 0.433$ $R^2 = 0.939$ and $q_{\max} = 29.010$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.548 * \log C_e + 0.545$ $R^2 = 0.963$		Fe ₃ O ₄ nanoparticles and amine/Fe ₃ O ₄ -resin composite: $q_{\max} = 40.2$ and 99.4 mg g ⁻¹ , respectively [55]; Fe ₃ O ₄ @GPTMS@P-Lys: $q_{\max} = 134.7$ mg g ⁻¹ [58]
		GFC	$C_e/q_e = 0.047 * C_e + 0.902$ $R^2 = 0.899$ and $q_{\max} = 21.249$ mg g ⁻¹	$\log q_e = 0.560 * \log C_e + 0.297$ $R^2 = 0.871$		

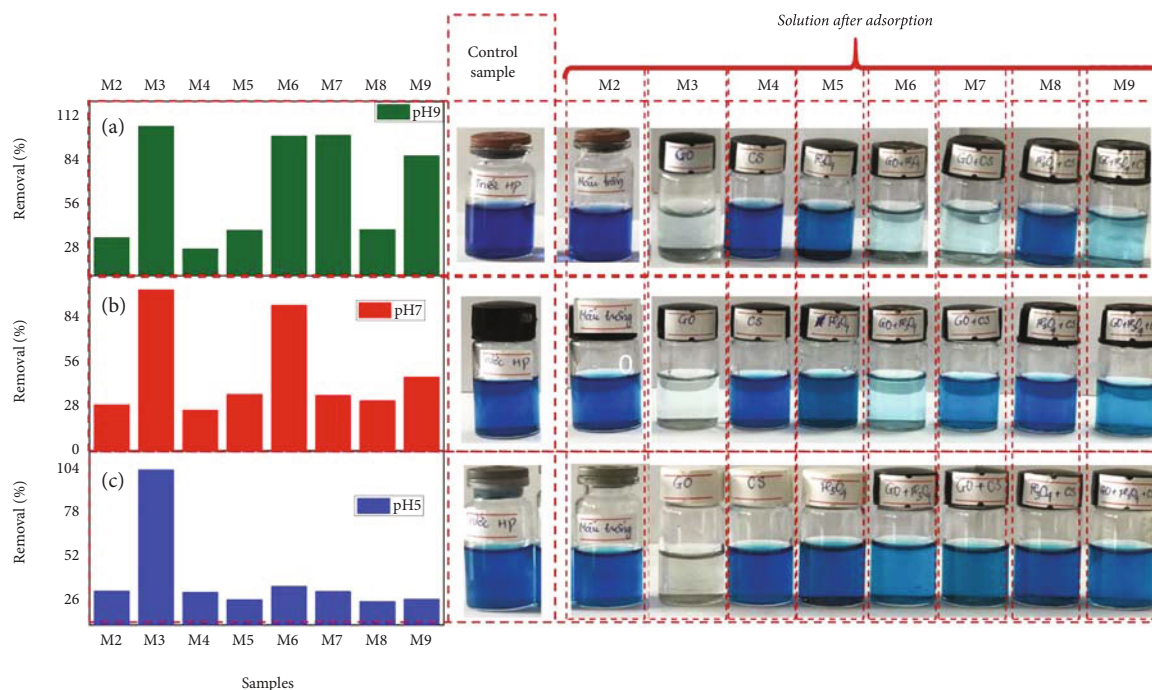


FIGURE 3: Effects of pH on MB adsorption onto the GFC/NWPF absorbent: (a) pH 5, (b) pH 7, and (c) pH 9 (inserted images: corresponding color of MB solutions before and after the adsorption process).

Figure 3(a) shows that GO/NWPF sample (coded M3) adsorbed MB very well for all medium with removal efficiency ($R\%$) which was 100%. Besides, all adsorbents containing GO, i.e., GO/ Fe_3O_4 /NWPFs (coded M6), GO/CS/NWPFs (coded M7), and GFC/NWPFs (coded M9) samples, performed good adsorption MB in basic medium (pH 9) with the highest $R\%$ values that were obtained, which were 99%, 99%, and 86%, respectively. On the contrary, without GO, the $R\%$ values were low for MB adsorption on NWPFs (coded M2) or CS/NWPFs (coded M4), or Fe_3O_4 /NWPFs (coded M5) or CS/ Fe_3O_4 /NWPFs (coded M8) samples. Figure 3 also shows that the $R\%$ values were higher than that for neutral medium (pH 7) (Figure 3(b)) or acidic medium (pH 5) (Figure 3(c)). Obtained results imply that, for efficiency removal of MB in solution, the adsorption process should be carried out in alkaline medium, and GO presented in GO/CS/NWPFs played an important role towards MB removal.

In removing the anionic dye MO (Figure 4), the $R\%$ values for all samples were very low ($<20\%$) at pH 9 (Figure 4(a)) and 7 (Figure 4(b)). However, in an acidic medium (pH 5), their $R\%$ values were higher (Figure 4(c)). The $R\%$ value for MO adsorption onto the M6 (GO/ Fe_3O_4 /NWPF) and M7 (GO/CS/NWPF) samples was 26%–27%. Furthermore, the $R\%$ value was 31%–35% for the M3 (GO/NWPF) and M4 (CS/NWPFs) samples and 53%–58% for the M8 (CS/ Fe_3O_4 /NWPF) and M9 (GFC/NWPFs) samples. The $R\%$ values were very small for MO adsorption onto the M2 (NWPF) (4%) and M5 (Fe_3O_4 /NWPF) (14%) samples. These data indicated that MO removal was more difficult to achieve than MB removal in the systems proposed herein. This difference can be attributed to the structure of MO: it

has two oppositely charged centres, namely, a positively charged centre from $-\text{N}^+(\text{CH}_3)$ and a negatively charged centre from $-\text{SO}_3^-$. Hence, both CS (which contains $-\text{NH}_3^+$) and GO (which contains $-\text{COO}^-$ and $-\text{OH}_2^+$) play an important role in MO adsorption via electrostatic interactions. Therefore, the M9 sample (GFC/NWPF, which contained both CS and GO components) was able to satisfactorily remove anionic dyes (including MO, RS, and CR) in the acidic medium (pH 5). The attractive forces required to adsorb dye molecules (MB, MO, CR, and RS) onto the surface of the GFC/NWPF adsorbent were not only attributed to electrostatic interactions; it also included due to π - π stacking interactions, i.e., the strong interaction between the π -conjugated electron systems of MB, MO, CR, and RS molecules (Table SI.1) with the π -conjugated electrons of GO via π - π stacking interactions [1, 2, 31, 32, 42, 43, 48–51]. Accordingly, increasing the content of GO improved the adsorption capacity (q_{max}). However, increasing the content of GO should be limited owing to economic (the price of the adsorbent will increase) and technical (the release of GO from the adsorbent into the solution should be avoided) considerations.

The effects of the absorbents' components on dye adsorption capacity were evaluated. Five coated NWPF samples (S1, S2, S3, S4, and S5) were fabricated and tested for MB adsorption (Figure 5). Figure 5(a) shows the UV-Vis spectrum of the MB solution after adsorption by GFC powder for 2 h at RT and pH 9. The S1, S2, S3, S4, and S5 samples had compositions of GO, Fe_3O_4 , and CS by mass ($m_{\text{GO}}:m_{\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4}:m_{\text{CS}}$) of 50:40:10, 50:10:40, 0:50:50, 10:60:30, and 10:40:50, respectively. The adsorption efficiency of each sample was very different: the samples with

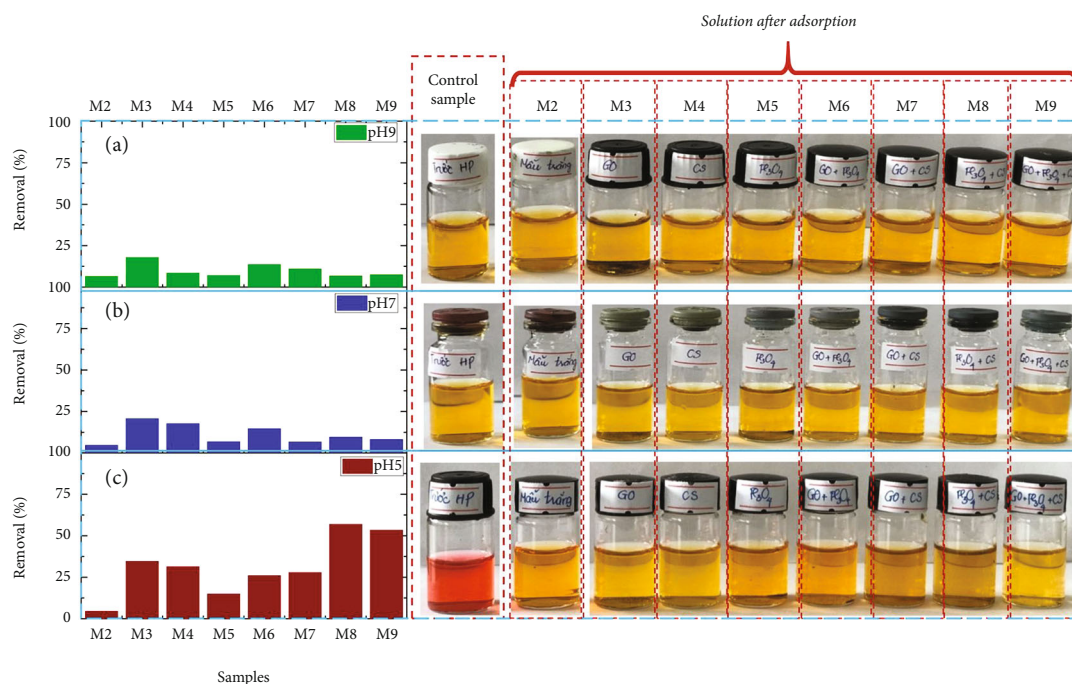


FIGURE 4: Effects of pH on MO adsorption onto the GFC/NWPF absorbent: (a) pH 5, (b) pH 7, and (c) pH 9 (inserted images: corresponding color of MO solutions before and after the adsorption process).

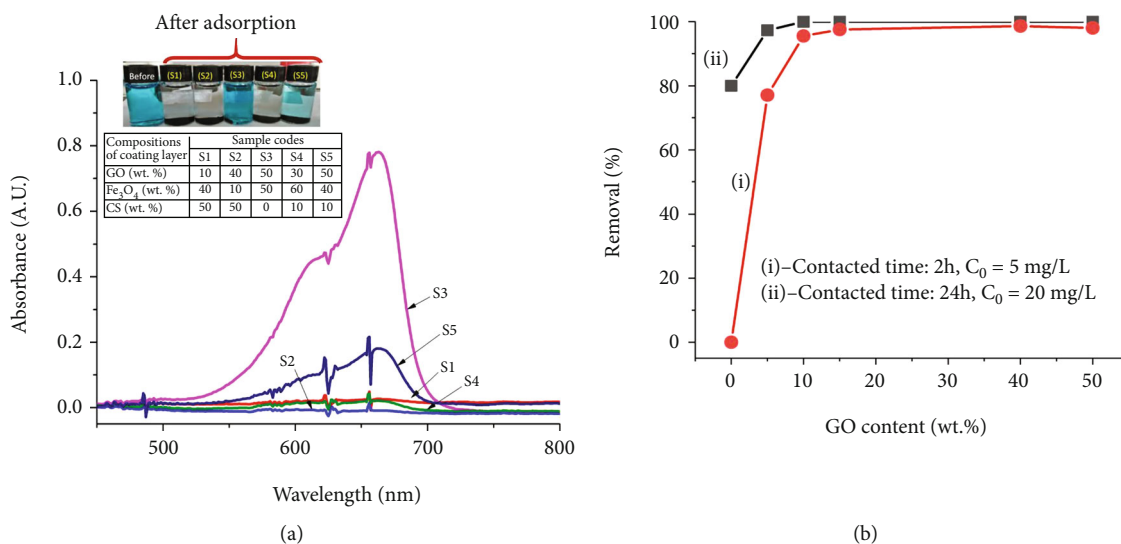


FIGURE 5: (a) UV-Vis spectra of samples after adsorption of MB solutions (inserted images are the colors of the MB solutions before and after adsorption onto GO/Fe₃O₄/CS [percent by weight, wt.%]: S1 [50:40:10], S2 [50:10:40], S3 [0:50:50], S4 [10:60:30], and S5 [10:40:50]). (b) Influence of GO content on MB removal at various times and (i) $C_0 = 5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ and (ii) $C_0 = 20 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$.

high GO content (S1 and S2) had very large adsorption capacity ($R\%$ was 98.03% and 98.0%, respectively). When doped with Fe₃O₄ and CS, the efficiency of the samples with low GO content substantially increased. The S4 sample had only 10% GO, but its adsorption efficiency was large ($R\%$ was 95.55%). However, when excessive amounts of CS were added, the $R\%$ value dramatically decreased to 77.08% in the S5 sample (containing 50 wt.% CS) and even down to 0% in the S3 sample (containing 0 wt.% GO and 50 wt.% CS).

Adding excessive amounts of CS considerably reduced the porosity of the materials. Therefore, GO should be added as much as possible while limiting the content of CS to 10 wt.%–40 wt.%. However, the production costs of GO are high. Thus, instead of adding 40 wt.%–50 wt.% of GO to remove MB at $R\% > 90\%$ in 2 h, $R\% > 90\%$ can still be achieved when 10 wt.% of GO is added by simply extending the adsorption time to 24 h (Figure 5(b)). When the content of GO was increased from 20 wt.% to 50 wt.%, the value of

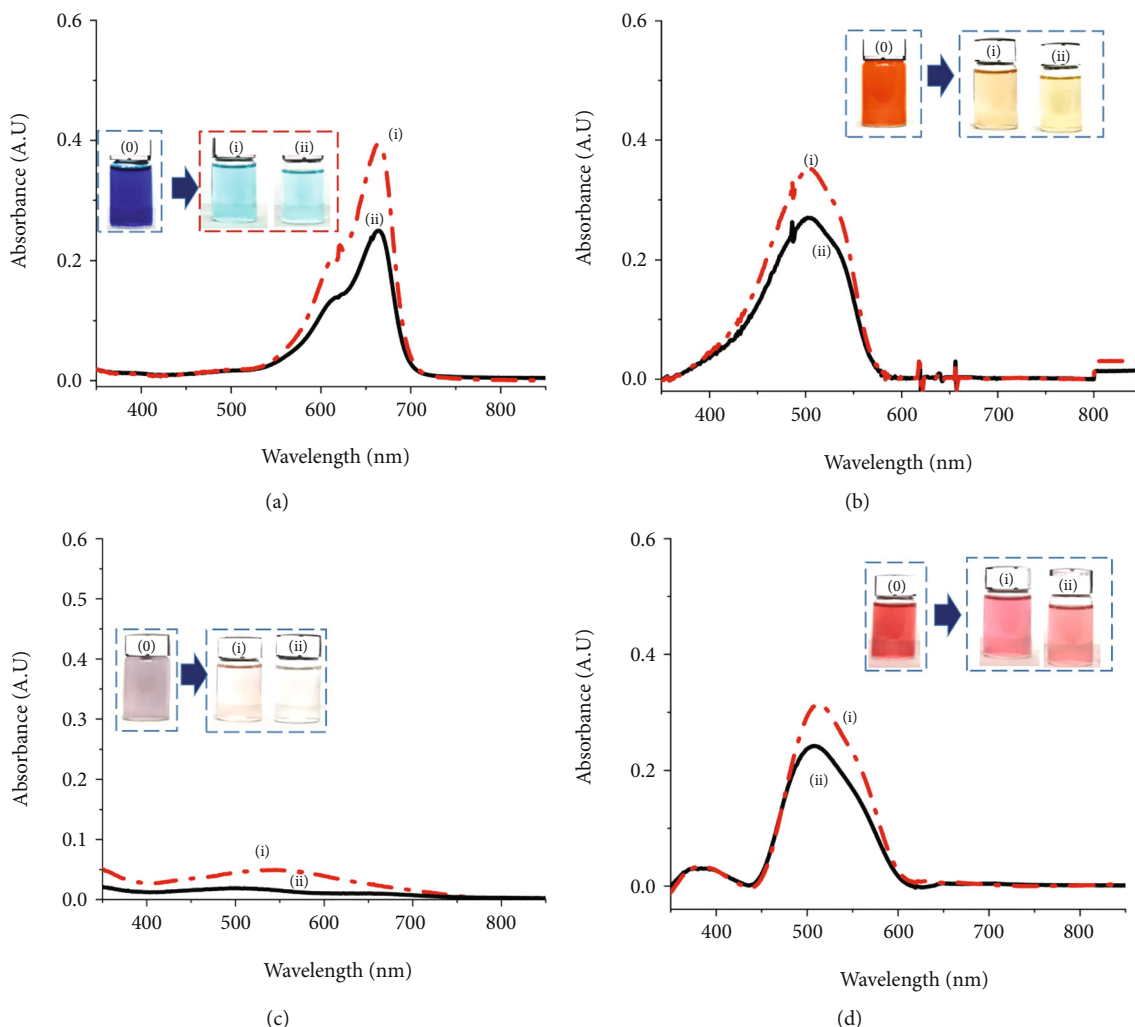


FIGURE 6: UV-Vis spectra of colorant solutions after adsorption of (a) MB, (b) MO, (c) CR, and (d) RS onto (i) GFC (red dot-dash) and (ii) GFC/NWPF (black solid) (inserted image: color of colorant solutions before and after adsorption).

R% did not increase (Figure 5(b)). Therefore, the addition of 10 wt.% of GO is the best level that achieves the optimum technical-economic efficiency.

3.3.2. Comparison of the Adsorption of MB, MO, CR, and RS onto the GFC/NWPF Absorbent and Bulk GFC. The adsorption efficiency of bulk GFC was compared with that of the GFC/NWPF absorbent under the same conditions with the same amount of GFC converted. Both the powder and coated samples achieved very good adsorption efficiency for MB, MO, CR, and RS, and the color of the solutions was almost completely eliminated (Figure 6). In all cases, the GFC/NWPF samples seemed to remove the colorants better than the GFC: R% was 97.98% and 96.11% for MB (Figure 6(a)), 96.25% and 94.86% for MO (Figure 6(b)), 97.15% and 84.47% for CR (Figure 6(c)), and 83.68% and 78.22% for RS (Figure 6(d)), respectively. Differences in color could also be observed with the naked eye (pictures inserted in the figures). This result confirmed that coating GFC is necessary to improve its adsorption performance.

3.3.3. Adsorption Isotherms of MB, MO, CR, and RS onto the GFCs/NWPF Absorbent. The adsorption isotherms of MB, MO, RS, and CR on both bulk GFC and the GFC/NWPF absorbent were built according to the Langmuir and Freundlich models by using equations (3) and (4) (Table 2 and Figs. SI.7–SI.10). On the basis of the correlation coefficient (R^2), the process by which the organic dyes absorb on both bulk GFC and the GFC/NWPF absorbent was more consistent with the Langmuir model than with the Freundlich model. The maximum adsorption capacity (q_{\max}) of the GFC/NWPF absorbent for all organic dyes was higher than that of bulk GFC (Table 2). Results indicated that the presence of NWPF enhanced q_{\max} . Compared the absorption efficiency for MB, MO, RS, and CR of the various reported materials, the q_{\max} values for MB or MO of the developed hybrid materials herein including bulk GFC and the GFC/NWPF adsorbents are competitive and lower for RS and CR adsorption (Table 2). However, an advantage of the developed bulk GFC and GFC/NWPF adsorbents is they can be made via a simple synthesis process.

4. Conclusions

NWPF was extracted from discarded disposable face masks and used as a support to prepare a GFC nanocomposite-based adsorbent. GFC was successfully onto NWPF. The presence of NWPF enhanced the adsorption efficiency of GFC for the organic dyes MB, MO, CR, and RS. In all cases, the coating improved the adsorption performance of the GFC materials. The adsorption efficiency of the GFC/NWPF adsorbent for these organic dyes was higher than that of bulk GFC with the same mass. Obtained results demonstrated that the adsorption efficiency of the GFC/NWPF adsorbent was different for MB, MO, CR, and RS dyes and can be competitive to previously reported materials implying that the GFC/NWPF adsorbent has a high application potential.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Supplementary Materials

Table IS.1: molecular structure and some specific properties of MB, MO, CR, and RS. Figure SI.1: characterizations of GO: (a) UV-Vis spectrum (inserted figure: digital photo of GO solution and GO flakes), (b) XRD, (c, d) SEM, (e) FE-SEM, and (f) TEM images. Figure SI.2: FT-IR spectra of (a) chitosan (CS) and (b) graphene oxide/Fe₃O₄/chitosan (GFC). Figure SI.3: right, UV-Vis spectra of MO solution at various MO concentrations and left, corresponding calibration curves for MO determination at various pH: (i) pH = 4, (ii) pH = 5, (iii) pH = 7, and (iv) pH = 9. Figure SI.4: right, UV-Vis spectra of MB solution at various MB concentrations and left, corresponding calibration curves for MB determination at various pH: (i) pH = 5, (ii) pH = 7, and (iii) pH = 9. Figure SI.5: (i) UV-Vis spectra of CR solution at various CR concentrations and (ii) corresponding calibration curves for CR determination at pH = 4. Figure SI.6: (i) UV-Vis spectra of RS solution at various RS concentrations and (ii) corresponding calibration curves for CR determination at pH = 4. Fig. SI.7: adsorption isotherm according to (a, c) Langmuir and (b, d) Freundlich models of MB on (a, b) GFCs/NWPFs and (c, d) bulk GFCs, respectively. Fig. SI.8: adsorption isotherm according to (a, c) Langmuir and (b, d) Freundlich models of MO on (a, b) GFCs/NWPFs and (c, d) bulk GFCs, respectively. Fig. SI.9: adsorption isotherm according to (a, c) Langmuir and (b, d) Freundlich models of CR on (a, b) GFCs/NWPFs and (c, d) bulk GFCs, respectively. Fig. SI.10: adsorption iso-

therm according to (a, c) Langmuir and (b, d) Freundlich models of RS on (a, b) GFCs/NWPFs and (c, d) bulk GFCs, respectively. (*Supplementary Materials*)

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Research Article

Characterization of Co^{2+} - and Fe^{3+} -Codoped TiO_2 Nanomaterials for Photocatalytic Degradation of Organic Pollutants under Visible Light Irradiation

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In this study, TiO_2 nanomaterials were prepared using a solvothermal method and codoped with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} ions for the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants under visible light. The physicochemical properties of the obtained materials were studied by powder X-ray diffraction, field emission electron scanning microscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, and nitrogen adsorption isotherms. Optical absorption was characterized by UV-vis absorption spectroscopy. The photocatalytic activities of the prepared materials were evaluated through methylene blue (MB) degradation under visible light irradiation. Results showed the excellent performance of MB degradation investigated on TiO_2 samples codoped with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} in comparison with undoped and Co^{2+} -doped TiO_2 samples. The codoped TiO_2 samples degraded 85%–90% of MB after 120 min, whereas all the prepared TiO_2 samples were composed of pure anatase phase and had a spherical-like shape and mean crystalline size ranging from 6.2 nm to 7.8 determined by Scherrer's equation. The optical absorption of the TiO_2 codoped with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} was significantly enhanced toward the visible light region. The pseudo-second-order kinetic model fits well for the degradation of MB on as-prepared TiO_2 codoped with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} .

1. Introduction

The development of metal oxide nanoparticles has been extensively attracted as adsorbents and photocatalysts for the treatment of dye-containing wastewater [1–3]. Titanium dioxide (TiO_2) nanoparticles have considerable attention because of their long-term stability, low cost, and nontoxicity [4]. However, the major drawback of TiO_2 is a large bandgap energy (~3.2 eV and 3.0 eV for anatase and rutile phases, respectively), and it requires ultraviolet (UV) irradiation (wavelength, $\lambda < 387$ nm) for activation. Many attempts have been conducted to extend the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 from a UV to visible light region (wavelength, λ : 400–700 nm). Doping of TiO_2 with transition metals or nonmetals is the most promising approach used to activate it due to the bandgap energy reduction [5]. Tran-

sition metals can provide additional energy levels within the bandgap of a TiO_2 photocatalyst. Electron transfer from one of these levels to the conduction band requires lower photon energy than those of undoped TiO_2 [6]. Various transition metal ions have been studied to dope with TiO_2 , including Co [7], Fe [8], Cr [9], Ni [10], and V [11], etc. Furthermore, many researchers have also focused on codoping of TiO_2 with two or more metal ions for enhancement of photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants under solar light irradiation such as Mn and Co [12]; Ni and Cr [13]; Fe, Co, and S [14]; and Fe and Pr [15]. It indicated that codoped TiO_2 could expand its light absorption range toward visible light and thus enhance its photocatalytic efficiency, which is higher than that of single-doped TiO_2 . It was reported that Mn^{2+} - and Co^{2+} -codoped TiO_2 could degrade about 97% of enoxacin, which was higher than that of Co^{2+} single-

doped TiO_2 (degradation percentage $\sim 48\%$) after 80 min of exposure to solar light [12]. A recent work also demonstrated that Ni/Cr-codoped TiO_2 exhibited a higher efficiency of 95.6% for MB degradation after 90 min under sunlight, compared to Ni-doped TiO_2 (Ni-doped TiO_2 degraded $\sim 28\%$ – 59% of MB depending on the amount of Ni doping) [13]. The photocatalytic degradation of Acid Orange 7 azo dye under visible light using Fe^{3+} - and Pr^{3+} -codoped TiO_2 was much more enhanced compared to undoped TiO_2 and Fe^{3+} -single-doped TiO_2 [15]. Those studies indicated that the photocatalytic activity of doped TiO_2 material is greatly dependent on the nature of the dopant ions and their doping concentration and preparation, in which optimal conditions for the synthesis decide the ability of nanomaterials applied for the photodegradation of organic pollutants in wastewater. Fe^{3+} has been considered the best dopant among the transition metals used for increasing the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 thanks to its similar radius to Ti^{4+} (0.63 Å and 0.60 Å, respectively). TiO_2 doping with Co^{2+} showed excellent degradation activity of dye molecules; however, the optimal concentration of Co^{2+} is needed to enhance activity, because the high percentage of Co^{2+} leads to a reduction in the photocatalytic activity [14].

In this study, we aimed to synthesize and characterize TiO_2 nanoparticles codoped with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} ions using the solvothermal method. The effect of the doping concentration of Co^{2+} was investigated to determine the optimal condition for preparing a photocatalyst with high activity in the visible light region. The obtained nanomaterials were investigated by various physicochemical methods, including XRD, FE-SEM, EDXS, nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms, and UV-vis absorption. Photocatalytic activities of prepared nanomaterials were evaluated for degradation of methylene blue (MB). Our results indicated that the prepared TiO_2 materials codoped with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} showed a highly photocatalytic efficiency compared to single-doped TiO_2 . This nanomaterial could be an effective alternative for the treatment of wastewater in the textile industry.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Chemicals and Preparation. All chemicals were of analytical grade and used as received without further purification. Tetraisopropyl orthotitanate ($\text{Ti}(\text{i-OC}_3\text{H}_7)_4$), acetylacetone ($\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{O}_2$), ethanol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$), and methylene blue $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{18}\text{ClN}_3\text{S}$ (MB) were obtained from Merck. Cobalt (II) acetate tetrahydrate ($(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2\text{Co}\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and iron (III) nitrate nonahydrate ($\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$) were purchased from China. Double-distilled water was used for preparing all solutions.

Single doping of TiO_2 with Co^{2+} and codoping with Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} were conducted by the solvothermal synthesis. The obtained samples were referred to as TiO_2 - $x\%$ - Co - $y\%$ - Fe , with x and y showing the molar Co/Ti and Fe/Ti ratio in the starting materials, respectively. In a typical experiment, a mixture consisting of 14.5 mL of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ and 0.5 mL of $\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{O}_2$ was stirred for 15 min. The mixture was slowly added with 2.96 mL of $\text{Ti}(\text{i-OC}_3\text{H}_7)_4$ as a precursor

and stirred for another 30 min (mixture 1). Desired amounts of $(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2\text{Co}\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were dissolved in another mixture consisting of 5 mL of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, 1 mL of $\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{O}_2$, and 0.18 mL of H_2O for 30 min. The mixed solution was then dropped into mixture 1 with continuous stirring for 30 min and then transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave maintained at 180°C for 12 h. The product was washed several times with double-distilled water until pH 7, dried at 100°C for 24 h, and ground on agate mortar. Single-doped and codoped TiO_2 samples were designated as TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -2.5%Co, TiO_2 -5%Co, TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe. TiO_2 nanoparticles were also prepared as a control and denoted as undoped TiO_2 .

2.2. Material Characterization. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the prepared TiO_2 samples were recorded with a D8 ADVANCE Bruker Diffractometer within 2θ range of 20° – 80° with a scan step of $0.03^\circ\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ under $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 0.154056\text{ nm}$). The surface morphology of the TiO_2 samples and representative doped TiO_2 samples was observed by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Hitachi S-4800, Japan). The average nanoparticle sizes were calculated from the scanning electron microscopic (SEM) images by using ImageJ software. The elemental composition of the samples was analyzed through energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS, Nova NanoSEM 450, FEI). The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of the representative TiO_2 samples were measured at -196°C with a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 apparatus. The total surface areas of the samples were determined by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method, and the pore size distribution was determined through the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method using desorption curves. UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded on the Jasco V-670 spectrometer.

The photocatalytic activity of the prepared TiO_2 samples was evaluated by degradation of MB under visible light irradiation. A 250 W Osram mercury lamp equipped with a UV cut-off filter was used as a visible light source. In a typical experiment, 40 mg of the prepared TiO_2 sample was added into a 100 mL quartz photoreactor containing 50 mL of $14\text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ MB solution. The reaction mixture was then stirred in the dark at a constant speed of 150 rpm for 30 min to reach the adsorption-desorption equilibrium. The resulting mixture was irradiated under the visible light source for up to 120 min. After predefined intervals (30, 60, 90, and 120 min), the samples were removed from the photoreactor and centrifuged. The residual concentration in the supernatant was measured with a UV-vis spectrometer (Agilent 8453, USA) at a wavelength of 665 nm. MB concentration was determined using a linear regression equation obtained by plotting a calibration curve of MB within a range of known concentrations. The photocatalytic ability of the TiO_2 samples was evaluated through the percentage of MB degradation as follows:

$$\text{Degradation percent} = \frac{C_0 - C}{C_0} \cdot 100\%, \quad (1)$$

where C_0 is the initial concentration of MB and C is the remaining concentration of MB at a specific time of measurement.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterization of the Synthesized Materials. The XRD patterns of the synthesized samples (undoped, single-doped, and codoped TiO_2) are shown in Figure 1. The results demonstrated the formation of monocrystalline TiO_2 in the anatase phase in all samples. The XRD pattern of undoped TiO_2 samples (Figure 1(a)) shows typically crystalline peaks at $2\theta = 25.1^\circ$, 37.67° , 47.71° , and 54.11° corresponding to crystal planes (101), (111), (200), and (211), respectively, which can be indexed to the anatase phase of TiO_2 (JCPDS card no. 21-1272). For single-doped and codoped TiO_2 samples, those diffraction peaks are observed at $2\theta = 25.22^\circ$, 25.25° , 25.30° , 25.34° , and 25.37° ; 37.85° , 37.90° , 38° , 38.09° , and 38.12° ; 47.82° , 47.88° , 47.92° , 47.99° , and 48.11° ; and 54.35° , 54.41° , 54.44° , 54.46° , and 54.51° (see Figures 1(b)–1(f)) for TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -2.5%Co, TiO_2 -5%Co, TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe, respectively. The data indicated that the typical peaks of the anatase TiO_2 in single-doped and codoped TiO_2 samples were slightly shifted to higher values than those of undoped TiO_2 samples. The codoped TiO_2 samples (Figures 1(e) and 1(f)) exhibited a decrease in peak intensity and slight broadening of the peaks compared with those of undoped TiO_2 and single-doped TiO_2 samples (Figures 1(a)–1(d)). Moreover, no characteristic peaks attributed to cobalt and iron compounds were detected in the XRD patterns, which can be attributed to the very low dopant amount in the samples. The observations suggested that Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+} cations were successfully introduced into the lattice of TiO_2 . The average particle sizes of the samples were calculated from the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the (101) diffraction peak according to the Debye–Scherrer equation [16]:

$$D = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (2)$$

where λ is the X-ray wavelength (0.15406 nm), β is the line width at half maxima of peaks, and θ represents the Bragg angle of X-ray diffraction. The obtained results (Table 1) showed that the average particle sizes of all samples were at a nanosized scale ranging from 6.2 nm to 7.8 nm. The single-doped and codoped TiO_2 samples had a smaller size than the undoped TiO_2 samples. The undoped TiO_2 samples had the largest mean particle size of 7.8 nm. Among the three Co-doped TiO_2 samples, TiO_2 -1%Co samples had the smallest particle size with a mean particle size of 6.8 nm. The average particle size of Co-doped TiO_2 samples increased from 6.8 nm to 7.5 nm with an increasing Co/Ti molar ratio from 1% to 5% in the samples. The high doping amount of Co resulted in an increase in the particle size, which was attributed to the larger radius of Co^{2+} (0.74 Å) than that of Ti^{4+} (0.60 Å). Therefore, the Co/Ti molar ratio of 1% was considered to be optimal. This ratio was further used to prepare TiO_2 codoped with Co and Fe with varying

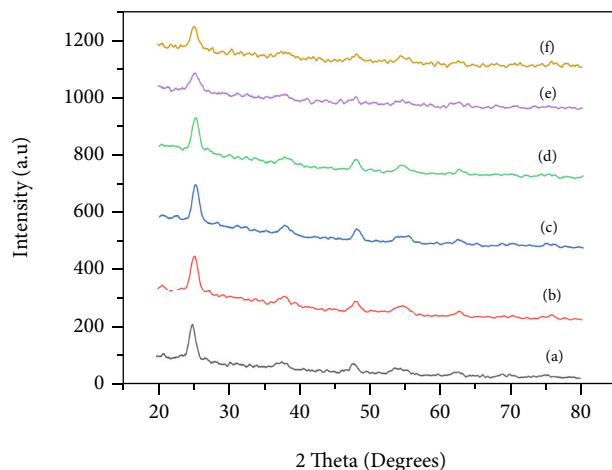


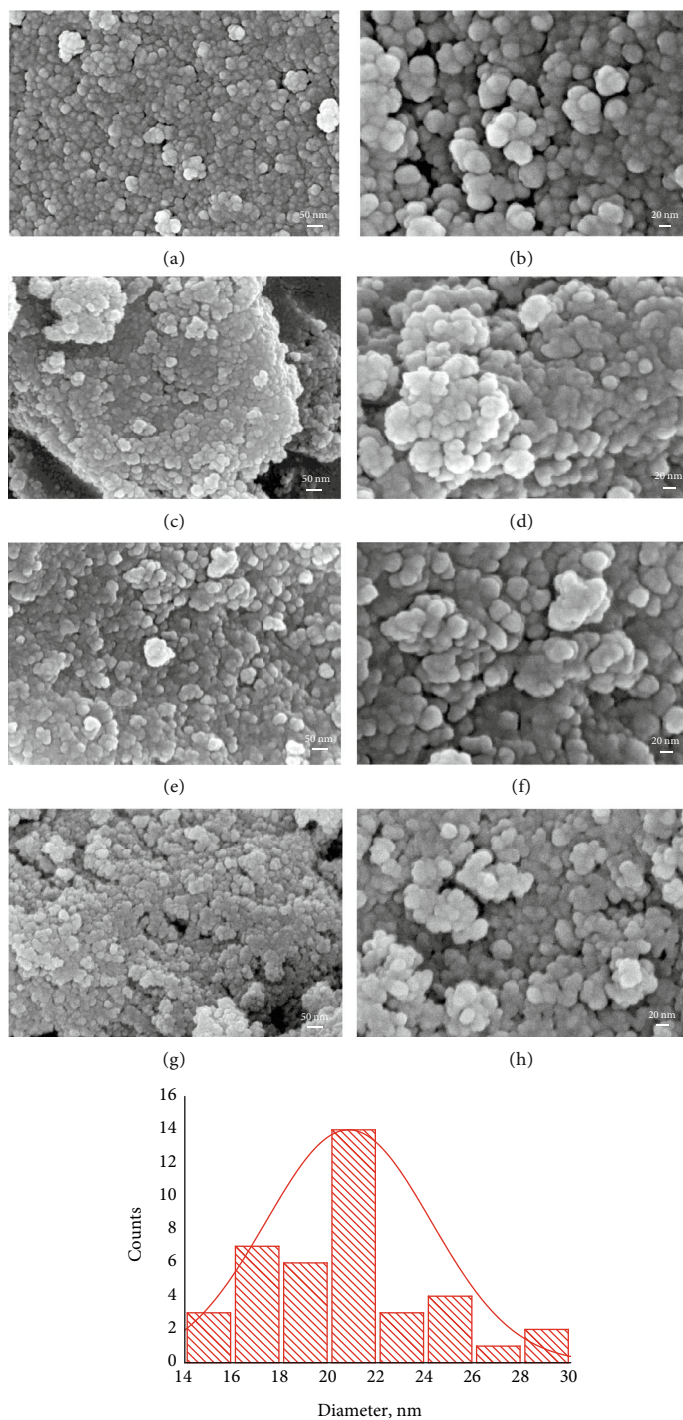
FIGURE 1: XRD patterns of (a) undoped TiO_2 , (b) TiO_2 -1%Co, (c) TiO_2 -2.5%Co, (d) TiO_2 -5%Co, and co-doped TiO_2 : (e) TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe and (f) TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe.

Co/Ti molar ratios from 1% to 2.5% and a fixed Fe/Ti molar ratio of 2.5%. Previous studies [14, 15] reported that the Fe-doped TiO_2 can extend more excellent absorption in the longer wavelength range than TiO_2 . As a result, we chose iron as a codopant element with cobalt for extending the light absorption of TiO_2 nanoparticles toward the visible region. The Fe/Ti molar ratio of 2.5% was used in the synthesis of codoped TiO_2 samples, because the higher Fe content may lead to the formation of iron oxide during thermal treatment at 180°C , decrease the synthesis yield, and/or distort the lattice of TiO_2 . As shown in Table 1, TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples had smaller sizes (their mean particle sizes are 6.2 nm) than TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe samples (their mean particle sizes are 7.6 nm). These results demonstrated that TiO_2 codoped with Co and Fe inhibited the crystal growth of the particles and effectively decreased the particle size; the high doping amount of Co also resulted in an increase in the particle size of the codoped TiO_2 samples.

The morphology of the synthesized TiO_2 samples was further observed through FE-SEM imaging. Figure 2 presents the FE-SEM images of the representative samples: undoped TiO_2 (Figures 2(a) and 2(b)), TiO_2 -1%Co (Figures 2(c) and 2(d)), TiO_2 -5%Co (Figures 2(e) and 2(f)), and TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe (Figures 2(g) and 2(h)) at magnifications of 100 k and 200 k. The results indicated that the synthesized TiO_2 samples consisted of numerous crystalline particles that agglomerated to form tiny clusters. The FE-SEM images demonstrated that the particles were spherical and had uniform size distribution. The calculations from the FE-SEM images confirmed that the average sizes were 26.5, 23.8, 27, and 20.8 nm for undoped TiO_2 , TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -5%Co, and TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples, respectively. These results showed deviations from the data obtained from XRD due to the agglomeration of the nanoparticles in the FE-SEM images. However, the results were in agreement with the XRD results, confirming that Co and Fe doping can suppress TiO_2 particle growth and the TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe sample had the smallest particle size with a narrow distribution of the particle size (inset in Figure 2).

TABLE 1: Mean crystalline size and phase of the prepared TiO_2 samples.

Samples	Undoped TiO_2	TiO_2 -1%Co	TiO_2 -2.5%Co	TiO_2 -5%Co	TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe	TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe
Crystalline phase	Anatase	Anatase	Anatase	Anatase	Anatase	Anatase
Mean crystalline size	7.8 nm	6.8 nm	7.4 nm	7.5 nm	6.2 nm	7.6 nm

FIGURE 2: FE-SEM images of undoped TiO_2 (a, b), TiO_2 -1%Co (c, d), TiO_2 -5%Co (e, f), and TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe (g, h) samples with magnifications of 100 k and 200 k. Inset shows a particle size distribution of TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples.

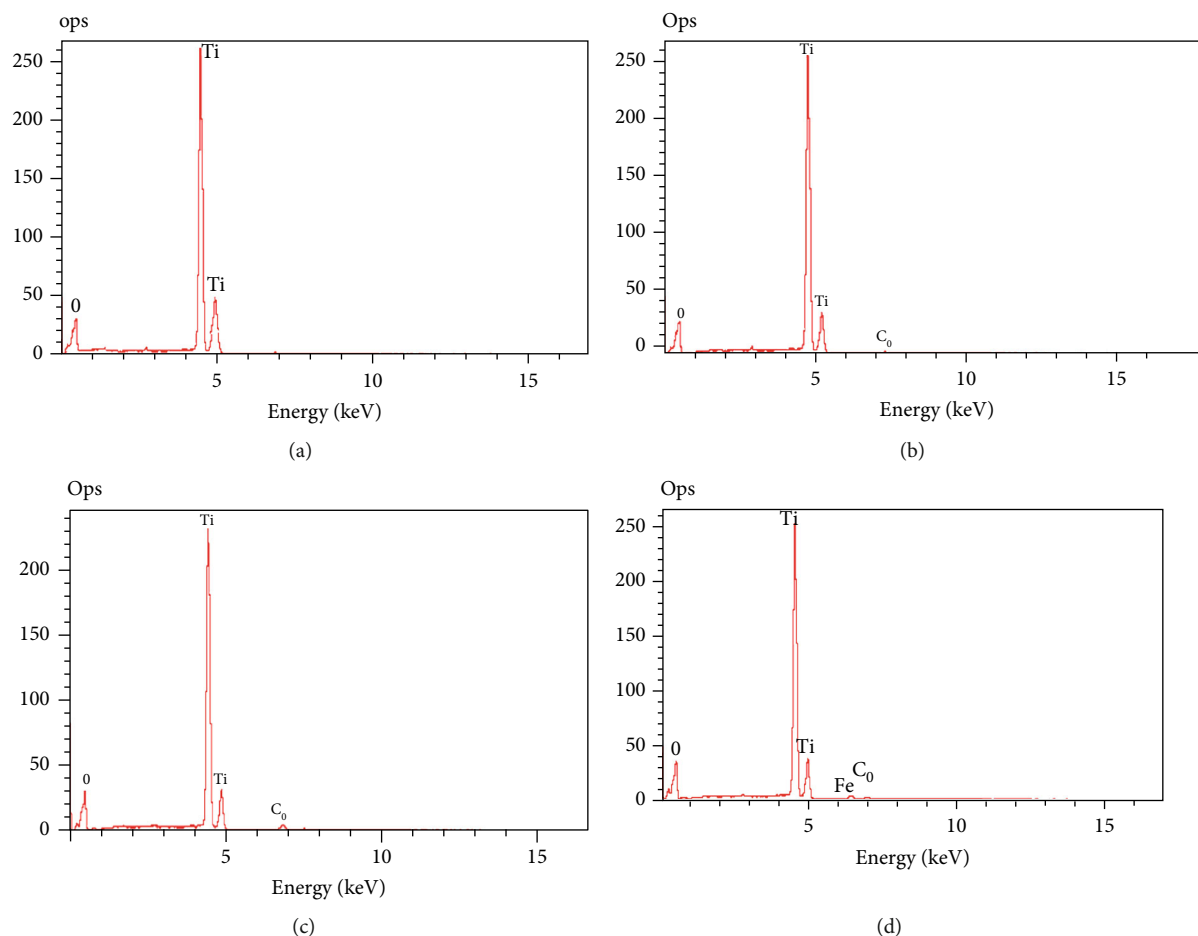


FIGURE 3: EDXS spectra of (a) undoped TiO_2 , (b) TiO_2 -1%Co, (c) TiO_2 -5%Co, and (d) TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples.

The presence of doping metals on the TiO_2 samples was determined through EDXS analyses. The EDXS spectra of the representative TiO_2 samples (undoped TiO_2 , TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -5%Co, and TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe) are presented in Figure 3. As shown in Figures 3(a), O and Ti were found to be the major components of undoped TiO_2 with 65.35 at% and 33.65 at%, respectively. Co was detected as the doping component of TiO_2 -1%Co and TiO_2 -5%Co samples because tiny peaks were observed in the EDXS spectra (Figures 3(b) and 3(c)), which were attributed to the presence of Co in the samples (0.21 at% and 0.89 at%, respectively). The contents of Co and Fe in TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples were 0.28 at% and 0.74 at%, respectively (Figure 3(d)). The results confirmed that Co and Fe were successfully doped in the TiO_2 samples.

Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were determined for the representative samples to analyze and quantify the pore structure and surface area of doped and codoped TiO_2 samples. Figure 4 presents the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of three selected samples: TiO_2 -1%Co (Figure 4(a)), TiO_2 -5%Co (Figure 4(b)), and TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe (Figure 4(c)). Results in Figure 4 indicate that the three samples had a similar hysteresis loop, which could be associated with capillary condensation in mesopores. The hysteresis loops of these samples, which were observed in the P/P_0 range of 0.42–0.82, were characterized by a type

IV isotherm with an H_2 hysteresis loop [17]. The results suggested that the TiO_2 samples contained ink-bottle pores, leading to pore blocking/percolation effects during desorption in mesopore networks. Pore size distribution was calculated by the BJH method using data on the desorption curves (Figure 5). The surface areas of the synthesized TiO_2 samples were determined by using the BET method. The surface characteristics of these samples are summarized in Table 2 and compared with those of undoped TiO_2 . TiO_2 -1%Co and TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples showed a narrow pore size distribution (Figures 5(a) and 5(c)) with average mesopore diameters of 3.97 and 4.1 nm, respectively (Table 2). TiO_2 -5%Co samples exhibited a wider pore size distribution that scattered from 2.5 nm to 6.5 nm and mainly concentrated at 5.1 nm (Figure 5(b) and Table 2). Undoped TiO_2 showed a larger mean pore size of 6.7 nm than the doped and codoped TiO_2 . As shown in Table 2, the prepared TiO_2 samples did not have significant discrepancies in their BET surface area. Relatively high BET surface areas were determined as follows: $170 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for TiO_2 -1%Co, $164 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for TiO_2 -5%Co, and $174 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe, which are slightly higher than that of undoped TiO_2 ($160 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$). The large BET surface areas of the doped and codoped TiO_2 samples confirmed the better adsorption ability of the frameworks of TiO_2 . This finding may be due to the linkage between the dopant ions (Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+}) and titanium by an

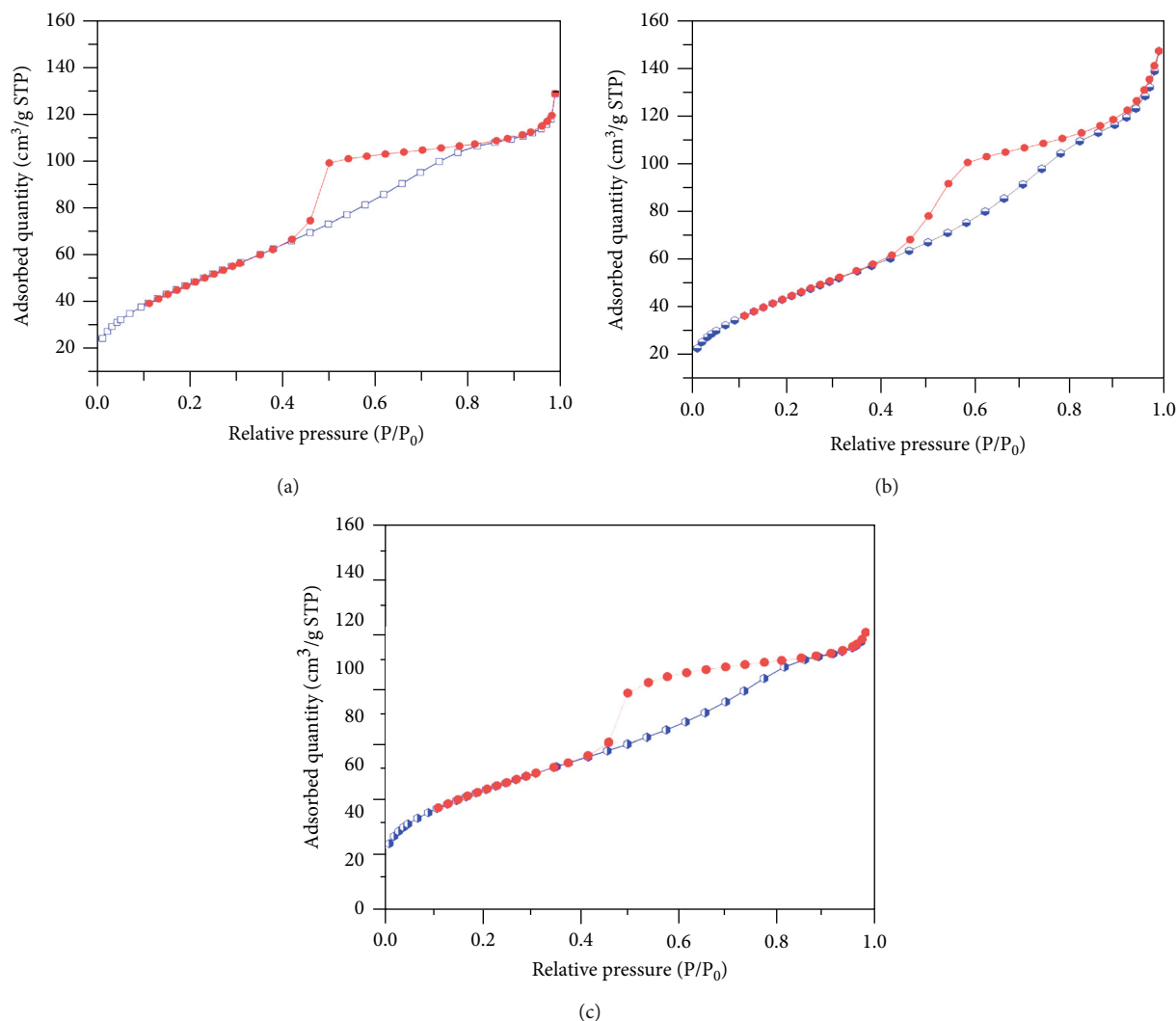


FIGURE 4: Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of representative samples: (a) TiO_2 -1%Co, (b) TiO_2 -5%Co, and (c) TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples.

oxygen bridge, which effectively increased their specific surface areas.

Table 3 compares the BET surface areas of doped and codoped TiO_2 materials of the present work with those of other doped and codoped TiO_2 materials reported previously. The BET surface areas of doped and codoped TiO_2 materials of our work were within $164\text{--}174\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, which were higher than those of Fe-doped TiO_2 materials [18, 19], Codoped TiO_2 materials [20], Cr- and Fe-doped TiO_2 materials [18], and Fe- and La-doped TiO_2 materials [19] (Table 3). The larger BET surface areas of the doped and codoped TiO_2 materials of the present work were possibly due to their smaller particle sizes ranging from 6.2 nm to 7.5 nm (Table 3), depending on the doping amount. The doped TiO_2 materials of our work were prepared under more favorable conditions (solvothermal treatment at 180°C without calcination). The other TiO_2 materials were prepared by hydrothermal treatment or sol-gel method, followed by calcination, which resulted in the formation of larger particle sizes and significant loss of the BET surface area (Table 3).

The UV-vis absorption spectra of undoped TiO_2 , doped TiO_2 , and codoped TiO_2 samples were recorded to study their optical properties (Figure 6). As shown in Figure 6 (curve a), the undoped TiO_2 sample was characterized by a narrow absorption spectrum, ranging from 250 nm to 370 nm in the UV region. No visible light absorption was observed for the undoped TiO_2 sample. Co-doped TiO_2 (Figure 6, curves b–d) and Co- and Fe-doped TiO_2 samples (Figure 6, curves e and f) had broader absorption spectra, which shifted toward longer wavelengths in the visible light region. The absorption spectra of Co-doped TiO_2 samples had maximum peaks at about $330\text{--}340\text{ nm}$, but the shoulder of the peaks shifted to the visible range ($400\text{--}700\text{ nm}$). TiO_2 samples codoped with Co and Fe were characterized by a broader maximum peak at $400\text{--}500\text{ nm}$ and stronger intensity of the absorption shoulder in the visible region compared with those of single-doped TiO_2 samples. Figure 6 shows that the absorption edges of TiO_2 codoped with Co and Fe moved remarkably, with a redshift to the visible region in comparison with undoped TiO_2 . These optical

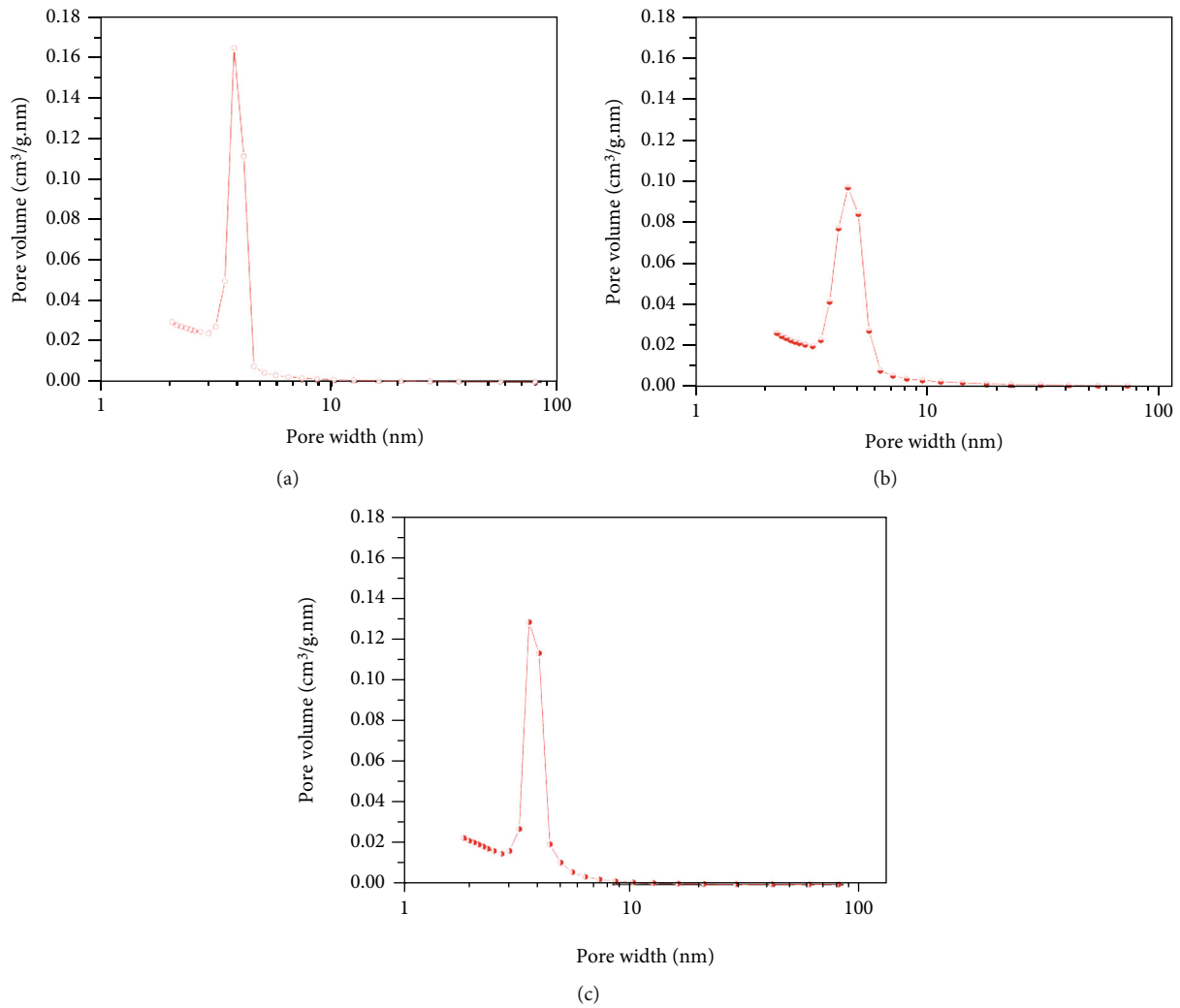


FIGURE 5: Pore size distributions of representative samples: (a) TiO_2 -1%Co, (b) TiO_2 -5%Co, and (c) TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe samples.

TABLE 2: Surface characteristics of the representative TiO_2 samples.

Samples	S_{BET}^a (m^2/g)	V_{BJH}^b (cm^3/g)	D_p^c (nm)
TiO_2 -1%Co	170	0.18	3.97
TiO_2 -5%Co	164	0.23	5.1
TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe	174	0.16	4.1
Undoped TiO_2	160	0.29	6.7

^aBET surface area. ^bTotal pore volume determined using desorption curves of the isotherms. ^cPeak pore sizes from the pore size distributions.

absorption characteristics of TiO_2 codoped with Co and Fe were possibly due to absorption induced by dopants. The absorption edges can be extrapolated by making a tangent line of the UV-vis absorption spectra [21]. Therefore, the bandgap energies of the prepared TiO_2 samples were estimated from the UV-vis spectra via the following equation:

$$E_g = \frac{1240}{\lambda} \quad (3)$$

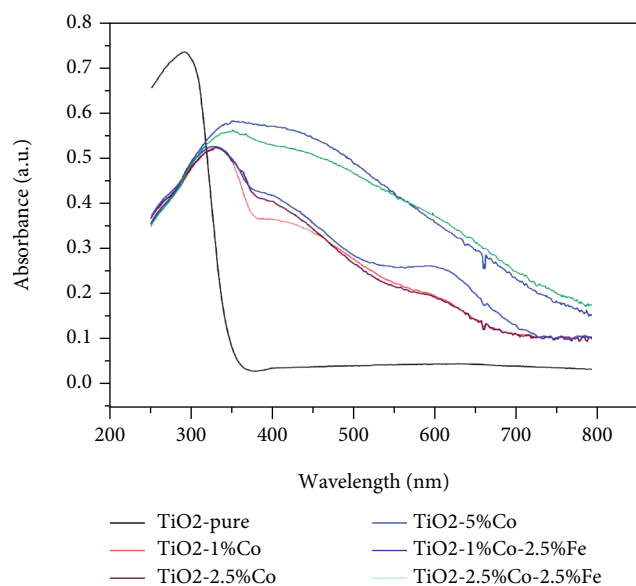
The bandgap energy levels of Co-doped TiO_2 samples

were estimated to be 2.03 eV, 2.00 eV, and 1.99 eV (for TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -2.5%Co, and TiO_2 -5%Co, respectively), which were higher than those of Co- and Fe-codoped TiO_2 samples (their bandgap energies are 1.65 eV and 1.59 eV for TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe, respectively). The calculated bandgap energies of single-doped and codoped TiO_2 samples were lower than that of undoped TiO_2 samples (~ 3.25 eV). The results revealed that the dopant elements were successfully incorporated into the TiO_2 crystal lattice and extended the optical absorption toward the visible light region. TiO_2 samples codoped with Co and Fe had stronger optical absorption of the visible light than single-doped and undoped TiO_2 samples. This means that the TiO_2 codoped with Co and Fe can absorb visible light in a much wider range of wavelengths than undoped TiO_2 and single-doped TiO_2 samples, which is beneficial for increasing the photocatalytic efficiency under visible light.

3.2. Photocatalytic Activities of the Prepared TiO_2 Materials for Degradation of MB. Before the photocatalytic reaction, the adsorption for MB removal on the synthesized TiO_2 materials was conducted under dark conditions. Results

TABLE 3: Comparison of the BET surface areas of the TiO_2 samples prepared in this work with those of previous works.

Materials	Synthetic conditions	S_{BET} (m^2/g)	Particle size (nm)	References
TiO_2 -1%Co	Solvothermal treatment at 180°C without calcination	170	6.8	This work
TiO_2 -5%Co	Solvothermal treatment at 180°C without calcination	164	7.5	This work
TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe	Solvothermal treatment at 180°C without calcination	174	6.2	This work
TiO_2 -Fe	Hydrothermal treatment at 180°C , calcined at 400°C	89	18	[18]
TiO_2 -0.2%Fe	Sol-gel, calcined at 500°C	78	12	[19]
TiO_2 -0.2%Fe-2%La	Sol-gel, calcined at 500°C	84	10	[19]
TiO_2 -0.085%Co	Sol-gel, with following heat treatment from 200°C to 900°C for 30 min	39.7	25	[20]
Fe-Cr-codoped TiO_2	Hydrothermal treatment at 180°C , calcined 500°C	93		[18]

FIGURE 6: UV-vis spectra of undoped TiO_2 , TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -2.5%Co, TiO_2 -5%Co, TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe samples.

obtained showed that the percentages of MB removal were only 5%-6% after 60 min for all the synthesized materials, but desorption of MB was observed by prolonging adsorption time for those materials. Therefore, the photocatalytic activities of the prepared TiO_2 samples were evaluated by degrading MB solution under visible light irradiation. The reaction mixture was first stirred in the dark for 30 min to reach the adsorption-desorption equilibrium and to ensure that the degradation of MB obtained is due to the photocatalytic reaction with the presence of the synthesized TiO_2 materials, but not due to the adsorption. Figure 7 shows the percentage of MB degradation over all of the TiO_2 samples (undoped TiO_2 , TiO_2 -1%Co, TiO_2 -2.5%Co, TiO_2 -5%Co, TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe samples) as a function of irradiation time. For comparison, control experiments were performed under the same conditions but without the presence of a photocatalyst (Figure 7, curve MB). As shown in Figure 7 (curve MB), almost no degradation of MB was observed without the photocatalyst (only 7.95% of MB was degraded after 120 min of exposure to visible light irradiation), indicating that MB was unable to self-

degrade. Undoped TiO_2 and Co-doped TiO_2 with low doping concentration (TiO_2 -1%Co and TiO_2 -2.5%Co) showed pure photocatalytic activity. The degradation efficiencies of MB on undoped TiO_2 samples were comparable with those of Co-doped TiO_2 samples with low Co doping concentration for all the tested time points (Figure 7, curves undoped TiO_2 , TiO_2 -1%Co, and TiO_2 -2.5%Co). The degradation percentages of MB were 10.95%, 17.85%, and 17.5% after 120 min of irradiation for undoped TiO_2 , TiO_2 -1%Co, and TiO_2 -2.5%Co, respectively. However, the degradation of MB is enhanced with higher Co doping concentration. The degradation percentages of MB increased three times on TiO_2 -5%Co samples and were higher than those on TiO_2 -1%Co and TiO_2 -2.5%Co samples for all the tested time points. About 39.8% of MB was degraded within 30 min on TiO_2 -5%Co and then gradually increased to ~50% by increasing irradiation time up to 120 min. Moreover, the significantly enhanced degradation of MB was observed on codoped TiO_2 samples (Figure 7, curves TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe). The highest degradation of MB was obtained by TiO_2 codoped with 1%Co and 2.5%Fe for all the time points tested. The degradation of MB was almost complete on codoped TiO_2 samples for the tested time; 90% and 85% of MB were degraded on TiO_2 -1%Co-2.5%Fe and TiO_2 -2.5%Co-2.5%Fe after 120 min, respectively.

The results showed that TiO_2 samples codoped with Co and Fe exhibited higher photocatalytic degradation of MB under visible light than the undoped and single-doped TiO_2 samples, which could be attributed to their lower bandgap values compared to those of the undoped and single-doped TiO_2 samples. These observations indicated that codopant ions had a favorable effect on the photocatalytic performance of the prepared TiO_2 materials. These ions can provide additional energy levels within the bandgap of TiO_2 . The bandgap of TiO_2 consists of a contribution from the 2p orbitals of O for the valence band and the 3d orbitals of Ti toward the conduction band, which have a large difference in energy, leading to the activation of TiO_2 in the UV light region with extremely high energy. The band structures of codoped TiO_2 materials are mainly affected by the 3d energy states of the transitional metal ions (Co^{2+} and Fe^{3+}). In fact, the UV-vis absorption studies (Figure 6) revealed that the respective absorption bands of codoped TiO_2 samples effectively shifted toward wavelengths longer

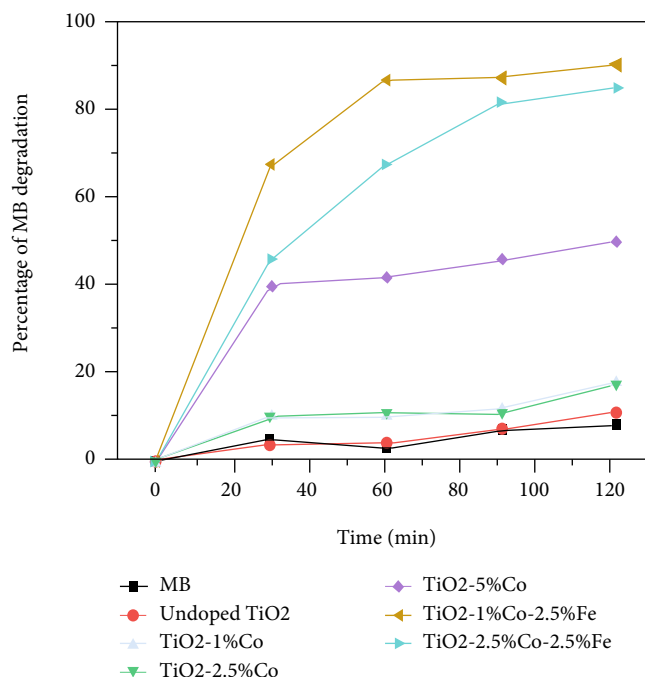
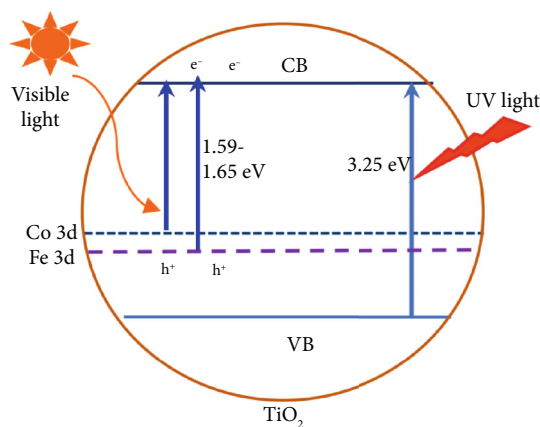


FIGURE 7: The degradation of MB using different catalysts: undoped TiO₂, TiO₂-1%Co, TiO₂-2.5%Co, TiO₂-5%Co, TiO₂-1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO₂-2.5%Co-2.5%Fe samples under visible light irradiation.



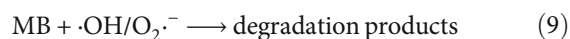
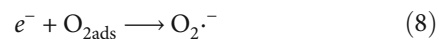
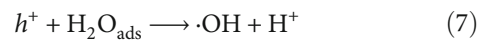
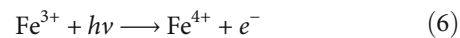
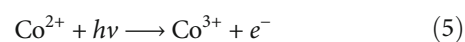
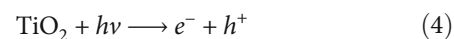
SCHEME 1: Band structure of TiO₂ and TiO₂ codoped with Co²⁺ and Fe³⁺. VB: valence band; CB: conduction band.

than 400 nm. Thus, the partially filled Co/Fe 3d bands were located below the conduction band of TiO₂. Hence, when photons with wavelengths longer than 400 nm are used for illumination, the electrons in the Co 3d and Fe 3d bands, instead of electrons in the valence band of TiO₂, are excited to the conduction band, while Co²⁺ and Fe³⁺ loses one electron and becomes Co³⁺ and Fe⁴⁺ (see Scheme 1). This phenomenon can induce more photogenerated electrons and holes to participate in the photocatalytic reaction.

As calculated above, the bandgap energy values of codoped TiO₂ samples (1.59 eV-1.65 eV) were lower than those of single-doped TiO₂ samples (1.99-2.03 eV) and undoped TiO₂ (3.25 eV), indicating the lower energy of pho-

tons necessary to generate electron transition and holes (h^+) for codoped TiO₂ samples compared to single-doped and undoped TiO₂. These holes can react with water to produce the highly reactive $\cdot\text{OH}$, and both holes and $\cdot\text{OH}$ have a strong oxidation potential for the degradation of MB.

The plausible reaction mechanism of the photodegradation is given below:



It is suggested that the photodegradation of MB can be divided into three main steps: (1) the initial step is the formation of electrons (e^-) in the CB and holes (h^+) in the VB upon a light incident on the photocatalyst surface (see equations (4), (5), (6)); (2) the intermediate step includes the formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$ and H^+ through the interaction between the holes and H_2O adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface (equation (7)) and of $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ due to the reduction of the adsorbed O_2 molecule (equation (8)) that has strong oxidation power, which in turn promotes the decomposition of MB; and (3) the final step is the degradation of MB by $\cdot\text{OH}/\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ radicals.

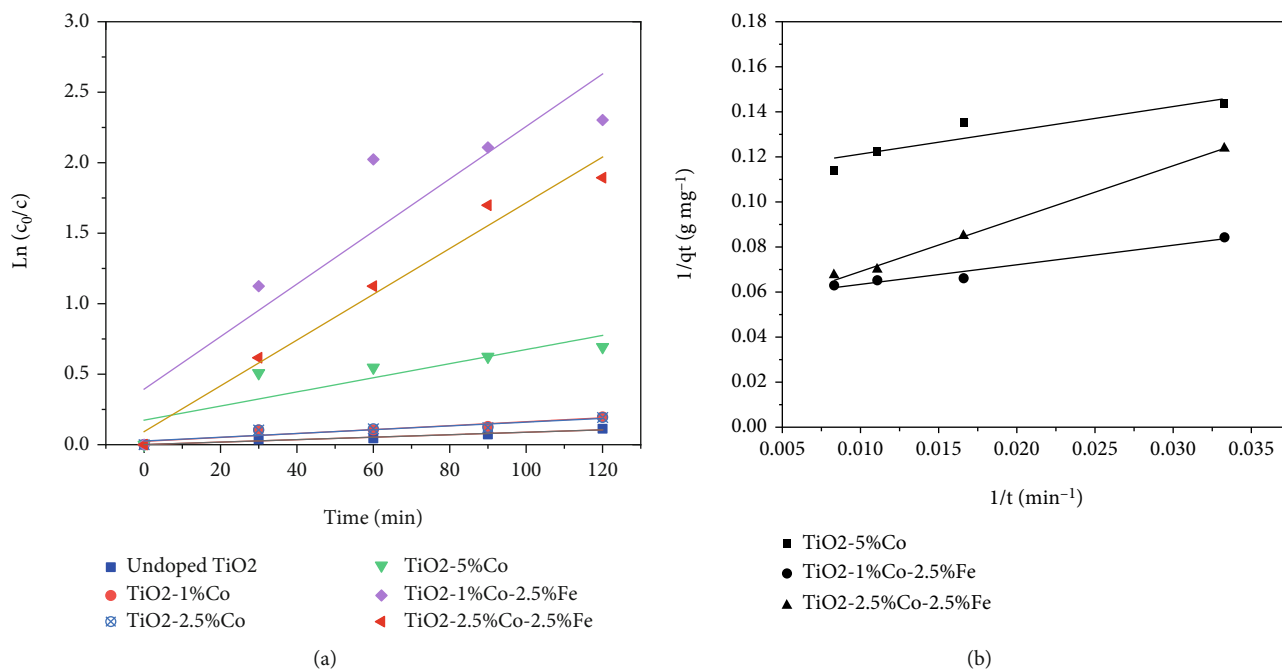


FIGURE 8: Plots of (a) first- and (b) second-order reaction rates for the degradation of MB over as-prepared TiO₂ materials.

Thus, this work proposed a study to understand the role of Co and Fe in codoped TiO₂ nanoparticles in yielding better performance as a visible light-driven photocatalyst.

The kinetics of photodegradation of MB on as-prepared TiO₂ materials was further investigated using the pseudo-first-order kinetic model [22] as follows:

$$\ln \frac{C_0}{C} = k_1 t, \quad (10)$$

where C_0 is the initial concentration of MB, C is the concentration of MB at time t , and k_1 is the apparent reaction rate constant. According to equation (10), a linear regression plot of $\ln(C_0/C)$ vs. time t gives the value of k_1 . The experimental data were analyzed using the pseudo-first-order equation; the resulting plots of $\ln(C_0/C)$ vs. time t are shown in Figure 8(a). From the obtained plots in Figure 8(a), the rate constants were found to be 0.0009 min⁻¹, 0.0014 min⁻¹, 0.0013 min⁻¹, 0.005 min⁻¹, 0.0186 min⁻¹, and 0.0162 min⁻¹ with correlation coefficients (R^2) of 0.96, 0.91, 0.90, 0.78, 0.85, and 0.98 for the undoped TiO₂, TiO₂-1%Co, TiO₂-2.5%Co, TiO₂-5%Co, TiO₂-1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO₂-2.5%Co-2.5%Fe, respectively. The experimental degradation data of all the TiO₂ samples were also analyzed using the pseudo-second-order kinetic equation proposed by Blanchard et al. [23]:

$$\frac{1}{q_t} = \frac{1}{t} \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e}, \quad (11)$$

where q_t and q_e are the amounts of dye adsorbed at time t and at equilibrium (mg·g⁻¹) and k_2 is the pseudo-second-order rate constant (g·mg⁻¹·min⁻¹) for the adsorption pro-

cess. The linear plots of $1/q_t$ vs. time $1/t$ shown in Figure 8(b) give the values of k_2 and q_e . It could be seen that three TiO₂ samples: TiO₂-5%Co, TiO₂-1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO₂-2.5%Co-2.5%Fe showed the best fit in the linear plots of $1/q_t$ vs. $1/t$ with higher values of R^2 (0.83, 0.95, and 0.99, respectively) than those of the pseudo-first-order equation (0.78, 0.85, and 0.98). The values of q_e obtained from the linear plots are 9.03 mg·g⁻¹, 18.28 mg·g⁻¹, and 21.78 mg·g⁻¹ for TiO₂-5%Co, TiO₂-1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO₂-2.5%Co-2.5%Fe, which were higher than those of the experimental values (8.75 mg·g⁻¹, 14.86 mg·g⁻¹, and 15.75 mg·g⁻¹ for TiO₂-5%Co, TiO₂-1%Co-2.5%Fe, and TiO₂-2.5%Co-2.5%Fe, respectively), whereas the undoped TiO₂, TiO₂-1%Co, and TiO₂-2.5%Co samples did not follow the pseudo-second-order equation because of smaller values of R^2 (0.82, 0.55, and 0.54) of the plots $1/q_t$ vs. $1/t$ (not shown), compared to those of the pseudo-first-order plots.

The observations revealed that the degradation of MB on the undoped TiO₂ and Co single-doped TiO₂ samples with 1% Co and 2.5% Co doping can be described by the pseudo-first-order equation. Meanwhile, the pseudo-second order fits better compared to the pseudo-first order for describing the degradation of MB on the TiO₂ doped with 5%Co and codoped with Co and Fe, considering that R^2 of the pseudo-second-order equation was greater than that of the first order for those samples. This clearly explains that the enhanced degradation efficiency of MB is attributed to the high surface area of the TiO₂ codoped with Co and Fe and their reduced bandgap energies.

Table 4 compares the degradation of MB on the TiO₂ materials as prepared in this work with those published in previous works [24–28]. It was found that the TiO₂ codoped with 1%Co and 2.5%Fe in this work showed the highest

TABLE 4: Comparison of MB degradation of the TiO₂-codoped samples of this work with other materials.

Materials	Synthetic conditions	S _{BET} (m ² ·g ⁻¹)	Degradation percentage of MB	References
Bi ₂ O ₃	Calcination method at 500°C for 6 h	2.9	70% after 4 h under visible light irradiation	[24]
CaBi ₆ O ₁₀	Impregnation-calcination method at 650°C for 12 h	2.5	97% after 4 h under visible light irradiation	[24]
CeO ₂ /V ₂ O ₅	Thermal decomposition at 400°C for 30 min	—	64.2% after 4 h under visible light	[25]
CeO ₂ /CuO	Thermal decomposition at 400°C for 30 min	—	70.1% after 4 h under visible light	[25]
ZnO/CdO	Thermal decomposition at 350°C for 3 h	—	75% after 4 h under visible light	[26]
g-C ₃ N ₄ -CdS	Precipitation method	166.5	90.45% after 3 h under visible light	[27]
F-doped TiO ₂	Sol-gel method, calcined at 500°C for 1 h	39.6	90% after 4 h under visible light	[28]
TiO ₂ -1%Co-2.5%Fe	Solvothermal method at 180°C	174	90% after 2 h under visible light	This work

photocatalytic efficiency with 90% of MB degraded after visible light irradiation of 2 h. The metal oxide (Bi₂O₃) [24] and mixed metal oxides (e.g., CeO₂/V₂O₅ [24], CeO₂/CuO [25], and ZnO/CdO [26]) exhibited much lower degradation efficiency of MB compared with the TiO₂ materials of our work, which degraded about 64.2%–75% of MB for a longer irradiation time of 4 h. The complex metal oxide CaBi₆O₁₀ [24] and nanocomposite g-C₃N₄-CdS [27] demonstrated relatively high degradation percentages of MB (~97% and 90.45% for CaBi₆O₁₀ and g-C₃N₄-CdS, respectively), which could be comparable with that of the TiO₂ codoped with 1%Co and 2.5%Fe of our work, but these materials require a quite long irradiation time of 4 h (for CaBi₆O₁₀) and 3 h (g-C₃N₄-CdS) to obtain the complete degradation of MB under visible light. Moreover, a similar study reported that TiO₂ doped with 10% F [28] also revealed a high degradation percentage of MB (~90%), but after a much longer irradiation time of 4 h, compared to that of the TiO₂ codoped with Co and Fe of our work. The comparison revealed that the photocatalytic efficiency of the materials depends not only on their band structure but also on their surface characteristics. The excellent photocatalytic performance of the TiO₂ codoped with Co and Fe of our work could be attributed to their larger BET surface area compared to those of the other materials. As a result, the TiO₂ codoped with Co and Fe has more active sites and simultaneously can absorb much more visible light and generate more electron-hole pairs, which in turn enhanced the photocatalytic activity and reduced the reaction time as compared to the other materials.

4. Conclusions

In this work, we presented the characterization of TiO₂ nanoparticles codoped with Co²⁺ and Fe³⁺ synthesized through solvothermal treatment at 180°C without further calcination at high temperatures. Undoped TiO₂ and Co single-doped TiO₂ materials were also prepared using the same procedure to compare with codoped TiO₂ in terms of optical absorption and photocatalytic efficiency for MB degradation. The doped and codoped TiO₂ materials of the present work exhibited better adsorption characteristics (e.g., their BET surface areas of 164–174 m²/g) than doped

and codoped TiO₂ materials of previous works; as-prepared codoped TiO₂ materials had significantly enhanced optical adsorption toward the visible light region. Among the TiO₂ samples studied, the codoped TiO₂ materials showed the highest photocatalytic activity for the degradation of MB; they degraded about 90% of MB within 120 min under visible light irradiation. The TiO₂ samples codoped with Co and Fe in this work showed higher photocatalytic efficiency for the degradation of MB than those of metal oxides, mixed metal oxides, and other materials in the previous works. The pseudo-second-order kinetic model fits well for describing the degradation of MB on the TiO₂ codoped with Co and Fe. Hence, this study provides a simple route to synthesize an effective photocatalyst for the degradation of dye compounds under visible light for wastewater treatment.

Data Availability

All the data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

Conflicts of Interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

Acknowledgments

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Research Article

Preparation and Characterization of Biochar Derived from Agricultural By-Products for Dye Removal

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In this study, biochar was derived from the agricultural by-products coconut coir (BC1) and rice husk (BC2) activated with NaOH 25%. This material was characterized through analytical methods such as SEM images, XRD, FTIR, and Raman. Analysis results indicated that the carbon structure carbon is amorphous and with many graphene layers. A high specific surface area was detected with $364.22 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ for BC1 and $329.71 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ for BC2 with many meso and micropores when analyzed by N_2 and CO_2 adsorption. The material also showed anionic and cationic dye adsorption capacity for textile wastewater following both Langmuir and Freundlich models where BC2 had better max adsorption capacity compared to BC1, $6.519 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ for MO and $8.612 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ for MB.

1. Introduction

Textile is one of the largest industries in the globe. Vietnam was ranked 8th in exporting textile and dye products in 2018 according to the WTO, which provided over 1.6 million employments [1]. However, this industry emits huge amounts of wastewater that need to be treated. Many solutions such as biological treatments [2, 3], electrocoagulation [4–6], membrane bioreactors [7–9], or photochemical methods [10] have been developed. [11] combined a coagulation-flocculation treatment with alkali-activated carbon made from sand with a TAN efficiency of 70%. Compared to other methodologies, many studies have confirmed that adsorption methods with

activated carbon from agricultural by-products are highly effective when treating textile dyeing wastewater.

Various studies have shown that agricultural by-products such as straw, rice husks, corn cobs, or coir have a high potential for adsorption of pollutants, especially pesticides and dyes in wastewater [12, 13]. The superiority of these types of material lies in the fact that it is inexpensive or even free, is available in abundance, especially in countries with strong agricultural economies like Vietnam, and is easily biodegradable in the environment. Vietnam is classified among the top five rice-producing countries in the world with an output of 38 million tons $\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$ (GSO, 2009), equivalent to 38 million tons of straw and 6–7 million

tons of rice husks. Common agricultural by-products from rice production straw, rice husk ash, and rice hulls [14] have all been shown to be beneficial in removing pesticides [14–16] and dyes [17–19]. Rice husk-derived biochar has also been studied and applied to remove contaminants from polluted water with an adsorption capacity of 123.03 mg.g^{-1} for glyphosate [20] and 9.73 mg.g^{-1} for the methylene blue [21].

In addition to rice, Vietnam is also known as one of the ten largest manufacturers of coconut-related products in the world with an output of around 1.5 million tons in 2017, the second-largest producer of coir in the world with 36,000 tons in 2017 (FAO, 2018). The primary by-product of coconut is coconut shell which has a high adsorption capacity and is hence widely used in biofilter systems for the purpose of pesticides removal [22–24]. Other studies have proven its usefulness in textile wastewater treatments [25–27]. Results all showed that biochar has a high ability to remove pollutants in general. The vast majority of agricultural by-products are lignocellulose materials composed largely of polysaccharides (cellulose and hemicelluloses) and lignins with a chemical composition of hydroxyl and carboxyl groups [28]. Interactions between these functional groups and pesticides are also expected to be the primary mechanism for adsorption of agricultural by-products [29]. Agricultural by-products have received much attention from scientists as a source for biochar [30]. For a long time, combining biochar with the right measurement of soil has been used to increase the water holding capacity as well as soil nutrients and crop yield [31]. Furthermore, recent studies have demonstrated the high efficiency and feasibility of biochar-soil blending at laboratory and field scales for the purpose of preventing glyphosate-containing pesticides in soil from leaking into natural water sources [32–35]. However, De Gisi et al. [36] showed that there is a lack of data concerning the characteristics of the new by-products studied such as their average particle size or specific surface area.

With the abundance of input materials as well as the necessity to recycle such a valuable agricultural waste, biochar derived from rice husk and coconut coir is expected to be the answer to the demand for an economically and environmentally friendly material that has effective pollutants adsorption ability for application in surface water treatment.

In this study, biochar was prepared in the laboratory from agricultural by-products in Vietnam such as coconut coir (named BC1) and rice husks (named BC2) by a pyrolysis method to investigate its potential in water pollution treatment. To be more specific, this research is designed to test the adsorbability of the biochar towards two different dyes, i.e., methylene blue—a cationic dye, and methyl orange—an anionic dye.

2. Chemicals and Methodology

2.1. Chemicals. Methylene blue trihydrate (MB, $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{18}\text{ClN}_3\text{S}_3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\geq 98.5\%$)—a cationic dye and methyl orange (MO, $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_3\text{NaO}_3\text{S}$, $\geq 98.5\%$)—an anionic dye represent both types of separate functional group and were purchased from Xilong Chemical Co., Ltd. (China). We used sodium chloride (NaCl , $\geq 99.5\%$) and sodium hydroxide

(NaOH , $\geq 99.5\%$) from Merck (Germany), and hydrochloric acid (HCl , $35.0\text{--}37.0\%$) and nitric acid (HNO_3 , 65%) from Daejung chemicals and metals (Korea).

2.2. Methodology

2.2.1. Biochar Production. Rice husk was collected from Bac Ninh province, Northern Vietnam, and thoroughly sieved to keep only the 5 mm diameter husk for use. Coconut fiber was collected from Hoai Duc district, Hanoi city, cut into small pieces, and sieved into coir less than 2 mm and more than 1 mm in diameter.

Rice husk and coconut coir were carefully washed three times with tap water and twice with distilled water to remove impurities. After that, the coir and the husk were dried at 105°C in the oven for 5 hours until they were completely dried. The husk (or coir) was then placed in a stainless steel pot and covered on the surface with commercial charcoal to prevent the formation of ash and coke during carbonization. Next, the pot was sealed and put into the Nabertherm furnace (Germany) under limited oxygen conditions. The material heating program used is shown in the diagram in Figure 1. At the end of the carbonization, the biochars' weight, density, and mass loss (%) were calculated (Table 1).

Biochar after carbonization is activated by NaOH 25%: biochar's specific surface area, ion-exchange capacity, and the number of oxygen-containing functional groups all raise after it is treated with NaOH [37, 38]. It can simultaneously be used as an effective, inexpensive, and ecologically acceptable activator [39]. A mixture of 18 g biochar and 300 mL of NaOH 25% solution were thus added into a Duran bottle of 500 mL, and the mixture was shaken at 250 rpm in an IKA KS 4000i incubator shaker for 4 hours at room temperature. The material was then filtered out and washed with distilled water (with a conductivity less than 18 megaohms), dried naturally at room temperature, and stored in a brown bottle.

2.2.2. Characterization of Biochars. A temperature-induced mass loss of 0.7 g each raw material (rice husk and coconut shell) was determined by thermogravimetric analysis and differential gravimetric analysis (TGA/DTG) using a CIRAD-designed Macro-TGA from 25°C to 800°C at a heating rate of 5°C.min^{-1} under air. Every 5 seconds, mass loss data and temperature changes were recorded by the MTG software and analyzed on the Origin software. The functional groups and characterizing covalent bonding information of the different biochars after the pyrolysis were analyzed by FT-IR spectrometer (Thermo scientific iS50). Information on the crystal structure, phase, orientation, and molecular interactions of the biochars after fabrication were studied on the Equinox 5000-XRD Spectrometreler and the Raman spectrometer NRS-5100 from JASCO Corporation, Japan. The surface morphology and porous structure were observed by a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi S-4800). This instrument is also integrated with Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy for the analysis of the surface elemental composition of materials.

N_2 and CO_2 adsorption isotherms of samples processed under vacuum conditions at 300°C were analyzed. The

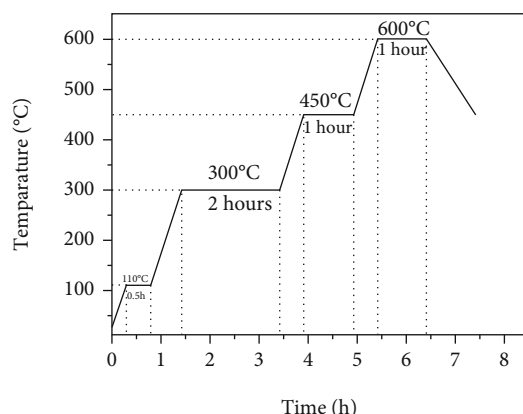


FIGURE 1: Biochar production process diagram.

TABLE 1: Density and weight loss of each material before and after carbonization.

Material	Density before carbonization (g.mL ⁻¹)	Density after carbonization (g.mL ⁻¹)	Weight loss (%)
Coir/biochar 1	0.1309	0.1044	60
Husk/biochar 2	0.2259	0.1309	57

measurement was performed by a Belsorp minill Microtrac-BEL device at -196°C (for N₂ sorption) and 25°C (for CO₂ sorption), pressure 1 bar. The Belsorp software (BEL master TM) was used to analyze the porosity properties of carbon materials. Application of N₂ adsorption isotherm by the BET equation and graph data allowed calculation of the specific surface area, total pore volume, and micrometer-sized pore distribution. The CO₂ adsorption isotherm by the Dubinin-Astakhov (DA) method was used to determine the pore volume of the sample.

To determine pH_{pzc}, two different solutions of sodium chloride (NaCl) were prepared at 10⁻² M and 5 × 10⁻² M with purged deionized water (CO₂-free) and adjusted with pure hydrochloric acid (HCl) and pelleted sodium hydroxide (NaOH) to different pH values, i.e. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12. Then, each biochar was added into separated bottles at a ratio of 5 g of biochar to 1 L of pH-adjusted sodium chloride solution of 70 mL total. The bottles were secured in the incubator shaker for 24 hours. After shaking, the pH value was recorded in order to sketch an initial and final pH diagram.

2.2.3. Adsorbability of Biochars. MB and MO dyes were used to study the adsorption capacity of the biochar prepared at room temperature. These experiments were carried out in a 70 mL solution containing a 10 mg.L⁻¹ dye solution and a 5 mg.L⁻¹ biochar in a 100 mL Duran bottle. The initial pH was chosen based on the BC pH_{pzc} data adjusted by using a solution of H₂SO₄ and NaOH. A mixing series was set up, and the solution was shaken in the incubator shaker IKA KS 4000i at 250 rpm. All experiments were carried out at room temperature. Each sample was collected after 2

hours. The adsorbents were centrifuged in Hermle centrifuge Z 366 K at 4500 rpm for 20 minutes, separated by Whatman cellulose acetate paper with a pore size of 0.45 μm, and dried at 105°C for 2 hours. The concentration changes of the dye solutions were measured by Shimadzu UV-1800 UV-Vis spectrometer.

2.2.4. Determination of MB and MO Concentrations by UV-Vis Spectrophotometry. For the study of MB removal efficiency, the absorbance of the samples at maximum wavelength λ_{max} = 664 nm was measured. Calibration curves for MB were prepared with 7 different standard concentrations ranging from 0 mg.L⁻¹ to 12 mg.L⁻¹. Since the color of MO is pH-dependent, the absorbance of the solution was measured at λ_{max} = 507 nm for pH = 2, and at λ_{max} = 464 nm for both pH = 12, the natural pH value of the solution.

The *H* removal efficiency (%) can be calculated based on the dye concentration:

$$H = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100, \quad (1)$$

where *C*₀ and *C*_{*t*} are the dye concentrations at initial time and time *t*, respectively.

According to Lambert Beer's law: Abs = ε*bC*, the dye concentration *C* is directly proportional to the absorbance since the molar attenuation coefficient ε and the path length *b* (size of cuvette) remain constant. Therefore, the *H* removal efficiency (%) can be calculated based on the absorbance of the solution:

$$H = \frac{\text{Abs}_0 - \text{Abs}_t}{\text{Abs}_0} \times 100, \quad (2)$$

where Abs₀ and Abs_{*t*} are the absorbances measured at initial time and time *t*, respectively.

Batch adsorption experiments for MB and MO removal were conducted in triplicates. In this study, the pH value of the research samples was determined by Hana instrument HI98197 portable multiparameter meter according to TCVN 6492:2011, ISO 10523:2008.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. TGA/DTG and Biochar Density. The biochar carbonization process was set up based on the result of TGA/DTG analysis, shown in Figure 2.

The TGA/DTG diagram shows the mass loss curves of both materials (coir and husk) as a function of temperature at the heating rate of 5°C.min⁻¹. The materials were dried before carbonization, so in the temperature range from 100°C to 250°C, the mass does not change much, indicating the absence of free water molecules in the materials. The biggest mass loss occurs at 250–300°C, with a loss greater than 60% and 40% for coir and husk, respectively, suggesting that water and bounds organic compounds have been decomposed. In the temperature range of 300°C–450°C, the pyrolysis process continues at a slower rate, with the final yield reaching about 5% for coir and 25% for husk. Both

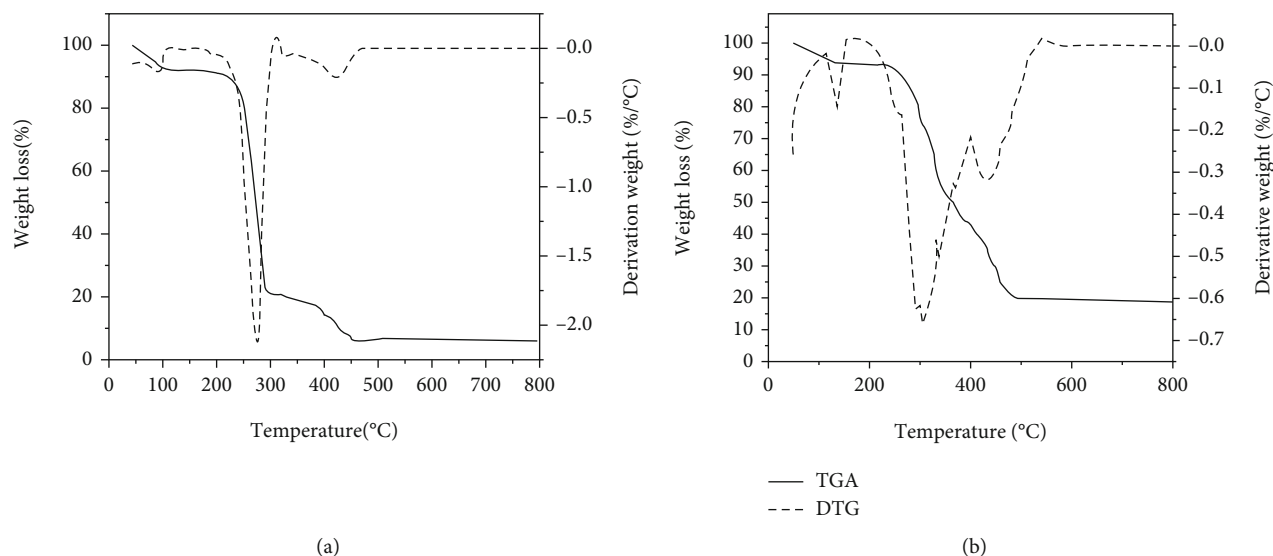


FIGURE 2: DTG/TGA diagram of coir (a) and rice husk (b).

TGA/DTG diagrams of coir and husk indicate that the mass yield hardly changes at temperatures above 450°C, which suggests that only ash remains.

These results show that although the DTG/TG curve of husk is a little different from that of coir, they are very similar at the first order, which justifies that the same calcination process was used for both materials (Figure 1).

Before and after the carbonization process, each mass and volume of each material were measured to calculate the initial and final density (before/after carbonization). The density of each material is recorded in Table 1.

There is no common pattern for the variation of density of the two materials before and after the carbonization process. For coconut coir (biochar 1 or BC1) and husk (biochar 2 or BC2), the density decreases by 20% and almost 50%, respectively. This is due to the fact that during calcination, water and organic compounds bound in the structure of the material were lost in gases and water vapor. However, the shape of the coconut coir (BC1) and the husk (BC2) was not altered much after the carbonization process, especially for the husk (which retained the shape of rice grains). Therefore, the density of both materials decreased slightly.

As can be seen clearly from Table 1, the actual mass loss after the carbonization of coir and husk was only 60% and 57%, respectively, much lower than when doing the TGA/DTG analysis (respectively, 95% and 75%, Figure 2). This can be explained by the formation of ash during TGA/DTG analysis, while during calcination, ashes were significantly reduced by covering the surface material with coal in the calcination process.

3.2. Point of Zero Charge (PZC). The pH of the solution (methylene blue and methyl orange) has a great influence on the adsorption capacity of the adsorbent on the adsorbate [40]. In order to optimize this capacity, the point of zero charge (PZC) should be analyzed and used. When pH values are below the PZC of an adsorbent, anions are attracted to its surface; cations experience the same effect when pH values

exceed the PZC [41]. Therefore, several experiments were carefully carried out to determine the PZC value for three types of biochar made from coir of two different sizes and from husk. The results on PZC are shown in Figures 3(a) and 3(b).

A buffer solution was used for the determination of PZC: a solution of NaCl with NaOH or HCl provided a buffer to stabilize and ensure the desired pH values so that the PZC result was correct.

For initial pH values of 2 and 12, the final pH values were almost identical to the initial values. Differences were only observed for initial pH values of 4, 6, and 10, where the final pH values remained stable around 9. This indicated that biochar 1 has an estimated PZC value at pH = 9, at which the biochar surface reaches electrically neutral state. In addition, according to the PZC theory, at pH values above the PZC value, the materials are negatively charged, and vice versa for pH values below the PZC.

For biochar 2, the initial-final pH curve is also similar to that of biochar 1; however, the PZC obtained for biochar 2 was lower than that of the biochar 1, at pH = 8.

3.3. Fourier-Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR). All FTIR spectra of the obtained biochars were collected in the midinfrared from 4000 cm^{-1} to 390 cm^{-1} and are shown in Figure 4.

The two spectra showed similarities, in the single bond region, a wideband showing up at 3500 cm^{-1} attributed to the O-H stretching mode of hydroxyl groups, and in the double bond region. At about 1650 cm^{-1} , the adsorption band was attributed to C=O stretching. For the spectrum of biochar 2, the greatest bands were observed at 1050 cm^{-1} , which was in the fingerprint region, and it was attributed to the C-O stretching. In the wavenumber range of 900 cm^{-1} to 400 cm^{-1} , the spectrum was quite complex and hard to observe. However, in particular, when observing the spectrum of biochar 2, some peaks could be clearly seen at 1087, 800, and 460 cm^{-1} , which were attributed to the carbon-silicon

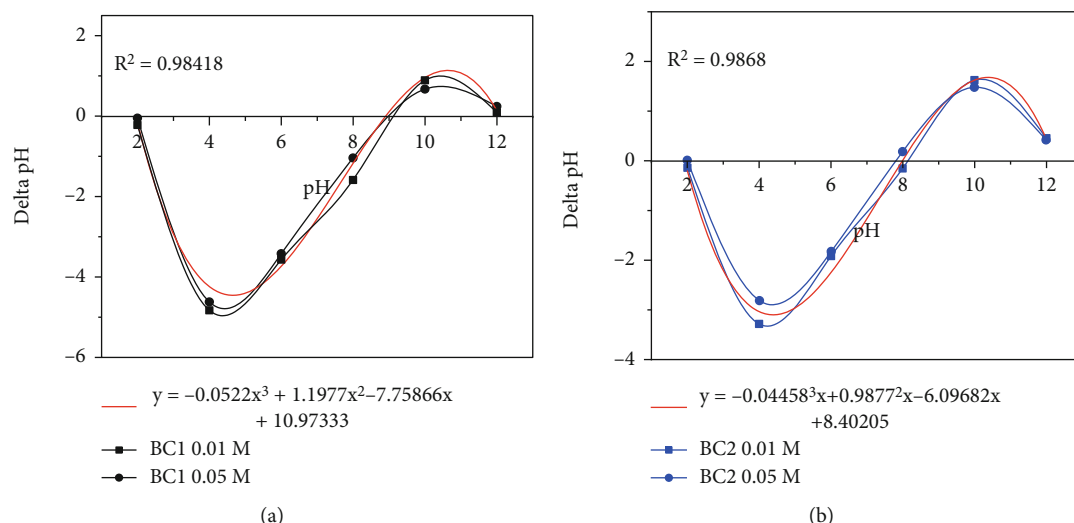


FIGURE 3: PZC of BC1 (a) and PZC of BC2 (b) in a buffer solution containing, respectively, 0.05 M and 0.01 M NaCl.

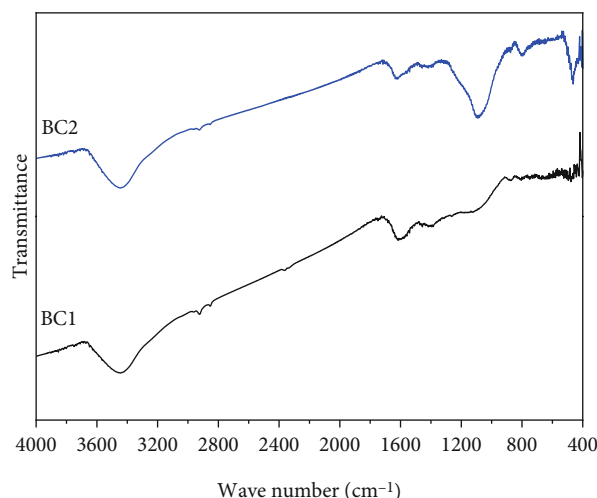


FIGURE 4: FTIR analysis on the biochar.

group (C–Si) (Pankaj [42, 43]). This carbon-silicon group is often found on the husk surface and is not found in coir. The spectra of biochar 1 did not show many differences. Besides the two spectral bands observed at 3500 cm^{-1} and 1650 cm^{-1} , the fingerprint region was also complex and hard to assign.

3.4. X-Ray Diffraction Spectroscopy (XRD) Results. The diffraction diagram of the biochars is presented in Figure 5. Two wide peaks range at $2\theta = 22.5^\circ$ and $2\theta = 43^\circ$ and the absence of peak showing the formation of the crystal phase indicates that the BCs were amorphous carbon. In addition, the diagrams revealed the presence of graphene structure in all biochar samples. The formation of graphene structures can occur during the pyrolysis of materials derived from agricultural by-products [44]. This result is similar to the conclusions of BC diffraction studies from [44]. The diagram also showed that graphene is the only crystal structure that appears in the BCs. In other words, no crystal structure of

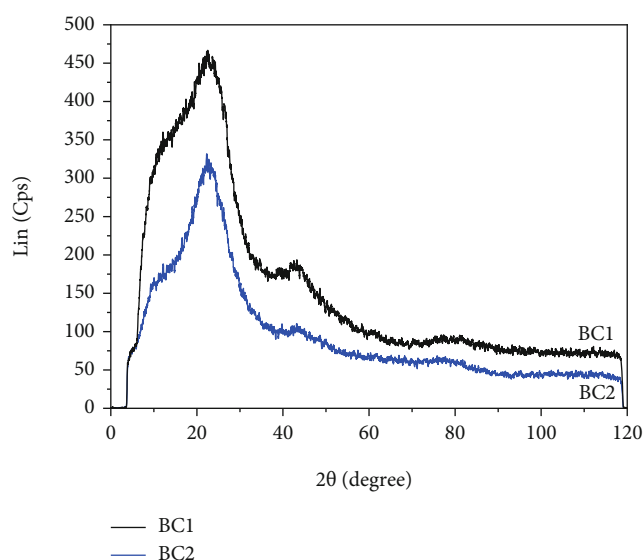


FIGURE 5: Diffraction diagram of biochars 1 and 2.

other metals could be found on the BC samples. Many studies have also shown that silica compounds in rice husk can form crystals when the temperature reaches 800°C .

3.5. Raman Spectrum. The carbon structure of biochar was also determined using Raman spectroscopy, complementing the results obtained from XRD (Figure 6).

Raman spectroscopy showed two main peaks at D band (1361 cm^{-1}) and G band (1591 cm^{-1}), corresponding to the graphene layer edge and an ideal lattice carbon, respectively [45]. Both peaks showed the presence of carbon atoms (sp^2) in an aromatic compound that corresponds to the amorphous form of the benzene ring [46, 47]. Despite being different raw materials, the two biochars derived from rice husk and coir had the same shape spectrum, proving that the formation of biochar structure by pyrolysis from different agricultural by-products is the same. This result was also

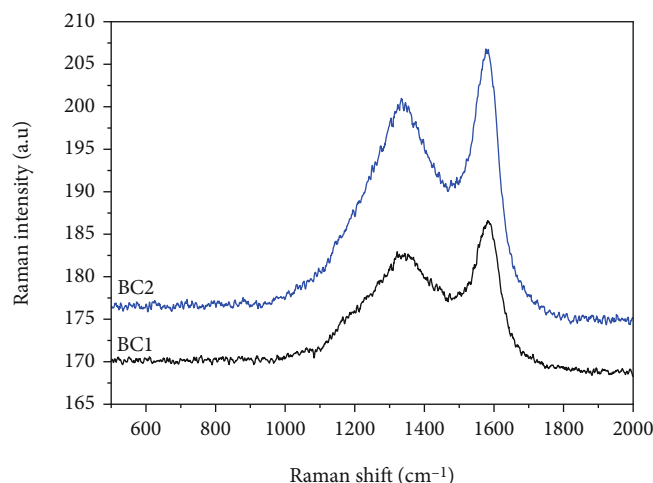


FIGURE 6: Raman spectrum of difference BCs.

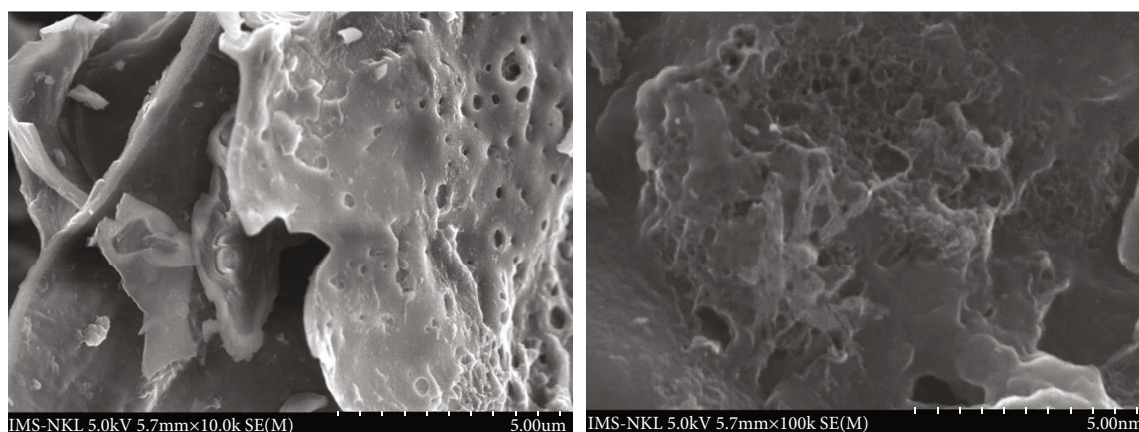


FIGURE 7: SEM images of BC1.

confirmed by the X-ray diffraction method of biochar. Biochar after pyrolysis has an amorphous form with several layers of graphene to create the porous structure of the material.

3.6. Surface Morphology of Biochars. Surface morphology and porous structure are important features in the adsorption process. In particular, for biochar, solids are obtained from the pyrolysis of rice husks and coir in an anaerobic environment (lack of oxygen and high pressure). The surface morphology, as well as the main surface elemental composition, was investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Figures 7 and 8) and energy dispersive X-ray emission (EDX).

Generally, all BCs had porous meso and micropore structures with different shapes and sizes. SEM image observation of both BC types also showed the structure of the graphene layers formed along with the field structure of BC. These results also correspond to the results of [44].

The SEM image of rice husk biochar (BC2) showed that it remained intact in its structure (fiber shape) of the original husk, and the pores were fairly uniform. After being broken

in half, the cross-section image of BC2 revealed a series of pores with a capillary structure on the BC2 wall, about 5 to 10 μm in diameter. Besides, although the mesopore structure was uneven, the micropore size was quite uniform with a diameter of approximately 50 nm.

In contrast, the results for BC1 yielded a greater variety of pore sizes. Specifically, the surface morphology of biochar from coconut coir showed many pores of fairly nonuniform size with a large structure.

The average percentage values of surface elemental composition in biochars, corresponding to the SEM micrographs analysis positions and dispersive spectrum are presented in Figure 9 and Table 2.

The obtained results showed that the main component of all BCs was carbon, which confirmed the decomposition of cellulose, lignin, and organic matters contained in agricultural by-products at high-temperature 500–600°C. Besides, they revealed a significant content of oxygen. Combined with the results of the FTIR analysis, the oxygen content in the BCs was confirmed to come from the functional groups -COO- and -OH existing on the surface of BCs. Specifically, Si content included in the BC2 structure was consistent with the results

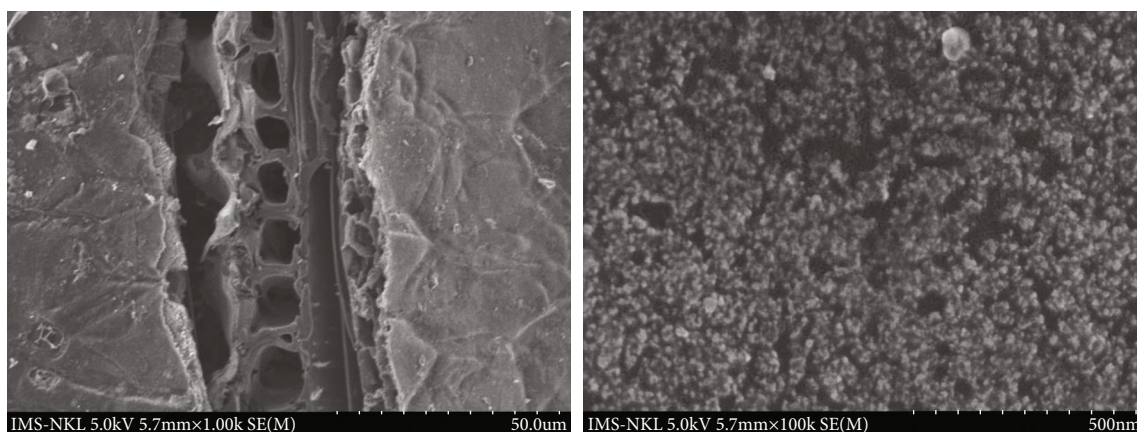


FIGURE 8: SEM images of BC2.

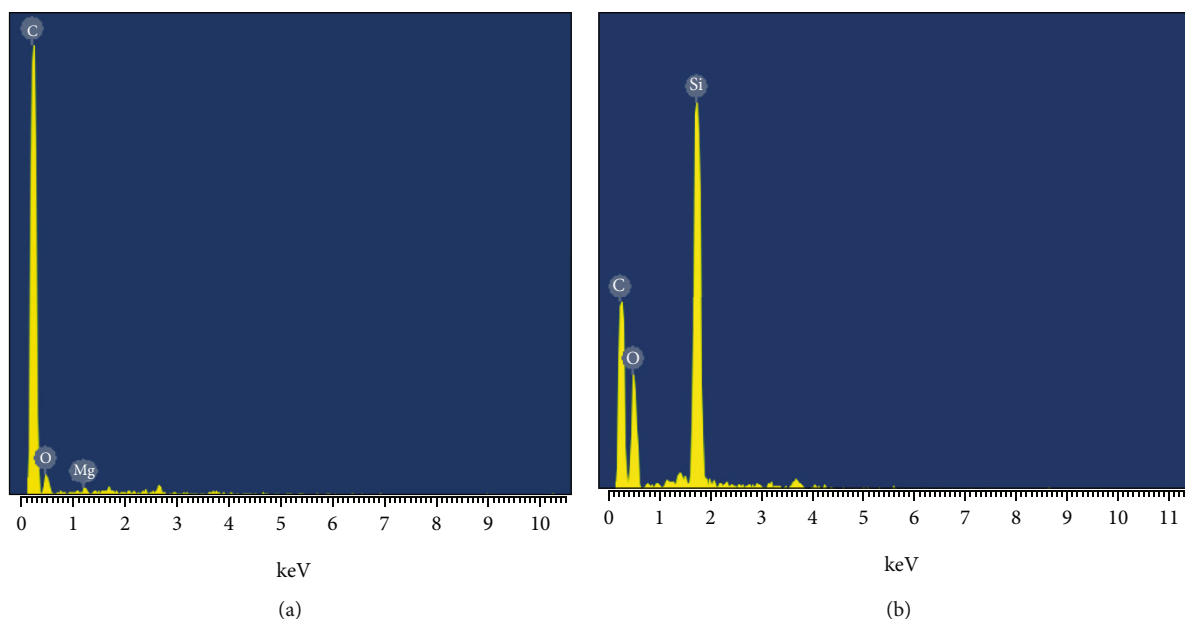


FIGURE 9: Energy dispersive spectrum corresponding to a SEM image analysis position of BC1 (a) and BC2 (b).

TABLE 2: Average mass percentage of surface elemental composition in biochar.

Components	BC1	BC2
C K (%)	82.93	40.27
O K (%)	16.76	44.92
Mg K (%)	0.31	0.00
Si K (%)	0.00	14.81
Total	100.00	100.00

of the FTIR analysis, indicating the bond between silicon and carbon (Si-C). However, the contents of C, O, and Si are unevenly distributed at different locations of the BCs.

3.7. Specific Surface Area and Pore Volume. The N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms (Figure 10) were used to determine the porosity of the BCs. The specific surface area

and pore volume are significant parameters that have a strong link with the adsorption ability of the material. Micropores (diameter < 2 nm) and mesopores (between 2 and 50 nm) actively participate in the sorption capacity of biochar, while larger pores usually have a much smaller effect [48].

The BC2 had a higher microporosity compared to that of the BC1, as shown by the higher position of the corresponding isotherm and the larger slope at relative pressures p/p_o above 0.1. The N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherm of the BC1 exhibited type I isotherms in the IUPAC classification [49], which indicated that the microporous structure was dominant in the BC1. Meanwhile, the BC2's isotherms exhibited type IV with a large range for the hysteresis loop. This can be explained by the capillary condensation phenomenon, whereby a gas in a pore condenses into a liquid phase at a pressure $p < p_o$ of the bulk liquid [49]. This result strongly suggests that in the case of BC2, besides micropores, mesopores were also present.

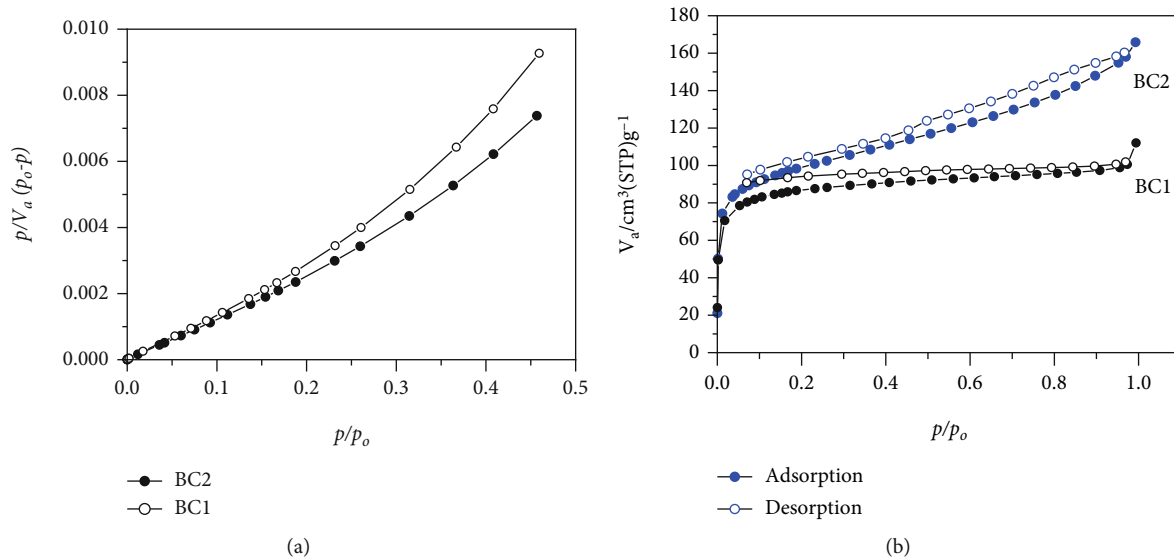
FIGURE 10: BET-plot (a) and adsorption/desorption isotherm (b) of BC1 and BC2 in N_2 .

TABLE 3: Parameters of specific surface area and pore of biochar.

Sample	S_{BET} ($m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$)	V_{BET} ($cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$)	V_{meso} ($cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$)	V_{Micro} (BET) ($cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$)	V_{Micro} (DA) ($cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$)
BC1	329.7	0.17	0.03	0.14	0.21
BC2	364.2	0.26	0.14	0.15	0.26

Table 3 shows the results of total surface area (S_{BET}) and total pore volume (V_{BET}), estimated by the BET method, and micropore volume (V_{Micro}) and mesopore volume (V_{Meso}), estimated by the t-plot and BJH methods, respectively.

The S_{BET} of BC2 was higher than that of BC1 ($364.2 m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$ vs. $329.7 m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$). Similarly, the pore volume of BC2 was $0.26 cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$ compared to $0.17 cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$ for BC1. Compared to other biomass chars produced under similar carbonization conditions, such as fern char [50] or cashew nutshell char [51], BCs produced in this study achieved higher porosity levels. The V_{Micro} (estimated by BET technique) of BC1 and BC2 is similar. However, the large size of the N_2 molecules prevents them from entering the ultra-micropores, i.e., pores with diameters less than 1 nm. Therefore, CO_2 adsorption/desorption was performed to fully reflect the microporous structures of these BCs (Figure 11).

The adsorption/desorption isotherm plot of CO_2 of BC2 is above that of BC1, indicating a higher micropore volume. Moreover, both isotherms showed hysteresis at low-pressure. This indicates that the CO_2 molecules were in a metastable state, and the gas was not readily released at the level corresponding to the value of thermodynamic equilibrium at pressure decrease [52]. In other words, both BCs exhibited heterogeneous surface properties with bottleneck shapes at the micropore entrance. This pore shape is known to be favorable for long particule capture.

The V_{Micro} (estimated by DA method) reached $0.26 cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$ for BC2 and $0.21 cm^3 \cdot g^{-1}$ for BC1. The smaller kinetic diameter of CO_2 (0.3 nm) compared to N_2 (0.36 nm) gave a much higher V_{Micro} calculated by the DA

method than by the t-plot method. This indicates that the microporous structures were better developed in rice husk biochar than in coir biochar.

3.8. Biochar Adsorbability

3.8.1. General Evaluation of BC1 Adsorbability with Methylene Blue (MB). Evaluation of the effect of pH on biochar 1 adsorbability of methylene blue was first performed. Experiments were carried out to evaluate the effect of varying pH values of dye solution on the ability of biochar to adsorb methylene blue ions. The results are shown in Figure 12.

The effect of pH on methylene blue adsorption was not significant for biochar 1 as there was little difference between the three efficiency lines. At pH = 2, the adsorbability of BC1 was however slightly weaker than at other pH values for the first hours of the time series, which accurately reflects the point of zero charge principle. The difference between the efficiency lines of BC1 was more distinct for the efficiency lines at pH = 2 and at other pH values. The efficiency reached 66% at pH 2 and 87% at both pH 6 and pH 12 after 30 minutes of adsorption. When the adsorption time was increased to 1 hour, the adsorption efficiency showed similar differences, 87% at pH 2 and 94% at the other two pH values. It was found that dye adsorption increases with pH, with a maximum adsorption at pH 6. This could be due to the fact that the surface of the adsorbent becomes negative at higher pH values, favoring the adsorption of positively charged MB cationic dye via electrostatic attraction. Moreover, there is a

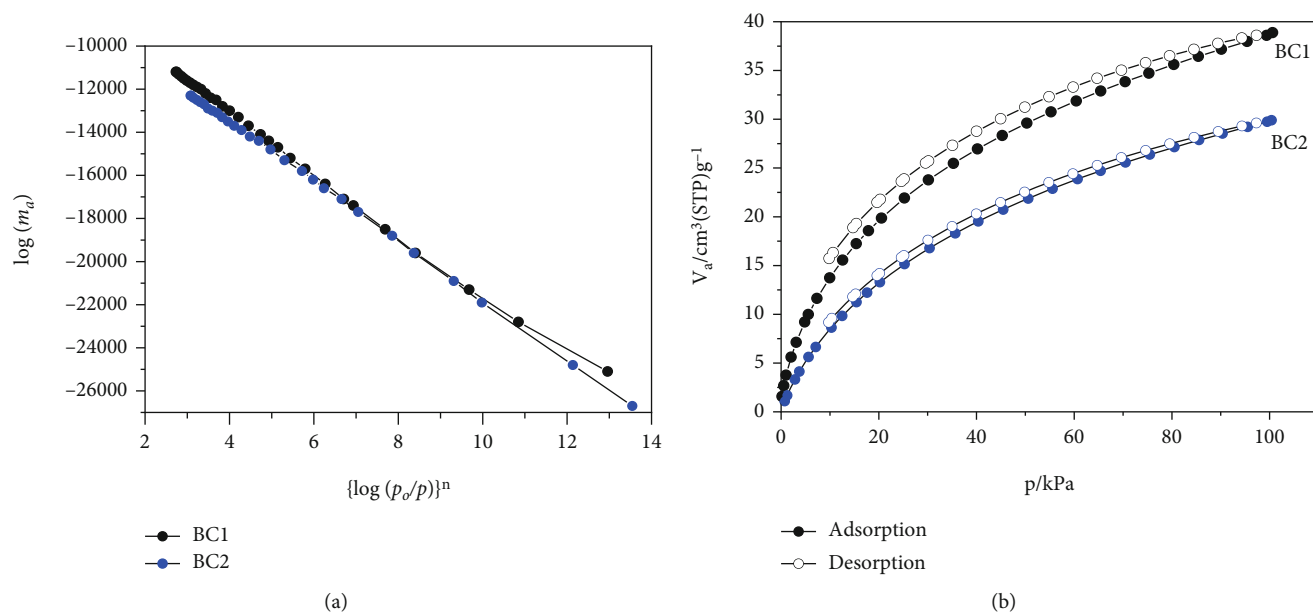


FIGURE 11: DA-plot (a) and adsorption/desorption isotherm (b) of BC1 and BC2 in CO_2 .

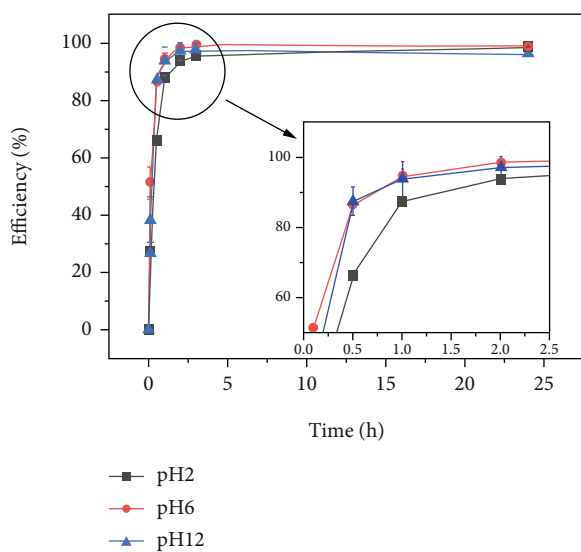


FIGURE 12: Evaluation of the effect of pH on biochar 1 (5 g.L^{-1}) adsorbability of methylene blue ions.

slight reduction in adsorption at pH 12 due to the repulsion of adsorbent surface and the existence of a partial negative charge (Cl^-) on MB [42].

3.8.2. Evaluation of the Effect of Biochar Dosage on Adsorbability with Methylene Blue. The effect of varying biochar concentration on the adsorption of dye ions on the biochar surface was studied with methylene blue. The results are given in Figure 13.

As expected, the higher the biochar concentration, the better the adsorbability. However, the differences are not really significant. Based on these results, a catalyst concentration of 5 g.L^{-1} was selected for further studies.

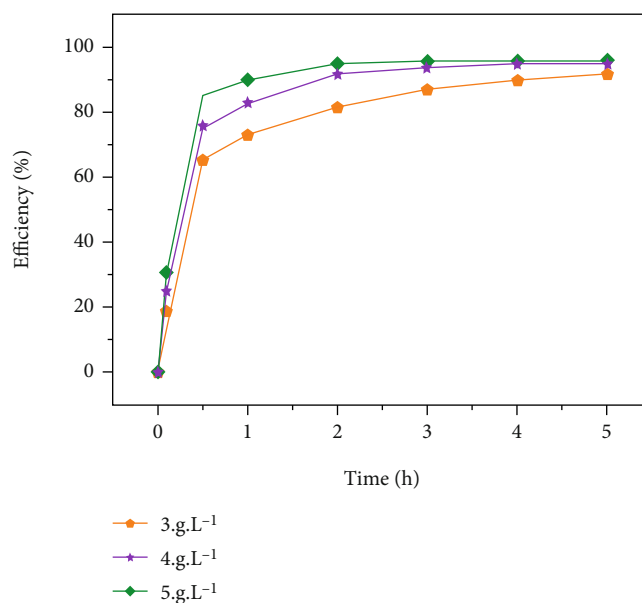


FIGURE 13: Evaluation of the effect of biochar 1 dosage on adsorbability.

3.8.3. Evaluation of the Effect of pH on Biochar Adsorbability with Methyl Orange. The laboratory-synthesized biochar BC1 was studied for its ability to remove not only methylene blue but also methyl orange, an anionic dye. The results are shown in Figure 14.

At pH 2, it took less than an hour to reach 80% efficiency, and after 5 hours, biochar 1 had removed over 96% of the MO in the solution. In contrast, the efficiency of dye removal at pH 6 and 12 was approximately half that at pH 2, 49%, and 47%, respectively. At pH 6 and pH 12, the surface was, respectively, neutral and positively charged; therefore; adsorption efficiency is much lower.

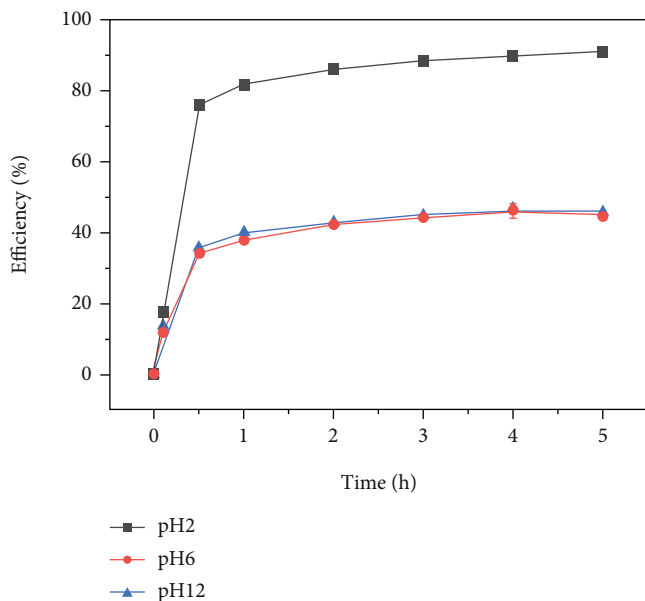


FIGURE 14: Evaluation of the effect of pH on biochar 1 (5 g.L^{-1}) adsorbability of methyl orange.

In addition to the electrostatic interaction following the PZC principle, many functional groups exist on the biochar surface and bind to methylene blue or methyl orange, thus, facilitating the adsorption on the biochar surface. When the pH of the solution was decreased significantly, the positive surface charge of the BC increased and, consequently, the adsorption of methyl orange anions on the BC surface increased significantly. On the contrary, when the pH of the solution was increased, the adsorption of methyl orange on BC1 decreased due to the repulsive force between the adsorbent and the negatively charged adsorbate. However, the adsorption of methylene blue at high pH was enhanced due to the strong electrostatic interaction between the cationic groups of MB molecule and the negatively charged BC surface. Therefore, this could be the main mechanism of the adsorption. The results showed that the highest adsorption efficiency of BC was obtained at basic pH values for MB and at acidic pH for MO.

In consequence, the influence of the two different biochars on dye adsorbability was investigated at pH 6 for MB and at pH 2 for MO (Figure 15).

Figure 15 clearly demonstrates that the adsorption of BC2 was superior to that of BC1 under the same conditions with a peak efficiency of nearly 100%. This difference is also partly due to the physical characteristics of the adsorbent. BC2 is derived from the rice husk with a much higher number of pores than BC1 which is coconut coir. It has both meso and micropores, so the total BET and total porous volume of BC2 are larger than BC1, $364.22 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1} > 329.71 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$ and $0.26 \text{ m}^3.\text{g}^{-1} > 0.17 \text{ m}^3.\text{g}^{-1}$.

Moreover, biochar 2 has a relatively high microporous and mesoporous area, $0.15 \text{ cm}^3.\text{g}^{-1}$ and $0.14 \text{ cm}^3.\text{g}^{-1}$ compared to $0.14 \text{ cm}^3.\text{g}^{-1}$ and $0.03 \text{ cm}^3.\text{g}^{-1}$ for biochar 1, respectively. Apart from those factors, these two types of biochar

had similar surface functional groups, and the only difference was the silicon components found in BC2.

The MB adsorption efficiency of BC1 was close to 94%, much higher than that of MO (about 82%) after 1 hour of the reaction. BC2 also showed a similar trend with the adsorption efficiency slightly higher for MB than for MO, about 100% and 96%, respectively. Both materials had better electronic interactions with MB than with MO. This suggested that the adsorption capacity of both biochars was more efficient for MB than for MO. Considering the physicochemical properties of the adsorbent surface, although MO ($1.31 \times 0.55 \times 0.18 \text{ nm}$) has a smaller molecular size than MB ($1.26 \times 0.77 \times 0.65 \text{ nm}$), which means that MO molecules were able to enter the pores and being retained in more micro and mesopores; however, MB ions were more selectively adsorbed.

This result is consistent with the study of Phuong et al. [53] who obtained an average surface area including micropore and mesopore of rice husk-derived biochar of $118 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$. Since the volume of mesopore was quite small and most of the pore volume was micropore, MB ions took longer to be adsorbed into the BCA pores, so the adsorbability rate was slowed down. In our study, the dye adsorption rate of BC1 was slower than that of BC2 because BC2 had a larger BET volume and much larger pore volume, as mentioned above. Both dyes can be completely adsorbed.

3.8.4. Isothermal Adsorption. The results of the physicochemical characteristics analysis showed that BC2 had a higher adsorption capacity than BC1 due to its larger surface area and pore volume, a larger number of surface functional groups, and a lower pH of PZC. Therefore, the adsorption isotherm of MB and MO adsorption was also evaluated through two popular adsorption models, Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models. Figure 16 shows the isotherm of MB and MO adsorption on BC1 material according to Langmuir and Freundlich models.

The parameters of Langmuir and Freundlich adsorption isotherms were calculated from the slope values and the vertical cut and are presented in Table 4.

Langmuir and Freundlich adsorption isotherms are two chemisorption models in which Langmuir is a monolayer adsorption process while Freundlich describes a multilayer adsorption capacity of the material.

The results demonstrated that the adsorption capacity of BC2 followed both Langmuir and Freundlich models with MO adsorbent. The regression coefficients R^2 were both high (0.97 and 0.99 for Langmuir and Freundlich, respectively), revealing that the adsorption process follows both models. In contrast, with the MB adsorbent, the adsorption isotherm followed the Langmuir model with a regression coefficient of 0.99. For BC1 adsorption, MO followed the Langmuir model with R^2 of 0.99 and MB followed Freundlich with the same R^2 value. Overall, in this study, the dye removal efficiency of BC2 was higher than that of BC1, both following the Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models.

Remind that the Freundlich model suggests multilayer physisorption on the surface of the material with different adsorption energy levels whereas the Langmuir model

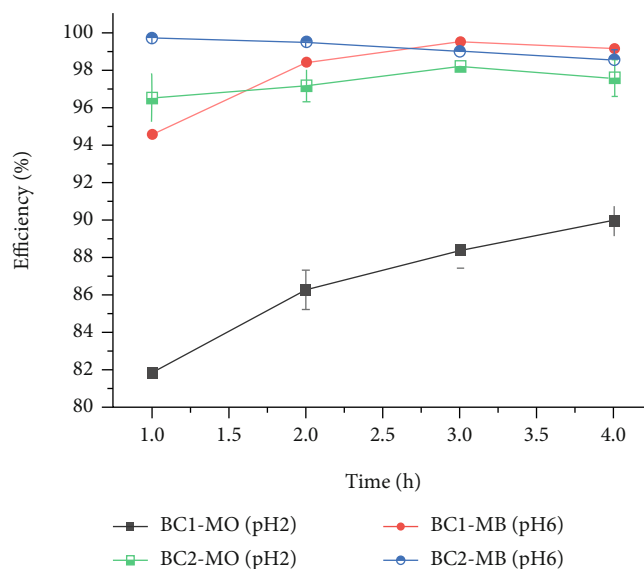


FIGURE 15: Effect of two different biochars on adsorbability of dyes molecules.

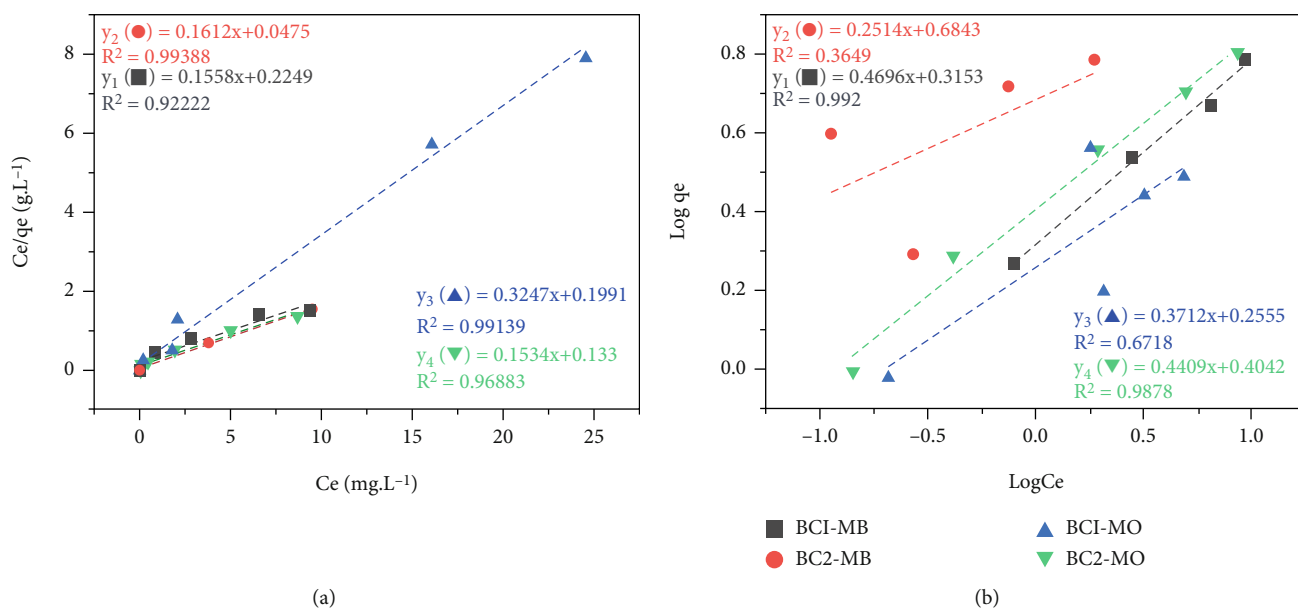


FIGURE 16: Langmuir (a) and Freundlich (b) adsorption isotherm model fittings for the adsorption of MB and MO on BC1 and BC2 at 25°C.

TABLE 4: The adsorption isotherm of MO and MB adsorbed on BC2 and BC2 materials according to Langmuir and Freundlich models.

Model	Parameters	MB		MO	
		BC1	BC2	BC1	BC2
Langmuir isotherm parameters	R^2	0.922	0.994	0.991	0.969
	q_{\max} (mg.g ⁻¹)	6.418	8.612	3.080	6.519
	B (L.mg ⁻¹)	0.693	2.445	1.631	1.153
Freundlich isotherm parameters	R^2	0.992	0.365	0.672	0.988
	K_F	2.067	4.834	1.801	2.536
	$[(\text{mg.g}^{-1}) (\text{L.mg}^{-1})]^n$				
	n	2.129	3.978	2.694	2.268

proposes monolayer chemisorption by the donor-acceptor interaction based on electrophilic addition [54, 55]. This was because the charge-rich carbonized surface created bonds with protonated amino groups in the acidic medium. In addition, H-H and H-O bonding between the carbon-silicon group on the surface of biochar with the phenolic group of dye molecules could also be able to occur [56].

Rodriguez also indicated that the mechanism of dye adsorption on biochars may be classified into two types of interactions: nonelectrostatic and electrostatic. Adsorption is affected by the pH of the solution as well as the pH_{PZC} . Therefore, at $pH < pH_{PZC}$, the surface of the biochar is positively charged, promoting anionic species adsorption, and negatively charged at $pH > pH_{PZC}$, favoring cationic species adsorption [57]. Furthermore, all biochar samples had pH_{PZC} values of 8 and 9 for BC1 and BC2, respectively, higher than the pH values of MB (6.0) and MO (2) solutions. Biochar has a positive charge, MB is a cation dye that has a positive charge when dissolved in water, and MO is an anion dye that becomes negatively charged when dissolved in water. The adsorption mechanism is therefore dominated by the dispersion interaction between the dissociated electrons on the surface of the activated carbon and the free electrons of the dye molecule contained in the aromatic ring [58].

The R_L separation factor values for dye adsorption on the particular adsorbent were all positive and less than unity in all cases, suggesting extremely favorable adsorption under all circumstances. This is furthermore consistent with the results for the $1/n_F$ values, which were less than unity, suggesting that the dye is preferentially absorbed by biochar.

In terms of the maximum adsorption capacity of a material, BC2 adsorbs both dyes well and better than BC1 with a q_{max} value of 8.612 mg.g^{-1} and 6.519 mg.g^{-1} for MB and MO, respectively. These values are quite low compared to that of various adsorbents, such as bamboo-activated carbon [59], pea shells [60], modified clay-ball [61], and activated biochar derived from wakame [62]. However, biochars prepared with a particle size of 1–2 mm for coir and 5 mm for rice husk are more ecologically friendly and economically effective compared to other adsorbents. First, the granular nature of the adsorbent is useful since it can be easily separated after filtration and sedimentation without creating sludge. Second, in terms of recycling, using an agricultural by-product allows waste to be a valued resource to reduce environmental risks [12].

4. Conclusions

Biochars derived from agricultural by-products including coconut coir and rice husk were successfully produced in large quantity, homogenized following the calcination process, and then activated by H_2 25%. The biochars had a high specific surface area of $364.22 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$ and $329.71 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$ for rice husk and coconut coir biochars, respectively. All biochars had micro and mesopore structures but with different amounts. SEM images as well as XRD and Raman analysis of different biochars also showed various graphene layers with an amorphous structure. These results suggest that the bio-

char obtained in this study could have a high adsorbability for small to large molecules. Indeed, both biochar BC1 and BC2 showed good adsorption ability for MB and MO. In addition, BC2 had a better performance in dye adsorption than BC1.

The results of adsorption isotherm experiments indicated BC2 material followed Langmuir and Freundlich isotherms when adsorbing MO with a maximal adsorption volume of 6.519 mg.g^{-1} . In the case of MB adsorption, BC2 only followed the Langmuir isotherm with a maximal adsorption volume of 8.612 mg.g^{-1} . On the contrary, BC1 adsorbed MB following the Freundlich isotherm while its MO adsorption followed the Langmuir isotherm. In general, the agricultural by-products can be reused after treatment as adsorbents for persistent organic pollutants, including those found in wastewater from the textile industry.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included in the article.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Research Article

Crosslinking, Mechanical Properties, and Antimicrobial Activity of Photocurable Diacrylate Urethane/ZnO-Ag Nanocomposite Coating

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In this article, ZnO-Ag nanohybrids were chemically synthesized in the aqueous medium by reducing silver nitrate with sodium borohydride NaBH_4 . These nanohybrids were then homogeneously dispersed into the diacrylate urethane/1,6-hexanediol diacrylate resin system at a content of 2 wt%. The structural morphology, mechanical resistances, and crosslinking of the as-prepared nanocomposite coating (nanocoating) were evaluated. The antimicrobial characteristic was tested by keeping track of the lag-log growth phase of *E. coli* bacteria in the coating existence among cell cultures. The obtained data indicated that the nanohybrids added into the UV curing diacrylate urethane matrices had significantly increased the abrasion resistance, relative hardness, and conversion of the acrylate groups of the nanocoating. In addition, the antibacterial test revealed that the nanocoating had good antibacterial property against *E. coli*, whereas for the pure coating (without ZnO-Ag nanoparticles), there was no antibacterial activity observed.

1. Introduction

UV curable acrylate resin-based paints exhibit many advantages, such as transparency, moisture resistance, chemical resistance, and being environmentally friendly, since they do not contain the organic solvents and can be processed at normal temperatures. Consequently, they have been widely applied to various finish surfaces, such as steel or wooden floors [1–4].

Nowadays, nanomaterials attract strong research and application interest. The addition of nanoscale additives to the polymer matrix significantly enhanced the properties of the material [5–12]. Enhancing the properties of coatings with antibacterial function has become a social demand; thus, there is an attempt to mix inorganic nanoparticles (like Ag, ZnO, and TiO_2) as antibiotics into paint [13–19]. Among those, Ag nanoparticles showed the highest anti-

microbial effectiveness against most bacteria. In order to improve the antimicrobial activity of nano-Ag, Ag particles are often attached to nanosized transition metal oxides (such as Fe_3O_4 and MnO_2 nanoparticles). In the previously published paper, we reported the antimicrobial activity of Fe_3O_4 -Ag hybrid nanoparticles which was clearly more efficient than that of the single Ag nanoparticles [20–23]. The plausible explanation for this observation is that (1) Ag^+ ions were released faster from the hybrid nanoparticles and (2) the ionization of nano-Ag was accelerated by the presence of Fe^{3+} ions. Moreover, the absorbed radiation range of the nanohybrids can shift to the UV and visible light region [20].

However, the addition of nanoparticles (as nanofillers) can affect the curing reaction of thermoset resin systems depending on the intrinsic composition of the nanoparticles. In case of the epoxy matrix, Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles can act as a

bridging link molecule, leading to reduce the total free mass and increase the cross-linking density [24, 25]. Herein, to explore the healing dynamics of the epoxy/amine system, Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles played a role as nanocontainers for carrying functional groups such as the carboxylic acid [26], amino [27, 28], or hydroxyl [27, 29]. The authors found that reaction between carboxylic acid and amine functional groups of curing agent could impact hardener activation [26]. In contrast, hydroxyl and amine groups could increase the amount of thermal curing by gaining access to the epoxy groups [27]. It was reported that nano- SiO_2 might cause an incomplete crosslinking stage of clearcoat based on acrylic-melamine resin, reducing the crosslinking density of the neat clearcoat, and enhancing the weathering durability of the clearcoats. One possible explanation is that nano- SiO_2 absorbed the UV light, thus protecting the clearcoat from the impact of weathering degradation [30]. In our previous works [31–33] when examining the curing reaction of acrylic polyols with isocyanate, we found that isocyanate groups are also involved in reaction with OH groups of nano- SiO_2 to form a tight inorganic-organic hybrid material. For UV curing systems, the degree of influence of additives depends not only on the content but also on their ability to absorb UV rays and photocatalytic activity. Fe_3O_4 -Ag hybrid nanoparticles, despite a strong UV absorption, their low content (0.1 wt%) might not significantly affect the kinetics of curing reaction [23]. The organic UV absorber T384 reduced the efficiency of double bonds while nanoparticles absorb UV anatase TiO_2 and ZnO increased the conversion of the acrylate groups of the system due to strong photocatalytic activity [34].

In this work, ZnO-Ag nanohybrids were chemically synthesized in the aqueous medium by reducing silver nitrate with sodium borohydride NaBH_4 . Their structural morphology had been characterized. These nanohybrids were then homogeneously dispersed into the diacrylate urethane/1,6-hexanediol diacrylate resin system. The photocrosslinking polymerization process of the system of acrylate urethane resin and 1,6 hexanediol diacrylate diluent in the presence of ZnO-Ag nanohybrids had been investigated by using various measurements, such as the quantitative infrared spectra, coating hardness, and coating gel fraction. In addition, morphology, abrasion resistance, and antimicrobial activity of nanocomposite coating were also evaluated.

2. Experiments

2.1. Chemicals. NaBH_4 , AgNO_3 , and nano-ZnO were ordered from Sigma-Aldrich.

A photocurable resin system includes (i) Ebecryl 284 diacrylate urethane resin (abbrev. E284) ordered from a Radcure Specialties, (ii) 1,6-hexanediol diacrylate diluent (abbrev. HDDA, 80%, Sigma), and (iii) 1-hydroxy-cyclohexyl-phenyl-ketone photoinitiator, Irgacure 184 (I-184, CIBA). Figure 1 represents chemical structure of components of the photocurable resin system.

2.2. Synthesis of ZnO-Ag Nanohybrids. ZnO-Ag nanohybrids are chemically synthesized in the aqueous medium by reduc-

ing silver nitrate with sodium borohydride NaBH_4 [11]. Firstly, nano-ZnO (1.5 g) is added in 300 ml of distilled water, then dispersed homogeneously with aid of the ultrasonication 35 kHz for 60 min. Next, 30 ml of AgNO_3 solution (1.67 mg/ml) is dripped into the above-prepared dispersion of ZnO nanoparticles by further sonication for 40 min. The mixture is then placed into the 500 ml glass flask for the next synthesis step. To fabricate ZnO-Ag nanohybrids, NaBH_4 solution formed by dissolving 0.024 g of reductant into 50 ml water is then dripped (1 drop/s) to the reaction flask. The mixed solution is stirred (120 rpm for 60 min) at 4°C. The nanoparticles were obtained by repeatedly adding fresh distilled water and then centrifuging the solution at 10,000 rpm for 5 min for several times until the total removal of the residual precursors and agents.

2.3. Preparation of Nanocomposite Coating. ZnO-Ag nanohybrids at the 2 wt% content of HDDA and E284 are added into HDDA, then ultrasonicated during 3 hrs. Thereafter, this mixture is mixed with E284 and I.184 by mechanical stirring in the Ika RW16 Basic Mixer (England) for 30 min. The ratio of HDDA/E284/I.184 was 45/55/3.

The paint films are prepared on different surfaces with varied sizes depending on investigation purposes. In detail, for IR spectral analysis, paint layers with a 25 μm thickness are coated on KBr pellets. For gel fraction examination and morphology observation, the coatings were made on Teflon sheets with the size of 100 \times 100 \times 10. The coatings were deposited on glass plates (100 \times 100 \times 3 mm) for testing the abrasion resistance and relative hardness.

The coating samples are exposed to UV light (250 mW/cm²) using the FUSION UV system (F300S, USA) at 25°C in air by passing several times with a 5–40 m/s rate of web. The time of UV exposure can calculate from the web rate, for example, UV exposure time of 0.15 s corresponds to a web pass at 40 m/s.

2.4. Characterizations

2.4.1. FTIR Spectrum Analysis. A decrease of characteristic IR absorption bands of acrylate groups during the crosslinking reaction is quantitatively studied according to the method described in previous papers [23, 34] by using a FTIR spectroscopy Nicolet iS10 (USA).

2.4.2. Gel Fraction Analysis. The gel fraction (GEL) of coatings is analyzed according to ASTM D 2765. The cured samples are carried out in a Soxhlet tool in CH_3COCH_3 for 24 h [23]. The GEL is determined by the following formula:

$$\text{The GEL(\%)} = \left(\frac{m_t}{m_0} \right) \times 100, \quad (1)$$

where m_t is the weight of insoluble part which was heated at 50°C until completely dry and m_0 was the weight of initial coating (before analysis).

2.4.3. Study on Hardness and Abrasion Resistance of Coatings. The hardness of paint film is evaluated based on the NF T 30-016 standard by using a pendulum damping

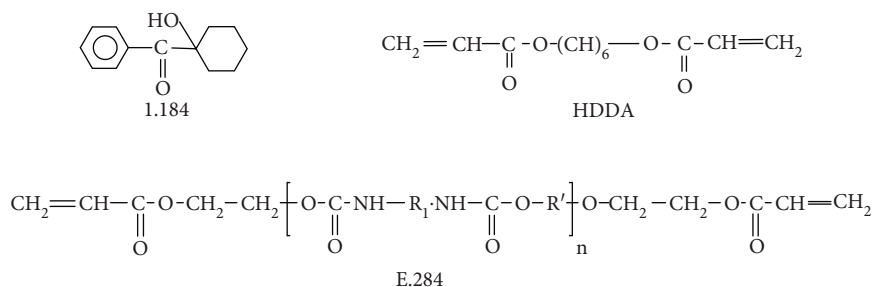


FIGURE 1: Chemical structure of the photocurable resin system.

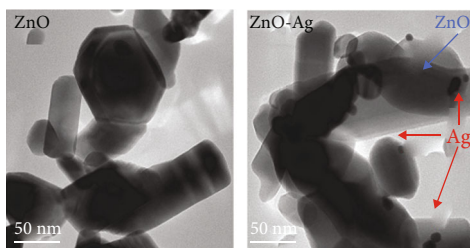


FIGURE 2: TEM images of pure ZnO nanoparticles (ZnO) and self-synthesis ZnO-Ag nanohybrids.

tester (model 300). The relative hardness (RH) is calculated by the formula as follows:

$$RH = \frac{\text{Absolute hardness of the film}}{425 \text{ (425 was absolute hardness of standard glass)}} \quad (2)$$

The abrasion resistance of the films is determined according to the abrasive falling methods (ASTM D968). Each sample was tested 3 times, and the illustrated results were the average values.

2.4.4. Microstructural Examination. The morphology of the self-synthesized ZnO-Ag nanohybrids has been analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (JEM 1010, JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The crystallinity and crystalline phase of the fabricated nanoparticle structures were examined using an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Philips X'Pert MPD) with CuK α radiation (0.1540 nm) in the range of 20°–60°.

The morphology of the nanocomposite coating has been studied using Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy S 4800 (FE-SEM) (Hitachi, Japan).

2.4.5. Antimicrobial Assay. For antimicrobial assay, *E. coli* strain DH5 α is received from Invitrogen (USA); LB medium including yeast extract and Bacto tryptone are ordered from Merck (Germany). *E. coli* strain DH5 α is inoculated into 2 ml of LB medium and shaken overnight at 200 rpm while the temperature remained 37°C. Another cell suspension at 1% v/v cultured cell suspension: LB medium is prepared by inoculating the cells into 100 ml of fresh LB medium. The incubation underwent the same conditions as presented above. Once the value of optical density value ($\lambda = 600$ nm, OD₆₀₀) was 0.3, the coatings are placed into incubation-

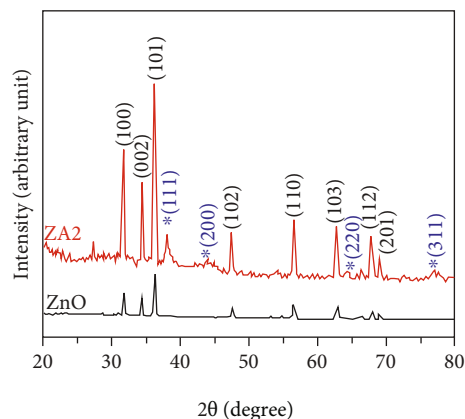


FIGURE 3: XRD diffraction diagrams of pure ZnO nanoparticles (ZnO) and ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (ZA2).

flagon and kept cultivating. The suspension of cultured cell suspension is then collected at various time scales (from 30 to 300 min) after adding either UVAU or UVAU/ZnO-Ag nanocoatings (with the same size of 100 × 100 × 0.03 mm); then, their OD₆₀₀ values were determined. All experiments were conducted in triplicate for determining the mean value [19, 23].

3. Results and Discussions

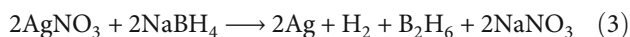
3.1. Study on Characteristics of ZnO-Ag Nanohybrids. The structural morphology of pure ZnO nanoparticles (ZnO) and ZnO-Ag nanohybrids is characterized by TEM and XRD analyses and shown in Figures 2 and 3.

Figure 2 shows that the used commercial ZnO nanoparticles were cylindrical in shape and have dimensions of about 30–70 nm in width and about 100–200 nm in length; Ag nanoparticles are spherical in shape with a size of about 10–30 nm attached to ZnO nanoparticles. Because these two types of particles are different in shape and size, it is easy to see the presence of both types of particles on TEM image.

The crystalline phase structure of the self-synthesized ZnO-Ag nanohybrids is analyzed by the X-ray diffraction method. XRD diffraction diagrams of ZnO-Ag nanohybrids and pure ZnO nanoparticles are presented in Figure 3.

From the obtained results, it can be seen that the XRD diagrams of both particles show characteristic diffraction peaks corresponding to the lattice faces (100), (002), (101), (102), (110), (103), (112), and (201) of ZnO nanoparticles

(JCPDS No. 36-1451). Apart from the spectral lines that characterize the hexagonal crystal structure of pure ZnO compounds, no other peaks or spectra of the impurity were observed. On the XRD diffraction pattern of ZnO-Ag hybrid nanoparticles, the characteristic diffraction peaks of ZnO remain the same, which shows that Ag ions are not substituted for ZnO in the crystal lattice of ZnO. In addition, on the XRD pattern of ZnO-Ag nanohybrid nanoparticles, diffraction peaks appear at angular positions corresponding to the lattice planes (111), (200), (220), and (311) in the face center cubic structure of Ag (JCPDS No. 04-0783). Thus, the method of using NaBH_4 reducing agent to reduce Ag^+ ions to Ag atoms is described by the following reaction equation:



3.2. Study on Crosslinking and Characteristics of Photocuring Acrylate Urethane/ZnO-Ag Nanocoating

3.2.1. Conversion of the Acrylate Groups. Using the IR spectral method to study the crosslinking of the curing resin system is one of the most simple and effective methods. It allows to assess both the rate of polymerization reaction and the conversion of the reacted functional groups [1, 23, 34]. In the current paper, the photocrosslinking polymerization reaction of the coating base on E.284 resin, HDDA diluent, and I.184 photoinitiator in the presence of 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids is investigated by analyzing the changes of IR absorption density of acrylate double bonds. IR spectra of the photocurable diacrylate urethane/1,6-hexanediol diacrylate/1-hydroxy-cyclohexyl-phenyl-ketone systems without (UVAU) and with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag) before and after UV exposure of 4.8 s are presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4 shows that after 4.8 s exposed to UV, IR bands at 1632, 1409, 984, and 811 cm^{-1} which are assigned to the double bonds of acrylate groups in E.284 and HDDA molecules decreased. Among those, the absorption band at 811 cm^{-1} is chosen to study numerically the transformation of the acrylate groups throughout the crosslinking process of the coatings because of its most clearly decrease. The calculated data are presented in Figure 5.

As shown in Figure 5, the conversion of the acrylate groups occurs rapidly in the first 0.15 s and then slows down. The acrylate double bond conversion at the coating containing 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids was higher than that at neat coating (without ZnO-Ag nanohybrids). After 4.8 s exposed to UV light, most of the acrylate double bonds were covered by 93.53 and 95.82% for neat and nanocomposite coatings, respectively. Thus, ZnO-Ag nanoparticles enhanced the transformation of acrylate double bonds.

3.2.2. Variation of Gel Fraction. To have further information of the photopolymerization reaction of the system in the presence of ZnO-Ag nanohybrids, the GEL of the coatings was determined. Figure 6 visualizes the obtained results.

Figure 6 indicates that, after 0.3 s of crosslinking, the GEL of the films without and with 2 wt% the nanohybrids appeared. The GEL increased rapidly in the first 2.4 s; after

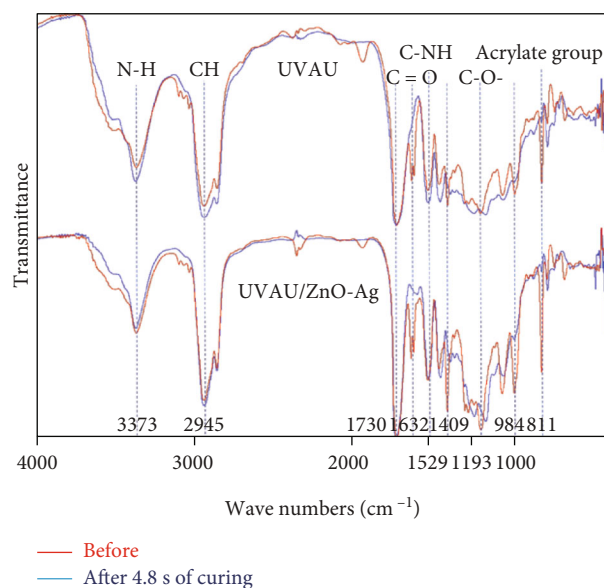


FIGURE 4: IR spectra of the UV-curable E.284/HDDA/I.184 systems without (UVAU) and with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag) before and after 4.8 s UV light irradiation.

then, it slowed down. In the presence of 2 wt% of the nanohybrids, the GEL of the film was increased in comparison with that of the neat film. After 4.8 s of the crosslinking, the GEL of the films got the highest value of approximately 95.3 (without the nanohybrids) and 96.7% (with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids). Thus, 2 wt ZnO-Ag nanohybrids increased the GEL of the films.

3.2.3. Hardness Evaluation. For the thermoset resin system, the hardness of the coating increased with the crosslinking density, and thus, it is possible to study the polymerization reaction by keeping track of the growth of the coatings' hardness. Figure 7 represents the relative hardness of coatings varied over time range of 0-4.8 s. It is clear that the hardness values rose rapidly in the first 1.2 s of the reaction before slowing down. The hardness of the coating containing 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids was higher than that of the neat coating (without the nanohybrids). After 4.8 s of crosslinking reaction, the hardness of the coating and ZnO-Ag hybrid-reinforced coating reached the highest value of around 0.72 and 0.76, respectively. The incorporation of the nanoparticles in the coating matrix increased slightly the coating hardness.

It is well known that the outstanding characteristic of a photoinitiator is susceptible to UV light [2, 27]. When being exposed to UV light in FUSION UV equipment, the I 184 photoinitiator is destructed into free radicals which then attack the acrylate group, initiating the crosslinking polymerization. At first (in the first 0.15 s of UV exposure), the content of photoinitiators is high (about 3%) and the curing system is relatively flexible (low viscosity) so the reaction of the acrylate double bonds is inconsiderably impacted by UV absorbers of ZnO-Ag nanohybrids. However, concentration of the photoinitiators and the acrylate groups reduce rapidly by time, and thus, the conversion of the acrylate groups

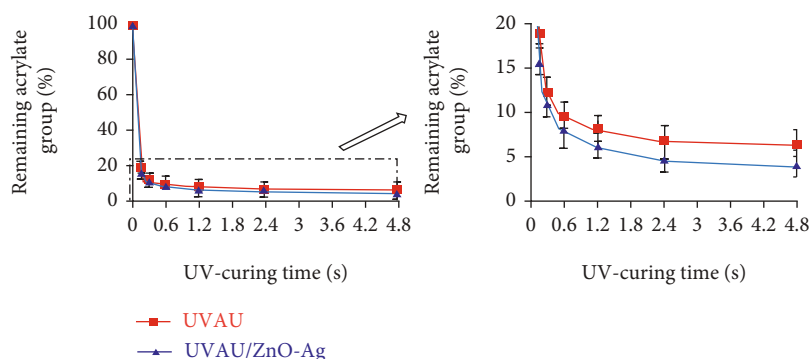


FIGURE 5: Conversion of the acrylate groups under the UV light irradiation.

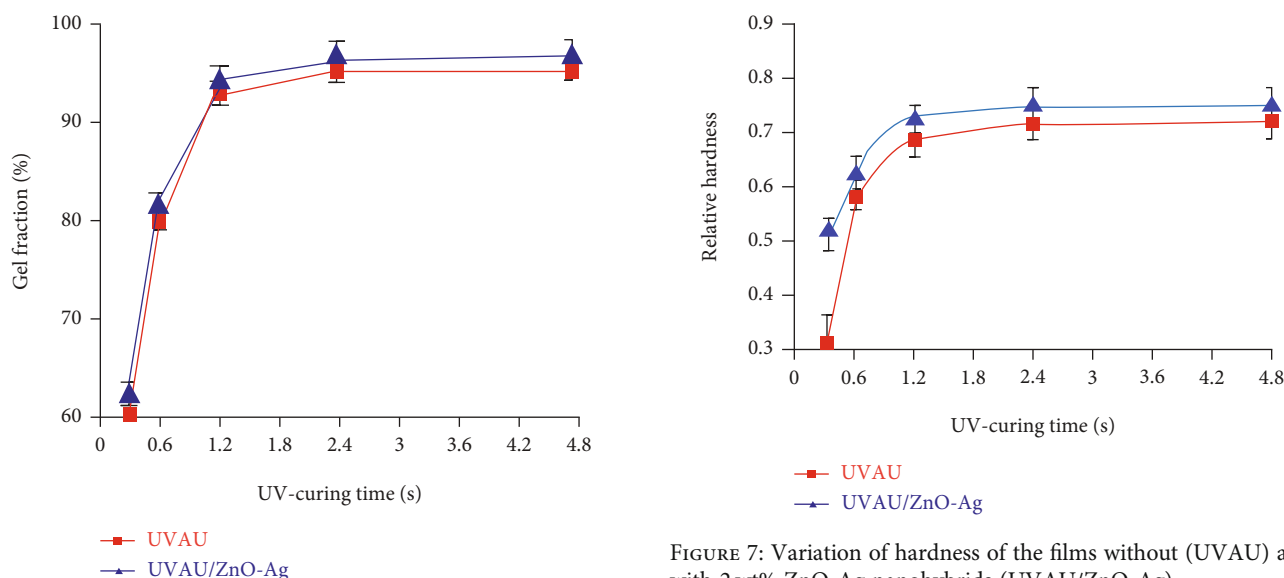


FIGURE 6: Variations of GEL of the photocurable acrylate urethane coating without (UVAU) and with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag).

slowed down. In the presence of 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids, the conversion of the acrylate groups is affected by photocatalytic characteristic of nano ZnO-Ag hybrid structure. This effect is similar to the case of photocatalyst nanoparticles (A-TiO₂, ZnO) [34–37]. The difference is that due to the hybridization with Ag, the photocatalytic activity of ZnO is reinforced. When absorbing UV energy, an electron jumps from the valence band to the conduction band, resulting in the formation of an electron-hole pair. These electron and positive hole pairs reacted with hydroxyl functional groups, water and oxygen molecules attached to the nanoparticles' surface, generating free radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) [38–40] which could also initiate the crosslinking polymerization reaction of acrylate double bonds, leading to the increase of its conversion as well as the increase in the GEL and relative hardness of the film.

3.2.4. Study on Abrasion Resistance of the Paint Film. Abrasion resistance of the films without (UVAU) and with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag) after 4.8 s of crosslinking is presented in Figure 8.

FIGURE 7: Variation of hardness of the films without (UVAU) and with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag).

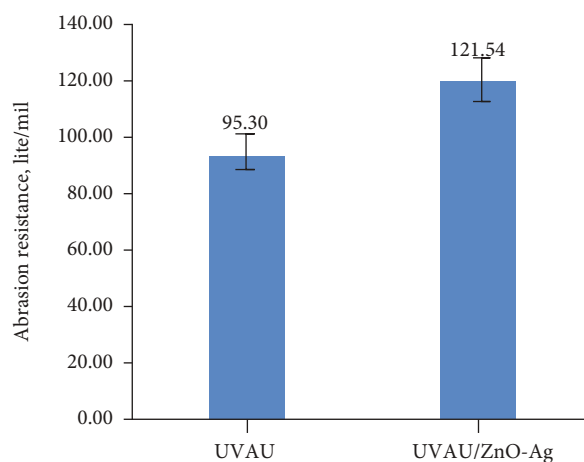


FIGURE 8: Abrasion resistance of the coating without (UVAU) and with 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag) after 4.8 s of curing.

Figure 8 demonstrates that the incorporation of 2 wt% ZnO-Ag hybrid nanoparticles into polymer network helped gain the abrasion resistance of the paint film from 95.30 to 121.54 l/mil. To explain the enhancement of abrasion

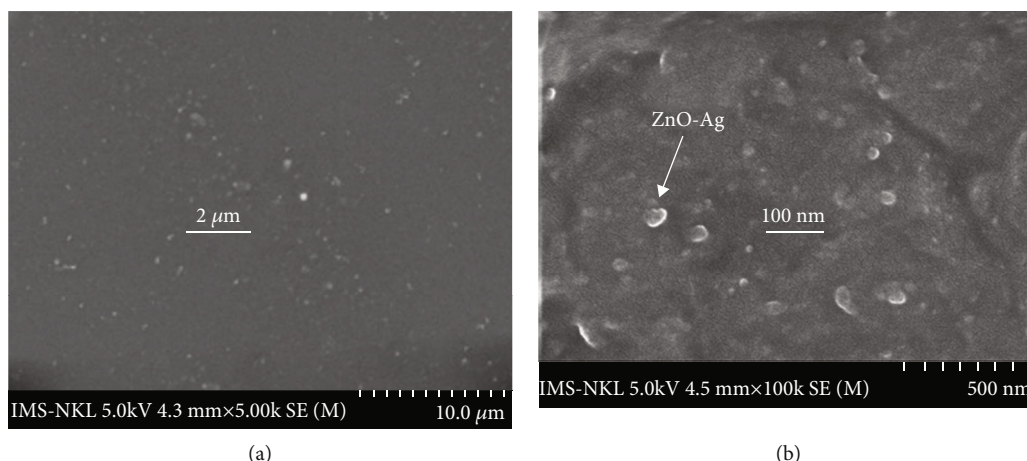


FIGURE 9: FE-SEM image of the photocurable acrylate urethane/ZnO-Ag nanocoating in surface (a) and in cross-section (b).

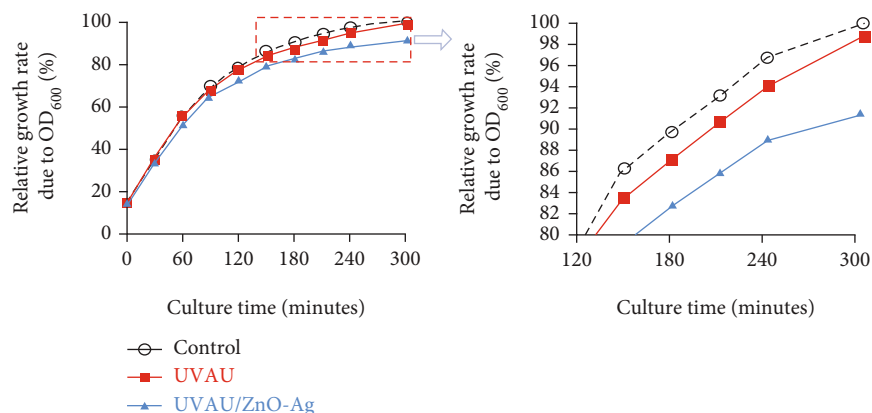


FIGURE 10: The growth rate of *E. coli* bacteria in liquid culture without (control) or with the presence of the coating films not containing (UVAU) or containing 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag).

resistance of the photocurable acrylate urethane/ZnO-Ag nanocoating, its FE-SEM images are analyzed and indicated in Figure 9.

As can be seen from Figure 9, the coating possessed tight structures with no defects or cracks. Additionally, the nanohybrids are well-dispersed into the coating with a size of about 40-250 nm. The abrasion resistance of the nanocoating is enhanced by tough ZnO-Ag nanohybrids which had high hardness. This is also the reason for the increase in the relative hardness of the nanocoating in Figure 7.

3.3. Antimicrobial Activity of the Nanocoating. The growth rate of *E. coli* bacteria in liquid culture without (control) or with the presence of the coating films not containing (UVAU) or containing ZnO-Ag nanohybrids (UVAU/ZnO-Ag) during 300 min (5 h) is presented in Figure 10.

As shown in Figure 10, after 5 h of test, the growth rate of *E. coli* bacteria was only ~91% in the culture with added UVAU/ZnO-Ag coating (containing 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids), whereas it was 98.5% in the culture with the presence of UVAU films (not containing 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids). These results have proved that the UVAU/ZnO-Ag nanocomposite film has obviously stronger antibiotic effect against *E.*

coli bacteria than that of the UVAU/ZnO-Ag nanocomposite film [19].

4. Conclusion

ZnO-Ag nanohybrids were chemically synthesized in the aqueous medium by reducing silver nitrate with sodium borohydride NaBH_4 . Their structural morphology had been characterized by FE-SEM, TEM, and XRD. These nanohybrids (2 wt%) were then homogeneously dispersed into the diacrylate urethane/1,6-hexanediol diacrylate resin system. Photopolymerization, morphology and mechanical properties, and antimicrobial activity of UV curing acrylate urethane coating in the presence of 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids were investigated. The analysis results show that ZnO-Ag nanohybrids are dispersed well in polymer matrix, with a size of about 40-250 nm. The nanohybrids enhance significantly both the conversion of acrylate groups, gel fraction, relative hardness, abrasion resistance, and antimicrobial activity of the coating. After 4.8 s crosslinking reaction, the conversion of acrylate groups, gel fraction, abrasion resistance, and hardness of the paint film increases from 93.53 to 95.82%, from 95.3 to 96.7%, from 0.72 to 0.76,

and from 95.28 to 121.54 l/mil, respectively. After 5 h of the antimicrobial test, the growth rate of *E. coli* bacteria is only ~91% in the culture with the presence of the paint films containing 2 wt% ZnO-Ag nanohybrids, while it is 98.5% in the culture with the presence of the films not containing the nanohybrids.

Data Availability

All the data and supporting materials are included within the article.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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
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Research Article

Improving SERS Sensing Efficiency and Catalytic Reduction Activity in Multifunctional Ternary Ag-TiO₂-GO Nanostructures: Roles of Electron Transfer Process on Performance Enhancement

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Multifunctional nanocomposites have received great attention for years; electron transfer (ET) is considered as an explanatory mechanism for enhancement of performance of these nanostructures. The existence of this ET process has been proved in many studies using either experimental or computational approaches. In this study, a ternary nanocomposite system of Ag/TiO₂/GO was prepared to evaluate the performance enhancement in two experimental models: a physical model (i.e., surface-enhanced Raman scattering (SERS) sensor) and a chemical one (i.e., catalytic reduction reaction). The metal/semiconductor heterojunction between Ag and TiO₂, as well as Ti-O-C bonds, has allowed plasmonic hot electrons to be transferred in the internal structure of the material. An investigation on the role of Ag content on the SERS sensing and catalytic reduction efficiency of Ag/TiO₂/GO was performed in both models. Interestingly, they all resulted in the same optimal Ag content of 50 wt%. It was then further discussed to provide a convincing evidence for the plasmon-induced electron transfer phenomena in the Ag/TiO₂/GO nanostructure. These findings also suggest a pathway to design and develop high-performance, cost-effective, facile-preparation, and eco-friendly multifunctional nanostructures for detecting and removing contaminants in environment.

1. Introduction

It is now widely accepted that electron-transfer (ET) mechanism in metal-semiconductor (MS) nanocomposites/nano-hybrids must be involved to explain the enhancement of their contaminant detection/degradation performance, in comparison to single metals or semiconductors [1–5]. ET naturally occurs in connection with the transduction of energy. In MS materials, ET process takes place in a dual-mode pathway. It means electrons can be transferred from metals to semiconductors or from semiconductors to metals,

which depends directly on the wavelengths of excitation sources [2–4, 6]. When a metal nanostructure contacts with a semiconductor, a specific space-charge region is created in MS interface, which leads to the band bending in the semiconductor and gives rise to a Schottky transition [2, 6]. Due to the light-matter interaction between ultraviolet (UV) light and the semiconductor, electrons are excited and then, they can be injected into the metal via the Schottky transition, causing the increase of the electron lifetime [6]. Meanwhile, localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) of the metal plays a central role in the generation of hot electrons when

interacting with a visible or infrared light, followed by injection of the hot electrons into the semiconductor [1, 3, 5]. As a result, a large number of active electrons were created, leading to the improvements in the efficiency of various applications such as sensing devices [4], photocatalysis [2], solar cells [3], photovoltaics [1], and photothermal therapies [5].

For several decades, many reports on ET process in MS structures, including both experimental and computational ones, have been published to clarify the importance of ET in the enhancement mechanisms of various technological applications [7–10]. For instance, Furube et al. utilized femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopy on Au/TiO₂ to observe plasmon-induced ET from Au nanodots to TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) [8]. Iida et al. proposed a directly transferred pathway of electrons from Ag nanoclusters to TiO₂ layers without passing through the conduction band of the Ag nanoclusters, using a computational approach [9]. Filipin et al. reported on another approach, in which they employed surface-enhanced Raman scattering (SERS) platform as an experimental model to investigate the enhanced Raman signals of R6G using TiO₂ nanotubes decorated with Ag NPs, resulting in 9×10^7 of Raman enhancement factor (EF) [7]. Yazid et al. investigated the enhanced catalytic reduction of 4-nitrophenol (4-NP) using AuNPs immobilized on the TiO₂ support; Au/TiO₂ exhibited superior catalytic activity in reduction of 4-NP, compared to AuNPs only [10]. Those reports have clarified the ET process in MS interfaces. However, each of those reports only focused on one kind of material for one specific application while ET process in MS materials may have led to the enhancement of the performance of various applications. Therefore, using different experimental models to investigate the enhancement of the performance efficiency of different applications with one material structure may answer the question if ET process in MS structures would exhibit the same effects on those distinct applications. Furthermore, it would provide more convincing evidence for the ET process in internal MS structures.

However, one of the main drawbacks of MS structures is their low adsorption capacity due to the poor adsorption capacity of their components (i.e., metals and semiconductors) [11]. Unfortunately, many popular applications including SERS sensors [12], photodegradation [13], and catalytic reaction [14] require an intimate interaction between the target molecules and the surface of the MS structures. Because of the poor adsorption capacity, only few target molecules can be adsorbed on MS surfaces to interact with active electrons, leading to the low performance of the applications using MS materials [12, 13]. Therefore, it is necessary to improve the adsorption capacity of MS materials to enhance their performance in those applications.

In the effort to find out an effective solution to improve the adsorption capacity of the MS structures, the introduction of graphene oxide (GO) to the nanocomposite structures has been regarded as a promising approach [15, 16]. GO is a two-dimensional carbon-based nanostructure which exhibits excellent adsorption capacity due to the presence of abundant oxygen functional groups such as hydroxyl, epoxy,

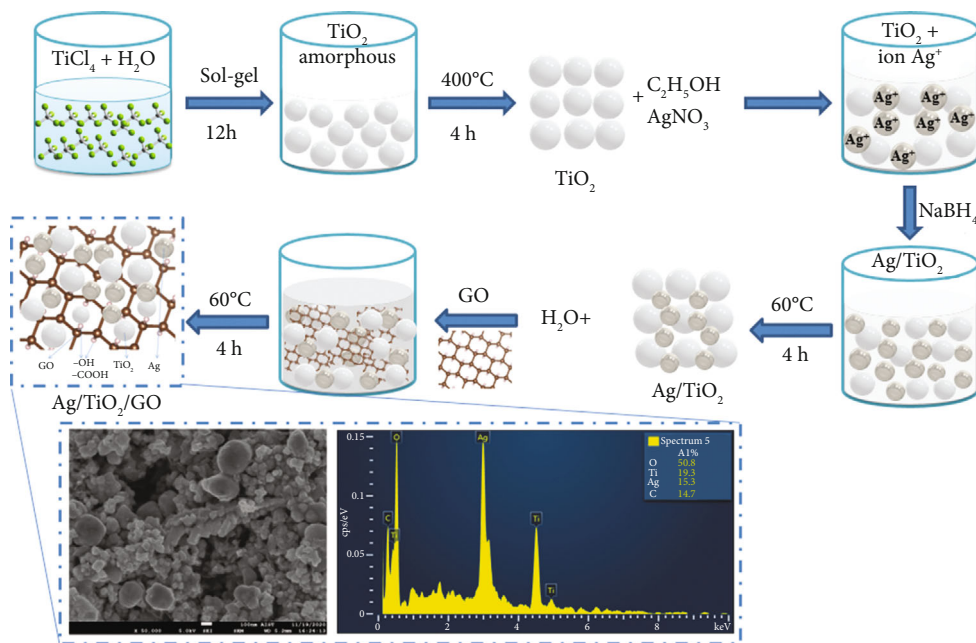
and carboxyl groups on its surface [16]. Wang et al. claimed that the photodegradation activity of TiO₂/GO composites was remarkably superior to that of TiO₂ due to the strong absorption capacity of GO [17]. In addition, GO can serve as an electron transporter. Gillespie et al. employed hybrid density functional theory calculations to propose that reduced-GO (rGO) in TiO₂/rGO had acted as a photoelectron trap (electron acceptor) via Ti-O-C bonds, leading to extended lifetimes of photoexcited charge carriers in TiO₂/rGO composites and improved photocatalytic efficiency [18]. Electrons should have continued to be transferred from TiO₂ to the GO sheets, leading to a stronger enhancement in the performance of TiO₂/rGO nanocomposites, in comparison to bare TiO₂ NPs. This study suggested an idea to fabricate other MS/GO nanocomposites, in which electrons can be transferred from metals to semiconductors and then GO sheets and improve the overall performance of their applications.

In this work, we prepared a set of Ag/TiO₂/GO nanocomposites (as MS/GO nanocomposites) to investigate their ET process. However, instead of focusing on specific measurements, such as femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopy [8], we stressed on the enhancement of the performance of the MS/GO structures and the repeat of this phenomenon in different experimental models. Thus, we aimed to discuss in detail about the correlation between the ET process and the performance of these empirical models. In more detail, we employed two experimental models including a physical model (i.e., SERS sensor) and a chemical model (i.e., catalytic reduction). Using a set of MS nanostructures that differed in Ag ratios, we further clarified the effects of Ag content in the composite structure on the performance of Ag/TiO₂/GO in each model. Moreover, the roles of TiO₂, GO in the performance enhancement were also discussed. The similar optimal Ag content in two models provided a convincing evidence for the ET process in multifunctional Ag/TiO₂/GO nanostructures.

2. Experimental Procedures

2.1. Materials. Silver nitrate (AgNO₃, ≥99.0 wt%), sodium borohydride (NaBH₄, 99 wt%), titanium tetrachloride (TiCl₄, ≥99.8 wt%), ammonium hydroxide (NH₄OH, 28.0–30.0% NH₃), ethanol (C₂H₅OH, 98 v/v%), methylene blue (MB, C₁₆H₁₈ClN₃S), and 4-nitrophenol (4-NP, C₆H₅NO₃) were purchased from Shanghai Chemical Reagent and used directly without further purification. Graphene oxide (GO) was prepared using a modified Hummers method. Double distilled water was used throughout the experiments.

2.2. Synthesis of Ag/TiO₂/GO Nanocomposites. Ag/TiO₂/GO nanocomposites (ATG Nces) were synthesized through a facile wet chemistry approach as described in Scheme 1. First, pure TiO₂ NPs were fabricated via a modified sol-gel method based on TiCl₄ precursors [19]. Gel solution was obtained by aging for 12 h at room temperature, followed by the annealing process at 400°C for 4 h, which induced the crystallization of TiO₂ NPs. The crystalline TiO₂ (0.2 g)



SCHEME 1: Schematic illustration of the synthesis steps for Ag/TiO₂/GO ternary nanocomposite.

was added into 50 ml of C₂H₅OH. Subsequently, to arrive at different Ag contents in the nanocomposites, 10 ml of AgNO₃ solution at different concentrations of AgNO₃ (62 mM, 91 mM, 185 mM, and 555 mM) was added to the solutions. The mixture was subjected to vigorous stirring at room temperature for 1 h, allowing the adsorption of Ag⁺ ions onto the TiO₂ NP's surface. A required 10 ml volume of NaBH₄ (62 mM, 91 mM, 185 mM, and 555 mM) was added to reduce ions Ag⁺ to Ag⁰ metals in each solution. After 2 hours of reduction, the as-synthesized Ag/TiO₂ NPs were purified by three washing cycles (1000 rpm) using deionized water and were dried at 60°C for 4 h. Then, GO nanosheets were synthesized using the modified Hummers' method reported by Paulchamy in 2015 [20]. A simple self-assembly approach was employed to decorate GO nanosheets with functional Ag/TiO₂ NPs. A homogeneous solution containing Ag/TiO₂ NPs was prepared by an ultrasonic homogenizer for 20 min. Then, the self-assembly of Ag/TiO₂ on the GO (3 ml, 2 mg/ml) surface occurred under constant stirring at 200 rpm for 2 h. Finally, we obtained a set of ATG Nces with varied ratios of Ag including 25, 33, 50, and 75 wt%, named as A1TG, A2TG, A3TG, and A4TG, respectively. GO content is fixed to be 6 wt% in every kind of ATG Nces investigated in this study.

2.3. Characterizations. The crystal phase and composition of Ag/TiO₂/GO were investigated by X-ray diffraction (Bruker D5005 X-ray diffractometer, Cu K_α, λ = 1.5406 Å) under a voltage of 40 kV and a current of 30 mA. The morphologies of Ag/TiO₂/GO were analyzed using scanning electron microscopy (SEM Hitachi S-4800) operating under an acceleration voltage of 5 kV and transmission electron microscopy (TEM JEOL JEM-1010) at an accelerating voltage of 80 kV. Chemical analyses of the nanocomposite were performed by Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR

HL ReactIR 45P), Raman spectroscopy (Horiba Macro-RAM™) with 785 nm laser excitation, and Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS). Optical analyses were carried out using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (JENWAY 6850), and 10 mm path length quartz cuvettes were used for the measurements of absorption ranges.

2.4. Investigated Experimental Models: SERS Sensor, Catalytic Reduction. To investigate the enhanced electron transfer in ATG Nces, two experimental models with different electronic excitation/providing sources were undertaken. The first model was a SERS sensor based on the electronic excitation of a high-energy laser beam on Ag nanoparticles. To evaluate the SERS activity of ATG Nces, methylene blue (MB) was selected as a reporter molecule. Solutions at various concentrations of MB (10⁻⁴ to 10⁻⁹ M) were prepared in water. The substrates were fabricated through a few facile steps, in which square aluminum (Al) substrates were prepared with the dimension of 1 × 1 cm² and surface-active circular area with a diameter of 0.2 cm. ATG Nces with different contents of Ag was dispersed in water, then coated on the surface-active of Al substrate by a drop-casting method, and dried naturally at room temperature. MB reporter with various concentrations was dropped directly onto the ATG Nces-Al substrate, followed by the natural evaporation of water. SERS measurements were acquired via Raman spectroscopy under an excitation wavelength of 785 nm by means of a 100x objective lens with a 0.90 numerical aperture. The laser power was set to be 45 mW at 45° of contacting angle, with a diffraction-limited laser spot diameter of 1.1 μm (1.22 λ/NA, where λ is the wavelength of the laser, and NA is the numerical aperture of the microscope objective) and focal length of 115 nm. The expose time for each measurement was 10 seconds with 2 accumulations. A baseline calibration was conducted to obtain the final spectrum.

The second experimental model was based on the catalytic reduction property of ATG Nces with BH_4^- ions as an electron donor. The reduction of 4-nitrophenol (4-NP) to 4-aminophenol (4-AP) by NaBH_4 was selected as a model reaction for evaluating the catalytic reduction performance of our ATG Nces. First, 5 ml of 4-NP (2×10^{-4} M in water) was mixed with 5 ml NaBH_4 (0.01 M in water); the solution turned from light yellow to bright yellow rapidly. Subsequently, 0.8 mg of ATG Nces with different contents of Ag was added to the solution. Time-dependent absorption spectra were recorded by UV-Vis spectroscopy. The degradation rate catalytic reduction model was calculated by using the following equation:

$$\text{Percentage of degradation (\%)} = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100, \quad (1)$$

where C_0 and C_t represent, respectively, the initial 4-NP concentration and that at time t of degradation.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterizations of Ag/TiO₂/GO. Scheme 1 demonstrates the formation of ATG nanostructures. Firstly, the Ag/TiO₂ NPs were fabricated due to the reduction of Ag^+ ions adsorbed onto TiO₂ crystal matrix. Then, the as-synthesized Ag/TiO₂ NPs were self-assembled onto the surface of the GO sheets via electrostatic interactions. The morphology of ATG has been revealed in TEM and SEM images (Figure 1). Figure 1(a) shows the TEM image of ATG Nces with the presence of three types of materials with distinct shapes and sizes marked as Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3. Both Type 1 and Type 2 are spherical nanostructures but differed in size. The distribution histograms of SEM result shown in Figure 1(c) reveals the average diameters of Type 1 and Type 2 nanoparticles to be 50 nm and 100 nm with frequencies of 35% and 65%, respectively. Besides, Figure 1(b) shows the presence of Type 1 on the surface of Type 2. Thus, it can be assumed that Type 1 nanostructures represent Ag nanoparticles while Type 2 ones represent TiO₂ nanoparticles. In addition, Figure 1(c) and its magnified image (Figure 1(e)) also exhibit a sheet-like structure which reminds of the two-dimensional structure of GO-pristine (Figure 1(d)). The presence of Ag and TiO₂ nanoparticles on the surface of this sheet-like structure reveals the structure of Ag/TiO₂/GO, in which the Ag/TiO₂ nanostructures have been situated on the surface of GO sheets. The presence of GO in the nanocomposite can be also observed in the TEM image (Figure 1(a)) as large and plane nanostructures (Type 3).

The XRD pattern of ATG Nces is shown in Figure 2(a), in comparison with the reference patterns of TiO₂, Ag, and Ag/TiO₂. The position of the diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 38.010^\circ$, 44.09° , and 64.03° can be assigned to the (111), (200), and (220) planes of Ag NPs (ICDD file No. 01-087-0597), respectively. In addition, the XRD pattern also shows the diffractions of the crystal planes (101), (200), (211), (105), and (022) at $2\theta = 25.410^\circ$, 47.830° , 54.990° , 53.800° , and 62.660° , which correspond to anatase TiO₂ (ICDD file No.

01-086-1175). These results suggest successful formation of both Ag NPs and TiO₂ NPs in our as-synthesized composite nanomaterials. Furthermore, the diffraction peaks of ATG Nces are well-matched with those of Ag/TiO₂ (ICDD file No. 98-005-8369), which provides an evidence for the presence of Ag NPs in the TiO₂ crystal matrix. Besides, the Scherrer formula was employed to calculate the average crystal grain size of Ag NPs and TiO₂ NPs via their diffraction peaks [21]. The obtained results of 43 nm for Ag NPs and 125 nm for TiO₂ NPs have confirmed the assumptions about their sizes that we have provided from TEM and SEM analysis.

FTIR, Raman, and EDX spectra were recorded to analyze the chemical properties of ATG Nces. In the FTIR spectrum of ATG Nces (Figure 2(b)), the characteristic peaks of O-H stretching vibrations (3651 cm^{-1} , 3078 cm^{-1}) and C=O stretching vibrations (1715 cm^{-1}) are in agreement with the peaks observed in the FTIR of GO, including a broad band appeared at 3580 cm^{-1} and a sharp peak at 1640 cm^{-1} , respectively [22]. It can be ascribed to GO-containing ATG Nces. In addition, the characteristic peaks at 800 cm^{-1} and 467 cm^{-1} indicate to Ti-O-C bonding, which demonstrates the direct binding of TiO₂ onto the surface of GO sheets [23, 24]. Figure 2(d) shows Raman spectrum of ATG Nces, in comparison to those of GO and TiO₂. The Raman spectrum of the nanocomposite reveals two prominent peaks corresponding to D-band (1300 cm^{-1}) and G-band (1600 cm^{-1}) of GO, between which D-band is broad and higher in intensity compared to G-band. The ratio of intensities between D-band and G-band (I_D/I_G) of ATG Nces (1.6) is larger than that of GO-pristine (1.4). It has been reported that a broad D-band with higher relative intensity compared to that of G-band can be the result of high disorder in graphite [25]. The disorder of graphite in our materials may be due to the deposition of Ag/TiO₂ on the surface of GO sheets [25]. In addition, the two bands at 156 cm^{-1} and 635 cm^{-1} are also observed in the spectrum of TiO₂, which are assigned to the E_g modes of TiO₂ anatase phase. These Raman spectra have reconfirmed the presence of TiO₂ in the nanocomposite materials [26]. The chemical composition of the ATG Nces surface was studied by EDX spectroscopy. The EDX spectrum (Scheme 1) indicates the presence of Ag, Ti, O, and C and proves the high level of purity of ATG Nces. To analyze the optical properties of ATG Nces, UV-Vis absorption spectra were recorded (Figure 2(c)). The spectra of both TiO₂ and ATG Nces exhibit a significant absorption band in the UV region. However, the absorption spectrum of ATG Nces shows higher band intensity and a red-shift in the absorption edge. To clarify this difference in absorption edge, the optical bandgap of TiO₂ and ATG Nces were determined via Tauc plot (Figure 2(c), inset) using Kubelka-Munk function [27]. Tauc plot results indicate that the absorption edges in the spectra of TiO₂ and ATG Nces correspond to optical bandgaps of 3.15 eV and 2.83 eV, respectively. The difference in optical bandgap values between ATG Nces and TiO₂ can be explained by the interactions of TiO₂ and Ag (via attachment) and GO (via Ti-O-C bonding), which has been

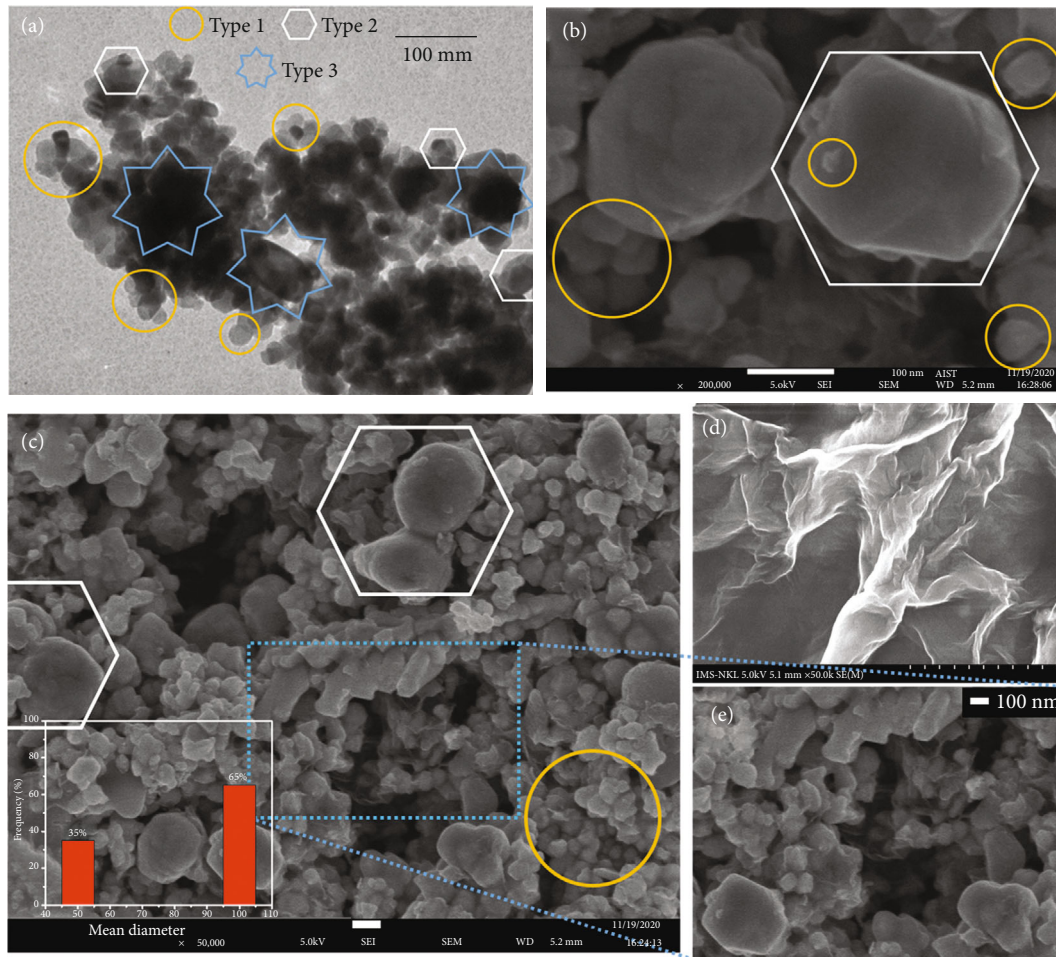


FIGURE 1: TEM image of (a) Ag/TiO₂/GO, (b, c, e) SEM images with different magnification and particle size distribution histograms of Ag/TiO₂/GO, and (d) GO-pristine.

confirmed by XRD and FTIR spectra, respectively. The formation of Ag/TiO₂ and Ti-O-C bonds has fulfilled all the requirements for the nanocomposite materials to be employed to study the electronic transfer process in their internal structures.

3.2. SERS Sensor Model. SERS sensor was the first model that we employed to investigate the enhanced electron transfer in ATG Nces, taking advantages of the unique plasmonic properties of Ag and enhanced Raman scattering caused by chemical enhancement of the nanocomposite materials [4, 12, 28]. As the plasmonic properties of Ag are the key to fabricate SERS sensors based on ATG Nces, a set of samples with distinct contents of Ag has been employed for SERS measurements as mentioned in Section 2, including A1TG, A2TG, A3TG, and A4TG. Figure 3(a) exhibits the SERS signals of MB in the presence of 4 kinds of nanomaterials as active substrates. On the substrate with 25 wt% of Ag (A1TG), the SERS spectrum reveals two characteristic peaks of GO (1300 cm⁻¹ and 1600 cm⁻¹) at high intensity. In contrast, the intensity of the characteristic peak of MB at 450 cm⁻¹ is much lower. In the increase of Ag contents, the SERS spectra of MB on A2TG and A3TG do not show such

significant peaks of GO but the characteristic peaks of MB at 450, 505, 1396, and 1620 cm⁻¹, which corresponds to vibrations of C-N-C skeletal deformation, C-S-C skeletal deformation, C-H in-plane ring deformation, and C-C stretching ring, respectively [29]. Unexpectedly, when the Ag content increases up to 75 wt%, the intensity of the characteristic peaks of MB suffered a great loss, compared to A3TG. It has to be stressed that the concentration of MB solution for every measurement was the same; thus, it is undeniable that the Ag content has a great effect on SERS activity of the nanocomposite material. In this case, the highest intensity of the MB characteristic bands allows A3TG to be the most SERS-effective substrate, compared to A1TG, A2TG, and A4TG.

Enhancement factor (EF) of ATG Nces with varied contents of Ag was calculated to further testify the SERS performance (Figure 3(a)). The SERS EF was observed in agreement with the previous report following the equation below [30]:

$$EF = \frac{I_{SERS}}{I_{Raman}} \times \frac{N_{bulk}}{N_{surface}}, \quad (2)$$

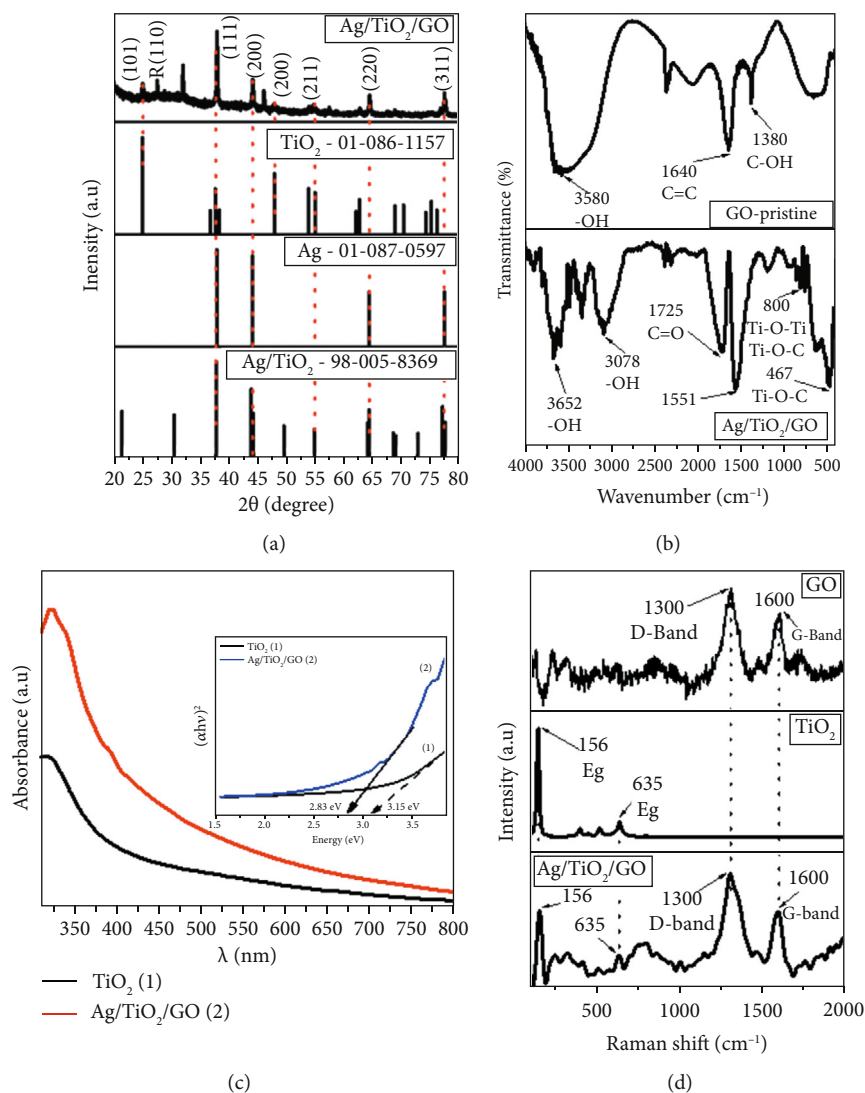


FIGURE 2: XRD pattern of Ag/TiO₂/GO (a), FTIR spectra of GO-pristine and Ag/TiO₂/GO (b), UV-Vis spectra and Tauc plot of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂/GO (c), Raman spectra of GO, TiO₂, and Ag/TiO₂/GO (d).

where I_{SERS} and I_{Raman} are Raman signal intensities of MB reporter with and without SERS from ATG Nces, respectively, and N_{bulk} is the average number of MB molecules in the scattering volume for the non-SERS measurement; N_{surface} is the number of the average number of MB molecules in the surface-active area for the SERS experiments (see Supporting information).

The EF values of A1TG, A2TG, A3TG, and A4TG were calculated to be 9.7×10^4 , 2.1×10^5 , 3.6×10^5 , and 1.3×10^5 , respectively. This calculation reconfirms that A3TG Nces is the highest SERS-effective substrate. In addition to the impressive enhancement factor of A3TG, the limit of detection for MB deposited on this SERS substrate was down to 0.93 nM with a linear range from 10^{-9} M to 10^{-4} M (Figure 3(b)). It is obvious that Ag content has a great effect on the performance of SERS sensor using ATG Nc substrates. In this case, the optimal Ag content is 50 wt%. Similar results have been reported in previous studies on other composites such as ternary Au@Cu₂O-Ag nanocomposite

and Ag-TiO₂ composite [31, 32]. In Section 3.1, we have pointed out that the formation of Ag/TiO₂ structures and Ti-O-C bonds, which might be convenient charge-separation pathways to increase the hot-electron age. Due to the local surface plasmon resonance (LSPRs) phenomenon, in which coherent electrons oscillate around the Ag NP surface formed hot electrons, it is reasonable that higher Raman intensity of MB was achieved when Ag content in ATG Nces increased (A1TG, A2TG, and A3TG). However, the unexpected decrease in the Raman signal of MB in the presence of A4TG might be explained by the surplus of Ag, which led to the decrease of TiO₂ and GO contents, as well as the formation of Ag/TiO₂ structures and Ti-O-C bonds. As a result, the electron transfer rate in the charge-separation pathway in the internal structure of ATG Nces might have been reduced. In addition, the EF value of A3TG is no more than 5 times higher than that of A1TG, A2TG, and A4TG. These small differences cannot be due to electromagnetic mechanism as it is usually related to large

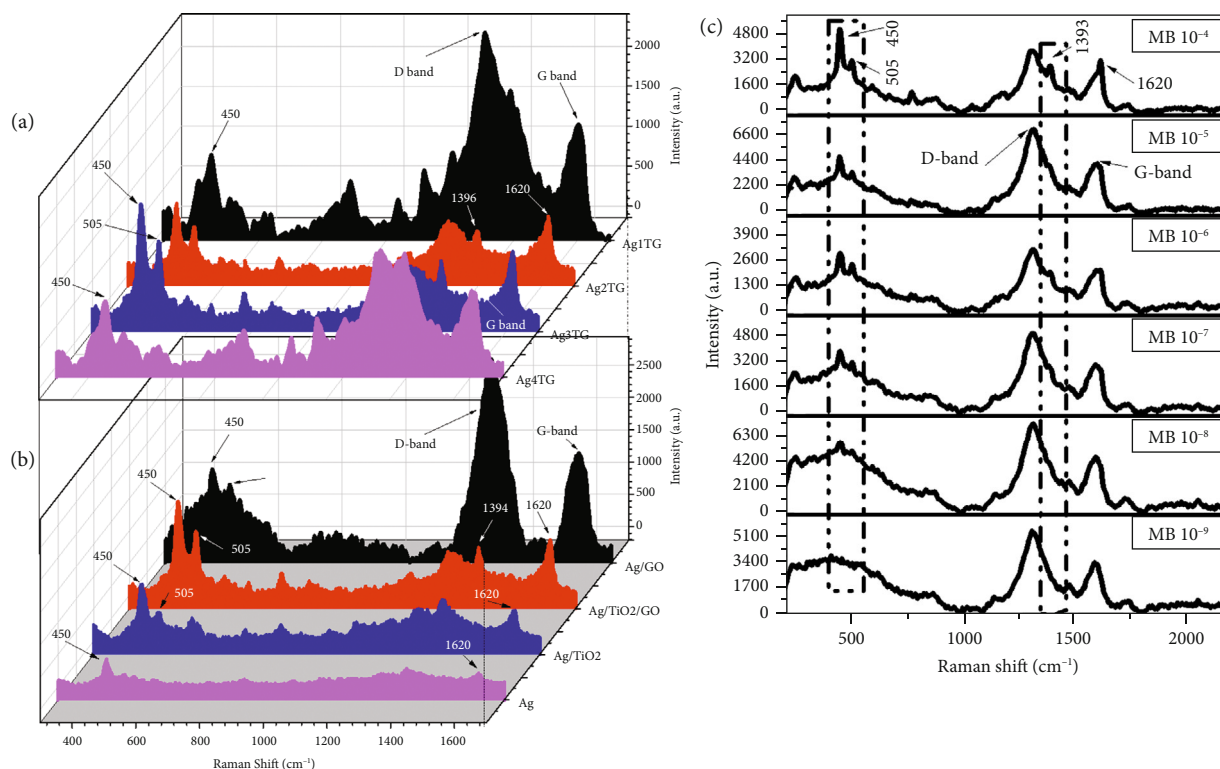


FIGURE 3: SERS spectra of MB (10^{-6} M) in the presence of ATG Nces with different Ag contents (A1TG, A2TG, A3TG, and A4TG) (a), and Ag-containing materials including Ag NPs, Ag/TiO₂, Ag/TiO₂/GO, and Ag/GO (b). SERS spectra of different concentrations of MB (10^{-4} – 10^{-9} M) in the presence of A3TG (c).

enhancement (10^6 – 10^{10} or even more) [30]. Instead, it can be explained by chemical mechanism, of which EFs are in the range of 10^1 – 10^3 [33]. It is worth mentioning that CM is directly related to electron transfer. Thus, in addition to the presence of Ag, the electron transfer through Ag/TiO₂ contacts and Ti–O–C bonds may be another factor causing the differences in the enhancement of Raman signal of MB on the ATG Nces containing varied Ag content.

The important role of TiO₂ and GO in the improvement of the SERS sensitivity of ATG Nces was confirmed by a comparison among the SERS spectra of MB (10^{-6} M) in the presence of only Ag NPs, Ag/TiO₂, Ag/GO, and Ag/TiO₂/GO (A3TG) (Figure 3(b)). Instead of 4 characteristic bands as mentioned previously, MB only exhibits 2 weak peaks at 450 cm⁻¹ and 1620 cm⁻¹ in the presence of only Ag NPs. The use of Ag/TiO₂ (50:50 wt%) obviously improves the sensitivity of the SERS sensing due to the presence of all characteristics. However, the intensity and the sharpness of the peaks are relatively lower than those using Ag/TiO₂/GO as SERS substrate. The utilization of Ag/GO also results in high intensity of SERS signal. However, D-band and G-band of GO overlap the peaks at 1393 cm⁻¹ and 1620 cm⁻¹ of MB while two other ones at 450 cm⁻¹ and 505 cm⁻¹ are not as clear as those in the use Ag/TiO₂/GO. This comparison has emphasized the role of TiO₂ and GO to enhance the SERS performance in the nanocomposite materials. Moreover, the materials achieved the highest efficiency in the presence of both TiO₂ and GO. It would confirm the hypothesis above about the impacts of the

electron transfer through Ag/TiO₂ contacts and Ti–O–C bonds of ATG Nces in their SERS performance improvement.

3.3. Catalytic Reduction Model. In addition to the physical model, we also generated a chemical one to answer the question of whether the electron transfer in the ATG Nces has any influences on other applications and how it affects their performance. A model of catalytic reduction was selected as its performance is directly related to electron transfer phenomena. The catalytic reduction model was studied through the reduction of 4-NP to 4-AP using NaBH₄ as an electronic providing source from BH₄⁻ to investigate the catalytic reduction properties of ATG Nces [34]. To clarify the role of TiO₂ and GO on the catalytic reduction performance of ATG Nces, we prepared two sets of samples. One set included Ag, Ag/TiO₂, Ag/GO, and Ag/TiO₂/GO. The other one consisted of ATG Nces containing varied Ag contents. The materials from each set were employed as catalysts for the reduction of 4-NP to 4-AP in the same experimental conditions as mentioned in Section 2.4. For each comparison, we used the same experimental conditions as the mass of catalyst material (0.8 mg), the concentration of 4-NP (2×10^{-4} M), NaBH₄ (0.01 M), and catalytic reduction reaction time (30 s). The absorption spectra of the reaction solutions in the presence of different catalysts were then recorded using UV-Vis spectroscopy. The peak at 400 nm in UV-Vis spectra, which is ascribed to 4-nitrophenolate ions, would be decreased gradually with time in the presence

of catalytic materials, signifying the degradation of 4-NP. Contemporaneously, the appearance of a new band at 300 nm represents the formation of 4-AP [34]. Figure 4 demonstrates the absorption spectra of the reaction samples using different catalytic materials in the two experimental sets.

Concerning the first set including Ag, Ag/TiO₂, Ag/GO, and Ag/TiO₂/GO, the 4-NP degradation efficiency of these four materials can be calculated based on the intensity of the absorption band at 400 nm (Figure 4(a)). Using Ag as the catalysts, the obtained absorption spectrum only exhibits a small decrease in the band at 400 nm, which represents the degradation efficiency of about 10% which is much lower than those of Ag/GO (~28%) and Ag/TiO₂ (~80%). Meanwhile, under the same reaction conditions, in the presence of Ag/TiO₂/GO, 4-NP was nearly completely degraded with the disappearance of the 400 nm band. The reduction of 4-NP to 4-AM is also confirmed by the increase in intensity of the 300 nm band. As expected, the absorption spectrum of reaction solution in the presence of Ag/TiO₂/GO shows the highest intensity at 300 nm, in comparison to the others. The differences in catalytic degradation efficiencies of the reaction using four distinct catalytic materials demonstrate the great effect of TiO₂ and GO on catalytic reduction performance of ATG Nces. In addition, Ag content also influences the performance of this application (Figure 4(b)). Thanks to the presence of Ag, TiO₂, and GO in the composite structures, it is not surprising that the 4-NP degradation efficiencies of A1TG, A2TG, A3TG, and A4TG are relatively high. However, the differences appear in the 300 nm band as the reaction solution using A3TG results in the highest intensity compared to the other one. Therefore, in the catalytic reduction model, 50% wt is still the optimal content of Ag in ATG Nces.

As negatively charged 4-nitrophenolate and BH₄⁻ preferably interact with the metallic catalyst and facilitate the hydrogenation process on the 4-nitrophenolate, it is obvious that Ag is the key component in ATG Nces, which has the highest effect on catalytic performance. However, the presence of TiO₂ in Ag/TiO₂ has also enhanced catalytic performance. Moreover, the addition of GO has continued improving this performance. When discussing about the characterization of ATG Nces and the SERS sensor model, we have demonstrated the formation of Ag/TiO₂ nanostructures and Ti-O-C bonds as well as their effects on SERS sensing efficiency. Once again, TiO₂ and GO have exhibited their importance in the performance of another application using the ATG Nces. Furthermore, the same optimal Ag content in ATG Nces in both SERS and catalytic reduction models suggests a similarity in the mechanism of performance enhancement in both models. As mentioned in the previous section, this mechanism is based on the separation pathway in the internal structure of ATG Nces through Ag/TiO₂ nanostructures and Ti-O-C bonds. It has been claimed in previous studies that when a metal oxide contacted with a metal intimately, a Schottky junction would be formed and Fermi level alignment would lead to charge redistribution, which was also known as the electron transfer process [2, 34]. Besides, other reports stated that an additional band edge and a

bandgap tuning were created due to the formation of Ti-O-C bonds and provided a conductive pathway for electron transfer from TiO₂ to GO [18, 35].

3.4. Relationship of SERS Sensor Model and Catalytic Reduction Model: Effects of Electron Transfer on Their Performance. The interesting similarity in optimal Ag content in both models has triggered us to further analyze the relationship between their performances and clarify the effect of electron transfer process on their performance. The comparisons of EFs in the SERS model and degradation efficiencies in the catalytic reduction model using ATG Nces with varied Ag contents are shown in Figures 5(a) and 5(b), respectively. A similar trend can be observed in the two graphs as EFs and degradation efficiencies both increase in the increase of Ag content and reach the highest peak at the content of 50 wt% (A3TG). Then, both of them decrease dramatically when the content of Ag rises to 75% (A4TG). Moreover, the similarity in impacts of TiO₂ and GO in the improvement of ATG Nces performance in both models is also worth mentioning. It may be an evidence for the ET pathway that will be further discussed in this section.

Concerning the SERS sensor model, according to quantum theory, when an incident laser light interacts with Ag NPs surface, Ag NPs serve as a light absorber, where hot electrons are generated due to by LSPR phenomenon [2]. Previous reports have stated that the specific interaction of the adsorbed MB molecule and the surface of Ag might lead to electron transfer from Ag to MB molecule, named metal to molecular transfer [12]. The superposition of energy levels should have been formed between Ag and adsorbed MB molecule [36]. The Fermi level of Ag was reported to be -4.26 eV [37], while the absolute energy of the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of MB is -3.328 eV [38]. Thus, the plasmon-induced hot electrons can be transferred from Ag into the LUMO level of MB, then decay with the SERS signal of MB. However, the adsorbed surface area of Ag is relatively small and MB ions are positively charged, so the absorption of MB on the Ag surface can be prevented. Therefore, that ET process should not have been completely responsible for the obtained SERS signal enhancement of our materials. This hypothesis has been confirmed by a significant loss of SERS signal when using the ATG Nces with surplus Ag content. Another ET pathway in the internal structure of ATG Nces, the metal-semiconductor transition, might have taken the lead in this case. Wu et al. proposed the ET pathway in a study about a system of CdSe-Au hetero-nanostructures and named this hot-electron transfer pathway a plasmon-induced interfacial charge-transfer transition (PICTT) to discriminate against the common plasmon-induced hot-electron transfer (PHET) or direct metal-to-semiconductor interfacial charge-transfer transition (DICTT) [39]. In PICTT, the metal serves as a light absorber, but strong interdomain coupling and mixing of the metal and semiconductor levels lead to a new plasmon decay pathway. Besides, PICTT also exhibits the quantum efficiency to be higher than 24%. In addition, Iida and Noda reported on the photoinduced silver-TiO₂ electronic interaction that allowed the excited electrons to be directly

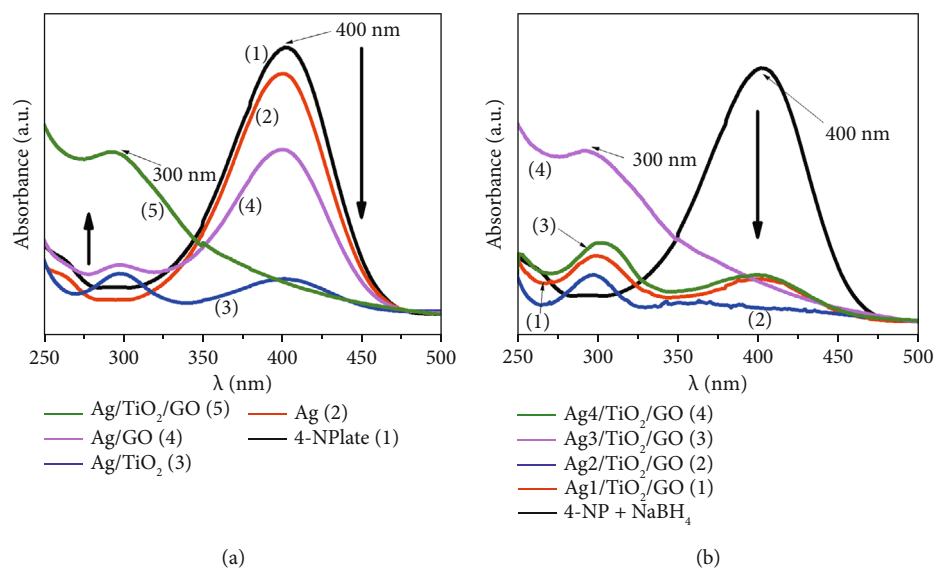


FIGURE 4: UV-Vis spectra of the catalytic reduction of 4-nitrophenolate (400 nm) to 4-aminophenol (300 nm) in the water and comparison of catalytic efficiency of Ag, Ag/TiO₂, Ag/GO, and Ag/TiO₂/GO (a); comparison of catalytic efficiency of varied contents of Ag in ATG Nces (b).

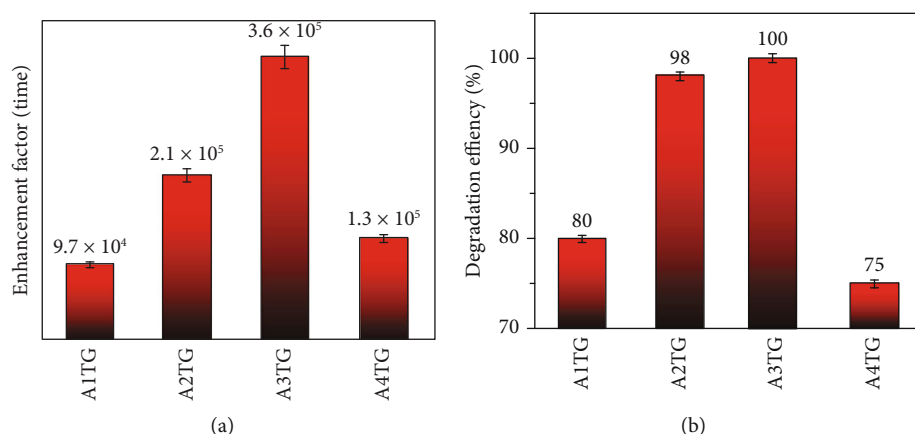


FIGURE 5: Comparison of enhancement factor (at 10^{-6} M) (a) and degradation efficiency (b) of Ag/TiO₂/GO with different Ag contents.

transferred from the silver nanocluster to the TiO₂ layer without passing through the conduction band of the silver nanocluster. Nevertheless, it might potentially occur due to the formation of Ag-O bonds between the silver-TiO₂ layers [9] while in our nanocomposites, Ag and TiO₂ only form a weak interaction due to natural deposition. Thus, the PHET pathway might be the more suitable mechanism that has occurred in our materials. In PHET, the metal decays into a hot electron-hole pair through Landau damping, followed by injection of the hot electrons into the conduction band (CB) of the semiconductor [40]. Here, electrons might have been transferred through Ag/TiO₂ interaction (Schottky junction). Moreover, TiO₂ is an excellent electron acceptor via d-orbital [41]. In addition, plasmon-induced hot electrons can inject into CB of TiO₂ with conduction band minimum energy of -4.0 eV [42]. Therefore, the transferred electrons have more opportunities to interact with MB molecule. Nevertheless, electron transfer process in CB of TiO₂

competes with electron relaxation through rapid electron-electron scattering. Then again, Ti-O-C might have been allowed electrons to be transferred from TiO₂ to GO sheets, whose Fermi level is -5.02 eV [25]. Since GO is an excellent adsorber [16], the GO sheets might have increased the direct interaction between hot electrons to MB molecular. As a result, many active electrons have interacted with MB reporters via the charge-separation pathways in ATG Nces; thus, the Raman signal of MB has been enhanced by the chemical mechanism.

Concerning the catalytic reduction model, the potential charge-separation pathway in ATG Nces should have been an important factor to lead to the enhancement of 4-NP degradation efficiency. Due to the adsorption of negatively charged BH₄⁻ on the surface of Ag NPs, BH₄⁻ ions acted as electron donors that provided active electrons to Ag. In the same electron transfer pathway as in the SERS sensor model, electrons would have escaped from Ag and

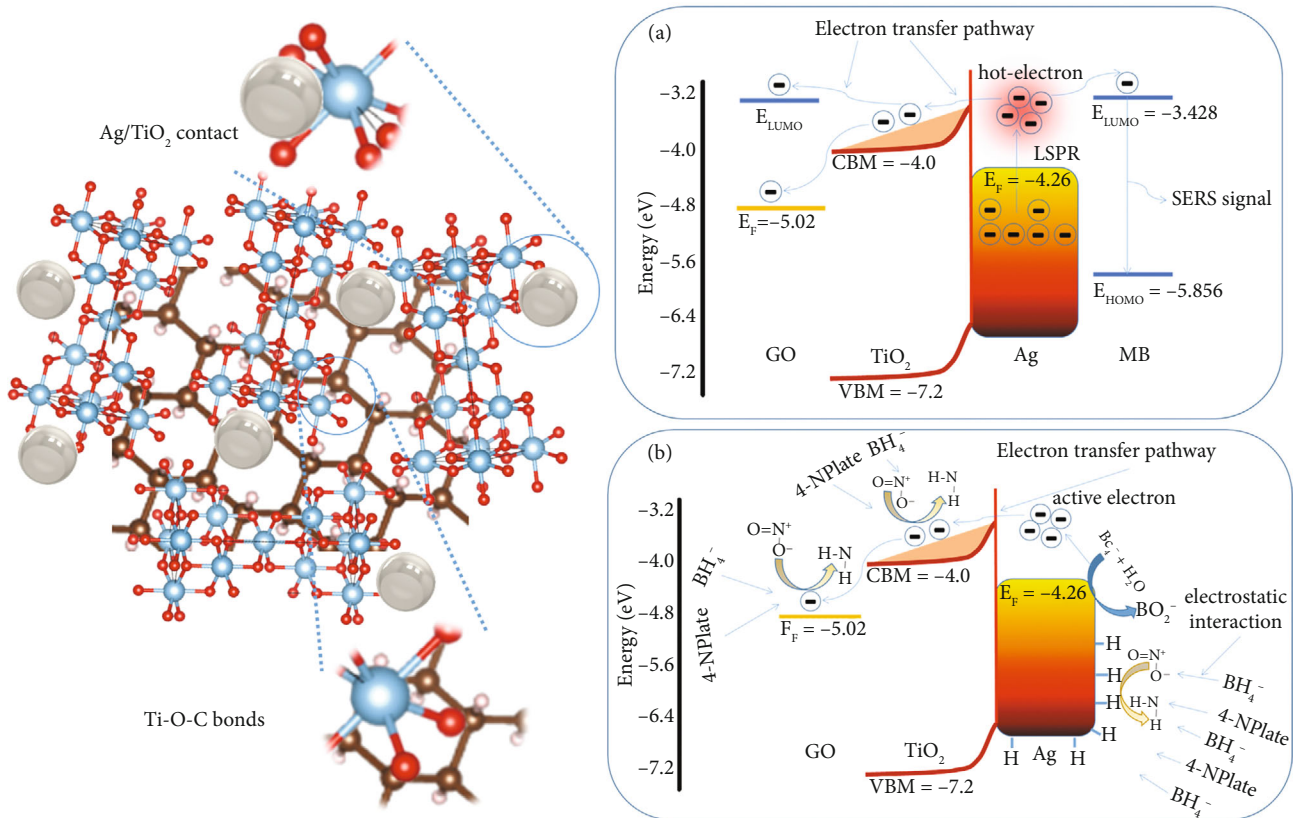


FIGURE 6: Potential electron transfer process in ATG Nces for both SERS sensor model (a) and catalytic reduction model (b) through Ag/TiO₂ contact and Ti-O-C bonds.

TABLE 1: Several reported AgNP-based SERS sensors to determine MB and their sensing performance (LOD, EF; nanoparticles (NPs); graphene foam (GF); nanotube array (NTA; 4-mercaptobenzoic acid (4-MBA).

Materials	Analyte	Substrate	LOD	EF	References
AgNPs/GF	MB	Si	10 ⁻⁹ (M)	5 × 10 ⁴	[43]
Au@Cu ₂ O-Ag	4-MBA	—	10 ⁻⁹ (M)	7.19 × 10 ⁵	[31]
GO/Ag/TiO ₂ NTA	MB	—	10 ⁻⁹ (M)	2.1 × 10 ⁷	[44]
Ag/TiO ₂ /GO	MB	Al	3.32 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ (M)	7.3 × 10 ⁴	This work

TABLE 2: Comparison catalytic performance of several reported AgNP-based nanomaterials to remove 4-NP (concentration, reaction time, and removal performance); poly(acrylic acid) (PPA); reduced-GO (rGO); cellulose nanocrystals (CNC).

Catalyst	4-NP (M)	NaBH ₄ (M)	Reaction time	Removal efficiency (%)	References
Ag@PPA	10 ⁻⁴	0.1	300 s	100	[45]
Ag-rGO	5 × 10 ⁻⁵	0.1	360 s	98	[46]
CuFe ₂ O ₄ /CNC@Ag	5 × 10 ⁻³	0.1	360 s	100	[34]
Ag/TiO ₂ /GO	2 × 10 ⁻⁴	0.01	20 s	100	This work

transferred into TiO₂ and GO sheets. Zhang et al. suggested that electron transfer between Ag and CuFe₂O₄ led to the surplus electrons on CuFe₂O₄, which facilitated the capture of electrons by 4-NP molecules [34]. Herein, the transferred electrons in the GO sheets and TiO₂ might have provided a

large active-surface area to capture more BH₄⁻ and 4-nitrophenolate ions, thus, increased the rate of the catalytic reduction reaction.

In summary, the Ag content has a great effect on the electron transfer process in the internal nanostructure of

ATG Nces; therefore, it also influences the performance of SERS and catalytic reduction of ATG Nces. The same optimal Ag content, as well as the similar trend of performance changing observed in the presence of ATG Nces containing varied Ag content in those two models, has demonstrated the important role of electron transfer in the enhancement of their performance. Through the SERS sensor model and the catalytic reduction model, we propose a potential electron transfer pathway in ATG Nces via Ag/TiO₂ interaction and Ti-O-C bonds, which is exhibited in Figure 6.

Thanks to the ET process, the performance of ATG Nces materials in different applications has been enhanced. With a low LOD of 0.93 nM, our ATG Nces-based SERS sensor for MB detection is capable to determine MB at extremely low levels. Table 1 presents the comparison in SERS sensibility among ATG Nces and several reported materials, in which ATG Nces-based sensor results in the lowest LOD. It suggests the development of high-performance SERS sensors using this nanocomposite material as the substrate for detection of other contaminants. Moreover, ATG Nces also exhibit excellent 4-NP removal efficiency via catalytic reduction reaction with 100% of 4-NP degraded after 20 s, which is competitive in comparison to several reported catalytic materials (Table 2). Similarly, the performance of other applications related to the electron transfer pathway, such as photocatalysis, electrocatalysts, and solar cells, might be also enhanced with the utilization of ATG Nces. Thus, with a few facile steps of preparation as mentioned in Section 2, we can fabricate a multifunctional material that consists of nontoxic components (i.e., Ag, TiO₂, and GO). Furthermore, the synthesis can be scaled up to increase the mass production and reduce the cost of the fabrication. It suggests a direction to fabricate multifunctional, high-performance, cost-effective, facile-preparation, and nontoxic materials for detecting and removing contaminants.

4. Conclusions

In this work, Ag/TiO₂/GO Nces were successfully synthesized. The SEM, TEM, XRD, FTIR, Raman, UV-Vis, and EDX results confirmed the formation of Ag/TiO₂ structure and the deposition of Ag/TiO₂ on GO nanosheets via Ti-O-C bonds. We investigated the electron transfer process in Ag/TiO₂/GO Nces using two experimental models including SERS sensor and catalytic reduction, in which the Ag/TiO₂/GO Nces acted as SERS substrates and catalysts. The optimal Ag content of 50 wt% was appropriate in both models. From these results, we proposed a charge-separation pathway in the internal structure of ATG Nces that is suitable for both models. This study provides a clear explanation for the electron transfer process in composite nanostructures which leads to the enhancement of application efficiencies.

Data Availability

Data are available on request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Authors' Contributions

M. Q. Doan and N. H. Anh contributed equally to this work.

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Supplementary Materials

Figure S1: regression equation expressing the linear relationship between concentration of 4-nitrophenolate and absorption intensity of the reaction solution. Calculation of limit of detection (LOD-SERS sensor model). Figure S2: plot of Log of SERS intensity against Log of analyte concentration at 450 cm⁻¹, 505 cm⁻¹, 1393 cm⁻¹, and 1620 cm⁻¹. Calculation of enhancement factor (EF-SERS sensor model). (*Supplementary Materials*)

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Research Article

Electrochemical Determination of Diclofenac by Using ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ Modified Electrode

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A facial differential pulse voltammetric procedure using a glassy carbon electrode modified with zeolite imidazolate framework-67/graphitic carbon nitride (ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄) for the diclofenac (DCF) determination is demonstrated. ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ with different mass ratios of the components was synthesized in a self-assembly process. The obtained materials were characterized by using X-ray diffraction, scanning electron microscopy (SEM), EDX-mapping, and nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms. The peak current varies linearly with the DCF concentration in the range of 0.2–2.2 μmol·L⁻¹ and has a detection limit of 0.071 μmol·L⁻¹. The modified electrode exhibits acceptable repeatability, reproducibility, and selectivity towards DCF. The proposed electrode allows determining DCF in human urine without pretreatment, and the results are comparable with those determined with HPLC.

1. Introduction

Diclofenac, 2-(2',6'-dichloroanilino) phenylacetic acid (denoted as DCF), is used for the treatment of several diseases, such as ankylosing spondylitis, rheumatoid arthritis, and osteoarthritis [1]. However, diclofenac causes acute hepatotoxicity, and this chemical-driven liver damage leads to the change in the kidney function and gills in rainbow trout (*O. mykiss*). Diclofenac also presents acute toxicity to phytoplankton and zooplankton. Moreover, the possible synergetic effects with other pharmaceuticals or chemicals in the aquatic environment increase the environmental risk [2]. Various techniques have been developed to determine

diclofenac because of the prominence of DCF in the environment and pharmaceutical and clinical applications. The techniques include capillary zone electrophoresis with electrochemical detection [3], high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) [4], HPLC combined with solid-phase extraction [5], and spectrofluorimetry [6]. Besides these techniques, electrochemical methods possess several advantages, such as high sensitivity, selectivity, and quick, cheap analysis for actual samples. These techniques use various types of porous materials to modify the working, such as ionic liquid/carbon nanotube-paste electrode [7], carboxyl/multiwalled carbon nanotubes/screen-printed carbon electrode [8], and gold/multiwalled carbon nanotube/glassy carbon electrode [9].

Zeolite imidazolate framework-67 (ZIF-67) is a subclass of metal-organic frameworks (MOFs). It is an organic-inorganic hybrid solid with infinite and uniform crystalline coordination networks consisting of cobalt ions (II) and imidazolate ligands [10]. ZIF-67 exhibits various unique properties, such as thermal and chemical stability, high surface area, large pores, accessible coordinative unsaturated sites, and excellent chemical and solvent stability [10]. At present, ZIF-67 attracts increasing attention from researchers in various fields, such as adsorption and separation [11], catalysis [12], and gas separation [13]. However, its poor electroconductivity leads to limited applications in electrochemistry [14]. Graphitic carbon nitride ($g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$) with graphitic-like structure possesses a unique ability to be simply prepared by thermally condensation of cheap nitrogen-rich compounds such as urea, melamine, and cyanamide [15, 16], and this is unlike graphene, reduced graphene oxide, and graphitic oxide that require the more complex synthesis processes. It has gradually attracted attention in multidisciplinary areas due to its characteristic physicochemical properties, such as ability to resist attacks from strong acid/alkaline solution [17], moderate bandgap (~ 2.7 eV), and superior electronic properties [18]. Therefore, the combination of highly electroconductive $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with large surface area ZIF-67 might lead to versatile materials with properties of both components.

To the best of our knowledge, only a few papers have been reported on the voltammetric or amperometric detection of DCF on a ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ modified electrode. Therefore, to fabricate new electrodes, we expand our research on modifying glassy carbon electrodes (GCE). In the present work, we describe the determination of DCF by using a GCE electrode modified with ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. This modified electrode exhibits sound electrocatalytic and accumulative effects on DCF and enables us to determine the DCF content in human urine with satisfactory results.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials. Melamine ($\text{C}_3\text{N}_3(\text{NH}_2)_3$), absolute ethanol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$), methanol (CH_3OH), cobalt nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), and 2-methylimidazole ($\text{CH}_3\text{C}_3\text{H}_2\text{N}_2\text{H}$) were purchased from Merck company. Diclofenac sodium salt ($\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{10}\text{Cl}_2\text{NNaNO}_2$) was procured from Sigma-Aldrich. Acetic acid (CH_3COOH), phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4), boric acid (H_3BO_3), and potassium hydroxide (KOH) were purchased from Daejung (Korea).

The phosphate buffer solution (PBS) with pH 7 was prepared from 0.5 M Na_2HPO_4 , 0.5 M KH_2PO_4 , 0.5 M NaCl, and 0.5 M KCl solutions. The Britton–Robinson buffer solution (B–RBS) with pH 3–9 was prepared from 1 M H_3BO_3 , 1 M H_3PO_4 , and 1 M CH_3COOH solutions and adjusted with a 1 M KOH solution. The stock solution was prepared by dissolving 29.6 mg of diclofenac in a 10 mL volumetric flask containing a pH 6 buffer solution. The flask was subjected to ultrasonication in a cold water bath and stored in a refrigerator at 5°C. The stock sample was prepared 30 min before analysis.

2.2. Material Synthesis. ZIF-67 was synthesized according to Qian et al. [10]. Briefly, 1.16 g of $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 1.31 g of 2-methylimidazole (Hmim) were dissolved in 100 mL of methanol separately. These two solutions were mixed so that the resulting mixture has the following molar composition: $\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Hmim}/\text{CH}_3\text{OH} = 1 : 4 : 1.2$ and stirred for 24 h at ambient temperature. Then, the purple solid (ZIF-67) was collected by centrifuging, washed with ethanol five times, and dried at 80°C for 24 h.

The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was synthesized according to Yan et al. [19]. In brief, 10 g of melamine powder was put into an alumina crucible with a cover and heated at 500°C in a muffle furnace for 2 h.

The ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was synthesized as follows: 0.5 g of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and ZIF-67 mixture was distributed in 100 mL of ethanol under ultrasonication for 6 h. The ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ mass ratio is as follows: 0:10, 3:7, 4:6, 5:5, 6:4, and 10:0. The samples are denoted as (0/10)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, (3/7)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, (4/6)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, (6/4)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and (10/0)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

2.3. Instruments. The material was characterized by using X-ray diffraction (XRD) with a D8-Advance device (Bruker, USA; Cu $K\alpha$ radiation, $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) with JMS-5300LV (USA), Raman spectroscopy with Xplora Plus (Horiba with 785 nm laser excitation), transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with JEM-2100, and nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms with a Micromeritics 2020 volumetric adsorption analyzer system (the sample was degassed at 150°C for 12 h). The specific surface area was calculated according to the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) model. The meso/micro-surface area was calculated with the t -plot method. Electrochemical measurements were conducted with a CPA-HH5 computerized polarography analyzer (Vietnam). A three-electrode system consisting of a working electrode (GCE, 0.28 cm^2), a reference electrode (Ag/AgCl in saturated KCl), and a counter electrode (platinum wire) was used for the measurements. The high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was performed to measure DLF for the sake of comparison. The HPLC measurements were conducted on an HPLC Shimadzu with LC 20 AD pump, PDA SPD-M20A detector (Japan), C18 column ($250 \times 4.6 \text{ mm}$; particle size $5 \mu\text{m}$). The mobile phase is a mixture of methanol/5 mM NaH_2PO_4 (pH 2.3) (66:34 v/v). The flow rate was $1 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ with an injection volume of $20 \mu\text{L}$. For HPLC analysis, DCF detection was performed at a wavelength of 274 nm.

2.4. Preparation of Electrode and Actual Sample

2.4.1. Electrode Preparation. Prior to modification, the GCE was first polished with alumina slurry ($0.05 \mu\text{m}$) on a polishing pad, followed by successive ultrasonication in ethanol and distilled water. Then, the electrode was washed with double distilled water and dried at ambient temperature. The suspension of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was prepared by mixing 10 mg of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with 10 mL of ethanol under ultrasonication for 24 h. Five microliters of suspension was cast dropwise on the GCE surface and dried in an oven for a

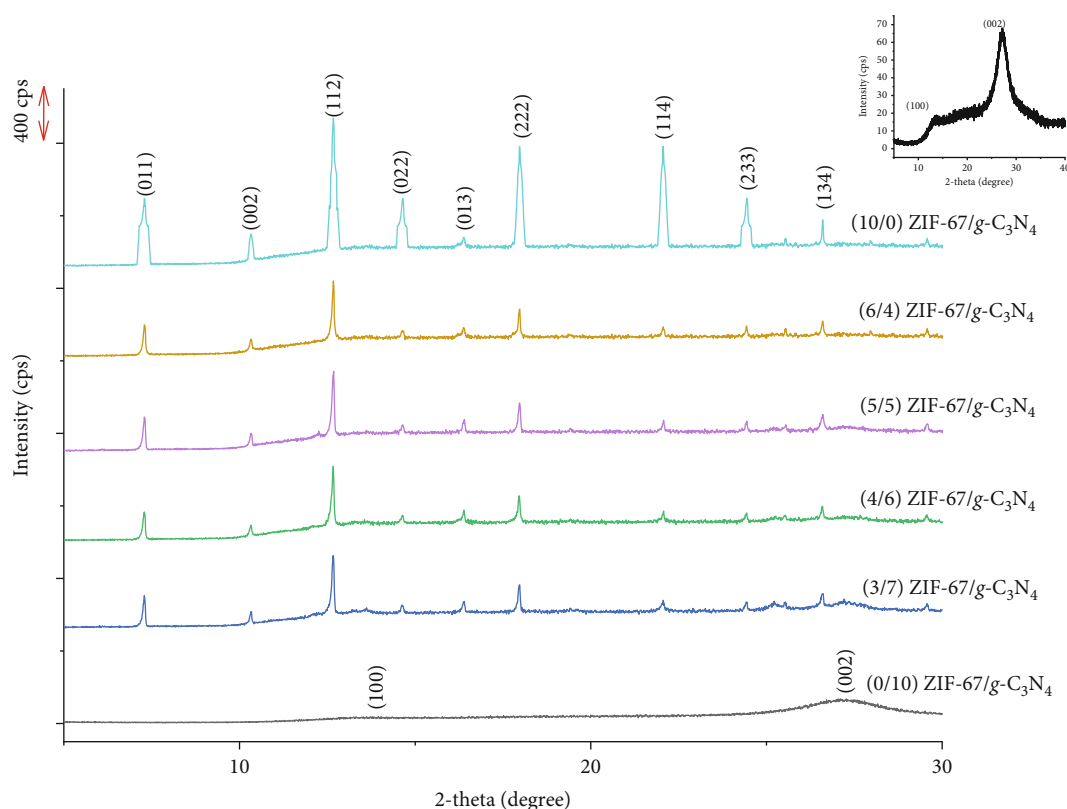


FIGURE 1: XRD patterns of ZIF-67, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (the inset presents the XRD pattern of (0/10)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$).

few minutes. The as-prepared electrode was denoted as ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GCE.

2.4.2. Real Samples. Human urine samples were received from five healthy persons aged 25–30 and stored in a refrigerator at 5°C. About 5 mL of the sample was filtered through a 0.2 μm membrane. One milliliter of the supernatant was collected and diluted with 2 mL of pH 6.5 BRS to avoid complex interference. The resulting solution was transferred to a 100 mL electrochemical cell for analysis.

3. Results and Discussion

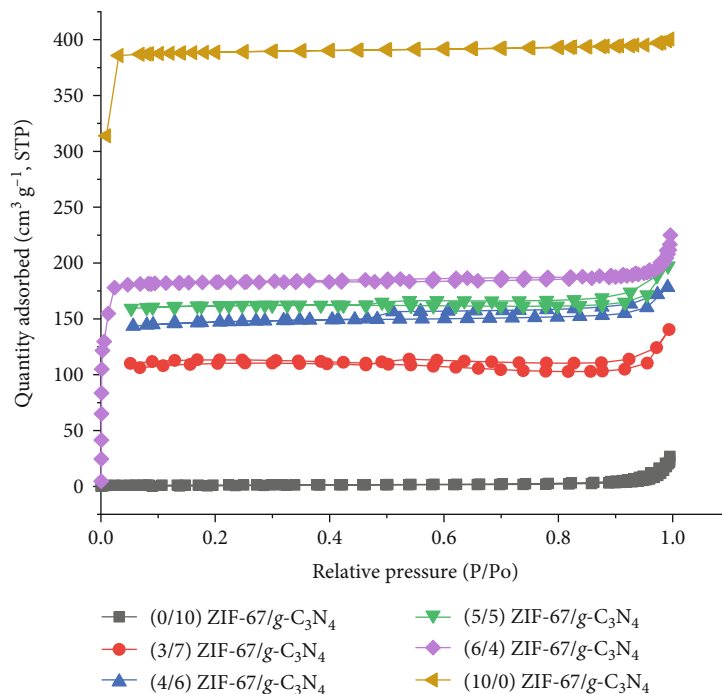
3.1. Characterization of Materials. The XRD patterns of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, ZIF-67, and ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ are shown in Figure 1. Two peaks at around 13.7 and 27.1° are found in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ((0/10)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$). It is well known that $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ consists of tri-s-triazine building blocks [20]. The higher peak at 27.1° is assigned to the characteristic interlayer of aromatic systems, indexed for graphitic materials as (002), while the peak at 13.7°, indexed as (100), is attributed to the periodic arrangement of the condensed tri-s-triazine units in the sheets [21] (the inset of Figure 1). For the XRD pattern of (10/0)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, the characteristic peaks for ZIF-67 at 18.20, 30.22, 35.68, 43.28, 53.68, 57.18, and 62.76°, indexed as (111), (220), (311), (400), (422), (511), and (440) according to CCDC 671073, are clearly observed indicating that the (10/0)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is ZIF-67. The intensity of these peaks in ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ increases with an increase in the ZIF-

67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ fraction. This increase manifests the coexistence of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and ZIF-67 phases in the composite. Clear characteristic peaks of ZIF-67 witness that the hybrid of ZIF-67 with $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has no significant effects on the crystal structure of ZIF-67.

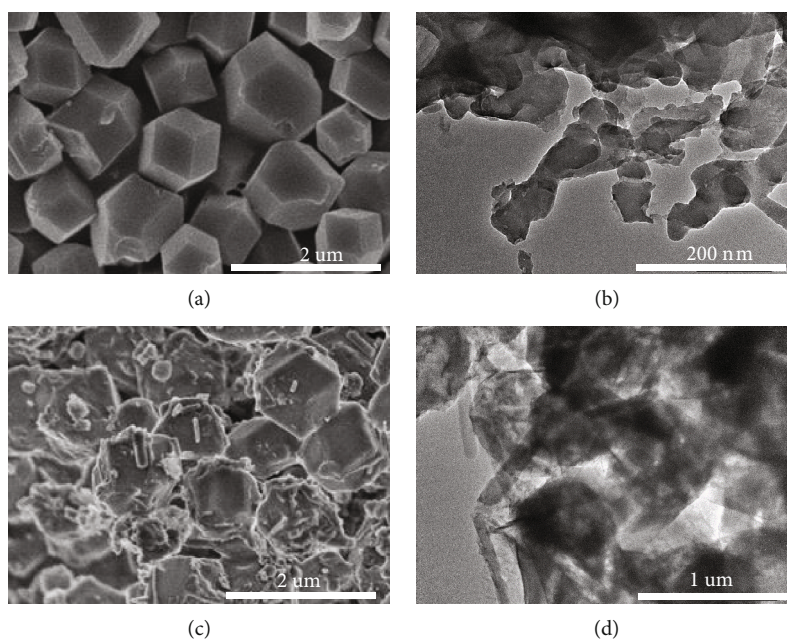
Nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms are employed to evaluate the samples' specific surface area and porosity (Figure 2). The isotherm curves of ZIF-67 have a type I isotherm, indicating the presence of a microporous material. The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has a type IV isotherm with an H3 hysteresis loop at high relative pressure between 0.46 and 1.0, confirming the existence of a mesoporous structure. The BET surface area (S_{BET}) and total pore volume (V_{pore}) are listed in Table 1.

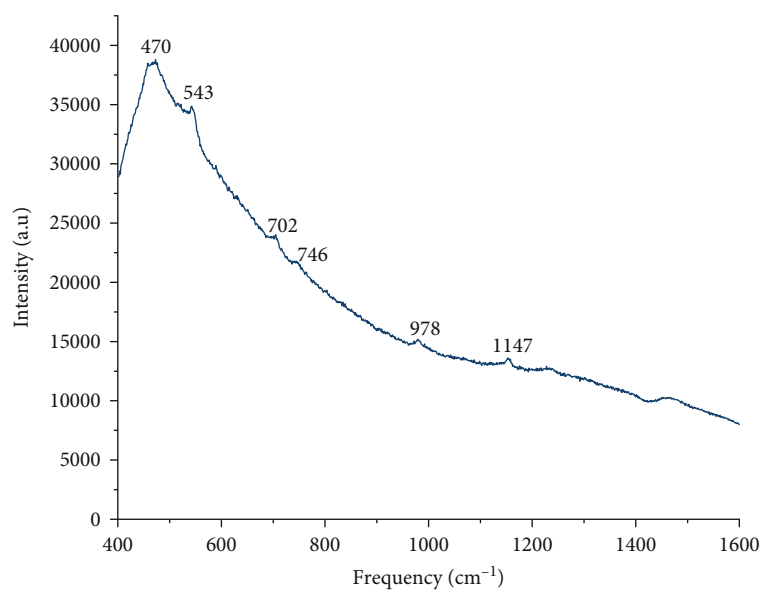
Compared with pure ZIF-67, the ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has the S_{BET} declining from 1217.1 to 335.6 m^2g^{-1} as the amount of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ increases. This decline might result from the low surface area of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and blockage of micropores of the increasing $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ amount in the composite. The primary test reveals that the (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample has the highest electrocatalytic activity for DCF oxidation. Therefore, (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is selected for further experiments.

As shown in Figure 3(a), smooth rhombic dodecahedral-shaped crystals with 1.5 μm in width are observed for ZIF-67. The surface of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibits a layered and platelet-like morphology (Figure 3(b)). Although several inclusions of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ appear on the ZIF-67 surface, the rhombic dodecahedral structure of ZIF-67 remains (Figure 3(c)). The TEM image illustrates a sheet-like structure of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ embroiled with dark-colored ZIF-67 crystals

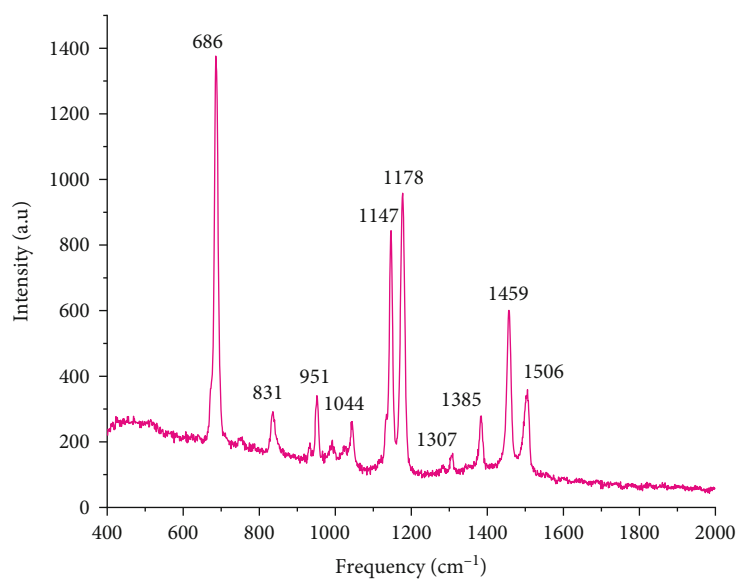
FIGURE 2: Nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms of ZIF-67, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.TABLE 1: Textural properties of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

Notation	S_{BET} ($\text{m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)	S_{meso} ($\text{m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)	S_{micro} ($\text{m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)	V_{total} ($\text{cm}^3\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$)
(0/10)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	4.2	2.7	1.5	26.9
(3/7)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	335.6	25.1	310.5	140.4
(4/6)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	449.0	9.8	439.2	197.3
(5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	492.0	10.5	481.5	178.2
(6/4)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	731.9	10.6	721.3	225.0
(10/0)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	1217.1	6.9	1210.1	400.6

FIGURE 3: (a) SEM image of ZIF-67, (b) TEM image of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, (c) SEM image of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and (d) TEM image of (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 4: Continued.

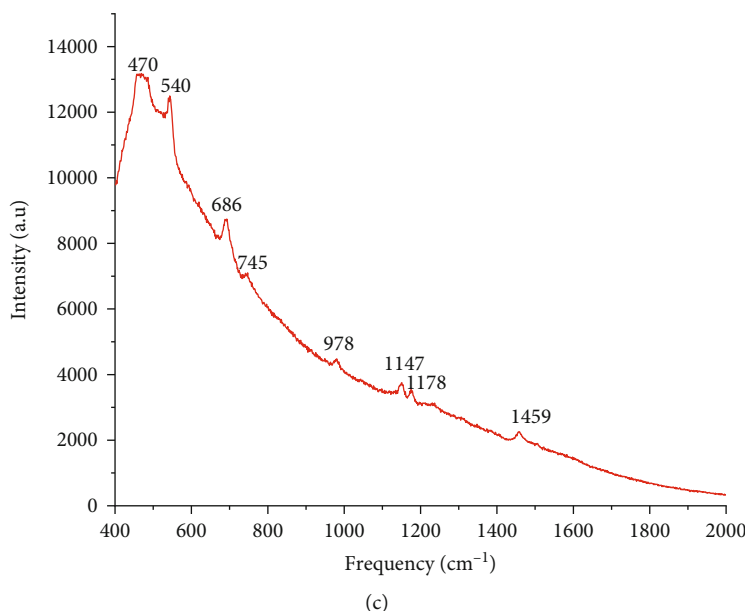


FIGURE 4: Raman spectra of (a) $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, (b) ZIF-67, and (c) ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

(Figure 3(d)). These results indicate the coexistence of ZIF-67 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ via self-assembly.

The ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ structure is characterized by using Raman spectra (Figure 4). Typical characteristic peaks of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ at 470, 543, 702, 746, 978, and 1147 cm^{-1} are observed, and they are consistent with those in a previously published report [22]. The peaks at 702 and 978 cm^{-1} indicate the existence of the heptazine ring structure [23]. The peak at 702 cm^{-1} is ascribed to the inplane bending vibrations of the heptazine linkages, whereas the 978 cm^{-1} peak is assigned to the symmetric N-breathing mode of the heptazine units [24]. For ZIF-67, characteristic peaks at 686, 831, 951, 1044, 1147, 1178, 1307, 1385, 1459, and 1506 cm^{-1} are attributed to the cobalt ion [25], imidazolium ring puckering, δ H (out of plane), bending C-H (out of plane) (C4-C5), bending C-H (out of plane) (C2-H), stretching C-N, N-H wag, bending of CH_3 , stretching of C2-N1, and stretching of C-H (methyl), respectively [26]. The characteristic vibrations of ZIF-67 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ in the Raman spectrum of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ confirm the coexistence of ZIF-67 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ again.

The elemental composition of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, derived from the EDX spectrum, is presented in Figure 5. As expected, the elements in (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ are only carbon (at 0.3 keV), nitrogen (0.4 keV), oxygen (0.6 keV), and cobalt (0.8; 7.0; 7.7 keV), indicating that the obtained material has high purity (Figures 5(a) and 5(b)). The EDX mapping of carbon (Figure 5(c)), cobalt (Figure 5(d)), nitrogen (Figure 5(e)), and oxygen (Figure 5(f)) on the ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ surface shows that all these elements are not confined to a single site. Instead, they are distributed in the matrix.

Although Figure 6 shows that ZIF-67 could attach to the surface of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, such self-assembly can be further confirmed by studying the surface charges of ZIF-67, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and their composite (Figure 6). These values are determined with the drift pH method [27]. As seen from the figure, the

material's surface is positively charged when $\text{pH} < 9.2$ for ZIF-67 and $\text{pH} < 3.8$ for $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Therefore, the electrostatic attraction between ZIF-67 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ could form ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with a positively charged surface at pH below 8.4.

The stability of (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ in the solutions with different pHs is essential for the electrochemical application. Figure 7 presents the XRD patterns of (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ immersed in water with different pHs for 5 hours. At pH less than 4, the characteristic diffractions of ZIF-67 are absent, revealing that the material is destroyed at these pHs. The peaks of ZIF-67 remain in the solutions with pH 5–10, indicating that ZIF-67 is stable in this pH range.

3.2. Electrochemical Determination of Diclofenac by Using (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$

3.2.1. The Cyclic Voltammetry of DCF on (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ Modified Electrode (ZC-GCE). The cyclic voltammograms (CVs) (Figure 8) are obtained in the presence of 5 mM DCF on GCE, ZIF-67-GCE, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GCE, and ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GCE in 0.2 M BRS pH 6. The bare GCE does not exhibit any electrochemical signals, indicating that this electrode cannot detect DCF. The modified electrodes (with ZIF-67, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, or ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$) exhibit an oxidation peak of DCF at around 0.68 V. In particular, the ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ modified electrode significantly enhances the electrochemical response, and the intensity of peak current depends on the ZIF-67 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ mass ratio. The (5/5)ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GCE (henceforth denoted as ZC-GCE) provides the highest intensity with a peak potential of 0.671 V. The peak current is 2.1-fold and 2.12-fold higher than that of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ /GCE and ZIF-67-GCE, respectively. The substantial enhancement in the anodic peak current clearly shows the catalytic effect of ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. No reduction peaks are observed on the reverse scan, indicating that the electron transfer on the ZC modified electrode is

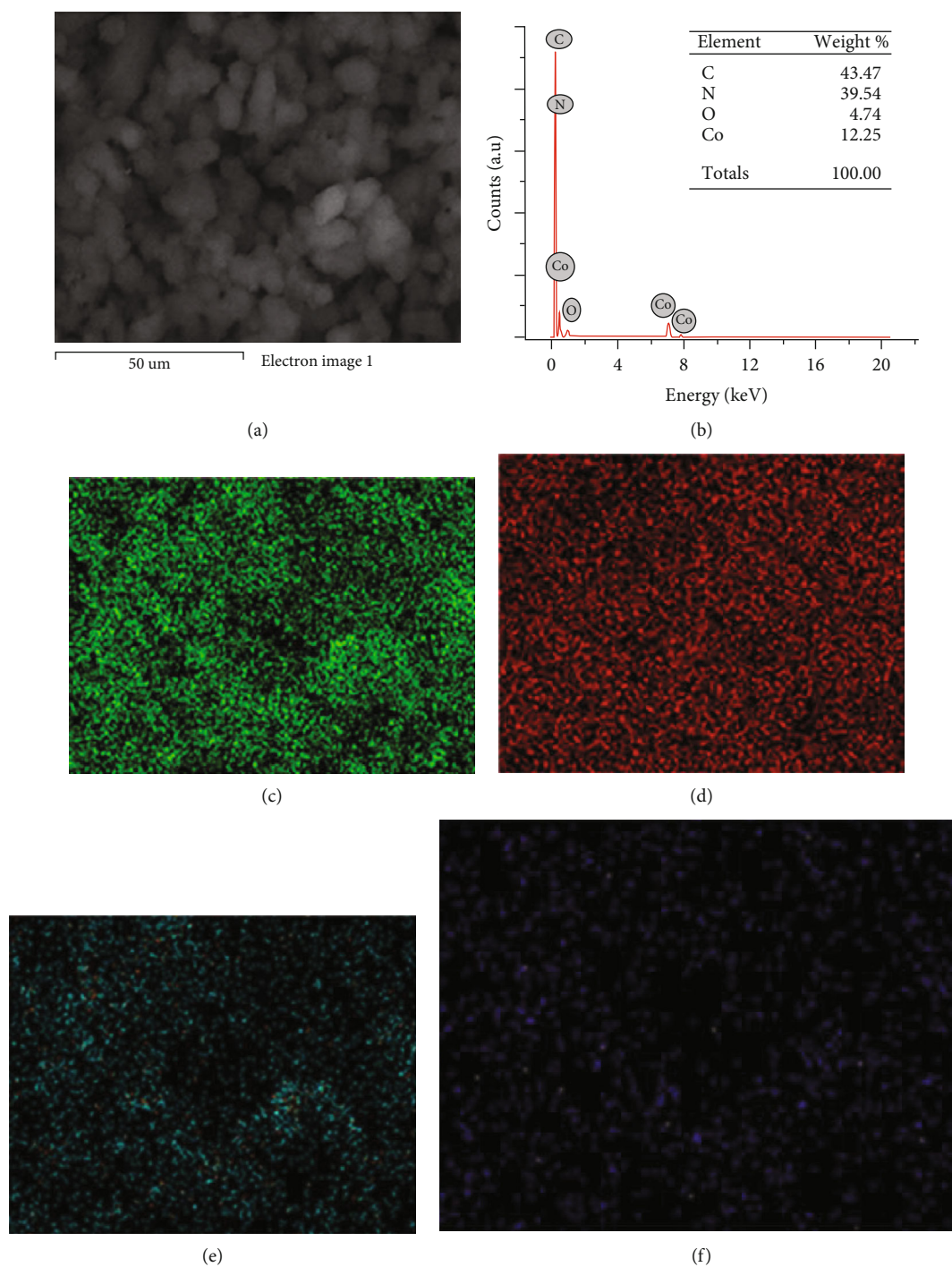


FIGURE 5: EDX-mapping of electron image for ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ (a, b), carbon element (c), cobalt element (d), nitrogen element (e), and oxygen element (f).

irreversible. In addition, the ZC-GCE does not exhibit an oxidation/reduction peak on the voltammogram in the solution without DCF, indicating the ZC-GCE is inactive in the studied potential range.

(1) *Effect of pH.* The influence of pH on the oxidation peak current of the 5.0×10^{-3} M DCF solution is studied by using CV in the BR buffer. At pH 3–5, DCF oxidation at the elec-

trode is not observed. It is possibly due to the unstable structure of ZIF-67 in ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ in this pH range (Figure 7). The peak current increases with pH and has the highest value at pH 6.5. Higher pHs witness a decrease of the peak current up to pH 8, and then the current increases again (Figure 9(c)). Therefore, pH 6.5 is selected for further experiments. The point of zero charge of ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ is 8.4, and the pK_a of DCF is around 4 [28]. The pH dependence

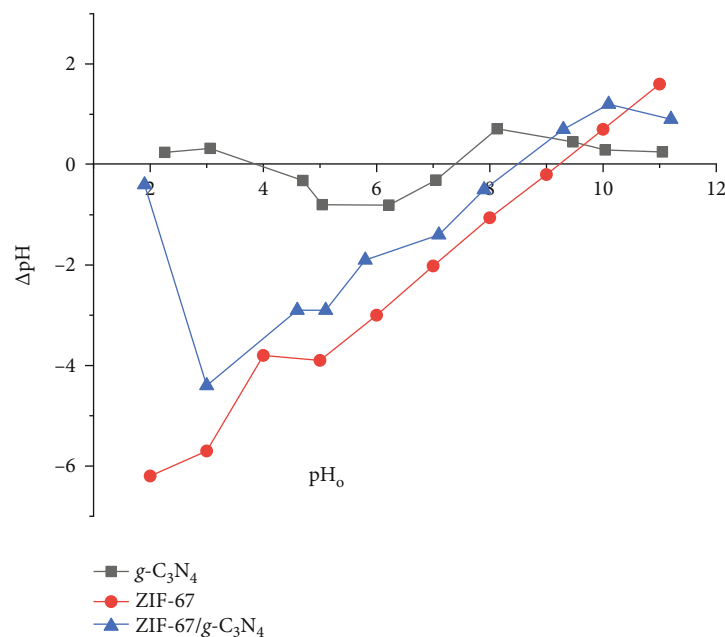


FIGURE 6: Point of zero charge (pH_{PZC}) of (5/5)ZIF-67/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, ZIF-67, and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

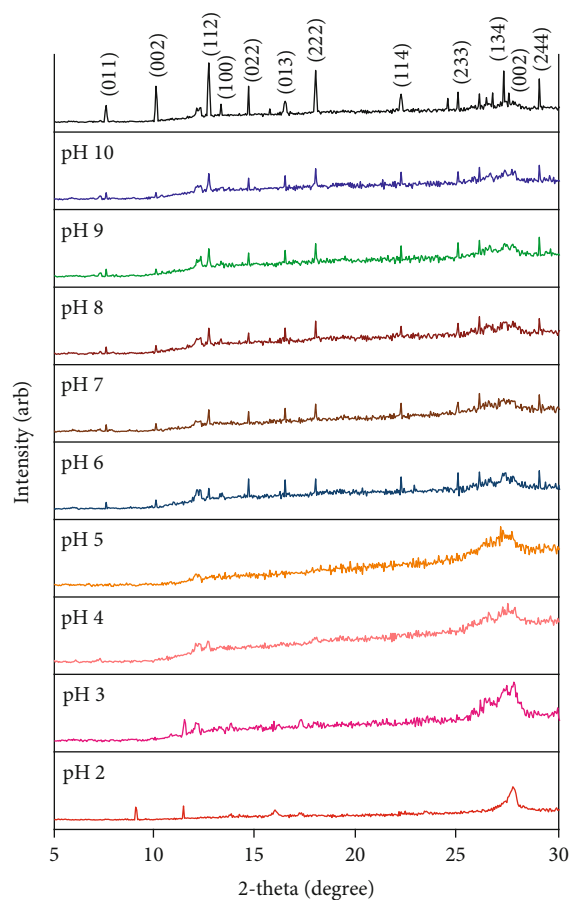


FIGURE 7: XRD patterns of (5/5)ZIF-67/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ at pH 2–10.

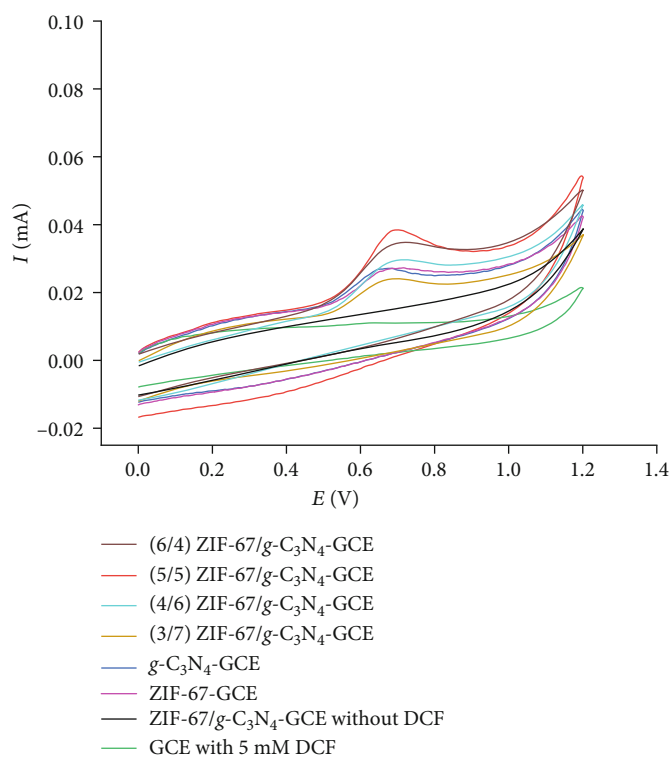


FIGURE 8: Cyclic voltammograms of 5 mM DCF in 0.2 M BRB pH 6 on GCE, ZIF-67-GCE, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GCE, and ZIF-67/ $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -GCE.

of peak currents of DCF oxidation could not be explained by the electrostatic interaction between charged species on the opposite sites. This process may follow a mechanism different from electrostatic interaction.

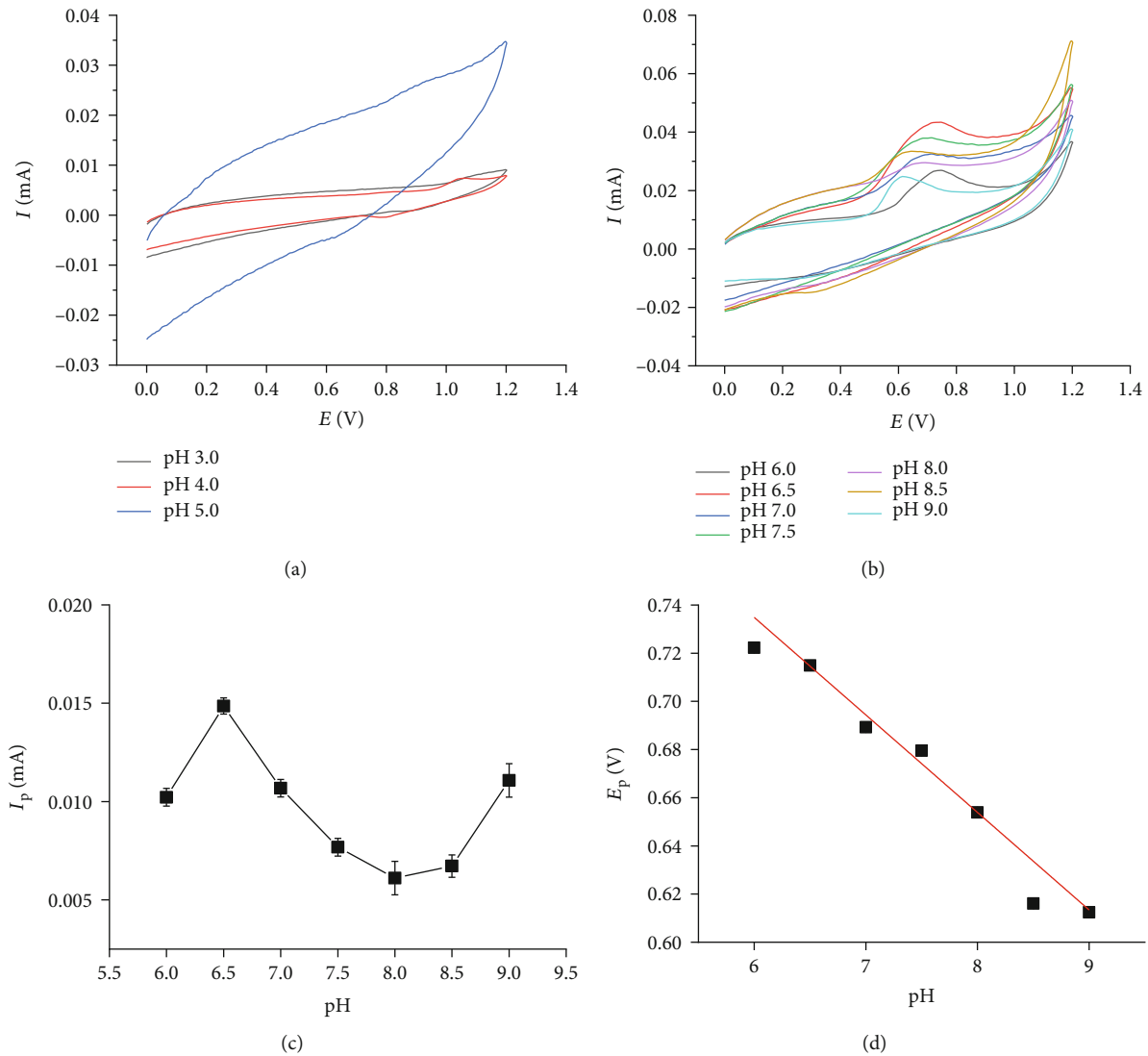


FIGURE 9: CVs of 5 mM DCF with (a) pH 3–5, (b) pH 6–9 in 0.2 M BRB, (c) I_p vs. pH, and (d) E_p vs. pH.

When pH is greater than 5, the peak potential decreases, suggesting the involvement of protons in the oxidation reaction (Figure 9(d)). The peak potential in the DCF oxidation on the ZC-GCE decreases linearly with the pH of the buffer solution according to the following equation: $E_{pa} \text{ (V)} = -0.0514 \times \text{pH} + 0.9409$ ($r^2 = 0.9988$). The slope of the equation is close to the Nernstian value (-0.0592 mV) for the electrochemical processes involving an equal number of protons and electrons.

(2) *Effect of Scan Rate.* The scan rate of CVs is chosen from 0.1 to $0.5 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. In this range, the anodic peak current increases (Figure 10(a)). The highly linear relationship between I_p and the scan rate manifests that the electrode process is predominantly controlled by adsorption [29] (Figure 10(b)). The scan rate effect is also examined from the function $I_p = f(v^{1/2})$ plot. A straight line passing the origin suggests an adsorption-controlled electrode process [30]. This relationship in our study is $I_p = (0.003 \pm 0.011) + (0.028 \pm 0.006) \times v^{1/2}$; $r =$

0.927. With the 95% confident interval, the intercept passes 0 (between -0.008 and 0.014) and confirms an adsorption-controlled process again.

The relationship between the peak potential and the natural logarithm of the scan rate can provide the number of electrons transferred (n) on the electrode surface. For an irreversible system, this relationship is described by Laviron's equation [31]:

$$E_p = E^0 - \frac{R \times T}{(1 - \alpha) \times n \times F} \times \ln \frac{R \times T \times K_s}{(1 - \alpha) \times n \times F} + \frac{R \times T}{(1 - \alpha) \times n \times F} \times \ln v, \quad (1)$$

where α is the electron-transfer coefficient, K_s is the apparent charge-transfer rate constant, n is the number of electrons transferred, v is the scan rate ($\text{V} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), $R = 8.314 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$, and $F = 96500 \text{ C} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ at 298 K. The linear regression of E_p versus $\ln(v)$ is as follows:

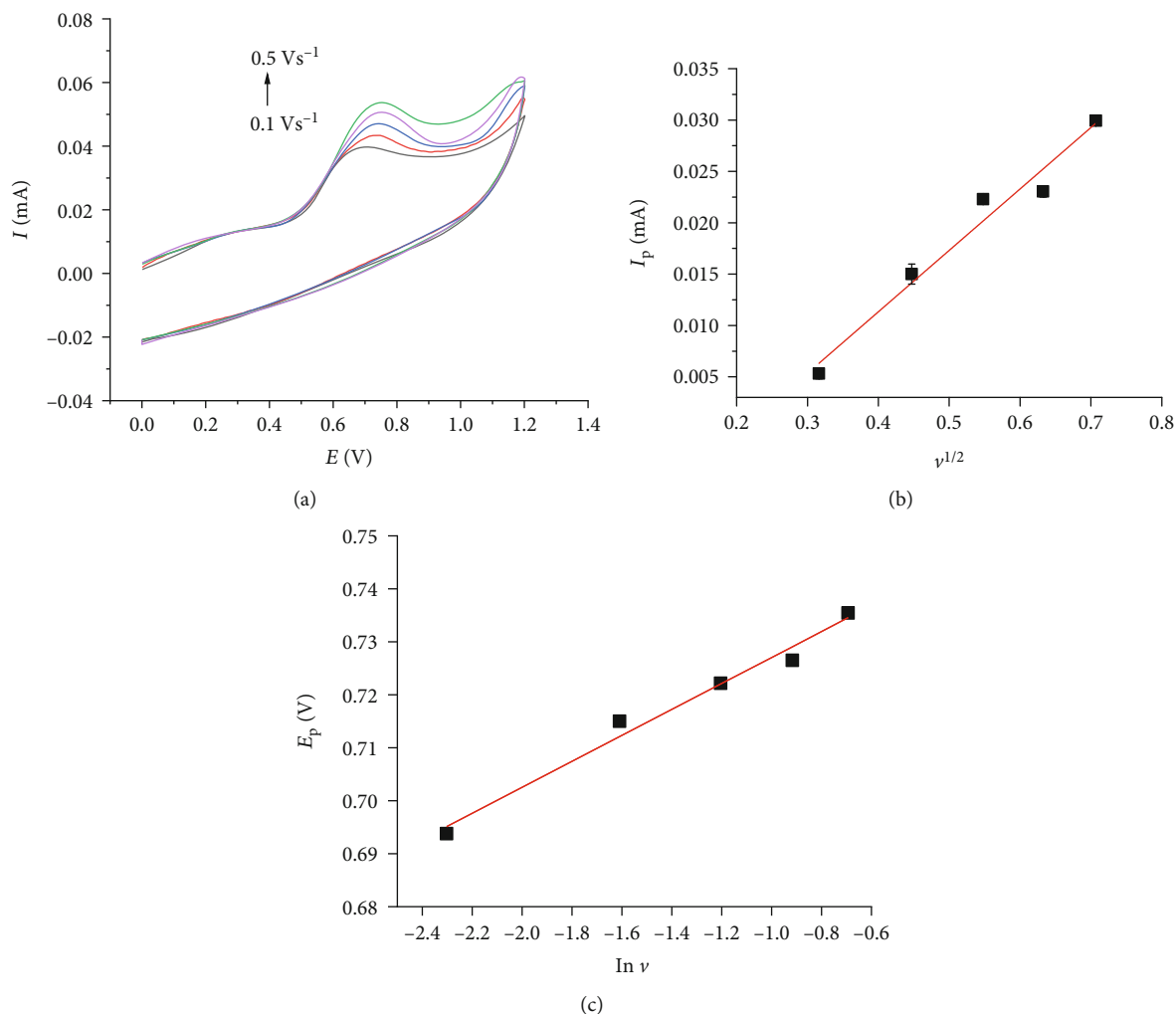
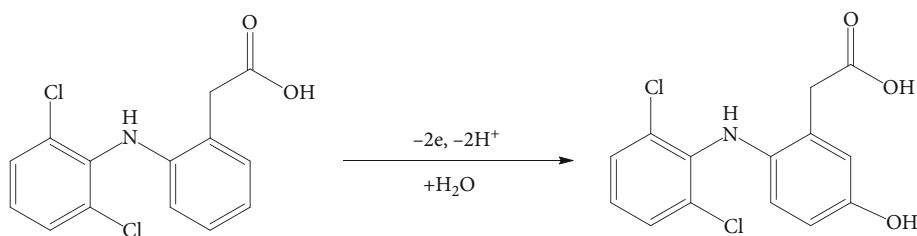


FIGURE 10: CVs of 5 mM DCF at various scan rates in 0.2 M BRS pH 6.5 on ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ (a), the plot of I_p vs. $\nu^{1/2}$ (b), and E_p vs. $\ln \nu$ (c).



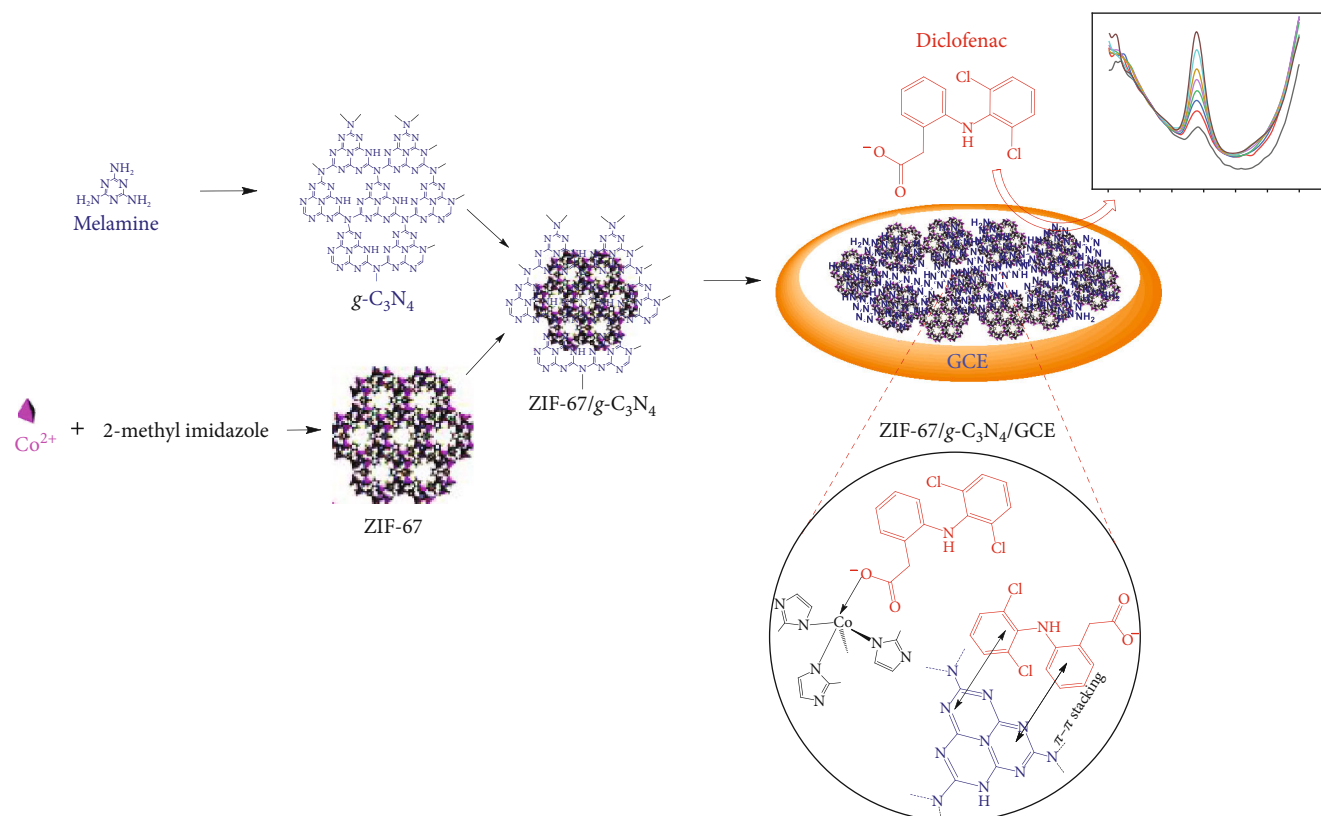
SCHEME 1: Oxidation mechanism of DCF on ZC-GCE.

$$E_p = (0.751 \pm 0.002) + (0.025 \pm 0.001) \times \ln \nu; r = 0.991. \quad (2)$$

The value of $(1 - \alpha) \times n$ calculated from the slope of this straight line is 0.95. For an irreversible system, α is considered as 0.5 [32]; therefore, the value of n is equal to 1.9 (≈ 2). Considering the pH effect on the anodic peak current, we can conclude that the redox reaction on the modified electrode involves the transfer of two electrons and two protons.

These results are consistent with those reported by Madsen et al. [33] and Goyal et al. [34], in which DCF is oxidized to 5-hydrodiclofenac via losing two electrons and two protons, as shown in Scheme 1.

The enhancement of electrochemical signals could result from the synergic effect of ZIF-67 and g-C₃N₄. The open Co(II) sites, as a Lewis acid [35], could attract the carboxyl group in DCF, and as a Lewis base via acid-base interaction, the graphitic rings in g-C₃N₄ could attract the benzene rings in DCF via π - π interaction. These arguments are schematically illustrated in Scheme 2.



SCHEME 2: Schematic illustration of the formation of ZIF-67/g-C₃N₄ modified GCE and its oxidation of DCF.

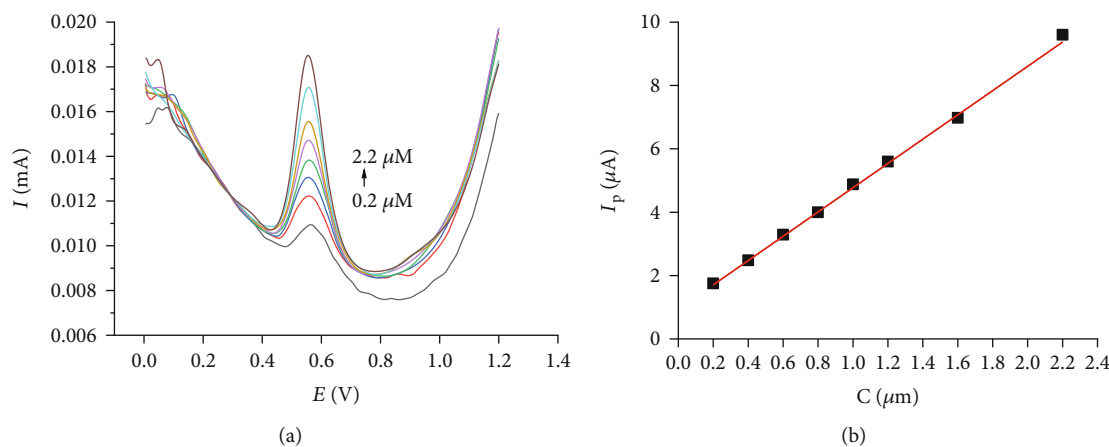


FIGURE 11: DPV curves of DCF with different concentrations (0.2–2.2 μM) in 0.2 M BRS pH 6.5 at the modified electrode (a). The plot of I_p vs. concentration (b).

3.2.2. Linear Range, Detection Limit, Repeatability, and Interference

(1) *Linear Range and Detection Limit.* The relationship between the peak current and DCF concentration is studied by using differential pulse voltammetry (DPV). In this case, the peak current increases linearly with the concentration of DCF, from 0.2 to 2.2 μM (Figure 11). The regression equation is $I_p = (0.941 \pm 0.02) + (3.889 \pm 0.03) \times C$; $r = 0.999$. The LOD (3S/n) is 0.071 μM. The detection limit, the linear range, and the sensitivity of the proposed DPV method are

compared with previously reported values for the determination of DCF (Table 2). Although the proposed electrode has a relatively narrow linear range, it has high sensitivity and a lower detection limit. This method can be used to determine DCF in pharmaceuticals and water samples in the micromole range.

(2) *Reproducibility and Repeatability.* The reproducibility is studied from four replicates measurements of DCF determination. To investigate the repeatability of this modified electrode, we conduct the measurements ten times with the

TABLE 2: Comparison of the analytical performance of the different modified electrodes for the determination of DCF.

Electrodes	Technique	Linear range (μM)	LOD (μM)	References
Gold nanoparticle/multiwalled carbon nanotube modified glassy carbon electrode	SWV	0.03–200	0.02	[9]
Cu-doped zeolite-expanded graphite-epoxy electrode	DPV	0.3–20	0.05	[36]
APTES-amino-AT-silica/GCE	SWV	0.3–20	0.053	[37]
Gold nanoparticles decorated multiwalled carbon nanotubes/graphene oxide/AuE	DPV	0.4–80	0.09	[38]
Ionic liquid modified carbon nanotube paste electrode	DPV	0.5–300	0.2	[7]
Amino-AT/GCE	SWV	0.3–20	0.204	[37]
Au-Pt bimetallic nanoparticles decorated multiwalled carbon nanotubes/gold electrode	DPV	0.5–1000	0.3	[39]
ZIF-67/g-C ₃ N ₄	DPV	0.2–2.2	0.071	The present work

Square wave voltammetry: SWV.

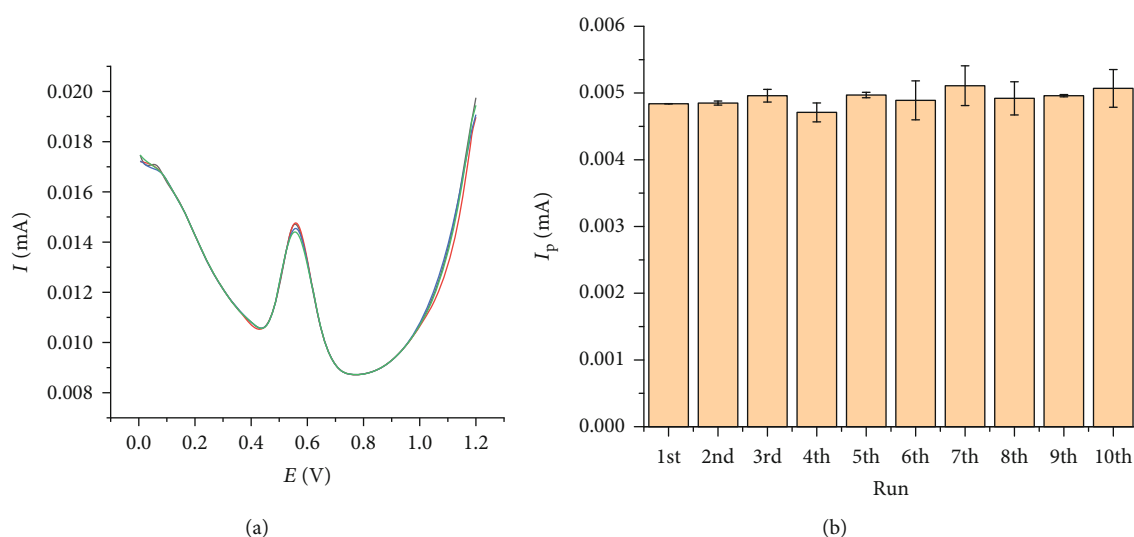


FIGURE 12: The DPV of four replicates measurement (a) and the values of peak current of DCF on ZC-GCE modified using (5 μL ZC (1 mg/mL) for ten times on the same electrode (b).

sample electrode. Figure 12(a) shows very similar DPV curves of four scans on the same working electrode. The small RSD of 1.32% indicates good reproducibility of the proposed method. Figure 12(b) presents the values of peak currents measured on 10 distinct working electrodes under the same modified electrode procedure. The RSD varies from 0.151% to 5.315% in run 1 to run 10, manifesting excellent repeatability.

The biological sample is a very complex mixture consisting of various ions and molecules. Possible interfering electroactive species on the biological samples include inorganic salts (KHCO_3 , Na_2SO_4 , CaCl_2 , and NH_4NO_3) and organic compounds (uric acid, caffeine, paracetamol, and ascorbic acid). Table 3 reveals that inorganic salts do not significantly interfere with the measurement even at extremely high content (100–320 fold). Ascorbic acid does not seem to affect the peak current at 480-fold concentra-

TABLE 3: Effect of some foreign substances on the determination of 1 μM DFC in 0.2 M BRBS pH 6.5.

Interferents	Tolerance level (M/M)	Rev. (%)
KHCO_3	320	6.80
Na_2SO_4	480	13.57
CaCl_2	320	12.86
NH_4NO_3	80	6.58
Uric acid	80	6.34
Caffeine	80	10.14
Paracetamol	40	5.13
Ascorbic acid	480	9.38

tion. Paracetamol, uric acid, and caffeine exert a medium effect on the peak current at a concentration of 40 to 80-fold higher than that of DCF. These results confirm the relevant selectivity of the proposed method for DCF detection.

TABLE 4: The results of DCF analysis in urine by the proposed DPV method and HPLC.

Sample	DPV analysis			Rev (%)	HPLC analysis	
	Original content (μM)	Spiked (μM)	Found (μM)		Original content (μM)	Found (μM)
Urine 1	—	50	51.243 ± 0.229	102.49	—	48.931 ± 0.015
Urine 2	—	50	48.102 ± 0.085	96.20	—	47.823 ± 0.204
Urine 3	—	50	49.215 ± 0.081	98.43	—	50.387 ± 0.139
Urine 4	0.257 ± 0.074	50	54.013 ± 0.167	104.96	0.261 ± 0.009	52.715 ± 0.077
Urine 5	—	50	47.692 ± 0.073	95.38	—	47.570 ± 0.008

(—): not found.

3.2.3. Real Sample Analysis. This DPV method is used to analyze five actual human urine samples. To determine the method's accuracy, we spike each sample with $50 \mu\text{M}$ of DCF, and the relative recovery (Rev.) is calculated. All the values fall in the expectable range of 95.4–105% (Table 4). The content of DCF in the samples is also determined with the HPLC method for comparison. When $\alpha = 0.05$, the paired samples t -test proves that there is no statistically significant difference between the two methods ($p_{\text{two-tailed}} = 0.388 (>0.05)$; $t(4) = 0.968$). These results demonstrate a good performance of the presented method for the determination of DCF in urine samples.

4. Conclusion

In this research, we successfully synthesized ZIF-67/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with the self-assembly method and used the material to modify a glassy carbon electrode for the electrocatalytic determination of diclofenac. The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is highly dispersed in ZIF-67 through an ultrasonic assisted stir to form a composite of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and ZIF-67. The enhancement of electrochemical signals is due to the synergic effect of ZIF-67 and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The oxidation of diclofenac on the modified electrode takes place with a two-electron-proton mechanism. The electrode process is controlled by adsorption. The proposed DPV method exhibits high sensitivity with a low detection limit and can be used to determine diclofenac at trace levels.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgments

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