Indonesian Physical Review

Volume 7 Issue 1, January 2024 P-ISSN: 2615-1278, E-ISSN: 2614-7904

Effect of Fe3O4/SiO2/TiO² Photocatalyst on Pollutant Management in Swamp Water

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Introduction

People's capacity to acquire clean water has become increasingly problematic in recent years [1], [2]. This is due to pollution from industrial, animal husbandry, farm, and domestic activities, which drastically decreases the quality of water in bodies of water such as lakes, rivers, marshes, and reservoirs [3], [4]. Swamp regions are one of the natural resources that can be used to generate growth, which is thought to be capable of increasing the rate of economic development and community welfare [5]. Aside from that, swamp water is water found in swamp and lowland areas, particularly in Sumatra and Kalimantan, that has the characteristics of a low pH (3-5) or high acidity level, yellowish brown color, and high levels

of organic, iron, and manganese, but has the potential to be used as raw water through certain processes [6], [7].

In general, the water quality index indicates the quality of the environment surrounding bodies of water, including wetlands. Water quality is critical, given that water serves as a source of all life [8]. Organic waste is generated by human activities, particularly household, agricultural, and fishery waste, resulting in eutrophication and a deterioration in water quality. Pollution and shallowing also impact the functioning of aquatic ecosystems, the economy, and public health [9–11]. There are many contaminants in wastewater, but toxicity is only found over specified limits known as acceptable limits. The pollutants found in wastewater are determined by the nature of the industrial, agricultural, and municipal wastewater discharge operations. Water pollutants can be classified as inorganic, organic, or biological in nature [11–14]. Heavy metals are the most frequent inorganic water pollutants, and they are very poisonous and carcinogenic in nature. Furthermore, nitrates, sulfates, phosphates, fluorides, chlorides, and oxalates have some major negative effects [12], [15].

Heavy metal waste is a severe issue due to its adverse impact on humans and animals [16–20]. Heavy metals include lead, arsenic, cadmium, chromium, copper, zinc, mercury, iron, aluminum, nickel, barium, manganese, and beryllium [13], [21]. As the industry grows, more colored wastewater is released into the natural environment from factories (e.g., food processing plants, printing, and textile manufacturers). Colored wastewater discharged from these businesses may provide eco-toxic risks, resulting in potential bioaccumulation risks [22]. Pesticides, which include insecticides, herbicides, fungicides, polynuclear hydrocarbons (PAH), phenols, polychlorinated biphenyls, halogenated aromatic hydrocarbons, formaldehyde, polybrominated biphenyls, biphenyls, detergents, oils, and greases, cause toxic organic contamination. Normal hydrocarbons, alcohols, aldehydes, ketones, proteins, lignin, and medicines are also found in wastewater. Different types of bacteria that thrive in wastewater may be responsible for various diseases [23].

The availability of clean water for varied activities is the most difficult task for scholars and practitioners all around the world. As a consequence of the serious efforts of researchers all over the world on the subject of pollution control and management, a number of approaches with varied degrees of success have been created to manage water contamination [24]. Coagulation, foam flotation, filtration, ion exchange, sedimentation, solvent extraction, adsorption, electrolysis, chemical oxidation, disinfection, chemical deposition, and membrane processes are among them. However, this approach has its own drawbacks and limits [23], [25]. This procedure normally uses a lot of energy and can be complicated by moving pollutants between different fluids, wastes, and byproducts of wastewater treatment. It is critical for economic and social growth to identify gentler reaction conditions and effective catalysts to remove various contaminants from wastewater [26].

Photocatalysis is a procedure that uses light as an energy source to activate a catalyst that enhances the rate of a chemical reaction without being involved in the reaction [27].

Photocatalysis is a multifunctional phenomenon with numerous applications such as pollutant degradation, hydrogen production, carbon dioxide reduction, nitrogen fixation, microbial disinfection, and so on [28], [29]. Various semiconductors have been investigated for use as photocatalysts, including titanium (IV) oxide (TiO₂), zinc (II) oxide (ZnO), gallium arsenide, tungsten (VI) oxide (WO₃), gallium phosphide, and cadmium sulphide [30]. Apart from that, oxide minerals such as iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) and silica oxide (SiO₂) can be employed as photocatalyst materials. With mild conditions, a simple method, and green technology, photocatalysis can decompose organic contaminants in wastewater into water, carbon dioxide, or other tiny molecules, and decrease or oxidize inorganic pollutants into innocuous compounds [31]. Below are several studies that have made photocatalysts as controllers to overcome water pollution which can be seen in Tabel 1:

Tabel 1. Various types of photocatalysts have been modified to overcome water pollution.

Based on table 1, it shows various types of photocatalyst applications that can be used on waste in water systems. However, here we will focus more on the $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ composite$ synthesis method, namely using a relatively cheap and simple coprecipitation method which will greatly influence the quality of photocatalyst applications.

Theory

 $TiO₂$ is a natural titanium oxide that is stable and corrosion-resistant [42-45]. TiO₂ is the most extensively employed photocatalyst in the degradation of organic pollutants due to its low cost, stability, toxicity, and environmental friendliness [46]-[48]. Although TiO₂ is traditionally considered low toxicity, the development of TiO₂ nanotechnology has resulted in greater human and environmental exposure, putting $TiO₂$ nanoparticles under toxicological scrutiny. Researchers are interested in $TiO₂$ photocatalysis because of its potential applications in environmental stewardship and pollution control. TiO₂ can be found in the structures of anatase, brookite, and rutile, as shown in Figure 1 and Table 2.

Figure 1. Polymorph crystal structure of TiO₂: a) Rutile, b) Anatase, c) Brookite and d) $TiO₂(B)[49]$.

Although rutile is the most frequent form of $TiO₂$ with thermal stability, anatase TiO2 has increased photosensitive characteristics due to its good charge carrier mobility and higher number of surface hydroxyl groups $[50]$. TiO₂ based photocatalysis has become a feasible technology for a variety of applications, including the remediation of various environmental contaminants and environmentally friendly organic synthesis processes [51].

Characteristic	The structure of crystals	Density	Band gap (eV)	Adsorption of light (n/m)	Photocatalyst (mod/h)	Dielectric constant	Area enthalpy (J/m ²)
Rutile	Tetragonal	4,13	3.0	< 415	1.1×10^{-5}	6.62	1.93
Anatase	Tetragonal	3.79	3.2	< 390	3.5×10^{-5}	6.04	1.34
Brokite	Ortorombik	3.99	3.2	$\overline{}$	-	$\overline{}$	1.66

Table 2. TiO₂ Properties and Characteristics [51].

Figure 1 depicts the $TiO₂$ photocatalyst. TiO₂'s principal crystal modifications are anatase and rutile. Both structures are made up of $TiO₆$ octahedra with titanium ions in the centre and oxygen ions at the vertices. In the rutile polymorph, the octahedra are linked by adjacent edges along two edges, forming a chain.

Magnetite (Fe₃O₄) nanoparticles in particular are frequently employed due to their biocompatibility, high magnetic susceptibility, chemical stability, harmlessness, high saturation magnetization, and inexpensive cost.

Magnetite has a cubic inverted spinel structure packed along the [1, 1, 1] plane, with Fe²⁺ and Fe3+ occupying octahedral lattice cavities and Fe3+ occupying tetrahedral lattice cavities, as depicted in Figure 2. The formula is $Fe₃+(A)[Fe₂+Fe₃+](B)O4$, where A is tetrahedral and B is octahedral. Rapid electron jumps at octahedral sites between Fe2+ and Fe3+ ions can boost magnetite conductivity [64].

Figure 2. Fe₃O₄ crystal structure, with the green atom representing Fe²⁺, the brown atom representing $Fe³⁺$, and the white atom representing O [65].

Anbari et al. (2016) [66] carried out the photocatalyst procedure with $Fe₃O₄$. His research proved the monitoring of the decolorization rate of a reactive blue dye (Cibacron Blue FN-R) and variations in ORP, Ec, and solution pH by employing Fe₃O₄ as a photocatalyst under sunlight irradiation rather than a UV lamp and analyzing dye degradation. The influence of operational parameters such as pH, initial dye concentration, catalyst dose, and H_2O_2 concentration on dye decolorization efficiency was investigated.

Adsorption of dye on Fe3O4 was performed in a dark environment (without exposure to sunlight) by mixing the dye solution with the catalyst in a 500 mL beaker. The dye concentration is evaluated by removing samples from these beakers on a regular basis. Figure 5 shows the effects of red dye adsorption on $Fe₃O₄$ via the dark reaction.

Figure 3. Adsorption of red dye on Fe₃O₄ via the dark reaction [66].

Figure 3 depicts the time-dependent fluctuation in percent decolorization owing to adsorption onto the Fe3O⁴ surface. It is obvious that the time necessary for adsorption is approximately 25 minutes. Furthermore, the experimental results revealed that the optimal pH value for solar photocatalytic Fe3O⁴ was 6.5 and the best catalysis dose was 300mg/L. Figure 4 depicts the changes in ORP, Ec (electrical conductivity), and pH of the solution during the course of the experiment with $pH = 6.5$. On the other hand, the ORP value increases from roughly 236 mV to 346 mV, showing that the oxidation activity increases during the reaction time; comparable results were reported by Wu and Wang, 2012 [67]. Furthermore, for Fe₃O₄, the most efficient H₂O₂ concentration is 200 mg/L. The decolorization effectiveness of reactive red dye utilizing Fe3O⁴ under sun radiation is around 85.51%.

Figure 4. shows how the solution's ORP, pH, and Ec values change with exposure time

Fe3O⁴ Photocatalyst Modified With TiO² As A Water Controller

The development of magnetite-based nano photocatalyst materials is currently a hot research issue. The utilization of iron oxide nanocomposites as ferromagnetic materials is critical due to their novel characteristics, biocompatibility, and low cost. Magnetic semiconductor photocatalysts have strong chemical and structural stability, good magnetic characteristics, a narrow band gap, active visible light, and potential electrical performance [68].

TiO² nanoparticles combined with magnetics have superparamagnetic capabilities that can be easily collected, separated, or repaired by applying an external supermagnet [69]. Furthermore, charge transfer and spin can occur at the magnetic surface/catalytically active chaperone (TiO₂) interface, allowing for further tweaking of its catalytic characteristics [70], [71].

In environmental applications, $TiO₂$ is the most commonly used photocatalyst. However, $TiO₂$ has significant limitations when it comes to separation from aqueous solutions [72]. Doping magnetic materials can thus be employed to facilitate photocatalyst recovery in a magnetic field. The magnetic substance can be iron oxide or $Fe₃O₄$. Furthermore, the recombination of conduction electrons (e) and holes $(h⁺)$ limits the function of the photocatalysis process. To overcome this constraint, electron acceptors are typically utilized in processes involving conduction electrons. Among the electron acceptors, oxygen, hydrogen peroxide, and persulfate have been frequently employed in photocatalytic degradation [73]-[76]. Tabel 3 shows an example of employing Fe₃O₄ photocatalyst with TiO₂.

Tabel 3. Use of $Fe₃O₄$ photocatalyst modified by $TiO₂$

Figure 5 depicts the properties of the morphological condition of the Fe3O4/TiO2 photocatalyst material examined [84].

Figure 5. FESEM on a) $Fe₃O₄$, b) $TiO₂$, and c) $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂$

Figure 5 depicts the morphological characteristics of Fe₃O₄, TiO₂, and Fe₃O₄/TiO₂. Fe₃O₄, TiO₂, and Fe3O4/TiO2 particle sizes are around 390 nm, 100 nm, and 120 nm, respectively. Although the particle size of $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂$ and TiO₂ is consistent, particle agglomeration occurs. This demonstrates that agglomeration can be generated by unequal joining of $Fe₃O₄$ and $TiO₂$ particles. Meanwhile, the surface area of Fe₃O₄, TiO₂, and Fe₃O₄/TiO₂ can be estimated using the BET data shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Measurement of surface area, average pore diameter and pore volume of TiO₂, Fe₃O₄/TiO₂, and $Fe₃O₄$ using BET [72].

Table 5 displays the findings of the BET analysis. TiO₂ has a surface area and pore volume of 35.3 m²/g and 0.2566 cm³/g, respectively, which are lowered to 24.76 m²/g and 0.2151 cm³/g by coating Fe₃O₄ onto TiO₂. Magnetic nanoparticles supported by TiO₂ generate this decrease in surface area and pore volume. Three nanoparticles, on the other hand, had pores smaller

than 40 nm, indicating mesoporous particles. Mesoporous particles range in size from 2 to 50 nm [85, 86].

In addition, nature degrades contaminants in water; Figure 8 depicts the photodegradation mechanism process in $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂$.

Figure 6. llustration of the photodegradation mechanism in $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂$ [40]

Figure 6 depicts the photodegradation process of methylene blue by $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂$ thin films. When exposed to direct solar radiation, electron-hole pairs are formed in Fe₃O₄. TiO₂ generates electron-hole pairs concurrently with UV absorption of sunlight. Electrons (e) from $TiO₂'s$ Conduction band (CB) migrate to Fe₃O₄'s CB. Similarly, holes (h+) from the valance band (VB) of Fe₃O₄ migrate to the VB of TiO₂, resulting in effective charge separation and a drop in the recombination rate. The excited electrons react with oxygen molecules to create superoxide $(O₂)$, which participates in the color reduction process. Similarly, holes react with water molecules to create hydroxyl ions (OH), which participate in the dye oxidation process [17], [87].

Experimental Method

Organic dyes used mostly in the textile, printing, paint, and paper sectors have been identified as a serious threat to global water systems. Silicon dioxide $(SiO₂)$ is the ideal mesoporous support material for increasing the surface area of titania in photocatalytic applications. Silica has been widely researched for usage as a support material. Silica-supported titania composite systems have been used in applications such as green catalysis, organic synthesis, fuel desulfurization, and anti-corrosion coatings [88-91]. Because of its broad band gap, silica can also help to improve photocatalytic activity by inhibiting the development of recombination centres [92]. Aside from that, the addition of iron oxide (Fe₃O₄) to SiO₂ and TiO₂ photocatalyst materials increases their exceptional superparamagnetic and catalytic capabilities. $TiO₂$ composite systems with $SiO₂$ and $Fe₃O₄$ have been synthesised and exploited for photocatalytic applications in a number of recent investigations [93]. Abbas et al. (2014) used a Fe₃O₄-TiO₂ photocatalyst and UV light to degrade 5 x10-3 mol/L methylene blue (MB) dye by feeding a high catalyst concentration of 50 g/L [94], while Wu et al. (2011) obtained a Fe₃O₄-TiO₂ photocatalyst capable of removing 50%-60% of MB after 90 minutes of reaction under UV light

[95]. Xue et al. (2013) also conducted research on the $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂/SiO₂ photocatalyst. In his$ study, $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂/SiO₂ was applied to garbage in the form of methylene orange (MO).$

Coprecipitation Method

Coprecipitation is a bottom-up synthesis process for producing small, nanometer-sized particles [98]. The principle of this procedure is to remove the continuous bonds of a metal complex in liquid form without taking into account the precise mechanism that occurs. The coprecipitation method is used to separate solid material from aqueous precipitate [99]. As a result, this approach is well-suited for use in the synthesis of metal materials such as zinc (Zn), titanium (Ti), and iron (Fe) [100]. In the product creation process, the coprecipitation process requires managing the pH, temperature, and stirring speed [110]. According to Ningsih [110], this method has two advantages: (1) homogenization of the reactant sediment to reduce temperature and (2) a longer process to detect metal oxide powder. The method then has three flaws: (1) it is not fast enough to create material with a high purity, (2) it does not run smoothly because the reactant used is not consistent, and (3) it lacks a universal symbiotic condition for the creation of several metal oxide.

Result and Discussion

The photocatalyst is constructed of Fe₃O₄ catalyst material with $SiO₂$ and a coating of $TiO₂$ material. The application of polluted water for photocatalytic activity employs methylene orange (MO) dye and direct UV light irradiation. In his study, $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂/SiO₂$ was applied to garbage in the form of methylene orange (MO). Figure 7 depicts the morphological condition of $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂/SiO₂$.

Figure 7. TEM results on (a) Fe₃O₄, (b) Fe₃O₄/SiO₂, (c) Fe₃O₄/TiO₂/SiO₂ [96].

Figure 7 depicts the TEM pictures of the three samples. Figure 7 (a) shows a TEM picture of Fe3O⁴ particles. The particles are clearly cubic, with diameters of roughly 700 nm. There is still some carbon around the particles. Carbon can prevent $Fe₃O₄$ particles from oxidising to $Fe₂O₃$. Figure 7(b) shows a TEM picture of $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂$ particles. Figure 7 clearly shows a very thin layer surrounding the black contrast $Fe₃O₄$ particles, which is most likely the SiO₂ layer. It can be noticed that the dispersion of $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂$ particles is better than that of $Fe₃O₄$ particles. Figure 7(c) shows a TEM picture of $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ particles. The $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂$ particles are clearly contained by a $TiO₂$ layer made up of several tiny spherical particles.

The research results demonstrate that layer by layer $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ particles were successfully generated. The photocatalysis efficiency of $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ particles is strongly connected to their specific surface area, which is $55 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. Aside from particle size and surface area, there is a band gap energy value that determines the photocatalyst's properties; the lower the band gap energy value, the more effective the photocatalyst. This is because the energy required to excite an electron from the valence band to the conduction band is lower. Even though catalyst materials have tiny band gap values, electron recombination processes are common. However, due of the existence of a $SiO₂$ layer between Fe₃O₄ and TiO₂, the electron recombination process can also be minimised in the $Fe_3O_4/SiO_2/TiO_2$ material. Table 6 displays the band gap values for the $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ material:$

Table 6. Shows the band gap in the $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ photocatalyst [97].$

Figure 8 depicts the $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ photocatalyst process for MO degradation$

Figure 8. Relationship between irradiation time and decoloration rate of MO treated with $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ particles (red line) under UV light [96].

Figure 8 depicts the connection between irradiation time and decoloration rate of a MO solution infused with Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ particles under UV light. After 180 minutes of UV light irritation, the decoloration rate of the MO solution on $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ particles was 90%. Because the photocatalytic activity of $Fe_3O_4/SiO_2/TiO_2$ functional particles is greater when exposed to ultraviolet light, it may be assumed that $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ functional particles have a high photocatalytic activity when exposed to longer wavelength light. The photocatalytic activity of $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ functional particles under visible light irradiation is greater than under UV light irradiation, which has crucial implications for future applications.

Conclusion

Using the Coprecipitation Method, we successfully reviewed the usage of Fe3O4/SiO2/TiO2 photocatalysts as water pollution controllers. According to the TEM data, which reveal that layers of $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ particles are successfully formed because they are encased by layers of TiO₂ made up of numerous small spherical particles. Surface area in $Fe₃O₄/TiO₂$ and Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ is 24.76 m2/g and 55 m2/g, respectively. In the degradation process, $Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂$ is able to degrade pollutants such as methylene orange in water through the photocatalyst process, where the results of the photocatalyst process carried out by Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ reach 90% in 180 minutes of UV light irritation. Therefore, Fe₃O₄/SiO₂/TiO₂ can be used as a photocatalyst for water pollution degradation.

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