



# Ni and Zn modified acid activated montmorillonite clay for effective removal of carbol fuchsin dye from aqueous solution

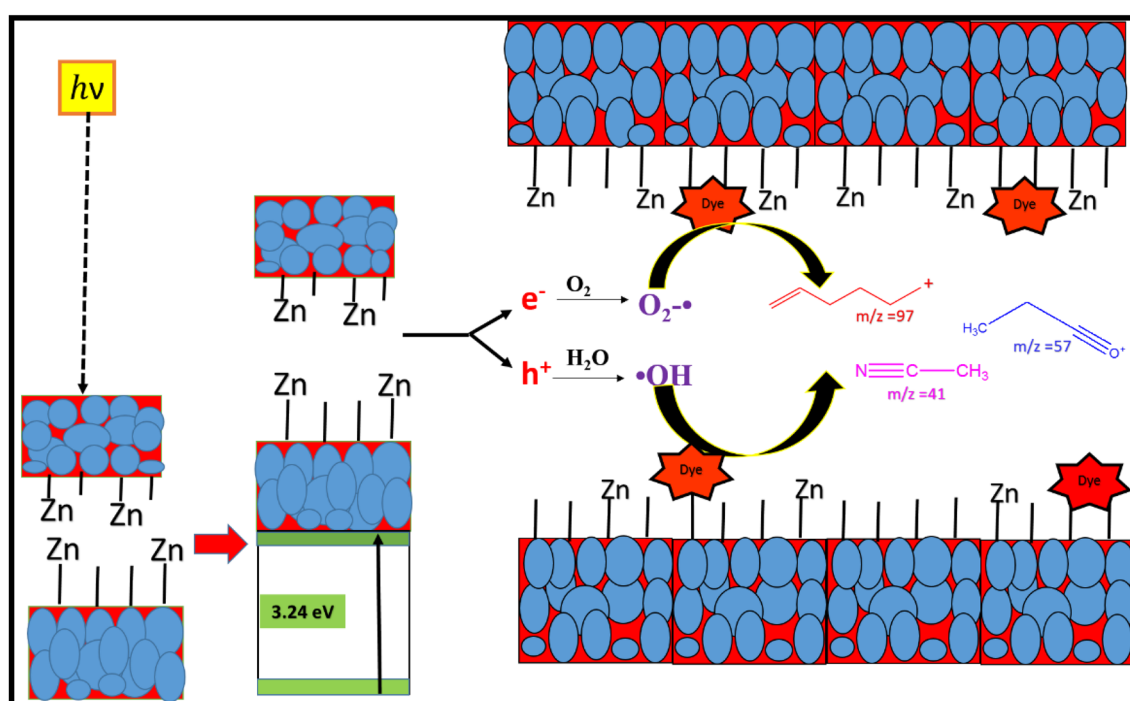
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Received: 8 September 2019 / Accepted: 18 February 2020  
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## Abstract

The present work aims to investigate efficiency of zinc and nickel modified acid activated montmorillonite clay to remove carbol fuchsin dye from aqueous solution. The synthesized nanocomposites were characterized by TEM, SEM-EDAX, XRD, FT-IR and UV-Vis techniques. The adsorption of dye increased with increase in pH obeying pseudo-second-order rate kinetics and rapidly degraded (94%) alkaline dye solution in 90 min confirmed by LC-MS analysis. Zinc modified clay had slight edge due to high adsorption capacity and 3.24 eV band gap energy. Scavenger study confirmed participation of  $O_2^-$  in degradation mechanism and reusability experiments confirmed stability of nanocomposites for multiple cycle.

## Graphic abstract



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**Keywords** Montmorillonite clay Nanocomposites · Carbol fuchsin · Photocatalytic degradation

## 1 Introduction

Over the last few decades due to the urbanization and industrialization, rapid increase in water pollution is observed due to the addition of large amount of organic matter in water bodies [1]. Various organic moieties such as pesticides, antibiotics, detergents and many others are introduced into the hydrosphere by urban waste and industrial effluents [1–3]. One of the major group of pollutants among all are organic dyes which are more than 100,000 types, manufactured at the rate of  $10^5$ – $10^6$  tons per year and 10–15% of it goes as a waste through industrial effluent [4]. Many dyes when enter into the ecosystem prove lethal due to their aromatic origin, tendency to generate secondary metabolites carcinogens and absorption of essential sunlight in water bodies. Moreover, they increase BOD and COD by decreasing DO and can cause serious cytotoxic effects to aquatic life and eventually humans [4, 5]. To address the issue techniques such as coagulation, precipitation, filtration, oxidation, activated sludge processes, reverse osmosis, nano-filtration, ozone treatment and many more have been employed but possess limitations due to low efficiency, high cost and secondary waste product generation [6–8].

To tackle these limitations new techniques of Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOP's) are employed for complete destruction of organic pollutants in water bodies [9]. In these processes photo active materials are employed to generate highly oxidizing species such as  $\cdot\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{O}_2^-$  for the degradation of organic molecules in presence of light known as photocatalysts [9, 10]. However, due to the high cost, less efficiency in UV–Vis range, toxicity and low reusability of these photocatalysts restrict the AOP's to be employed on large scale pilot projects [11, 12].

To overcome the drawbacks variety of naturally occurring, low cost clay minerals, such as montmorillonite clays [13], kaolinite clays [14], bentonite clays [15], activated clays [16] etc. can be effectively used as an adsorbent as well as photocatalysts. The efficiency of these materials can be increased by acid activation which increase the specific surface area, modify surface charges and adsorption capacity of clay minerals [16, 17] moreover, by incorporation of various metal dopants, which increase the catalytic ability by minimizing the band gap energy and modification of surface properties [18]. Zinc and nickel being highly photo active can be used as dopants to enhance the activity of clay minerals. Moreover, these dopants increase generation of photo induced charge carriers ( $e^-/h^+$ ) and minimize their recombination, so they can effectively use to generate free radicals in aqueous solution [18, 19]. The

peculiarities of activation and metal doping can be utilized to fabricate highly effective adsorbent and photocatalyst from low cost minerals by simple methods.

Considering the importance of low cost minerals, surface activation and incorporation of metal dopants herein, we report a large scale synthesis of zinc and nickel doped acid activated montmorillonite clay nanocomposites for efficient removal of rarely reported carbol fuchsin cationic dye under stimulated light source. Besides, effect of nickel and zinc incorporation is also investigated by comparing both the modified nanocomposite under various parameters.

## 2 Materials and methods

### 2.1 Materials

Montmorillonite clay was purchased from Rudra Zeolite, Nashik, India, Nickel (II) nitrate hexahydrate ( $\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), Zinc (II) nitrate hexahydrate ( $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), Nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ) were purchased from Fisher Scientific, Carbol Fuchsin dye was purchased from SD Fine Chemical Limited, India, Polyethylene glycol—200 (PEG-200) (99.9%) and Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) were purchased from Merk, India.

### 2.2 Preparation of dye solution

Carbol fuchsin (CF) Fig. 1 was used as an organic contaminant. The stock solution ( $100 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) of carbol fuchsin was prepared using double distilled water and various concentration of dye solutions were prepared by serial dilution from prepared stock solution.

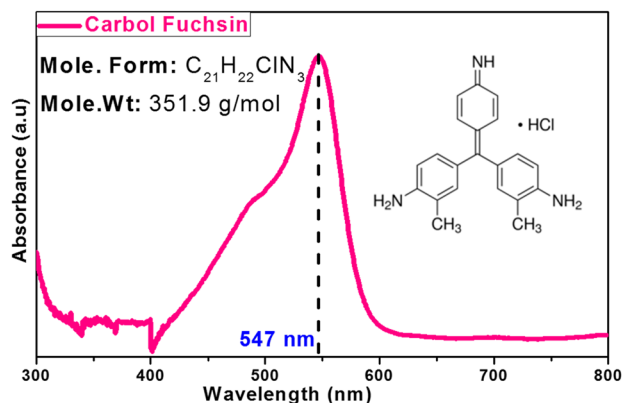


Fig. 1 Characteristics of carbol fuchsin (CF) dye

### 2.3 Activation of clay

For the acid activation 15 g of clay was grounded and sieved through 400 mesh filter cloth and continuously stirred in 250 ml of 0.25 M  $\text{HNO}_3$  solution at 70 °C for 3 h. The resulting clay was filtered in Whatman-42 filter paper and washed several times with water to remove  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ions and resulting cake was dried in an open air oven at 110 °C for 4 h [20].

### 2.4 Synthesis of nickel and zinc modified acid activated Montmorillonite clay

After the acid activation, 10 g clay was dispersed in 300 ml, 0.5 M NaOH solution and stirred for 3 h at room temperature. 3 ml of PEG-200 was introduced and the mixture was further stirred for 1 h. Thereafter, 1 g each zinc nitrate/nickel nitrate precursors were separately added into the slurry and sonicated for 3 h with vigorous stirring. The resulting suspension was then filtered and the solid mass which separated out dried at 80 °C for 3 h. Then, the dry clay was calcined at 200 °C for 3 h in muffle furnace [21].

### 2.5 Characterization of nanocomposites

The synthesized clay composites were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) techniques to know the structure, phase composition and crystallinity of nanocomposites. The TEM analysis was carried out by Philips model CM 200. The morphology, porosity and elemental composition of clay composites was detected by the field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) and energy dispersive X-ray (EDAX) by model JSM 7600 F and fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) characterization was carried out by 3000 Hyperion Microscope with Vertex 800 FT-IR System, Bruker, Germany. The UV-Vis spectrum was recorded by Jasco V-730 double beam spectrophotometer.

## 3 Results and discussion

### 3.1 XRD analysis

The XRD patterns of synthesized nanocomposites are given in Fig. 2. The patterns resemble to a typical amorphous materials in which less distinct sharp peaks are appeared due to the presence of mixed crystalline phases of various metal oxides [22, 23]. The humps around 18.79° and 26.40° 2 $\theta$  are originated due to the presence of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{SiO}_2$  phases in the material confirmed the dominancy of aluminosilicate structure [24]. The peak at 35.06° 2 $\theta$  corresponds to anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the peak at 42.06° 2 $\theta$  is due

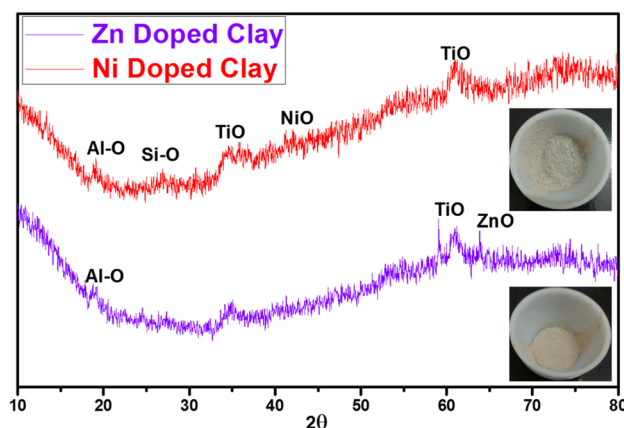


Fig. 2 XRD pattern of nickel and zinc doped acid activated montmorillonite clay

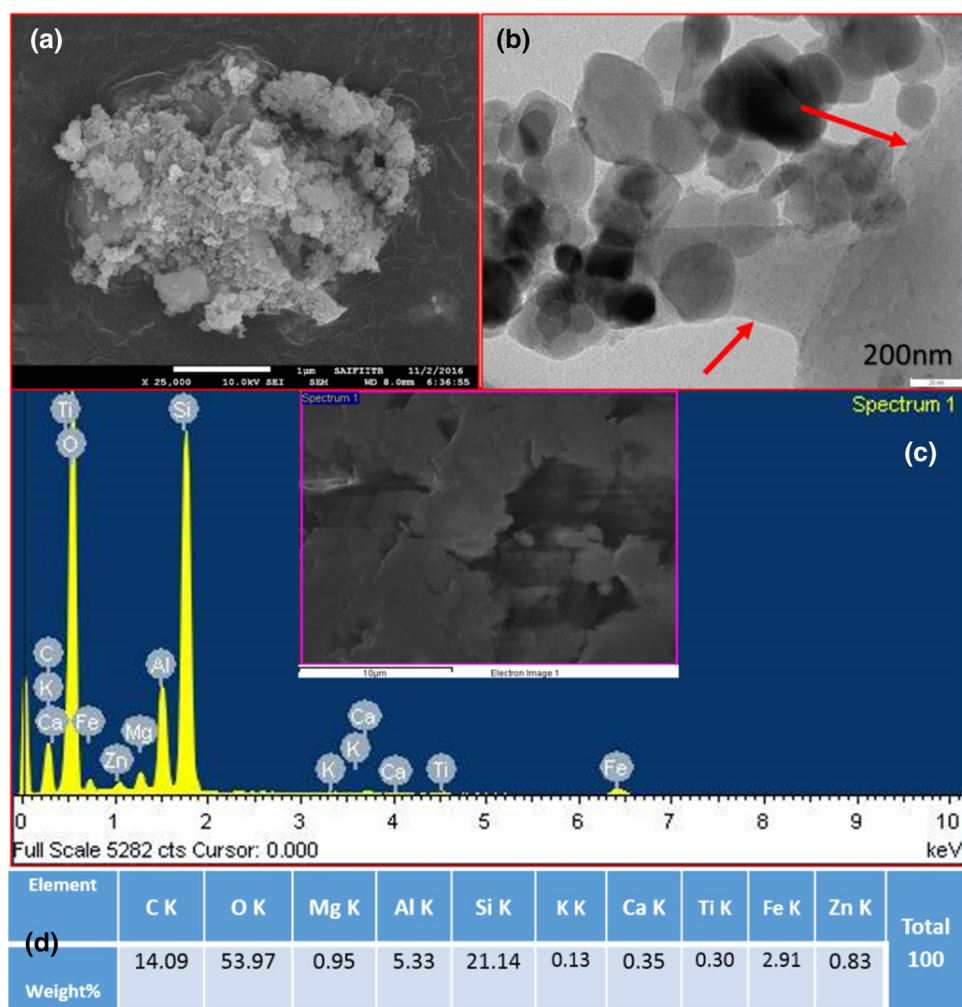
to the incorporation of nickel in the nickel doped nanocomposites [25]. Diffraction peak at 63.04° 2 $\theta$  attributed to presence of zinc in the zinc modified clay nanocomposite [26]. The distortion in structural arrangement due to the acid activation leads to amorphous clay material in which small amount of crystallite structures are evident from the XRD pattern in both the synthesized nanocomposites [18].

### 3.2 TEM, SEM and EDAX analysis

The morphology, porosity and elemental composition of prepared nanocomposites were analyzed by SEM and EDAX characterization. The zinc incorporated acid activated montmorillonite clay in Fig. 3a reveals heterogeneous clay morphology, clusters of clay particles and non-clay materials like oxides of sodium, potassium, calcium, magnesium etc. appear much more brighter (white) than the clay particles [20]. The elemental composition (Fig. 3c) of zinc modified clay comprised carbon which is incorporated due to the addition of PEG-200 during synthesis process is 14.09 %w. Si; 21.14 %w and Al; 5.33 %w respectively confirm the montmorillonite origin of synthesized nanocomposite [13]. One gram addition of zinc nitrate incorporated 0.83 %w of zinc into the clay nanocomposite. Remaining constituents are summarized in Fig. 3d. In nickel modified clay (Fig. 4a) the structure of nanocomposite is similar to the zinc modified clay in which 0.32 %w nickel is evident due to the addition of one gram of nickel nitrate and the elemental composition is given in Fig. 4d almost resembles to zinc modified nanocomposite.

TEM analysis of both the materials was carried out to know structural properties of nanocomposites. The heterogeneous crystallite nature of nanocomposites is confirmed in TEM images. Figures 3b and 4b of both the clay composites revealed hexagonal, ellipsoid, rod like structures of various metal oxides which are attached and encapsulated

**Fig. 3** **a** SEM, **b** TEM, **c** and **d** EDAX characterization of zinc doped acid activated Montmorillonite clay



by parent clay layer (shown by red arrows), the enclosing is especially evident in zinc modified nanocomposite (Fig. 4b) [27, 28]. This confirms the heterogeneous morphology and variety of particle sized crystals incapsuled by clay minerals in both synthesized nanocomposites.

### 3.3 FT-IR analysis

FT-IR spectroscopy reveals chemical bonding information in a synthesized material and it was recorded in the range of 4000–400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Figure 5 shows the FT-IR transmittance spectra of both the modified clays. The presence of O–H stretching and H–O–H bending frequencies in the nanocomposites is evident from the peaks around 3625  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 1638  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  [29]. The characteristic clay frequencies due to the Si–O stretching attributed to 1042  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 797  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  respectively with the bands at 542  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 468  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to deformation vibrations of Si–O–Al and Si–O–Si respectively [30]. The peaks around 530  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  to 505  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to Zn–O and band in

the region of 668  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  confirms the presence of Ni–O in the synthesized nanocomposites [31, 32].

### 3.4 Optical property

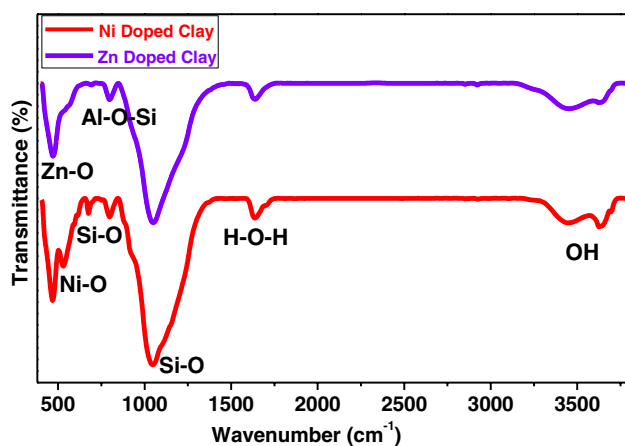
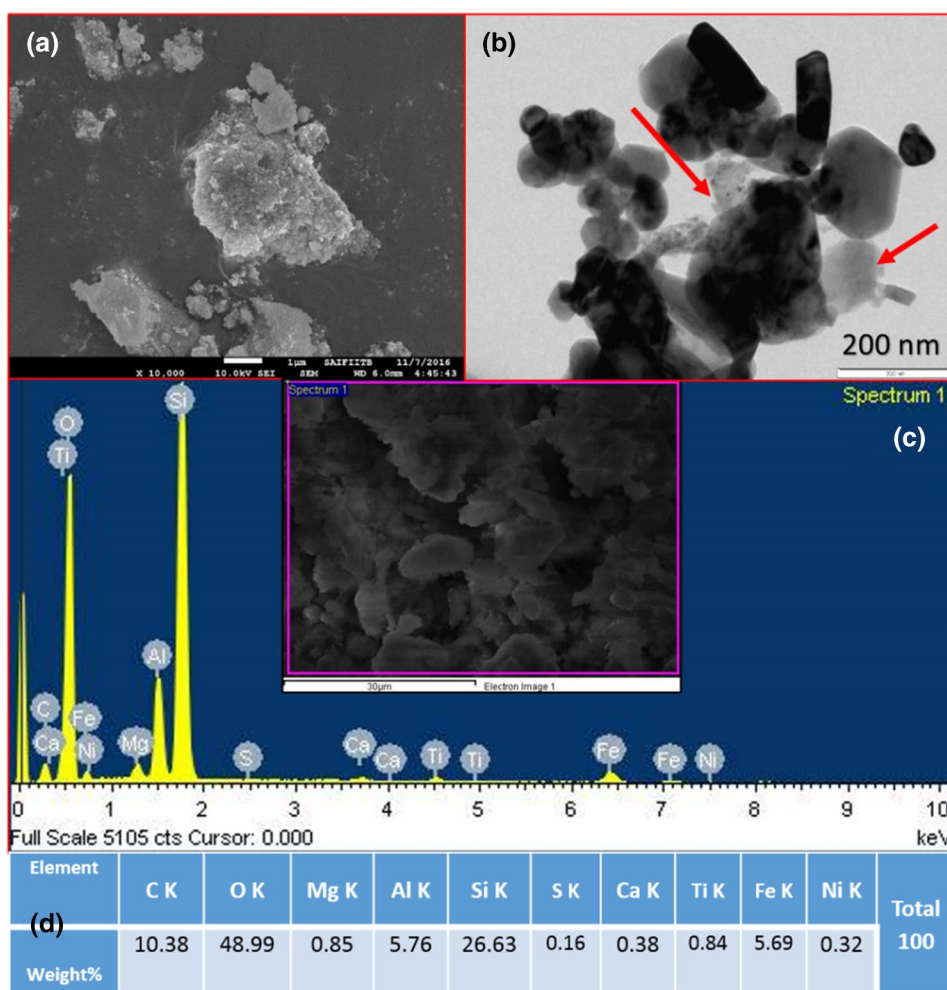
The UV–Vis DRS spectra of both the materials were recorded and given in Fig. 6. The crystallite size, morphology and structural defects affect the band gap of nanocomposites. Both the modified clay show almost similar absorption maxima in the range of 335 nm which is less than unmodified montmorillonite system (365 nm) reported elsewhere [33]. This hypsochromic (blue) shift in absorption eventually affected the band gap energies in both the materials. The band gap energies of the materials were calculated by Tauc's method (Fig. 6 Inset) by following Eq. 1.

$$(\alpha h\nu) = C(h\nu - E_g) \quad (1)$$

where  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient,  $C$  is constant,  $h\nu$  photon energy and  $E_g$  is the band gap. The plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$



**Fig. 4** **a** SEM, **b** TEM, **c** and **d** EDAX characterization of nickel doped acid activated Montmorillonite clay



**Fig. 5** FT-IR spectrum of nickel and zinc doped acid activated montmorillonite clay

versus  $h\nu$  was utilized to calculate the band gap energies [34]. It was found 3.24 eV for Zn and 3.29 eV for Ni modified nanocomposites respectively.

### 3.5 Adsorption studies

The effect of contact time on adsorption of carbol fuchsin (CF) dye by both the nanocomposites is given in Fig. 7. The parameters were optimized before the experiment in which the amount of catalyst was varied from 0.5 to 4.5 g L<sup>-1</sup> and it was found that, after 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> no appreciable increase of adsorption was observed may be due to the excess of catalyst. Similarly, pH was varied from 3 to 11.5 by 0.1 N HCl and 0.1 N NaOH solutions and it was evident, as the pH value increased the adsorption also increased however, after pH 10 no striking change in adsorption capacity was observed hence, pH 10 was chosen as minimum pH for further study. The concentration of 50 ml, pH 10 dye solution is varied from 20 to 80 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and 1 g of zinc and nickel modified nanocomposites were separately dispersed in CF dye solution. The rate of adsorption was found directly proportional to the initial dye concentration and it was rapid up to 20 min then attained equilibrium and steadily inclined so forth. This observation is attributed to the availability of active

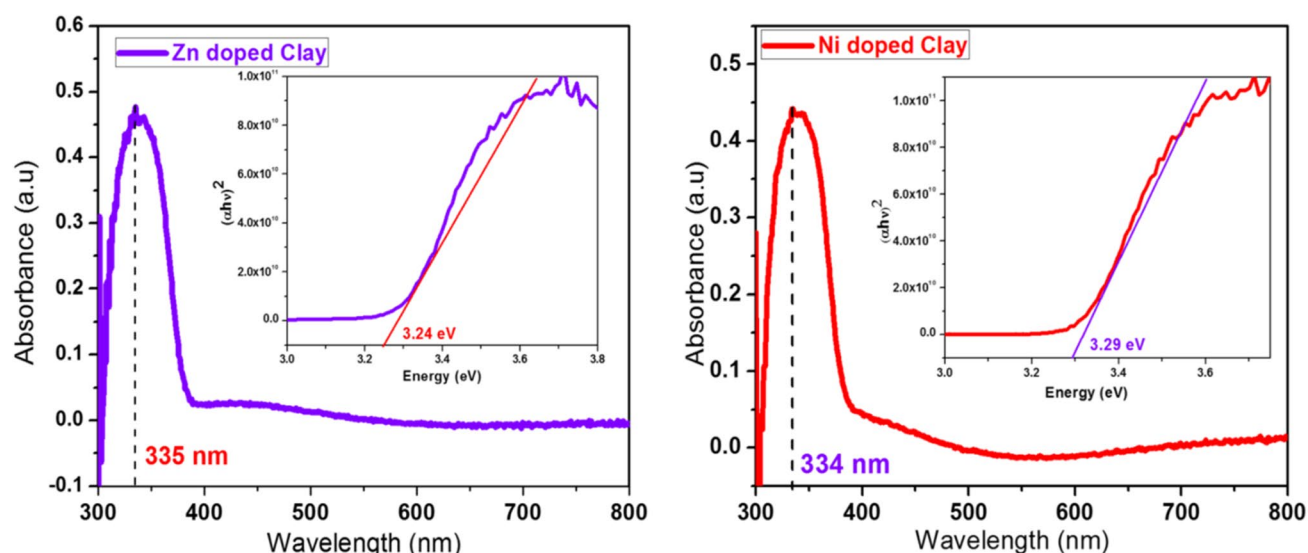


Fig. 6 Uv-Vis absorption spectrum and Tauc plots (inset) of nickel and zinc doped acid activated Montmorillonite clay

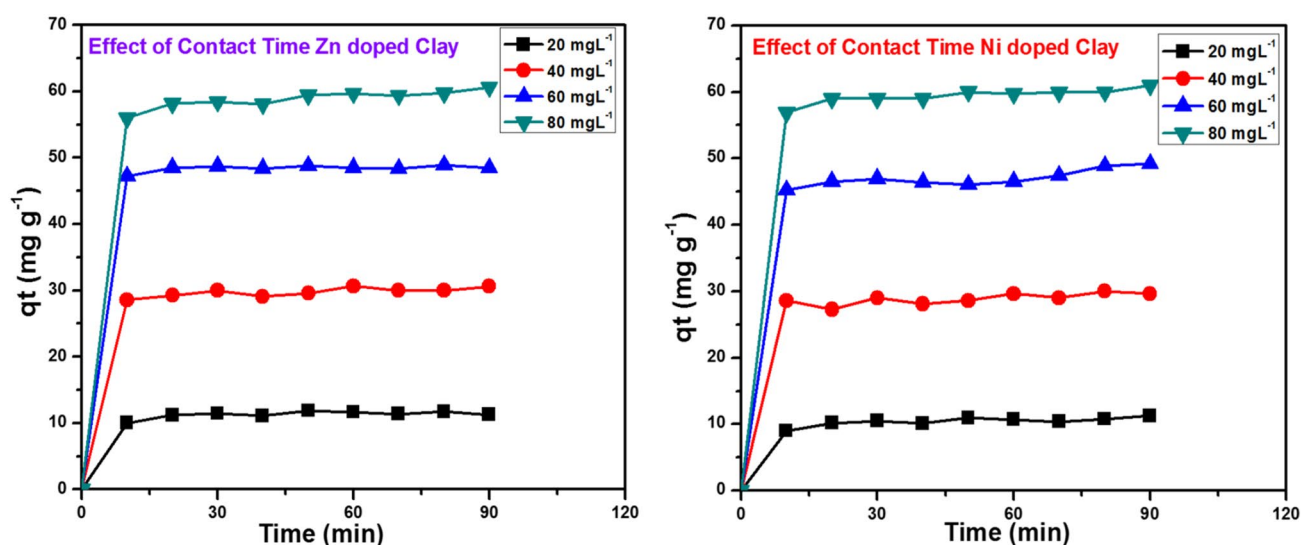


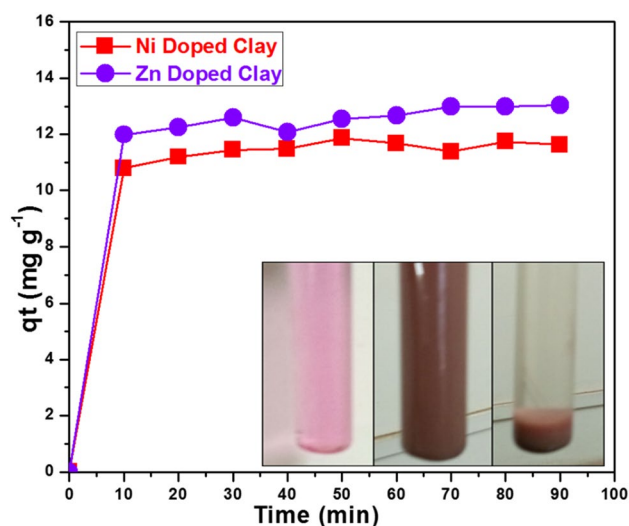
Fig. 7 Amount of dye adsorbed  $q_t$  ( $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ ) with time for different initial CF dye concentration (CF 50 mL, catalyst dose  $1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ; pH 10)

sites for first 20 min and then repulsion due to the similar charges on the surface of nanocomposite and in bulk dye solution. The slight edge in adsorption capacity by zinc modified nanocomposite was observed when the zinc and nickel nanocomposites were separately dispersed in  $20 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  of pH 10 CF dye solution (Fig. 7).

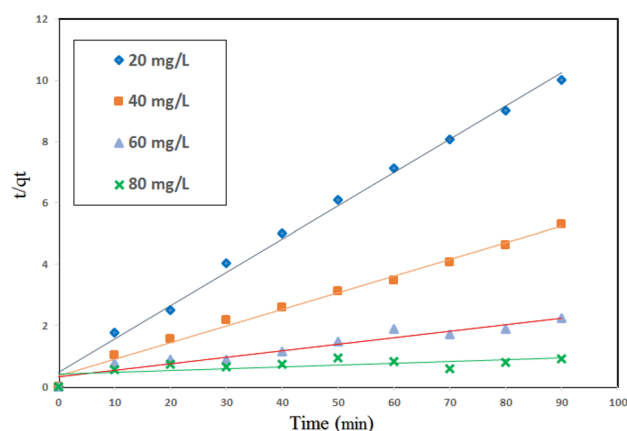
The adsorption kinetics was carried out to investigate the mechanism of adsorption (Fig. 8). The amount of CF adsorbed on both nanocomposites was calculated by Eq. 2.

$$q_t = \frac{(C_o - C_t)V}{W} \quad (2)$$

where  $q_t$  ( $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ ) is the adsorption capacity at time  $t$ ,  $C_o$  ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) is the initial dye concentration;  $C_t$  ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) is the dye concentration at time  $t$ ,  $V$  (L) is the initial volume of dye solution and  $W$  (g) is the amount of nanocomposite. The pseudo-second-order model was used by plotting  $t/q_t$  versus  $t$  [35] (Fig. 9). The amount of dye adsorbed  $q_t$  increases from 10 to  $60.3 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  as the initial dye



**Fig. 8** Effect of contact time on adsorption of CF dye by doped clay nanocomposites (CF 50 mL 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup> solution, catalyst dose 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> and pH 10). Inset picture showing effective adsorption of alkaline dye solution by zinc doped nanocomposite



**Fig. 9** Second order rate kinetics for the removal of CF at different initial concentration (zinc doped nanocomposite catalyst dose 1 g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH 10)

concentration increased from 20 to 80 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of 50 mL dye solution for 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> adsorbent dose. The linear plot for 20 mg L<sup>-1</sup> showed liner correlation coefficient ( $r^2$ ) value 0.9943 confirmed the second-order rate kinetics [20].

### 3.6 Photocatalytic studies

The photocatalytic degradation of CF dye was carried out under stimulated UV-Vis irradiation using 400 W-mercury vapor lamp. The decolorization of CF dye was monitored by change in absorbance of 100 mL, 15 mg L<sup>-1</sup> dye solution. 5 mL aliquots were withdrawn from the reaction assembly after 10 min of time interval, centrifuged and the

supernatant solution was removed by pre cleaned syringe and subjected for the analysis in double beam spectrophotometer (Jasco V-730). The degradation percentages of CF were calculated by following Eq. 3. [15].

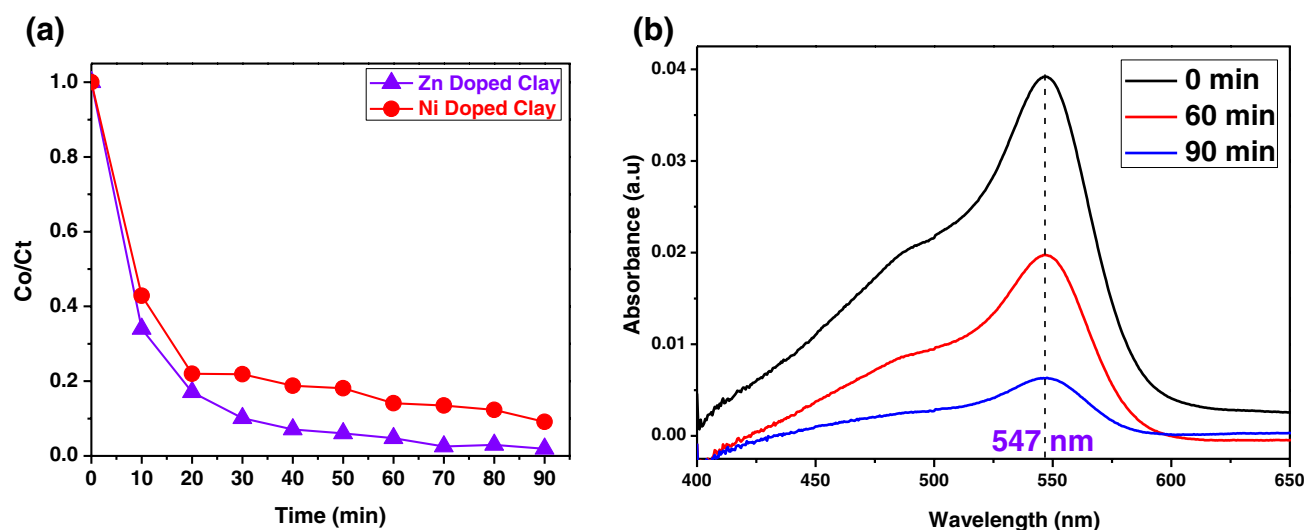
$$\text{Degradation} = \left(1 - \frac{C_t}{C_0}\right) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where  $C_0$  is the concentration of CF before irradiation and  $C_t$  is the concentration after a certain irradiation time.

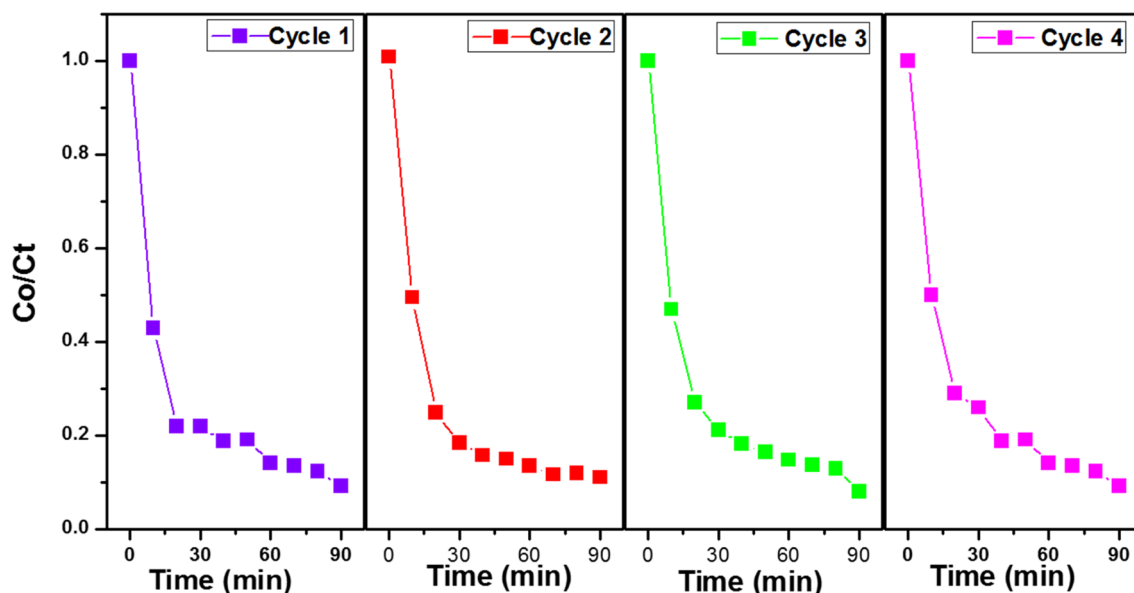
To optimize the reaction conditions effect of catalyst concentration and pH was studied by varying catalyst dose from 0.5 to 4.5 g L<sup>-1</sup> and pH from 3 to 11.5. It was observed as the catalyst concentration increased the degradation efficiency also increased and the high efficiency was observed at 3 g L<sup>-1</sup> thereafter, no appreciable change was observed due to light scattering by excess of catalyst in 100 mL dye solution [36]. The initial pH of the dye solution recorded was 8.3 and was varied by addition of 0.1 N HCl and 0.1 N NaOH solutions from 3 to 11.5. It was observed as the pH increased the degradation increased up to pH 10 thereafter, efficiency started to decrease may be due to the recombination of radical species and generation of radical scavenging  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  anions due to photogenerated and surrounding  $\text{CO}_2$  [37]. By optimizing all the found parameter the photocatalytic efficiency of both the nanocomposites were separately investigated and it was found that zinc modified nanocomposite showed high catalytic efficiency up to 94% for 15 mg L<sup>-1</sup> solution of CF dye within 90 min of irradiation time (Fig. 10a). The spectral variation during degradation of CF dye is given in Fig. 10b. The catalytic efficiency was found ~3.5% more than that of nickel nanocomposite. Furthermore, the zinc modified nanocomposite was subjected to multiple cycles to check the reusability. The catalyst was recovered by filtration and then dried at 150 °C for 2 h to eliminate adsorbed organic moieties [33]. It proved effective for multiple cycle and efficiency of forth cycle decreased by almost 8% as compared to first cycle (Fig. 11).

### 3.7 Photocatalytic mechanism and metabolite identification by LC-MS

To investigate the photocatalytic mechanism of CF dye degradation, isopropyl alcohol (IPA) and EDTA were used to trap  $\text{HO}^\cdot$  and  $\text{h}^+$  reactive species respectively. The number of  $\text{h}^+$  generated are directly related to number of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  generation in an aqueous solution due to the generation of electrons ( $\text{e}^-$ ) [38]. Keeping all the parameters constant and using 3 g L<sup>-1</sup> of zinc modified nanocomposites the reaction assembly was placed under light (Fig. 12). Addition of 500 mM of IPA had very less effect on degradation



**Fig. 10** **a** Photocatalytic degradation of CF dye by doped nanocomposites. (Catalyst dose  $3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH 10 and dye concentration  $15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) **b** Spectral variations during CF degradation



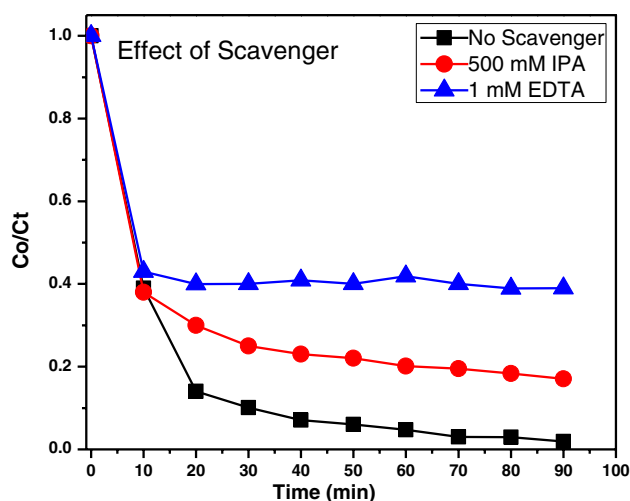
**Fig. 11** Reusability of zinc doped acid activated Montmorillonite clay

capacity confirmed less participation of  $\text{HO}^\cdot$ . The photo generated electrons and  $\text{h}^+$  quencher EDTA almost stopped the degradation process and no further degradation was observed after adsorption, firmly established the participation  $\text{O}_2^-$  in the degradation process [39].

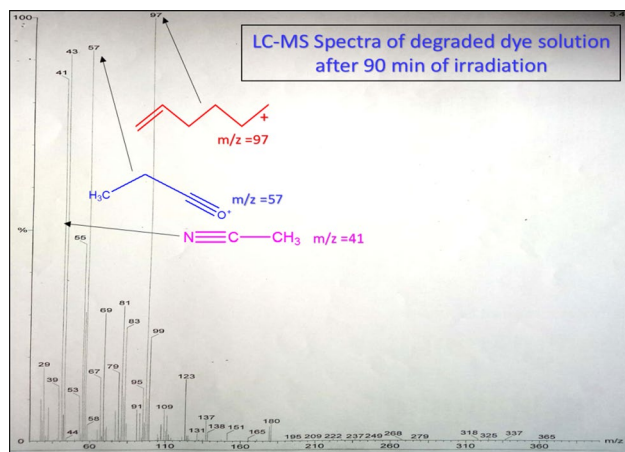
The degradation of CF was also investigated by LC–MS technique (Fig. 13). Low molecular weight species were found in the LC–MS analysis of degraded dye solution confirmed complete degradation of large polycyclic dye molecule into its smaller and less harmful forms. This high oxidation attributed to the generation

of highly reactive species due to higher pH of the dye solution [40]. The LC–MS spectra in Fig. 13 depicts high intense peak at 97, 57, and 41 m/z attributed to 1-hexene, propanal and acetonitrile molecular fragments respectively [40, 41]. The higher molecular weight species with less intense peaks signal larger molecular fragment in the degraded dye solution. The oxidation of aromatic amines in polycyclic dye molecule generated these types of smaller species due to Photo Klobe reaction carried out by free radical intermediates in aqueous solution [42].





**Fig. 12** Effect of scavengers on photocatalytic degradation of CF dye by zinc doped acid activated Montmorillonite clay (pH 10, concentration  $15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , catalyst dose  $3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ )



**Fig. 13** LC-MS analysis of degraded CF dye solution after 90 min of irradiation

### 3.8 Comparative study of few low cost adsorbents

Low cost adsorbents are extensively used for the removal of organic as well as inorganic pollutants [43]. Here, only montmorillonite and modified types of montmorillonite clays are chosen for the comparative study specifically for the removal of organic contaminants from aqueous solution. Table 1 depicts few unmodified and modified montmorillonite type of low cost adsorbent in which pH, catalyst loading and maximum adsorption capacity of adsorbent is considered.

## 4 Conclusions

In summary, transition metal modified acid activated montmorillonite clay nanocomposite adsorbent as well as photocatalysts were synthesized and utilized for the effective adsorptive-degradation of CF cationic dye. The incorporation of zinc and nickel into the clay mineral confirmed by various characterization techniques. The zinc modified nanocomposite proved most efficient with respect to adsorption as well as degradation of organic contaminant up to 94%. The pseudo-second-order rate kinetics was confirmed and degradation took place at higher pH. The scavenger study confirmed the major participation of  $\text{O}_2^-$  radical in degradation process and destructive degradation efficiency was confirmed by LC-MS study of degraded dye sample. Furthermore, high reusability up to four catalytic cycles was confirmed the synthesized materials are highly efficient, low cost photocatalyst for organic pollutant removal. In conclusion, the synthesized material is easy to synthesize and of low cost which makes it suitable both, as an adsorbent and photocatalyst. The adsorption separately can remove the pollutant makes it efficient material for large scale adsorption processes. The photocatalytic activity of the material can be enhanced by

**Table 1** Comparative study of montmorillonite type of adsorbent for organic moieties removal

Sr. no.	Type of adsorbent	Contaminant	Adsorbent dose and optimum pH	Maximum adsorption capacity	References
1.	Sodium Montmorillonite Clay	Rhodamine B	$0.3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH = 7	$42.19 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	[44]
2.	Montmorillonite Clay	Methylene blue	$3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH = 11	$300.30 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	[45]
3.	Montmorillonite Clay	Fast green and malachite green dyes	$1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH = -	$38.21 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	[46]
4.	Chitosan/Modified Montmorillonite Beads	Reactive red 120	$1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH = 5	$5.6085 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ (Monolayer)	[47]
5.	Montmorillonite Clay in Alginate Gel Beads	Polychlorinated biphenyls	$0.1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH = 5.5	$2.45 \text{ } \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$	[48]
6.	Montmorillonite Clay	Malachite green	$\text{g L}^{-1}$ , pH = 11	$262.494 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	[49]
7.	Zinc Doped Acid Activated Montmorillonite Clay	Carbol fuchsin	$1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , pH = 10	$60.3 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	This work

adding efficient metal dopants open the prospect for more active photocatalyst in near future.

**Acknowledgements** The research leading to these results has received support from IIT Bombay for FT-IR, EDAX, SEM, TEM characterization, K B C North Maharashtra University, Jalgaon for XRD Characterization and SICRT, SPPU, Pune for LC–MS analysis. Authors are also thankful to the Principal, G.T.P. College, Nandurbar and K. V. N. Naik A, C and S College, Nashik for providing necessary laboratory facilities.

## Compliance with ethical standards

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

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