ORIGINAL

TiO₂-carbonized medium-density fiberboard **for the photodegradation of methylene blue**

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Abstract

 $TiO₂$ -carbonized medium-density fiberboard (TiO₂-cMDF), prepared by carbonization of MDF treated with 50% (v/v) titanium tetraisopropoxide (Ti-tip) in isopropyl alcohol (IPA) as a precursor, was investigated for adsorption and photodegradation in aqueous methylene blue (MB) solution under UV-C (254 nm) irradiation. After full adsorption of MB, four successive cycles of photodegradation were conducted. After the second cycle, the $TiO₂$ -cMDF was rinsed with water, dried, and subjected to photodegradation again. For every photodegradation cycle, the $TiO₂-cMDF$ practically removed MB. The photodegradation results of the second (unrinsed) and third (rinsed) cycle were similar, however, the result of the fourth (rinsed) cycle was lower than the third cycle. The rate constant of adsorption was 3.3×10^{-3} /h and followed pseudo-frst-order kinetics. The rate constant of photodegradation decreased from 11.0×10^{-3} /h (first cycle) to 5.9×10^{-3} /h (fourth cycle) and likewise followed pseudo-first-order kinetics. A reduction in Ti content on the surface of TiO_2 -cMDF was observed after photodegradation based on scanning electron microscope-energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (SEM–EDS) analysis; nonetheless, photodegradation of MB was still accomplished. Although $TiO₂-cMDF$ in aqueous system exhibited slow photodegradation, it is due to the limited number of $TiO₂-cMDF$ slabs. The number of slabs must be increased to improve the photocatalytic performance.

Introduction

Wood-based composites are materials used for nonstructural and structural applications encompassing furniture components, structural support in infrastructures, and panels for both overlay and underlay uses (Cai and Ross [2010\)](#page-11-0). Wood-based composites, produced from processing raw wood, include plywood, glue-laminated timbers,

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particleboards, oriented strand boards, and fberboards (low-, medium-, and high-density). Among these composites, medium-density fberboards (MDFs) are manufactured wood-based panels with various physical properties and dimensions that can be tuned to specifc MDF properties and density. To obtain enhanced performance properties of these wood-based materials, special re-purposed wood composites such as waterrepellent composites, fre-retardant composites, and preservative-treated composites were produced (Stark et al. [2010](#page-12-0)). In addition to the arsenal of specialty wood composites were titanium dioxide $(TIO₂)$ photocatalyst-treated composites. Recently, woody composites (Doi et al. [2000\)](#page-11-1), delignifed wood (He et al. [2019](#page-11-2)), wood templates (Liu et al. [2020](#page-12-1)), MDF (Giampiccolo et al. [2016](#page-11-3)), MDF biochar (Silvestri et al. [2019\)](#page-12-2), and carbonized MDF (Lee et al. $2019a$) were selected as support materials for TiO₂.

 $TiO₂$ has gained significant attention as a photocatalyst based on its appreciable photocatalytic oxidation performance for the degradation of environmentally hazardous materials. TiO₂ has three main crystalline forms – anatase, rutile, and brookite. Among these, anatase $TiO₂$ demonstrated higher photocatalytic activity than rutile and brookite since anatase exhibited longer lifetime of photoexcited electrons and holes (Zhang et al. [2014](#page-13-0)). In addition, anatase showed better photocatalytic activity compared to other $TiO₂$ polymorphs in methylene blue (MB) photocatalytic oxidation (Chen et al. [2015\)](#page-11-4). Photocatalytic studies were performed on MB, a cationic thiazine dye, since MB was the preferred test dye for the determination of the surface area of porous carbon materials (Nunes and Guerreiro [2011](#page-12-4)) and assessment of the activities of photocatalytic flms (Mills 2012). TiO₂ suspensions have been used as a photocatalyst (Lakshmi et al. [1995;](#page-12-6) Zhang et al. [2008](#page-13-1); Yao and Wang [2010](#page-12-7)) and required several separation processes to remove the TiO₂ slurry after the treatment (Kagaya et al. 1999). TiO₂ immobilization eliminates this complication and various supports for $TiO₂$ immobilization were reported (Alhaji et al. [2017\)](#page-11-6).

MDFs are used as underlay board products due to their appearance and texture. In this regard, Kercher and Nagle ([2002](#page-11-7)) presented an alternative utilization of MDFs through carbonization at high temperatures $(600-1400 \degree C)$ for electrical applications. Park et al. [\(2009\)](#page-12-8) manufactured large-sized crack-free cMDFs through a pressing carbonization method. Mun and Park [\(2011](#page-12-9)) improved the functionality of cMDF by carbonizing along with TiO₂ photocatalyst intended to simultaneously adsorb and degrade volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Recently, the photocatalytic activity of TiO2-cMDF against VOCs such as toluene and formaldehyde was studied by Lee et al. [\(2019a](#page-12-3)[, b](#page-12-10)). However, no studies were reported regarding the photocatalytic activity of the developed $TiO₂$ -CMDF in aqueous solution. The purpose of this study was to investigate the adsorption and photodegradation of aqueous MB solution with $TiO₂$ -cMDF under UV-C (254 nm) irradiation for future applications in water treatment.

Experimental

Preparation of TiO₂-cMDF

TiO2-cMDF panel was previously prepared by Lee et al. [\(2019b](#page-12-10)) and the preparation was as follows. MDF with dimensions 260 mm (L) \times 130 mm (W) \times 12 mm (T)

 $(0.64 \text{ g/cm}^2, \text{ E1 grad}$ e, Sunchang Industry, Korea) was evenly treated with a photocatalyst precursor Ti-tip (CAS 546–68-9) (98%, Daejung Chemicals, Korea) diluted in 50% (v/v) IPA (CAS 67–63-0) (99.5%, Daejung Chemicals, Korea) via brush coating method. An amount of 7.21 g of 50% Ti-tip was applied to the MDF surface. Afterward, the solvent was volatilized under a hood at room temperature and the Titip treated MDFs were dried in a convection oven at 60 $^{\circ}$ C for 3 h. The dried Ti-tip treated MDFs were then carbonized in an electric furnace with a ramping rate of 50 °C/h to 700 °C and held for 2 h.

Crystallinity of TiO2‑cMDF

The TiO₂ crystalline structure on the surface of TiO₂-cMDF was characterized by X-ray difraction (XRD, D/Max-2500, Rigaku, Japan). After carbonization at 700 °C, a portion of TiO₂-cMDF surface was analyzed under the conditions of 40 kV and 30 mA in the range of 5–80° from the starting angle. A portion of the surface of a cMDF carbonized at 800 °C was measured for comparison purposes. All spectra were normalized and used.

Evaluation of adsorption and photodegradation of MB

The TiO₂-cMDF panel with dimensions 200 mm (L) \times 100 mm (W) \times 7 mm (T) prepared from abovementioned method was cut into slabs with dimensions 60 mm (L) \times 20 mm (W) \times 3 mm (T). Four slabs were secured on a fabricated stainlesssteel frame using a polyethylene hot-melt adhesive. The $TiO₂$ -cMDF slabs attached to a fabricated stainless-steel frame were immersed in 475 mL of 10.0 ppm MB (CAS 61–73-4) (95%, Yakuri Pure Chemicals, Japan) solution in a 500-mL glass reactor under stirring (Eyela RCN-7, Japan) for the adsorption experiment. After adsorption, the solution was discarded and fresh 475 mL of 10.0 ppm MB solution was added, and then a UV-C $(254 \text{ nm}, 4.0 \text{ mW/cm}^2)$ (Magisam, Korea) light source was inserted into the fabricated stainless-steel frame. The representation of the system employed for adsorption and photodegradation is shown in Fig. [1](#page-3-0).

The photodegradation of MB was performed for four cycles. The MB solution after each cycle of photodegradation was discarded and fresh 475 mL of 10.0 ppm MB solution was added. After the second cycle, the $TiO₂$ -cMDF was rinsed with distilled deionized (DI) water, dried in a convection oven at 65 ◦C overnight, and then subjected to the next cycle of photodegradation. Since the UV-C light source generated heat during the experiment, the water lost due to evaporation was replenished periodically. The removal of MB was determined by the decrease in absorbance at 665 nm using a UV–Vis spectrophotometer (Optizen 3220, Korea). The %MB removal was calculated using the following equation:

$$
\%MBremoval = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100\tag{1}
$$

where C_0 is initial concentration (mg/L) and C_t is concentration at time *t*. The non-linear plots of the %MB removal were transformed to linear plots using either

Fig. 1 Representation of the system for adsorption and photodegradation

semi-log normalization for pseudo-frst-order kinetics or inverse normalization for pseudo-second-order kinetics to estimate the rate constant of the photodegradation cycle using the following equations:

$$
\ln C_t = \ln C_o - kt \tag{2}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{C_{\rm t}} = \frac{1}{C_{\rm o}} + kt \tag{3}
$$

where k is rate constant $(1/h)$ and t is time (h) .

Surface morphology, Ti distribution, and Ti layer thickness of TiO₂-cMDF

The untreated $TiO₂$ -cMDF and $TiO₂$ -cMDF after photodegradation were subjected to surface analysis. Surface morphology and the determination of Ti distribution, elemental analysis, and Ti layer thickness were conducted using SEM–EDS (SUPRA 40VP, Zeiss, Germany) at the Center for University-wide Research Facility, Jeonbuk National University (JBNU). Surface images were taken under 350×magnifcation and four data points were collected for elemental analysis. Cross-sectional images of TiO₂-cMDF were done under $40\times$ magnification.

Results and discussion

Specialty wood composites such as cMDFs and $TiO₂$ -cMDFs were prepared through a pressing carbonization method to produce a smooth, crack-free, and twist-free carbonized fberboard (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)) (Park et al. [2009](#page-12-8)). Fiberboard characteristics of cMDFs and TiO₂-cMDFs such as shrinkage and weight reductions at various carbonization temperatures were already reported (Lee et al. [2019a\)](#page-12-3). After carbonization at 700 \degree C, the length and width of TiO₂-cMDF decreased to about 20% and the weight

Fig. 2 Pressing carbonization method for manufacturing cMDF

dropped down to 70% from the original weight of MDF. The original MDF and $TiO₂$ -cMDF are shown in Fig. [3](#page-4-1).

Crystallinity of TiO2‑cMDF

The formation of anatase crystals on the surface of cMDF was sought for the preparation of TiO₂-cMDF. The work of Lee et al. $(2019b)$ $(2019b)$ showed that at carbonization temperatures of 600–900 \degree C, anatase was the favored TiO₂ crystalline structure on the surface of cMDF and carbonization beyond these temperatures revealed increased amounts of rutile. Figure [4](#page-5-0) shows the XRD spectra of $TiO₂$ -cMDF carbonized at 700 \degree C for 2 h in comparison to cMDF carbonized at 800 \degree C for 2 h (Lee et al. [2019b](#page-12-10)). For cMDF carbonized at 800 °C, two broad peaks at 24° and 43° appeared in the XRD spectrum. These peaks are a result of ultrastructural changes in wood charcoal toward graphitization (Kumar et al. [1993](#page-12-11); Nishimiya et al. [1998](#page-12-12)). In the case of $TiO₂$ -CMDF, the XRD peaks indicated that anatase-type $TiO₂$ was successfully formed on the cMDF during the carbonization at 700 °C. The XRD pattern for $TiO₂$ -cMDF is in good agreement with characteristic peaks of anatase-type

TiO₂ at 2 θ values of 24.8°, 37.3°, 47.6°, 53.5°, 55.1°, and 62.2° (JCPDS Card no. 21-1272).

Adsorption characteristics of MB on TiO₂-cMDF

In general, carbonized materials such as wood charcoal are microporous and can adsorb low molecular weight VOCs such as formaldehyde (Lee et al. [2007](#page-12-13)) and toluene (Singh et al. [2010\)](#page-12-14). Activated cMDFs exhibited specifc surface areas rang-ing from 400–1000 m²/g (Kercher and Nagle [2003\)](#page-12-15) while TiO₂-cMDFs range from 100–500 m^2/g (Mun and Park [2011\)](#page-12-9). Considering the abilities of carbonized materials to adsorb organic compounds, TiO₂-cMDF was treated with MB solution to achieve a full adsorption cycle. The adsorption of MB on $TiO₂-cMDF$ was almost completed in 852 h (Fig. [5a](#page-6-0)) and followed pseudo-frst-order kinetics (Fig. [5b](#page-6-0)).

MB photodegradation performance of TiO₂-cMDF

Photodegradation was performed for four cycles, of which the third and fourth cycles were carried out diferently from the frst and second cycle. After the second cycle, the $TiO₂$ -cMDF was rinsed with water, dried, and subjected to photodegradation again. The kinetics results of the photodegradation cycles are shown in Fig. [6](#page-6-1) and tabulated in Table [1](#page-6-2).

Photodegradation in the frst and second cycle occurred at 348 h and 420 h with attainment of 99% removal of MB, respectively (Fig. [6](#page-6-1)a). As expected, the MB removal by photodegradation was much faster than adsorption due to photocatalytic oxidation of MB. Figure [7](#page-7-0) shows a possible mechanism for the photodegradation of MB using $TiO₂$ -cMDF based on well-established mechanisms (Lakshmi et al. [1995;](#page-12-6) Mills and Wang [1999;](#page-12-16) Houas et al. [2001](#page-11-8); Xu et al. [2014](#page-12-17)). When the bandgap energy of TiO₂ anatase ($E_g = 3.2$ eV) is stimulated with a UV (254 nm, 4.8 eV) light source, the electrons from the valence band will be excited to the conduction band thereby generating holes (h⁺) and electrons (e⁻). These h⁺ and e⁻ produce hydroxyl radicals,

Fig. 5 Adsorption kinetics of MB **a** %MB removal and **b** Normalized plot

Fig. 6 Photodegradation kinetics of MB **a** Cycles 1–2: without rinsing, **b** Cycles 3–4: with rinsing

obtained from the interaction of water and the superoxide radical anion, which have sufficient energy to degrade MB. Degradation of MB was confirmed by the decrease in the intensity of visible absorption at maximum wavelength (665 nm), as shown in Fig. [8.](#page-7-1) In addition, the changes in spectral absorption recorded for the frst cycle showed a hypsochromic shift (λ_{max} shifting to a shorter wavelength) which can be attributed to the demethylation of MB (Zhang et al. [2001;](#page-13-2) Yogi et al. [2008\)](#page-12-18) and reduction in conjugation through the breakdown of the chromophores that led to the degradation of the molecule.

Fig. 7 Possible mechanism for the photodegradation of MB

Photodegradation, like adsorption as mentioned above, followed pseudo-frstorder kinetics and was in agreement with early work by Matthews ([1989\)](#page-12-19) on the photodegradation of MB via TiO₂ photocatalysis. The rate constant appeared to be 11.0×10^{-3} /h for the first cycle and 8.6×10^{-3} /h for the second cycle. Rate constant of the second cycle decreased by 22% compared to the frst cycle. The decreased accessibility to the efective Ti surface may have caused this result. The existing MB layer on the $TiO₂$ -cMDF surface (Fig. [9b](#page-8-0)) and additional undecomposed MB that saturated the TiO₂-cMDF surface (Fig. [9c](#page-8-0)) might have hindered the photodegradation process.

For this reason, after the second cycle, the $TiO₂-cMDF$ was rinsed with DI water to wash off some adhered MB (Fig. [9](#page-8-0)d) and then dried. $TiO₂-cMDF$ was subjected to a process of brief re-adsorption and confrmed that rinsing removed some adhered MB, since 30% of MB from the fresh solution was removed via re-adsorption. Upon reaching equilibrium at 228 h, the UV-C (254 nm) light was turned on. Photodegradation in the third cycle proceeded for further 396 h to attain 99% removal of MB (Fig. [6b](#page-6-1)). The rate constant of the third cycle was $8.8 \times 10^{-3}/h$ and was similar to the rate constant of the second cycle.

After the third cycle, the $TiO₂-cMDF$ was rinsed and subjected to re-adsorption. About 20% of MB was removed by re-adsorption and upon reaching equilibrium at 156 h, the UV-C light was turned on. However, when the $TiO₂$ -cMDF was rinsed

Fig. 9 Schematic illustration of the TiO₂-cMDF surface after adsorption, photodegradation, and rinsing

after the third cycle, the rate constant of the fourth cycle decreased by 33% compared to the third cycle. This indicates that the rinsing after the third cycle was less efective for the removal of adhered MB. A plausible reason for the removal of efective TiO₂, was that TiO₂-cMDF was immersed in an aqueous medium for the whole experimental period and also rinsed after the third cycle. Thus, ion distribution and elemental analysis by SEM–EDS were performed on $TiO₂$ -cMDF cross section and surface to estimate the effective Ti distribution and content.

The cross-sectional SEM and ion distribution images of untreated $TiO₂$ -cMDF are shown in Fig. [10](#page-8-1). The Ti layer was found to be 0.4 mm thick, which is 20% of the 2.0 mm thick slab; this finding suggests that Ti layer thickness would have sufficient surface for photocatalytic activity. The surface SEM image after four photodegradation cycles is shown in Fig. [11.](#page-9-0) Results of elemental analysis by EDS indicated that Ti was signifcantly removed during the series of photodegradation (Fig. [12,](#page-9-1) Table [2](#page-9-2)). Although the Ti content was reduced on the surface of $TiO₂-cMDF$, photodegradation of MB was still accomplished since there were still efective Ti dis-persed on the surface of TiO₂-cMDF after photodegradation (Fig. [13](#page-10-0)b). In addition, the ion distribution for untreated $TiO₂$ -cMDF surface (Fig. [13](#page-10-0)c) did not contain Cl which originated from MB, but after photodegradation, Cl adhered to the surface (Fig. [13](#page-10-0)d) as well. This indicates that Cl along with undecomposed MB may block the effective $TiO₂$ surface causing decreased photodegradation rate constants.

Table 3 shows related literatures on TiO₂-treated wood and wood-based composites. Immobilization of $TiO₂$ in wood and wood-based materials through several methods (i.e., sol–gel, hydrothermal, coating, etc.) were prepared for water repellency (Chu et al. [2014](#page-11-9); Pori et al. [2016;](#page-12-20) Zanatta et al. [2017](#page-12-21)), protection from UV and

Fig. 10 Cross-sectional **a** SEM image and **b** Ti layer (yellow color) distribution of untreated TiO₂-cMDF

Fig. 11 Surface SEM images of TiO₂-cMDF after four photodegradation cycles

moisture (Rassam et al. [2012](#page-12-22); Jnido et al. [2019\)](#page-11-10), and removal of VOCs (Doi et al. [2000](#page-11-1); Lee et al. [2019a](#page-12-3)[,b;](#page-12-10) Liu et al. [2020\)](#page-12-1) and organic dyes (Sun et al. [2013;](#page-12-23) He et al. [2019](#page-11-2); Silvestri et al. [2019](#page-12-2)). Nasr et al. ([2018\)](#page-12-24) did a comprehensive review on photocatalytic processes, reaction mechanisms, and photocatalytic applications related to TiO₂. Sun et al. (2013) (2013) developed a TiO₂-treated wood template suspension to remove Rhodamine B. An interesting $TiO₂$ -decorated bleached wood support that foats and removed MB under ambient sunlight was prepared by He et al. ([2019\)](#page-11-2). Silvestri et al. (2019) (2019) re-processed MDF residue into MDF biochar and efficiently removed MB.

Fig. 13 Surface Ti & Cl distribution images of TiO₂-cMDF: untreated and after photodegradation

Support	Applications	Efficiency	Method	References
Wood (Acacia sp.)	Wood hydrophobicity		Pressure/Hydrothermal Chu et al. (2014)	
Wood (<i>Picea</i> sp.)	Wood hydrophobicity	$\qquad \qquad -$	Hydrothermal	Pori et al. (2016)
Wood (<i>Pinus</i> sp.)	Wood hydrophobicity		Microwave solvother- mal	Zanatta et al. (2017)
Wood (<i>Fagus</i> sp.)	UV and moisture protection		Sol-gel	Rassam et al. (2012)
Wood (<i>Fagus</i> sp.)	UV and moisture protection		Atm. pressure plasma jet	Jnido et al. (2019)
Wood (Thuja sp.)	Formaldehyde removal	75%, 7h	Sol-gel	Doi et al. (2000)
cMDF	Formaldehyde & toluene removal	99% , 8 h	Sol-gel	Lee et al. $(2019a,b)$
Wood templates	Formaldehyde removal	20% , 5 h	Hydrothermal	Liu et al. (2020)
Wood template	Rhodamine B removal	90% , 3 h	Sol-gel	Sun et al. (2013)
Bleached wood	MB removal	99%, 7h	Coating	He et al. (2019)
MDF biochar	MB removal	86% , 3 h	Coating	Silvestri et al. (2019)
cMDF	MB removal	99%, 348 h	Sol-gel	This work

Table 3 Summary of TiO₂-treated wood and wood-based composites with their applications

The photodegradation efficiency developed for this study was slow compared to other $TiO₂$ treated wood-based composites as there were a small number of TiO₂-cMDF slabs, which underwent a full cycle of adsorption prior to photodegradation. To increase the photocatalytic performance of $TiO₂$ -cMDF, additional slabs must be incorporated.

Conclusion

The $TiO₂-cMDF$ prepared by carbonization of MDF treated with Ti-tip as a precursor demonstrated removal of dye through adsorption of MB to the surface, photodegradation of MB in bulk solution, and photodegradation of adsorbed MB on the surface in the presence of a UV light source. This work is a preliminary study on the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂-cMDF in aqueous solutions. The TiO₂-cMDF could practically remove MB after several cycles of photodegradation although there was a decrease in the rate constant and reduction in Ti particles on the surface of the photocatalyst. The photodegradation under the system that was developed for this study was slow but nevertheless photodegradation occurred. To increase the photocatalytic performance of $TiO₂$ -CMDF, the number of slabs must be increased. Consequently, the outcomes propose $TiO₂$ -cMDF is a prospective biomaterial for wastewater treatment.

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Declarations

Confict of interest The authors declare that they do not have any confict of interest.

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