

Novel *α***-Fe₂O₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites with enhanced photocatalytic activity**

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Abstract

In this study, hematite–anatase (α -Fe₂O₃/TiO₂) nanocomposites were prepared successfully using a simple co-precipitation method. The obtained samples were characterized using X-ray difraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, transmission electron microscopy (TEM), UV–visible difuse-refectance spectroscopy (DRS), and a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM). Experimental results demonstrate that α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites are spherical in shape with average sizes close to 38 nm. In addition, the photocatalytic activities of the composites samples were studied based on the degradation of methylene blue (MB) as a model compound, where the results illustrated that the *α*-Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ nanocomposites performed the best as a photocatalyst under visible light. These nanocomposites samples provide a positive example for the fabrication of other structures for photocatalysis or other applications.

Keywords Micro-structural · Methylene blue · Photocatalytic activity · α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites

1 Introduction

In recent years, considerable studies have been carried out for the elimination of organic pollutants through photocatalytic degradation [[1](#page-8-0)[-3](#page-8-1)]. Among diverse oxide semiconductor photocatalysts, hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) can be used as visiblelight photocatalyst, due to its narrow band gap of 2.2 eV, which exhibits excellent properties such as non-toxicity, natural abundance, and strong oxidation power [[4,](#page-8-2) [5](#page-8-3)]. Furthermore, the magnetic properties of hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) are good in the water treatment, because it can be conveniently separated by magnetic separation technology [[6](#page-8-4)]. Nevertheless, the use of α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles in photocatalytic process exhibits a rapid recombination of the electron–hole after the photo excitation of α -Fe₂O₃, which leads to a decrease in

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the photo-degradation activity [\[7](#page-8-5), [8\]](#page-8-6). To resolve this limitation, coupling TiO₂ with α -Fe₂O₃ forms core–shell nanostructures have been considered as one of the most promising structures for the purpose of preventing recombination of electron–hole pairs [[8-](#page-8-6)[10\]](#page-9-0). As well known, anatase phase of $TiO₂$ nanoparticles has attracted extensive attention due to their physical and chemical properties such as non-toxicity, high photochemical corrosive resistance, and strong oxidizing power [\[11](#page-9-1), [12](#page-9-2)].

Up to now, a diversity of techniques have been developed to prepare α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites, including sol–gel method [\[13](#page-9-3), [14\]](#page-9-4), hydrothermal technique [\[9](#page-9-5), [15,](#page-9-6) [16](#page-9-7)], deposition [[17-](#page-9-8)[19\]](#page-9-9), template-assisted method [\[16](#page-9-7), [20\]](#page-9-10), heteroepitaxial growth route [[21](#page-9-11)], and chemical co-precipitation [[22,](#page-9-12) [23](#page-9-13)]. Unlike the other methods, chemical co-precipitation has proved to be the most applied and most efective route to fabricate nanocomposites samples due to its short preparation time, low cost, high purity, simple preparation, and low operation temperature. Besides, the co-precipitation method is conducted through an aqueous process, enabling satisfactory solubility, homogeneous distribution of doping element, and control of stoichiometry.

Many works reported the synthesis of hematite–anatase $(\alpha$ -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂) nanocomposites. Suiyuan et al. [[24\]](#page-9-14) elaborated the Fe₂O₃–TiO₂ nanocomposite particles in a liquid-phase system with 80 wt% ethylene glycol and 20

wt% deionized water using pulsed laser gas-phase evaporation–liquid-phase collection. The morphology, structure, magnetic properties, and synthesis mechanism of the samples were studied by means of transmission electron microscopy, X-ray difraction, infrared spectroscopy, and vibration magnetometer. The results indicate that the $Fe₂O₃$ –TiO₂ nanocomposite particles are spherical, and diameters of the primary particles range from 20 to 50 nm. With the increase of $Fe₂O₃$ in content, the magnetic saturation intensity and coercivity of $Fe₂O₃$ -TiO₂ nanocomposite particles both increase. In another study [[13](#page-9-3)], sol–gel technique was used to synthesize $TiO₂–Fe₂O₃$ nanocomposites with various $Fe₂O₃$ weight percentages. The physicochemical properties of the samples were examined by XRD, XRF, SEM, EDX, HRTEM, UV–Vis DRS, FTIR, TGA, and nitrogen gas physisorption studies. The effects of calcination temperatures and $Fe₂O₃$ content on the mesostructure and photocatalytic strength of the prepared $TiO₂–Fe₂O₃$ composites were investigated. Results showed that composites with distinct structural, optical, and photochemical properties can be formed by varying $Fe₂O₃$ content. Yubing et al. [\[21\]](#page-9-11) reported the synthesis of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ core–shell via a heteroepitaxial growth route using the α -Fe₂O₃ spindle as a hard template display improved photocatalytic degradation activity for Rhodamine B dye under visible-light irradiation. The results indicate that the α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ core–shell nanocomposite with an optimal molar ratio of 7% for α -Fe₂O₃:TiO₂ exhibits the best photocatalytic performance under visible-light irradiation. The literature survey shows that quest for fnding inexpensive and simple methods for fabricating α -Fe₂O₃[@] TiO₂ core–shell nanocomposites is continuing $[20, 21, 25]$ $[20, 21, 25]$ $[20, 21, 25]$ $[20, 21, 25]$ $[20, 21, 25]$ $[20, 21, 25]$ $[20, 21, 25]$. Research for new approaches of synthesizing α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites samples with improved physical and chemical characteristics is ongoing.

In this study, α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites were synthesized by co-precipitation method. The crystalline structure, morphological, optical, and magnetic properties of elaborated samples were examined using X-ray difraction (XRD), spectroscopy RAMAN, transmission electron microscopy (MET), UV–visible difuse-refectance spectroscopy (UV/DRS), and a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM). Subsequently, the photocatalytic activity of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites on the degradation of MB was investigated in detail.

2 Experimental

2.1 Material synthesis

All chemicals used here were analytical-grade and without further purification. Hematite $(\alpha$ -Fe₂O₃) nanoparticles were prepared via the chemical precipitation route. In a

typical experiment, 0.1 M FeCl₃, $6H₂O$ was dissolved in ultrapure water under vigorous stirring, which was continuously stirred for 1 h at a temperature of 80 °C. Next, aqueous ammonia solution (28%) was added to adjust the pH value to 11 and the solution was kept at this pH for 3 h to fully obtain the hydroxide phase. After cooling at room temperature, red precipitates were obtained which were collected by centrifugation and washed ultrapure water until all of the chloride ions were leached from the fltered material. The wet material was then dried at 80 °C for 12 h and then calcined at 700 °C for 4 h.

 α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposite samples with different $TiO₂$ contents were fabricated via the co-precipitation method: 0.1 M of hematite $(\alpha$ -Fe₂O₃) nanoparticles was introduced to ethanol and sonifcated for 30 min. Titanium (IV) isopropoxide (TTIP) (10% and 50%) was added dropwise into the resultant dispersion and the mixture was vigorously stirred on the magnetic stirrer at 80 °C. Precipitation of TiO₂ on the surface of α -Fe₂O₃ was performed by slow drop-wise addition of the ammonia aqueous solution (28%). After 3 h, the resulting α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ was recovered by centrifugation, rinsed several times, dried for 12 h at 80 °C, and calcined for 3 h at 500 °C. Moreover, the schematic illustration of the preparation of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites is shown in Scheme [1](#page-2-0).

To investigate the influence of the $TiO₂$ shell nanoparticles on the preparation of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites, anatase (TiO₂) was used for comparison which was synthesized by the co-precipitation method according to our previous report [[12\]](#page-9-2).

2.2 Characterization

XRD measurements were acquired using a D8-Advance Bruker diffractometer with Cu-K*α* radiation $(\lambda = 0.15406$ nm) over a 2 θ range of 20°–80° and with an angle step size of 0.02°. The average crystallite size (*D*) of all samples can be estimated from the XRD patterns using Debye–Scherrer formula [[26\]](#page-9-16):

$$
D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta\cos\theta},\tag{1}
$$

where *D* is the crystallite size of the hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) nanoparticles (in nm), *K* is a constant related to the crystallite shape (0.9), $\lambda = 0.154056$ nm is the wavelength of Cu-K α radiation, β is the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the most intense peak (104) (in radians), and θ is the diffraction angle (in radians).

Raman spectra were collected using a Renishaw Raman microscope with excitation at 633 nm. The morphology and sizes of the particles in the samples were analyzed by TEM

Scheme 1 Schematic illustration of the synthetic chemistry and the formation process of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites

(JEOL 2100, FEG-TEM 200 kV) and scanning electron microscope (Hitachi 4160-F, SEM).

UV–Vis/DRS spectra were obtained with a UV–Vis spectrometer (Shimadzu UV-3101 PC) equipped with an integrating sphere, and baseline correction was performed using a calibrated reference sample of powdered barium sulfate $(BaSO₄)$. The band-gap energy of the samples was determined according to Tauc expression [\[27](#page-9-17)]:

$$
(\alpha h v) = A(hv - E_g)^n,\tag{2}
$$

where α represents the absorption coefficient, A is a constant, *hν* is the photon energy (*h* is Planck's constant and *ν* is the light frequency), E_g is the optical band gap, and the exponent *n* is a constant that determines the type of optical transition, i.e., for indirect allowed transitions, $n = 2$; for indirect forbidden transitions, $n=3$; for direct allowed transitions, $n = 1/2$; and for direct forbidden transitions, $n = 3/2$. α -Fe₂O₃ is known to be a direct semiconductor so *n* was set as 1/2 [[28\]](#page-9-18).

The magnetic properties were measured at room temperature and feld with a Quantum Design Physical Properties Measurement System under an applied magnetic feld sweeping from -50 to 50 kOe.

2.3 Photocatalytic performance

The photocatalytic activities of the as-prepared samples were analyzed based on the photo-degradation of MB at room temperature. In a typical photocatalytic experiment, 0.05 g of the sample was dispersed in MB aqueous solution. Before applying the irradiation, the suspension was magnetically stirred for 30 min in the dark to ensure that an adsorption–desorption equilibrium was reached between the photocatalyst powders and the aqueous dye solution. During the experiment, 5 mL of sample suspension was drawn from the cell at certain time intervals and the photocatalyst powder was separated with centrifugation. The residual MB concentration was analyzed with UV–Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-2450) at 664 nm. The $C/C₀$ is used to illustrate the percentage of MB degradation, where *C* is the MB concentration at each experimental interval, and C_0 is the initial concentration after the adsorption/desorption equilibrium is reached.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 X‑ray difraction studies

X-ray difraction technique is used to identify and determine the crystalline phase, phase structure, and crystallite size of the products. The XRD patterns of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites samples are revealed in Fig. [1.](#page-3-0) In addition, pure α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles and anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles are used for comparison. As observed in the XRD patterns of the samples, all the intensive difraction peaks can be well indexed to rhombohedral hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) and anatase $(TiO₂)$ marked with star (*). After coating with anatase TiO2, several additional peaks located at 25.34°, 37.79°, 48.03°, and 55.06° appeared on the α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposite samples are indexed to the anatase phase of $TiO₂$ [[12,](#page-9-2) [29](#page-9-19)], which cannot be seen on $Fe₂O₃$ [[30](#page-9-20)]. However, the intensity of these peaks increases regularly with the increase of TiO₂ content from 10 to 50%. This result confirms the successfully conversion of TiO₂ into α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂. No

Fig. 1 XRD patterns of **a** TiO₂, **b** α -Fe₂O₃, **c** α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and **d** α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂

other impurity peaks are detected, indicating the high phase purity of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites, which is in accord with the results reported by Xia et al. [\[21](#page-9-11)].

On the other hand, the enlargement of the XRD patterns of α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ in the range from $2\theta = 32.7^\circ$ to 33.6° show clear a shift in the angular positions of the peaks compared to pure α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles, suggesting that the Ti^{4+} is successfully incorporated into the crystal lattice of hematite α -Fe₂O₃ and formed the Fe–O–Ti bond. Accordingly, after impregnating and annealing, the surface of the α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles is modified by TiO₂ nanoparticles $[18, 20]$ $[18, 20]$ $[18, 20]$ $[18, 20]$ $[18, 20]$. Chen et al. [\[31\]](#page-9-22) elaborated Fe₂O₃–TiO₂ nanocomposite particles using pulsed laser gas-phase evaporation–liquid-phase collecting method, and they found that this composite showed a diameters of the primary particles which range from 20 to 50 nm, and the particles have a tendency to form chain connections.

Additionally, the average crystallite sizes of the products were calculated with the Debye–Scherrer formula, which are shown in Table [1.](#page-3-1) It is obvious that the grain sizes of the samples varied with the increase of $TiO₂$ content.

4 Raman spectral analysis

To examine the structural properties of the as-prepared samples, Raman spectra were acquired and presented in Fig. [2](#page-4-0). In the Raman spectrum of α -Fe₂O₃ (Fig. 2a), the peak located at 226 and 496 cm^{-1} were assigned to A_{1g} modes, and the four peaks at about 245, 293, 410, 613, and 814 cm⁻¹ were attributed to E_g modes. These peaks correspond to the characteristic peaks of hematite $(\alpha$ -Fe₂O₃) [[32](#page-9-23), [33\]](#page-9-24). As observed in Fig. [2b](#page-4-0), the significant vibration peaks centered at around 144, 196, 398, 516, and 640 cm⁻¹ were attributed to E_g , E_g , B_{1g} , A_{1g} (or B_{1g}), and E_g modes of the anatase TiO₂ [[11,](#page-9-1) [34\]](#page-9-25). After coating with anatase $TiO₂$, the apparent vibration peak of anatase TiO₂ at 144 cm⁻¹ was present in α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂. In addition to this peak, a very weak peak at 659 cm⁻¹ [[35,](#page-9-26) [36](#page-9-27)] was also detected in the two samples. Pérez et al. [[37\]](#page-9-28) indicate that this peak is characteristic of hematite and related to disorder.

Table 1 Summary of physicochemical prope TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O

Fig. 2 Raman spectra of **a** α -Fe₂O₃, **b** TiO₂, **c** α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and **d** α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂

4.1 TEM observations

To get more information about the structure, the composite samples were characterized by TEM. Figure [3](#page-5-0) shows the typical TEM image of α -Fe₂O₃, TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂. It can be clearly seen that all the samples exhibit spherical morphology. The particle size of α -Fe₂O₃ (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)a) ranged between 35 and 40 nm. Furthermore, the TEM images of pure $TiO₂$ (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)b) indicated that the grain size was homogenous and fairly small (about 15 nm). This value is close to the crystallite size estimated by XRD, as shown in Table [1](#page-3-1). Moreover, the core–shell structure was clearly observed from the TEM micrograph (Fig. [3](#page-5-0)c, d). It can be found that the diameter of the core was about 40 nm and the shell thickness was about 5 nm. These results are in good accordance with those found by Chen et al. [\[24\]](#page-9-14). Based on the TEM images, the α -Fe₂O₃[@] $TiO₂$ nanocomposites samples were prepared successfully using a simple co-precipitation technique. These results were in agreement with that of XRD.

4.2 SEM observations

The surface morphological study of the α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites was carried out using SEM. It can be seen in Fig. [4](#page-6-0) that the $TiO₂$ nanoparticles are deposited on surface of α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles. Which suggest that the α -Fe₂O₃[@] $TiO₂$ nanocomposites are successful prepared. Also, the SEM image shows that dimensional distribution is not uni-form: Fig. [4a](#page-6-0) indicates that the grain size of pure $TiO₂$ was homogenous and fairly small. However, Fig. [4b](#page-6-0) shows that α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles are agglomerated and randomly dis-tributed. Figure [4c](#page-6-0), d shows that the shape of the α -Fe₂O₃[@] $TiO₂$ differs slightly by changing the concentration of $TiO₂$. These results were in agreement with that of XRD and TEM.

4.3 Optical analysis

To investigate the UV–Vis absorbance of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites, the difuse-refectance spectra are obtained. The UV–Vis DRS of pure TiO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles

Fig. 3 TEM micrograph of **a** α -Fe₂O₃, **b** TiO₂, **c** α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and **d** α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂

are also evaluated for comparison. As demonstrated in Fig. [5](#page-6-1), the absorption edges of pure $TiO₂$ are around 400 nm [\[12,](#page-9-2) [29\]](#page-9-19). For pure α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles, obvious visible absorption is observed in the curve ($\lambda \approx 600$ nm) [\[38\]](#page-9-29). In the contrast, the α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites exhibited not only stronger absorption in the ultra-violet region of less than 400 nm but also adequate and strong absorption in the visible-light region of 400–700 nm [\[8](#page-8-6), [39](#page-9-30)]. This will undoubtedly improve the photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposites photocatalyst.

Figure [6](#page-6-2) show the plots of $(ah\nu)^2$ versus energy $(h\nu)$ for the band-gap energies of TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂, which were calculated based on the optical absorption edge obtained from UV–Vis DRS spectra using Eq. ([2](#page-2-1)). The results show that the band-gap energies of α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ are approximately 2.09 and 2.13 eV, respectively (Table [1](#page-3-1)). In the present condition, Fe^{3+} was doped with the TiO₂ lattice, resulted in the increasing of the band gap. Additionally,

the band gap of α -Fe₂O₃ was only 2.07 eV. The presence of this band-gap semiconductor, as well as the $TiO₂$ band gap [\[40\]](#page-9-31), greatly ameliorated the light absorption properties of the α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites, and enabled the absorption of visible light [[6,](#page-8-4) [14](#page-9-4)]. According to the results of UV–Vis DRS, the as-prepared α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites are expected to exhibit excellent photocatalytic activity for degrading organic contaminants in the visible region, which corresponded to the photo-degradation process.

4.4 Magnetic analysis

Vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM) was employed to study the magnetic properties of prepared α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites. The measurement was performed at room temperature, with the field sweeping from -50 to 50 kOe. As shown in Fig. [7,](#page-7-0) the magnetization measurement result of all the samples is indicative of the presence of ferromagnetic components [\[28](#page-9-18), [40\]](#page-9-31). In addition, it can be seen that no

Fig. 4 SEM image of the TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃ and α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites samples

Fig. 5 Absorption spectra of TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂ and *α*-Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂

Fig. 6 Plots of $(ahv)^2$ versus $h v$ of TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂

Fig. 7 Hysteresis loops of α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂ and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂

saturation of the magnetization as a function of the feld is observed up to the maximum applied magnetic feld. These results are in a good agreement with those obtained in the literature [\[16](#page-9-7), [24\]](#page-9-14).

The magnetic parameters consisting of Hc and Mr of the synthesized α -Fe₂O₃, α -Fe₂O₃@10% TiO₂, and α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ are summarized in Table [1,](#page-3-1) where Hc is the coercive force and Mr is the remnant magnetization. As seen from Table [1](#page-3-1), the Hc and Mr values of the α -Fe₂O₃ are higher than the other samples. The reduction in the magnetic parameters might be because the $TiO₂$ shell does not contribute to the magnetization, which then leads to the smaller magnetic moment per unit mass.

4.5 Photocatalytic activity

To investigate the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants with the nanoparticles under visible light, MB was selected as a model contaminant for photocatalytic decolorization [[41](#page-9-32), [42\]](#page-9-33). The photocatalytic performance during the degradation of MB using diferent catalysts under irradiation with visible light is illustrated in Fig. [8](#page-7-1). Under the visible-light irradiation, $TiO₂$ cannot be excited to generate electron–hole pairs, show poor photocatalytic activity on MB degradation, probably because it contains anatase which has a band gap of 3.1 eV resulting in ultra-violet absorption [\[12](#page-9-2)]. While α -Fe₂O₃ displays strong response to visible-light irradiation, it exhibits slight photocatalytic degradation on MB. It is due to the fact that the photo-induced electron–hole pairs in pure α -Fe₂O₃ are difficult to separate and strongly intend to recombine, thus inducing poor photocatalytic activity [\[43](#page-9-34), [44](#page-9-35)].

Zhan et al. [[45\]](#page-9-36) elaborated the mesoporous $Fe₂O₃$ -doped $TiO₂$ nanostructured fibers, and they found that this composite showed that the photocatalytic activity was

Fig. 8 Photo-degradation of MB in the presence of different catalysts under visible light irradiation

evaluated by photocatalytic degradation of MB in water under UV irradiation. Compared with diferent types of photocatalysts, the 1% Fe₂O₃-doped TiO₂ fibers exhibited super photocatalytic activity.

After 120 min of visible-light irradiation, about 92% of MB degradation was observed with the use of α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ nanocomposites, whereas much lower than the decoloration rate of 51.1% over pure α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles was achieved. After 150 min of visible-light irradiation, the major absorbance peaks of MB degraded by α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ nanocomposites completely disappeared, whereas there was still 26.5% of MB left when degraded by pure α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles. These results were better than that observed one with other model pollutant reported by Zhang et al. $[8]$ $[8]$ $[8]$. Therefore, the TiO₂ content should be an important factor affecting the photocatalytic activity of the α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposite. It is obvious that the coupled α -Fe₂O₃/TiO₂ photocatalyst displayed higher photocatalytic activity than pure α -Fe₂O₃ and $TiO₂$, and the photocatalytic activity changed with the diferent molar ratio of Fe to Ti. These results are in good accordance with those found by Tang et al. [[16](#page-9-7)].

From these results, α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites show the better photocatalytic performance than the corresponding α -Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂ monocomponent photocatalysts, because the nanostructures with a magnetic core, covered by $TiO₂$ nanoparticles (shell), aggregate the $TiO₂$ adsorption features, due to chemical affinity, and the magnetic properties of the iron oxide. The combination of both properties in a nanoscale structure allows predicting applications of magnetite nanoparticles in efuent treatment systems. This method provides a quick and efficient separation of the nanoparticles dispersed in MB

aqueous solution, since after adsorption, the samples can be removed in a continuous process by the use of magnetic felds outside of pipelines, which are projected to attend this function.

4.6 Possible photocatalytic mechanism

The possible process of the photocatalytic mechanism of α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites has been proposed and is shown in Scheme [2](#page-8-7). Under the visible-light irradiation, $TiO₂$ cannot be excited to generate electron–hole pairs, whereas α -Fe₂O₃ could be easily activated and yields photogenerated electrons from the valence band (VB) to its conduction band (CB). Subsequently, the excited electrons of α -Fe₂O₃ can immigrate to the conduction band (CB) of TiO₂ by the action of built-in electric feld and the concentration gradient, while photogenerated holes accumulated in the valence band of $α$ -Fe₂O₃:

$$
\text{Fe}^{3+} + h\nu \to \text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{Fe}^{4+} + (h_{\text{VB}}^{+} + e_{\text{CB}}^{-}).
$$

The electrons in the conduction band (CB) of TiO₂ will react with molecular oxygen O_2 dissolved in the MB solution to form the superoxide anion O_2^- . While the accumulated holes in the valence band (VB) of α -Fe₂O₃ will react with OH− to produce reactive hydroxyl radicals (·OH):

$$
e_{CB}^-(Ti^{4+}) + O_2 \to O_2^-
$$

 $h_{BV}^+(Fe^{4+}) + OH^- \rightarrow \cdot OH.$

The resultant **·**OH will further decompose the organic substance efectively as a powerful oxidant.

MB dye $+ OH \rightarrow$ degradation products.

5 Conclusion

In summary, α -Fe₂O₃@TiO₂ nanocomposites were synthesized by co-precipitation method and their photocatalytic activities were investigated too. The detailed morphological and structural characterizations revealed that the obtained structure is mainly composed of anatase $TiO₂$ phase and α -Fe₂O₃ phase. Catalytic experiments showed that all prepared samples are photocatalytically active. While α -Fe₂O₃@50% TiO₂ sample exhibited the highest photocatalytic activity among other prepared materials due to its superior properties. Enhanced light absorption and magnetic properties play important roles to enhanced photocatalytic activity. The produced nanomaterials showed enhanced photocatalytic performance in the visible region for the degradation of organic dye and excellent cycling properties as compared to their corresponding nanomaterials prepared with chemical method.

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