



# Photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue dye by magnetized TiO<sub>2</sub>-silica nanoparticles from rice husk

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## Abstract

In this current study, magnetized TiO<sub>2</sub>-supported SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, synthesized from rice husk, was applied as a photocatalyst to degrade methylene blue dye (MBD) in aqueous solution using LED lamp as light source. The effects of MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH and illumination time on the degradation efficiency of the photocatalyst on MBD was investigated using Box–Behnken design as the experimental design tool. Photocatalyst was characterized by Fourier transform infrared, scanning electron microscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray, thermogravimetric analysis and Brunauer–Emmett–Teller. At optimum predicted point where MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH and illumination time were 10 ppm, 15%, 6 and 75 min, respectively, the predicted and experimental percentage of MBD removed were 97.66% and 96.89%, respectively. Correlation coefficient and ANOVA justified high significance of the developed model for prediction. Experimental data fitted excellently into pseudo-second-order kinetic model. The temperature effect revealed optimum MBD photocatalytic degradation at 50 °C by TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP. Characterization revealed the effects of magnetization and TiO<sub>2</sub> addition on the synthesized SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles from rice husk. In conclusion, magnetized TiO<sub>2</sub>-silica nanoparticles from rice husk could be effectively used to degrade MBD in solution.

**Keywords** Photocatalyst · Methylene blue · Box–Behnken design · Magnetized TiO<sub>2</sub>-silica nanoparticles · Rice husk

## Introduction

The increase in global population rate has greatly influenced the demand for textile products via sufficient industrialization (Thabet et al. 2022). This increases the use of synthetic dyes which simultaneously increase the volume of wastewater from dye industries such as textile manufacturing, leather making and paper printing (Tony and Mansour 2020). Our environment, both soil and water, is polluted with these synthetic dyes present in the dye wastewater. Many of the dyes are carcinogenic, toxic, soluble in water and nondegradable under atmospheric conditions (Oyewo et al. 2020;

Yusuff et al. 2021). Various kinds of respiratory ailments have been linked to these dyes and their metabolites worldwide (Sumanjit and Ravneet 2007). Hence, it is imperative to design highly effective treatment plant that will handle larger volume of discharged textile wastewater and develop low cost-effective means of tackling this menace (Popoola 2019a). Of all the available techniques (Latif et al. 2010), adsorption (Lorenc-Grabowska and Gryglewicz 2007; Xiao et al. 2020) and photocatalytic degradation (Pandit et al. 2015; Li et al 2020) of organic pollutants have been identified as promising sustainable techniques of treating wastewater polluted with different kinds of dyes owing by their simplicity, low cost and highly efficient removal attributes (Lim et al. 2011).

For photocatalysis, degradation of dye component occurs via oxidation and decomposition processes on its surface with the aid of a photocatalyst, usually heterogeneous titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) (Xing et al. 2016). During this process, electrons are transferred from the valence band to the conduction band of a semiconductor surface when light of an appropriate wavelength is illuminated. High oxidizing power species of hydroxide radicals and superoxide anions (which

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possess strong ability to degrade numerous molecules in wastewater including dye effluents) are produced as a result of reaction between the generated excitons and oxygen or water. This is called advanced oxidation process (AOP) which involves wastewater decontamination by reactive oxygen species and some other species (Gul and YildirIn 2009; Elmorsi et al. 2010). Organic pollutants are completely mineralized to carbon dioxide, water and inorganic compounds with this process. Heterogeneous photocatalysis is one of the effective methods of AOP capable of oxidizing most of the organic carbon at ambient condition (Rashed et al. 2017). The cost effective, high stability, earth abundance oxide and non-toxicity nature of  $\text{TiO}_2$  has greatly supported its suitability as a photocatalyst for wastewater treatment under solar-driven condition. Though large bandgap energy of  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $\sim 3.2$  eV) restricted its photoactivity to the UV region of the solar spectrum, its anatase phase strengthens its photoactivity because it possesses high photon absorption characteristics.  $\text{TiO}_2$  activity in the visible region together with increase in charge separation can also be enhanced via the creation of a heterojunction with a low bandgap semiconductor (Chandrabose et al. 2021).

Nanotechnology has found wide applications in environmental engineering (Xiao et al. 2020). In recent times, the use of nanocomposites supported with photocatalytic  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles to degrade organic pollutants in dye wastewater is gaining serious attention. The incorporation of nano- $\text{TiO}_2$  helps in stabilizing the nanocomposites due to high vulnerability of their polymer constituent to UV radiation (Nair et al. 2021). Thus, selection of appropriate material with high optical and catalytic activities which also possesses chemical selectivity is imperative. Many supporting materials for nano- $\text{TiO}_2$  such as alumina, silica, porous nickel, zeolites, clays and glass have been reported (Rashed et al. 2017). Table 1 presents previous studies on the use of nanophotocatalyst for the degradation of different dyes in wastewater and aqueous solutions. In our previous studies, calcined rice husk was applied as adsorbent for the removal of brilliant green dye (Popoola et al. 2018; Popoola 2019a, b) from solution due to its high silicate content (Teixeira et al. 2012; Mahross et al. 2016). Also, studies have shown magnetized silicate adsorbents to have excellent hydrophilicity, chemical stability within high pH and silanol groups (Lai et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2013) which influences their fitness for the removal of pollutants. Not only this, co-precipitation of silicates with magnetite improves its temperature stability, surface area, oxidation strength and superparamagnetic attributes (Popoola 2020; Tahoun et al. 2022). With reference to cited literatures and to the best of authors' knowledge, previous studies rarely considered using  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles synthesized from rice husk and co-precipitated with magnetite and  $\text{TiO}_2$  for photocatalytic degradation of dyes in solution. Previous studies have only considered

using Ag- $\text{TiO}_2$  nanosheet incorporated in cellulose acetate (Nair and JagadeeshBabu 2017) and  $\text{TiO}_2$ -AC composites prepared via hydrothermal (Wang et al. 2009), solgel (Xing et al. 2016) and impregnation (Jamil et al. 2012) methods for photocatalytic degradation of different dyes. Not only this, consideration has been given majorly to heavy metals (Popoola 2019b, 2023; Yusuff et al. 2020; Fita et al. 2023).

In this current study,  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles synthesized from rice husk via calcination and a two-stage ball milling process; co-precipitated with magnetite; and supported with  $\text{TiO}_2$  via solgel method ( $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$ ) was used for photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue dye (MBD) from aqueous solution using LED lamp as light source. Factors considered to investigate the photocatalytic degradation efficiency of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  were MBD initial concentration,  $\text{TiO}_2$  loading, pH and illumination time. Fourier transform infrared, scanning electron microscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray, thermogravimetric analysis, Brunauer–Emmett–Teller, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy and powder X-ray diffractometer were executed to characterize the photocatalyst. The experimental design and optimum point prediction were achieved via Box–Behnken design under response surface of Design-Expert 12. Linearized pseudo-first-order and second-order models were used for the kinetics study.

## Materials and methods

### Materials

The rice husk was obtained from a small-scale local rice milling industry. Analytical grades of ethanol, titanium (IV) butoxide [ $\text{Ti}(\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$ , purity = 98%], methylene blue dye [ $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{18}\text{N}_3\text{SCl}$ , molecular weight = 319.85 g/mol, melting point = 100–110 °C], iron (III) chloride [ $\text{FeCl}_3$ ] and iron (II) sulfate [ $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ] were used. Sodium hydroxide and hydrochloric acid were used to adjust the pH. All materials bought were used without further modification.

### Synthesis of silica nanoparticles from rice husk (RH-SNP)

Thermal treatment, calcination and a two-stage ball milling processes were employed to prepare silica nanoparticles from rice husk (RH). The rice husk was thoroughly washed with water to remove dirt and unwanted materials, sun-dried for 5 days under atmospheric condition and then dried in an oven operated at 100 °C for 5 h. A muffle furnace (Carbolite, ELF11/6B, S/N 21–403,009, UK), operated at 400 °C for 2 h, was used to thermally treat the dried RH and disintegrate the organic constituents. The RH was then subjected

**Table 1** Previous nanophotocatalysts used for dyes degradation at different process conditions

Nanophotocatalyst	Dyes	Process conditions	Light source	Percentage removed	Reference
TiO <sub>2</sub> /mRH-SNP	Methylene blue	DIC = 10 ppm, pH = 6, t = 75 min, TiO <sub>2</sub> loading = 15%	LED lamp	96.89%	Current study
ZnO-SnO <sub>2</sub> nanoparticles	Methylene blue Yellow quinoline Rhodamine B Trypan blue Orange methylene	DIC = 18 mg/L, PD = 200 mg/L, t = 60 min	UV light	76.44% 72.69% 62.43% 77.00% 92.46%	Długosz et al. (2022)
Chitosan-magnetite nanoparticles	Basic Blue 9	PD, 3 mg/L, pH = 7, t = 120 min	UV	99%	Elsayed et al. (2022)
Sawdust/magnetite	Red K-HL	pH = 3.0, PD = 1 g/L	–	99%	Tony (2022)
2-D MoS <sub>2</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> nano-composite	Methylene blue Crystal violet Rhodamine B Methyl orange	DIC = 50 mg/L, PD = 0.8 g/L, t = 60 min	UV light	73%	Chandrabose et al. (2021)
TiO <sub>2</sub> nanosheets/cellulose acetate/ethylene vinyl acetate	Congo red dye	DIC 30 ppm, t = 120 min	UV	56%	Nair et al. (2021)
Kaolinite/TiO <sub>2</sub> /ZnO	anionic azo dyes	DIC = 100 mg/L, PD = 100 mg/L, pH = 2.5, t = 120 min	Sunlight	98%	Hassan et al. (2020)
LaFeO <sub>3</sub> /BiOBr	Rhodamine B	DIC = 5 ppm, PD = 0.1 g, t = 30 min	UV	98.2%	Guan et al. (2020)
ZnO/pumice composite	Textile dye effluent	DIC = 3.01 mg/L, PD = 3 g/L, pH = 4.01, t = 45.04 min	Sunlight	90.17%	Yusuff et al. (2020)
TiO <sub>2</sub> @NH <sub>2</sub> -MIL-88B(Fe)	Methylene blue	pH = 7, DIC = 100 ppm, PD = 200 mg/L, t = 150 min	LED lamp	99%	Li et al. (2018)
ZnO/reduced graphene oxide	–	DIC = 10 mg/L, PD = 0.05 g/L, t = 120 min	Visible light	51%	Ravi et al. (2018)
PbCrO <sub>4</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub>	Rhodamine B	–	–	–	Abou-Gamra et al. (2017)
TiO <sub>2</sub> /sewage sludge-based activated carbon nanocomposites	Methylorange	DIC = 25–100 mg/L, pH = 4–9, t = 30–360 min	UV	94.28%	Rashed et al. (2017)
Electrospun PAN/O-MMT-TiO <sub>2</sub>	Methylene blue	DIC = 0.02 g/L, PD = 5 g/L, t = 60 min	UV light	98.66%	Wang et al. (2012)
Electrospun P(3HB)-TiO <sub>2</sub> nanocomposite fibers and films	Malachite green	DIC = 15 mg/L, PD = 4 g/L, t = 120 min	Solar	78%	Sridewi et al. (2011)

DIC dye initial concentration (mg/L); PD photocatalyst dosage (g/L); t illumination time (min)

to calcination in the same furnace at 800 °C and heated for another 2 h.

The silica nanoparticle (SNP) was prepared by dissolving about 50 g of RHA in 50 wt% HCl solution. The mixture was continuously stirred for 4 h till homogeneity. The mixture (white powder of RHA and HCl) was filtered, thoroughly washed with distilled water to obtain neutrality (pH = 7), dried for 4 h at 100 °C and stored in a desiccator. A two-stage ball milling process was adopted to reduce the particle size into nanoscale via the use of a planetary ball milling machine. Clustering of particles was prevented, and RH-SNP size was attained by dispersing stored samples in

ethanol followed by wet milling at 400 rpm for 5 h. The collected sample was then oven-dried for 18 h at 70 °C.

### Magnetization of RH-SNP

A simple co-precipitation method was used to prepare magnetized RH-SNP (mRH-SNP) composites. Magnetite solution was prepared by mixing FeSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O and FeCl<sub>3</sub> in 50 mL of distilled water at a ratio and temperature of 1:2 and 70 °C, respectively, for 1 h. About 40 g of RH-SNP and 50 mL of 1 M citric acid were added to the mixture, mixed thoroughly via magnetic stirrer and heated on a mantle to

100 °C for 1 h. The precipitate was then washed till neutrality using distilled water and dried under vacuum in an oven at 100 °C for 2 h.

### Synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP as photocatalyst

Nanoparticle of TiO<sub>2</sub> was deposited onto mRH-SNP surface by solgel method. This was achieved by dissolving 50 mL of Ti(OC<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub> in 100 mL of ethanol in beaker and stirred mechanically at room temperature for 1 h. Fifty mL of 1 M nitric acid was added to the mixture and rigorously stirred to obtain a clear transparent sol. Impregnation of mRH-SNP in the TiO<sub>2</sub> solution was executed at specified loading, and the product was placed on a heating mantle at 100 °C and then oven-dried at 130 °C for 12 h to completely evaporate the ethanol present in the mixture and obtain TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP as photocatalyst.

### Preparation of MBD solution

A stock solution of 1000 ppm was prepared at room temperature by dissolving 1 g of MBD in 1 L of distilled water in 1000-mL round bottom flask. MBD solutions of different initial concentrations were prepared via successive dilution of the stock solution for the batch photodegradation process.

### Batch photodegradation process

The photodegradation capacity of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP was tested on MBD in aqueous solution. Different concentrations of MBD were prepared, and 100 mL of each was placed in a glass beaker as required. The initial solution pH was adjusted, as required, by adding 1 M NaOH and/or diluted HCl solutions using a digital pH meter (OAKION, Eutech Instruments, Singapore). TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP with different loading (as suggested by Box–Behnken design) was dispersed in the MBD solution and was continuously stirred at 120 rpm using a magnetic stirrer in the absence of light for 60 min at room temperature to attain adsorption–desorption equilibrium. The photocatalytic process of the samples was conducted by placing LED lamp as illumination source at a distance of 25 cm from the liquid surface to initiate the oxidation reaction. Samples were filtered using Whatman filter paper, and MBD concentration was determined using UV–visible spectrophotometer (Spectrumbab 752 s) at maximum wavelength of 664 nm. The residue is the photocatalyst, wrapped with aluminum foil and kept in a desiccator for further laboratory analysis. The percentage of MBD photodegraded (PMD) and adsorption capacity (*q<sub>e</sub>*) of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP are determined using Eqs. (1) and (2), respectively.

$$PMD = \frac{(C_i - C_f)}{C_i} \times 100\% \tag{1}$$

$$q_e = \frac{(C_i - C_f)}{W} V \tag{2}$$

where *C<sub>i</sub>* and *C<sub>f</sub>*= initial and final concentration of MBD (ppm) before and after illumination, *V*= volume of solution (mL) and *W*= weight of photocatalyst (mg).

### Experimental design

Box–Behnken design (BBD) under response surface of Design-Expert 12 was used for the experimental design and optimum point prediction of MBD photocatalytic degradation using TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP. Table 2 presents the factor coding and ranges of the original variables. Equation (3) describes the second-order polynomial quadratic model representing the photocatalytic degradation process. The model response is the percentage of MBD photodegraded in solution (PMD), and 29-run experiments were randomly designed as stated in Table 4 with 5 center points per block on the Box–Behnken design. ANOVA was used to affirm the developed model’s genuity and fitness for future prediction.

$$PMD(\%) = \beta_o + \sum \beta_o \xi_i + \sum \beta_{ii} \xi_i^2 + \sum \sum \beta_{ij} \xi_i \xi_j \tag{3}$$

### Characterization

Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometer (Nicolet iS10), scanning electron microscope (SEM/EDX-JEOL-JSM 7600F), energy-dispersive X-ray, TGA–DSC analyzer (PerkinElmer; analysis condition: heating rate=30 °C min<sup>-1</sup>, N<sub>2</sub> carrier flow rate=20 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and temperature range=30–800 °C) and Brunauer–Emmett–Teller method (Nova 11.03A, USA version) were, respectively, used to investigate the functional groups, structural morphology, elemental weight%, thermal decomposition profile and textural properties of raw rice husk, prepared and used TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP for MBD degradation. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, JEOL-JSM CM178) was utilized to examine the morphological structure and

**Table 2** Factor coding and variable ranges for MBD photodegradation using Box–Behnken design

Independent variables	Factor	Unit	Low level (-1)	Center point (0)	High level (+1)
MBD initial concentration	ξ <sub>1</sub>	(ppm)	10	30	50
TiO <sub>2</sub> loading	ξ <sub>2</sub>	(%)	5	15	25
Solution pH	ξ <sub>3</sub>	–	2	6	10
Illumination time	ξ <sub>4</sub>	(min)	15	45	75

particle size of as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$ . The crystal structure via phase composition of  $\text{mRH-SNP}$  and as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  was investigated by powder X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku D/Max-III, Tokyo, Japan) using  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation ( $0.154 \text{ \AA}$ ).

### $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$ regeneration and reusability

The ability of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  to be used repeatedly for MBD degradation from solution was tested. The used catalyst was regenerated from the mixture after each reaction by filtration. Distilled water was used to thoroughly wash the spent catalyst and recalcined for 60 min at  $400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in a muffle furnace. The percentage of MBD degraded was measured for each photocatalytic process after repeating the catalyst regeneration–washing–calcination process for five consecutive periods under optimal process conditions.

## Results and discussions

### $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$ characterization

#### Fourier transform infrared

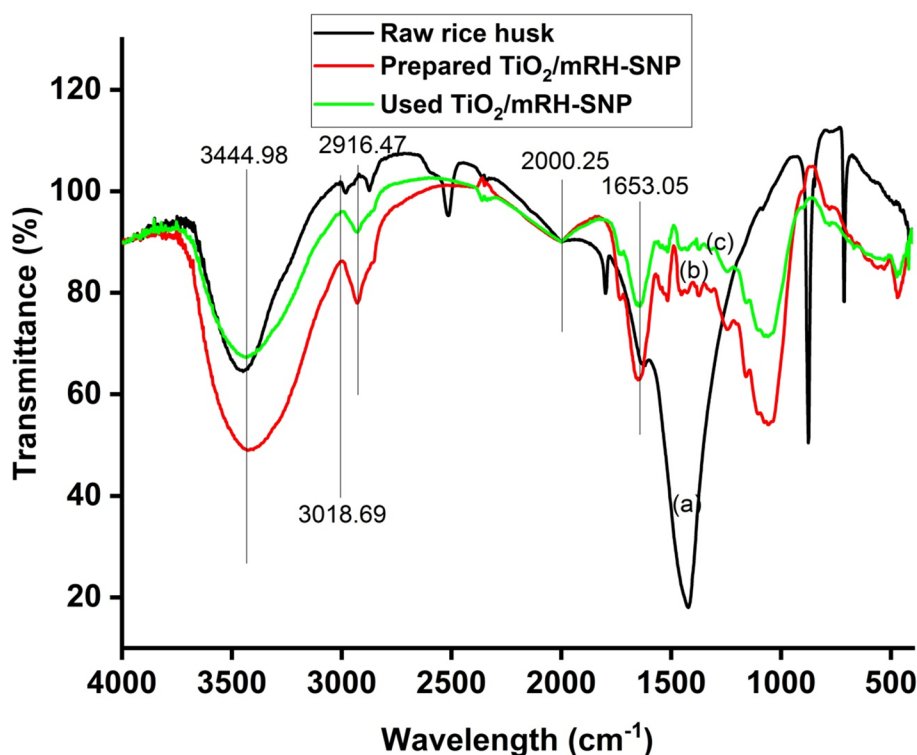
As shown in Fig. 1, peaks observed at  $3444.98 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $3018.69 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $2916.47 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $2000.25 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1653.05 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the raw rice husk, prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  and used  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  spectra could be ascribed to

strong O–H stretching vibration, weak O–H stretching vibration, strong C–H stretching, strong N=C=S stretching and strong C=O stretching, respectively (Xing et al. 2016). Peaks formed at  $2519.12 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1803.50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $877.64 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $713.69 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  on raw rice husk spectrum disappeared after magnetization and addition of  $\text{TiO}_2$  to the silica nanoparticles from rice husk. The prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  spectrum shows new peaks around  $2350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $970 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $495 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  which could be ascribed to the removal of weak S–H stretching, formation of Fe–O–Ti bond, formation of Si–OH bond and formation of Si–O–Fe bond, respectively (Abbas et al. 2014). This resulted from the reaction between iron in the magnetite solution and titanium in the photocatalyst with the silicate present in the raw rice husk (Du et al. 2006). Also, peak formed at  $464.86 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  on prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  disappeared after MBD photodegradation which affirms the occurrence of adsorption process (Xiao et al. 2020).

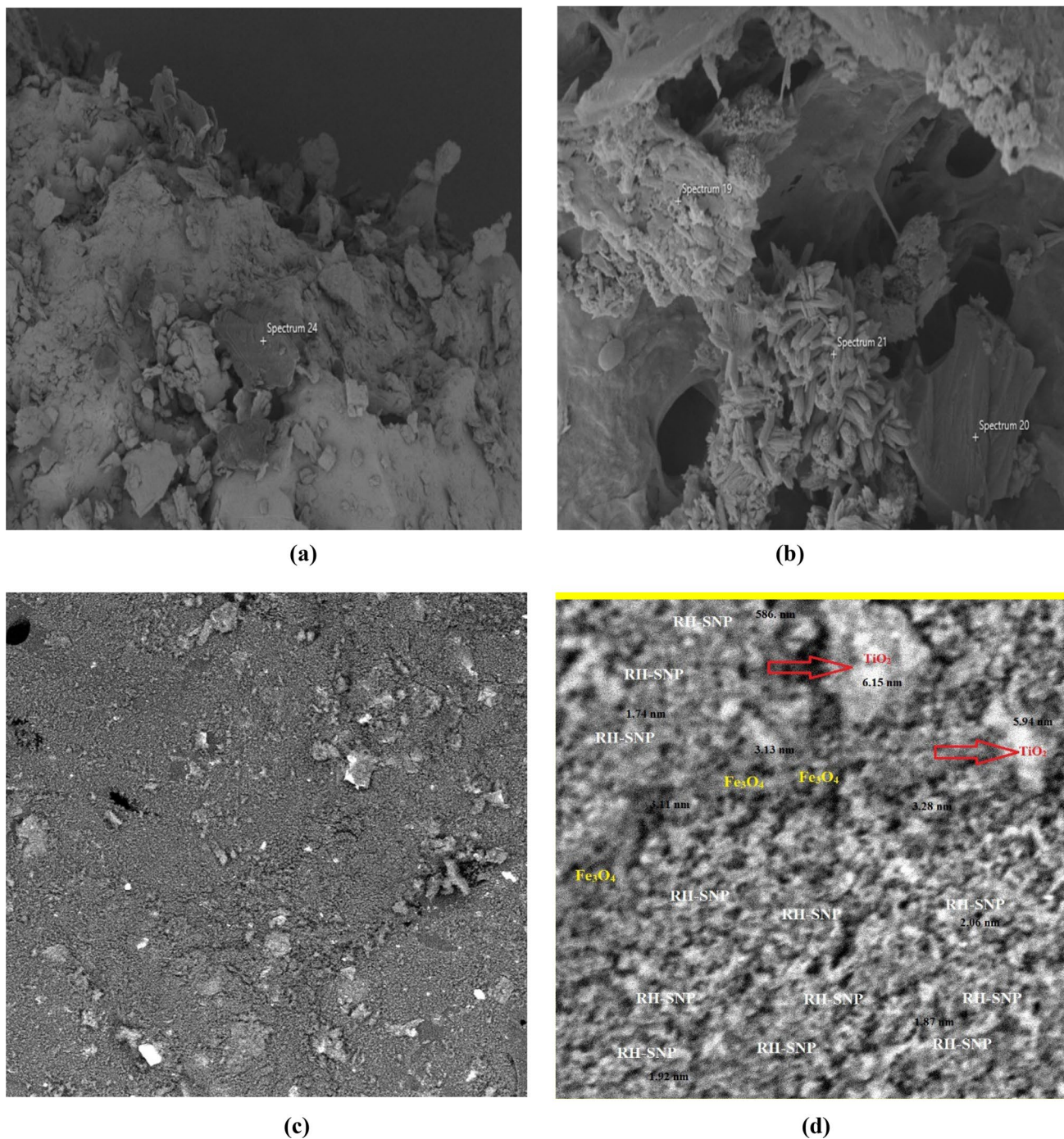
#### Surface morphology and particle size verification

The scanning electron images of raw rice husk, prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  and used  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  are presented in Fig. 2a–c, respectively. The micrograph of raw rice husk (Fig. 2a) shows a flake-like and unevenly distributed morphology with very few pore openings. The micrograph of prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  (Fig. 2b) revealed wide pore openings covered with granule-like shaped titanium oxide on the surface of the particle. Figure 2c representing the SEM

**Fig. 1** FTIR spectra of raw rice husk, prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  and used  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$







**Fig. 2** SEM micrograph of **a** raw rice husk **b** as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  and **c** used  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$ ; and **d** HRTEM of **b**

image of used  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  reveals a slightly smooth surface with little pores resulting from wide pore coverage by MBD after the photocatalytic degradation. Figure 2d presents the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image of as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$ , and some dark areas (densely in appearance) were observed which resulted from the agglomeration of magnetic crystalline particles of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  with mean diameter of approximately

3.3 nm. These were surrounded by relatively white particles of RH-SNP having an average diameter of about 1.85 nm. To add up, agglomeration of brighter particles of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , surrounded by the dark dense and relatively white particles, with average diameter of approximately 6.0 nm in two major regions was noticed.

### Energy-dispersive X-ray

The EDX analysis result of raw rice husk (Fig. 3a) discloses presence of carbon (45.1 wt%), oxygen (43.6 wt%) and silicon (11.3 wt%). This could be attributed to the presence of carbon and oxygen in the lignin, cellulose and hemicellulose content of the rice husk. The weight percent of silicon recorded could be attributed to the high silicate content of rice husk (Mahross et al. 2016). The EDX result of prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP (Fig. 3b) revealed reduction in the percentage of carbon and silicon to 25.3 wt% and 6.7 wt% as a result of decomposition of the carbon content in the raw rice husk during the synthesis of silica nanoparticles via thermal treatment and calcination processes. The presence of 64.7 wt% for oxygen resulted from its addition from the titanium oxide compound used as photocatalyst. Also, the result revealed the presence of iron (1.4 wt%) and titanium (0.2 wt%) at different peaks due to magnetization and photocatalysis of the synthesized silica nanoparticles. However, the carbon wt% in the used TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP increased to 77.0 wt% (Fig. 3c) after the photodegradation. This resulted from the adsorption of carbon content of the MBD (C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>18</sub>N<sub>3</sub>SCI) by the photocatalyst. The absence of iron and silicon after MBD removal could be attributed to their active involvement in enhancing the photodegradation process.

### Thermogravimetric study

Figure 4 shows the weight loss behavior of raw rice husk, prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP and used TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP at different temperatures. Each of the samples exhibited different thermal decomposition trend. Three stages of decomposition were observed, and loss of weight was noticed between 0 and 93 °C (due to water molecules removal), 93 and 380 °C (as a result of lignin decomposition present in the rice husk) and 340 and 750 °C (resulting from cellulose and hemicellulose removal) for the samples (Thushari and Babel 2020). The raw rice husk and prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP exhibited constant weight loss after 575 °C and 605 °C, respectively. This shows that the magnetization and addition of TiO<sub>2</sub> to the raw rice bran improved the thermal stability behavior of prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP. Also, the prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP recorded the lowest weight loss out of the examined samples.

### Brunauer–Emmett–Teller

Table 3 presents the BET textural analysis results of RH-SNP, mRH-SNP and TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP together with the photocatalysts used in previous studies. Total pore volume, surface area and average pore diameter of 0.017, 0.032 and 0.075 cm<sup>3</sup>/g; 38.11, 54.92 and 144.06 m<sup>2</sup>/g; and 1.832, 3.027 and 5.886 nm were recorded for RH-SNP, mRH-SNP and

TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP, respectively. TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP exhibited highest total pore volume, surface area and average pore diameter which could be attributed to the magnetization of RH-SNP and addition of titanium oxide to mRH-SNP which in return enhances the photodegradation of MBD from aqueous solution.

### Powder X-Ray diffractometer

Figure 5 presents the XRD pattern of mRH-SNP and as-prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP studied at 2θ value between 0 and 70°, Cu K α radiation (0.154 Å). The XRD data revealed mRH-SNP to be crystalline in nature with the following phases: quartz [tetrahedral, 2θ (20°, 26°, 35°, 50° and 60°)], magnetite [2θ (23°, 45° and 55°)] and silicon oxide [hexagonal, 2θ (32°, 36°, 42° and 68°)] as presented in Fig. 5a. The major crystalline phases of as-prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP as shown in Fig. 5b include quartz [tetrahedral, 2θ (20°, 26°, 33°, 45° and 56°)], magnetite [2θ (25°, 40°, 48° and 60°)], silicon oxide [monoclinic, 2θ (34°, 54° and 66°)] and titanium oxide [monoclinic, 2θ (2°, 6°, 10°, 12°, 16° and 18°)]. The average crystalline size of mRH-SNP and as-prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP as revealed by BET is 3.027 nm and 5.886 nm, respectively (Table 3).

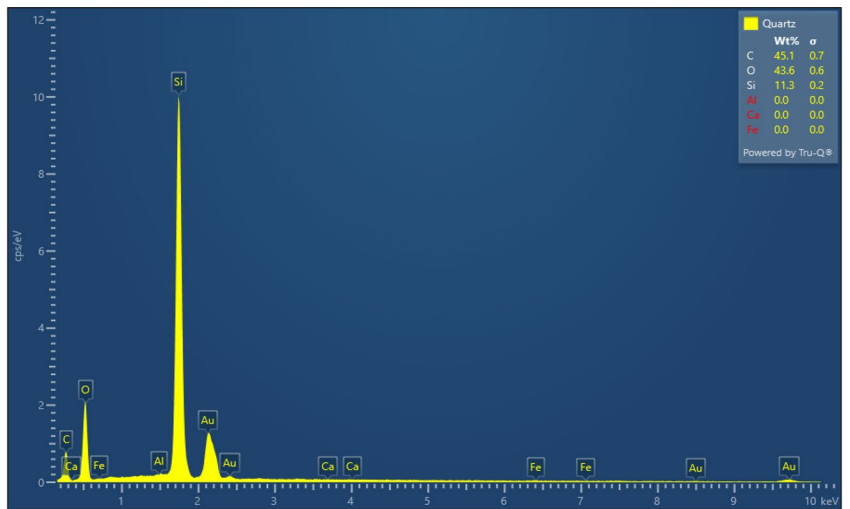
### Box–Behnken design, model fitness and statistical analysis

Table 4 presents the experimental and predicted percentage of MBD photodegraded in solution (responses) at different process parameters (variables) generated by Box–Behnken design of Design-Expert software. At MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH and illumination time of 10 ppm, 15%, 6 and 75 min, respectively, and 96.51% of MBD was photodegraded. This was observed to be the maximum value for the percentage of MBD removed from solution. The results obtained were used to develop a mathematical model which relates the independent process parameters with percentage of MBD photodegraded for future prediction. At the observed maximum conditions, 97.16% of MBD was predicted to be photodegraded using TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP by the developed model represented as Eq. (4).

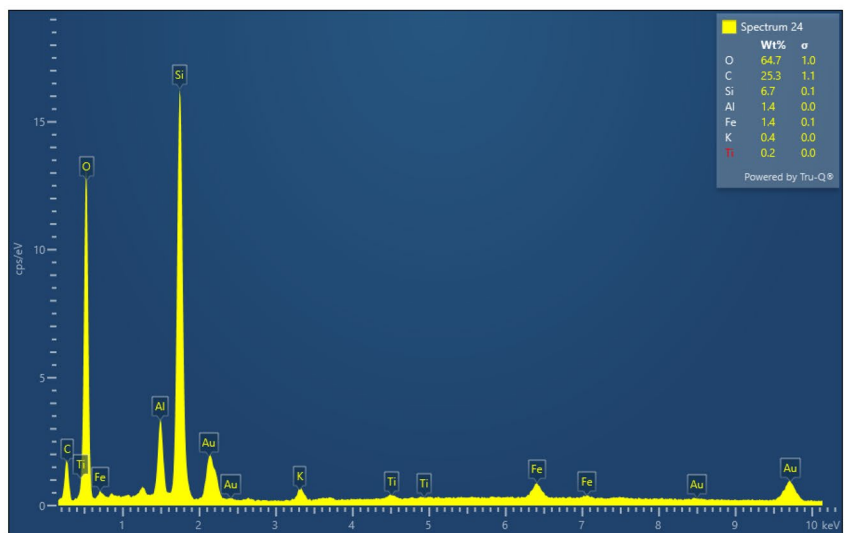
$$\begin{aligned} \text{PMD (\%)} = & + 71.56 - 9.29 \xi_1 + 6.71 \xi_2 - 2.34 \xi_3 \\ & + 7.34 \xi_4 - 1.32 \xi_1 \xi_2 + 1.66 \xi_1 \xi_3 - 4.91 \xi_1 \xi_4 \\ & - 1.29 \xi_2 \xi_3 + 0.63 \xi_2 \xi_4 + 0.6425 \xi_3 \xi_4 \\ & + 1.21 \xi_1^2 + 1.26 \xi_2^2 + 0.7347 \xi_3^2 - 1.14 \xi_4^2 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Other predicted values of PMD by Eq. (4) are presented in Table 4. In general, the experimental and predicted values of PMD exhibited excellent correlations as reported from

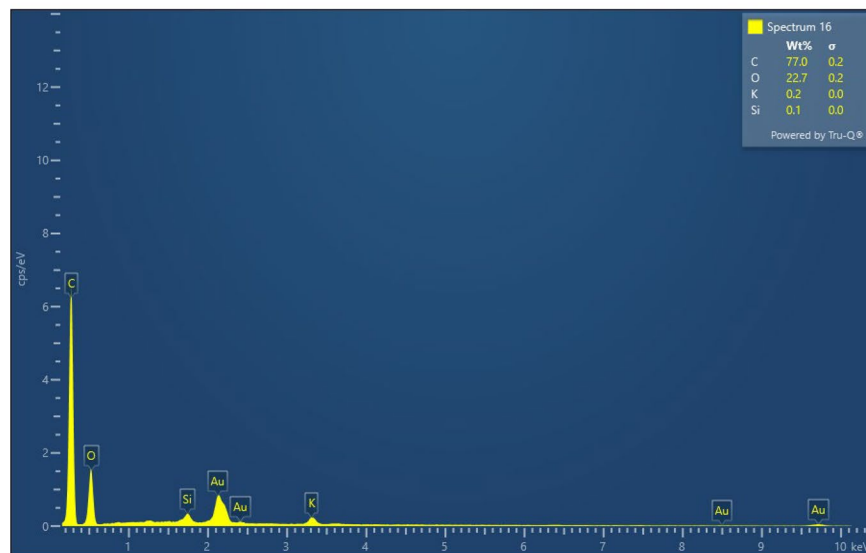
**Fig. 3** Energy dispersive X-ray of **a** raw rice husk **b** prepared  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  and **c** used  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$



(a)



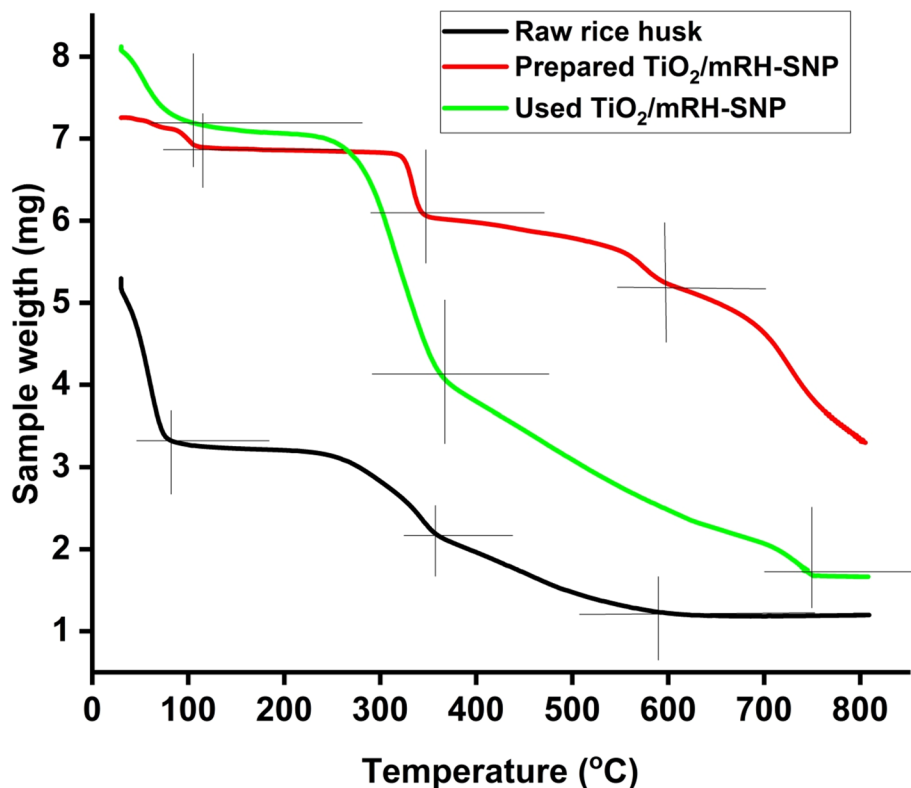
(b)



(c)

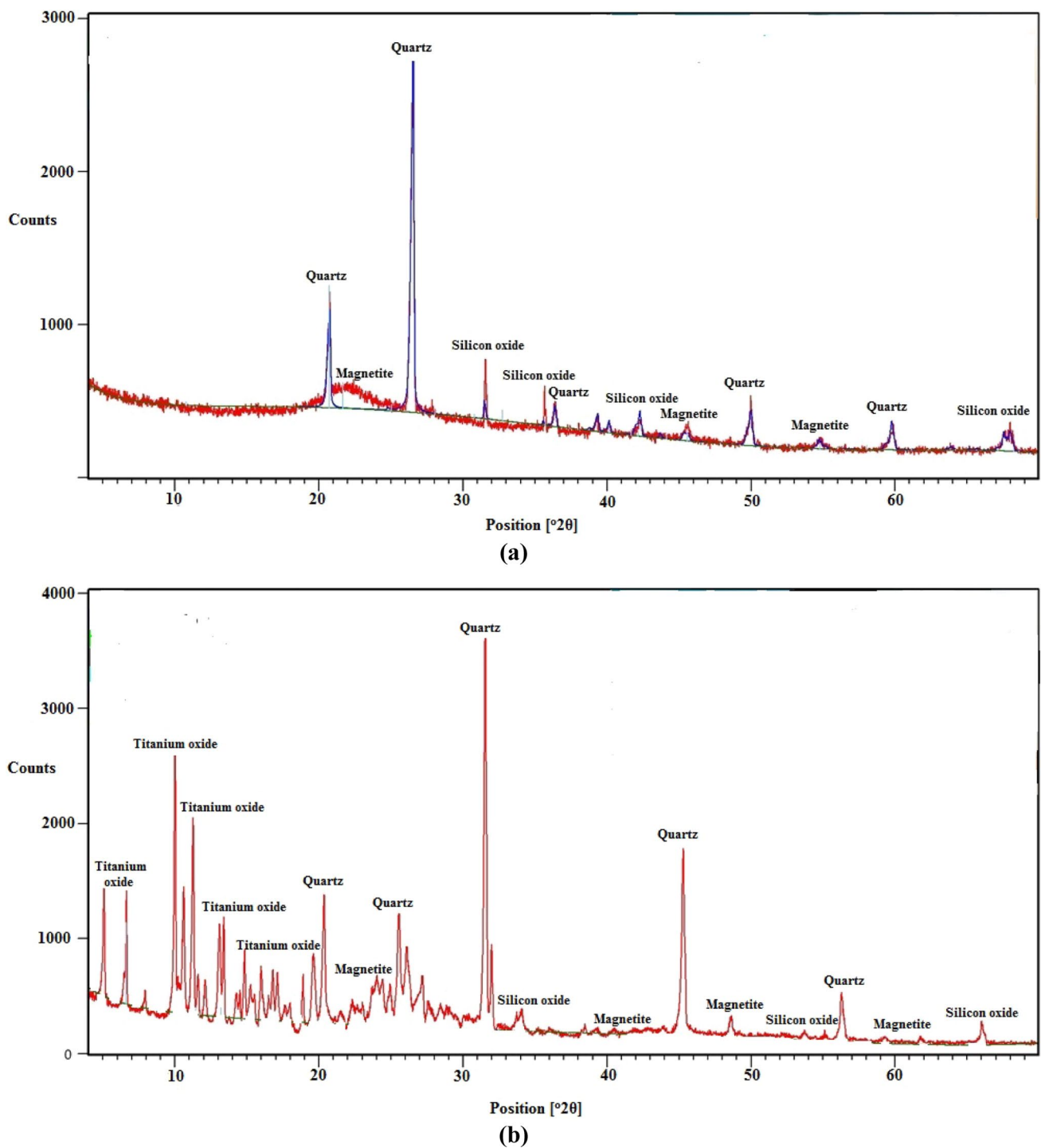


**Fig. 4** Thermogravimetric analysis of **a** raw rice husk **b** prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP and **c** used TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP



**Table 3** Brunauer–Emmett–Teller result of different photocatalysts used in previous and current studies

Photocatalyst	Total pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	Surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	Average pore diameter (nm)	References
Nanometer oxides SnO <sub>2</sub>	–	16.57	20.7	Yuan and Xu (2010)
Merck TiO <sub>2</sub>	–	6.4	–	Nainani et al. (2012)
Degussa P25 TiO <sub>2</sub>	–	50.00	–	Nainani et al. (2012)
Ag-TiO <sub>2</sub>	–	140.00	–	Nainani et al. (2012)
Prepared TiO <sub>2</sub>	–	150.00	–	Nainani et al. (2012)
Anatase TiO <sub>2</sub> nanoparticles	–	186.25	–	Wei et al. (2013)
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	0.14	111.0	5.0	Dagher et al. (2018)
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.13	76.0	6.9	Dagher et al. (2018)
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @SiO <sub>2</sub>	0.42	138.0	10.2	Dagher et al. (2018)
ZnO-pumice composite	0.0228	122.81	29.80	Yusuff et al. (2020)
Magnetic Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @SiO <sub>2</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub>	–	181	–	Bielan et al. (2020)
Cu–Fe/TiO <sub>2</sub>	–	2.10	–	Khan et al. (2021)
ZnO-coal fly ash400	0.230	58.8	80.0	Yusuff et al. (2022)
CuO@TiO <sub>2</sub>	3.12 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	19.0	6.08	Hamad et al. (2022)
Pure ZnO	0.010	22.27	1.453	Nnodim et al. (2022)
Green N-ZnO	0.055	113.3	2.118	Nnodim et al. (2022)
MnCo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	–	155.0	–	Jiménez-Miramontes et al. (2022)
RH-SNP	0.017	38.11	1.832	Current study
mRH-SNP	0.032	54.92	3.027	Current study
TiO <sub>2</sub> /mRH-SNP	0.075	144.06	5.886	Current study



**Fig. 5** XRD pattern of **a** mRH-SNP and **b** prepared TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP

the correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ -value) of 0.9569 obtained from the plot of  $PMD_{exp}$  versus  $PMD_{pred}$  values presented in Fig. 6. This suggests high degree of model fitness for future prediction. The model could effectively explain 95.69% of the process parameters investigated in the study for PMD

prediction while only 4.31% of the variables could not be explained by the developed model.

Table 5 presents the analysis of variance (ANOVA) results obtained to substantiate the model fitness and significance. The  $F$ -value (a ratio of model mean square to residual error) and  $p$ -value were used as the tools for

**Table 4** Box–Behnken design parameters, experimental and predicted responses

Run	MBD initial concentration ppm	TiO <sub>2</sub> loading %	pH	Illumination time Min	PMD <sub>exp</sub> %	PMB <sub>pred</sub> %
1	30	5	10	45	63.79	65.8
2	50	5	6	45	60.11	59.35
3	50	15	2	45	65.45	64.89
4	50	15	6	15	61.08	59.90
5	10	15	2	45	89.91	86.78
6	30	5	6	15	61.53	58.25
7	30	25	2	45	86.42	83.89
8	50	15	10	45	61.73	63.54
9	10	15	10	45	79.54	78.79
10	50	25	6	45	67.84	70.13
11	30	15	10	75	76.88	76.80
12	10	5	6	45	75.74	75.29
13	30	15	6	45	72.98	71.56
14	30	25	6	15	70.34	70.41
15	30	15	6	45	69.7	71.56
16	10	15	6	75	96.51	97.16
17	10	15	6	15	67.57	68.65
18	30	15	6	45	70.04	71.56
19	30	5	6	75	73.06	71.68
20	30	5	2	45	64.03	67.89
21	30	25	6	75	84.39	86.35
22	30	15	6	45	73.41	71.56
23	10	25	6	45	88.74	91.33
24	30	15	6	45	71.66	71.56
25	30	25	10	45	81.01	76.63
26	30	15	2	75	79.74	80.19
27	50	15	6	75	66.38	64.77
28	30	15	10	15	59.44	60.83
29	30	15	2	15	64.87	66.78

the ANOVA. A good model predictor of experimental values exhibits *F*-value higher than *F*-distribution value and a *p*-value less than 0.05. The ANOVA result revealed model *F*-value of 22.18 (higher than the *F*-distribution value of 2.57) and a *p*-value lesser than 0.0001 suggesting the model accuracy and significance to the study. Also, the examined parameters are significant to the model and contributed to the MBD photodegradation because their *F*-value is less than 0.05.

The percentage contribution of each of the process parameters to the percentage of MBD photodegraded from solution (response) was determined by Eq. (5), and the result is presented in Fig. 7. The result revealed high significance of MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH, illumination time and MBD initial

concentration–illumination time with percentage contribution of 42.35%, 22.09%, 2.68%, 26.49% and 3.95%, respectively.

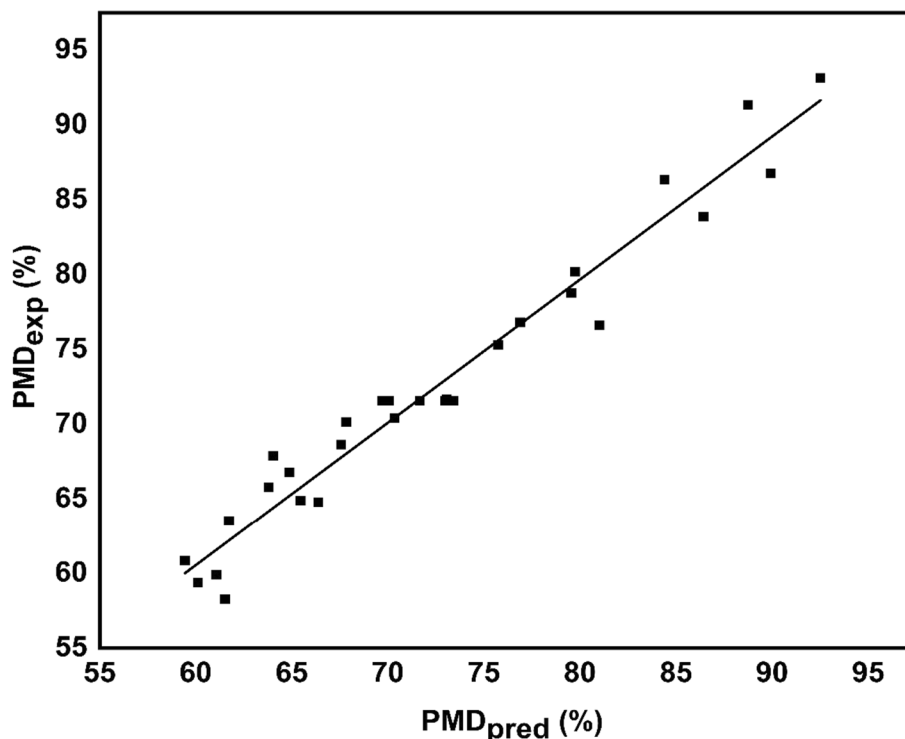
$$\text{Percentage contribution} = \left[ \frac{SS_i}{\sum SS_i} \right] \times 100\% (i \neq 0) \quad (5)$$

such that SS<sub>*i*</sub> = Sum of square of significant parameter.

### 3D response surface plots of process parameters effect

The combinatory effect of TiO<sub>2</sub> loading and MBD initial concentration on PMD at solution pH and illumination time of 6 and 45 min, respectively, is shown in Fig. 8a. PMD increases with increase in TiO<sub>2</sub> loading but decrease in

**Fig. 6** A plot of  $PMD_{exp}$  versus  $PMD_{pred}$



**Table 5** ANOVA results

Source	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F-value	p-value	
Model	2446.38	14	174.74	22.18	<0.0001	Significant
MBD initial concentration	1034.53	1	1034.53	131.3	<0.0001	
TiO <sub>2</sub> loading	539.75	1	539.75	68.5	<0.0001	
pH	65.47	1	65.47	8.31	0.012	
Illumination time	647.24	1	647.24	82.15	<0.0001	
$\xi_1\xi_2$	6.94	1	6.94	0.8812	0.3638	
$\xi_1\xi_3$	11.06	1	11.06	1.4	0.2559	
$\xi_1\xi_4$	96.43	1	96.43	12.24	0.0035	
$\xi_2\xi_3$	6.68	1	6.68	0.8481	0.3727	
$\xi_2\xi_4$	1.59	1	1.59	0.2015	0.6604	
$\xi_3\xi_4$	1.65	1	1.65	0.2096	0.6541	
$\xi_1^2$	9.47	1	9.47	1.2	0.2914	
$\xi_2^2$	10.27	1	10.27	1.3	0.2727	
$\xi_3^2$	3.5	1	3.5	0.4444	0.5158	
$\xi_4^2$	8.47	1	8.47	1.08	0.3174	
Residual	110.31	14	7.88			
Lack of fit	99.09	10	9.91	3.53	0.1176	Not significant
Pure error	11.22	4	2.8			
Cor total	2556.69	28				

MBD initial concentration. This observation could be attributed to increase in the absorption of light photon by MBD molecules resulting from increase in the active sites due to increase in catalyst loading which in return increases the PMD. Also, increase in the initial concentration of MBD causes the blockage of the catalyst active sites by the dye.

Thus, reduction in MBD initial concentration is a favorable condition. Figure 8b presents the combinatory effect of pH and MBD initial concentration on PMD at TiO<sub>2</sub> loading and illumination time of 15% and 45 min, respectively. The PMD slightly decreases as solution pH increases from 2 to 10 signifying low contribution of solution pH. At low pH, the



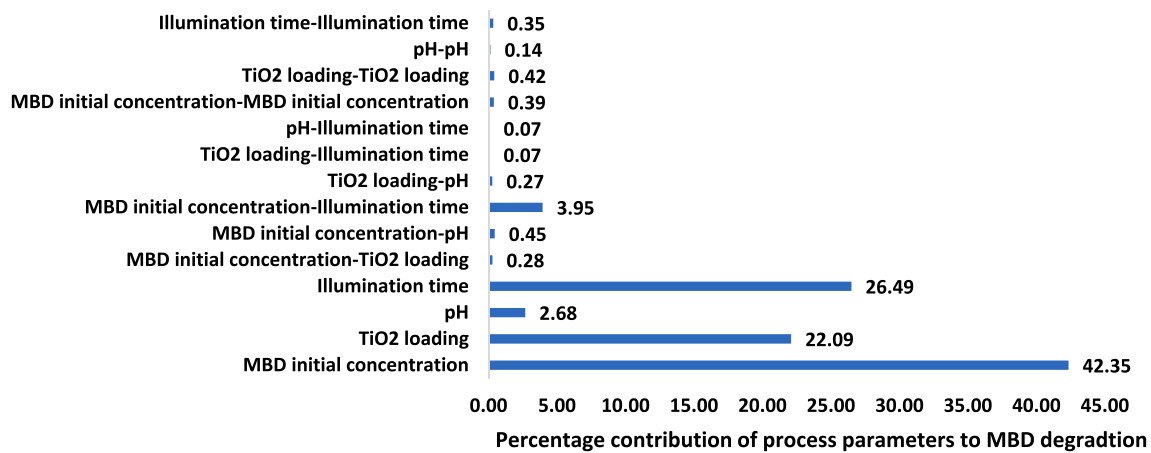


Fig. 7 Bar chart of process parameters effect

amount of MBD adsorbed onto TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP increased as a result of electrostatic forces of attraction between OH<sup>-</sup> on adsorbent surface and H<sup>+</sup> in solution. The interaction effect between MBD initial concentration and illumination time (Fig. 8c) also displayed increase in PMD with increase in illumination time but decrease in MBD initial concentration. This could be attributed to increase in the contact time between molecules of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP and MBD which enhances MBD degradation from solution. The combinatory effects of TiO<sub>2</sub> loading and pH (Fig. 8d) and pH and illumination time (Fig. 8f) revealed pH is insignificant because the PMD remains relatively constant as the pH was increased but increases with the increase in TiO<sub>2</sub> loading and illumination time. This is in support of the result presented in Fig. 7 where percentage contribution of pH to PMD was relatively low. The result presented in Fig. 8e shows high significance of TiO<sub>2</sub> loading and illumination time on PMD. It increases with the increase in the values of both parameters.

### Optimum point for MBD photodegradation

The optimum predicted condition by BBD was observed at MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH and illumination time of 10 ppm, 15%, 6 and 75 min, respectively. At this condition, the predicted PMD was 97.66% (Table 6). Further laboratory experiment was conducted at this condition, and 96.89% of MBD was photodegraded from solution. This affirms the effectiveness of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP in degrading MBD from solution. Comparison of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP with previously used adsorbents for various dyes removal from solution via photocatalytic degradation is presented in Table 1.

### Kinetics study

Linearized pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order kinetic models stated, respectively, as Eqs. (6) and (7) were used to analyze the kinetics of MBD photodegradation using TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP. The kinetic parameters  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  were determined via plots of  $\ln(q_t - q_e)$  against  $t$  (Fig. 9a) and  $t/q_t$  against  $t$  (Fig. 9b), respectively. The correlation coefficient  $R^2$  for each plot and the kinetic parameters are presented in Table 7. The result revealed experimental data to be well-fitted into pseudo-second-order kinetic model with  $R^2$  of 0.999.

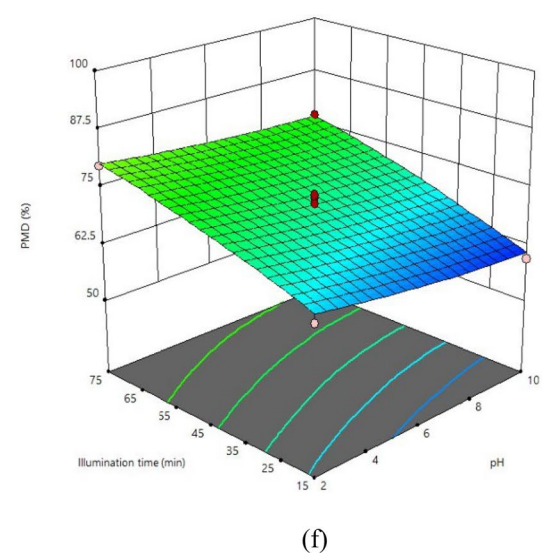
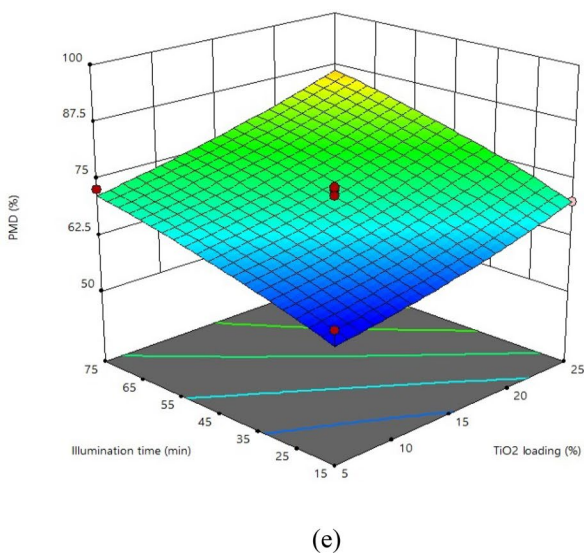
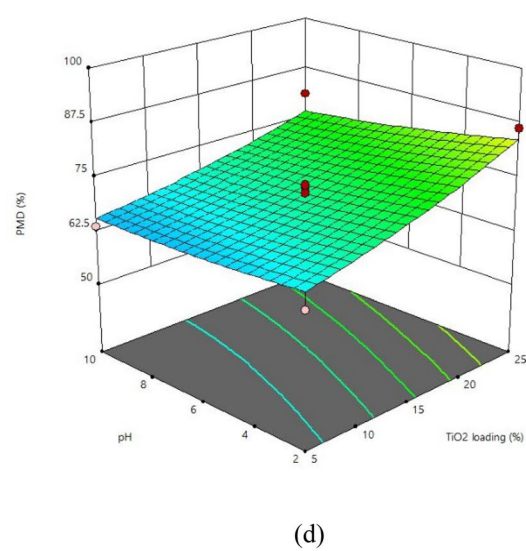
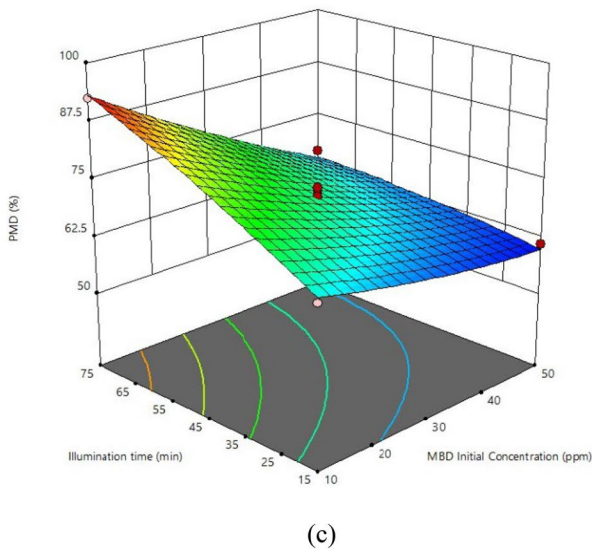
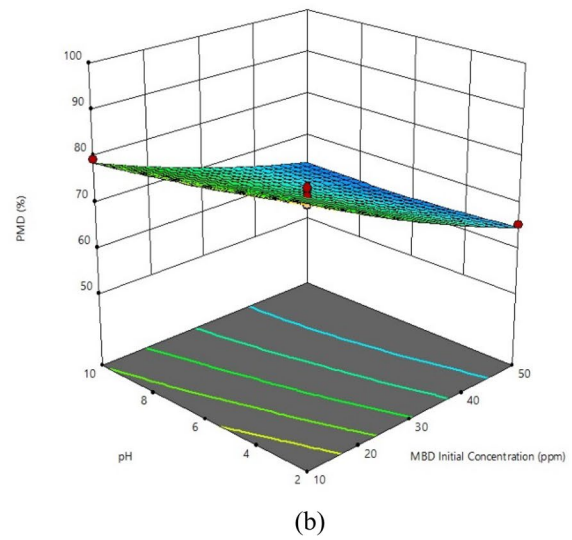
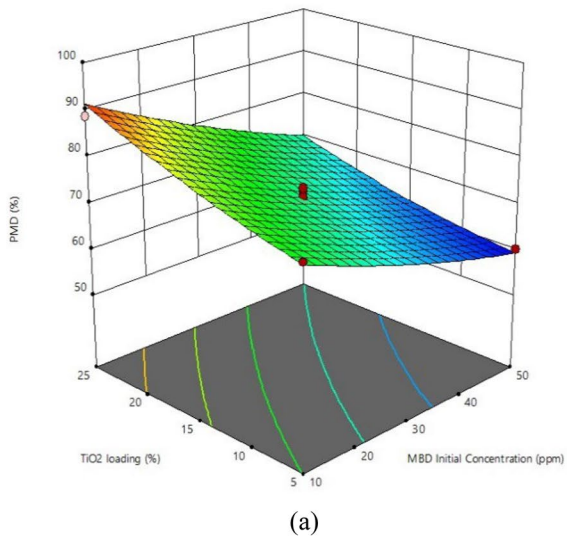
$$\ln(q_e - q_t) = \ln q_e - k_1 t \tag{6}$$

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e} \tag{7}$$

where  $q_e$  = equilibrium experimental adsorption capacity (mg g<sup>-1</sup>),  $q_t$  = adsorption capacity at illumination time  $t$  (mg g<sup>-1</sup>),  $k_1$  = pseudo-first-order rate constant (min<sup>-1</sup>) and  $k_2$  = pseudo-second-order rate constant (g mg<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>).

### Temperature effect on MBD photodegradation using TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP

The reaction temperature is an essential factor which should be considered to know how a photocatalyst behave toward the degradation of a pollutant in solution. In this study, the degradation efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP with TiO<sub>2</sub> loading of 15% was investigated between 30 and 70 °C for MBD solution with initial concentration of 10 ppm at a pH of 6 for an illumination period of 75 min. The result (Fig. 10) revealed a steady increase in the percentage of MBD degraded from 81.06 to 91.86% between 30 °C and 50 °C after which the percentage degraded reduced to 83.28%



**Fig. 8** 3D response surface of **a** MBD initial concentration (ppm) and TiO<sub>2</sub> loading (%) **b** MBD initial concentration (ppm) and pH **c** MBD initial concentration (ppm) and illumination time (min) **d** TiO<sub>2</sub> loading (%) and pH **e** TiO<sub>2</sub> loading (%) and illumination time (min), and **f** pH and illumination time (min) on MBD photocatalytic degradation

**Table 6** Predicted and experimental values of PMD at optimum predicted point by BBD

MBD initial concentration ppm	TiO <sub>2</sub> loading %	pH	Illumination time min	PMD <sub>pred</sub> %	PMB <sub>exp</sub> %
10	15	6	75	97.66	96.89

between 50 °C and 70 °C. The increase in the number of free radicals produced in solution as a result of more bubbles formation (at a temperature below 50 °C) might be responsible for the steady increase in the percentage of MBD degraded. Under this condition, the rate of MBD molecules oxidation at TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP interface is improved. Above 50 °C, the oxygen saturation level was reduced and this hindered the formation of reactive superoxide radicals. This is an essential mechanism step needed to capture photogenerated electrons in order to improve ·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> formation, and thus, a reduction in the percentage of MBD degraded was noticed (Herrmann 1999). The result obtained was similar to the study conducted by Sodeinde et al. (2022) which applied reduced graphene oxide-ZnO as photocatalyst to degrade chloramphenicol in solution using UV light.

**Table 7** Kinetic study of MBD photodegradation using TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP

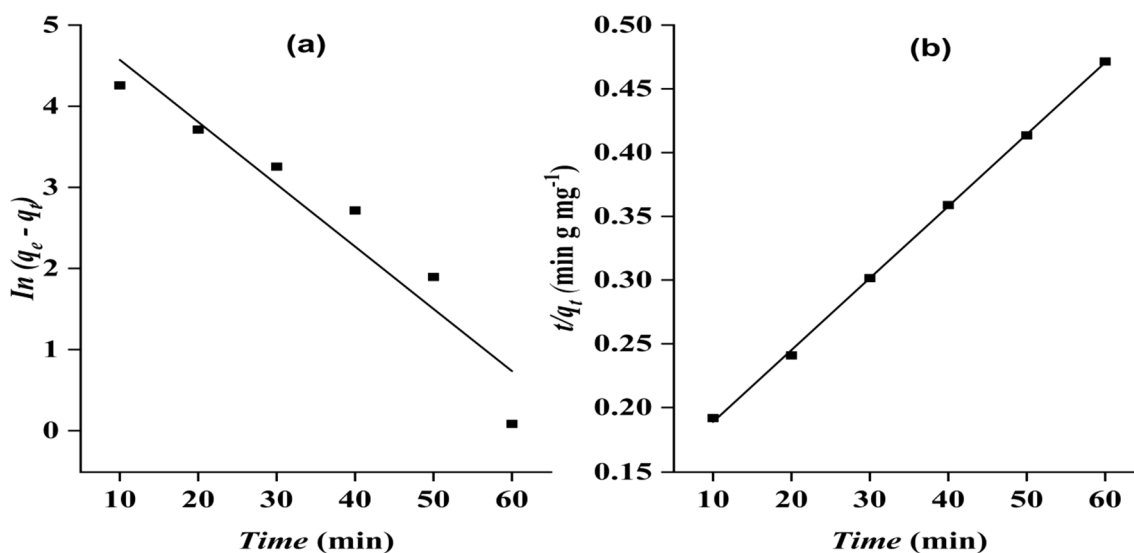
Pseudo-first-order		Pseudo-second-order	
$k_1 \times 10^{-2}$	$R^2$	$k_2 \times 10^{-4}$	$R^2$
7.67	0.917	2.40	0.999

**Reusability of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP**

Figure 11 presents the reusability of TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP for MBD photodegradation at the optimum predicted point after five consecutive cycles. The photodegradation efficiency decreases from 91.89 to 57.60%. This resulted from the active sites blockage on TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP surface by the adsorbed dye molecules which in return reduce the rate of MBD degradation. The adsorbed dye molecules increase the active radicals (·OH and ·O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) needed for MBD degradation. At given illumination time and TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP dosage, the active radicals formed on the regenerated catalyst surface remain constant as the reaction cycle continues. Thus, the percentage of MBD degraded reduces as the catalyst was reused due to insufficient ·OH radicals. Table 8 compares the reusability and stability of some previous photocatalysts used for degradation of pollutants (majorly dyes) with present study.

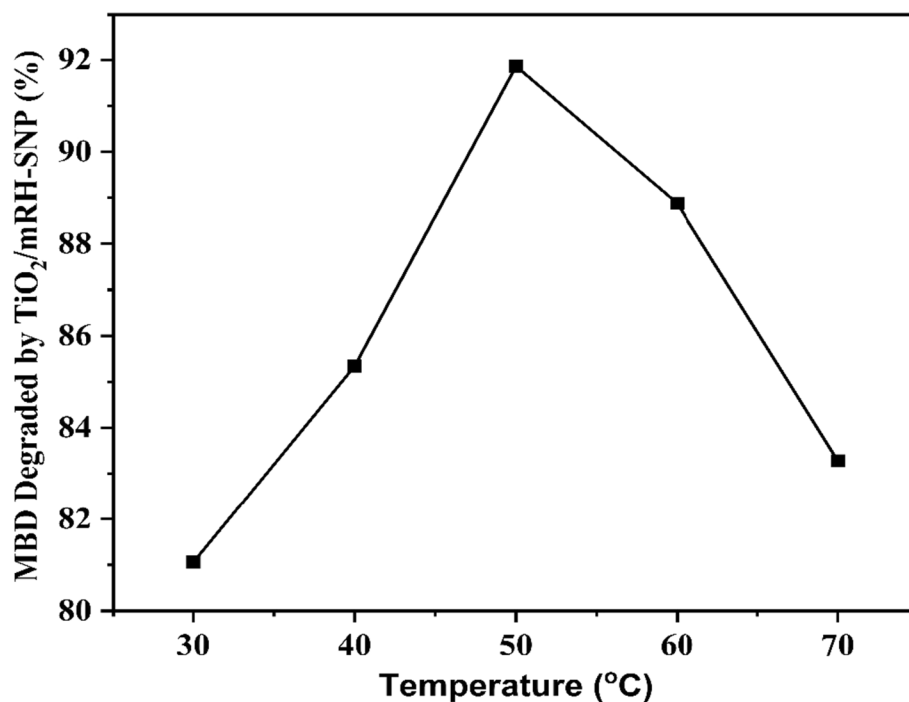
**Proposed photocatalysis mechanism of MBD by TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP**

The first stage of the photocatalytic degradation mechanism of MBD by TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP involves electron hole pairs

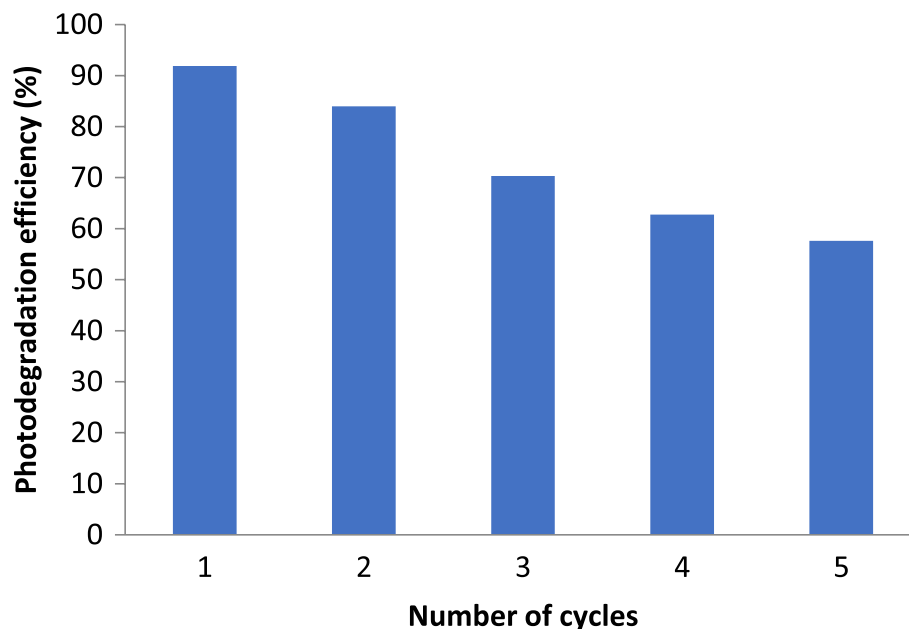


**Fig. 9** Kinetic plot of **a** pseudo-first order and **b** pseudo-second order for MBD photodegradation using TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP

**Fig. 10** Temperature effect on MBD photodegradation using  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$



**Fig. 11** Influence of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{mRH-SNP}$  reusability on MBD photodegradation at optimum predicted point



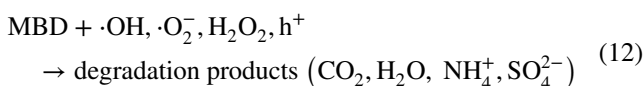
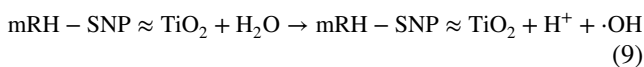
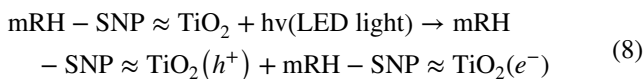
separation influenced by the absorbance of LED light as shown in Eq. (8). The irradiation of the photocatalyst by the LED light separates the electron/pairs. The next mechanism path generates radicals in solution via the oxidation of  $\text{mRH-SNP} \approx \text{TiO}_2$  surface bound into hydroxyl radical ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ) by the valence band hole ( $\text{h}^+$ ) in both materials as presented in Eq. (9). Nonetheless, the electrons present in  $\text{TiO}_2$  conduction band recombine with the holes available in the valence band of  $\text{mRH-SNP}$  and react with oxygen

to form reactive superoxide radicals as shown in Eq. (10). Further reaction of superoxide radicals with hydrogen ions in solution and conduction band electron occurs Eq. (11) to form hydrogen peroxide. These radicals ( $\cdot\text{OH}$  and  $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ ) and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  possess excellent reactive and oxidative attributes to effectively degrade MBD molecules into harmless products in the presence of valence band hole as shown in Eq. (12) (Salama et al. 2018).



**Table 8** Comparison of previous photocatalysts reusability and stability with present study

Photocatalyst	Pollutant	Reusability number/cycles	Light source	Efficiency reduction	References
TiO <sub>2</sub> /mRH-SNP	Methylene blue	5	LED lamp	91.89% to 57.60%	Current study
Reduced graphene oxide-ZnO	Chloramphenicol	4	UV light	87% to 68%	Sodeinde et al. (2022)
CuO@TiO <sub>2</sub>	AR8 dye	5	UV light	≈ 90% (<4.5%)	Hamad et al. (2022)
ZnO/pumice composite	Textile dye effluent	5	Sunlight	87.14% to 38.12%	Yusuff et al. (2020)
g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> @polyaniline	Congo red	4	Solar light	≈ 100% to 90.1%	Alenizi et al. (2019)
TiO <sub>2</sub> @NH <sub>2</sub> -MIL-88B(Fe)	Methylene blue	5	LED lamp	99% (Stable)	Li et al. (2018)
g-AP-pAA/TiO <sub>2</sub> -Au	Methyl violet	5	Sunlight	99% to 90%	Sarkar et al. (2015)



### Conclusions

Magnetized TiO<sub>2</sub>-supported SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, synthesized from rice husk, was applied as a photocatalyst to degrade MBD in aqueous solution using LED lamp as light source. Box–Behnken design was employed to design the experiment at varying values of MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH and illumination time. At MBD initial concentration, TiO<sub>2</sub> loading, pH and illumination time of 10 ppm, 15%, 6 and 75 min, respectively, 96.51% of MBD was removed. A correlation coefficient of 0.9569 between predicted and experimental values of PMD substantiates the effectiveness of developed model. ANOVA also revealed high significance and contributory effects of the mathematical model and the examined process parameters on the photodegradation process. Experimental data fitted well into pseudo-second-order kinetic model. The temperature effect revealed optimum MBD photocatalytic degradation at 50 °C by TiO<sub>2</sub>/mRH-SNP. Characterization revealed the effects of magnetization and photocatalyst on the synthesized SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles from rice husk. In conclusion, magnetized TiO<sub>2</sub>-silica nanoparticles from rice husk could be effectively used to degrade MBD in solution.

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

### Declarations

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no conflict of interest in terms of financial or personal nature for the publication of this article.

**Ethical approval** This declaration is not applicable.

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