



A New Combination Method of N-doped TiO₂ Nanoparticles Synthesis for Heavy Metal Ions Cr(VI) Photoreduction Applications

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Abstract

Through a combination of biosynthesis and hydrothermal methods, N-doped TiO₂ photocatalyst has been successfully synthesized using various concentrations of ammonia as a nitrogen source, namely 10% w/w (NTO10), 20% w/w (NTO20), 35% w/w (NTO35), and 50% w/w (NTO50). The synthesis of TiO₂ was conducted using *Aloe vera* (L) Burm F. rind extract as a natural capping agent via the biosynthesis method, followed by a nitrogen doping process via the hydrothermal method. The X-ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis revealed that all phases were anatase. According to the results of the UV-Vis Diffuse Reflectance Spectroscopy (UV-Vis DRS) analysis using the Tauc-Plot method, all N-doped TiO₂ samples showed a decrease in the energy gap compared to the TO sample. This indicates that the doping of TiO₂ using nitrogen has been successfully doped into TiO₂. The photocatalytic activity of N-doped TiO₂ was evaluated for the photoreduction of the Cr(VI) model pollutant using a 24-watt LED lamp as a visible light source for 120 minutes. The results indicate that the NTO35 is the best-prepared N-doped TiO₂, which showed a reduced rate for the Cr (VI) model pollutant of 50.88%, or two times greater than that of undoped TiO₂.

1. Introduction

Environmental pollution in water, soil, and air has recently become a significant concern for the community and the government [1]. Water, as one of the essential substances supporting human life, has increased in demand since it has been continuously polluted by countless contaminants over the last century [2]. Mostly, the main sources of water contamination are caused by the rapid growth of the industrial sector, such as mining, leather, steel, pigments, textile, and electroplating industries [3, 4]. These industries can potentially produce large amounts of wastewater containing hazardous inorganic chemicals, like heavy metals [5].

Chromium (Cr) is an example of a heavy metal that poses the highest risk to aquatic ecosystems due to its toxicity, non-biodegradability, and high propensity for accumulation in living organisms [6]. Chromium can exist in different oxidation states, such as Cr (VI) and Cr (III) [7]. Cr(III) is relatively less mobile, less toxic, and can

easily be found in trace amounts as an essential nutrient in various biological pathways [8]. On the other hand, Cr(VI) is highly reactive, hazardous, and toxic. When Cr(VI) accumulates in the human body, it causes cancer, chronic ulcers, dermatitis, gastrointestinal system, as well as kidney and lung damage [9, 10]. Therefore, it is highly desirable to investigate appropriate methods for converting Cr(VI) to Cr(III) in contaminated wastewater.

Photocatalytic reduction is believed to be one of the most effective and efficient methods that are commonly used for converting Cr(VI) to Cr(III) by employing photocatalysts [11]. Among all the various photocatalysts, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is often chosen due to its low cost, non-toxicity, outstanding physiochemical properties, and superior chemical stability [12]. As commonly known, TiO₂ nanoparticles can be synthesized using solvothermal, sol-gel, hydrothermal, and sonochemical methods [13, 14]. However, these methods frequently obtain nanoparticles with several shortcomings,

including a very high tendency to aggregate, an uneven distribution of particle size and shape, and the formation of nanoclusters [15]. Moreover, these methods also require complicated procedures and high costs due to the necessity for high pressure and energy [16].

Recently, nanoparticle biosynthesis methods have been widely used to overcome the limitations of conventional methods [17, 18]. Natural products, such as plant extracts containing biomolecules, have been intensively used as capping agents [19]. These natural biomolecules were mainly composed of polyphenols, which have been found to play an active role in the biosynthesis of nanoparticles from any plant extract capable of forming various shapes and sizes of nanoparticles with enhanced active surface area, characteristics and properties [16]. Therefore, biosynthesis can be considered the safe and environmentally friendly approach for many applications that have used TiO₂ nanoparticles [20, 21].

However, TiO₂ photocatalyst in the anatase phase has limited application under visible light irradiation due to its inherent high band gap energy (3.2 eV) [22]. In order to overcome this limitation, many efforts have been made to enable its visible light response by doping with transition metals (Ag, Cd, Cu) or non-metallic elements (C, S, N) [23, 24, 25]. Among these, nitrogen is the most preferred anionic dopant because of its ability to modify the electronic structure of TiO₂ by forming a new N 2p band above the O 2p valence band [26, 27]. This modification narrows the TiO₂ band gap and eventually shifts the optical absorption of this photocatalyst to the visible light spectrum [28].

In this work, we report the green synthesis of N-doped TiO₂ through the biosynthesis method using *Aloe vera* (L.) Burm f. as a natural capping agent, combined with a nitrogen doping process through the hydrothermal method for photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) under visible light irradiation. The effects of various ammonia concentrations on the characteristic and ability of this synthesized photocatalyst on the photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) were investigated.

2. Experiments

2.1. Materials and Tools

The materials used in this study were TiCl₄ (Merck), *Aloe vera* (L.) Burm. f. rind extract, ammonia 25% (Merck), ethanol (analytical grade, Merck), potassium dichromate (K₂Cr₂O₇, Merck), distilled water, H₂SO₄ (analytical grade, Merck), 1,5-diphenylcarbazide (Merck). All chemicals were used as received. Glassware, magnetic stirrer, Whatman filter paper, oven, analytical balance, centrifuge, pH meter, hot plate, and light source (24-watt yellow LED lamp, VISALUX) were used in the research. The instruments used were UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Genesys 20), UV-Vis DRS (SPEC ORD 210 Plus), SEM-EDX (SEM SU3500, XRD (XPRT PRO PANalytical PW 30/40), and GSA (Quantachrome Nova 4200e).

2.2. Preparation of *Aloe vera* (L) Burm f. Extract

Aloe vera (L) Burm f. leaf samples were removed and separated from the gel, which was thoroughly washed and crushed. Then, 10 g of the samples were boiled in 100 mL of deionized water for 1 hour at 70°C. Leaf extract was filtered using Whatman filter paper.

2.3. Biosynthesis of TiO₂ Nanoparticles

A solution of titanium chloride (1 M, TiCl₄) was prepared in 100 mL of deionized water. Then 0.5 mL of the leaf extract was added dropwise under constant stirring (pH~7). The nanoparticles formed during the process were collected by centrifugation (10,000 rpm) and repeatedly washed with ethanol. The nanoparticles were rewashed with distilled water and dried at 100°C for 10 hours for further characterization.

2.4. Preparation of N-doped TiO₂ Powder

Briefly, 5 mL of 1 M TiCl₄ solution was placed into the flask under vigorous magnetic stirring in a closed state. After that, 50 mL of deionized water was added, followed by 0.5 mL of *Aloe vera* (L.) Burm f. leaf extract dropwise under continuous stirring. Then, 1 M NaOH was added until pH 7 and vigorously stirred for 24 hours. The formed nanoparticles were separated using centrifugation and then continuously washed using ethanol and distilled water to remove impurities. The obtained precipitate was dried at 100°C for 10 hours and calcined at 500°C for 1 hour to form TiO₂ powder.

Herein, the obtained TiO₂ powder was doped with nitrogen through hydrothermal. Respectively, 0.05 g of TiO₂, 12 mL of ethanol, 8 mL of deionized water, and 10% w/w ammonia (as N source) were added into a 50 mL vessel cylinder. This mixture was stirred for 2 hours and then heated at 180°C for 12 hours in an autoclave. After that, the obtained precipitate was filtered and washed with distilled water. Finally, it was dried at 105°C for 12 hours and calcined at 500°C for 1 hour. The resulting product was labeled as NTO10. The same steps were repeated for variations in the addition of NH₄OH 20% w/w, 35% w/w, and 50% w/w, labeled as NTO20, NTO35, and NTO50, respectively. The synthesis of N-doped TiO₂ without additional NH₄OH (labeled as TO) was used as a control.

2.5. Characterization of N-doped TiO₂ Nanoparticles

The samples of N-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles were characterized using X-ray Diffraction (XRD) to observe the crystalline phase and Diffuse Reflectance Spectra UV-Vis (DRS UV-Vis) to investigate the optical properties. The surface morphology and composition of the samples were analyzed using scanning electron microscopy-energy dispersive X-ray (SEM-EDX). Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method was employed to determine the specific surface area, pore diameter, and pore volume.

2.6. Photocatalytic Activity Test of N-doped TiO₂ Nanoparticles

TiO₂ nanoparticles of as much as 0.05 g were added to a solution containing 100 mL of Cr (VI) with a 10 mg/L concentration. A 6 N H₂SO₄ was added to the solution until

pH 2. The solution was stirred for 30 minutes in the dark. The solution was divided into ten test tubes, and each test tube contained 10 mL of solution. Then five test tubes were irradiated under a 24-watt LED light, and the other five test tubes were carried out in the dark for 120 minutes each. A total of 10 mL of the solution was taken every 30 minutes and centrifuged. The absorbance was determined using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer at 543 nm, and the dye used was 1,5-diphenylcarbazide 0.5%.

3. Results and Discussion

Photocatalyst N-doped TiO₂ was synthesized through a combination of the biosynthesis method using *Aloe vera* (L.) Burmf. as a capping agent in TiO₂ preparation, followed by the hydrothermal method on the nitrogen doping process. All synthesized photocatalysts were obtained in powder form and were yellowish-white in color. This is different when compared to pure TiO₂, which is pure white. This color change was caused by modifying the TiO₂ band gap by nitrogen doping, which shifts the optical absorption of this photocatalyst [22]. A detailed explanation of this information will be discussed in the optical properties section supported by UV-Vis spectroscopy analysis.

3.1. X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

The crystalline phase of the synthesized TiO₂ photocatalyst was determined using XRD. Figure 1(a-d) shows the typical XRD pattern of all synthesized photocatalyst samples. Respectively, the XRD peaks at $2\theta = 25.3, 37.87, 48.05, 53.93, 55.10,$ and 62.79 can be assigned to (101), (004), (200), (105), and (211) crystal planes, which are often taken as the characteristic peaks of anatase TiO₂ (ICSD No.9855). No peaks of brookite or rutile were detected, indicating the high purity of these synthesized photocatalysts.

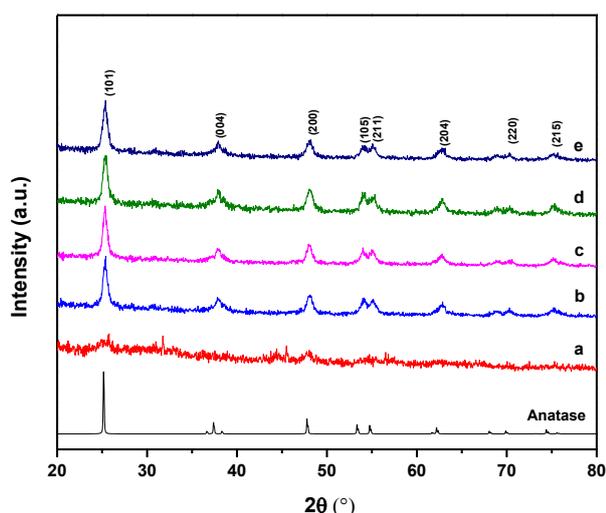


Figure 1. XRD diffraction patterns of a) TO, b) NTO10, c) NTO20, d) NTO35, and e) NTO50

3.2. The Optical Properties

The optical characterization of the synthesized photocatalyst was determined using UV-Vis DRS. As shown in Figure 2 (a-e), the samples of NTO10, NTO20, NTO35, and NTO50 show increased absorption in the visible region, especially at 400–550 nm compared to the undoped TiO₂ (TO sample). It is confirmed that since the undoped TiO₂ has a strong absorption on the UV light, it appears in pure white color. In contrast, shifting absorption to the visible region caused all the synthesized N-doped TiO₂ to appear yellowish [22].

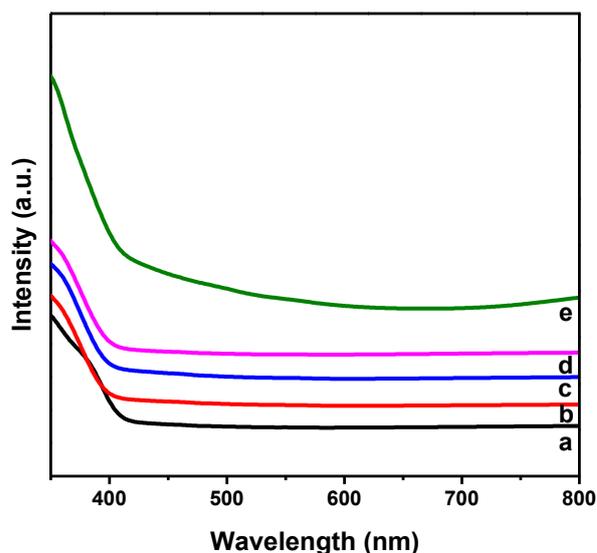


Figure 2. UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of a) TO, b) NTO10, c) NTO20, d) NTO35, and e) NTO50

Figure 3 shows the relationship between the absorption coefficient and the absorbed energy/photon ($h\nu$). The X-axis shows the absorbed energy/photon ($h\nu$) value as an independent variable. The Y-axis shows the product of the absorption coefficient with energy $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ as the dependent variable. Using the Tauc plot method, the band gap of the photocatalyst can be determined by drawing a straight line between the outcome of the absorption coefficient [29].

By applying the Tauc plot method, the band gap energies for all of the synthesized photocatalysts can be calculated. Figure 3 shows the band gap of all as-prepared N-doped TiO₂, which is lower than the intrinsic band gap of anatase TiO₂ (3.2 eV). The decrease in the band gap proves that nitrogen has been successfully doped into TiO₂ nanoparticles. It is found that nitrogen doping reduced the band gap energy of the synthesized photocatalysts by forming a new N 2p band between the O 2p and Ti 3d valence band in the TiO₂ electronic structure [22, 26]. Due to the low band gap energy, the synthesized photocatalyst can trigger electron migration from the valence band to the conduction band by absorbing energy from the visible light region [27, 28].

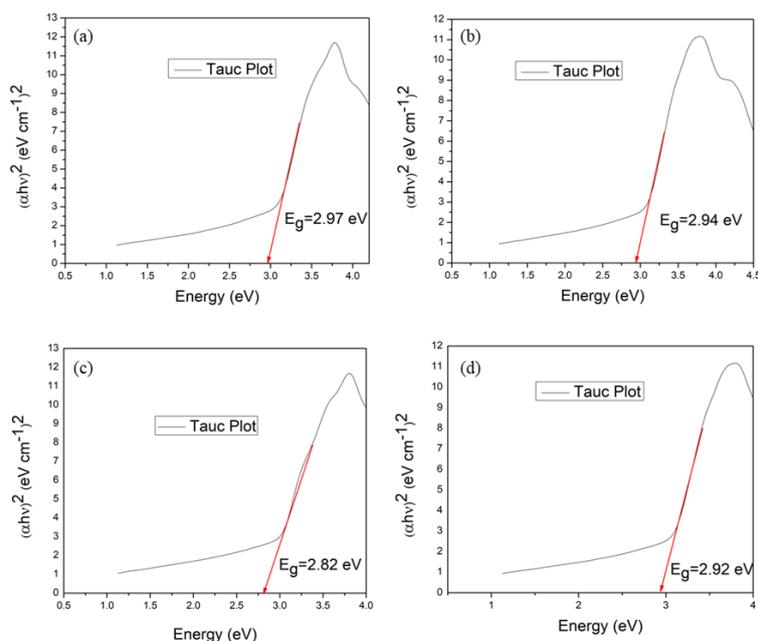


Figure 3. Graph of the energy gap (E_g) determination of a) NTO10, b) NTO20, c) NTO35, and d) NTO50

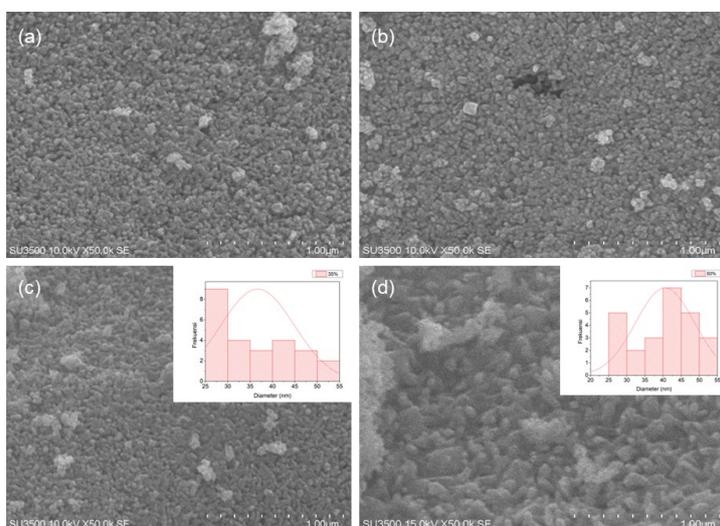


Figure 4. SEM images and distribution of N-doped TiO_2 nanoparticles: (a) NTO10, (b) NTO20, (c) NTO35, and (d) NTO50

As shown in Figure 3(b-c), the band gap energies of NTO10, NTO20, and NTO35 tend to decrease as nitrogen concentration increases. However, the band gap energy of NTO50 shows a slight increase compared to NTO35. It was found that nitrogen concentration with 35% w/w is an optimum N-doping level corresponding to high photoresponse for visible light. Here we assumed that at optimum nitrogen concentration, some localized N 2p states are formed above the valence band in N-doped anatase, leading band gap energy to narrow and thus inducing a red shift at the edge of the optical absorption range [30, 31]. As the nitrogen concentration increases beyond the optimum level, the localized N 2p states are mixed with the valence band, causing a slight increase in the band gap energy [32].

3.3. Scanning Electron Microscope-Electron Dispersive X-Ray (SEM-EDX)

SEM characterization was carried out to determine the surface morphology of the synthesized

photocatalysts. Figure 4(a-d) shows the SEM images of all the synthesized N-doped TiO_2 . It is apparently seen from Figure 4(a-c) that the particles of NTO10, NTO20, and NTO35 are homogeneous spherical with sizes from 15–55 nm. The effect of *Aloe vera* (L) Burm F. extracts as a natural capping agent is observed in controlling the agglomeration and reducing the particle size of N-doped TiO_2 [33]. The uniformity of the NTO35 particles, as shown in the particle size distribution graph (Figure 4c), implies that the biomolecule of *Aloe vera* (L) Burm F. extract have a good association with N-doped TiO_2 nanoparticles during the synthesis process [16]. However, Figure 4d shows the uneven particle size distribution of NTO50. Although the *Aloe vera* (L) Burm F. extract has been proven to prevent agglomeration during synthesis, high concentrations of nitrogen dopants can still cause nanoparticles to form aggregates [34].

Characterization of Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX) aims to determine the elemental composition of the

synthesized photocatalyst. Figure 5 shows that NTO10, NTO20, NTO35, and NTO50 exhibit sharp and robust peaks in titanium (Ti), oxygen (O), and nitrogen (N). While the undoped TiO₂ (TO) only showed titanium (Ti)

and Oxygen (O) peaks. The appearance of the N element showed that N-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles had been successfully carried out by adding NH₄OH.

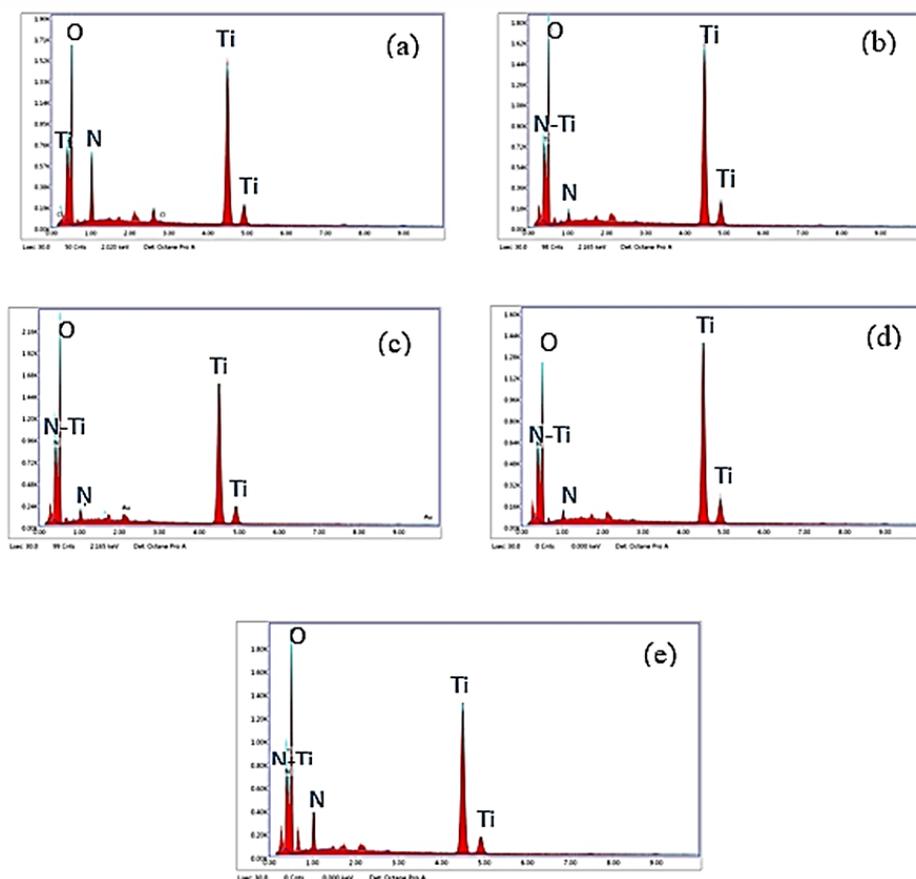


Figure 5. EDX spectrum of a) TO, b) NTO10, c) NTO20, d) NTO35, and e) NTO50

3.4. Surface Area Analysis

Surface area analysis determined the specific surface area, pore diameter, and pore volume of all synthesized photocatalysts. The results of the BET test can be seen in Figure 6. Based on Figure 6, the synthesized TiO₂ (TO) and 35% N-doped TiO₂ (NTO35) samples have an isotherm curve IV, indicating that the sample is a mesoporous solid with multiple pore sizes ranging from 6–8 nm.

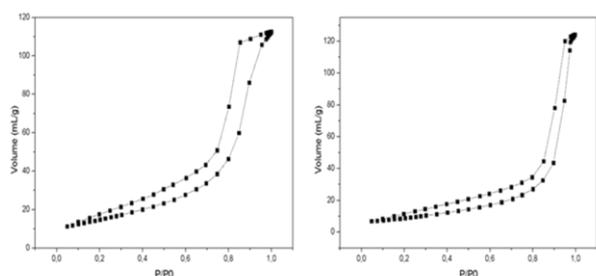


Figure 6. BET isotherm curves of (a) TO and (b) NTO35

The surface area of the photocatalyst is one of the essential parameters that can significantly affect photocatalytic activity. Table 1 presents the surface area, pore diameter, and pore volume using BET characterization. The surface area and pore diameter obtained in this study were 52.34 m²/g and 6.516 nm for TO and 31.81 m²/g; 1.47 nm for NTO35, respectively.

Table 1. Results of BET for specific surface area, pore diameter, and pore volume

No	Sample	Surface area (m ² /g)	Pore diameter(nm)	Pore volume (mL/g)
1	TiO ₂	52.34	6.516	0.174
2	N-doped TiO ₂	31.81	1.47	0.190

3.5. Photocatalytic Activity Test

The photocatalytic activity test was carried out to see the ability of the photocatalyst to reduce metal ions. In this study, the metal ion used is Cr (VI), which will be reduced to Cr (III) with a concentration of 10 mg/L under a 24-watt LED lamp irradiation. Cr(VI) solution was added with 1,5-diphenylcarbazide complexing with a concentration of 0.5% to produce a purplish-colored chelate complex⁴⁰. The complex reaction can be seen in Figure 7. Figure 8 shows the photoreduction ratio of Cr(VI) with all the synthesized photocatalysts under 120 minutes of visible light irradiation.

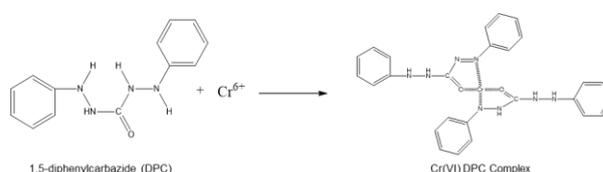


Figure 7. Reaction of Cr (VI)-DPC complex formation

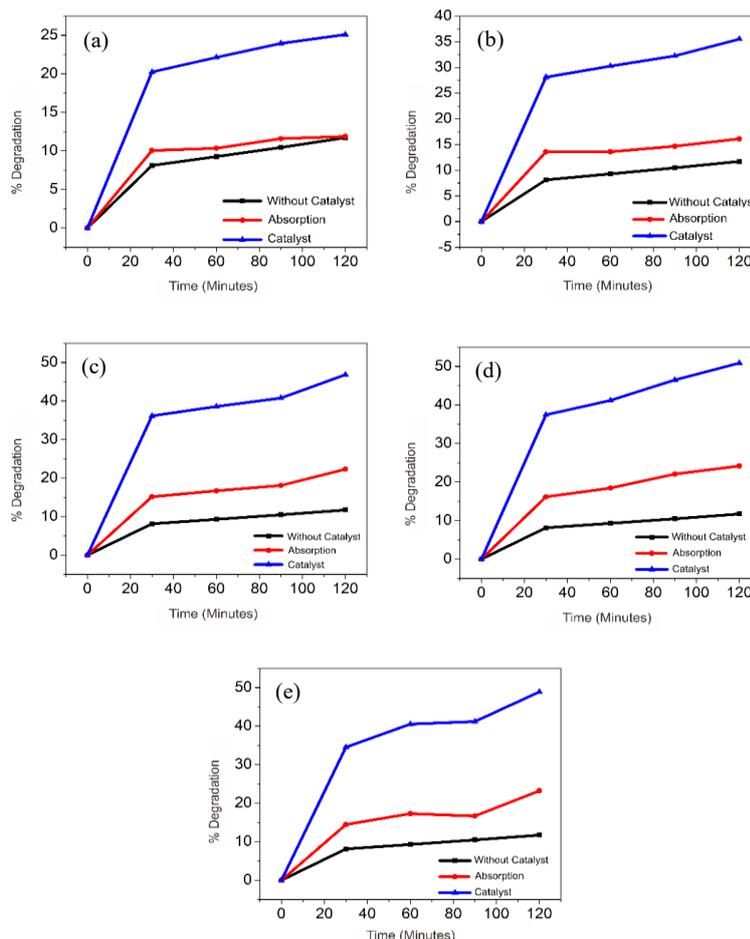
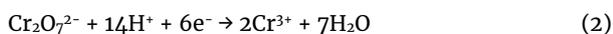
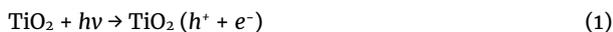


Figure 8. Reduction percentage of metal ions Cr (VI) at time variation of 0 to 120 minutes by a) TO, b) NTO10, c) NTO20, d) NTO35, e) NTO50 (blue= % total photoreduction (photocatalyst effect + absorption), red = % absorption of catalyst, black = % photoreduction of negative control)

Figure 8 shows that the photocatalyst and the absorption factor influence the reduction percentage of Cr (VI) ions. The reduction percentage increases as the irradiation time increases, leading to extending the photocatalytic reaction to reduce Cr (VI) to Cr (III). The reaction can be seen as follow:



The photocatalytic mechanism of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) reduction in nano-sized N-doped TiO₂ is illustrated in Figure 9. When N-doped TiO₂ is exposed to photons (light) with energy equal to or greater than the band gap energy, electrons in the valence band will be excited to the conduction band, causing the photocatalytic process to occur. Electrons (e⁻) that are excited to the valence band will react with metal ions Cr (VI) to produce metal ions Cr (III). The results of the photoreduction test for Cr (VI) metal ions with all the synthesized photocatalysts under 120 minutes irradiation are shown in Figure 10.

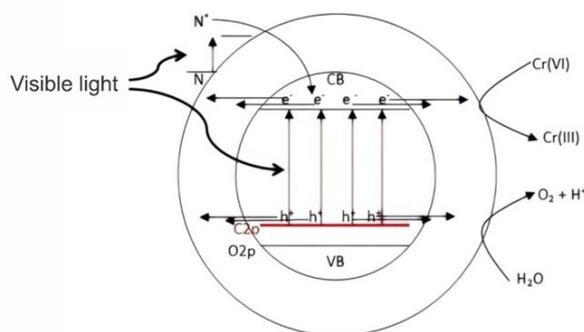


Figure 9. Mechanism of photoreduction of metal ion Cr (VI) to Cr (III)

Figure 10 shows that the synthesized N-doped TiO₂ with a nitrogen concentration of 35% w/w (NTO35) showed the highest photoreduction activity of 50.88% compared to other samples. Figure 10 shows that the highest photoreduction percentage of Cr(VI) was successfully accomplished by synthesized N-doped TiO₂ with a nitrogen concentration of 35% w/w (NTO35) under 120 minutes visible light irradiation. Approximately 50.88% of Cr(VI) was reduced from the aqueous solutions in the presence of this photocatalyst. Meanwhile, only 25.1%, 34.51%, 46.8%, and 48.89% of Cr(VI) were reduced by TO, NTO10, NTO20, and NTO50, respectively.

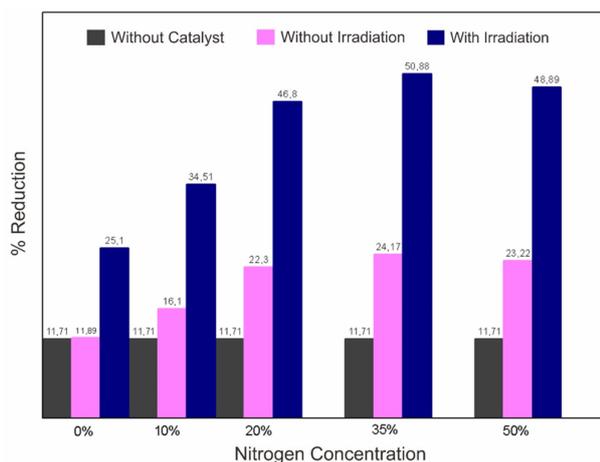


Figure 10. Bar chart of reduction percentage of metal ions Cr (VI) at time variation of 0 to 120 minutes by a) TO, b) NTO10, c) NTO20, d) NTO35, e) NTO50 (blue= % total photoreduction (photocatalyst effect + absorption), red = % absorption of catalyst, black = % photoreduction of negative control)

Here, the surface area, anatase fraction, and nitrogen doping were found to be the most important factors governing photocatalytic activity [22, 26]. Therefore, the obtained results indicated that synthesized N-doped TiO₂ photocatalyst using *Aloe vera* (L) Burm f. extract with the optimum nitrogen dopant concentration exhibited higher activity than other photocatalyst samples due to its higher specific surface area, a higher fraction of active anatase phase and higher absorption in the visible light region [35].

4. Conclusion

In summary, N-doped TiO₂ photocatalysts were successfully synthesized by combining biosynthesis and hydrothermal methods using *Aloe vera* (L) Burm F. extract as a natural capping agent. The nitrogen concentration of 35% w/w was suggested as the optimum dopant concentration to prepare N-doped TiO₂. Using synthesized NTO35 photocatalyst, about 50.88% of Cr(VI) could be reduced under 120 minutes visible light irradiation. The enhanced photocatalytic activity on the photoreduction of Cr(VI) was mainly attributed to the association of *Aloe vera* (L.) Burm F. extract in preventing the agglomeration and increasing the surface area during the TiO₂ synthesis process, as well as the influence of N-dopant in enhancing the anatase fraction and narrowing the band gap energy.

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