

Mesoporous Spongy Ni-Co-Oxides@Wheat Straw-Derived SiO₂ For Adsorption And Photocatalytic Degradation of Methylene Blue Pollutants

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1 **Mesoporous spongy Ni-Co-oxides@wheat straw-derived SiO₂ for**
2 **adsorption and photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue pollutants**

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10 **Abstract:**

11 The exploitation and employment of agricultural waste in polluted water treatment is one of
12 the most important cost-effective approaches. Therefore, a novel mesoporous spongy
13 adsorbent/photocatalyst was successfully synthesized through the grafting of nickel and cobalt
14 oxides nanocomposites with wheat straw-derived SiO₂. Nickel and cobalt oxides were added
15 to enhance the functionality of wheat straw-derived SiO₂. This synthesis methodology presents
16 a simplistic, cost-effective, and eco-approachable alternative to getting an adsorbent and
17 photocatalyst for the adsorption and photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB)
18 pollutants from wastewater. The modified wheat straw-derived SiO₂ (MWSS) was
19 characterized via XRD, SEM, EDX, TGA, FTIR, and nitrogen adsorption. Molecular dynamics
20 computational calculations were performed to comprehend the ability of methylene blue to
21 adjust the WSDS surface. The experiments of adsorption and photodegradation trials were
22 performed to optimize the pH, contact time, initial MB-concentration, and temperature
23 parameters. Furthermore, kinetics and isotherm models were checked to explain the MB-
24 removal mechanism using mesoporous spongy MWSS. The current work indicated that the

25 mesoporous MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst provided efficient adsorption capability (79%),
26 significant photocatalytic performance (93%), and higher solidity during reusability as well.
27 This study suggests an efficient composite that contributes to getting rid of the MB pollutants
28 from wastewater.

29 **Keywords:** Ni-Co-oxides; wheat straw-derived SiO₂; MWSS; methylene blue; adsorption;
30 photocatalytic degradation; mesoporous.

31 **1. Introduction:**

32 Clean water is one of the essential daily requirements for both modern and developing
33 countries. The need for clean water is increasing steadily due to the rapid population growth
34 (Nordin et al. 2021; Sayed et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2021). Dyes are aqueous-based toxins, and
35 the color index has recently been expanded to include over 9000 different types of dyes. Dyes
36 are used in several industries; however, textile manufacturing industries are the most popular
37 users due to the market demand for attractive fabric colors (Islam et al. 2020; Hassan et al.
38 2021). While dyes have significant economic benefits, their excessive use pollutes the water
39 supply. Since dyes are made up of organic compounds with large molecular weight, their
40 discharge into water supplies poses significant environmental troubles (Li et al. 2021). Since
41 certain dyes are carcinogenic and mutagenic, they damage both aquatic and human life (Zhou
42 et al. 2017; Eren et al. 2020). As a result, the main environmental issue is the removal of dyes
43 from polluted water.

44 Methylene blue (MB) can cause permanent damage to the skin and eyes and has some harmful
45 properties on human beings such as inflammation of the mouth, throat, and stomach with
46 symptoms of vomiting, nausea, delirium, diarrhea, and extreme perspiration (Bharti et al. 2019;
47 Soni et al. 2020; Singh et al. 2021). Several water management solutions, such as physical,
48 chemical, and biological, have been reported to regulate and mitigate water contamination.

49 Most of these methods have some disadvantages, such as high operational and maintenance
50 costs, complicated processes, and the creation of hazardous sludge or by-products (Shaban et
51 al. 2019; Balapure and Ganesan 2021). Because of their low cost, ease of operation, simplicity
52 of design, environmentally friendly properties, and performance, adsorption and photocatalytic
53 degradation over porous materials are considered the most suitable approaches for water
54 cleansing (De Gisi et al. 2016; Gupta et al. 2016; Mohamed et al. 2017).

55 In the photocatalytic degradation methodology, the irradiation of a semiconductor, such as
56 metal oxides, by UV-light produces some effective species such as electron-hole couples (e^-
57 $/h^+$), hydroxyl ($\cdot OH$), and superoxide ($\cdot O_2^-$) radicals (Nemiwal et al. 2021). The mentioned
58 species is a potent agent capable of attacking MB-molecules and breaking them down into
59 more minor compounds through oxidation-reduction reactions (Ibrahim et al. 2020;
60 Abdelwahab et al. 2020; Norouzi et al. 2021). As a result, the use of photocatalysts for
61 environmental remediation has gained a lot of attention in recent years, as air and water
62 contamination are potentially the most serious environmental threats to human health (Diaz et
63 al. 2020; Naing et al. 2020). Mixed metal oxides are especially interesting because they allow
64 the production of materials intermixed at the atomic level (Sun et al. 2020; Karuppusamy et al.
65 2021). Such structures can have chemical properties that are substantially different from those
66 of single-component oxides. Therefore, Ni and Co oxide composite is vital for the current
67 application (Chowdhury et al. 2010; Zhai et al. 2019; Emran et al. 2021).

68 Wheat straw is still deemed a waste by-product of wheat grinding, and hence, it is often burned
69 in the open air. This practice of open burning involves energy waste and causes a serious
70 environmental problem. Many scientists have concentrated their attempts to utilize wheat straw
71 by exploiting its components, contemplating their large quantity and economical cost as
72 agricultural trashes (Cui et al. 2015; Ahmad Alyosef et al. 2015; Chougan et al. 2020). Wheat
73 straw-derived silica matrix is considered an ideal and excellent support material for catalyst

74 nanoparticles, leading to an increase in the surface area, decreasing used Ni-Co oxide amount,
75 and improving photocatalytic activity in the long term (Ali et al. 2021; Seaf El-Nasr et al.
76 2021).

77 Herein, a novel mesoporous spongy MWSS was prepared to exploit the agricultural waste,
78 such as wheat straw, for MB-adsorption and photocatalytic degradation from contaminated
79 water. Parameters affecting the MB-adsorption and photocatalytic degradation efficiency
80 towards removing MB dye using MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst were explored, as well as
81 kinetic and isotherm models. Our obtained data reveal that the mesoporous MWSS
82 adsorbent/photocatalyst offers a sustainable solution for fast photodegradation and adsorption
83 of MB-removal pollutants from wastewater even after multiple reuse cycles.

84 **2. Experimental:**

85 **2.1. Materials**

86 Nickel (II) chloride hexahydrate, cobalt (II) chloride hexahydrate, polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP,
87 average Molar mass 40,000 g/mol), methylene blue ($C_{16}H_{18}ClN_3S$, Molar mass 319.85 g/mol),
88 and ethylene glycol (anhydrous, 99.8%) were bought from Sigma–Aldrich Company, Ltd.,
89 USA. Urea, ammonium hydroxide, sodium hydroxide, sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid, and
90 ethanol absolute were gained from Merck Chemicals Company, Germany. The consumed
91 chemicals were high quality, so it was employed as obtained without additional cleansing.

92 **2.2. Characterization tools**

93 The calorimetric measurements were evaluated by a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Evolution
94 300, Thermo Scientific, England). N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms at 77° K were applied
95 to explore the porosity and surface area of the mesoporous MWSS nanocomposite by using a
96 St 1 on NOVAtouch 2LX analyzer. The surface morphology of the synthesized NiO&Co₂O₃
97 and MWSS nanocomposite was examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using a

98 Carl Zeiss sigma 500 VP and JSM 5400 LV. The surface charge of MWSS nanocomposite was
99 discovered using Zetasizer Nano ZS, Device Model: ZEN 3600, UK, Malvern. The structure
100 durability of mesoporous MWSS nanocomposite at high temperatures was studied through
101 thermal gravimetric and differential thermal analysis using DTG-60H, simultaneous DTA-TG
102 apparatus, Shimadzu. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) was used
103 to investigate the nanostructures of NiO&Co₂O₃ using JEM 100 CXII. The Wide-Angle X-ray
104 diffraction (WA-XRD) using Bruker D8 Advance was used to verify the phase and crystal
105 structure of NiO&Co₂O₃ and MWSS nanocomposite. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR)
106 spectra of the synthesized NiO&Co₂O₃ and MWSS nanocomposite was achieved using a
107 Nicolet IS10-PC scanning spectroscopy.

108 **2.3.Synthesis of mesoporous spongyNi-Co-Oxides@wheat straw-derived SiO₂**

109 **(MWSS) nanocomposite:**

110 (a) To prepare **Ni-Co-Oxides** composite, 2.5 g of nickel (II) chloride hexahydrate and 2.5
111 g of cobalt (II) chloride hexahydrate were dissolved in 100 mL of deionized water under
112 continuous rousing for 2 hours, followed by adding 20 mL ethylene glycol. After an additional
113 1 hour under stirring, 1.5 g of PVP was inserted into the previous solution with continuous
114 stirring for 2 hours. The resulting solution's pH was adjusted to pH = 10.0 using concentrated
115 ammonium hydroxide solution to form nickel and cobalt hydroxides as a creamy solution. The
116 achieved creamy solution was transferred to autoclave hydrothermal for 12 hours at 160°C.
117 The obtained precipitate was filtered, washed several times using ethanol, and deionized water
118 to remove the unreacted components until getting a neutral residual solution (pH 7.0-7.5). After
119 drying for 12 hours at 80 °C, the as-made Ni(OH)₂ &Co(OH)₂ was calcined at 550 °C under air
120 conditions for 6 hours to gain Ni-Co oxide nanocomposite (see Scheme 1).

121 (b) At the same time, we have prepared the wheat straw-derived SiO₂ as follows: (i) the
122 collected wheat straw was cleaned by faucet water to remove dust and else stacked impurities,

123 followed by the drying at 100°C; (ii) the dried wheat straw was treated by 1M HCl at 80°C
124 under refluxing and stirring for 3 hours; (iii) After cooling, the treated wheat straw was filtered
125 and washed by Milli-Q water till becoming free acid (i.e., near of neutral pH), and then dried
126 at 80°C for overnight; (iv) the obtained treated wheat straw was calcined at 700°C for 6 hours
127 to gain silica; (v) 5g of gained silica was entirely dissolved in 50mL of 1M NaOH at 70°C
128 under refluxing to obtain sodium silicate solution; (vi) the produced viscous solution was
129 filtered, and then aged for further using.

130 (c) To prepare mesoporous MWSS nanocomposite, 3.0g of as-prepared NiO&Co₂O₃ was
131 added to the sodium silicate solution and then stirred for 12 hours under high-speed stirring.
132 The 50% sulfuric acid solution was added dropwise to the NiO&Co₂O₃@sodium silicate
133 solution under constant stirring until the white silica formed at pH ~8, where the white
134 precipitate MWSS nanocomposite can be formed. The obtained mesoporous MWSS
135 nanocomposite was washed, dried, and then calcined at 550 °C for 5 hours under air
136 atmosphere. The nano-scaled mesoporous MWSS nanocomposite was stored in a black bottle
137 for the subsequent experiments.

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139 **2.4.Bench-top adsorption and photocatalytic degradation processes for MB-**

140 **removal:**

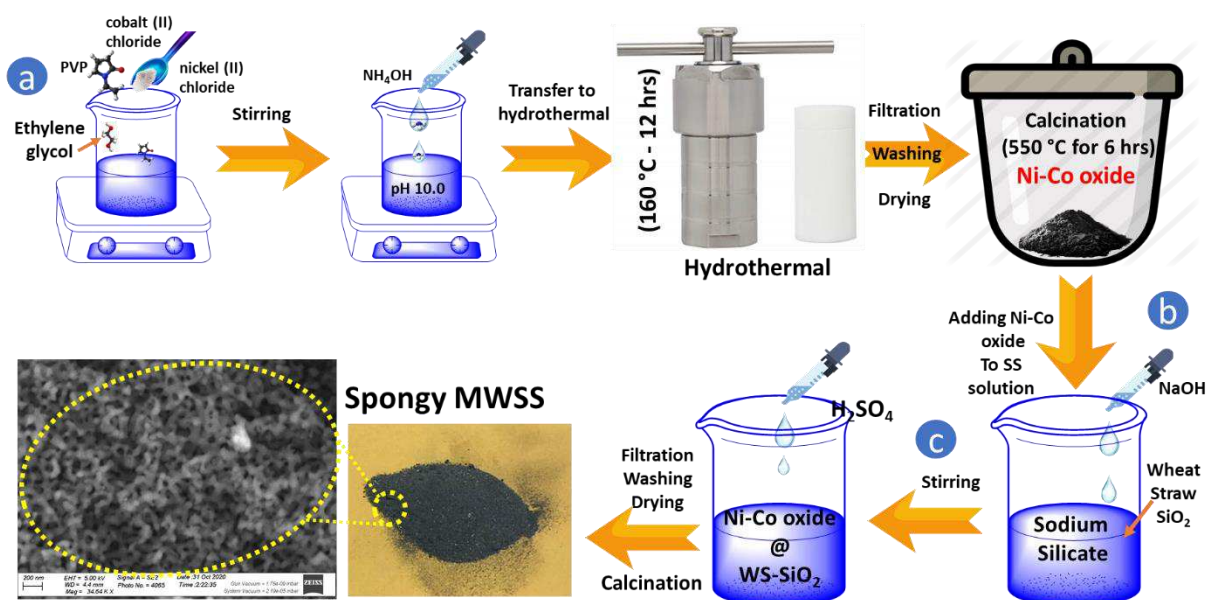
141 In an adsorption test, 50 mg of MWSS nanocomposite was mixed with 50 mL of MB-dye
142 solution in Erlenmeyer flasks at 500 rpm at various times and room temperature (~25±2°C).
143 At pre-identified time intervals, residual MB-solution was filtered via centrifuge to separate
144 the suspension MWSS material. The concentration of remained MB was verified using a UV–
145 Vis spectrophotometer at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 658$ nm. In contrast, the photocatalytic degradation process
146 was performed by mixing 50 mg of MWSS nanocomposite with 50 mL of MB-dye solution
147 under stirring in a small dark room to reach the equilibrium adsorption stage. Then the MB-

148 degradation process was investigated under 70 W UV-lamp irradiation with a wavelength of
 149 365 nm. The used UV-lamp was positioned at 10 cm from the reaction-contained flask. The
 150 MB-decolorization efficiency can be calculated using Eq.(1), while the adsorption capability
 151 of the MWSS (q_e , mg/g) can be determined using Eq.(2) (Abdien et al. 2016):

$$152 \text{ MB - decolorization } \% = \frac{(C_i - C_f)}{C_i} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$153 q_e = (C_i - C_f) \left(\frac{V}{w} \right) \quad (2)$$

154 C_i and C_f (ppm or mg/L) are the initial and final MB-concentration before and after the removal
 155 process for both adsorption and photocatalytic degradation approaches. V is the volume of MB
 156 solution (L), and w is the mass of MWSS nanocomposite (g). Factors that can affect the MB-
 157 decolorization %, such as pH, time, temperature, etc., were systematically investigated.
 158 Furthermore, isotherm and kinetic studies were evaluated for both adsorption and
 159 photocatalytic degradation processes.



160
 161 **Scheme 1.** Schematic design to show (a) preparation of Ni-Co oxide composite, (b) preparation of
 162 sodium silicate solution from wheat straw, (c) and grafting of Ni-Co oxide with sodium silicate to obtain
 163 mesoporous spongy MWSS.

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2.5.Molecular dynamics calculations

The surfaces (001) were generated using the known SiO₂ crystallographic structure of SiO₂ (Ji et al. 2020). The forcite module has been used with the COMPASS II force field for importing and optimizing structure to get energy minimization (Sun 1998; Phan et al. 2014; Sun et al. 2016). However, the optimized structure of WSDS was cleaved to produce (001) surface. The typical thickness of the surfaces was determined to consist of four SiO₂ layers parallel to the cleaved surfaces, and through geometrical optimization, the entire surface layers have been relaxed. 3D-simulation box with a size of (50.56 × 20.22 × 46.92 °Å) was built from the surfaces to be able to include methylene blue molecules. In the case of Ni/Co Oxides@ WSDS, the Si positions on the top surface were modified by (Si 70.96%, Ni 15.12%, Co 13.91%) based on the experimental ratio out of EDX analysis. However, the 74 repeating units of methylene blue were geometry optimized using an amorphous cell module to fill the simulation box. Methylene blue unites were located at the top/down of each surface of WSDS and at least 5 °Å afloat from the surface.

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3. Results and discussion:

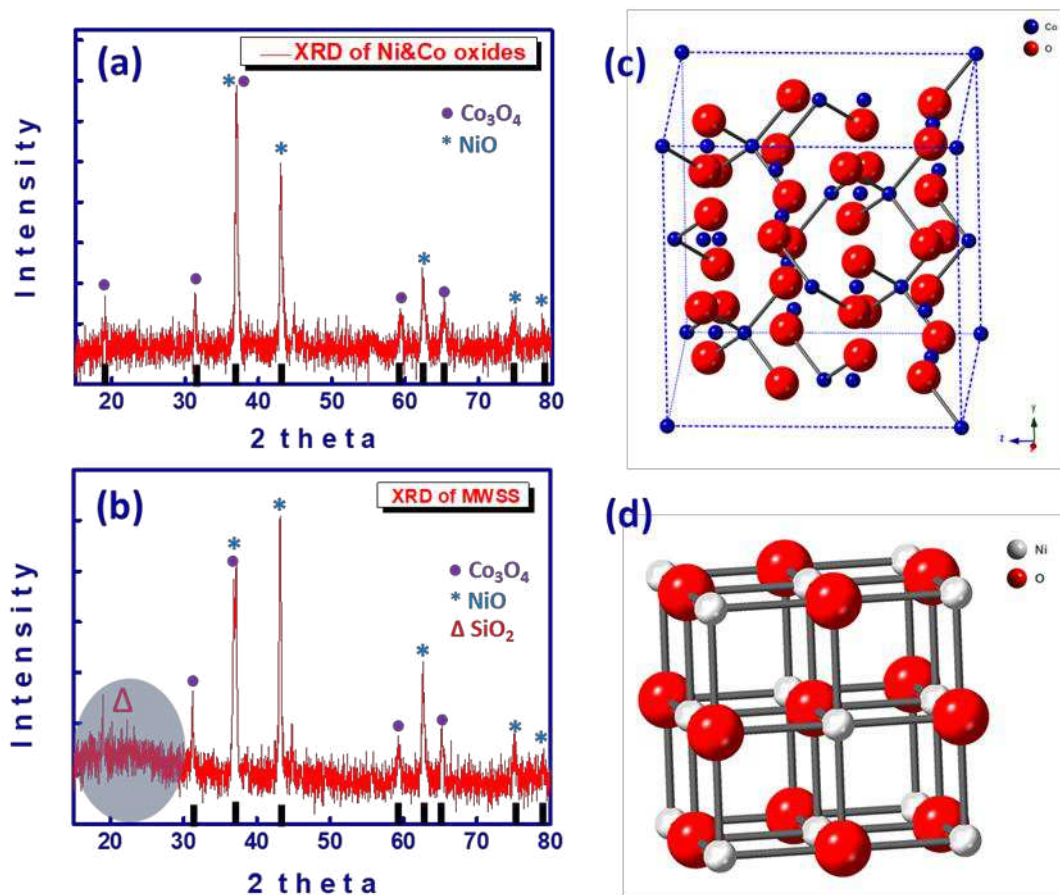
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3.1.MWSS characterization

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The crystallinity and phase purity of the prepared Ni-Co oxide composite and MWSS were explored using the XRD technique. XRD patterns of the Ni-Co oxide composite and MWSS have exhibited in Figure 1a&b. Figure 1a showed diffraction peaks at 2θ of 19°, 31°, 36.9°, 43°, 59.4°, 62.5°, 65.3°, 74.6°, 78.8° which corresponding to ●(111), ●(220), ●(311) and *(111), *(200), ●(511), *(220), ●(440), *(311), and *(222), where ● symbol is for Co₃O₄ peaks and *

189 symbol is for NiO peaks (Ramasamy et al. 2015), suggesting that the Ni-Co oxide composite
 190 was formed in two separate phases as Co_3O_4 and NiO. The reflection planes of Co_3O_4 and NiO
 191 indicated that both were prepared with a cubic crystal system (JCPDS no. 01-078-1969 and
 192 JCPDS no. 01-071-1179) as shown in figure 1(c,d). The broad-band in Figure 1b around 2θ of
 193 15° - 30° is assigned to the wheat straw-derived SiO_2 matrix's amorphous nature. The combined
 194 bands of Ni-Co oxide composite and wheat straw-derived SiO_2 in the XRD pattern validate the
 195 formation of MWSS. No extra peaks were identified in the XRD pattern, confirming the high
 196 structural purity of the prepared material.



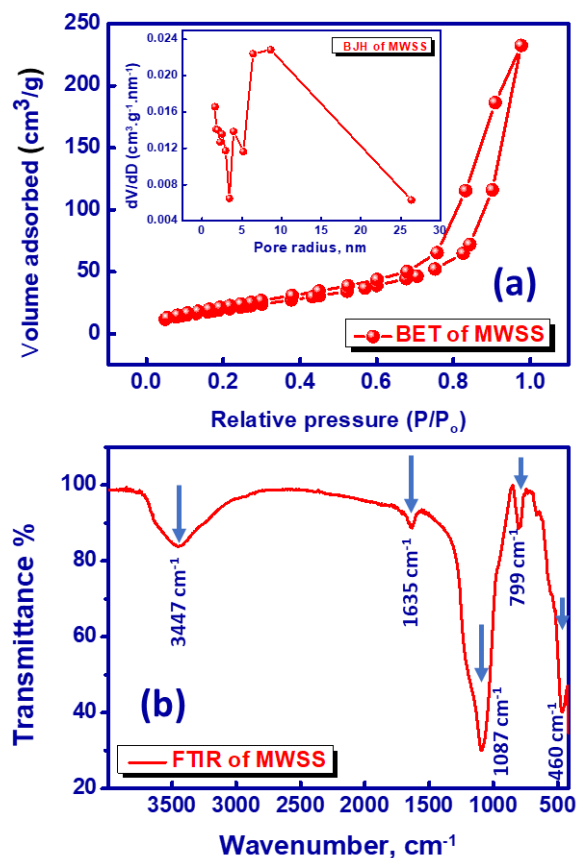
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198 **Figure 1.** XRD of Ni-Co oxide composite (a), and mesoporous MWSS (b), cubic crystal structures of
 199 Co_2O_3 (c) and NiO (d)

200

201 The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm of the mesoporous spongy MWSS is demonstrated in
202 Figure 2a to confirm the textural properties of MWSS, such as surface area and porosity.
203 According to the IUPAC classification, the obtained isotherm could be categorized as IV-type
204 with a distinctive hysteresis loop, referred to as the formation of pores in the mesoscale (2–50
205 nm pore size). The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (B.E.T.) for MWSS surface area is 79 m²/g with
206 a pore volume of 0.356 cm³/g. Based on the gained data, the pore size of MWSS is about 8.6
207 and 5.84 nm according to the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method and the density functional
208 theory (DFT) methods, respectively. This unique structure of mesoporous MWSS can provide
209 a great feature for the employed material for MB-adsorption and photocatalytic degradation.

210 To investigate the functionality of the MWSS, the MWSS sample was characterized using
211 FTIR spectroscopy. The produced FTIR spectrum in Figure 2b indicated several absorption
212 bands mainly associated with the straw-derived SiO₂ platform. The broad peak at around 3447
213 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the stretching (-OH) vibration of silanol (Si-OH), Ni-OH, and Co-OH in the
214 MWSS, and it could be assigned to the trapped water molecules on the surface of the MWSS.
215 A small peak was noticed at 1635 cm⁻¹ in the IR spectrum, representing the bending vibration
216 of the trapped H₂O molecules in the MWSS matrix. The three absorption bands at 1087, 799,
217 and 460 cm⁻¹ are recognized to three different vibration modes for the Si-O-Si bond in the
218 structural framework as follows: asymmetric stretching, symmetric stretching, and bending
219 vibrations, respectively. Moreover, the peaks between 1000 and 400 cm⁻¹ may be assigned to
220 the Ni-O-Ni and Co-O-Co vibrations (Itteboina and Sau 2019; Mezan et al. 2021; Sharma et
221 al. 2021).



222

223 **Figure 2.** (a) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm and BJH of mesoporous MWSS, and (b) FTIR of
 224 mesoporous MWSS.

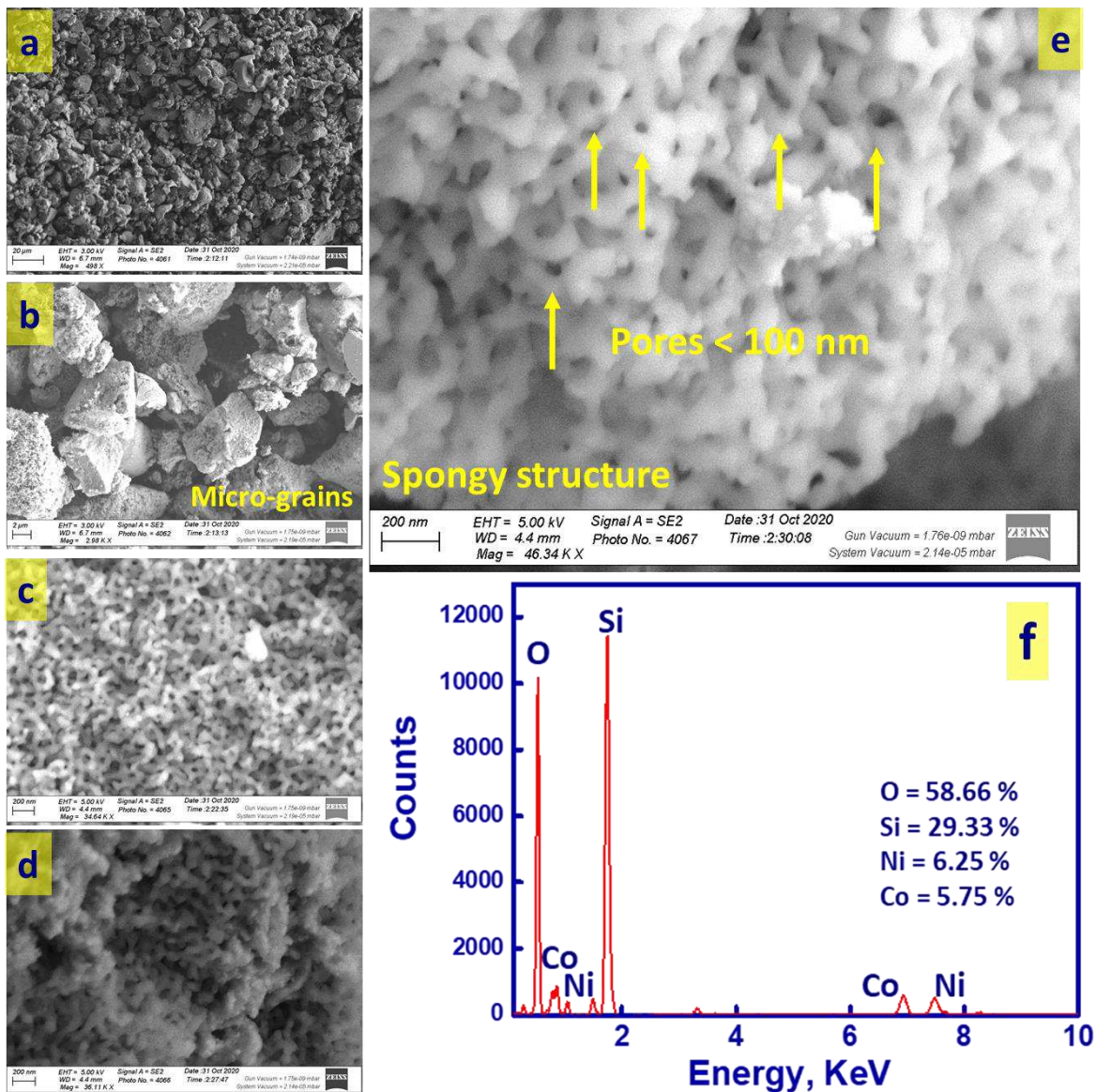
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226 SEM analysis was employed to achieve evidence on the structure of the prepared MWSS
 227 material, as shown in Figure 3a-e. The top-view SEM images of MWSS powder explain that
 228 the MWSS was prepared in a spongy structure. This spongy morphological can be shown even
 229 better at a larger enlargement scale. Figure 3a&b shows the micro-sized grains of MWSS-like
 230 rock containing nano-holes and grooves with a size less than 100 nm, the distribution of nano-
 231 holes along the micro-grains is relatively uniform. The spongy structure offers a large surface
 232 area and consequently excellent characteristics as an adsorbent or photocatalyst material due
 233 to the growth of surface-active sites. Moreover, the spongy shape leads to facilitates the
 234 diffusion of MB-molecules within the MWSS material. Furthermore, the chemical composition

235 of MWSS has been validated via the qualitative and quantitative EDX analysis, as shown in
 236 Figure 3f. The obtained EDX analysis data indicated that the atomic percentage % of MWSS
 237 components were 58.66, 29.33, 6.25, and 5.75 % for oxygen, silicon, nickel, and cobalt
 238 elements, respectively. These findings suggest the strong composition of Ni-Co oxides inside
 239 the internal matrix of the wheat straw-derived silica scaffold.

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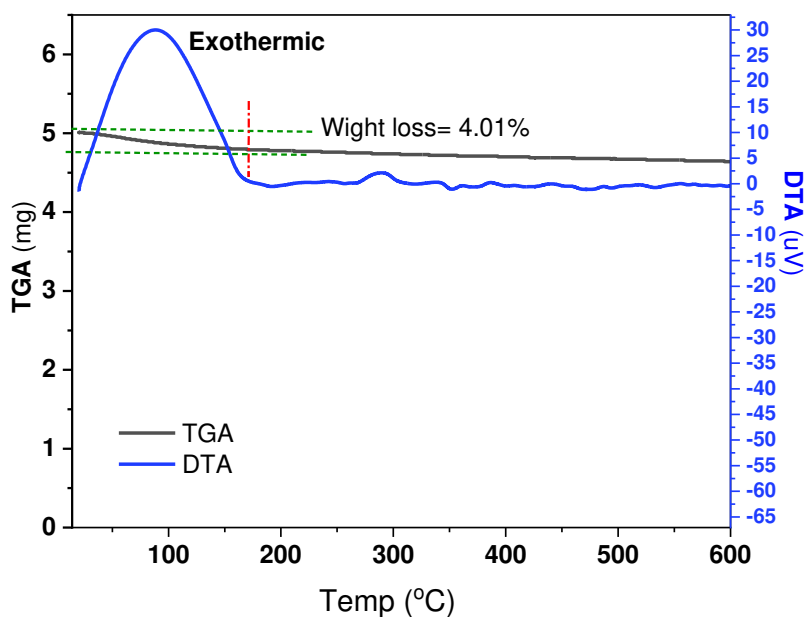


242

243 **Figure 3.** (a-e) Top-view S.E.M. images of mesoporous spongy MWSS, and (f) SEM-EDX profile of
244 mesoporous spongy MWSS.

245

246 Furthermore, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and Differential thermal analysis (DTA), as
247 displayed in Figure 4, have been applied to assess the thermal stability of the MWSS. From the
248 TGA thermograms, the TGA curve of MWSS shows two clear thermal degradation steps as
249 follows: (i) a small weight loss, about 4%, has been detected in the temperature scale 21 °C to
250 151 °C, due to the physically absorbed H₂O during synthesis process and from moisture during
251 sample storing; and (ii) about 3.2% was lost in the temperature range 154 °C to 593 °C, due to
252 the decomposition and pyrolysis of MWSS framework. While, the DTA curve shows the
253 differential temperature change in the range of 21: 151 °C and displays an exothermic peak
254 at around 87°C, which is attributed to the same reason above and increases the crystallinity of
255 the mesoporous spongy MWSS as well. However, no evidence of endothermic peaks was
256 found in the whole range of temperature, which predicted no sign of decomposition or any
257 phase transition of MWSS under thermal stress. The acquired data suggested the strong
258 thermal stability of our mesoporous MWSS structure even at high temperatures up to 600 °C.



259

260 **Figure 4.** Thermal analysis of both TGA and DTA for mesoporous MWSS.

261

262 **3.2. Influence of pH on the MB-adsorption and photodegradation mechanism**

263 pH is deemed as a highly vital key factor controlling MB-adsorption and photodegradation.

264 The pH value strongly contributes to changing the outer surface active site charge type,

265 resulting in either the development or decline of MB-adsorption and photodegradation

266 efficiency. Therefore, the influence of pH value on the MB-adsorption and photocatalytic

267 degradation using MWSS was explored to determine the optimum pH condition under the

268 experimental conditions (MWSS dose: 50 mg; solution volume: 50 mL; contact time: 60 min;

269 MB-concentration: 5 ppm; at a wide pH range: pH 2- pH10) through a series of benchtop-batch

270 tests. As shown in Figure 5a, the maximum MB-adsorption and photodegradation efficiency

271 was achieved at pH 10, where the MB-removal efficiencies were 79 and 93 % through

272 adsorption and photodegradation processes, respectively. The obtained findings indicated that

273 the MB-removal using MWSS is strongly conditional on the pH value of MB-solution. Figure

274 5b shows the zeta potential profile of MWSS at different pH values to evaluate the surface

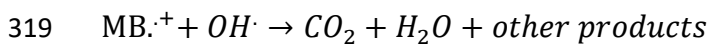
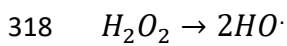
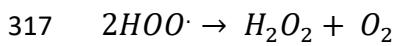
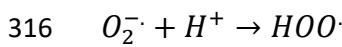
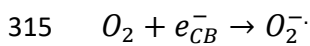
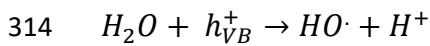
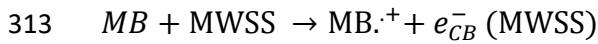
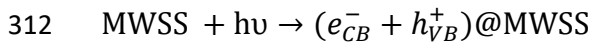
275 charge of MWSS material. The point of zero charge (i.e., the pH value at which the surface
276 charge is zero, pzc) was at pH 5.3. At a high acidity level (pH < 5.3), the outer surface-active
277 sites charge of MWSS is positive, leading to a decrease in the MB-adsorption and
278 photodegradation efficiency, where MB is a positively charged cationic dye. Furthermore, the
279 competition of H₃O⁺ ions at the active sites of the MWSS-surface was also led to reducing the
280 efficiency of MB-adsorption and photodegradation. With increasing pH values (i.e., pH > 5.3),
281 the MB-adsorption and photodegradation efficiency was improved because the MWSS surface-
282 active sites were starting to be charged negatively, agreeing to the zeta potential values, and
283 the competition between the positively MB-molecules and H₃O⁺ ions was reduced (see Scheme
284 2).

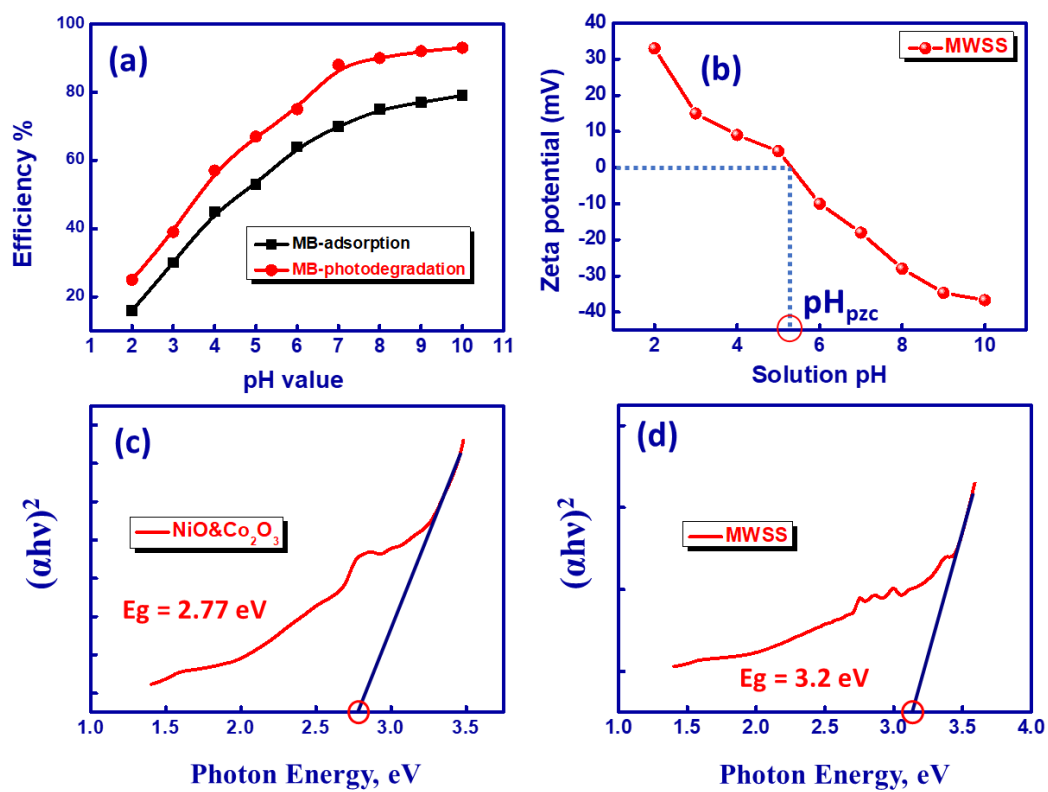
285 On the other hand, enhancement of MB-adsorption leads to improvement in the photocatalytic
286 degradation process. MB-molecules reach many active sites to degrade methylene blue under
287 UV-irradiation. Under UV-irradiation, energy generates the electron (e⁻) and positive electron-
288 hole (h⁺) pairs onto the MWSS surface, leading to reduction-oxidation reactions. The excitation
289 of electrons from the valence band (VB) to the conduction band (CB) of the MWSS generates
290 an h⁺_{VB} in the VB when the energy of the UV-light goes above the bandgap energy value of
291 the MWSS. The accurate bandgap energy value of the NiO&Co₂O₃ and MWSS was established
292 using the Tauc relationship as follows (Rani et al. 2018):

$$293 \quad (\alpha h\nu)^2 = A(h\nu - E_g) \quad (3)$$

294 Where α , A, h, ν , and E_g are the absorption coefficient, constant, Plank's constant, frequency,
295 and bandgap energy. The curve of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ against photon energy shows an intermediary linear
296 zone. The Tauc's zone was referred to bandgap energies of 2.77 and 3.2 eV for NiO&Co₂O₃
297 mixture and MWSS, respectively (see Figure 5c&d), which indicates that MWSS can be
298 deemed as a good photocatalyst to decompose MB contaminants. In the case of MWSS, the

299 bandgap is a little bit larger than that of the NiO&Co₂O₃ mixture due to the formation of the
 300 composite structure with wheat straw-derived SiO₂. As explained in the following equations,
 301 the holes (h⁺_{VB}) were trapped by H₂O on the surface of MWSS to generate H⁺ and •OH radicals,
 302 which was an efficient oxidizing agent to degrade MB-molecules to CO₂ and H₂O. The •OH
 303 radicals have been the vital effective species during the MB-photocatalytic process. At pH 10,
 304 the MB-dye was then switched to a cationic species, contributing to the MB-degradation.
 305 Besides, the e⁻_{CB} captured O₂ to produce anionic superoxide (O₂^{-•}) radical. The reaction of H⁺
 306 of O₂^{-•} leads to form hydroperoxy radical, then converted into H₂O₂. The formed H₂O₂ can be
 307 dissociated into 2•OH radicals responsible for the degradation of MB-molecules (see Scheme
 308 1) (Atout et al. 2017). At high pH conditions (i.e., pH 10), increasing OH⁻ concentration may
 309 lead to enhance the photodegradation efficiency, where OH⁻ can be reacted with h⁺ to form
 310 many of the •OH radicals and H⁺ ions, explaining the decrease of solution-pH at the end of the
 311 photocatalytic degradation process.

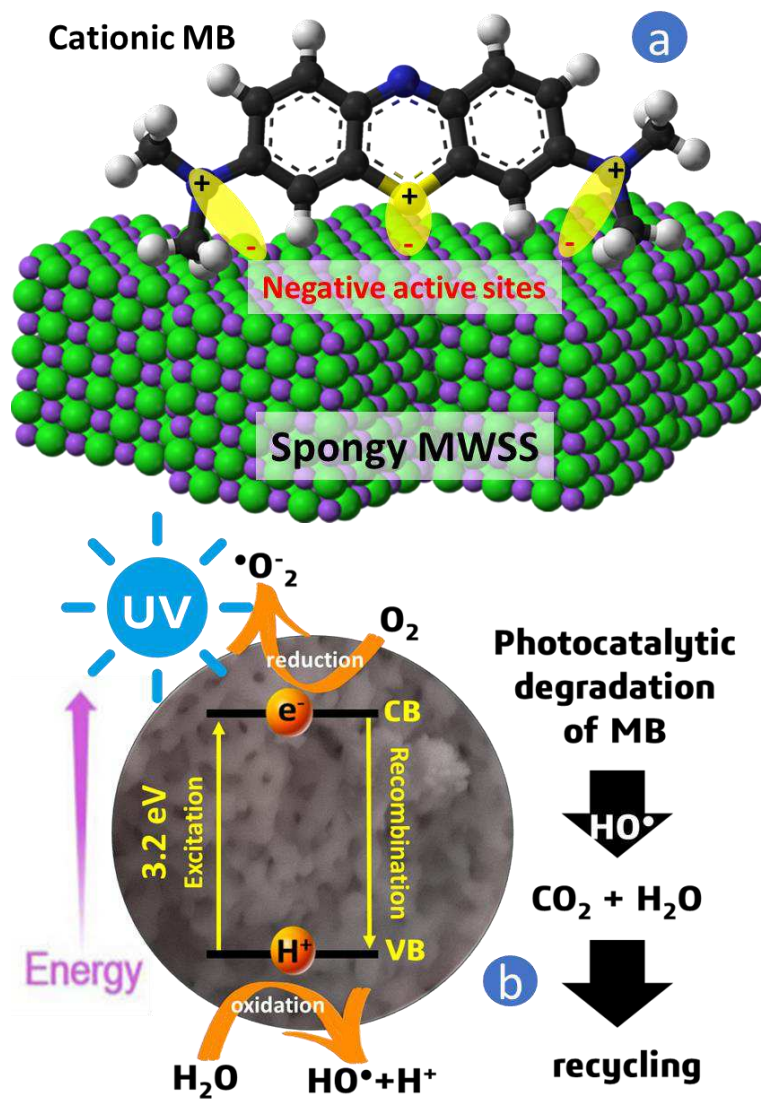




320

321 **Figure 5.** (a) Influence of pH on the MB-adsorption and photodegradation using mesoporous MWSS,
 322 (b) Zeta potential of MWSS to evaluate the charge of the surface at various pH values (pH 1.0 – 10.0),
 323 (c and d) the plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ against $h\nu$ (eV) of the NiO&Co₂O₃ composite and mesoporous MWSS
 324 samples to calculate the E_g using Tauc equation.

325



326

327 **Scheme 2.** Schematic design shows (a) the MB-adsorption and (b) the MB-photocatalytic degradation
 328 mechanism using mesoporous spongy MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst.

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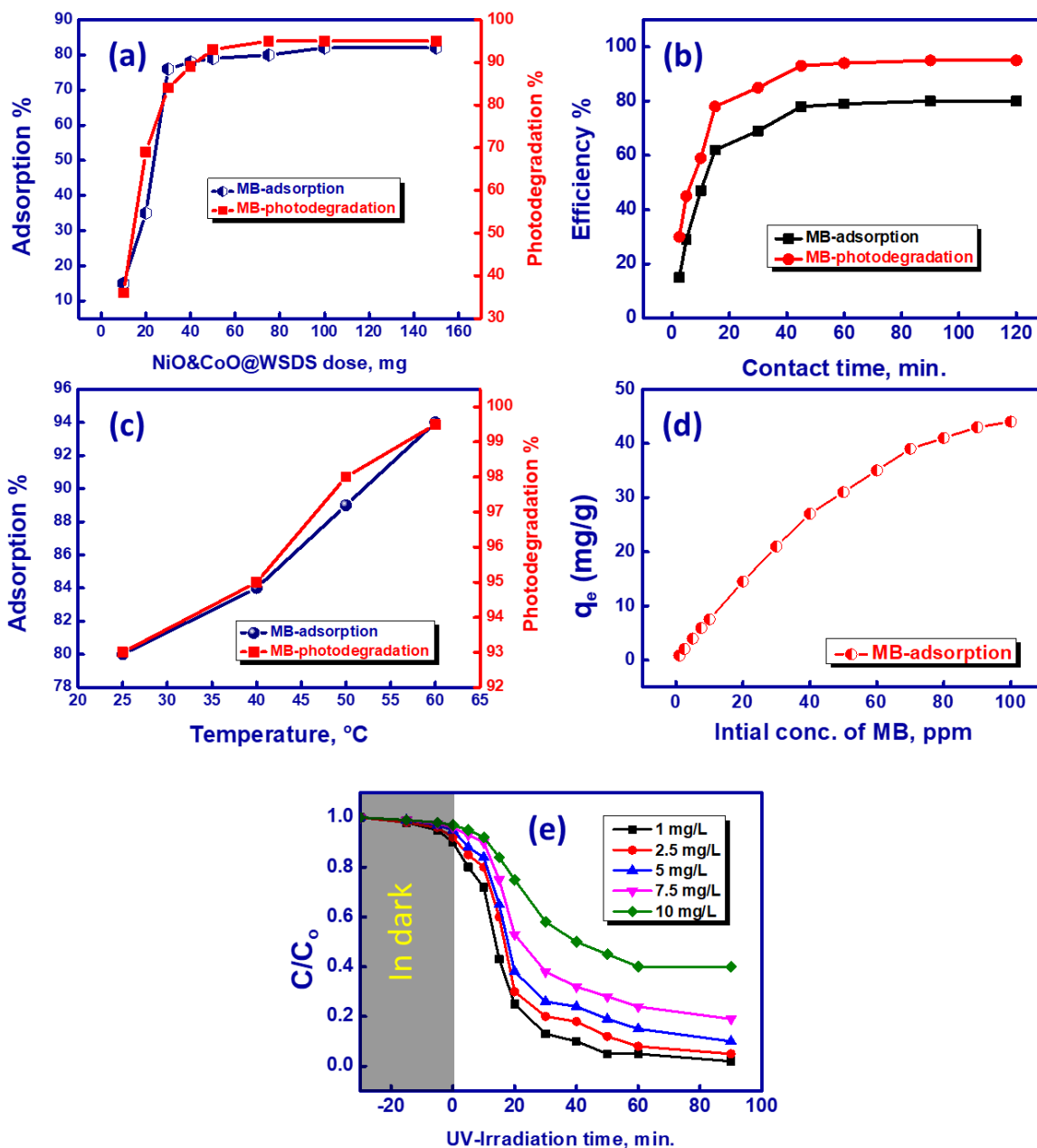
332 **3.3.Effect of dosage, time, temperature, and MB-concentration on the MB-**
 333 **adsorption and photodegradation process**

334 In the photocatalytic degradation reaction, the performing of the MWSS is mainly defined by
335 three assets: the adsorption of MB, the light penetration to the surface-active sites, and the
336 transport of photogenerated radicals. Therefore, various physicochemical factors such as the
337 MWSS dosage, contact time, temperature, and initial MB-concentration were verified to assess
338 the MB-adsorption and photodegradation process. The amount of MWSS is a vital factor
339 influencing the MB-adsorption and photodegradation process significantly. Therefore, the
340 impact of MWSS dosage on the MB-adsorption and photodegradation efficiency was explored
341 under optimal pH circumstances using various doses of MWSS (10 mg to 150 mg) to determine
342 the amount of the MWSS required to remove the maximum amount of MB during the process.
343 The obtained results in Figure 6a indicated that the quantity of MB-dye removed by the samples
344 was discovered to expand upon growing the quantity of MWSS due to the availability of more
345 surface-active sites for the MB-adsorption and photodegradation. At a low dose, the MB-
346 adsorption and photodegradation rate was decreased due to the reduction of electron-hole pairs
347 formation rate, and thus fewer hydroxyl radicals are formed.

348 Moreover, batch trials were done to survey the impact of time on the MB-adsorption and
349 photodegradation performance. Figure 6b exhibits that MB-adsorption and photodegradation
350 efficiency gradually increased with the increasing reaction time until equilibrium was achieved.
351 The fast removal of MB-dye within 20 min was due to the availability of vacant active sites,
352 which allowed the MB-molecules to interact readily at the MWSS surface. This implies that
353 the prepared MWSS has good adsorption and photocatalytic activity for MB is likely to be an
354 efficient adsorbent and photocatalyst. Also, Figure 6c reveals that the MB-adsorption and
355 photodegradation efficiency increased with the rising temperature of the adsorption and
356 photodegradation vessel process from 25 to $60\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. These findings proved that the MB-
357 removal is an endothermic procedure. High temperature accelerates the adsorption and
358 photodegradation rate and improves the diffusion of MB-molecules between the bulk solution

359 and adsorbent/photocatalyst surface. Lastly, the impact of initial MB-concentration on the
360 adsorption and degradation of MB-dye using MWSS was also assessed. As demonstrated in
361 Figure 6d&e, the MB-adsorption and photodegradation efficacies were discovered to differ
362 significantly while the initial MB-concentration is changed. The MB-adsorption and
363 photodegradation efficacies declined when the concentration of MB expanded. Figure 6d
364 exhibited that the maximum MB-adsorption is about 44 mg per 1 gram of MWSS adsorbent.
365 Moreover, the expansion of MB-molecules along the surface-active sites may inhibit the
366 diffusion of UV-light to the MWSS outer surface, leading to a decrease of $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals'
367 generation, slowing the MB-photodegradation kinetic rate, and hence reduce of MB-
368 photodegradation efficiency. This behavior can be caused by the MB-degradation process's
369 intermediate products, which would compete with MB for reaction with $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals. At
370 higher initial MB-concentration, the intermediates' concentrations are also higher.

371



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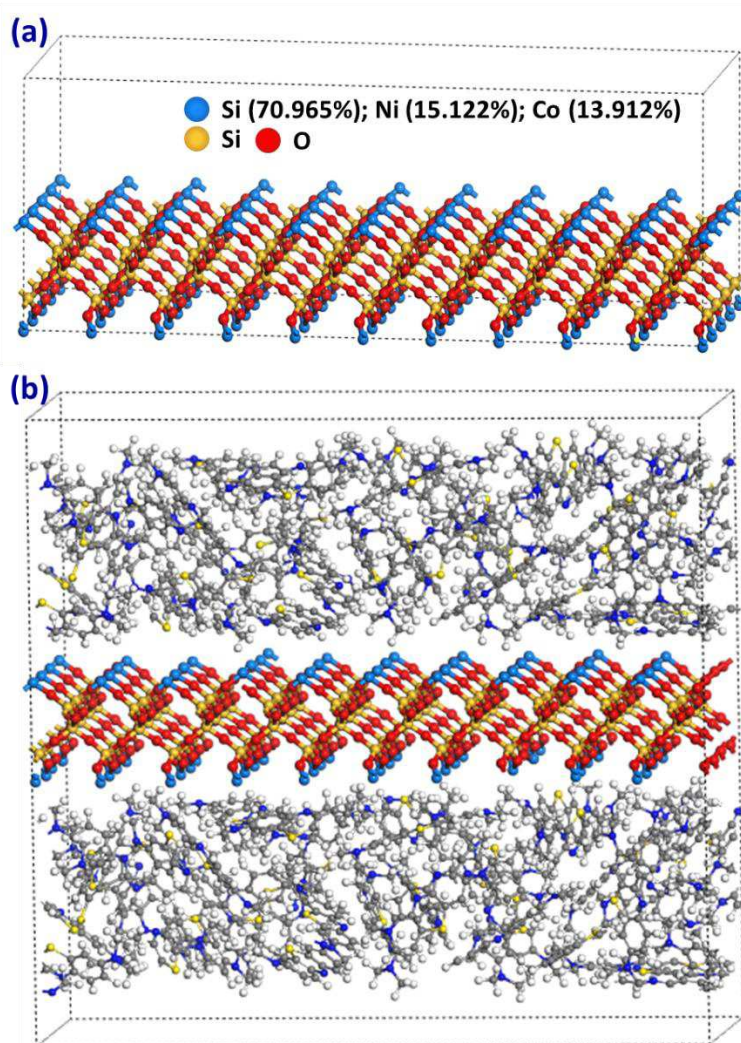
373 **Figure 6.** Effect of MWSS dosage (a), contact time (b), temperature (c), initial MB-concentration (d)
 374 and e) on the MB-adsorption and photodegradation.

375

376 3.4. Molecular dynamics (MD) calculations

377 MWSS (001) surfaces have been chosen to compare methylene blue (74-molecule) binding
 378 behavior and the typical favorable nature of (001) face noted in the well-shaped crystals.

379 However, the Si atoms (top surface) were surrounded by four oxygen. To study the effect of
380 NiO and Co₂O₃ at the interface of MWSS, the Si atoms (top surface) were modified by (Si
381 70.96%, Ni 15.12%, Co 13.91%) based on the experimental ratio out of EDX analysis. MD has
382 been used to examine the capacity of Ni/Co oxides to modify the surface of MWSS toward
383 adsorption of methylene blue. Figure 7a shows the optimized layers of MWSS (001) surfaces
384 and methylene blue molecules under the MD restrictions in Figure 7b. However, the top surface
385 disruption (Figure 8) was notable due to dynamic interaction attributed to the penetration of
386 methylene blue molecules into the outer layer of MWSS (001) surfaces by Ni and Co oxides.

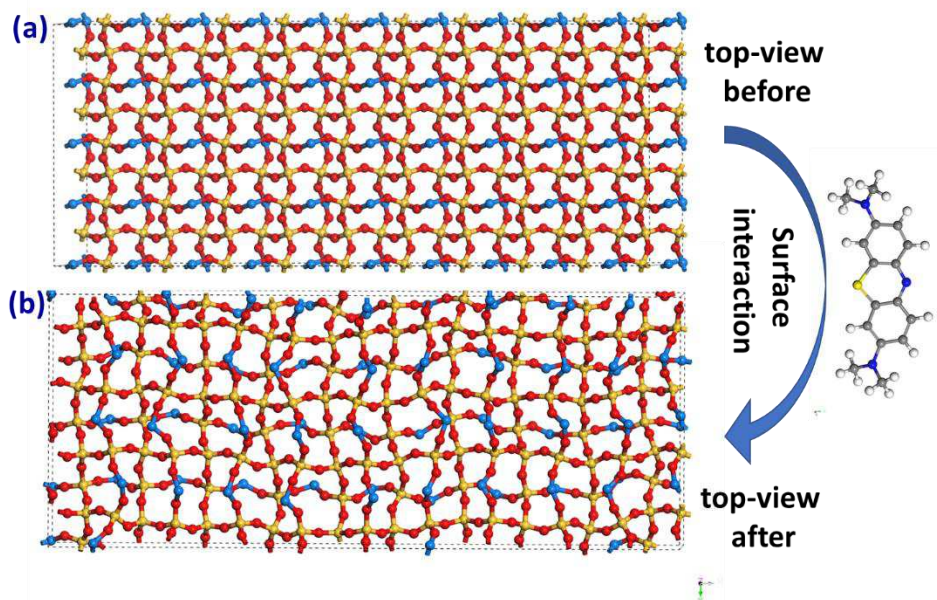


387

388 **Figure 7.** Representative Ni/Co oxides @ MWSS (a); and binding conformations methylene blue on
389 Ni/Co oxides @ MWSS (001) surface.

390

391



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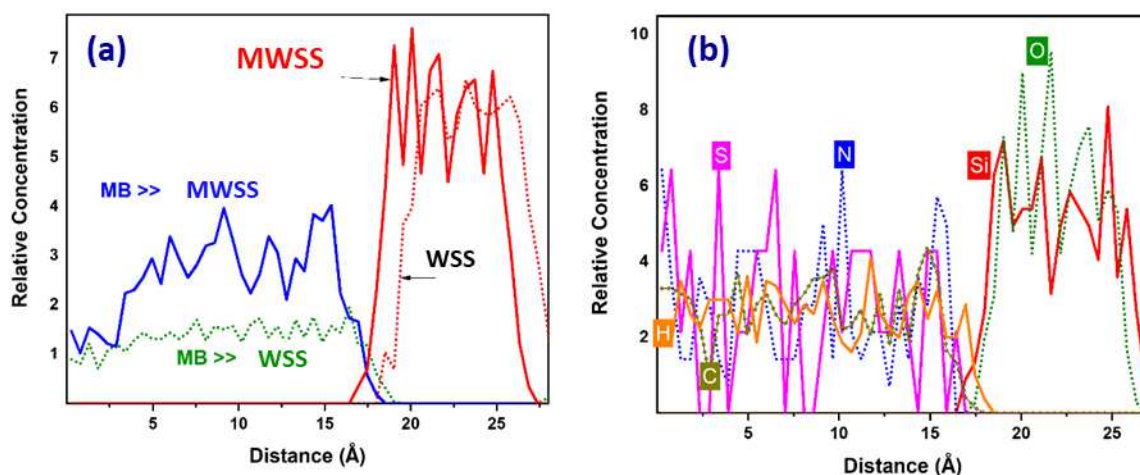
393 **Figure 8.** Top view of Ni/Co@ MWSS before (a); and after (b) molecular dynamics of methylene blue
394 on (001) surface.

395

396 It worth mentioning, the unmodified WSS has less interaction than MWSS toward methylene
397 blue molecules, as shown in Figure 9a. The concentration profiles and the small distance
398 between and MWSS and methylene blue camper to unmodified WSS resulting from molecular
399 dynamics simulation predict the role of Ni and Co atoms in the top surface toward the
400 adsorption behaviors, as we confirmed by experimental results. In particular, the distance of
401 each atom between MWSS and methylene blue shows that the O atoms of MWSS was close
402 enough to attract mainly to the S and H atoms of methylene blue by electrostatic bonds and
403 hydrogen bonding as well (Figure 9b). Optimized total energies of methylene blue, WSS,
404 MWSS and the layers interaction of MB on both modified/nonmodified WSS (001) surfaces
405 were collected in Table 1. The individual binding energy of WSS (ca. -13862.28 kcal/mol)
406 almost similar to the MWSS (ca. -13862.28 kcal/mol) calculated by Forcite module using of

407 force field COMPASS II. However, the binding energy of MB@ MWSS (ca. -2154.91
 408 kcal/mol) was much better than the nonmodified surface of WSS (ca. -2138.54 kcal/mol),
 409 which is in accordance with experimental observations.

410



411

412 **Figure 9.** Concentration profiles of methylene blue with and without Ni/Co top surface of WSS (a);
 413 atoms in MWSS and methylene blue are displayed for (001) systems.

414

415 **Table 1.** Total energies (kcal/mol) of methylene blue (MB), WSS, MWSS, and MB layer interaction
 416 on the WSS and MWSS surfaces.

	MB	WSS	MWSS	MB@WSS	MB@ MWSS
Total energy	432.657	-13862.28	-13862.31	-15568.16	-15584.56

417

418

419 **3.5.MB-adsorption isotherm investigations**

420 MB-adsorption isotherm offers info concerning the type of interactions between MB-dye and
 421 MWSS as an adsorbent with different initial MB-concentrations under the optimum MB-
 422 adsorption circumstances. The relationship between equilibrium MB-concentration (C_e) in the
 423 solution and the adsorption capacity (q_e) of MWSS adsorbent can be obtained with different
 424 adsorption isotherm prototypes. To identify the MB-adsorption mechanism, Langmuir and
 425 Freundlich's models were studied (Seera et al. 2021). According to the Langmuir isotherm
 426 model, the MB-molecules adsorb on the MWSS adsorbent's surface and thus produce a
 427 monolayer of MB-molecules on the MWSS surface-active sites through real chemical bonds.
 428 On the other hand, the Freundlich adsorption isotherm model suggests forming a multilayer of
 429 MB-molecules onto the MWSS surface through physical attraction forces. The linearized form
 430 of the Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models are given by the following equations (Gomaa
 431 et al. 2018):

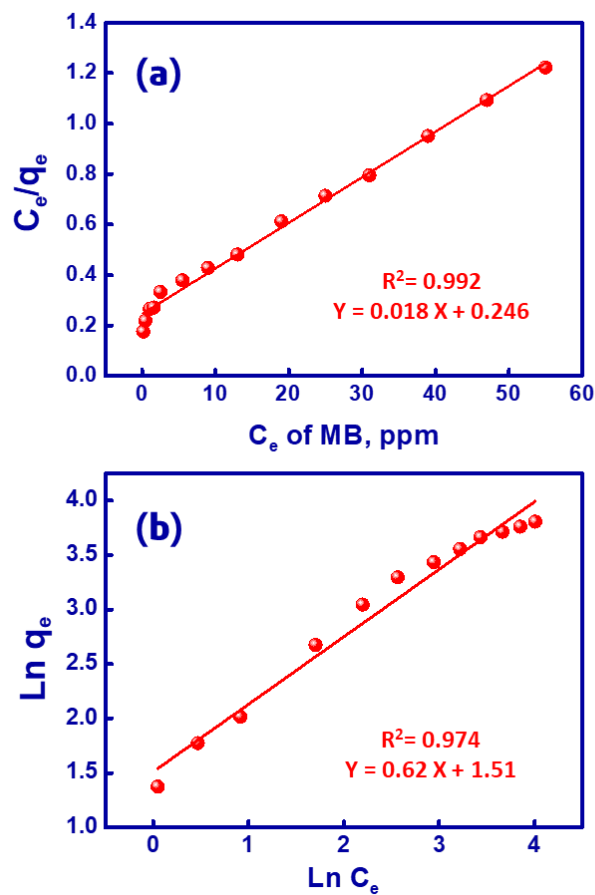
$$432 \quad \frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{1}{K_L q_m} + \left(\frac{1}{q_m}\right) C_e \quad (4)$$

$$433 \quad R_L = 1/(1 + K_L C_o) \quad (5)$$

$$434 \quad \ln q_e = \ln K_f + \frac{1}{n} \ln C_e \quad (6)$$

435 q_m , K_L , and C_o are the theoretical MB-adsorption capability of MWSS (mg/g), constant of the
 436 MB-adsorption equilibrium, and initial MB-concentration, respectively; K_f and n are the
 437 proportional adsorption capacity of MWSS and adsorption strength, respectively. n value
 438 indicates the favourability of MB-adsorption. All these constants are defined from the slope and
 439 intercept of the linear relations of C_e/q_e versus C_e and $\ln q_e$ versus $\ln C_e$ plots (see Figure 10a&b
 440 and Table 2). By judging the correlation coefficients (R^2) values, the obtained results were best
 441 attached for the Langmuir isotherm model, with an R^2 value of 0.992. This suggested the MB-
 442 adsorption mechanism onto MWSS was a monolayer and chemically adsorption process.
 443 According to the data achieved from the Langmuir isotherm model, the maximum MB-adsorption

444 capacity onto MWSS was 55.5 mg/g, this value is relatively close to the experimental value.
 445 Furthermore, the R_L value of MWSS was lower than 1, signifying the MB-adsorption process
 446 was favorable and fully reversible. This outcome indicates that the adsorbed MB-dye can be
 447 released from the MWSS adsorbent surface during the chemical regeneration treatment. The n
 448 value is between 1 and 2, so the MB-adsorption process is considered moderate or relatively
 449 hard adsorption. The mesopore facilitated the diffusion of MB-molecules within MWSS
 450 adsorbent, suggesting that MWSS was a promising candidate adsorbent for MB pollutants.



451

452 **Figure 10.** Isotherm study of MB-adsorption by Langmuir (a) and Freundlich (b) adsorption isotherm
 453 versions using mesoporous MWSS adsorbent.

454

455

456

457 **Table 2.** Parameters of Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models for the MB-adsorption using
458 mesoporous MWSS adsorbent.

Langmuir	R ²	q _m mg/g	K _L L/mg	R _L
	0.992	55.5	0.073	< 1
Freundlich	R ²	n	K _F L/mg	
	0.974	1.6	4.52	

459

460

461 **3.6.MB-decolorization kinetic studies**

462 To study the mechanism of MB-adsorption and potential rate-controlling steps under the
463 optimum MB-adsorption conditions, two commonly accepted kinetic models (the pseudo 1st
464 and 2nd order models) were applied to fitting the present investigational results, which are as
465 follows, where the adsorption kinetics was investigated at variable times from 1 to 60 min
466 (Gomaa et al. 2021):

$$467 \log(q_e - q_t) = \log q_e - \left(\frac{K_1}{2.303}\right)t \quad (7)$$

$$468 \frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{K_2 q_e^2} + \left(\frac{1}{q_e}\right)t \quad (8)$$

469 K₁ and K₂ are the rate constants of the pseudo 1st (min⁻¹) and 2nd (g/mg.min) order models.
470 q_e and q_t are the MB-adsorbed quantities (mg/g) at equilibrium and time t, respectively. These
471 corresponding model fitting parameters were calculated from the slope and intercept by
472 plotting Log(q_e-q_t) and t/q_t against time and then summarized in Table 3. According to R²
473 values in Figure 11a, the adsorption of MB-dye followed the pseudo 2nd order model, referring
474 to that the MB-sorption mechanism using MWSS is chemisorption. The MB-removal was
475 relatively rapid at the initial step of the adsorption process and slowed down before achieving

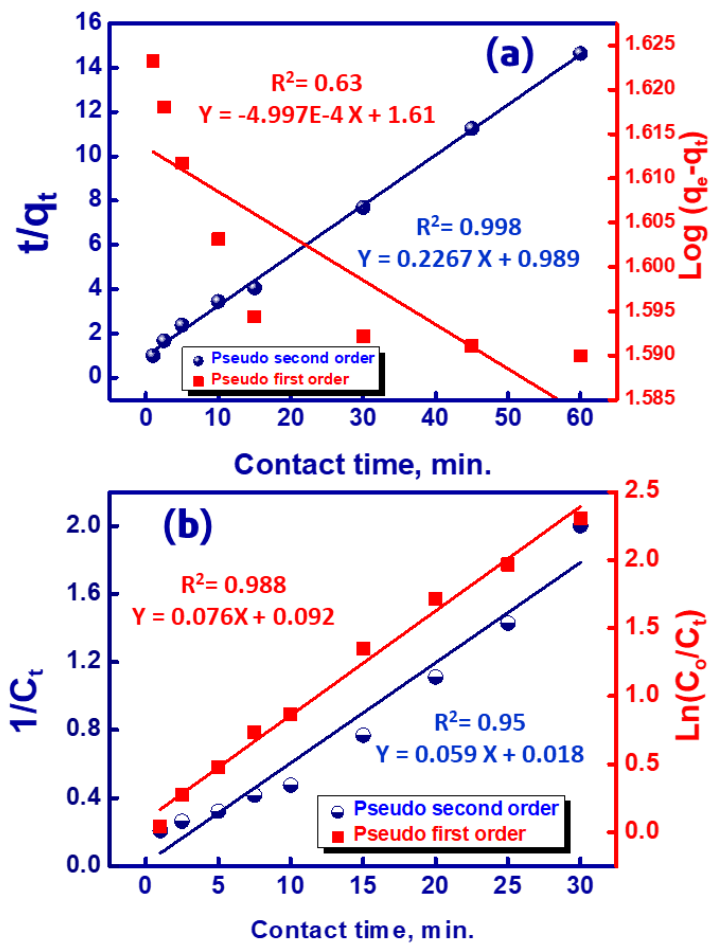
476 the equilibrium point. The calculated q_e value of the pseudo 2nd order model was like the
477 experimental q_e value when the initial MB-concentration was 5 ppm.

478 The kinetic rate of the MB-photocatalytic degradation using MWSS photocatalyst can be
479 determined from the following equations' 1st and 2nd order linear models. According to the
480 apparent 1st and 2nd kinetics formula, C_o is the initial MB-concentration, and C_t is the final MB-
481 concentration after time t (Rahman and Kar 2020):

$$482 \ln \frac{C_o}{C_t} = K_1 \times t \quad (9)$$

$$483 \frac{1}{C_t} = K_2 \times t \quad (10)$$

484 The calculated values of rate constant (K_1 and K_2) of pseudo 1st and 2nd order models, half
485 lifetime ($t_{0.5}$), and R^2 are shown in Table 3. The $t_{0.5}$ (min.) can be determined through $(0.693/K_1)$
486 and $(1/K_2C_o)$ equations for pseudo 1st and 2nd orders, respectively. A linear relationship of
487 $\ln(C_o/C_t)$ and $1/C_t$ versus the time intervals (t) is shown in Figure 11b. From the values of R^2 ,
488 the MB-photocatalytic degradation followed the pseudo 1st order model. Under UV irradiation,
489 the shift of mechanism from pseudo 2nd order kinetics for adsorption to pseudo 1st order kinetic
490 indicates that MB-photocatalytic degradation is a physical process. Therefore, to complete MB-
491 removal through the photocatalytic degradation approach, firstly, MB-molecules should be
492 adsorbed on the MWSS surface.



493

494 **Figure 11.** Kinetic study of MB-adsorption (a) and MB-photocatalytic degradation (b) using
 495 mesoporous MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst through pseudo 1st and 2nd order kinetic models.

496

497

498 **Table 3.** Parameters of pseudo 1st and 2nd order kinetic models for the MB-adsorption and photocatalytic
 499 degradation using mesoporous MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst.

Adsorption	Pseudo-first-order			Pseudo-second-order		
	R ²	K ₁ 1/min	q _e mg/g	R ²	K ₂ g/mg.min	q _e mg/g
	0.63	0.00115	40.7	0.998	0.052	4.4
	R ²	K ₁	t _{0.5}	R ²	K ₂	t _{0.5}

Photodegradation	0.988	0.076	9.11	0.95	0.059	3.39
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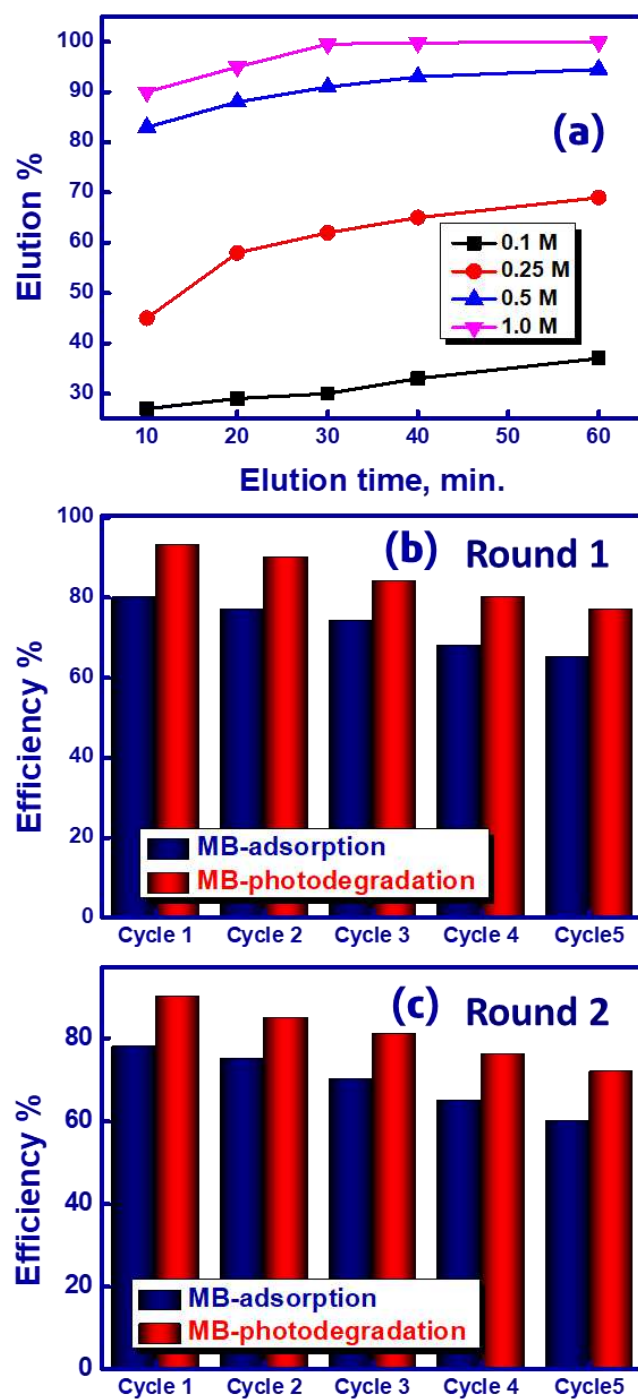
501 **3.7.Regeneration and reusing of MWSS**

502 The reusability of the MWSS adsorbent/catalyst under repeated reuse cycles encompasses an
503 essential perspective in the lab and scale-up applications. The adsorption and photocatalytic
504 degradation processes are also the most economical methods for MB-removal from
505 wastewater, because of the reproducibility enable of spent adsorbent or photocatalyst materials.

506 The elution process permits using the spent adsorbent/photocatalyst several times to minimize
507 the overall MB-removal cost. The adsorption of MB-dye at the inner/outer active sites of
508 mesoporous MWSS adsorbent/catalyst, whether adsorption or photodegradation process, may
509 reduce inner/outer active sites leading to decrease the MB-adsorption and photodegradation
510 efficiency. Therefore, these experiments aim to evaluate how to efficiently reuse the MWSS
511 adsorbent/catalyst for long-term utilization. A set of batch-tests were done to study the impact
512 of HNO₃ concentration and elution time on the MB-elution effectiveness. The regenerated MB-
513 free MWSS solid was filtered, dried, and used for further treatments, displaying its reusability.
514 The elution % of adsorbed MB-dye from MWSS solid was determined as follows: Releasing
515 or elution % = $(C_R/C_A) \times 100$, where C_R and C_A are the released and adsorbed MB-concentration
516 in ppm, respectively.

517 As indicated in Figure 12a, MB-elution % was enhanced with expanded HNO₃ concentration
518 and contact time. The finding data revealed that >99 % of adsorbed MB-dye could be released
519 using 1 M HNO₃ under stirring for 30 min. As illustrated in Figure 12b, the regenerated MWSS
520 remains highly effective and can be employed for numerous reuse/cycles. After each cycle, the
521 MB-removal efficiency was slightly reduced. After the 5th cycle (1st round of MWSS cycling),
522 the MB-removal efficiency was 65% and 77% through the adsorption and photodegradation

523 process, respectively (see Figure 12b). To investigate the dead-end usage of MWSS recycling,
524 the 5-cycle regenerated MWSS (after 1st round cycling) surfaces were re-activated via
525 calcination at 500°C for 4 h, to be ready for the 2nd round of MB-removal (i.e., for further 5
526 reuse/cycles), as shown in Figure 12c. This study will open a new route to MB-removal from
527 real wastewater efficiently with low cost. After a further 5 reuse/cycles, the MB-removal
528 efficiencies were 60%, and 72% through adsorption and photodegradation processes,
529 respectively. The decrease of the adsorption and photodegradation efficiency may be due to
530 the potential influence of the eluent HNO₃ on the reused-MWSS surface-active sites.
531 Therefore, the obtained data show the probability of using MWSS adsorbent/catalyst numerous
532 times in MB-removal from wastewater.



533

534 **Figure 12.** (a) Impact of HNO₃ concentration and contact time on the regeneration efficiency of MWSS
 535 adsorbent/photocatalyst, (b and c) first and second round of spent mesoporous MWSS recycling
 536 as a function of MB-adsorption and photodegradation efficiency.

537

538 **4. Conclusion:**

539 The novel mesoporous spongy MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst was successfully designed for
540 MB-decolorization through adsorption and photocatalytic degradation approaches. Our
541 findings indicated that about 80 and 93% of cationic MB-dye could be removed at pH 10. The
542 MB-adsorption followed Langmuir isotherm, and pseudo 2nd order model, while the MB-
543 photodegradation followed the pseudo 1st order model. The larger surface area and
544 mesoporosity led to a maximum adsorption capacity of 44 mg/g and fast diffusion of MB along
545 the MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst surface. Moreover, the mesoporous MWSS
546 adsorbent/photocatalyst can be recycled for ten reuse cycles, a potential nominee for adsorption
547 and photocatalytic degradation of MB-dye. Therefore, the MWSS adsorbent/photocatalyst with
548 high adsorption and photodegradation efficiency would be a promising adsorbent or
549 photocatalyst for the MB-removal from wastewater.

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551 **Consent to Participate:** Not applicable

552 **Consent to Publish:** Not applicable

553 **Authors Contributions:**

554 Conceptualization: [H. Gomaa]; Methodology: [Mohamed A. T. Hussein, Mohamed M.
555 Motawea]; Formal analysis and investigation: [Mohamed M. Elsenety]; Writing - original
556 draft preparation: [All authors]; Writing - review and editing: [All authors]; Funding
557 acquisition: [Salah M. El-Bahy]; Supervision: [H. Gomaa]. All authors read and approved the
558 final manuscript.

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563 **Availability of data and materials:** Not applicable

564 **References:**

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