

Fabrication of MoS₂-Chitosan Nanocomposites for Environmental Remediation Applications

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Abstract

Accelerated industrial growth results in environmental contamination, particularly in aquatic ecosystems. Photocatalytic degradation is an efficient and environmentally sustainable method for addressing industrial pollution, as it may completely decompose various water pollutants into non-toxic forms. Chitosan (CS) and molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) facilitate effective dye degradation; nevertheless, MoS₂ possesses certain drawbacks. This study therefore synthesised a MoS₂ hybrid nanocomposite based on chitosan (CS) to address these issues by improving the degradation of dye molecules, particularly Methylene Blue (MB), under sun light. The synthesized MoS₂@CS hybrid nanocomposite was comprehensively analyzed utilizing many analytical techniques, including XRD, SEM, UV-Visible, and PL spectroscopy. Various affecting parameters, including irradiation duration, initial dye concentration initial pH and dosage, were improved using batch mode. The heterogeneous MoS₂@CS water hybrid nanocomposite might promote the photodegradation of MB. The attenuated band gap of MoS₂@CS renders it effective for the degradation of MB, achieving a maximum degradation capability of 95% after 90 mins at pH 8 with a minimal dosage of 50 mg. A potential degradation procedure for MB dye molecules in an aqueous environment was proposed. This study presents an innovative photocatalyst for the water purification and decontaminate of dye molecules and other water pollutants in contaminated wastewater.

1. INTRODUCTION:

Dyes are unpleasant poisons due to the negative effects associated with oral consumption or inhalation, leading to ocular and dermal issues [1,2]. Excessive exposure to colored pollutants endangers us with respiratory, cardiovascular, central nervous system, and neurocognitive disorders, in addition to leukemia and autoimmune diseases [3-4]. Color is the principal contaminant present, often in minimal quantities. This occurs because colors inhibit the correct reoxygenation of water. Dye is a challenging material to eliminate because of its intricate makeup and synthetic origins. Water is vital for sustaining ecological and enhancing quality of life; therefore, it must be controlled before being released into water bodies [5-7]. Certain physical, chemical, or biological changes adversely affect water quality, rendering it hazardous for direct use [8]. Numerous enterprises release untreated effluents into freshwater sources, with colors identified as significant water contaminants. A variety of physical, chemical, and biological methods are employed to treat this aqueous sludge [9,10]. Photocatalysis might be considered one of the most vital methods as it does not generate any secondary pollutants.

Chitosan (CS), an environmentally benign material with low production costs, has garnered considerable acceptance in various domains such as water treatment, food packaging, tissue engineering, sensor fabrication, and pharmaceutical delivery due to its reliable biocompatibility, biodegradability, low immunogenicity, elevated permeability, antibacterial properties, advantageous optical attributes, and superior film-forming ability [11-12]. The highly delocalized, polarized, and electron-rich π bonds that constitute the alternating single and double bonds in a conjugated carbon chain enhance the optical characteristics of CS. The lone-pair electrons that the nitrogen and hydrogen atoms in the amine and hydroxyl functional groups of CS possess are crucial for a polymer electrode system because they enable coordinated interactions with charged particles. [13]. The unceasing interactions between charge carriers and the attainable functional groups will facilitate the transit of polymer chain segments, resulting in conductive behavior of the polymer. Nevertheless, it is low [14]; the cause of the diminished conductivity is attributed to the tightly bonded hydrogen atom in CS. A considerable amount of solution, either water or electrolyte, can be retained and absorbed by the CS membranes. This attribute enables CS membranes to exhibit ionic mobility, which is crucial for electrochemical investigations [15]. A notable drawback of utilizing CS as an electrode is its limited conductivity. An additional drawback is that extended use may

result in organic liquid solvent leaks from the CS electrode, hence diminishing ionic conductivity [16]. A further drawback is its inadequate chemical resistance, as the amino and hydroxyl groups in CS are essential for enhancing electrode resistance by obstructing anions and large molecules [17].

The aforementioned difficulties might be resolved by effectively spreading inorganic fillers of nano or submicron dimensions throughout the polymer. It has been shown that fillers can substantially influence the properties of polymer electrodes. Inorganic fillers may be used into materials to inhibit polymer crystallization, hence facilitating ion mobility during the morphological phase and augmenting electrochemical stability at the interfacial boundary [18]. Transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs), including MoS₂, SnS₂, and WS₂, have garnered significant attention for their exceptional mechanical and electrical properties, elevated spin-orbit coupling, altered bandgap, atomic-scale thickness, catalytic characteristics, charge storage capabilities, and other notable attributes.

This study initially developed a composite catalytic system of CS. A photocatalyst composed of MoS₂@CS spheres with a high specific surface area was synthesized utilizing straightforward hydrothermal and in situ techniques, without the application of templates. The synthesized photocatalysts were utilized for the degradation of MB. The produced samples were characterized using various techniques. This study examined the synthesis and photocatalytic characteristics of the MoS₂ and CS core-shell structure, offering a novel approach for the development of photocatalysts for dye wastewater remediation.

2. Experimental:

2.1 Materials

The creation of the photocatalyst entails the use of essential components, specifically chitosan, sodium molybdate dihydrate, and methylene blue (MB), obtained from Sigma Aldrich. Hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide were utilized for pH adjustment. All solutions were prepared utilizing deionized water.

2.2 Synthesis of MoS₂

The MoS₂ nanoflower was produced via the hydrothermal technique. Sodium molybdate dihydrate (Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O) was necessary as the molybdenum (Mo) source, together with (CH₄N₂S). Sodium molybdate dihydrate and thiourea were first suspended in 150 ml of deionized water, and then subjected to vigorous stirring, resulting in a translucent solution. The solution was subsequently placed in a 200 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and subjected to hydrothermal treatment for 20 h at 240 °C. The precipitate was subjected to centrifugation and subsequently washed with ethanol and deionized water. The resultant black powder was made to dry at 80 °C for 20 h to produce MoS₂ nanoflowers [19].

2.3 Preparation of nanocomposite

Solution casting was used to create the MoS₂@CS nanocomposite film, with MoS₂ concentrations ranging from 0.1 weight percent to 0.5 weight percent. One and a half grammes of CS were dissolved in a 1% acetic acid aqueous solution, and vigorous mechanical stirring was done at room temperature to create a base solution known as the CS solution. 3 mL of diluted CS solution, 15 mg of MoS₂ and fifteen millilitres of deionised water were combined to create a dopant solution of MoS₂. A small amount of CS and three millilitres of 1% acetic acid were used to create this diluted CS solution. The aggregation of MoS₂ is prevalent and typically settles near the bottom of the beaker [20]. Therefore, the dopant solution was mixed with a diluted chitosan solution to ensure the best possible dispersibility and stability. As a surfactant, CS provides MoS₂ with hydroxyl, carboxyl, and amino groups to coat its surface. This promotes homogeneous dispersion by reducing the chance of MoS₂ aggregation. Subsequently, to make the film, the requisite volume of dopant solution was introduced into the base solution utilising a pipette and agitated with a magnetic stirrer at 45 °C. 5 mL of glycerol were included into the entire solution to enhance its viscosity. The diluted CS solution is of such little quantity that it does not influence the overall composite concentration. Subsequently, as soon as the solution attained sufficient viscosity to create a film, it was transferred into a Petri dish and allowed to dry at ambient temperature until the film was established. The film was meticulously removed from the Petri plate once adequately dried and kept for future characterization [21].

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

3.1 XRD studies

The results of X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of the materials' crystal structures are shown in Fig. 1. Cai et al. (2017) found that the characteristic crystalline structure of CS is represented by the diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 10.7^\circ$ and 19.9° . The diffraction peaks at 14.5° , 33.0° , 39.8° , and 58.4° are associated with the MoS₂ crystalline planes (002), (100), (103), and (110) (JCPDS 65-1951). The incorporation of CS considerably reduces the strength of its diffraction peaks, and MoS₂ diffraction peaks similarly decrease. This phenomenon validates the effective functionalisation of CS and the chemical reaction between MoS₂ and CS while synthesis [22-23].

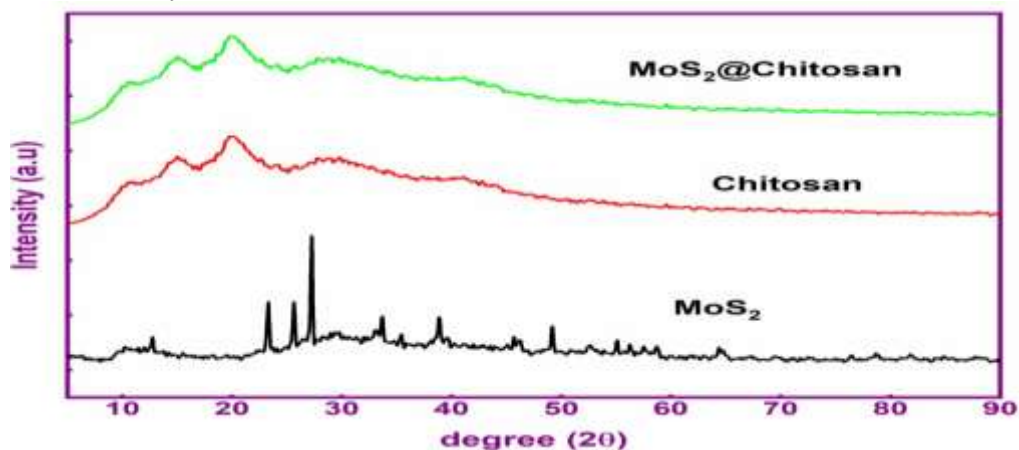


Fig.1 XRD of MoS₂, CS and MoS₂@CS

3.2 Morphology:

SEM was used to investigate the surface morphology of CS, MoS₂ nanoflower, and MoS₂@CS nanocomposite film; the resulting images are shown in Fig. 2(a)-(c). Figure 2(a) displays the SEM images of the CS film, revealing a smooth and uniform surface free of any pores throughout the film. Figure 2(b) illustrates the SEM image of MoS₂ particles exhibiting several nanoscale petals. The petals are irregularly linked and thickly grouped around a central point, like a spherical flower. The discovered porous architecture of MoS₂ nanoflowers substantially influences the electrochemical activity of the nanocomposites. Figure 2(c) depicts the SEM image of MoS₂@CS, validating the presence of MoS₂ nanoparticles by revealing petals encased within CS. MoS₂@CS nanocomposite films reveal remarkably a lot of prominent pores, due to the creation of MoS₂ nanoparticles on the surface. The porous structure enhances the influx of ion particles to the surface of the active materials. The inclusion of MoS₂ markedly improves the surface roughness of the films, hence increasing the surface area [24]. The raise in surface area will expose more active sites, hence improving electrochemical performance.

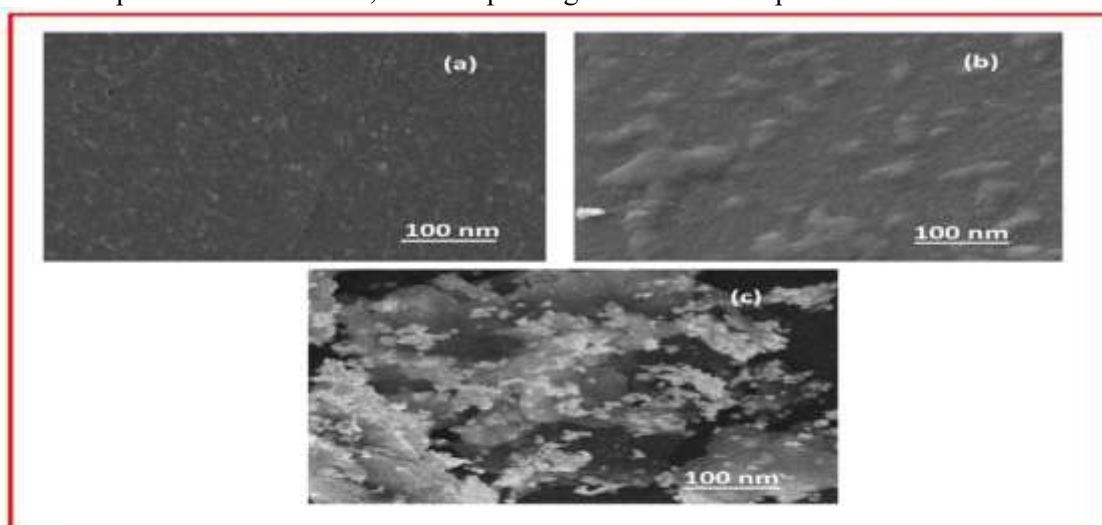


Fig.2 SEM images (a) CS (b) MoS₂ and (c) MoS₂@CS

3.3 Optical Properties

The optical characteristics of the synthesised CS and MoS₂ composite catalysts were examined using UV–Vis DRS absorption spectroscopy, as shown in Fig. 3a. In comparison to the MoS₂@CS The absorption edge of the synthesised CS and MoS₂@CS composite heterojunction exhibits a significant redshift and enhanced absorption in the visible-light spectrum, including a substantial percentage of both the UV and visible-light ranges. Simultaneously, the absorption intensity increases with the proportionate increase in MoS₂ content. Consequently, the optical bandgap energies (E_g) were derived using the Kubelka-Munk plots, specifically plotting $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ against the photon energy (hν) as illustrated in Fig. 3b; here, h, α, and ν represent the Planck constant, diffuse absorption coefficient, and light frequency, respectively. The optical E_g values are determined to be 3.1 eV for the as-synthesized CS sample and 3.2 eV for the MoS₂@CS composite sample. The alterations in the optical absorption spectrum may be attributed to the reduced coupling length and the associated quantum confinement effects [25]. Furthermore, the diminished optical bandgap of the MoS₂@CS composite heterojunction may enhance visible-light absorption efficiency due to the narrow optical E_g characteristics of MoS₂, potentially benefiting the absorption of additional photons to produce more photo-excited charge carriers by improving separation efficiency [26]. Consequently, it can significantly enhance the photocatalytic degradation of dyes.

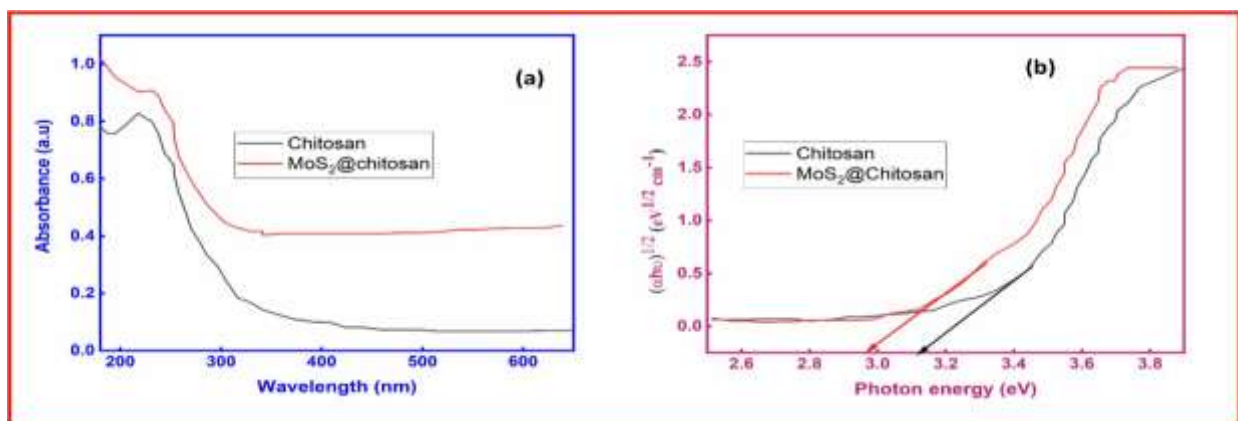


Fig 3 (a) UV-Vis of CS and MoS₂@CS (b) Tauc's plot of CS and MoS₂@CS

The photo-degradation efficacy was investigated using standard RhB aqueous organic contaminants under light exposure to evaluate the photo-degradation capabilities of the synthesised catalytic sample [27]. Figure 4a illustrates the photocatalytic degradation efficacy of the MoS₂@CS heterojunction sample on the degrading of the organic dye methylene blue (MB). Figure 6a illustrates that the absorbance of the MB aqueous dye solutions diminishes consistently with prolonged light exposure, indicating that the dyes are gradually destroyed. In the absence of a catalyst, over 3% of aqueous MB dyes were destroyed (Fig. 4b), indicating that the self-decomposition of the dyes is insignificant [28]. The unblemished CS composite film exhibited minimal disintegration in the absorption of aqueous MB (30.5%) dye solution during 90 minutes of light exposure.

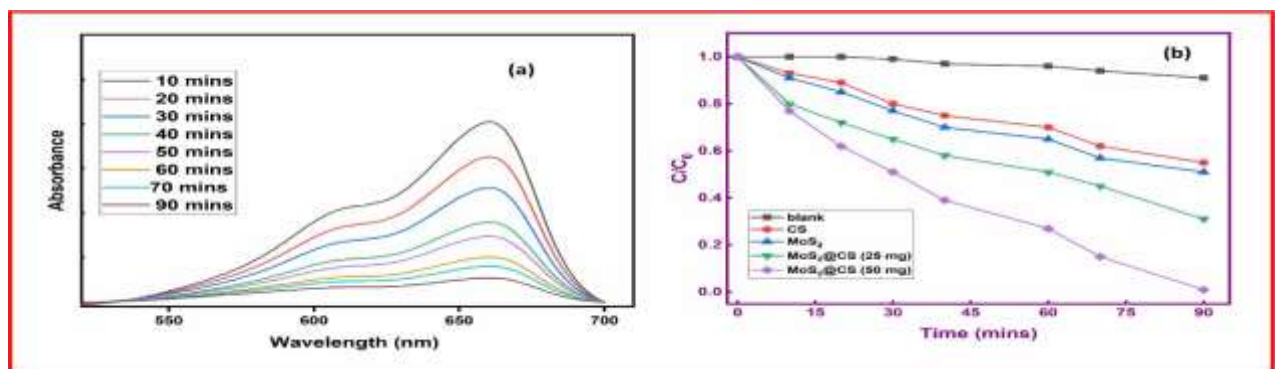


Fig 4 (a) UV absorption spectrum of MB degradation with MoS₂@CS (b) Photocatalytic degradation of MB with different photocatalyst

CONCLUSION:

In summary, the CS and MoS₂ hybrid nanocomposite (CS@MoS₂) exhibited outstanding photocatalytic efficacy for the degrading of MB dye in aqueous solutions when exposed to visible light. The production of this hybrid material mitigated the constraints of MoS₂ by improving dye degradation efficiency. Thorough characterisation via XRD, SEM, UV-visible, and PL spectroscopy validated the structural integrity and photocatalytic efficacy of the MoS₂@CS nanocomposite. Enhancing factors, including irradiation duration, pH, dose, and beginning dye concentration, resulted in a remarkable 95% breakdown efficiency of MB within 90 minutes at pH 8, utilising only 50 mg of the catalyst. The limited band gap of the MoS₂@CS composite was essential in promoting the degradation of MB, underscoring its applicability in environmental contexts. This study not only presents a method for eliminating toxic dyes from industrial effluent but also elucidates the breakdown mechanism of MB under photocatalytic conditions. The MoS₂@CS hybrid nanocomposite demonstrates considerable potential as a sustainable and efficient photocatalyst for water purification, aiding in the detoxification of aquatic ecosystems from industrial pollutants.

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