

A comparative study of ceramic nanoparticles synthesized for antibiotic removal: catalysis characterization and photocatalytic performance modeling

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A comparative study of ceramics nanoparticles synthesized for 1 antibiotic removal: Catalysis characterization and photocatalytic 2 performances modeling 3 Oussama Baaloudj^{a, b}, Noureddine Nasrallah^a, Mohammed Kebir^{a, c}, Lotfi Khezami^{d, e}, 4 Abdeltif Amrane^b, Aymen Amin Assadi^{b*} 5 ^a Laboratory of Reaction Engineering, Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and Process Engineering USTHB, BP 6 7 32, Algiers, Algeria. 8 ^b Univ Rennes - ENSCR / UMR CNRS 6226, Campus de Beaulieu, av. du Général Leclerc, 35700 Rennes, 9 France. ^c Research Unit on Analysis and Technological Development in Environment (UR-ADTE/CRAPC), BP 384, Bou-10 11 Ismail Tipaza. Algeria. 12 ^d Department of Chemistry, College of Sciences, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU), P.O. Box 13 5701, Riyadh, 11432, Saudi Arabia. 14 eLaNSER, Research and Technology Centre of Energy (CRTEn), BorjCedriaTechnopark, BP.95, Hammam -Lif 15 2050, Tunisia.

16 * Corresponding author. Tel.: +33 2 23238152- E-mail address: <u>aymen.assadi@ensc-rennes.fr</u> (A. Assadi).

17 Abstract

The heterogeneous photocatalysis process has been known to provide 18 significant levels of degradation and mineralization of emerging contaminants 19 including antibiotics. For that, nanoparticles CuCr2O4 (CCO) ceramics were 20 successfully prepared via sol-gel (SG) and co-precipitation (CP) methods to obtain 21 spinel with desired structural features and properties and also to improve the 22 photocatalytic performances. The CCO crystallite phase was produced at 750 °C all 23 ceramics, disregarding the synthesis route. CCO physical and chemical properties 24 were checked by X-ray diffraction (XRD) with Rietveld refinement, Brunauer Emmett 25 Teller (BET), Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FT-IR), Scanning Electron 26 Microscope (SEM), Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM) and Diffuse 27 Reflectance Solid (DRS). The XRD patterns demonstrated that the synthesized 28 catalysts displayed a small crystallite size between 17.45 and 26.24 nm for SG and 29 20.97 to 36.86 nm for the CCO_{CP} samples. The observation by SEM and TEM of the 30 nanopowders showed a typical morphology with comparable particle sizes for both 31 synthesized routes (20-30 nm). SG agglomeration rates were higher, and particles 32

stick together more efficiently considering the CP method, while the CCO_{CP} method
 led to a more significant porosity.

Their photocatalytic and adsorption performances were examined for Cefaclor (CFC) 35 removal chosen as a target pharmaceutical contaminant in water. The results 36 obtained by the methods differed since nanoparticles prepared by SG led to high 37 photocatalytic activity. In contrast, a high CFC adsorption was observed for those 38 prepared via the CP method, and that agreed with the findings of the characterization 39 analysis. The Kinetics of the adsorption process was found to follow the pseudo-40 second-order rate law. In contrast, the data of the photodegradation process were 41 further found to comply with the Lagergren kinetic law. Nevertheless, the global 42 reaction rate is probably controlled by the intra-particular diffusion of CFC, regardless 43 of the elimination process. 44

45

Keywords: Ceramics nanoparticles, Co-precipitation, Sol-gel processes,
 Photocatalysis, Adsorption, Kinetic modeling.

48

49 **1. Introduction**

Water is definitely our planet's most important natural resource, and it is necessary for all species in our lives. Approximately 71 % of the surface of the earth is wrapped by water, while the oceans occupy about 96.5 % of the water resources (Kümmerer 2009). In the context of icecaps and frozen seas, freshwater constitutes only 2.5 % of the polar premises and rivers, lakes and reservoirs only 0.3 % of the global water resources. Despite the lack of fresh water on earth, it is constantly contaminated with various chemical contaminants such as drugs (Kaczala and E. Blum 2015).

Various medicinal compounds have sullied the aqueous environment in recent 57 years, including antibiotics that need special attention because of their large use in 58 human and veterinary medicine (Lalouckova and Skrivanova 2019), as well as in 59 improving feed quality and growth levels in the livestock and poultry industries. in 60 addition, antibiotics are the main concern of researchers all over the world if 61 compared to the other categories of pharmaceutical products because of their 62 increasing aquatic toxicity and nonbiodegradability in the environment (Mostafaloo et 63 al. 2019; Aissani et al. 2020). Generally, antibiotics are present at amounts ranging 64 from ng/L to µg/L in treated wastewater (lkhlef-Taguelmimt et al. 2020; Kadji et al. 65

2020). Even at very low amounts, the existence of these substances in water
 resources, enhances bacterial resistance (Shooshtari and Ghazi 2017).

A target antibiotic example is Cefaclor (CFC) belonging to the beta-lactam group, 68 second-generation cephalosporin with antibacterial activity. Cefaclor is (6R,7R) -7-69 [[(2R)-2-amino-2-phenylacetyl]amino]-3-chloro-8-oxo-5-thia-1 azabicyclo [4.2.0] oct-70 2-ene-2-carboxylic acid with molecular formula C15H14CIN3O4S. Also, it is a 71 cephalosporin bearing chloro and (R)-2-amino-2-phenylacetamido groups at 72 positions 3 and 7, respectively; the above described molecular structure is displayed 73 in Figure S.1. It has a role as an antibacterial and allergen drugs. To our knowledge, 74 no study has been made yet concerning the photocatalyst degradation of cefaclor. 75

Conventional methods cannot effectively eliminate antibiotic residues due to 76 antibacterial nature (Chen and Huang 2010; Li and Zhang 2010; Gao et al. 2012). In 77 this respect, Advanced Oxidation Processes (AOPs) have proven to be a suitable 78 alternative for the rapid destruction of recalcitrant and non-biodegradable compounds 79 in contaminated waters (Lou et al. 2017; Aboudalle et al. 2018; Kamagate et al. 80 2018; Yahiaoui et al. 2018; Kadji et al. 2020). The heterogeneous photocatalysis 81 process in particular has been successfully used to degrade different types of 82 pharmaceutical drugs and organic compounds (Zhu et al. 2013; Aissani et al. 2018, 83 2020; Hou et al. 2019; Ikhlef-Taguelmimt et al. 2020; Shan et al. 2020). our previous 84 study showed that CuCr₂O₄ (CCO) photocatalyst had a good photocatalytic reduction 85 of Cr(VI) (Lahmar et al. 2012). Also, CCO has been shown a significant degradation 86 activity for removal of organic and antibiotics compounds (Akhundi and Habibi-87 Yangjeh 2017; Hariganesh et al. 2020). For that, CCO was considered and It was 88 synthesized by different routes. 89

There is a considerable amount of research concentrating on the preparation 90 methods to enhance the photo-catalytical properties as they have been found to have 91 a strong effect on the semiconductor's crystallinity (Santhanam and Rambabu 2010; 92 Kafshgari et al. 2019). The facile method for preparing CCO ceramic involves mixing 93 copper nitrate and chromium nitrate in a 1:2 molar ratio and then calcining at 750 C° 94 for 6 hours (Acharyya et al. 2015). Wet chemical methods like sol-gel (Geng et al. 95 2012), co-precipitation (Hu et al. 2011) and hydrothermal (Mobini et al. 2017) 96 methods are auspicious routes for yielding high purity single-phase CCO at 97 approximately low temperatures, although certain inconveniences exist. For example, 98

hydrothermal synthesis needs the usage of an autoclave with pressures of about 70-99 175 MPa (Ramanujam et al. 2014), whilst synthesized combustion powders lead to 100 chemical inhomogeneity and particles agglomeration because of strong local heating 101 (Devi et al. 2002; Ramanujam et al. 2014; Das et al. 2018). Nevertheless, the 102 synthesis of sol-gel and co-precipitation may be inexpensive methods and more 103 expected to produce homogenous CCO nanopowders. In addition, it has already 104 shown that these methods have a positive impact on semiconductor efficiency (Paul 105 et al. 2015; Peymanfar and Ramezanalizadeh 2018). 106

Thus, the ceramic CuCr₂O₄ has been synthesized by two different synthesis methods, using the sol-gel and co-precipitation methods. The obtained solid powders were characterized by different analyses, and the properties of the two obtained powders were explored and compared. The final aspect of this study was the examination and modeling of the photodegradation and the adsorption performances of CFC upon visible light irradiation using CCO as a semiconductor.

113 **2. Material and methods**

114 2.1 Chemicals

115 Copper nitrate trihydrate [Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O] (98% Fluka), chromium nitrate 116 nonahydrate [Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O] (98% Biochem), Cefaclor Monohydrate C₁₅H₁₄ClN₃O₄S 117 and Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) K30, procured from a pharmaceutical company 118 Pharmalliance in Algeria, ethanol from Biochem, and NaOH, HCl, nitric acid from 119 Sigma Aldrich, were utilized in the research. All used chemicals are of analytical 120 grade.

121 2.2 Synthesis of CuCr2O4 via sol-gel method

CCO was synthesized via the aqueous PVP sol-gel method (Figure S.2 a). The 122 gel was prepared using stoichiometric amounts (1:2 ratio) of copper nitrate trihydrate 123 [Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O] and chromium nitrate nonahydrate [Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O] respectively, 124 which were dissolved in ethanol separately by using a magnetic stirrer, an excess of 125 5% citric acid was added in the solutions. After a total solubility, the two solutions 126 were mixed and were placed on a hot plate at 50 °C for 1h. Then, 127 Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP K30) as a complexing agent (15% w/w (Giannopoulou et 128 al. 2015)) was dissolved in 50 ml water and added dropwise to the reaction medium. 129 Subsequently, to the concentration of the solutions by evaporation at 80 °C for 20 hrs 130

under stirring, the mixed solution turned into a black gel. The obtained gel was dried
at 200 °C for 6 h and an auto combustion reaction took place giving a precursor
powder (Xerogel).

The amorphous powder was ground and subjected to calcination at 700°C in an air atmosphere for 6 hours (Mobini et al. 2017). The synthesized sample was annealed to improve the degree of crystallinity as well as to eliminate any carbonaceous residue left after the combustion reaction. Then, the resulting nanopowder was subjected to phase identification, comparative and application studies.

139 2.3 Synthesis of CuCr2O4 via co-precipitation method

140 CCO was prepared by chemical co-precipitation (Figure S.2 b). Stoichiometric amounts 1:2 of copper nitrate trihydrate [Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O] and chromium nitrate 141 nonahydrate [Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O] were totally dissolved in an aqueous solution, then 5% 142 of concentrated HNO3 was added under continuous magnetic stirring. NaOH 6 M 143 solution was dropped into the bleu mixture with vigorous stirring to keep the pH in the 144 range (9-10). A black to bluish precipitate was produced immediately confirming the 145 formation of CCO spinel. Consequently, the precipitate was filtered and washed 146 several times repeatedly with distilled water then dried at 120 °C for 24 h in an 147 autoclave; then, the precursor powder was ground to a fine powder. 148

The obtained powder was annealed at 700°C under air for 6 hours to remove possible residual organic matter and to obtain a single crystalline phase (Mobini et al. 2017). Moreover, the as-synthesized sample was subjected to phase identification, comparative and application studies.

153 2.4 Photocatalyst characterization

The phase analysis was investigated by X-ray diffractometer (XRD) in the range 154 from 5 ° to 80 °. with Phillips PW 1730, X-ray diffractometer using monochromatized 155 Cu K radiation (λ = 0.15417 nm). The surface morphology of the sample SEM was 156 observed by using Scanning Electron Microscope Brilliance 180P. as well as 157 transmission electron microscope (TEM JEOL-24011BU) considered to take images 158 of the nanostructures. ATR-FTIR spectra were achieved in the range of 400-4000 159 cm⁻¹ by using an Alpha Bruker spectrometer. UV-visible diffuse reflectance spectrum 160 (DRS) of the sample was measured with dry pressed disk samples through Cary 161 5000 UV-vis equipped with the integration sphere. 162

163 2.5 Adsorption procedure

Cefaclor antibiotic (CFC) was chosen as a pharmaceutical contaminant model 164 to investigate the adsorption performance of the two samples of CCO. The 165 166 adsorption of CFC was conducted in batch mode by mixing 0.1 g of catalyst and solution CCF (100 mL) with an initial concentration of 10 mg/L. The solution was 167 continuously stirred in the dark at a fixed ambient temperature in a closed reactor for 168 2 hours. At a regular interval of time, 2 mL of sample was taken and separated by 169 centrifugation at the speed of 5,000 rpm for 10 min. the aliquot concentration was 170 directly analyzed by UV-Visible spectrometry (OPTIZEN, UV-3220UV) at the 171 maximum absorption wavelength of CFC (264 nm) (Fig. S.3). It should be mentioned 172 that the small positive error of UV-Visible spectrometry in comparison with HPLC was 173 considered insignificant and hence ignored. The experiments were done in triplicate 174 under the same conditions. The adsorption rate of CFC was calculated using the 175 following equation (1): 176

Adsorption (t)% =
$$\frac{(C_o - C(t))}{C_o} \times 100$$
 (1)

Where Co (mg.L⁻¹) is the initial concentration of CFC and C (t) (mg.L⁻¹) is the concentration of CFC at a given time t (min).

179 2.6 Photocatalytic procedure

The photocatalytic degradation of CFC was conducted using 0.1g of CCO 180 added to 100 mL of CFC solution with 20 mg/L initial concentration in a natural pH ~ 181 6, as those are the optimal conditions for the observation of the photodegradation 182 process as 10 mg/L initial concentration of CFC was partially removed by adsorption. 183 The suspension was continuously stirred for 120 min in dark condition in a closed 184 reactor to reach the balance of adsorption and desorption before switch on the visible 185 light. A tungsten lamp (200 W) was used as a visible light source. With a cooling 186 system, the temperature of the solution during all the photocatalytic experiments was 187 kept constant. Aliquot of 3 mL was withdrawn from the mixture at a predetermined 188 time centrifuged before further analysis. The experiments were performed in triplicate 189 under the same conditions for adsorption and photodegradation experiments. The 190 photodegradation rate of CFC was calculated using the following equation (2): 191

Photodegradation (t)% =
$$\frac{(C_{Ad} - C(t))}{C_{Ad}} \times 100$$
 (2)

Where C_{ad} (mg/L) is the initial concentration of CFC after adsorption and C (*t*) (mg/L) is the concentration of CFC at time t (min).

194 2.7 Adsorption and photodegradation kinetics study

Adsorption Kinetics and mechanism study are essential in the treatment of 195 aqueous wastewater as it provides valuable information on of adsorption process. 196 Adsorption kinetics experimental data is generally presented by a pseudo-first- or 197 pseudo-second-order law. Equation (3) represents a pseudo-first-order model of 198 Lagergren (S Lagergren, S LAGERGREN, S.Y. Lagergren, SY Lagergren 1898) with 199 a rate constant k_1 (min⁻¹) and q_e the maximum amount of CFC adsorbed at 200 equilibrium. The plot of $\ln(q_e - q_t)$ against t permit the determination of k_1 and q_e , 201 respectively. 202

$$Ln(q_{e} - q_{t}) = Ln(q_{e}) - k_{1}.t$$
(3)

A pseudo-second-order law can be represented by equation (4), where k_2 stands for the pseudo-second-order rate constant g (mg.min)⁻¹ (Y.S. Ho 1998, 1999). Both parameters q_e and k_2 can be obtained from the slope and intercept of t/qt versus t graph.

$$\frac{t}{q_{i}} = \frac{1}{k_{2} \cdot q_{e}^{2}} + \frac{t}{q_{e}}$$
(4)

The uptake and photodegradation of CFC can be controlled by either the mass transfer through the boundary film of liquid or by the intra-particular mass transfer. The linearized equation of mass transfer kinetic model proposed by Ketcha Mbadcam et al (Mbadcam et al. 2011), is expressed as follows:

$$Ln(C_0 - C_t) = Ln(D) + k_0.t$$
(5)

where *Co* and *Ct* are respectively the initial concentration and concentration of solute (mg.L⁻¹) at an instant *t* (min), *D* is the mass transfer constant and *ko* (min⁻¹) the adsorption constant. CFC may be conveyed from the solution to the solid particles by the intra-particle diffusion/transport process. Sometimes, such a mechanism model is a rate-limiting step in the adsorption or photodegradation process. The probability of intra-particular diffusion is examined through the Weber and Morris diffusion model (El-Sikaily et al. 2007; Hameed et al. 2009):

$$q_t = k_{dif} \cdot t^{1/2} + C$$
 (6)

where the intercept C provides information about the thickness of the boundary layer. The intra-particle diffusion constant, *kdif* values (in mg.g⁻¹.min^{1/2}), for the tested adsorbent are obtained from the slopes of the graphs (Figures 15 and 16) as illustrated in Table 3 and 4. The validity of these models is thereafter discussed based on the regression coefficient r^2 .

223

224 **3. Results and discussion**

3.1 CCO Characterization results

In order to investigate the single phase of CCO in the samples, X-ray diffraction 226 (XRD) patterns after calcination were elucidated in figure 1. In both methods, almost 227 the same single phase of CCO without impurity was formed. The phase of the CCO 228 could be indexed to the typical diffraction lines of the bulk, all the peaks were 229 assigned to the single-phase spinel of CuCr₂O₄ in good accordance with the standard 230 card (JCPDS 98-005-9266) (Villars and Cenzual; Dollase and O'Neill 1997). The only 231 difference observed was the crystallite size which was calculated with the following 232 Debey-Scherer formula Eq. (3) and which could be due to the high intensity of all 233 peaks. The crystalline size for the sol-gel method was found to be in the range of 234 17.45 to 26.24 nm and for co-precipitation, it was in the range of 20.97 to 36.86 nm. 235

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta\cos(\theta)} \tag{3}$$

where *D* is the average crystallite size of the phase under investigation in nanometers, K is the Scherrer constant, λ is the wavelength of X-ray beam used, β is the full width at half maxima (FWHM) in radians and θ is the Braggs angle.

The X-ray density was estimated from the standard relation shown in equation (4)
(Kenfoud et al. 2020).

$$\rho = \frac{ZM}{N_A V} \tag{4}$$

Where N_A is Avogadro's number $(6.02 \times 10^{23} mol^{-1})$, *M* is the molecular weight of CCO (231.535 g.mol⁻¹), *Z* is the number of formula unit present in a unit cell (Z = 4)

and *V* is the volume of the unit cell ($283.05 \times 10^6 \ pm^3$) The X-ray density for both methods was found to be 5,43 g.cm^{-3.}

Significant parameters including particle size, shape and density are associated with the specific surface area (SSA) measurements ($m^2 \cdot g^{-1}$). Using the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) equation (5) (Bykkam et al. 2015), the specific surface area of CCO nanoparticle was measured.

$$S = \frac{6 \times 10^3}{Dp \times \rho} \tag{5}$$

where Dp is the size of the particles, *S* is the specific surface area, and ρ is the X-ray density of CCO 5.43 g.cm⁻³. Using this formula SSA was found to be 50.58 and 38.22 m².g⁻¹ for the nanoparticles obtained by the sol-gel and the co-precipitation methods, respectively. Consequently, very fine nanoparticles were obtained by the sol-gel method, the smaller the particle size of the catalyst, the bigger the particular surface area. A high catalyst surface area may result in better catalytic activity.

255

Fig. 1 XRD diffractogram of CCO (a) co-precipitation (b) sol-gel.

For the structural investigation of CCO, the XRD of the sol-gel was chosen and 256 a Rietveld refinement method supplied by Maud software (version 2.93) was used. 257 The experimental points are given as dot (.) and theoretical data determined by Maud 258 are shown as a red line (Fig. 2). The difference between theoretical and experimental 259 data is shown as the bottom line. The vertical lines reflect the approved Bragg's 260 peaks. The results (Fig. 2) showed a strong matching with the findings calculated by 261 the technique Rietveld and those observed in the experimental X-ray diffraction 262 patterns. 263

The refined values represented an orthorhombic structure (space group 264 Fddd:2) which is different from the database. In comparison with other known 265 methods of structural properties, the Rietveld refinement results gave identical results 266 (YE, Zuo-Guang; Dollase and O'Neill 1997). The refinement was done by calculating 267 the reliability factors such as profile R_{p} , expected profile R_{exp} , and weighted profile 268 R_{wp} and Sig (GOF) which is the strength of the ratio of R_{wp} to R_{exp} (Akhtar et al. 269 2019). For refined structural parameters, GOF must be close to 1. Rietveld refined 270 parameters (R-factors) with the cell parameters (a,b,c) and atomic position (x,y,z) of 271 272 Rietveld are described in Table 1. The inset in Figure 2 showed the schematic

273 representation of the CCO structure by Vesta (version 3.4.0) using the parameters of274 the table.

275

Fig. 2 Reitveld refined XRD diffractograms. Inset: the structural representation of CCO.

276

Table. 1 Rietveld refined parameters from MAUD software.

277 Phase crystallite of CuCr₂O₄ can be confirmed by FTIR analysis and support the conclusion drawn by XRD data shown in Fig. 3. One can see that both methods 278 showed the same FTIR spectrum with the absence of any vibration band attributable 279 to carbonates. The synthesized CCO showed broad absorption bands arising from 280 O–H stretching and bending vibration of water at 3000 cm⁻¹ (Geng et al. 2012). The 281 same three strong absorption bands observed in both sol-gel and co-precipitation 282 samples in the region of $600-480 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ belonged to the typical metal-oxygen (M–O) 283 stretching vibrations (Geng et al. 2012; Mobini et al. 2017; Ramezanalizadeh et al. 284 2019). The two peaks at 599.79cm⁻¹ and 552.35 cm⁻¹ confirmed the formation of 285 spinel copper chromite powder, which arose due to the stretching vibration of Cr^{3+} -286 O²⁻ at tetrahedral and octahedral sites coordination existence (Mobini et al. 2017). 287 Also, the absorption peak at 488.61 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the metal-oxygen (Cu-O) 288 vibration bond in the complex (Ramezanalizadeh et al. 2019). Moreover, the 289 absorption bands appeared at 552.35 cm⁻¹. could also be related to the stretching 290 vibrations of the Cr-O-Cu structure (Mobini et al. 2017). 291

292

Fig. 3 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of CCO.

In order to examine the morphology and structures of the prepared samples, 293 Scanning Electron Micrograph (SEM) and transmission electron microscope (TEM) 294 techniques were investigated. Figure 4 (a, b) shows typical SEM images of the sol-295 gel sample. The sample was made up of ultra-fine nanoparticles. These particles 296 displayed some agglomerated morphology because of the nature of the sample. 297 Also, the SEM images of the co-precipitation sample Figure 4 (c, d), show a high rate 298 299 of porosity. The suspension viscosity plays a significant role in developing the porous structure. With the increase in the viscosity of the suspension, the porous structure 300 301 becomes compact (Tripathy et al. 2016).

302

Fig. 4 SEM images of CCO (a, b) sol-gel (c, d) co-precipitation.

The CCO's sol-gel TEM images shown in figure 5 (a) gives clear information regarding the shape and size distribution of the sol-gel nanoparticles. As can be

seen, this sample was composed of approximately 25 nm particles on average, which 305 agrees well with XRD results. However, for the co-precipitation sample, the particle 306 sizes were estimated to be 40 nm (figure 5 c). It can be seen from the images that 307 the sol-gel process produced smaller nanoparticles than the co-precipitation method. 308 Moreover, the figures also clearly show that the particle aggregation led to 309 aggregates of an average at the nanometers scale, which was higher for the sol-gel 310 method. Furthermore, the lattice fringe in figures 5 (b and d) corresponded to [121] 311 plane (orientation of the crystallites) of CuCr₂O₄ spinel with a diffraction angle (2 θ) of 312 35.25 (Mohammad Kabir Hossain 2013). For the two preparation methods, the 313 electron diffraction patterns of the samples were the same due to their structure 314 which was confirmed by the XRD results. 315

316

Fig. 5 TEM images of CCO (a, b) sol-gel (c, d) co-precipitation.

Optical properties of CCO samples were measured using the UV-Vis diffuse 317 reflectance spectrum. As shown in figure 6, the direct bandgap was estimated to be 318 $0.92 \pm 0.1 \text{ eV}$ for co-precipitation, and $0.94 \pm 0.1 \text{ eV}$ for the sol-gel method, mostly 319 identical and close to the literature values (Lahmar et al. 2012; Akhundi and Habibi-320 Yangjeh 2017). The increase of gap energy value in the sol-gel method can be 321 explained by the decrease of the particle size (Wang et al. 2015). Compared to TiO₂ 322 and ZnO (Serpone 2006; Miki-yoshida 2016), both methods exhibited excellent 323 absorption ability and can efficiently absorb visible light. Consequently, the rate of 324 formation of electron-hole pairs on the surface of the photocatalyst also greatly 325 increases under visible light irradiation. 326

327

Fig. 6 UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectrum (a) co-precipitation (b) sol-gel.

328 3.2 Adsorption performance of CCO

A set of experiments were carried out by adding 0.1 g of each catalyst, CCO_{sg} and CCO_{cp} nanoparticles, to 100 mL of CFC 10 mg.L⁻¹ with initial concentration at pH = 6 and for a contact time 120 min in darkness (lamp OFF).

Figure 10 depicts the impact of contact time on CFC adsorption onto CCOsG and CCO_{CP} nanopowders for two different initial concentrations at 298 K. It can be deduced that the adsorption of CFC varies proportionally with time achieving its optimum adsorption capacities qe within 70 minutes regardless of the adsorbent and initial concentration value. Subsequently, the CFC adsorption remains unchangeable with time increment. Therefore, 70 minutes can be considered the appropriate time toobtain equilibrium.

339

340341

Fig. 7 Equilibrium time for adsorption of CFC (initial concentration:10 and 20 mg/L) on both nanomaterials.

- The plots in Figure S4 of In $(q_e q_t)$ against t, display linearity with correlation 342 coefficients r^2 value, which are generally less than 0.9 in most cases. Besides, the 343 calculated values of ge are by far less than the obtained experimental values (Table 344 2). Whereas, the pseudo-second-order model plot of t/q_t versus time, (Figure S5), 345 shows a better fitting for the data ($r^2 > 0.99$). Moreover, q_e values calculated from the 346 linear plot of the pseudo-second-order kinetic equation are almost equal to those 347 obtained from the experiments (Table 2). Consequently, it can be confirmed that the 348 CFC adsorption onto CCOsg and CCOcP adsorbent obeys a pseudo-second-order 349 reaction rate. 350
- 351

Table 2 kinetics models parameters for the adsorption of CFC by both nanomaterials.

The intra-particle diffusion kinetic model may govern the adsorption of CFC at 352 the adsorbent surface. From Fig 8, it may be seen that there are two separate stage 353 sorption, i.e., multi-linear in the case of CCOCP adsorbent (Royer et al. 2009; Yazdani 354 et al. 2016). The first straight portion, a sharp one, can be attributed to the transport 355 of CFC across the bulk of the solution to the external surface of CCOCP through the 356 boundary layer, macropore diffusion (Allen et al. 1989). Meanwhile, the second linear 357 portion may mention the final equilibrium where the intraparticle diffusion slowdown 358 owing to the low concentration of CFC, meso- and micropore diffusion (Allen et al. 359 1989). This leads to the suggestion that the adsorption can follow multiple-sorption-360 rates. The adsorption of CFC onto CCOsg adsorbent displays only one straight line 361 affirming that the intra-particle diffusion model is the rate-limiting in this case (Fig.S1). 362 The intra-particle diffusion plots are shown in Figure 8, and the main parameters of 363 this model are calculated and listed in Table 3. The values of intercept C provide 364 information about the thickness of the boundary layer, i.e., the resistance to the 365 external mass transfer. The larger values of the constants shown in Table 3 reflect 366 more significant effects of the solution boundary layer (El-Sikaily et al. 2007; Hameed 367 et al. 2009). 368

369 Fig. 8 Intra-particle diffusion plots for adsorption of CFC (initial concentration:10 and 20 mg/L) on both 370 nanomaterials.

371 372

Table 3 Intraparticle model parameters for the adsorption of CFC by both nanomaterials.

The adsorption efficiency of CFC differs. As can be shown in Figure 7, 373 adsorption efficiency by CCO_{cp} and CCO_{sg} catalysts for an initial 10 mg/L 374 concentration is 58 % and 52 %, respectively which shows clearly that CCO_{cp} has 375 better adsorption. The same observation for 20 mg/L. The higher adsorption obtained 376 with nanoparticles synthesized via co-precipitation method can be due to the porosity 377 378 of the sample, in agreement with the SEM images (Figure 5 (c, d)). While The low adsorption in the CCOsq sample was less important. 379

In addition, the advantage of high and rapid adsorption of CFC onto CCOsg and 380 CCO_{cp} enhanced the interfacial interactions between CCF and surface catalysts. It is 381 well known that more extrinsic adsorption leads to an increase the photodegradation 382 activities. 383

3.3 Photocatalytic performance of CCO 384

The photocatalytic activity of CCO_{sg} and CCO_{cp} catalysts was evaluated 385 through the CFC degradation with making ON the lamp. In addition, the test of CFC 386 photolysis was evaluated in the absence of a catalyst using visible light irradiation 387 under the same conditions. the obtained results of photodegradation in Figures 9 and 388 10 demonstrate the difference between the catalysts and photolysis. As observed, 389 photolysis led to a very low CFC degradation yield, lower than 5%; this can be 390 explained by the low absorption of visible light (Fig S3). On the other hand, in the 391 presence of photocatalyst, the degradation rate of CFC reached 57 % within 4 hours 392 for the CCO_{sq}, while it was lower for the CCO_{cp} catalyst 49 %. This difference can be 393 due to the ultrafine nature of the sol-gel nanoparticles, which gives a higher specific 394 surface area as confirmed by the characterization. 395

Fig. 9 Equilibrium time for photodegradation of CFC (initial concentration: 20 mg/L) on both 396 397 nanomaterials.

Fig. 10 Kinetic UV photocatalytic degradation of CFC with both nanomaterials CCOsg and CCOcp. 398 399

The kinetics results of photocatalytic degradation under visible irradiation are 400 illustrated in Figures 9 and 10. According to the regression coefficient, mainly greater 401

than 0.98, the experimental results are well simulated by the Lagergren pseudo-firstorder model for both tested adsorbents. The obtained apparent rate constants, k_{deg} , and r^2 values, obtained from the plot of C_t/C_0 against *t*, are assembled in Table 4. As can be noted, in Fig. 10 photolysis does not affect the degradation of CFC, but the presence of the photocatalyst reduces extremely the concentration of CFC.

407Table 4 Intraparticle and Lagergren pseudo-first-order model constants for the photodegradation of408CFC by both nanomaterial SG and CP.

The photodegradation of CFC at the surface of the adsorbent may be 409 governed by the intraparticle diffusion kinetic model, since, q_t and $t^{1/2}$ convene a 410 linear correlation (Fig. S6). Besides, the regression coefficient values are higher than 411 0.96, denoting the relevance of the data in the model. The intra-particle diffusion 412 plots show that the main parameters of this model are calculated and collected in 413 Table 4. The thickness of the boundary layer is strongly correlated to the intercept 414 values. The larger intercept of the graph (C value, Table 4) indicates a more 415 significant boundary layer effect. 416

In Fig. S.6, trend lines are plotted and do not pass through the origin. This observation can be ascribed to some level of boundary layer control. Such behavior is an indication that the intra-particle diffusion is not the sole rate-controlling step, as other kinetic processes may influence the photodegradation rate. In other words, all of these operations are operating concurrently and cannot be neglected (Royer et al. 2009; Yazdani et al. 2016).

The mass transfer kinetic model constants are obtained from the slope and the intercept of the straight line of Ln(Co - Ct) versus time (Fig. S7 and S8). However, no linear relation was observed, and the regression coefficient is mainly very low and never exceeds 0.82. This result indicates that the uptake and photodegradation rate is not governed by mass transfer through a liquid film boundary, i.e., the convective mass transfer.

The photodegradation of organic compounds by a catalyst semi-conductor can be ascribed to different reaction pathways regulated by different active species such as OH[•], O²[•], and holes (h⁺) (Zuo et al. 2017). The energy band structure is a key factor that may affect the photocatalytic activity (Lahmar et al. 2017). UV-Vis was used to analyze the optical properties of the catalysts and to deduce its forbidden
bandwidth. CCO's clearly displayed a 0.9 eV bandgap energy (Fig. 9).

When photocatalytic reactions occur in an aqueous solution, the holes are effectively broken by water and generate hydroxyl radicals OH*(Kumar et al. 2020). In our previous works (Belaissa et al. 2016; Abou Dalle et al. 2017; Aboudalle et al. 2018; Zadi et al. 2018), it was proposed that both holes and hydroxyl radicals are involved as oxidizing agents responsible for CFC degradation. The basic process is illustrated in Fig. S9 and equations 1 to 5 suggest the following photodegradation mechanism under visible light irradiation:

 $\begin{aligned} & CuCr_2O_4 + hv \rightarrow CuCr_2O_4^* + e^- + h^+ \\ & H_2O + h^+ \rightarrow OH^* + H^+ \\ & O_2 + e^- \rightarrow O_2^{-*} \\ & CFC + O_2^{-*} or OH^* \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O + small intermediate by - products \\ & CFC + hv \rightarrow CFC^* \end{aligned}$ (1)

442

443 **4.** Conclusion

In the present work, CCO nanoparticles were successfully synthesized using 444 co-precipitation and sol-gel methods. The catalysts were then characterized using 445 several techniques to distinguish the effect of each synthesizing process. The XRD 446 with Rietveld refinement, BET, SEM, and TEM confirmed that synthesized CCO via 447 the sol-gel method has the smallest particle size. Moreover, its BET surface area was 448 found to be higher than that achieved by the co-precipitation method, which suggests 449 a higher photocatalysis activity. It should be noticed that the co-precipitation method 450 gave a higher rate of porosity to the catalyst, leading to excellent adsorption property. 451 Those characterizations were demonstrated using CFC as a target antibiotic example 452 for testing the adsorption and photocatalytic performance of CCO. 453

The kinetics of the adsorption process was found to obey the pseudo-secondorder law for both tested adsorbents. However, the Lagergren first-order model fits well with photodegradation experimental data. Whereas, the intra-particle diffusion model gave two distinct regions in the case of CFC adsorption by COC_{CP} nanomaterial, i.e., a fast diffusion at the solution boundary film followed by slow intraparticle diffusion. The CFC adsorption occurs in one stage in the case of COC_{SG}. Similarly, the photodegradation process occurs in one step without passing through
 the origin, suggesting that the rate is not only controlled by the intra-particle diffusion
 process, particularly at its initial phase.

The adsorption and photocatalytic results showed that the catalyst synthesis method is a crucial parameter regarding the catalyst properties, such as particle size and morphology which can change the catalyst activity, as we noticed that SG has more photocatalytic activity. On the other hand, CP has a higher adsorption activity. Furthermore, this study showed that the CCO spinel might be an effective candidate for the treatment of other organic pollutants present in wastewater.

469 **Declaration**

470

471 Ethics approval and consent to participate

472 Not applicable

- 473
- 474 **Consent for publication**
- 475 Not applicable
- 476

477 Competing interest

- The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 479

480 Authors contributions

481 *Oussama Baaloudj and Mohamed Kebir*: investigation, formal analysis, visualization,
 482 writing original draft.

Noureddine Nasrallah and Aymen Amin Assadi: conceptualization, funding
 acquisition, methodology, resources, project administration, supervision, writing review and editing.

- 486 Lotfi Khezami: writing-review and expriment modeling and simulation
- 487 Abdeltif Amrane: investigation, visualization.

488

489 Availability of data and materials:

The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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493

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