



Ultra-small Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites activated peroxymonosulphate for solar light-driven photocatalytic mineralization of Simazine

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ABSTRACT

In the heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of environmental contaminants the recovery and reuse of employed nanocatalyst was crucial and it is essentially required for the scale up applications. Besides, designing a magnetic material with heterojunction that can effectively oxidize the toxic organic contaminants to non-toxic substance under different reaction conditions including direct solar light irradiation remains a challenge. Considering the above facts, herein, we tailored heterojunction between the magnetic materials and non-magnetic materials with ultra-small Ni nanoparticles modified NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ nanostructures (Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites) through a simple sonochemical route. The Raman phonons at ~ 540 cm⁻¹ consistent to nickel metal nanoparticles and the spinel ferrites crystal structure confirmed the formation of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites. The reduced optical bandgap of the resulting nanocomposites indicated the effective absorption of direct solar light irradiation when compared to the bare TiO₂. Thus in-turn, enhanced the photocatalytic efficiency of simazine degradation in the presence of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites ($k' = 11.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and augmented the activation of peroxymonosulphate (PMS) in the presence of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites ($k' = 32.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ + PMS exhibited 3 folds enhanced efficiency in the presence of sunlight. The as-prepared NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocatalysts were more stable and the efficiency of simazine oxidation was approximately same for the continuous five cycles at the optimized experimental conditions. The Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites preparation and the activation of PMS may promise the applications in an efficient wastewater treatment.

1. Introduction

Metal/metal oxide loaded semiconductor nanocatalysts significantly contributes to the field of environmental research since their presence as tunable semiconductor tends to introduce new hybrid energy levels [1–4]. New energy levels in the resulting nanocomposites essentially altered the optical band structure for superior utilization of solar energy photons [5,6]. However, higher loading of metal/metal oxide nanoparticles at semiconductor nanocomposites will act as recombi-

nation center [2,6–8]. Ultra-small nanoparticles presence at semiconductor nanocomposites expressively enhanced quantum efficiency of catalytic processes due to enhanced surface-to-volume ratio [9–12]. In addition, heterojunctions resulted from ultra-small nanoparticles and semiconductor nanocomposites noticeably prevented the charge-carrier recombination which in turn enhanced the population of effective hydroxyl radicals [9–12]. Hence, the degradation of environmental pollutants situated at/near to nanocatalyst's surface was enhanced in addi-

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tion to photo-bleaching resulted from heterogeneous photocatalytic microenvironment.

Further, the advantages of magnetic nanocomposites are (i) magnetic and non-magnetic composites can be synthesized by loading magnetic nanoferrites with tunable semiconductors; (ii) enhanced reutilization possibilities; (iii) secondary pollutions due to unsafe disposal of nanocatalysts can be prevented and (iv) reduces the capital investment required for nanocatalysts preparation [13–17]. Among various metal/metal oxide nanoparticles investigated in the field of environmental research, Ni and NiO_x nanoparticles predominantly contributes for degradation of various environmental contaminants [18–20]. To further progress the efficacy of nickel based nanocatalysts, Ni and NiO_x were combined with other transition metals/metal oxides which in-turn produced magnetic nanocomposites [21–23]. In addition, various combination of Ni with other transition metals/metal oxides structures were investigated, NiFe₂O₄ is the only ferrite with an inverted spinel structure which can be expressed as (Fe³⁺)_A[Ni²⁺+Fe³⁺]_BO₄²⁻. The tetrahedral (A) sites of the NiFe₂O₄ structure are occupied by ferric ions, and the octahedral (B) sites are occupied by ferric ions and nickel ions [24]. Besides, nickel ferrite nanoparticles (NiFe₂O₄ NPs) have received much attention for photocatalytic applications owing to its high photochemical stability, magnetically separable, and magneto crystalline anisotropy [24,25]. However, lower bandgap of NiFe₂O₄ (1.53 eV) is limited its catalytic efficiency due to the instability. Various attempts have been made in the literature to enhance catalytic efficiency and to preserve magnetic properties of NiFe₂O₄ [26–29]. The hybridization of magnetic-non-magnetic materials efficiently improved heterogeneous catalytic efficacy and retained their magnetic features [21,22,24,30].

Activation of peroxymonosulfate (PMS) in the heterogeneous photocatalytic oxidation system have been constructed to strengthen the separation of photo-generated electrons and holes during photocatalytic processes. Therefore, the synergistic participation of electrons and holes has been fostered in order to improve the organic pollutant oxidation performance [31–35]. NiFe₂O₄ show excellent PMS activation ability by the co-existence of Ni²⁺ and Fe³⁺ in its molecular structure [36]. Recent investigations [36–38], indicate that the photocatalytic performance of NiFe₂O₄ is significantly improved by the addition of peroxy-monosulphate (PMS). Similarly, the results suggest that TiO₂ is one of the best catalysts for the heterogeneous activation of PMS for the oxidation of organic pollutants [31–33]. Therefore, the hybridization of NiFe₂O₄ and TiO₂ would expect to demonstrate superior photocatalytic activation of PMS in the aqueous systems. Further, there are still no experimental evidence related to the activation of PMS by ultra-small Ni NPs

modified NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂, Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterojunction interface, nor a surface reaction mechanism to describe the photocatalytic oxidation that takes place under direct solar light irradiation.

Simazine (2-chloro-4,6-bis(ethylamino)-s-triazine) is a chemically synthesized pesticide which is being utilized as second largest pesticide in agriculture lands since 1956. The specific mechanism of simazine is to control the pest in agricultural crops nevertheless only 0.1% efficiency is achieved, and the presence of remaining simazine leads to the total environmental pollution [39–41]. The presence of simazine in the aquatic environment declines the growth of zooplankton which is a major threat to the ecosystem. Hence, triazine flavored pesticides certainly required complete mineralization from the total environment to avoid the various detrimental effects of pesticides.

Herein, we demonstrated the preparation of ultra-small Ni nanoparticles decorated NiFe₂O₄ nanostructure, followed by Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites using the commercially available ultrasonic piezoelectric transducer at low-frequency ultrasound (42 kHz; laboratory model). Further, the ultra-small Ni NPs and formed heterojunction between Ni@NiFe₂O₄ and TiO₂ through its lattice fusion were identified by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM). The photocatalytic efficiency along with magnetic feature of ultra-small Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ heterojunction magnetic nanocomposites were evaluated through the kinetic degradation of simazine in direct solar light irradiation.

Additionally, the charge transfer was further accelerated to enhance photocatalytic activity by adding PMS as an external electron acceptor. The magnetic Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites were separated from photocatalytic microenvironment with the assistance of external magnet and reuse for the photocatalytic experiments. Furthermore, total organic carbon analysis allows to identify the degree of mineralization of simazine. Finally, a surface reaction mechanism was proposed.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Titanium dioxide nanopowder (TiO₂; 25 nm average diameter), nickel nitrate (Ni(NO₃)₂·6 H₂O) (99.999% trace metals basis) and ferric nitrate (Fe(NO₃)₃·9 H₂O) (99.999% trace metals basis) were purchased from the Sigma–Aldrich and used as starting material for the preparation of NiFe₂O₄ and NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ nanocatalysts. Simazine (C₇H₁₂ClN₅; PESTANAL®, analytical standard) was received from Sigma–Aldrich and used without further purification. Unless otherwise specified, all reagents used were of analytical grade and the solutions were prepared using double distilled water.

2.2. Preparation of the nanocatalysts

The NiFe₂O₄ and NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites were synthesized based on our previous publication [42] as follows, calculated amount of nickel nitrate and ferric nitrate precursor solutions were prepared separately and mixed under vigorous stirring. To the metal nitrate mixture, 2 g of TiO₂ nanopowder previously calcined at 400 °C was added in small portions with magnetic stirring and simultaneously the suspension was irradiated with ultrasound (42 kHz ultrasonic cleaner, power sonic 400 series). To the suspension of TiO₂, 50 mL of 2 N NaOH was added drop-by-drop with ultrasound irradiation and stirring. The ultrasonic irradiation was continued for one hour with circulation of water to maintain the room temperature. After ultrasonic irradiation, heterogeneous suspension was stirred continuously at room temperature for two hours. The nanocatalysts were collected by filtration (0.45 μm Nylon filter membranes) and washed with double-distilled water until the pH of the eluent reaches 7. The solids were dried at 100 °C in a hot air-oven for 12 h followed by calcination at 400 °C for 5 h to get pure nanocatalysts. A similar procedure was adopted for the synthesis of NiFe₂O₄ nanocatalysts for comparison. It is expected that the decorated nickel nanoparticles will significantly contribute to enhance quantum efficiency of magnetic nanocomposites.

2.3. Characterization techniques

The particle size of the prepared nanoparticles was calculated from the X-ray diffraction data (Philips PW1710 diffractometer, Cu-K radiation, Holland) using the Scherer equation. Surface morphology, grain size, and various contours of the nanocatalyst powders were analyzed by the transmission electron microscopy (FEI TITAN G² 80–300) operated at 300 KeV. Diffuse reflectance UV–vis spectra of the nanocatalysts were recorded using a Shimadzu 2550 spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere accessory employing BaSO₄ as reference material. Raman spectra were recorded using a Raman in via model (Renishaw, UK) spectrometer, operating wavelength at 785 nm with a resolution of 1 cm⁻¹. The magnetization measurements were performed with the Quantum design PPMS-II (physical property measurement system) at the ambient conditions.

2.4. Evaluation of photocatalytic activity

The photocatalytic oxidation experiments were conducted under direct solar light irradiation in ambient atmospheric conditions in the month from September to April in the Chile. The geographic coordinates are 36° 47' 50" S; 71° 03' 21" W. All experiments were conducted with the exposition of the photocatalytic reactor to solar light between 11 AM to 4 PM. The intensity of incident solar irradiation, temperature and pH were measured during the elapsed irradiation time using an Extech instrument from USA, resulting to be constant with a value of 1,23,500 ± 10 lux, 22–25 °C and pH 7.0–6.7, respectively. A borosilicate stirred batch slurry reactor (Ø = 100 mm) was used, loaded with 150 mL solution of simazine (6.2 mg/L), and 0.3 g/L of the synthesized nanophotocatalyst. In a typical experiment, prior to irradiation adsorption/desorption equilibrium was achieved after 45 min of agitation in dark condition. After that the reactor was exposed to direct solar light irradiation. Sampling was conducted at specific time intervals by taking aliquots. Before any analytical measuring, samples were filtered using a 0.2 µm polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) filter. In addition, the influence of different factors such as catalyst dosage, PMS concentration, pH, inorganic ions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, HCO₃⁻ and H₂PO₄⁻) and different water matrix on SZN degradation was assessed. The pH value was adjusted with nitric acid (0.1 M) and sodium hydroxide (0.1 M) solutions. The stability and reusability studies of the synthesized nanocatalyst with the highest photocatalytic activity were assessed during 60 min of light irradiation. After each treatment, the catalyst was magnetically recovered and washed with double distilled water thrice and then used in the subsequent experiments. For each operating cycle, a fresh solution of simazine was added into the reaction system.

2.5. Detection of simazine (SZN) and its oxidation by-products

The evolution of SZN and its oxidation by-products were monitored as a function of time by liquid chromatography using a HPLC analyzer (Shimadzu Prominence-i LC-2030 C 3D Plus) equipped with a photodiode-array detector (PDA) at λ_{max} = 222 nm. A Brownlee analytical C₁₈ column (250 mm × 4.6 mm, 5 µm particle size) and a mobile phase constituted of acetonitrile-water system (60:40) were used for the separation. The injection volume was 10 µL and the flow rate was 1 mL min⁻¹. The calibration curve for SZN was constructed using the peak areas of standard samples of known concentration ranging between 0.01 and 6.2 mg/L with a correlation coefficient of R² = 0.9999.

The photocatalytic mineralization of SZN was followed by total organic carbon analysis (TOC) and was calculated using Eq. (1), as follows:

$$\text{SZN Mineralisation (\%)} = \frac{\text{TOC}_0 - \text{TOC}_t}{\text{TOC}_0} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where TOC₀ represents the TOC measured after reaching the adsorption equilibrium between SZN and the nanocatalyst; whereas TOC_t denotes the TOC concentration at a specific irradiation time. Samples were analyzed by direct injection of filtered solutions into a TOC analyzer (Shimadzu TOC-V_{CPH} model). Prior to the analysis, the instrument was calibrated with potassium hydrogen phthalate.

2.6. Identification of reactive species

The capacity of the synthesized heterojunction nanocatalysts to promote radical generation in photocatalytic experiments in the absence of SZN was quantified using fluorescence spectroscopy (FLS) in a Perkin Elmer fluorometer. Terephthalic acid (TA) was used as a probe molecule. In such experiments, the concentration of TA and catalyst were kept in 5 × 10⁻⁴ M and 0.3 g/L, respectively. The samples were excited at 315 nm and the change in the fluorescence (FL) intensity of 2-hydroxy terephthalic acid (HTA) was measured at λ_{max} = 425 nm. The

formation of HTA is directly related to the amount of •OH radicals produced [9,33,43,44]. A calibration curve made by known concentrations of 2-hydroxy terephthalic acid was used for indirect quantification of •OH radicals. Additionally, the contribution of major radical species involved during photocatalytic oxidation of SZN using NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ with and without the addition of PMS was determined. In these experiments, tertiary-butylalcohol (TBA) was used as a quencher of •OH radicals under specific operating conditions: [catalyst] = 0.3 g/L, [SZN] = 6.2 mg/L, [PMS] = 0.4 mM, [TBA] = 0.3 M [32]. The experiments were carried out during 60 min of direct solar light irradiation for NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ + SZN + TBA combination and during 15 min of direct solar light irradiation for NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ + SZN + PMS + TBA combination.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of nanocatalysts

The transmission electron microscopic (TEM) images of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ are shown in Fig. 1a and b. The hexagonal, cuboid, rectangular and various shaped nanoparticle morphologies are observed for NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂. The distribution of black patches observed from the TEM micrographs signifies the fine distribution of NiFe₂O₄ nanoferrites on the surface of TiO₂. The darker patches over NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites indicate the presence of ultra-small nickel nanoparticles. An average grain size of the Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites was calculated ~ 18 nm from the TEM analysis. The high angle annular dark field (HAADF) scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) micrograph shown in Fig. 1c further supports the formation of various shaped NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites and the bright emission observed from HAADF-STEM indicates the ultra-small Ni metal nanoparticles were finely decorated on NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites however it needs further analysis for confirmation. The SAED pattern observed for NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites is displayed in Fig. 1d. The distinct rings with specific space between rings indicated well-crystalline nature of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites.

The high resolution TEM analysis of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites confirms the presence of lattice fringes corresponding to Ni (1 1 1), NiFe₂O₄ (2 1 1) and TiO₂ (0 0 2) as evidenced from Fig. 2a and b. In addition, black patches detected over NiFe₂O₄ crystal plane confirms that ultra-small Ni nanoparticles were embedded at the surface of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites. Heterojunction of various crystal planes were noticed from Fig. 2a which designates that Ni nanoparticles embedded at the surface of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites, the presence of Ni nanoparticles significantly contribute to delay the recombination of electronic charges produced at the interface during its applications. Furthermore, the circled portions of Fig. 2c and d indicate the presence of ultra-small Ni nanoparticles at grain boundaries of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites with average grain size ranging from 0.15 to 0.24 nm. Consequently, the presence of ultra-small Ni nanoparticles at grain boundaries of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites tends to specify the formation of new energy levels at resulting magnetic nanocomposites and it will alter the optical band structure [45,46].

Magnetization-hysteresis (M-H) loops recorded at room temperature during VSM analysis for as-prepared magnetic nanocomposites is presented in Fig. 3. Bare Ni@NiFe₂O₄ nanoferrites exhibiting soft ferromagnetic nature with magnetic saturation (Ms) value of 27 emu/g which is relatively lower than the observed theoretical value (Ms = 56 emu/g) [22,24,28,36,47]. The observed decrease in magnetization value is associated with various factors like surface spin and anisotropy of Ni@NiFe₂O₄ magnetic nanoferrites [22,24,25,28,36,39,48]. However, bare TiO₂ cannot show any significant changes during VSM analysis. M-H loops observed for NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites

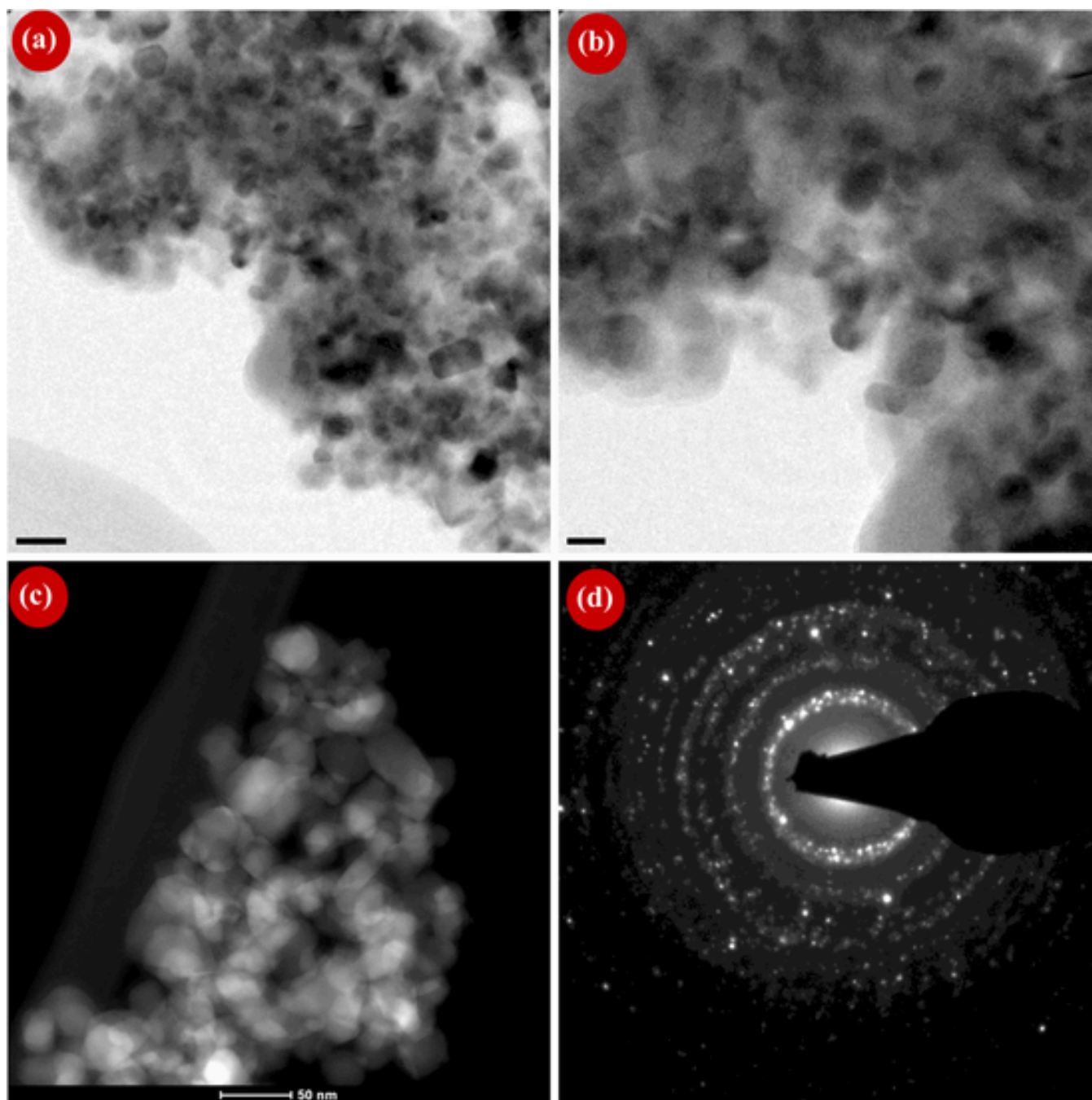


Fig. 1. TEM micrographs of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites (a & b); (c) HAADF-STEM image of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites and corresponding SAED pattern (d).

was shown in insert of Fig. 3. Ms value of Ni@NiFe₂O₄ was decreased when the nanoferrites are hybridized with TiO₂ since non-magnetic layer acts as dead layer during VSM analysis. On the other hand, TiO₂ magnetic characteristics was meaningfully improved with modification of Ni@NiFe₂O₄ magnetic nanoferrites. The resulting magnetic nanocomposites can be separated from photocatalytic microenvironment with assistance of external magnet and recycled for checking reutilization of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites.

The X-ray diffraction pattern (XRD) of as-prepared magnetic nanocomposites is depicted in Fig. 4. The diffraction pattern belonging to TiO₂ shown pristine crystal structure with anatase (80%) and rutile (20%) polymorphs (JCPDS card no. 21-1272). Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites also revealed pristine TiO₂ crystal structure with

standard anatase-rutile ratio which denotes that crystal structure of TiO₂ is not altered during the synthesis of magnetic nanocomposites (Fig. 4). Furthermore, crystal planes belonging to NiFe₂O₄ (JCPDS card no. 10-0325) were detected in NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites confirms the loading of spinel magnetic nanoferrites into TiO₂. The protracted diffraction pattern of spinel magnetic nanoferrites suggests poor crystalline nature of NiFe₂O₄ (Fig. 4). The insert of Fig. 4 comparatively validates the modifications occurred at TiO₂ during NiFe₂O₄ loading by low-frequency ultrasound assisted technique followed by calcination. In addition to the diffraction planes of NiFe₂O₄, diffraction belonging to nickel metal nanoparticles (JCPDS card nos. 04-0850) were detected (insert of Fig. 4). The observed crystal planes of nickel nanoparticles along with NiFe₂O₄ confirms the formation of Ni@NiFe₂O₄ which is

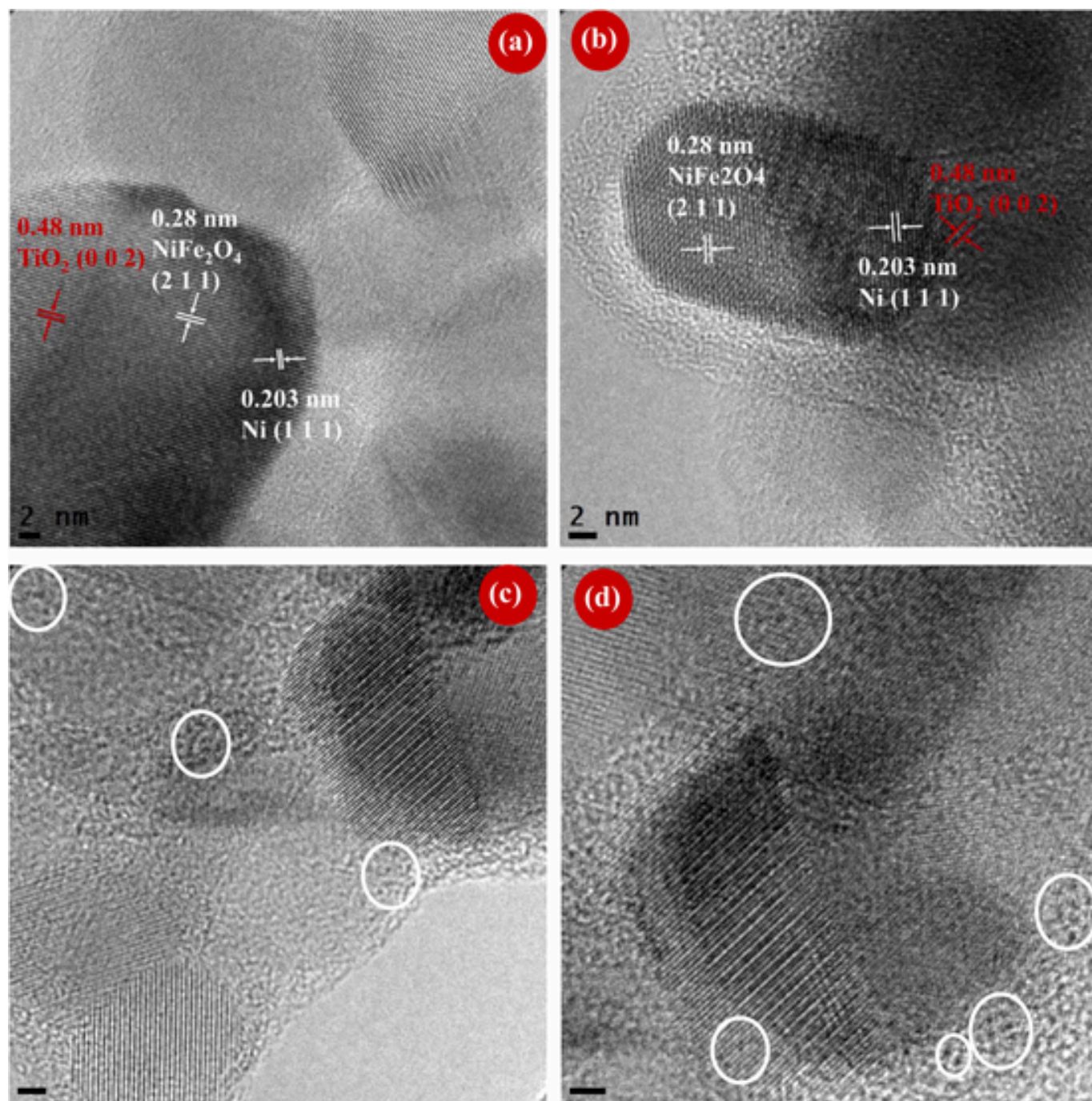


Fig. 2. High resolution TEM micrographs of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites. Circled portions indicate the presence of ultra-small nickel nanoparticles at NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites.

also supported by the high-resolution TEM analysis (Fig. 2). The crystal planes corresponding to α -Fe₂O₃ (JCPDS file no. 39-1346) was detected as secondary phase during the preparation of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites. However, no diffractions of NiO crystal planes were detected in XRD. The diminutive formation of Fe₂O₃ along with the magnetic nanocomposites can be accounted by the migration of Fe³⁺ ions into TiO₂ lattice structure which is more favorable during the high-temperature treatment [17,22,30,42].

The appearance of Raman phonon at ~ 540 cm⁻¹ designates the formation of nickel nanoparticles at the surface of NiFe₂O₄ magnetic nanoferrites during the Raman spectral analysis (Fig. 5A). Thus, further evidenced the formation of ultra-small nickel nanoparticles at the surface of NiO_x layer which is in good agreement with the reported Raman

phonons for nickel nanoparticles [12,49,50]. The Raman bands observed at 267, 335, 483, 571 and 697 cm⁻¹ indicate 3F_{2g}, E_g and A_{1g} phonon modes of NiFe₂O₄ spinel ferrite crystal structure. The detected Raman phonons consistent to nickel metal nanoparticles and spinel ferrites confirms the formation of Ni@NiFe₂O₄ (Fig. 5A). Bare TiO₂ shows E_g, B_{1g} and A_{1g} Raman phonons at 638, 519 and 399 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 5B) corresponding to the pristine crystal structure [9]. Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ exhibits Raman phonon modes of nickel nanoparticles (~ 540 cm⁻¹), spinel crystal structure of NiFe₂O₄ and TiO₂ pristine crystal structure (Fig. 5B). The Raman spectral analysis additionally confirmed the formation of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites were resulted from the synthetic approach. Moreover, the intensity of Ni@NiFe₂O₄

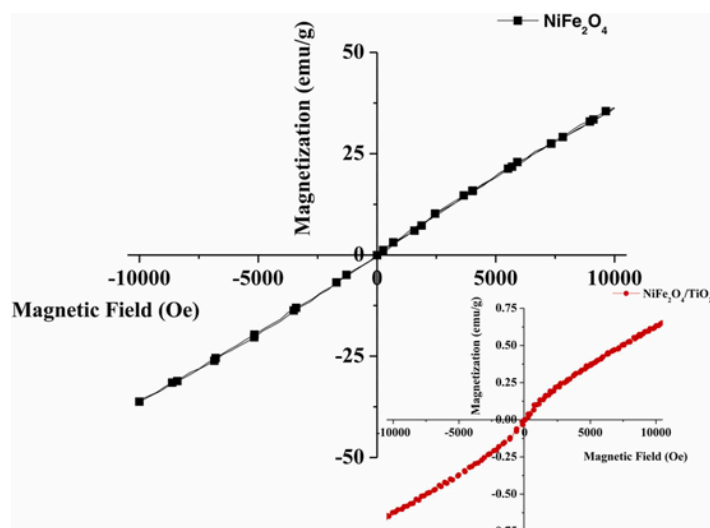


Fig. 3. Magnetic-hysteresis (M-H) loop recorded at room temperature for NiFe_2O_4 magnetic nanoferrites during VSM analysis. Insert shows the M-H loop recorded for $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites.

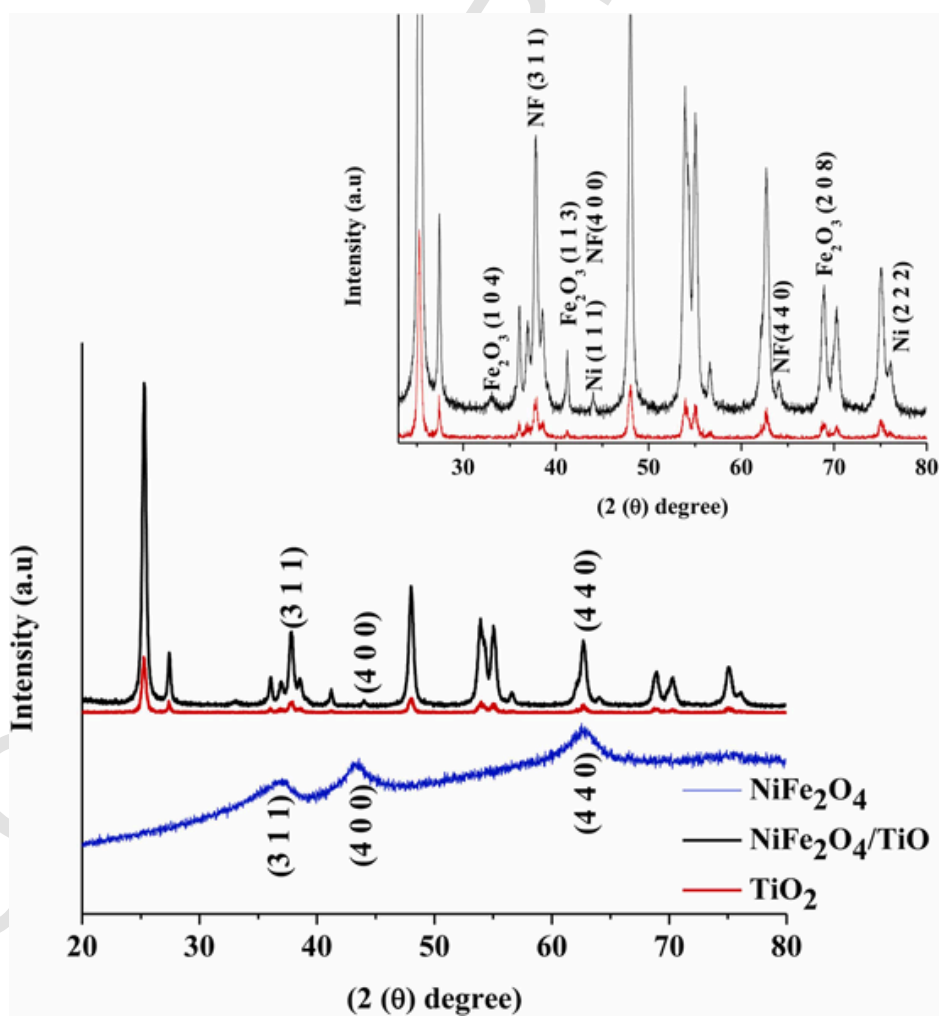


Fig. 4. X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of various nanocatalysts and the insert demonstrates magnified XRD of magnetic nanocomposites. Crystal planes marked in the insert indicates Ni – nickel nanoparticles; Fe_2O_3 – Hematite and NF – NiFe_2O_4 magnetic nanoferrites.

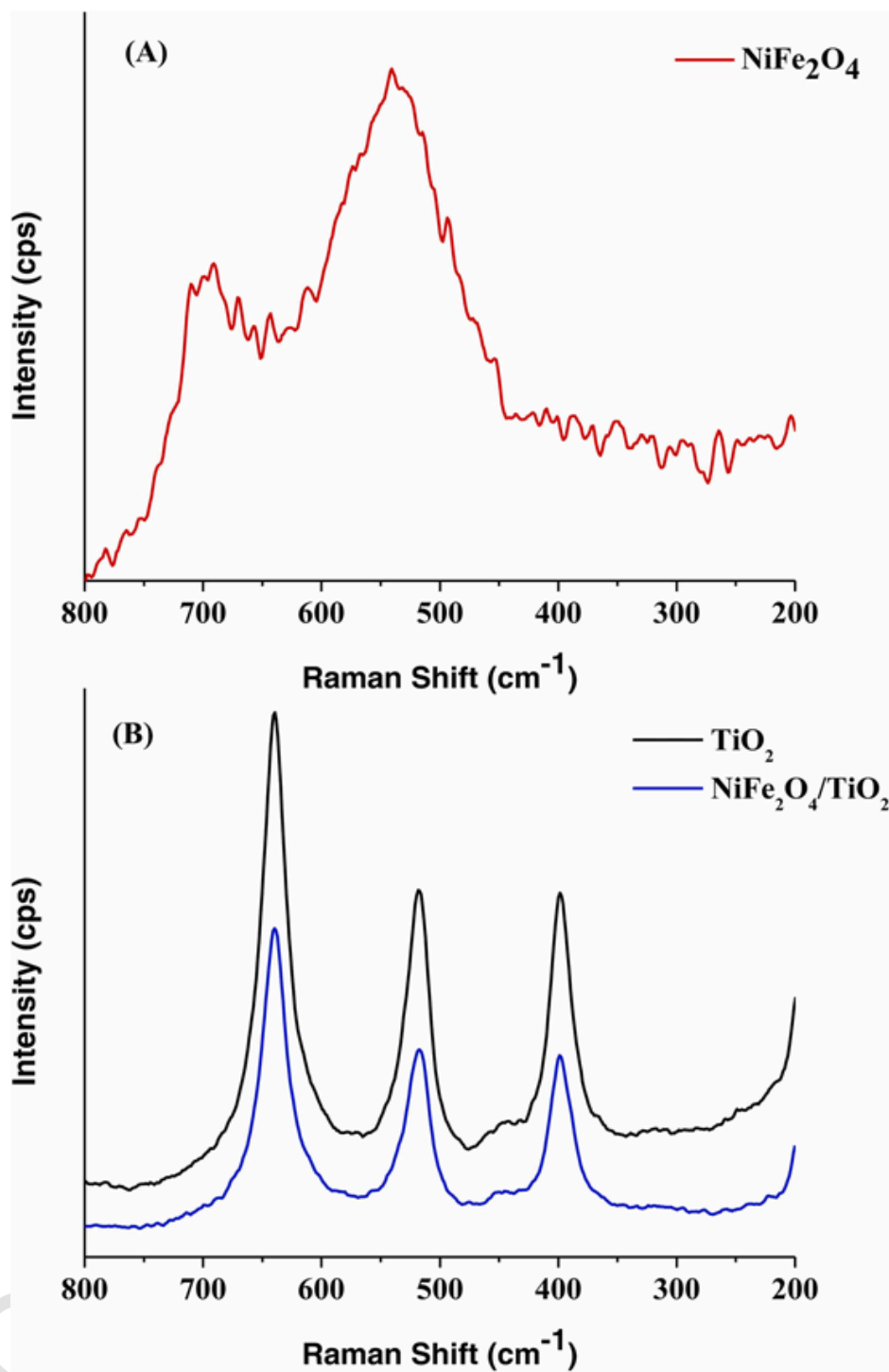


Fig. 5. Raman spectrum of $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4$ magnetic nanoferrites (A) and (B) corresponds to Raman spectrum of $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites.

Raman phonons was decreased when compared to bare TiO_2 because of the surface covering of TiO_2 over $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4$ (Fig. 5B).

The diffuse reflectance (DR) UV-vis analysis of bare TiO_2 shows the absorption band edge of ~ 390 nm and TiO_2 cannot be able to produce the electronic charge carriers (e^- and h^+) in the presence of the visible light irradiation (Fig. 6 A). Besides, $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4$ and $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ displays the broad absorption in the DR-UV-Vis spectral analysis and the absorption decreased near infrared region (Fig. 6 A), which significantly notates the as-prepared magnetic nanocomposites will be able to generate electronic charge carriers (e^- and h^+) production with low-energy irradiation. The absorption bands at 330 – 350 and 505 –

545 nm confirm surface plasmon resonance (SPR) of nickel nanoparticles, which authorize the formation of nickel metal nanoparticles at the $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4$ and $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites [24–27, 30,39,51,52]. The absorption band ranging from 650 to 750 nm observed in the as-prepared magnetic nanocomposites demonstrated the presence of oxides of Ni^{2+} and Fe^{3+} cations [17,25,26,28,30,36,37]. Moreover, the absorption band edge of $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposite was redshifted (~ 550 nm) when compared to bare TiO_2 . Therefore, as-prepared magnetic nanocomposites can be excited with low-energy irradiation. The optical bandgap of the magnetic nanocomposites was derived from DR-UV-vis spectral analysis using

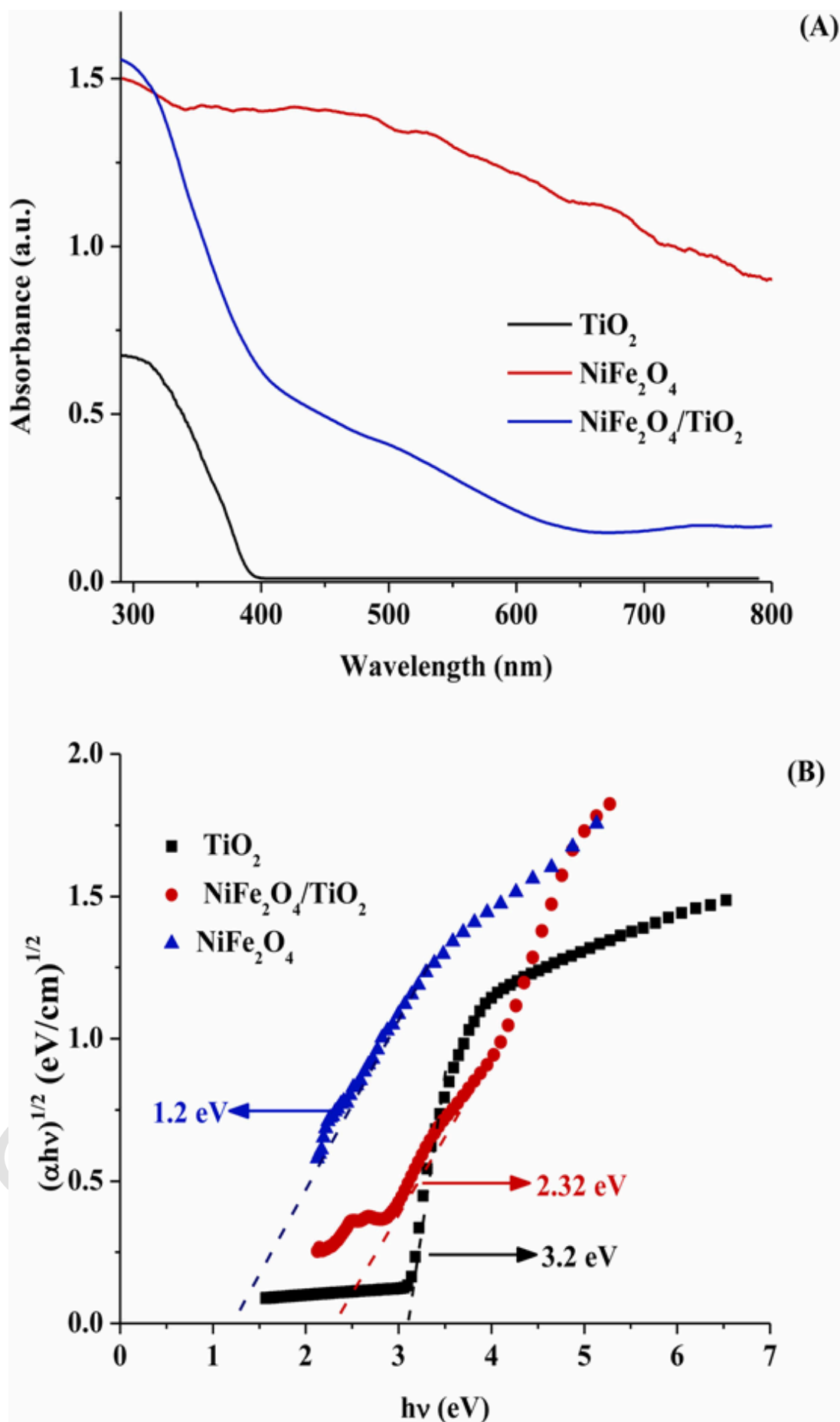


Fig. 6. (A) Diffuse reflectance UV-Vis spectrum of various nanocatalysts and (B) corresponding Tauc plot derived from diffuse reflectance UV-Vis spectra for various nanocatalysts.

Tauc's approach (Fig. 6B). Bare TiO_2 shows 3.2 eV whereas $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4$ and $\text{Ni@NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ reveal 1.2 and 2.32 eV optical bandgap, respectively.

3.2. Evaluation of photocatalytic efficiency

The solar light-driven photocatalytic efficiency of various nanocatalysts was evaluated by monitoring the simazine degradation (SZN) which is selected as the target pollutant. The maximum solubility of simazine was fixed as the initial concentration (6.2 mg/L (at 40 °C)) for the solar light-driven photocatalytic degradation. The influence of different catalyst dosage was assessed towards the degradation of SZN. The concentration of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ was set at 0.1–0.5 g/L and the observed results are given in the Fig. S1. The rate constant for SZN degradation is increased from $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $12.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ with respective of 0.1–0.5 g/L catalyst was added. High catalyst dosage was beneficial to improve SZN degradation efficiency, which could give more active species and active sites. However, the observed results indicate that rate constant of SZN degradation is increased from $3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $11 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ when the catalyst dosage from 0.1 to 0.3 g/L. Besides, catalyst dosage increased beyond 0.3 g/L, a slight increment in the degradation is observed. In order to save costs, this study chose to add 0.3 g/L of catalyst for further studies. The kinetics of degradation was followed in the presence of various nanocatalysts. The control photocatalytic experiments (Fig. 7a) indicate that simazine degradation cannot be initiated in the presence of solar light alone (photolysis). The concentration of simazine was transformed with respect to the time progress of degradation $\{-\ln(\text{SZN})_t/(\text{SZN})_0 \text{ vs Time}\}$ (Fig. 7a), it resulted a linear change in $[\text{SZN}]_t/[\text{SZN}]_0$ along with the presence of nanocatalysts, which can be corroborated to the pseudo first order kinetic degradation of simazine. $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ demonstrated the maximum degradation of simazine when compared to NiFe_2O_4 and TiO_2 counterparts of the magnetic nanocomposites at the present experimental conditions (Fig. 7a).

The representative 3-dimensional HPLC chromatogram (3-D HPLC) of photocatalytic degradation of simazine in the presence of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites is shown in Fig. 7b. It designates that the simazine can be degraded in 60 min of solar light irradiation

in the presence of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites. The initial solution clearly establishes the existence of Simazine (6-chloro-N,N'-diethyl-1,3,5-triazine-2,4-diamine) at (retention time (RT) = 4.0 min), indicated that purity of the solution. The disappearance of a strong intensified peak (retention time (RT) = 4.0 min) after 30 min of photocatalysis specifies the degradation of simazine, at the same time Fig. 7b signifies the formation of byproducts of simazine (RT = 2–3.5 min). The fastest elution of byproducts was noticed when compared to the simazine, which indicates that the daughter compounds are more polar than the parent compound. This could be the hydroxylated derivatives of Simazines, which are the major intermediates (1,1'-[(6-chloro-1,3,5-triazine-2,4-diy)diimino]diethanol ($m/z = 234$) and 4,6-bis(ethylamino)-1,3,5-triazin-2-ol ($m/z = 184$)[40]. In addition, the peak at RT = 2 min split into two and reduce the peak intensity of 3.5 min at after 40 min solar photocatalytic irradiation. This might be hydroxylated Simazine might be produce 6-chloro-1,3,5-triazine-2,4-diamine and N-(4-amino-6-hydroxy-1,3,5-triazin-2-yl)acetamide as the intermediates and thus confirm the progress of further mineralization of Simazine. Further, the 3-D HPLC chromatogram further reveals that intensity of byproducts decreased pertaining to progress of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites assisted solar light-driven photocatalysis. As evidenced from Fig. 7b approximately 90% of simazine and its byproducts were degraded within 60 min of solar light-driven photocatalysis. Based on our observed results, we anticipate that the proposed Simazine degradation pathway will exhibit similarities to pathways reported in existing studies [40,41].

In order to increase the degradation of simazine, electron acceptor peroxymonosulphate (PMS; commercially known as Oxone) was added to the photocatalytic microenvironment at the optimized conditions ($[\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2] = 0.3 \text{ g/L}$; $[\text{SZN}] = 6.2 \text{ mg/L}$). PMS will not be able to produce any radicals when it undergoes the photolysis reaction since it requires the electrons for the activation [32,37,39,42]. The impact of different PMS concentration (0.1–0.6 mM) on SZN degradation efficiency was assessed and its results are given in the Fig. S2. The concentration of PMS was increased from 0.1 to 0.4 mM and the rate constant for SZN degradation in 30 min was significantly improved with linearly. However, when 0.5 mM and 0.6 mM PMS were added, the rate constant for SZN degradation was not significantly improved. This indi-

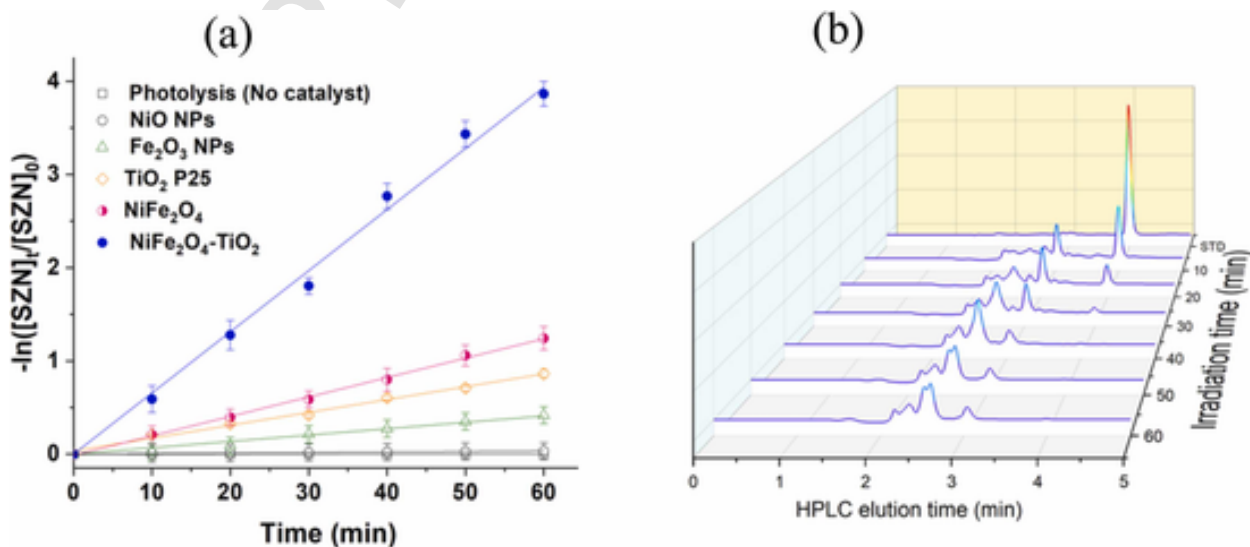


Fig. 7. (a) Plot of $-\ln([\text{SZN}]_t/[\text{SZN}]_0)$ for various nanophotocatalysts employed to study the kinetic degradation of simazine; {SZN - simazine}. (b) 3-D plot demonstrating evolution of HPLC chromatogram of photocatalytic degradation of simazine. Experimental parameter: $[\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2] = 0.3 \text{ g/L}$; $[\text{SZN}] = 6.2 \text{ mg/L}$, $[\text{T}] = 25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

cated that $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ would spontaneously react when the concentration of PMS and catalyst reached equilibrium [32,37,39,42] (Eqs. (2) and (3)).



At the optimized photocatalytic degradation condition of simazine, PMS [0.4 mM] was added and the subsequent kinetics of photocatalytic degradation was followed by the HPLC analysis. Fig. 8a shows that the HPLC peak corresponding to simazine (RT = 4.0 min) was completely disappeared in 12 min which indicates that the kinetics of degradation was achieved faster rate in the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ + PMS system. PMS will tends to produce the sulphate ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$) and hydroxyl ($\bullet\text{OH}$) radicals in addition to the hydroxyl radical generated during photocatalysis [5,24, 31–33,39,42]. The augmentation of radicals in the photocatalytic microenvironment leads to degrade the simazine faster when compared to the absence of PMS. Further the new peaks were originated (RT = 2–3 min) after 10 min of photocatalytic degradation of simazine (Fig. 8a) in the presence of PMS indicates the formation of various intermediates. However, simazine and its intermediates were degraded as on progress of the photocatalytic degradation. The degradation of simazine in the presence of PMS and various nanocatalysts is portrayed in Fig. 8b. It can be inferred from Fig. 8b that no significant degradation rate of simazine can be observed during the photolysis + PMS; NiO

+ PMS when compared to the maximum efficiency achieved during the solar light-driven photocatalysis in the presence of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ along with the presence of PMS. In addition, 3-fold enhanced degradation rate is observed for the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ + PMS when compared to $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites alone. The kinetic rate attained for the simazine degradation in the presence of PMS and the counterparts of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ magnetic nanocomposites is shown in Fig. 8b to comprehend the role of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ + PMS since the 0.4 mM of PMS with other nanocatalysts cannot be efficient (Fig. 9a).

The rate constant (k') observed for the degradation of simazine in the presence of various nanocatalysts and PMS is shown in Fig. 9a. The k' resulted from the simazine degradation for the photolysis, photolysis + PMS and NiO can be negligible when compared to the k' observed for the other photocatalytic degradation systems. Fe_2O_3 , TiO_2 (P25) and NiFe_2O_4 nanocatalysts exhibited efficient degradation when compared to their counterparts. Whereas if the PMS is added to the photocatalytic microenvironment the rate of simazine degradation was almost doubled for the Fe_2O_3 , TiO_2 (P25) and NiFe_2O_4 nanocatalysts which indicates the degradation of simazine proceeded faster when compared to the bare photocatalytic systems. Fig. 9b demonstrates the removal percentage of simazine, 99.2% efficient removal was observed for the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{PMS}$ and $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ mediated photocatalytic degradation when the slurry was irradiated for 40 min whereas $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ with PMS degraded the simazine within 20 min of the solar light irradiation.

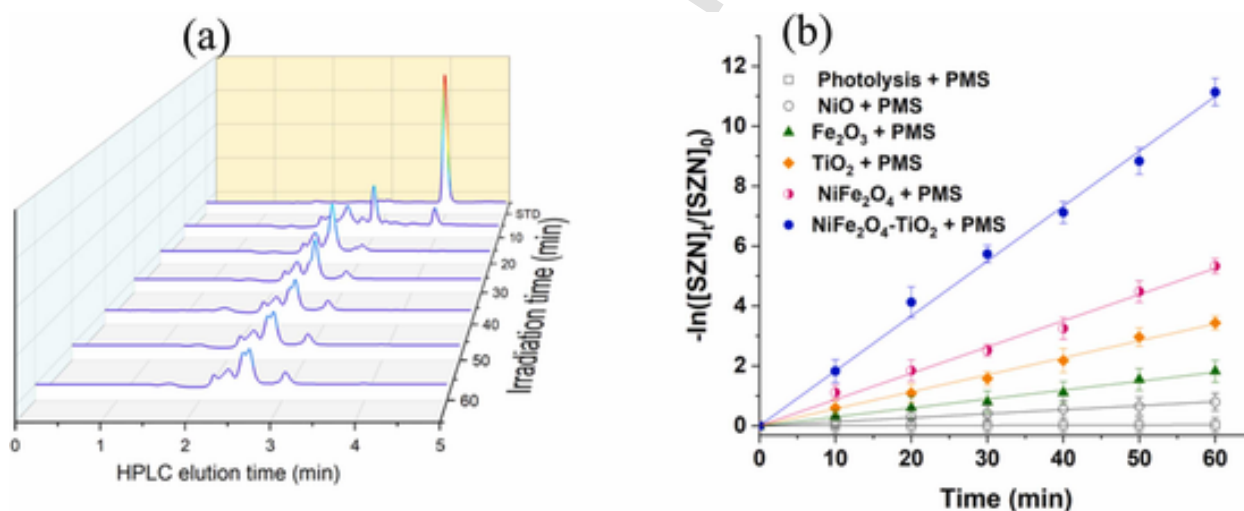


Fig. 8. (a) Plot of $-\ln([SZN]_t/[SZN]_0)$ for various nanophotocatalysts employed to study the kinetic degradation of simazine in the presence of PMS {peroxymonosulphate; SZN - simazine}. (b) 3-D plot demonstrating evolution of HPLC chromatogram of photocatalytic degradation of simazine. Experimental parameter: [Catalyst] = 0.3 g/L; [SZN] = 6.2 mg/L, [PMS] = 0.4 mM; [T] = 25 °C.

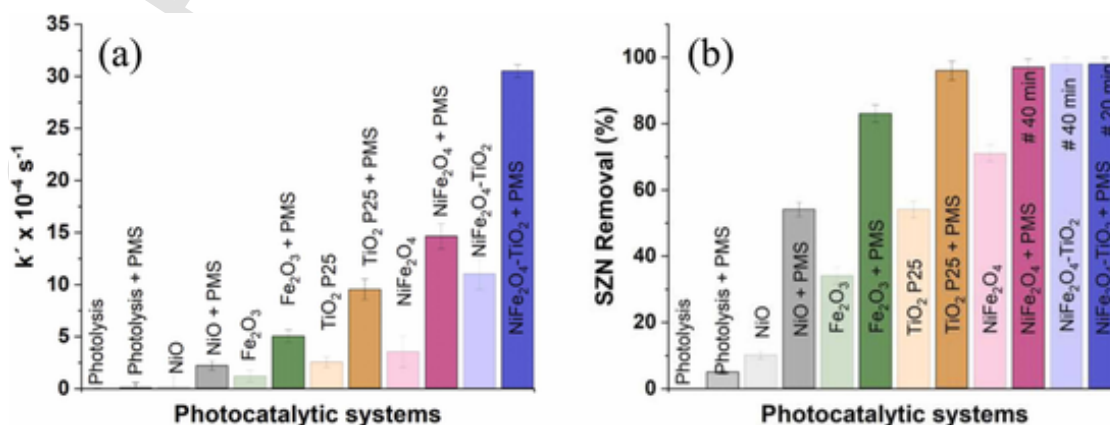
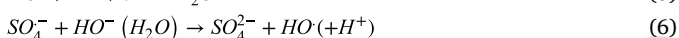


Fig. 9. Comparison of apparent rate constants observed for the degradation of simazine in presence of various nanocatalysts and PMS employed at its optimized Experimental parameter: [Catalyst] = 0.3 g/L; [SZN] = 6.2 mg/L, [PMS] = 0.4 mM; [T] = 25 °C.

A 2-fold enhanced rate of degradation could be achieved for the degradation of simazine. It is also noticed from Fig. 9b that the bare nanocatalysts with and without combination of PMS revealed relatively low efficiency for the removal of simazine even after 60 min of the solar light irradiation.

The initial pH of the solution exerted a distinct influence on both the catalytic surface charge performance and production of free radicals within the system. In this context, the influence of different initial pH of the solution was assessed towards the degradation of SZN at optimized conditions ($[\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2] = 0.3 \text{ g/L}$; $[\text{SZN}] = 6.2 \text{ mg/L}$; $[\text{PMS}] = 0.4 \text{ mM}$) and the observed results are given in the Fig. S3. As illustrated in Fig. S3, as the pH increased from 3.0 to 7.0 the degradation of SZN increased significantly. Whereas, degradation of SZN decreased with further increasing of pH to 11. The experimental results exhibits that the presence of H^+ ions at lower pH could be quenched the $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$ (Eqs. (4) to (6)). Besides, at higher pH value, the rate of SZN degradation is reduced. This may be because excessive OH^- radicals scavenged $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ to generate $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals (Eq. (5)), which have a lower oxidation capacity than $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$. As consequence, reduction of oxidative radical in the solution bulk led to the reduction of SZN degradation efficiency. The current results are consistent with the previously reported research results on the PMS activation over nanocatalysts [53–57].



In actual wastewater, there exist different kinds of inorganic anions and organic matters, influencing the performance of the catalyst/oxidant towards degradation of the SZN. The effects of different coexisting anions (HCO_3^- , Cl^- , NO_3^- , HPO_4^{2-}) and organic matter (Humic acid) on SZN degradation are shown in Fig. S4. The observed results at optimized conditions ($[\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2] = 0.3 \text{ g/L}$; $[\text{SZN}] = 6.2 \text{ mg/L}$; $[\text{PMS}] = 0.4 \text{ mM}$; $[\text{foreign substance}] = 0.1 \text{ g/L}$) exhibits that the foreign substance such as HCO_3^- , Cl^- , NO_3^- , HPO_4^{2-} and humic acid affect the rate constant of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ degradation. This could be quenching of oxidative radical ($\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ and $\bullet\text{OH}$) (Eqs. (7)–(12)) leads to formation of minimum quantity species hindered the degradation of SZN. This inhibitory effect was $\text{HPO}_4^{2-} > \text{HA} > \text{HCO}_3^- > \text{NO}_3^- > \text{Cl}^-$ and the observed results are harmony with the previous results [53–57]. In addition, to determine the applicability of the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2 + \text{PMS}$ system in actual water matrix, four typical surface water sources, i.e., Milli-Q water, municipal tap water, groundwater and wastewater were used as water matrixes for degradation process. The physiochemical properties of the water samples are listed in Table S1. The experimental findings presented in Fig. S5 reveal that the rate constants of SZN degradation exhibited slight to moderately inhibitory effects. These effects were attributed to the relatively higher concentration of dissolved organics, coexisting anions, as well as total dissolved solids (TDS) and turbidity. Collectively, these constituents introduced adverse impacts on the degradation of SZN. They did so by scavenging reactive radicals, buffering pH, scattering incident radiation, and obstructing the catalyst pores, thereby impeding the transport of reactive species to the active sites. Quantitatively, milli-Q water, SZN degradation reached an impressive 100%, while in tap water, groundwater, and wastewater, the degradation were notably lower at 82.2%, 64.1%, and 50.8%, respectively, under 60 min direct solar light irradiation at optimized experimental conditions ($[\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2] = 0.3 \text{ g/L}$; $[\text{SZN}] = 6.2 \text{ mg/L}$; $[\text{PMS}] = 0.4 \text{ mM}$).



Photoluminescence analysis of the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$ system involved the use of terephthalic acid (TA) aqueous solution traps to gain insights into the active species participating in the reaction. Notably, when the TA aqueous solution was examined, it displayed no observable photoluminescence (FL) intensity at a peak wavelength of 425 nm. This absence of FL intensity was observed both in the presence of the catalyst under dark conditions and during irradiation in the absence of the porous $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$ system, as shown in Fig. S6. However, a significant FL intensity was observed when the terephthalic acid aqueous solution was irradiated directly with solar light in the presence of either $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ or $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$ systems. This observation suggests that photocatalytic reactions generate hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$), which, when they react with TA, lead to the formation of the fluorescent 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid (HTA). The calculated production of $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals after one hour of irradiation indicates that the concentration of $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals is higher in the assessed photocatalyst systems, namely $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ ($9.10 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$) and $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$ ($1.28 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$). These findings align with the observed efficiencies in SZN degradation for $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ and $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$, as shown in Figs. 7a and 8b. In order to gain a deeper understanding of the contribution of the oxidative radicals to the degradation process, oxidative radical species trapping experiments were conducted within the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ and $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$ system (as shown in Table S2). Tert-butanol (TBA), known as a scavenger for $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals, was introduced during the degradation of SZN under optimized conditions ($[\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2] = 0.3 \text{ g/L}$; $[\text{SZN}] = 6.2 \text{ mg/L}$; $[\text{PMS}] = 0.4 \text{ mM}$; $[\text{TBA}] = 0.3 \text{ M}$). The results of these experiments demonstrated that when the presence of TBA, the degradation efficiency of SZN decreased significantly, reaching approximately 99% reduction for $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ and 35% reduction for $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$ system. This inhibitory effect strongly supports the conclusion that $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ radicals play a major role in the degradation of SZN in the presence of the $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{PMS}$.

The introduction of narrow-band-gap semiconductor ($\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4 = 1.2 \text{ eV}$) into wide-band-gap semiconductor ($\text{TiO}_2 = 3.2 \text{ eV}$) by the formation of heterojunction provides a new internal band energy level $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2 = 2.32 \text{ eV}$ between the conduction and valence bands of TiO_2 . This newly formed internal energy level plays a crucial role in promoting the migration of electrons and holes in different directions in response to the energy of incident light. During the photocatalytic process, electrons from the valence band of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ get excited to this new energy level within the conduction band of $\text{NiFe}_2\text{O}_4/\text{TiO}_2$. Consequently, the photogenerated electrons and holes disperse over the surface of NiFe_2O_4 . The photogenerated electrons efficiently interact with dissolved oxygen to generate $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ radicals, which further lead to the formation of $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals. In the presence of PMS, the photogenerated electrons also react with PMS molecules, resulting in the generation of $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ radicals and $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals. This separation and efficient utilization of photogenerated electron-hole pairs reduce the recombination accordingly, thereby enhancing the overall photocatalytic oxidation of SZN. In summary, these formed radicals significantly contribute to the increased efficacy of the photocatalytic degradation of SZN.

The total organic carbon (TOC) removal for the simazine degradation was analyzed for 6 h of solar light irradiation at the optimized condition {simazine 6.2 mg/L; [nanocatalyst] = 0.3 g/L and [PMS] = 0.4 mM}. The photolysis with and without the combination of PMS showed a negligible amount of mineralization when compared to other photocatalytic systems (Fig. 10) whereas the bare nanocatalysts (NiO , Fe_2O_3 , TiO_2 and NiFe_2O_4) exhibited 25–60% of mineralization of simazine respectively in the present experimental conditions. On the other hand, the bare nanocatalysts with the combination of PMS

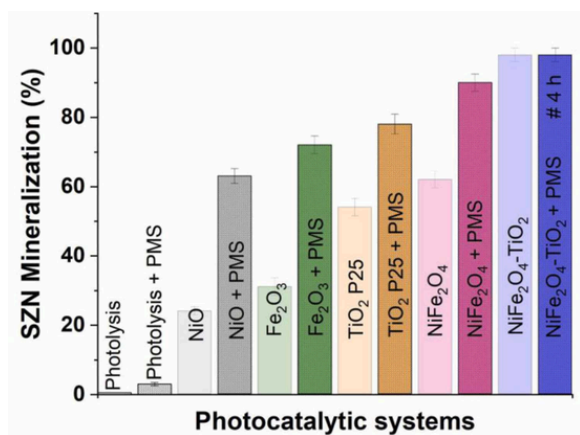


Fig. 10. Total organic carbon (TOC) removal in percentage of simazine. Experimental parameter: [Catalyst] = 0.3 g/L; [SZN] = 6.2 mg/L, [PMS] = 0.4 mM; [T] = 25 °C.

demonstrated the mineralization of simazine from 63% to 90%. Simazine mineralization efficacy was achieved 100% for 6 h irradiation in the presence of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites whereas in combination with PMS 100% mineralization was resulted for 4 h of solar light irradiation. The addition of PMS to the photocatalytic microenvironment certainly enhances the hydroxyl (•OH) and sulphate (SO₄^{•-}) radicals in addition to the hydroxyl (•OH) radicals generated from the solar light-driven photocatalysis [5,24,31–33,39,42]. Consequently, enhanced mineralization was resulted in the combination of NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ with PMS.

In order to check the stability of the NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites, the nanocatalysts were collected after the completion of photocatalytic degradation experiments and washed with distilled water under vigorous stirring for three times subsequently dried at room temperature for further recycling. The as-prepared NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocatalysts were more stable and the efficiency of Simazine degradation was approximately same for the continuous five cycles (Fig. 11) at the optimized experimental conditions. After the fifth cycle the efficacy of the synthesized NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites was found to decline the efficiency.

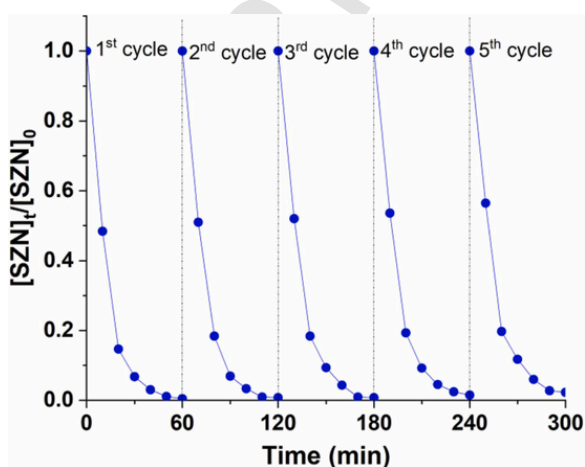


Fig. 11. Stability study of the NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ nanocatalysts was conducted without the addition of PMS. Operating conditions: [SZN] = 6.2 mg/L; [catalyst] = 0.3 g/L.

4. Conclusion

In summary, ultra-small Ni nanoparticles modified Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ magnetic nanocomposites were successfully synthesized and applied to activate PMS by the photocatalytic process to generate hydroxyl (•OH) and sulphate (SO₄^{•-}) for simazine oxidation under the natural solar light irradiation. Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ exhibited high efficient catalytic performance towards the oxidation of simazine. The photocatalytic oxidation efficiency of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ against simazine 6.2 (mg/L) could reach 99% within 60 min, which is significantly higher and faster than those of commercial TiO₂ NPs. These high photocatalytic properties attributed to the effective formation of a heterojunction between ultra-small Ni NPs modified magnetic Ni@NiFe₂O₄ and non-magnetic TiO₂ NPs. In addition, Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ + PMS system exhibited 3 and 7-folds higher the catalytic activity compared to Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ and the commercial TiO₂ NPs, respectively. Besides, the TOC removal experiments, clearly showed that 99% simazine could mineralized into CO₂ and H₂O within 4 h in the presence of Ni@NiFe₂O₄/TiO₂ + PMS system under the natural solar light irradiation which further showed its effectiveness in the pollutant removal. The reusability study confirmed that the synthesized nanocatalyst was stable with no change in its efficiency until the five consecutive cycles. Overall, these findings provided a novel photocatalyst with an effective visible light response and reusability that could be applied as a new photocatalytic process assisted by PMS activation in the large-scale wastewater treatment facilities.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

C. Ashina: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Visualization, Validation. **N. Pugazhenthiran:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft, Software, Editing, Validation. **P. Sathishkumar:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **C. Rajasekaran:** Formal analysis, Visualization, Validation. **M.A. Gracia-Pinilla:** Formal analysis, Visualization, Validation. **R.V. Mangalaraja:** Formal analysis, Visualization, Validation.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.jece.2023.111342.

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