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Crumpled sheet like graphene based WO₃-Fe₂O₃ nanocomposites for enhanced charge

transfer and solar photocatalysts for environmental remediation

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Abstract

The combination of two or more metal oxides onto graphene sheets with even distribution is projected to enhanced charge transfer properties in photocatalytic applications. We report, tungsten oxide (WO₃) with iron oxide (Fe₂O₃) nanoparticles grown on graphene sheets via a facile economical one pot hydrothermal method and consequently characterized by standard analytical techniques. Synthesized Fe₂O₃ with WO₃ nanoparticles were well ornamented on surface of the graphene sheets which have a significant charge transfer properties. The resulting hybrid WO₃-Fe₂O₃-rGO (WFG) nanocomposites showed enhanced photocatalytic, heavy metal removal and antibacterial activities. The superior photocatalytic removal efficiencies were observed for the removal of rhodamine B (~94%) and methylene blue dyes (~98%) under solar light irradiation. The antibacterial activity of WFG nanocomposites were performed against *Escherichia coli* (*E.coli*) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S.aureus*) as models for Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria. The outcome of the results have an intellectual effect on the use of WFG nanocomposites to address the upcoming energy and environment issues.

Keywords: WFG nanocomposites; photocatalyst; antibacterial activity; dyes removal.

1. Introduction

The removal of highly colored wastewater especially, secondary effluent contains refractory organics from hazardous industrial chemicals is of great interest and significance for environmental protection [1]. The industrial generated wastewater contains residual organic compounds and dyes which posed adverse effect to human health [2,3]. Several advanced techniques have been used to deal with this serious phenomenon, such as biological, wet catalytic oxidation, ozonation, electrochemical, sonocatalytic, photochemical techniques, etc., [4,5] were used to remove organics from wastewaters, but still have challenge to complete elimination of this refractory organics [6]. Recently, photocatalytic processes are used as to remove refractory organics into smaller non-toxic organic molecules without sludge generation (i.e., secondary heavy metal pollution) by simple, efficient and an economical, to clean industrial effluent [7-9]. Numerous research on photocatalysis for wastewater containing organic and inorganic contaminants have been reported earlier [3]. Currently, inorganic heavy metals such as lead, cadmium and mercury are the environmentally significant pollutants and are flattering one of the most serious environmental threat. Thus, the removal of toxic heavy metals from industrial wastes is an important challenge to avoid water and soil pollution [10].

Semiconducting nanoparticles have drawn tremendous attention due to their unique physicochemical properties and potential applications in photocatalysis, solar energy production, energy conversion, carbondioxide reduction and supercapacitors [11,12]. Among numerous exposed photocatalysts, tungsten oxide (WO₃) and iron oxide (Fe₂O₃) nanoparticles were extensively studied for gas sensing, catalysis and solar energy conversion processes, and electrochromic displays, because of their economical and distinctive properties such as strong oxidizing abilities for superior conductivity, chemical stability, plasmon-resonant properties and

fine chemical production [13–16]. Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles have already been utilized by food and drug administration (FDA) of United States for food and medicinal applications [17]. It has been progressively used in the field of photocatalysis, due to high absorption in the visible region which is about 43 % in solar spectrum [18].

In this context, a number of binary photocatalysts such as, WO_3 -Fe₂O₃ nanocomposite [19], WO_3 -Fe₂O₃ nanosheet arrays [20] and Fe₂O₃@WO₃ nanostructures [21] were developed to recognize the reminiscence of photocatalysts by taking advantage of Fe₂O₃ magnetic properties. However, these binary composites always endure a poor photocatalytic efficiency after many cycles, [20] due to the chemical instability of Fe₂O₃ convinced by the photogenerated electrons moved from WO₃. In this regard, it is essential to enhance the stability as well as charge transport properties of the recollectable photocatalysts for practical use [22].

In recent years, many researchers have focused on several ways to improve the efficiency of photocatalysts, such as carbon, N-doping on WO₃/TiO₂, α -Fe₂O₃/graphene oxide, WO₃@graphene composite, and Cu₂O/graphene/ α -Fe₂O₃ nanotube [23–26] among which graphene has showed excellent activity. Graphene has initiated new research area in material science, due to its unique sp² monolayer structure, remarkably high conductivity, superior electron mobility, enormously high specific surface area and chemical stability [27]. It is treated to be an ideal matrix and electron mediator of semiconductor nanoparticles for energy and environmental applications [28,29]. On the other hand, combinations of metal nanocomposites with graphene were attractive in improving photocatalytic activity under visible-light irradiation. Use of graphene/BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposite, Ag/RGO/ZnO, Ag-Cu₂O/rGO and graphene oxide–CuFe₂O₄–ZnO nanocomposites as photocatalysts for environmental remediation have

been reported [30–33]. In specific, reduced graphene oxide (rGO) based ternary nanocomposites have great superiority than binary composites when used as photocatalysts.

On the other hand, antibiotic resistance is a severe and growing phenomenon in human health. Notably antibiotic resistant bacterial strains, fungi and parasites have become a serious problem for health care and food technology zones [34]. Thus, antibiotics having a different mechanism of action are instantly needed for changes in the traditional antimicrobial compounds. Because of their large specific surface area and high bioactivity, the improvements of nanoparticles with antimicrobial activity have been developed as a new class of biomedical materials having enhanced or distinct antibacterial activity against multi drug resistant human pathogenic microbes to fulfil cumulative demands for hygiene in daily life [35].

Herein, we report a simple hydrothermal method to prepare ternary graphenesemiconductor-magnetic nanocomposite, precisely referring to WO₃-Fe₂O₃-rGO (WFG) [22], which retains the combined functions as showed in Scheme. 1. The synthesized ternary WFG nanocomposites exhibited superior visible-light photocatalytic activity towards the degradation of two organic dyes, called methylene blue (MB) and rhodamine B (RhB) in synthetic waste water. The proposed mechanisms of the photocatalyst for WFG nanocomposites were discussed by relating with experimental details. The WFG nanocomposites were further investigated for antibacterial activity against *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. The developed material showed superior photocatalytic and antimicrobial properties. This synthesized photocatalytic material may afford significant antibacterial performance in environmental purification application.



Scheme. 1. Schematic diagram for preparation of WFG nanocomposites

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials and Reagents

Graphite powders, sodium tungstate dihydrate (Na₂WO₄·2H₂O), ferric nitrate (Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. Potassium permanganate (KMnO₄), hydrochloric acid (HCl), sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), methylene blue dye, rhodamine B, working and standard metal ions solution were all purchased from Merck Chemicals, India. All the reagents and chemicals were used without any further purification.

2.2 Preparation of the WO₃-Fe₂O₃-rGO nanocomposites

Graphene oxide was synthesized through a modified Hummer's method [22]. WFG was synthesized by simple hydrothermal process. In a typical process, 0.30 g of rGO was added to 30 mL distilled water and then ultra-sonicated for 1 h. Then the rGO suspension was added 30 mL to aqueous solutions of Na₂WO₄·2H₂O (2.638 g), Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (3.232 g) with continuous stirring. After 30 min reaction, the above mixture was transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and heated at 170 °C for 15 h. The obtained precipitate was separated by centrifugation and washed with ethanol and distilled water for several times. The resulting solid was dried in vacuum oven at 60 °C over-night prior to characterization. For comparison, Pure WO₃, Fe₂O₃ and binary WO₃/rGO, Fe₂O₃/rGO nanocomposites were obtained through a similar procedure.

2.3 Characterization

The crystal structure of the products were carried out using a Rigaku Miniflex X-ray diffractometer with Cu K α ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm). Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were recorded on a BRUCKER TENSOR 27 FTIR spectrophotometer. Raman spectra were recorded using a LabRAM HR Horbia Micro Raman spectrometer. The scanning electron microscope (SEM, Zeiss18 Evaluation) was employed to investigate the morphology and Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX Oxford X-Act) was used to find the elements composition. High resolution electron microscopy (HRTEM) and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) were measured on a Jeol/JEM 2100 transmission electron microscope operating at 200 kV. UV–vis Diffuse reflectance spectra (UV–vis DRS) were recorded in the range 200–800 nm with a Perkin Elmer Lambda 25 spectrometers.

The determination of Pb^{2+} , Cd^{2+} and Hg^{2+} concentrations was carried out on an ICP-OES using a Perkin Elmer OptimaTM 7000 DV dual view series sequential spectrometer (Shelton, CT,

USA) equipped with WinLabTM32 for ICP Version 4.0 software. In order to avoid any carry-over effects, the ultrasonic nebulizer was washed out with 1% (v/v) HNO₃ for 60 s between each sample run. Argon gas (99.99%) was used as the ICP torch gas and nitrogen gas was used as the optical purge gas. A charge-coupled device (CCD)-array detector was used to collect both the analyte spectra and the background spectra, which provided improved precision and analytical speed. The three analytical emission wavelengths of 220.353, 228.802 and 253.652 nm were employed for quantification of Pb, Cd and Hg. The repeatability was calculated for ICP-OES as the relative standard deviation (RSD) on six consecutive replicates of the same sample.

2.4 Evaluation of Photocatalytic activity

The MB and RhB were chosen as a model organic pollutants to test the photocatalytic activity of WFG photocatalyst at room temperature. A typical reaction mixture for irradiation comprised the following initial concentrations: 100 mg of the prepared samples were added to 100 mL of different dye solutions (30 mg/mL). Prior to the photocatalytic activity testing, the reaction mixture was kept for 30 min in a dark environment to establish the adsorption/desorption equilibrium of the dye molecules on the photocatalyst surface. The mixture then continuously irradiated with 450 W low pressure quartz mercury lamp for 1 h. The suspension was periodically withdrawn from the reactor, and the samples were then centrifuged to remove the photocatalyst powder. The photocatalytic activity of the samples was calculated from initial and final reaction mixture containing MB and RhB by time using UV–vis spectrophotometer. As for the stability test, the remaining photocatalyst powder was centrifuged and used upto 4 cycles for photocatalytic degradation efficiency of WFG towards MB and RhB. For comparison, the auto photodegradation of MB and RhB (namely, photolysis) were also tested under similar conditions in the absence of photocatalyst. The photocatalytic degradation

efficiency of WFG on degradation of MB and RhB were evaluated by the value of C/C_0 , where C_0 and C are the symbolic representations for the concentration of organic pollutants before and after photocatalytic experiments, respectively.

2.5 Metal ion adsorption properties of WFG ternary nanocomposites

2.5.1 Removal of toxic metal ions at different pHs

The heavy metals removal capacity of the prepared WFG nanocomposites were studied by batch equilibrium method. Briefly, Dried 0.5 g of WFG nanocomposites was added to 300 ppm (100 mL) solution of mixture of Pb²⁺, Cd²⁺ and Hg²⁺ metal ions, pH was maintained as 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 by using 0.5 M HCl or 0.5 M NaOH aqueous solutions at 25 \pm 0.5 °C with continuous stirring of 200 rpm for 12 h to facilitate the adsorption equilibrium of heavy metals onto the WFG nanocomposites. After the specified time, the WFG nanocomposites were separated out from the solution by filtration through Whatman filter paper (No. 42). The filtrate were collected and then the amount of metal ions was determined by ICP-OES. A blank was also analyzed to ensure that no metal ions were carried over from the previous sample. The blank values were subtracted from the values determined for the different metal ions to give the exact adsorbed metal ion concentrations. The amount of metal ions removed by WFG nanocomposites in the presence of a given pH was calculated by following expression:

% Removal efficiency = $C_o - C_e/C_o \times 100$.

where, Co is the initial metal ion concentration (ppm), Ce the equilibrium metal ion concentration in ppm

2.6 Antibacterial Activity

2.6.1 Chemicals for antibacterial assay

Chloramphenicol (Hi-Media, Pvt Ltd., India) was used as a positive reference standard for selected two bacterial strains *E.coli* and *S.aureus*, respectively. 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (Qualigens) was used as a solvent for the tested samples.

2.6.2 Preparation of inoculums

Two different human pathogenic bacterial strains of gram positive bacteria and gram negative bacteria were used in our current study. The gram positive strain was *Staphylococcus aureus* while the gram negative bacteria was *Escherichia coli*. The tested bacterial species were obtained from microbial type culture collection centre, Chandigarh, India. Bacterial inoculums were prepared by growing freeze-dried cells in nutrient agar for 24 h at 37 °C. WFG ternary nanocomposite was assessed for their antibacterial activity by agar modified well diffusion method using nutrient agar media [36]. The catalyst was dissolved separately in diluted 10% dimethyl sulfoxide. The catalyst was tested against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* at different concentrations (50, 75 and 100 μ g/mL) and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The inoculums of two bacterial strains were prepared by suspending overnight grown cultures in normal saline (NaCl 0.85%). The turbidity of the inoculum was adjusted as per the 0.5 McFarland standards.

2.6.3 Agar well diffusion method

The antibacterial activity of WFG nanocomposite was investigated quantitatively through the different doses of materials supplemented in the growing media. For the antibacterial assay, WFG nanocomposites with different concentrations were filled in the wells. Dilute DMSO was used as a negative control and the standard drug, chloramphenicol was used as a positive control. After overnight incubation in the incubator at 37 °C, all plates were examined and the zone of inhibition (diameter) was measured. After incubation, the colony forming units (cfu) were counted in the respective dilutions of the treated sample.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Crystal structures

Powder XRD was used to examine the structural and crystal phases of the synthesized pure, binary and WFG ternary nanocomposites. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of WFG nanocomposites are presented in Fig. 1, which showed the major peaks corresponding to hexagonal WO₃ (JCPDS No. 85-2459) at 20 values of 12.8° (1 0 0), 24.19° (0 0 2), 28.8° (2 0 0), 30.1° (1 1 2), 34.8° (2 0 2), 36.5° (2 1 0), 38.1° (2 1 1), 45.8° (2 1 2), 50.1° (2 2 0), 52.6° (3 1 0), 55.4° (2 2 2), 59.5° (4 0 0), 64.7° (3 1 3) and 70.3° (2 2 4). The Fe₂O₃ (JCPDS No. 33-0664) at 24.2° (0 1 2), 33.2° (1 0 4), 35.7° (1 1 0), 40.9° (1 1 3), 49.5 (0 2 4), 54.1° (1 1 6), 57.6° (1 2 2), 62.5° (2 1 4), 64.1° (3 0 0), 72° (1 1 9) and 75.6° (2 2 0), and reduced graphene oxide at 24.52° (0 0 2) [37]. However, no rGO peak observed in the WFG nanocomposites, which is due to its low amount, highly dispersed and comparatively low diffraction intensities in the composites [38,39]. Also, the XED peak of WFG nanocomposites significantly shifting to highangle, this reason can be explained the well bound between WO₃-Fe₂O₃ and the two composite interconnecting heterojunction with rGO, which results the semiconductors shrinkage in the lattice [40,41]. The diffraction spectra confirm the formation of the hexagonal crystalline phase of WO₃ and rhombohedral crystalline phase of Fe₂O₃ grown over the rGO sheet. Here, we showed that GO cannot be fully reduced into rGO during the synthesis process and therefore some of the oxygen based functional groups are often attached to rGO sheet even after the reduction [42]. The average crystallite size of the all samples were estimated using the Debye-Scherrer equation [43], which is presented in Table 1. The lattice parameters, degree of crystallinity and crystallite size of pure, binary and ternary nanocomposites were calculated and

provided in Table 1. The calculated d-spacing is in good agreement with HR-TEM of ternary nanocomposites.

 Table 1. Lattice parameters, crystallite size and degree of crystallinity of pure, binary and ternary nanocomposites.

	Lattice Param	neters (Å)	Crystalline size	Degree of	
Sample	a = b	c	(nm)	crystallinity (X _c)	
WO ₃	7.147	7.754	51.20	3.221	
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.124	13.642	66.02	6.764	
WO ₃ -rGO	7.148	7.755	72.97	8.990	
Fe ₂ O ₃ -rGO	5.125	13.643	52.12	3.151	
WFG	-		48.14	2.784	



Fig. 1. Powder XRD patterns of pure, binary and WFG nanocomposites.

3.2 Morphology studies

FE-SEM and HR-TEM analysis of WFG was carried out to identify the morphology, particle size and structures. The morphology of rGO and WFG nanocomposites is presented in Fig. 2(a-e). Notably, the morphology of WFG nanocomposites greatly deviated, compared with a crumpled sheet like structure rGO (Fig. 2(a,b)). Moreover, WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles are randomly ornamented on rGO sheet surface, which could efficiently prevent the stacking of rGO sheets [44]. HR-TEM images of the pure WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ particles with sizes of different magnifications presented in Fig. S1(a-d). The HR-TEM images of WFG nanocomposites, where rGO exhibits wrinkled and folded sheets like structures showed in Fig. 3(a-f). The WO₃ and

Fe₂O₃ metal oxides nanoparticles (black in colour) are consistently disseminated on rGO sheets. Inset of Fig. 3f clearly describes the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of the ternary nanocomposites which showed that material is in polycrystalline nature. The (d_{002}) planar spacings of 0.43 nm corresponds to rGO layers [24,25]. While the (d_{020}) and (d_{110}) planar spacings of 0.38nm and 0.25 nm confirmed the plane of WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ (Fig. 3(c,f)) which is good agreement with XRD pattern. The EDX spectrum of WFG displays the only existence of C, O, Fe and W, indicating the successful formation of nanocomposite with high purity, which is analyzed by EDX and presented in Fig. 2f. The concentration elements (wt %) in this catalyst is listed in Fig. 2f.



Fig. 2. FE-SEM images of rGO (a,b) and different magnifications (c-e) and EDX spectrum of WFG nanocomposites (f).



Fig. 3. (a-f) HR-TEM images of WFG different magnifications and (f) SAED patterns (insert: right corner) of WFG nanocomposites.

3.3. Surface chemical states/ properties by XPS

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy was used to determine the chemical oxidation states of elements of WFG nanocomposites as presented in Fig. 4(a-e). Fig. 4a showed the XP survey spectrum of WFG nanocomposite confirmed W, Fe, C and O elements. From the survey XP spectra of C1s binding energy at 284.6 eV, O1s binding energy at 530.4 eV, W 4f binding energies at 35.4 eV and 37.5 eV, and Fe₂O₃ binding energy peaks at 724.32 eV, 710.72 eV (auger electron peak of Fe₂p) [45,46]. The deconvolution XP spectra of WO₃ (Fig. 4b), reveal the characteristic doublet binding energies at 35.4 eV and 37.5 eV and 37.5 eV and 37.5 eV for W4f_{7/2} and W4f_{5/2}, respectively, which is good agreement with reports [47,48]. The deconvolution XP spectra of Fe₂O₃ (Fig. 4c), and the main characteristic binding energies at 710.72 eV and 724.32 eV,

corresponds to $Fe2p_{3/2}$ and $Fe2p_{1/2}$ spin-orbit peaks of Fe species in Fe_2O_3 which is in good agreement with reports [49,50]. The core level deconvolution C1s XP spectra (Fig. 4d) reveals the existence of O-C=O (290.84 eV), C-O (287.8 eV), and C-C 284.6 eV) functional groups, which responsible interaction between the nanocomposites. The core level O1s XP spectra was asymmetric and broad due to available multiple chemical environment in oxygen functionalities in WFG, and the binding energy at 530.4 eV and 529.4 eV is ascribed to WO3 [49,51] and Fe2O3 [51], and binding energy at 531.8 eV corresponds surface chemisorbed oxygen functionalities [52,53].



Fig. 4a. XPS results of the WFG nanocomposites, deconvolution XP spectra of W 4f (b), Fe 2p(c), C 1s(d) and O 1s(e).

3.4 Functional group Analysis

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectra (FT-IR) of as synthesized pure, binary and the WFG nanocomposites are presented in Fig. 5. In FT-IR spectrum of WFG, the broad peak around 3459 cm⁻¹, is attributed to stretching vibration of O-H of rGO with metal oxide interaction [53]. The weak adsorption band at 1581 cm⁻¹, is due to characteristic band of C=O functional groups in carbonyl and carboxyl moieties. The wide absorption band of WO₃-rGO nanocomposite at low frequencies is attributed to W-O-W bond. The peak at 1427 cm⁻¹ confirmed the skeletal vibrations of unoxidized graphitic (C=C) domains [54]. Few functional groups have been vanished in ternary nanocomposites due to the hydrothermal treatment of precursor material. Furthermore,

The Raman spectra is most promising tool to determine metal and rGO. Fig. 6(a-c) showed Raman spectra of WO₃, Fe₂O₃, and WFG nanocomposites. The Raman bands of 250 cm⁻¹, 700 cm⁻¹ assigned to O–W–O bending modes [55]. Fig. 6a showed the minor phonon confinement effects are perceived on the major phonon of 670 cm⁻¹ assigned to O–W–O stretching mode and the 957 cm⁻¹ assigned to WO₃ surface dangling bonds [56]. The Raman spectrum (Fig. 6b.) reveals the peaks at 223 and 487 cm⁻¹ corresponds to A1g and the peaks at 242, 296, 336, 408, and 605 cm⁻¹ corresponds to Eg vibrational modes of Fe₂O₃, good agreement with previous reports [57,58].



Fig. 5. FT-IR spectra of pure, binary and WFG nanocomposites

Fig. 6c showed that the two main peaks at 1324 cm⁻¹ and 1567 cm⁻¹ correspond to the characteristic sp³ carbon (D band) and sp² bonded carbons (G band) of the rGO sheets [59]. These Raman results suggest the presence of electronic interaction between WO₃, Fe₂O₃ and rGO in the composite, thus confirming the successful incorporation of the WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ particles onto the rGO surface.



Fig. 6. Raman spectra of WO₃ (a), Fe₂O₃ (b), and WFG (c) nanocomposites

3.5 Optical and bandgap by UV–DRS spectroscopy

The optical absorption properties of WO₃, Fe₂O₃, WO₃/rGO, Fe₂O₃/rGO and WFG nanocomposites were studied by UV–DRS spectroscopy and corresponding absorption peaks are presented in Fig. 7. The absorption edge of all synthesized photocatalysts are exhibited at the range of ~450-600 nm. However, all composite samples produce a certain absorption intensity in the visible region. The band gap energy (Eg) of WO₃, Fe₂O₃, WO₃/rGO, Fe₂O₃/rGO and WFG nanocomposites (Fig. 7b) were calculated to be ~2.8, 2.33, 2.87, 2.63 and 2.73 eV respectively, according to the Kubelka-Munk method [22].



Fig. 7. (a) UV-vis spectra of pure, binary and WFG nanocomposites, (b) Tauc Plot of pure, binary and WFG nanocomposites

Pure WO₃ showed the light absorption in the UV range with absorption on-set at 450 nm. By comparing with all samples, WFG composites showed largely varied absorption in visible light region (450–800 nm), resulted from rGO introduction [9,22]. Though, the band gap width of Fe₂O₃ is figured out at 2.33 eV, while that of Fe₂O₃/rGO is 2.63 eV, as shown in Fig. 7b. The difference in the band gap broadening of Fe₂O₃ nanocomposites is due to the band structure aberrance induced by hetero-interfaces [60]. These interpretations also suggest that the presence of rGO indirectly changes functional process of electron-hole pair creation of WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ by increasing its surface electric charge in photochemical process [61].

3.6 Photocatalytic performance of Methylene Blue and Rhodamine B

Photocatalytic degradation of MB and RhB were carried out to found the catalytic performance of WFG nanocomposite under solar light irradiation. The photocatalytic removal efficiency of WFG on removal of MB and RhB were examined by UV-Vis spectra and compared with pure, binary and WFG ternary nanocomposites as shown in Fig. 8(a-c) and Fig. 9(a-c). Additionally, the photocatalytic removal rate of dyes (MB and RhB) of pure, binary and WFG ternary nanocomposite are presented in Fig. 8d and Fig. 9d. As illustrated in Fig. 8c and Fig. 9c,

the maximum absorption peaks of MB found at 664 nm and RhB at 554 nm, which is drastically decreased without shifting the peak position to the baseline, indicating that the dyes were completely eliminated/removed from the aqueous phase. However, the required reaction time is only 20 min for complete removal of MB and RhB dyes under solar light irradiation in the presence of WFG nanocomposite. It showed that the WFG nanocomposite has excellent solar light photocatalytic activity for the removal of MB at ~98% and RhB at ~94.5%, which is about ~3 times and ~1.4 times higher than that pure and binary photocatalysts. The optimum reaction time to removal of dyes was optimized as 20 min, and no marginal enhancement was found after 20 min reaction period.

The comparative photocatalytic activity of our photocatalyst with existing reports are presented in Table 3. The photocatalytic performance of the pure, binary and WFG nanocomposites were explored for MB and RhB removal under solar light irradiation, and expressed as the resulting degradation efficiency derived from UV-Vis analysis of the reaction mixtures.



Fig. 8. UV–Vis spectra of MB at different time intervals: (a) WO₃-rGO, (b) Fe₂O₃-rGO, (c) WFG ternary nanocomposites and (d) MB removal rate at different photocatalytic system.



Fig. 9. UV–Vis spectra of RhB removal at different time intervals: (a) WO₃-rGO, (b) Fe₂O₃-rGO,

(c) WFG ternary nanocomposites and (d) RhB removal rate at different photocatalytic system.



Fig. 10. Pseudo-first-order kinetics for photocatalytic degradation of (a) MB and (b) RhB by pure, binary and WFG catalyst

The photocatalytic degradation of MB and RhB rates were fitted with pseudo-first-order kinetics as presented in Fig. 10(a,b). The rate constants were determined according to the following equation (1) [62]

$$\ln(C_0/C_t) = kt \tag{1}$$

where, C_0 is the initial concentration, C_t is the concentration of MB and RhB dyes at varied time t, t referred irradiation time and k rate constant, which is derived from MB (absorption maxima at 664 nm) and RhB (absorption maxima at 554 nm) with respect to time. The reaction rate constants (k) for all photocatalysts were determined from slope of fitted curves and rates are provided in Table 2. All the plots showed a linear association with good correlation coefficients (R^2 =0.9409 and R^2 =8472), indicating that MB and RhB degradation using the synthesized catalysts under solar light irradiation, and it is confirmed that the highest removal rates (k, 0.7154 min⁻¹ and 0.5846 min⁻¹) were obtained for WFG ternary nanocomposite.

Photocatalyst	Degradation (%)		$k (\min^{-1})$		R^2	
	MB	RhB	MB	RhB	MB	RhB
WO ₃	13.60	23.08	0.0331	0.0665	0.9138	0.9068
Fe ₂ O ₃	29.51	28.98	0.0087	0.0865	0.9675	0.9808
WO ₃ -rGO	48.23	35.45	0.1589	0.1111	0.9947	0.9678
Fe ₂ O ₃ -rGO	62.69	41.35	0.2462	0.1366	0.9946	0.9938
WFG	97.61	93.92	0.7154	0.5846	0.9409	0.8472

Table 2. MB and RhB removal percentage and rate constant for different photocatalyst

In this photocatalyst experiments, rGO acted as an acceptor in WFG nanocomposites, and subsequently reduced the charge recombination in the photocatalytic system. The difference

might be the presence of rGO, which contributed to charge transfer [27]. For a traditional semiconductor photocatalyst, both electrons and holes generated in the photocatalyst could decompose pollutants directly. Alternatively, electrons could also react with oxygen to produce oxy radicals, which finally convert into hydrogen peroxide. In this case, holes would react with hydroxyl ions to produce hydroxyl radicals. Hydroxyl radicals are the most active species to decompose pollutants in the photodegradation process [63]. In our experiments, rGO could act as an acceptor of the electrons generated in WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles, supposedly suppressing the recombination of charges and enhancing the photocatalytic activity. As to the reactive oxy radicals, we believe they may be generated on the surface of rGO as electrons have been efficiently transferred onto rGO. As the reactive oxy radicals, may create free electrons on the surface of rGO could transferred onto metal oxide surface. WFG nanocomposites formed in the hydrothermal route can effectually enrich the transfer efficacy of excited electrons and obstruct the recombination of electron-hole pairs, endowing the photocatalyst with enhanced solar light photocatalytic activity [64].

The possibility of hydroxyl radical influenced in our photocatalytic system, which is confirm the generation of [•]OH radicals during the reaction. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) studies, DMPO radical trapping experiments confirmed the hydroxyl radical formation over graphene based WO₃-Fe₂O₃ nanocomposites with model pollutant (MB dye) were presented in Fig. 11. From the Fig. 11. its evidenced the formation of DMPO-[•]OH which is characteristic of hydroxyl ([•]OH) radicals generated during the photodegradation experiment compared with standard DMPO [65,66].



Fig. 11. EPR spin trapping experiments over WFG nanocomposites (Experimental conditions: MB; 30 mg/L, WFG; 100 mg /100mL and reaction time: 25 min)

Apart from the photocatalytic activity, the stability is also predominant significance for its supportable recyclability [67]. Fig. 12(a,b) displays the recycling tests for the degradation of MB and RhB dyes over WFG nanocomposites under solar light irradiation, which confirmed that no noticeable loss in photocatalytic activity was perceived after four consecutive recycles, therefore suggesting that the WFG nanocomposite has best photostability.



Fig. 12. Stack plots showing % degradation of (a) MB vs time and (b) RhB vs time for WFG nanocomposite at different cycles.

3.6.1 Possible photocatalytic mechanism

On the basis of above discussion, it is well known that there are numerous factors played in photocatalytic activity of metal oxide semiconductors: crystal structure, charge separation efficiency, and so on. The enhanced photocatalytic performance of WFG nanocomposite is attributed to combined interaction and longer lifetime of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, faster interfacial charge transfer rate with high surface area. A possible Z-scheme reaction mechanism and the photodegradation process are illustrated in Fig. 13. Under solar light irradiation, both WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ can be excited to photogenerated electrons (e⁻) and holes (h⁺).

Based on the results, we propose MB and RhB dyes photo degradation over WFG composite through separation and transfer of photo induced electrons at Fe₂O₃ and WO₃ interface heterojunction. The CB of WO₃ electrons transferred (photo generated) to the valence band (VB) of Fe₂O₃, and the residual holes within the VB WO₃ may either mediated or directly produce hydroxyl radicals (reaction with H₂O) to react with dyes (photooxidize). The photogenerated e⁻ from Fe₂O₃ also react with adsorbed O₂ to produce O₂ ^{•-} radicals, while only a few O₂ ^{•-} radicals could further react with H₂O to generate hydroxyl radicals ('OH). The close contact between WO₃, Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles and the both CB band of WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ electrons may trapped rGO sheets, extending the lifetime of charge carriers and suppressing the rate of recombination. Also, the photoinduced electrons on WO₃, Fe₂O₃ surface and the trapped electrons on rGO sheets induce redox reaction in the targeted organic pollutants. The reduced GO can act as a back bone (transfer the electron) of e⁻ and h⁺ pair separation mechanism.



Fig. 13. Schematic diagram of proposed photodegradation z-scheme mechanism for WFG nanocomposites

3.6.2 Comparison with other reported systems

The efficiency of our photocatalyst was compared with other reports, as listed in Table 3. Notably the reports, used high lamp powers, low concentration of pollutants and removal efficiency is comparably lower than that of our report. It can be seen that our catalyst showed higher removal efficiency even high concentration dye within 20 min and less amount of catalyst as compared to the other reported system presented in Table 3.

Catalyst	Dye	% Removal	Catalyst	Irradiation Time	Reference
WO_3/α -Fe ₂ O ₃	MB	80	0.5 g/L	240	[20]
$CeO_2/SnO_2/rGO$	MB	95	0.5 g/L	90	[22]
Ag/RGO/ZnO	RhB	80	0.2 g/L	60	[31]
g- C ₃ N ₄ /Fe ₃ O ₄ /BiOI	RhB	97	0.1 g/L	180	[68]
TiO_2 -RGO/MoS $_2$	MB	97	0.5 g/L	100	[69]
WO ₃ /Fe ₂ O ₃ /rGO	MB	98	0.1 g/L	20	Present work
WO ₃ /Fe ₂ O ₃ /rGO	RhB	94	0.1 g/L	20	Present work

Table 3. Comparison of solar light degradation rate (%) of MB over previously reported binary and ternary heterojunction

3.7 Removal of toxic heavy metal ions

The selective Pb^{2+} , Cd^{2+} and Hg^{2+} metal ions removal efficiency of the prepared WFG nanocomposites was investigated with different pH (2-7), and the obtained results are presented in Fig. 12. From the results it is noted that the solution pH value strongly affected the heavy metal ions removal efficiency on the prepared WFG nanocomposites and removal percentage increases with increasing pH. The maximum removal percentage were recorded at the pH 6 for each metal ion (Pb²⁺ (76%), Cd²⁺ (81%) and Hg²⁺ (79%) with removal capacities of 229.2, 244.1, and 236.9 ppm, respectively. The adsorption capacity of WFG nanocomposites to the cadmium ion is higher than that of the lead and mercury ions. It seems to us that adsorption tendency of the ions is also possibly dependent on the size/softness of ion species as well. It should be noted that the removal percentage of WFG nanocomposites is very low at initial pH from 2 to 4 [70], however, further increase in pH from 5 to 6 there is remarkable change in removal capacity of WFG nanocomposites was observed. Moreover, abundant of H⁺ ions in this solution could compete with metal ions for available adsorption sites on WFG nanocomposites. However, WFG

nanocomposites became negative charge due to the deprotonation surface when pH > 5-6 which could be responsible for the maximum removal capacity.



Fig. 14. pH dependence of the metal ions removal by the WFG ternary nanocomposite

3.8 Antibacterial Activity

The present study analyzed the antibacterial effects of WFG ternary nanocomposite against two pathogenic bacteria name called *E. coli* and *S. aureus*. Fig. 15. showed the zone of inhibition around the bacterial strain for WFG nanocomposite. Both bacterial organisms are most common in enteric infections, water pollution and resistance to most broad spectrum of new

generation antibiotics. In addition, nanocomposites damaged the cellular function by denaturation of cell enzymes, biological molecules and protein factors [71]. The as prepared WFG nanocomposite has been screened *in vitro* antibacterial activity on selected Gram negative *E. coli* and Gram positive bacteria *S. aureus* at different concentrations. The results are summarised in Table 4. WFG nanocomposite showed much higher antibacterial activity compared to both pure and binary composites (Fig. 15.). Decrease in the antibacterial efficacy in the prepared nanocomposite against *E. coli* may be due its gram negative nature. It is well known that gram negative bacteria consist of multiple cell walls compared to gram positive bacteria (*S. aureus*). From this study, it is evident that the cells exposed to WFG photocatalysis, have improved antibacterial activities, due to active oxygen species from the metal oxide nanocomposites.



Fig. 15. Zone of inhibition tests for WFG nanocomposites materials towards gram-negative *E*. *coli* bacteria and gram-positive *S. aureus* bacteria



Nanocomposites	Bacterial strain used	Zone of	Standard 3 ul		
		(Mean val			
		50 µg	75 µg	100 µg	<u>- 5 µ1</u>
WFG	E. coli	10.4 ± 1.2	12.3±3.5	15.6±1.4	35.00±2.0
	S. aureus	12.2±1.4	14.5±2.4	19.3±1.2	35.23±1.6

4. Conclusion

× CC

In summary, we have showed the successful synthesis of WO₃-Fe₂O₃-rGO ternary nanocomposites via a simple hydrothermal method with good photostability and recyclability. The resultant WFG nanocomposites deliver more adsorption and reaction sites, positively shift the position of the valence band potential and enhance charge transportation and separation efficiency. WFG nanocomposites show better photocatalytic activity for MB and RhB dyes under solar light irradiation, which is higher than pure and binary nanocomposites. The removal of heavy metal ions from the water has been successfully carried out by respective adsorption, photoreduction and photooxidation. Furthermore, WFG nanocomposites showed the considerable antibacterial performance and could be possibly used to treat domestic wastewater. In this report, provide new inroads into exploration and utilization of graphene-based nanocomposites with efficient performance in purifying polluted water resources.

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Graphical Abstract





Highlights

- The effect of rGO based WO₃ and Fe₂O₃ ternary nanocomposite was extensively investigated.
- rGO in ternary nanocomposite could reduce the recombination of electron hole pairs.
- The as-prepared ternary nanocomposites showed enhanced photocatalytic activity, metal ion removal and antibacterial activity.
- Mechanism of enhanced photocatalytic activity was proposed and discussed.

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