Fabrication of novel magnetic chitosan/graphene-oxide/metal oxide nanocomposite beads for Cr(VI) adsorption

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Abstract

Composites containing magnetic chitosan chloride, graphene oxide and one of three different metal oxides (MnO_2, Al_2O_3 and SiO_2) were synthesised in the morphological form of beads and applied in removing Cr(VI) species in solution. The composites were successfully characterised using IR, XRD, TGA, DSC and SEM. Adsorption studies were carried out by varying pH, concentration, temperature and time. Maximum adsorptions of 78.2, 77.8 and 75.9 mg g^{-1} for each composite bead occurred at pH 2 and at 298 K. Adsorption followed the Langmuir isotherm, with a pseudo-second-order kinetic model. Thermodynamic studies proved that adsorption occurred spontaneously with the process being exothermic. The Cr(VI) species were desorbed from the beads using NaOH and the beads could be regenerated over six cycles.

Keywords Functionalization of polymers · Adsorption · Porous materials · Recycling · Morphology

Introduction

Contamination of aquatic ecosystems has become an issue of concern due to the exponential growth of urbanisation and industrialisation (Kul and Koyuncu 2010). Heavy metal contamination in the environment poses a specific and serious threat due to bioaccumulation in aquatic organisms and accumulation in human organs. Chromium is a heavy metal present in mainly two oxidation states, Cr(III) and Cr(VI), with the latter being extremely toxic to living organisms (Costa 1997). Human health risks associated with Cr(VI) species include carcinogenic and mutagenic effects which has led to the metal being placed on the top of the priority list of toxic pollutants by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (Gupta et al. 2001; Maksin et al. 2012). Chromium clean-up in aquatic systems involves the use of several techniques such as membrane filtration (Pugazhenthi et al. 2005), electrochemical precipitation (Kurniawan et al. 2006), ion exchange (Lin and Kiang 2003), reverse osmosis (Ozaki et al. 2002) and adsorption (Aragay et al. 2011; Barrera-Díaz et al. 2012). Amongst these options, the most widely applied technique showing favourable results is adsorption (Sun et al. 2014). Common adsorbents include biopolymers, metal oxides and carbon-based materials such as graphene oxide.

Biopolymers such as chitosan have also been used as adsorbents because they are biodegradable, non-toxic, economical, efficient and contain chemically active functional groups that can bind effectively to heavy metals (Wan et al. 2010). Chitosan, a chitin derivative, has the ability to effectively chelate to metal ions as a result of amino and hydroxyl groups in its framework that can form coordinate bonds with heavy metal ions in solution (Huang et al. 2009; Luo et al. 2015). Chitosan can be modified to improve its adsorption capability, biodegradability, solubility, selectivity, regeneration ability, reactivity and robustness (Rozenberg and Tenne 2008). Modifiers such as graphene oxide and metal oxide nanoparticles have been studied to improve metal adsorption capabilities of chitosan (Donadel et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2012). Graphene oxide is a hydrophilic carbon-based film which contains multiple oxygen containing functional

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groups enhancing the metal adsorption potential. The high surface area allows binding to metal oxides and the epoxy and carboxyl groups allows binding to biopolymers (Li et al. 2012).

Metal oxide nanoparticles such as iron oxide (magnetite in particular) have also been employed in forming a magnetic chitosan composite. The use of iron oxide increases adsorption capability due to fast kinetics and high surface-to-volume ratio. It also results in efficient and simple removal of the polymer from aqueous environments by the use of a magnet (Ma et al. 2007). Other metal oxides such as MnO_2, Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 are capable of efficient binding to other metals due to their high surface areas and large number of active sites available (Sharma et al. 2010; Tamura et al. 1997). The nature and characteristics of hybrid composites largely depend on morphology. Chitosan can be synthesised as beads, flakes and nanofibers. These physical characteristics affect factors such as size, porosity, surface area and dispersion of nanoparticles within the polymer which affect metal adsorption (Rozenberg and Tenne 2008). This work focuses on the incorporation of metal oxides (MnO_2, Al_2O_3 and SiO_2) onto magnetic chitosan/graphene–oxide composites for application in Cr(VI) removal from aquatic systems. Formation of hybrid composites of the above-mentioned adsorbents results in an increase in adsorption sites suited for Cr adsorption along with alteration of the physico-chemical properties as opposed to the use of individual adsorbents thus making these novel hybrid composites more suitable for the adsorption of Cr compared to individual adsorbents.

Experimental

Materials

Chemicals

Deacylated chitosan (85%), HCl (37%), concentrated H_2SO_4 (95–98%), iron oxide (magnetite, Fe_3O_4, 99.98%), methyl iodide (99%), sodium iodide (NaI), poly (vinyl pyrrolidone) (PVP), graphite flakes (99%), N-(3-Dimethylaminopropyl)-N'-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC, 99%), N-Hydroxysuccinimide (NHS, 98%), tetra-ethyl orthosilicate (TEOS), 1-methyl-2-pyridinone (99%), glutaraldehyde (25% in H_2O), α-Al_2O_3 (100–325 mesh), $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ (99.9%), $KMnO_4$ (99.0%), H_2O_2 (35 wt %), sodium hydroxide pellets (NaOH), sodium chloride (NaCl), isopropyl alcohol and Cr(VI) standard solutions (1000 mg L^{-1}) (99.7%) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, and used as received.

Instrumentation

Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer (USA) Spectrum 100 FT-IR with an ATR attachment in the wavenumber range 380–4000 cm^{-1}. Powder X-ray diffractograms (XRD) were collected on an X-ray diffractometer, Bruker AXS D8 Advance, (Germany). The scan was performed using a monochromatized X-ray beam with Cu-Kα radiation ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and calorimetric measurements were carried out using a TA instrument SDT-Q600 (USA). Samples were analysed under nitrogen from room temperature up to 800 °C at a flow rate of 2.5 mL min^{-1}. Field emission gun scanning electron microscopy (FEG-SEM) images were obtained on a ZEISS Ultra Plus (Germany) using an energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) detector with Espirit 1.8.5 software. Cr(VI) analyses were carried out on a Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV (USA).

Synthesis

Graphene oxide Graphene oxide (GO) was prepared using a modification of Hummer's method (Hummers and Offeman 1958). Graphite flakes (5 g) were added to a cold (0 °C) concentrated H_2SO_4 (200 mL) solution under vigorous stirring in an ice bath. After dispersion of the graphite flakes, $KMnO_4$ (15 g) was added in small increments to the reaction mixture whilst maintaining the temperature below 10 °C. The mixture was stirred for 4 h and then moved from the ice bath to a water bath (35 °C) and stirred for 1 h. Deionised water (400 mL) was gradually added to the reaction mixture and stirred at 90 °C. A further volume of 1200 mL deionised water was added to the mixture followed by a 30 wt % solution of H_2O_2. The resulting suspension was rinsed with 50 mL of 5% HCl followed by washing with deionised water until the suspension reached a neutral pH. The suspension was vacuum filtered and oven dried at 60 °C overnight.

GO–MnO₂ composite GO (1.00 g) and $MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ (4.09 g) were dispersed in isopropyl alcohol (100 mL) by ultrasonication for 30 min. The slurry was heated to approximately 83 °C and stirred vigorously. $KMnO_4$ (2.27 g) was dissolved in 15 mL of deionised water and rapidly added to the boiling solution. The mixture was then refluxed for 30 min, cooled to room temperature, centrifuged, washed and oven dried at 60 °C overnight (Chen et al. 2010).

GO–Al₂O₃ composite A solution of α-Al_2O_3 (5 g) in deionised water (500 mL) was adjusted to pH 3.33 using HCl (1 M) and sonicated for 1 h. The colloid was transferred into a burette and titrated into 70 mL of GO colloid (5 mL is

1.2 mg mL^{-1}). The mixture was filtered by vacuum filtration and oven dried at 60 °C overnight (Fan et al. 2012).

GO–SiO$_2$ composite An alcohol:water (5:1) v/v suspension of GO (2 mg mL^{-1}) was sonicated for 3 h. The solution containing the dispersed material was added, together with 0.2 mL PVP to 40 mL of ethanol and stirred for 30 min. TEOS (0.5 mL) and ammonia (2 mL, 28% in H$_2$O) were added and sonicated for 30 min, then stirred at 40 °C for 12 h. The resulting suspension was centrifuged and washed and oven dried overnight at 60 °C (Lu et al. 2011).

Magnetic chitosan chloride (MCSCl) Chitosan (2 g), NaI (4.8 g), methyl iodide (11.5 mL) and a 15% NaOH solution (11 mL) were added to 1-methyl-2-pyrididone (80 mL) and refluxed at 60 °C for 1 h using ice water. The product was precipitated with ethanol, washed with ether and then re-dissolved in 1-methyl-2-pyrididone (80 mL) at 60 °C. Afterwards, NaI (4.8 g), 15% NaOH solution (11 mL) and methyl iodide (7 mL) were added with rapid stirring and the mixture was heated on a water bath at 60 °C for 30 min. An additional 2 mL of methyl iodide and 0.6 g NaOH pellets were added and the solution was stirred for 1 h. A 10% NaCl solution (40 mL) was added to the product to exchange the iodide for chloride ion followed by 3 h of stirring. The product was precipitated with ethanol, washed with ethanol and ether and dried under vacuum overnight, yielding an off-white powder. Glutaraldehyde (2 mL) was added to a solution of chitosan chloride (2 g) dissolved in acetic acid (50 mL, 20% wt) and stirred at 60° for 3 h. Fe$_3$O$_4$ (1.2 g) was added to the mixture and sonicated for a further 3 h at 60 °C. Using a syringe, the viscous solution was added dropwise into a beaker of ether to form beads. The resulting beads were oven dried at 40 °C overnight (Sieval et al. 1998).

Magnetic chitosan chloride–graphene oxide–metal oxide composites (MCSCl–GO–metal oxide) Three composites were synthesised using each of the above GO–metal oxide composites. The GO–metal oxide composites (0.1 g) were sonicated for 3 h in double-distilled water. A solution of EDC (0.05 M) and NHS (0.05 M) was added to the GO–metal oxide suspension and stirred for 2 h. The pH of the resulting solution was maintained at pH 7 using dilute NaOH. Magnetic chitosan chloride (0.1 g) was sonicated for 10 min, then mixed with the GO–metal oxide suspension and stirred at 60 °C for 2 h. The composite was washed with dilute NaOH, followed by double distilled water and oven dried at 60 °C overnight (Fan et al. 2012).

Adsorption experiments

Solutions of Cr(VI) were prepared from a stock standard solution of 1000 mg L^{-1}. Composite beads (20 mg) were placed in 50 mL solutions of 10, 50 or 100 mg L^{-1} and agitated on an orbital shaker at 100 rpm. The pH was adjusted to 2, 4, 7 and 9 at four different temperatures (20, 25, 30, 35 and 40 °C) to examine the effect of pH and temperature on adsorption capacity. At pre-determined time intervals ranging between 0 and 6 h, aliquots were removed from the solutions and analysed using ICP-OES. The amount of Cr(VI) adsorbed on the beads was determined by the following equation:

$$Q_{exp} = \frac{(C_0 - C_t) \times V}{W},$$

where Q_{exp} (mg g^{-1}) is the adsorption capacity of Cr(VI) ion on the beads (mg Cr(VI)/g beads), C_0 (mg Cr(VI)/L) is the initial concentration (mg L^{-1}) of Cr(VI) ions, C_t (mg Cr(VI)/L) is the measured concentration of Cr(VI) ions at time t. V and W are the volume of solution (L) and the mass of the dry sorbent (g), respectively. For each run, five replicates were carried out, reported and compared to theoretical Q values.

Results and discussion

Characterisation of GO–metal oxides

Infra-red (IR) analysis

IR spectra for the composites are shown in Fig. S1. Fig S1a shows pure GO, which has a broad O–H stretching mode at 3372 cm^{-1}. Upon conjugation with MnO$_2$ (Fig. S1b), this broad peak (which is due to absorbed H$_2$O) shifted to 3204 cm^{-1}. The C=O vibration present at 1721 cm^{-1} on GO (Fig. S1a) disappeared upon conjugation, indicating that GO underwent reduction as shown in Fig. S1b to form the MnO$_2$ composite. The Mn–O bond was observed at 605 cm^{-1} (Han et al. 2014). Fig. S1c shows the spectrum of the GO–Al$_2$O$_3$ composite. The presence of the Al–O–Al group was confirmed by the stretch at 559 cm^{-1} (Yu et al. 2015). Fig. S1d shows the GO–SiO$_2$ composite, the asymmetric stretching of Si–O–Si was observed at 1045 cm^{-1} and the characteristic C–Si–O vibration band was observed 446 cm^{-1} (Yang et al. 2015; Yu et al. 2015).

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD)

XRD diffraction patterns (Fig. S2) showed the presence of GO in the composite at $2\theta = 10.2°$ corresponding to the

(001) reflection and was present for all three composites (Chen et al. 2010; Haeri et al. 2017). The (001) reflection is predominant in GO; however, for all three composites, the reflection decreased indicating partial exfoliation of GO suggesting that the reaction of each metal oxide and GO has not reached completion. This was done on purpose to free active sites of chitosan. Metal oxide peaks were observed and corresponded to reported values (Azuaje et al. 2017; Chen et al. 2010; Haeri et al. 2017). Figure S2a shows diffraction peaks of needle-like α-MnO_2 crystals which corresponded to JCPDS 44-0141 (Jiang et al. 2011). The diffraction peaks of α-Al_2O_3 were all evident in Fig. S2b and match JCPDS 10-173 indicating that a rhombohedral crystallographic form complexed with GO (Azarmi et al. 2018). Fig. S2c clearly shows the characteristic SiO_2 (101) main peak at $2\theta = 27.2°$ which corresponds to JCPDS 79-19-12 (Shaygan et al. 2014).

TGA analysis

TGA was carried out to investigate the thermal stability of the composites (Fig. S3). For all composites (a–d) the weight loss at 100 °C was attributed to the loss of water. Weight loss of GO functional groups is shown in Fig. S3a, with weight loss in the range 100–370 °C corresponding to the decomposition of hydroxyl, epoxy and carboxylic groups (Kim and Park 2008) and weight loss in the range 450–700 °C was a result of the carbon backbone decomposition (Kou and Gao 2011).

Figure S3b shows the weight loss of GO–MnO_2. The composite exhibited three major stages of weight loss, the first stage at 219 °C and the decomposition of the oxygen-containing functional groups on the GO surface (Kim et al. 2013). The second stage between 300 and 600 °C represented the transformation of MnO_2 lattice to Mn_2O_3 which was due to the loss of oxygen-containing groups (Zhou et al. 2007). The final stage of weight loss was due to the loss of the remaining oxygen groups in Mn_2O_3 which decomposed to form Mn_3O_4 (Devaraj and Munichandraiah 2008). GO–Al_2O_3 composite (Fig. S3c) exhibited two major weight losses: the first at 211 °C which was due to the loss of oxygen containing groups, corresponding to that of GO and the other at 411 °C attributed to the decomposition of the carbon backbone (Jastrzębska et al. 2016). The GO–SiO_2 composite (Fig. S3d) showed losses at 100–200 °C and 300–465 °C. This correlates with the degradation of adsorbed silanes on the surface of GO (Palimi et al. 2014) and the decomposition of silanes grafted onto and within the GO sheets, respectively (Haeri et al. 2017).

SEM analysis

Graphene oxide showed it is composed of multiple sheets (Fig. S4a). The presence of α-MnO_2 needles on GO is clearly depicted in Fig. S4b, further confirming its crystalline nature as seen in the X-ray diffractogram. Figure S4c shows some Al_2O_3 on the GO surface, but it is mostly embedded between the GO sheets. The distinct presence of spherical SiO_2 particles coating the GO surface (Fig. S4d) indicates successful composite formation. For all composites the metal oxides are well dispersed throughout the GO sheets.

Characterisation of MCSCl/GO/metal oxide composites

Infra-red (IR) analysis

Figure 1 shows the IR spectra of the precursor magnetic chitosan chloride (MCSCl, Fig. 1a) and the three novel composites, Fig. 1b–d. The presence of the Fe–O bond at ca. 530 cm^{-1} for all composites indicates the presence of iron oxide. The successful chlorination of chitosan is shown in Fig. 1a by the peak at 1470 cm^{-1} which indicates the presence of the C–H group and shows that quarternisation has occured. The shrinkage of the peak at 1559 cm^{-1} compared to the peak on pure chitosan (Fig. S5) indicates the change of the NH_2 to N–H during the chlorination of chitosan (Mourya and Inamdar 2008). Characteristic chitosan peaks are present in all three novel composites; the peaks at 1630, 1373 and 1061 cm^{-1} indicate the presence of the amide, the CH_2–OH group of the chitosan framework and the skeletal vibration of C–O glucosamine, respectively. The C-H asymmetric stretch for chitosan was also observed at 2924 cm^{-1} (Tiwari et al. 2015). For all composites the presence of GO in the composites (Fig. 1b–d) is indicated by the broadening of the O–H band at 3380 cm^{-1} and the increase in intensity of the 1563 cm^{-1} peak due to the addition of the C=O group (Kumar and Koh 2014). The Mn–O and Al–O–Al peaks (Fig. 1b, c) are masked by the Fe–O peak, whereas the C–Si–O peak in Fig. 1d is observed at 451 cm^{-1}. The increase in intensity in the 1061 cm^{-1} peak for Fig. 1d compared to Fig. 1b and c is the Si–O-Si vibration.

TGA, DSC and SEM analysis

TGA curves of the composites shown in Fig. 2(i) exhibited a lower weight loss percentage compared to MCSCl. This implies that the addition of the GO–metal oxide composites to the beads improves thermal stability. The observed initial weight loss masses at < 200 °C are due to the loss of water, whereas weight loss between 200 °C and

Fig. 1 FT-IR spectra of **a** MCSCl, **b** MCSCl-GO-MnO$_2$, **c** MCSCl-GO-Al$_2$O$_3$ and **d** MCSCl-GO-SiO$_2$
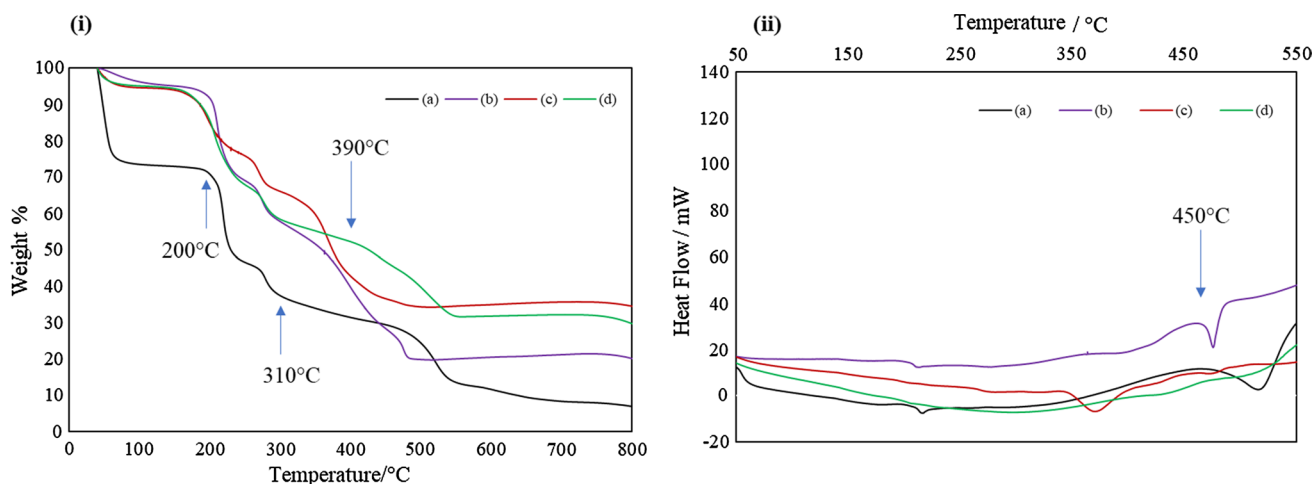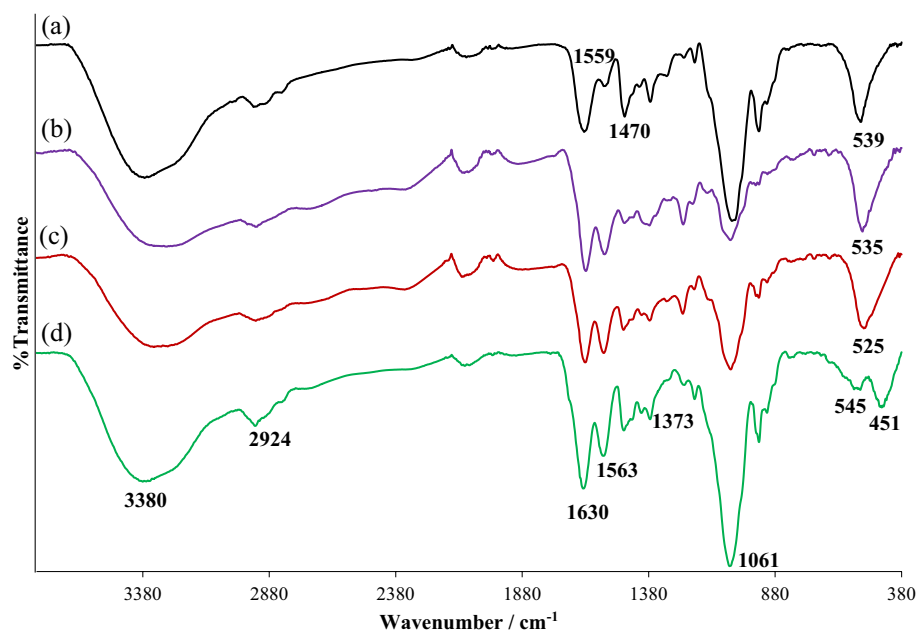
Fig. 2 (i) TGA and (ii) DSC of **a** MCSCl, **b** MCSCl-GO-MnO$_2$, **c** MCSCl-GO-Al$_2$O$_3$ and **d** MCSCl-GO-SiO$_2$

310 °C is due to the amine groups from the MCSCl backbone. Another weight loss between 310 °C and 510 °C was observed for Fig. 2a due to the loss of the quaternary groups from the MCSCl chain (Glisoni et al. 2015; Martins et al. 2013). The composites showed a similar decay (Fig. 2ib–d) from 390 °C. GO–metal oxide weight losses were masked by MCSCl degradation.

All DSC curves (Fig. 2ii) showed a common endothermic peak between 150 °C and 250 °C which correlates to the loss of water. The broad endothermic peak at 500 °C observed for MCSCl (Fig. 2ii) is caused by the reduction of the amine group on the chitosan backbone. The shift

of this endothermic peak for the composites (Fig. 2iib–d) was as a result of the quaternary groups of the polymer binding to the GO–metal oxides in the composites (Glisoni et al. 2015).

SEM analysis

SEM images of the three composites are shown in Fig. 3. Figure 3a shows inner cavity of the bead, which comprises Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles and chitosan chloride. Figure 3b shows the surface of the bead which is encapsulated by the multilayers of GO and MnO$_2$ needles. Figure 3c is
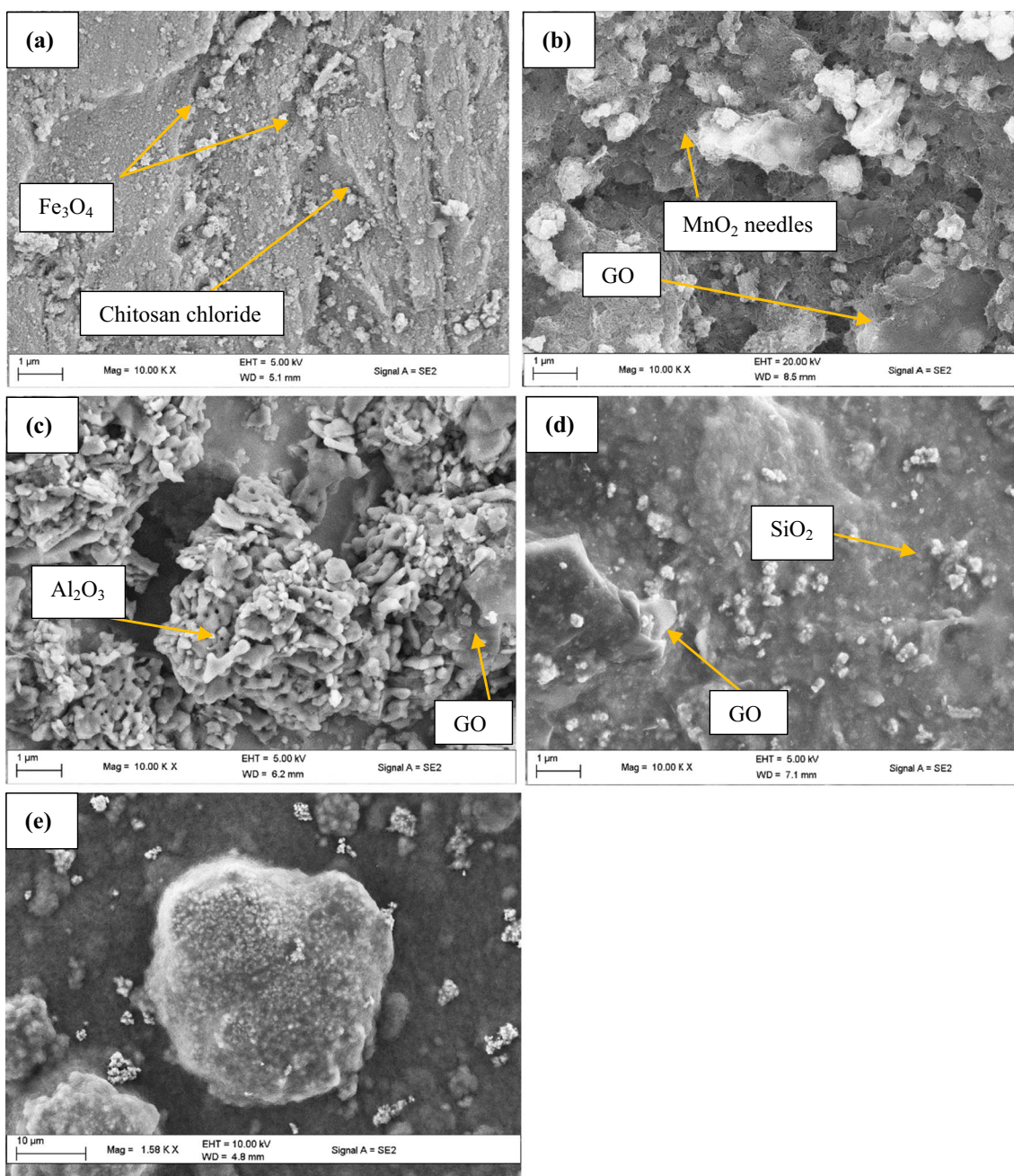
Fig. 3 SEM images of **a** Cross section of MCSCl-GO, **b** MCSCl-GO-MnO$_2$, **c** MCSCl-GO-Al$_2$O$_3$, **d** MCSCl-GO-SiO$_2$ beads and **e** top view of MCSCl-GO bead

the surface of the bead, containing flecks of GO along with Al$_2$O$_3$. Figure 3d shows the spheres corresponding to SiO$_2$ which are observed on the surface of the bead, along with the hazy film coating of GO surrounding the rough underlying components of MCSCl. All composites have a spherical bead shape shown in Fig. 3e.
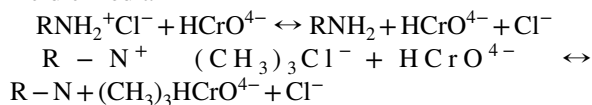
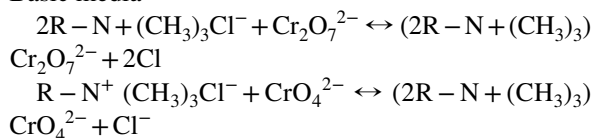## Cr(VI) adsorption studies

Effect of pH

Determining the optimum pH used for adsorption is important because pH affects the degree of ionisation, surface

charge and speciation of the adsorbent. Chromium is known for being efficiently adsorbed by adsorbents at a low pH; however, chitosan can dissolve in acidic media (Kyzas et al. 2009). By forming a composite and incorporating metal oxides which are known to adsorb Cr(VI), the physio-chemical properties of chitosan are altered and assist in adsorption at low pH (Gheju et al. 2016). Figure S6 shows adsorption capacities tested in the pH range 2–9 in the temperature range of 20, 25, 30, 35 and 40 °C. The composites adsorbed Cr(VI) ions at each pH, with maximum adsorption occurring at pH 2 at 25 °C which proves that these parameters are optimum for Cr(VI) adsorption. pH affects the stability of chromium speciation and the surface charge of the composite (Thinh et al. 2013). Chromium exists as H_2CrO_4 at pH 1; however, the species changes within the range of pH 1–6 and forms species such as $Cr_2O_7{}^{2-}$, $Cr_3O_{10}{}^{2-}$ and predominantly $HCrO_4{}^-$. The $HCrO_4{}^-$ species exist mainly at pH < 4 and is strongly attracted to the positive quaternary amine groups in the magnetic chitosan composites which result in a positive surface charge. Adsorption is also increased by the electrostatic interaction between the composite (Karthikeyan et al. 2005). Notably, adsorption at pH 9 was higher than the common chitosan-based composites indicating that the physiochemical properties of the composites enhanced adsorption capability (Elwakeel 2009). The addition of metal oxides plays a role in increased uptake for instance, in alkaline media; the electrostatic and chemical interactions favour adsorption of $CrO_4{}^{2-}$, whereas in acidic media the surface charge of the metal oxides are positive which attract $HCrO_4{}^-$ ions (Du et al. 2015; Ge et al. 2013). The higher uptake value at pH 9 may be related to the presence of the trimethylammonium chloride which acts as an ion exchanger in basic media. The following mechanisms of interaction with Cr(VI) at acidic and basic media are as follows:

(a) Acidic media
$$RNH_2{}^+Cl^- + HCrO^{4-} \leftrightarrow RNH_2 + HCrO^{4-} + Cl^-$$
$$R-N^+\;(CH_3)_3Cl^- + HCrO^{4-} \leftrightarrow R-N+(CH_3)_3HCrO^{4-} + Cl^-$$

(b) Basic media
$$2R-N+(CH_3)_3Cl^- + Cr_2O_7{}^{2-} \leftrightarrow (2R-N+(CH_3)_3)Cr_2O_7{}^{2-} + 2Cl$$
$$R-N^+(CH_3)_3Cl^- + CrO_4{}^{2-} \leftrightarrow (2R-N+(CH_3)_3)CrO_4{}^{2-} + Cl^-$$

This suggests that the incorporation of metal oxides and chlorination of chitosan improves the stability and adsorption capacity of the chitosan-based composite. The decrease in Cr(VI) adsorption at pH 4 and pH 7 may have been due to a decrease of $HCrO_4{}^-$ ions.

Effect of contact time

The effect of Cr(VI) adsorption on the beads was monitored over a period of 6 h at three concentrations (10, 50 and 100 mg L^{-1}). The range of concentrations was chosen to determine the maximum adsorption capacity. Concentration range was capped at 100 mg L^{-1} due to previous studies on individual adsorbents which show a decrease in adsorption percentage at concentrations higher than 100 mg L^{-1}. Figure 4 shows that the amount of Cr(VI) ions adsorbed on the composites increased (for all concentrations) over time until adsorption equilibrium was reached, which was between 2 and 3 h of the total experiment time of 6 h. The beads showed the adsorb Cr(VI) with high efficiency at the lowest concentration with maximum adsorption occurring after ca. 2 h. However, at the highest concentration maximum
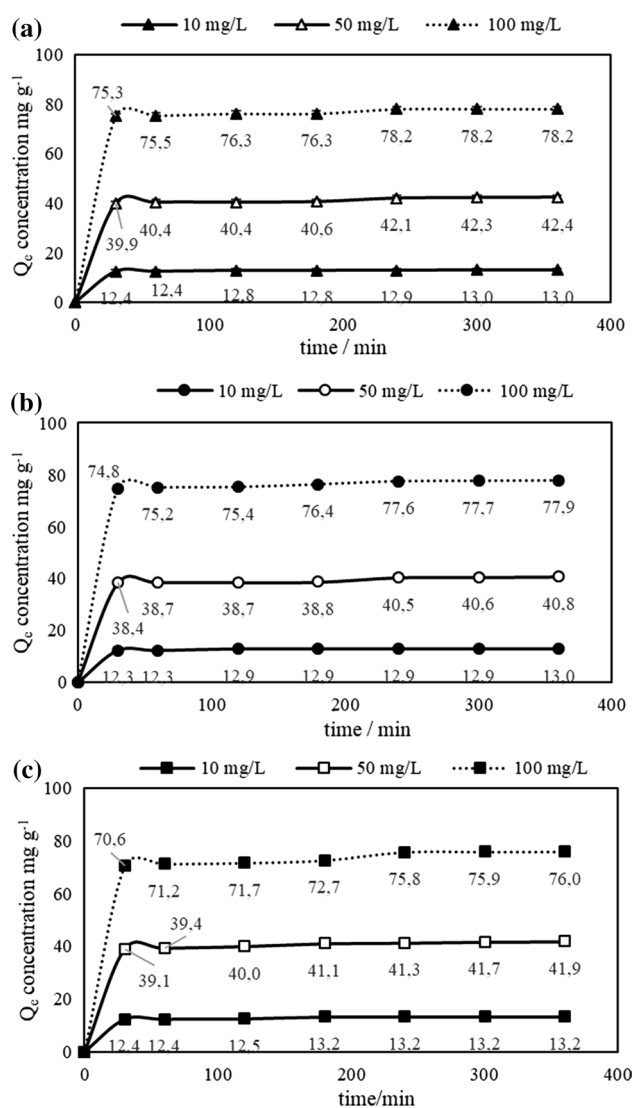

Fig. 4 Effect of contact time on Cr(VI) uptake at pH 2, 298 K for **a** MCSCl-GO-MnO$_2$, **b** MCSCl-GO-Al$_2$O$_3$ and **c** MCSCl-GO-SiO$_2$

adsorption occurred after 3 h. The difference in adsorption time indicated that the 100 mg L^{-1} solution is the most effective for Cr(VI) adsorption. In the case of adsorption efficiency (fastest Cr(VI) adsorption time to equilibrium) vs adsorption capacity (maximum concentration of Cr(VI) adsorbed), the adsorption capacity is favoured for this study because maximum concentration is reached after a relatively short period of time.

Adsorption isotherm

Adsorption isotherms are essential in determining the efficacy of the adsorption process. The experimental data of Cr(VI) adsorbed on the beads at pH 2 and 25 °C at the initial Cr(VI) concentration of 100 mg L^{-1} were used to determine the adsorption equilibrium between the metal and Cr(VI) ions in solution at equilibrium, by fitting it with the Langmuir and Freundlich isotherms. Fig. S7 shows the Langmuir isotherms of the composites expressed according to Eq. (1):

$$\frac{C_e}{q_{\exp}} = \frac{1}{q_{\max}}C_e + \frac{1}{q_{\max}K_L}, \tag{1}$$

where C_e is the equilibrium concentration (mg L^{-1}), $q_{\exp}$ the amount of metal ion (mg g^{-1}) sorbed, $q_{\max}$ is the theoretical binding capacity for monolayer adsorption (mg g^{-1}) and K_L is binding affinity constant (L mg^{-1}). The values of $q_{\max}$ and K_L are shown in Table 1.

The theoretical adsorption capacities ($q_{\max}$) from the Langmuir plot were all slightly higher than the experimental values obtained (Table 1), but within the standard deviation range. However, compared to previous Cr(VI) studies involving magnetic chitosan, graphene oxide and metal oxides, all three synthesised composites had a higher adsorption capacity (Table 2). Adsorption capacity of MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ is 94-fold higher than the maximum adsorption capacity of MnO$_2$, while MCSCl–GO–Al$_2$O$_3$ is 13.6-fold higher than γ-Al$_2$O$_3$ and MCSCl–GO–SiO$_2$ is sevenfold larger than thiophene-supported SiO$_2$. When compared to magnetic chitosan, adsorption capacity increased in the range of

Table 2 Studies of Cr(VI) using various adsorbents

Composite	Adsorption capacity Cr(VI) mg g^{-1}
MCSCl-GO-MnO$_2$*	78.2
MCSCl-GO-Al$_2$O$_3$*	77.8
MCSCl-GO-SiO$_2$*	75.9
EDTA cross-linked magnetic chitosan (Hu et al. 2011)	51.8
Magnetic graphene nanocomposites (Zhu et al. 2012)	1.03
CTAB modified graphene (Wu et al. 2013)	21.57
Porous Fe$_3$O$_4$ hollow microspheres/graphene oxide composite (Liu et al. 2013)	32.33
MnO$_2$ (Gheju et al. 2016)	0.83
γ-Al$_2$O$_3$ (Ge et al. 2013)	5.7
Thiophene supported SiO$_2$ (Jodeh 2016)	10.62

*This study

24.1–26.4 mg g^{-1} and 43.5–45.8 mg g^{-1} for graphene oxide composites. The difference in results indicate that chitosan and graphene oxide contain a majority of the adsorption sites, while the metal oxides serve to further enhance adsorption capacity. The binding affinity constant (K_L) gives an indication of the magnitude of affinity between the adsorbent and adsorbate molecules. The value of K_L decreased in the following order MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ > MCSCl–GO–SiO$_2$ > MCSCl–GO–Al$_2$O$_3$. This suggests that Cr(VI) adsorption is favoured on MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ compared to the other two composites, which correlates to it having the highest adsorption capacity. MCSCl–GO–SiO$_2$ has the second highest K_L value; however, it has a lower adsorption capacity compared to MCSCl–GO–Al$_2$O$_3$. This may be due to more favourable electrostatic interactions between Al$_2$O$_3$ and Cr(VI) in solution at pH 2.

The Freundlich isotherm is expressed by Eq. (2):

$$\ln q_{\exp} = \frac{1}{n}\ln C_e + \ln K_F \tag{2}$$

Table 1 Isotherm and kinetic parameters for Cr(VI) adsorption onto composite beads

	Intraparticle diffusion		Langmuir				Freundlich	Pseudo-first-order	Pseudo-second-order
	k_i (mg g^{-1} min$^{1/2}$)	C (mg g^{-1})	R^2	$q_{\exp}$ (mg g^{-1})	$q_{\max}$ (mg g^{-1})	K_L (mol L^{-1})	R^2	R^2	R^2
MCSCl-MnO$_2$	0.1424	74.5	0.9999	78.2	93.4	0.090	0.9876	0.9108	1
MCSCl-Al$_2$O$_3$	0.1834	73.7	0.9956	77.8	86.9	0.082	0.9881	0.9406	1
MCSCl-SiO$_2$	0.2502	69.2	0.9999	75.9	81.3	0.087	0.9902	0.9202	1

where q_{exp} (mg g^{-1}) and C_e (mg L^{-1}) are the adsorbed and liquid-phase Cr(VI) concentrations at equilibrium, K_F is the adsorption capacity constant and n the intensity constant. $1/n$ gives an indication of the adsorption intensity and K_F the adsorption capacity. Fig. S7 shows the isotherm plots. The Freundlich isotherm gives an indication of whether adsorption occurs by stacking of metal ions on adsorption sites. The Langmuir isotherms had R^2 values > 0.99 which was larger than the R^2 values of the Freundlich isotherms, indicating that adsorption for the composites favour monolayer adsorption.

Adsorption kinetics

Pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order kinetic studies

The adsorption kinetic studies of the composites were studied to determine type of adsorption and the rate-limiting step. The pseudo-first-order kinetics as expressed by Eq. (3) is an indication of whether adsorption occurs by physisorption.

$$\log\left(q_e - q_t\right) = \log q_e - \frac{k_1}{2.303}t, \tag{3}$$

where k_1 is the rate constant (min^{-1}), q_e is the concentration of Cr(VI) ions adsorbed at equilibrium (mg g^{-1}) and q_t is the concentration of Cr(VI) ions adsorbed at time t (mg g^{-1}) (Fig. S8).

The pseudo-second-order kinetic model was used to determine the rate-limiting step by Eq. (4). This model favours chemisorption as the rate-limiting step.

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e} \tag{4}$$

A linear plot of t/q_t vs t determines the rate constant k_2 (g mg^{-1} min^{-1}) and q_e the equilibrium adsorption capacity (mg g^{-1}). The linear plots of the pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order models are shown in Fig. S8 and the calculated correlation coefficients are shown in

Table 1. The pseudo-second-order R^2 for the composites are larger than the pseudo-first-order model, indicating a better fit of linearity. This implies that the rate-limiting step of adsorption is chemisorption. Chemisorption involves the sharing and/or exchange of electrons between composite and Cr(VI) ions using valence forces. The chitosan in the composite contains protonated amine groups which are attracted to negatively charged Cr ions which results in chemisorption as the favoured rate-limiting step (Lee et al. 2009).
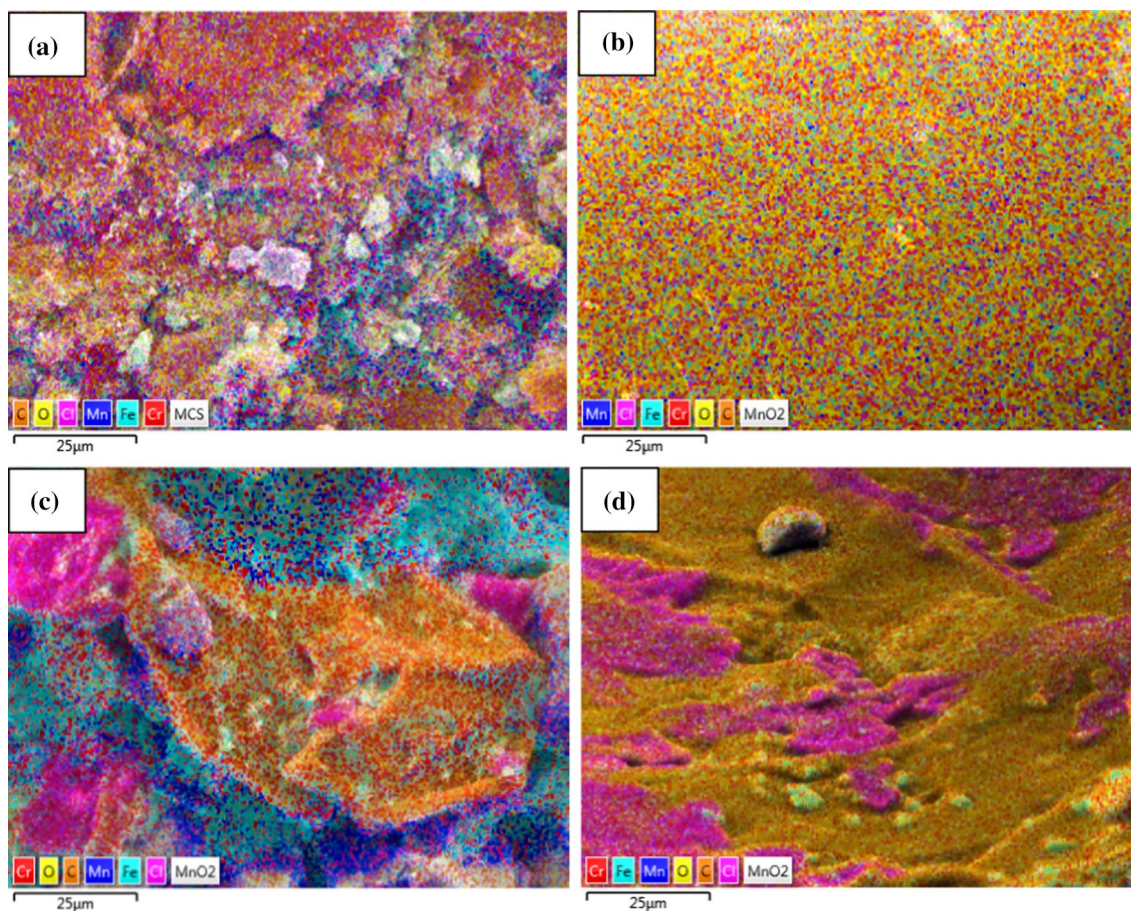
Intra-particle diffusion model

The intra-particle diffusion model was considered in order to gain better insight into the sorption mechanism. The sorption process can occur in four steps: (a) external mass transfer of the metal ions in solution to the boundary/film layer, (b) movement of metal ions from boundary film layer to the surface of adsorbent, (c) diffusion from the surface of the sorbent particle to adsorption sites and (d) metal ion complexation, sorption or precipitation at sorption sites (Palimi et al. 2014). Investigation into steps (a) and (b) were eliminated by agitating the solution throughout the adsorption process, and step (d) was eliminated because adsorption was rapid and Cr(VI) composite interactions did not lead to precipitation. These eliminations resulted in sorption to be a quasi-instantaneous process, which lead to an investigation of the boundary/film layer and intra-particle diffusion mechanism (Weber and Morris 1962). The proposed adsorption rate processes (Pugazhenthi et al. 2005) are expressed in Eq. (5):

$$q_t = k_i . t^{0.5}, \tag{5}$$

where q_t is the concentration of the solute within the solid and k_i is the intraparticle diffusion rate constant. A linear plot of q_t vs $t^{0.5}$ indicates that the adsorption rate is controlled by particle diffusion. If not linear then the rate is controlled by boundary/film layer sorption (Mckay et al. 1986). Figure S9 shows that the process of sorption for the composites is based on two phases as indicated by the two different linear fits. This implies that the intra particle diffusion is not the

Table 3 Thermodynamics parameters of Cr(VI) adsorption onto composite beads

	MCSCl-MnO$_2$			MCSCl-Al$_2$O$_3$			MCSCl-SiO$_2$		
Temp. (K)	$\Delta H°$ kJ/mol	$\Delta S°$ J/mol	$\Delta G°$ kJ/mol	$\Delta H°$ kJ/mol	$\Delta S°$ J/mol	$\Delta G°$ kJ/mol	$\Delta H°$ kJ/mol	$\Delta S°$ J/mol	$\Delta G°$ kJ/mol
293	− 26.34	51.43	− 41.41	− 8.84	6.99	− 10.89	− 22.92	39.87	− 34.60
298			− 41.66			− 10.92			− 34.80
303			− 41.92			− 10.96			− 35.00
308			− 42.18			− 10.99			− 35.20
313			− 42.43			− 11.03			− 35.39

Fig. 5 SEM-EDX images of **a** Cr(VI) adsorbed surface, **b** Cr(VI) adsorbed cross-section, **c** Cr(VI) desorbed surface and **d** Cr(VI) desorbed cross-section MCSCl-GO-MnO₂ bead

Fig. 6 Adsorption–desorption capacity of Cr(VI) ions onto **a** MCSCl-GO-MnO₂, **b** MCSCl-GO-Al₂O₃ and c MCSCl-GO-SiO₂
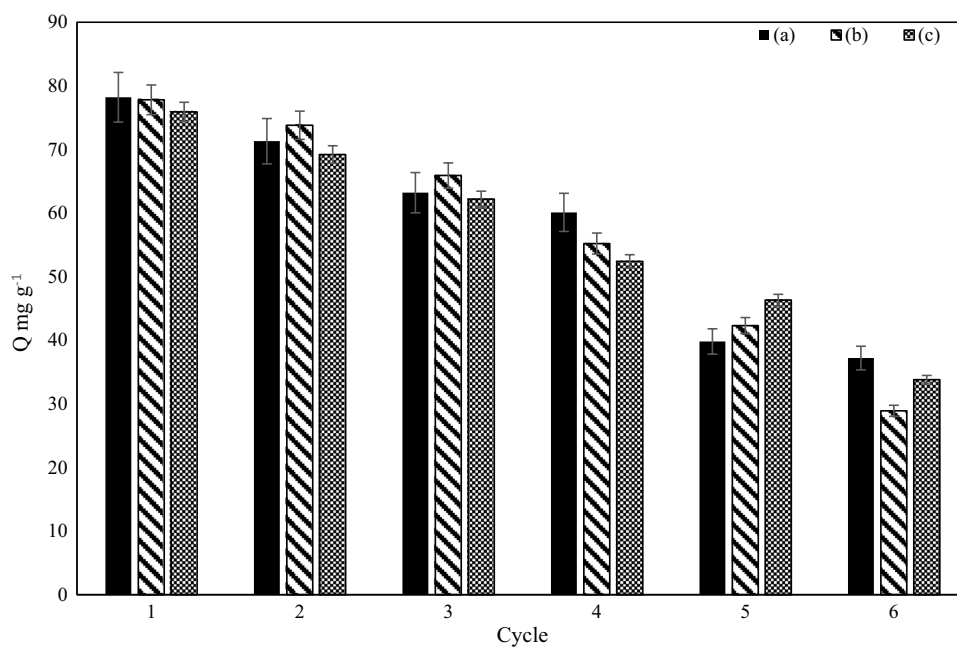
rate-limiting step for the entire adsorption process (transport of Cr(VI) ions from the solution to the surface of the adsorbents). Multi-phase steps are commonly present with porous adsorbents. The initial linear plots indicate that boundary/film layer is responsible for sorption, whilst the latter plot is due to intraparticle diffusion, i.e., porous adsorbents have high k_i, values and high C values are an indication that the sorption process favours boundary layer sorption (Mckay et al. 1986). The MCSCl–GO–SiO$_2$ composite had the highest k_i value and is, therefore, the most porous and favours intraparticle diffusion compared to MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ which favours boundary/film layer sorption (Table 1). Sorption and porosity characteristics are dependent on the type of metal oxide in the composite. MnO$_2$ and Al$_2$O$_3$ have been previously reported to favour boundary/film layer adsorption due to its lack of porosity (Belgin Ergül and Mehmet 2014), and SiO$_2$ is known to favour intraparticle diffusion because it is highly porous but its composites with SiO$_2$ do not have the highest adsorption capacity, which suggest that porosity of the bead is not the most important factor in the adsorption process (Sekine and Nakatani 2002).

Thermodynamic studies

The thermodynamic characteristics of the adsorption process were investigated to determine the effect of temperature on adsorption using van't Hoff equation (Fig. S10) (6):

$$\ln K_L = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{RT} + \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{R}, \tag{6}$$

where ΔH° is the change in enthalpy, ΔS° is the change in entropy, R is the universal gas constant (8.314 J mol^{-1} K^{-1}) and T is the absolute temperature (Kelvin). The ΔH° and ΔS° values were calculated for each composite and are shown in Table 3. ΔH° is negative for all three composites which indicates the adsorption process is exothermic, whereas the positive ΔS° values indicate randomness during Cr(VI) adsorption. MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ and MCSCl–GO–SiO$_2$ had larger ΔS° values compared to MCSCl–GO–Al$_2$O$_3$; this difference implies that larger ΔS° results in larger degrees of freedom at the solid–liquid interface during Cr(VI) adsorption which causes structural changes to the adsorbent and can influence the rate of adsorption (Li et al. 2012). Additionally, the Gibbs free energy (ΔG°) was calculated and the same trend as ΔS° was observed, indicating that adsorption is favoured and occurred more rapidly on the MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ and MCSCl–GO–SiO$_2$ composite compared to the MCSCl–GO–Al$_2$O$_3$ composite. The trends of ΔS° and ΔG° are the same as the calculated K_L values in Table 1. This proves that the thermodynamic parameters influence the binding affinity of all three composites.

Desorption and regeneration

In order for an adsorbent to be economically feasible it must be recyclable. The Cr(VI) ions were removed from the beads by soaking them in a conc. NaOH solution for 24 h. The concentrated alkaline medium was able to alter the surface charge of the composites, thus weakening the electrostatic interaction between the composite and metal ion and thereby promoting desorption. EDX images of adsorbed and desorbed MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ beads are shown in Fig. 5. Images for the other composites are present in Fig. S11. Figure 5a shows the surface of the bead after adsorption and Fig. 5b shows the cross-section clearly depicting that adsorption occurred throughout the inner sections of the bead and not only on the surface, confirming the porosity of the beads facilitate adsorption of Cr(VI). Figure 5c–d shows the successful desorption of Cr(VI) from the surface and inner cavity of the bead. The mass balance for the adsorption and desorption process was analysed by ICP-OES for each cycle. Figure 6 shows the adsorption–desorption cycles of the composites, and the percentage of adsorbed Cr(VI) for composite (a), (b) and (c) decreased to 47.5, 37.1 and 44.5%, respectively, after six cycles. This decrease suggests that composite (a) has stronger physio-chemical properties (GO–MnO$_2$ is formed by covalent bonding) compared to (b) and (c), with the Al$_2$O$_3$–GO bond being the easiest to dissociate. The decrease in % adsorbed of the composites also correlates to the binding affinity (K_L), which indicates that the physio-chemical properties of the bead are proportional to Cr(VI) binding affinity. This may be due to the weakening of the electrostatic interaction that results in the GO bond formation. These results show that the beads can be successfully regenerated and used at least six times for Cr(VI) adsorption.

Conclusions

The successful synthesis of novel MCSCl–GO composites for Cr(VI) adsorption was carried out. Adsorption was found to be optimum at pH 2 and at 25 °C. The composites followed the Langmuir isotherm indicating the adsorption mechanism is monolayer. Kinetic studies showed that adsorption of Cr(VI) on the composites follow a pseudo-second-order model, indicating that chemisorption is the rate-limiting step. Thermodynamic data revealed that the adsorption process was exothermic and spontaneous. The mechanism of adsorption occurs via ionic and electrostatic interactions between Cr(VI) ions and the composites. Rapid adsorption time and regeneration of the beads make the materials suitable for water systems with constant flow. MCSCl–GO–MnO$_2$ outperformed the other composites because of its higher binding affinity and increased reaction

spontaneity. All composites are durable in extreme pH environments and are suitable for polluted water treatment, which include methods utilising packed column reactors, or general immersion in running river water while contained in a porous material.

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