



Synthesis, characterization of mesoporous silica powders and application to antibiotic remotion from aqueous solution. Effect of supported Fe-oxide on the SiO₂ adsorption properties



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ABSTRACT

The remotion of the antibiotic minocycline (MC) on mesoporous silica (SiO₂) and on the binary system iron(III) oxide–SiO₂ (Fe–SiO₂) has been studied in batch experiments by performing adsorption isotherms/kinetics under different conditions of pH, KCl concentration and temperature. The adsorption of MC on the studied materials is strongly dependent on pH, increasing as pH decreases. The incorporation of a low concentration of iron (1.03 wt%, mainly as amorphous Fe₂O₃) on the SiO₂ matrix not only increases the adsorption capacity but also changes the adsorption mechanism. The adsorption of MC on SiO₂ strongly decreases as KCl concentration increases but it is not significantly affected by varying the temperature. This is attributed to electrostatic attractions and H-bond formations between dimethylamino, amide, carbonylic and phenolic groups of the antibiotic and the functional groups of silica particles. The adsorption of MC on Fe–SiO₂, on the contrary, strongly increases as temperature increases but remains invariable by varying the KCl concentration. This suggests that the formation of inner-sphere complexes between the functional groups of the antibiotic and the active sites of Fe₂O₃ plays a key role on the adsorption mechanism. The analysis of adsorption thermodynamic parameters is also reported and discussed. The synthesized materials can act as excellent adsorbents for environmental and engineering processes.

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1. Introduction

Minocycline (MC) is a semi-synthetic tetracycline antibiotic that is able to pass the blood–brain barrier and is safe for clinical use. In addition to its antibacterial activity, MC also has anti-inflammatory, anti-oxidative, anti-apoptotic and neuroprotective properties [1]. It is known that only a small portion of this antibiotic can be metabolized or absorbed in vivo, while the rest of it is released in excreta [2]. Therefore, as a consequence of the application of livestock wastes to agricultural fields, antibiotics such as MC may be accumulated in soils or transported to groundwater. Although the maximum permissible concentration of MC (and other tetracyclines) in aqueous solutions for industrial and pharmacy wastewaters is very low (1 µg L⁻¹), Pena et al. [3] reported that concentrations of 15 µg L⁻¹ MC could be detected in wastewater effluents. Moreover, there is a growing environmental concern about antibiotics because their presence in soils and waters leads to the emergence of resistant species [4]. Accordingly, it is very important to understand the fate of MC and other tetracycline contaminants in the water–soil environment in order to better assess their risks and develop mitigation strategies [5].

The interactions between bioactive molecules and synthetic adsorbents constitute an area of research of extreme importance in the field of straightforward technological applications as well as in basic science [6]. In this respect, mesoporous silica can be a good adsorbent due to its high surface area (>200 m²g⁻¹), ordered frameworks, narrow pore size distribution (2 – >10 nm, higher than zeolites), and high thermal stability [7–9]. Due to these properties, mesoporous silicas are widely used in catalysis, separation, drug delivery, chemical sensing, optic and electronic applications, reinforcing of rubber, and as template in the synthesis of nanomaterials [10,11]. It is well known that the pore morphology of silica and its reactivity towards different molecules strongly depends on the synthesis conditions, e.g., pH, temperature, type and concentration of surfactant used as template, etc. [12]. Turku et al. [13], for example, show a strong and irreversible adsorption of tetracycline on commercially mesoporous SiO₂ (Merck, surface area = 700 m²g⁻¹) whereas the adsorption of the antibiotic on another mesoporous SiO₂, synthesized in our laboratory in alkaline media using cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) surfactant as template (surface area = 238.6 m²g⁻¹), was almost negligible [14].

Surface-functionalized mesoporous silicas with metals and/or metal oxides have recently been studied in order to improve the SiO₂ adsorption capacity. In this sense, mesoporous silica modified with titania

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nanoparticles shows a very strong adsorption capacity towards antibiotics and pesticides in comparison with the bare SiO_2 [14,15]. The adsorption was attributed to a direct binding of these adsorbates to TiO_2 leading to the formation of surface species of the type $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2$ adsorbate. From these studies the authors also revealed that the adsorption capacity increases in the order $\text{TiO}_2 < \text{TiO}_2\text{-SiO}_2$ mainly due to the highly surface area that the silica offers and to the homogeneously dispersion of the TiO_2 crystallites over the surface, or inside the mesopores, which prevents or reduces the aggregation of them [14].

Iron(III) species are also widely used as active components for removing pollutants from water [16,17]. In fact, ferrihydrite, goethite and amorphous ferric oxide as individual components are frequently used due to its low cost and high reactivity. However, most of them incorporate sedimentation which creates difficulty in solid/liquid separation [18]. Thus, the synthesis of iron(III) oxide-silica materials, as produced in the present work, can result suitable to overcome these difficulties. Moreover, several reports showed that iron(III) oxide supported in mesoporous silica strongly enhances the adsorption of phosphorous and arsenic from drinking water [16,18]. The mechanism is mainly related to the formation of inner-sphere complexes between the adsorbate (mostly in the form of arsenate or phosphate) and Fe^{3+} hydrated species. Silicas modified with iron(III) oxide are also known to be used as humidity sensors [19], as platforms in the synthesis of carbon nanotubes [20], and as catalysts [21] with very good results.

The aim of this article is to present a comparative study of adsorption of the antibiotic minocycline on mesoporous SiO_2 and on the binary system iron(III) oxide- SiO_2 (Fe-SiO_2) in order to evaluate the effect of iron species on the morphology and adsorption properties of silica. The adsorption data obtained at different pH, KCl concentrations, and temperatures are used to gain insights into the mechanisms that govern the adsorption process and into the factors that promote or prevent adsorption.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals

Cetyltrimethylammonium *p*-toluene sulfonate or tosylate (CTAT, MW = 455.7 gmol^{-1}), Pluronic F68 and tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS, 99%) were purchased from Aldrich. Iron(III) nitrate nonahydrate, potassium hydroxide, potassium chloride, potassium nitrate, nitric acid, hydrochloric acid, sodium acetate, acetic acid, sodium carbonate, sodium hydrogen carbonate, disodium phosphate anhydrous, and monosodium phosphate anhydrous were obtained from Anedra.

Minocycline hydrochloride was purchased from PARAFARM. The structural formula of MC is shown in Fig. 1. In aqueous solutions five different groups of the molecule can undergo protonation-deprotonation reactions depending on the pH of the solution giving rise to the formation of four different species. The fully protonated species of MC exists at low pH values (MCH_4^{2+}). As the pH increases, the first deprotonation step ($\text{pK}_a = 2.8$) occurs at the hydroxyl group on C3 leading to the formation of a species with a positive charge (MCH_3^+). The second deprotonation step ($\text{pK}_a = 5.0$) takes place in the aromatic amino group generating a zwitterionic species (MCH_2^\pm). The third deprotonation ($\text{pK}_a = 7.8$) involves the O10–O12 ketophenolic hydroxyl group giving rise to a species with a negative charge (MCH^-). Finally, the fourth deprotonation ($\text{pK}_a = 9.5$) involves the dimethylamino group giving rise to a species with two negative charges (MC^{2-}) [22].

All chemicals were of analytical grade and used as received. Doubly distilled water was used for the preparation of solutions.

2.2. Synthesis and characterization of SiO_2 and Fe-SiO_2

Mesoporous silica was prepared using a procedure similar to that described in an earlier work [12]. Briefly, 11.6 mL of TEOS were mixed with 2 mL of water and stirred in an autoclave flask for 10 min at

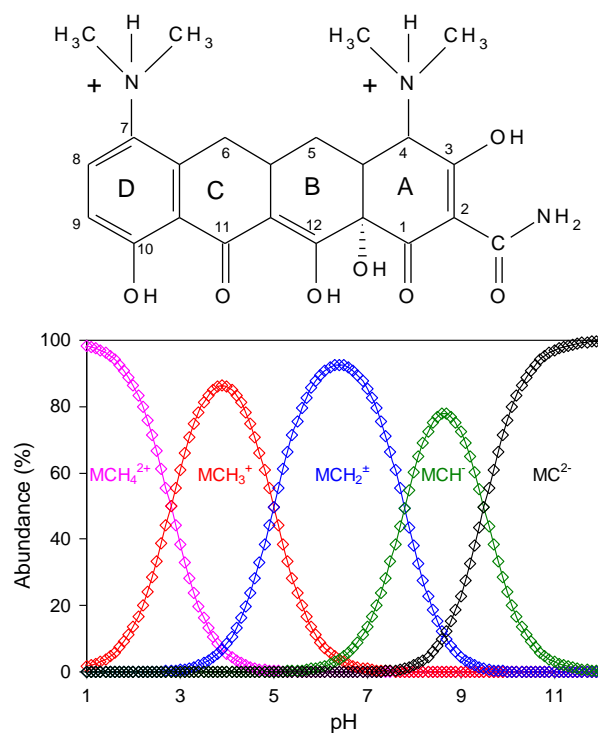


Fig. 1. Molecular structure of fully protonated minocycline and its speciation under different pH values in aqueous solution.

500 rpm. At the same time, 38 mL of CTAT-Pluronic F68 mixed solution were prepared with a 0.75:0.25 M ratio by adding the desired amount of surfactants to water. This mixture was stirred in a conical flask at 35 °C to form a transparent template solution and then it was left at room temperature. To obtain the mesoporous material, 20 mL of a 1.43 M HCl solution were added drop by drop to the TEOS solution under stirring and 2 min later the surfactant solution was incorporated. The resulting gel, whose composition was 1 TEOS:0.53 HCl:0.011 CTAT:0.0037 F68, was stirred for 5 min and then left for 48 h in an autoclave at 100 °C. After this, the gel was filtered and washed with distilled water and dried at room temperature. Finally, it was calcined in an air flux by increasing the temperature from room temperature to 540 °C with a heating rate of 2 °Cmin⁻¹, and holding for 7 h at 540 °C.

Fe-SiO_2 was synthesized by a simple batch equilibrium adsorption method. In a beaker, 2 g of calcined SiO_2 were mixed with 40 mL of a 0.13 M $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ solution and stirred for 1 h at 600 rpm. Then, the solid was filtered and washed with water and dried at room temperature. Finally, it was calcined in an air flux for 2 h at 540 °C. The iron content on the silica support was 10.3 mgg^{-1} (1.03 wt.%), which was measured by UV-VIS spectroscopy using the thiocyanate colorimetric method [23] after extracting the Fe(III) ions from the solid with concentrated HNO_3 [24].

The synthesized materials were characterized by the techniques usually employed in porous materials, such as scanning and transmission electron microscopy (SEM and TEM); XRD; FT-IR spectroscopy; electrophoretic mobility measurements; and the N_2 -BET method for surface area, pore volume and pore diameter determination. SEM was performed using an EVO 40-XVP microscope. The samples were prepared on graphite stubs and coated with a ca. 300 Å gold layer in a PELCO 91000 sputter coater. TEM was performed using a JEOL 100 CX II transmission electron microscope, operated at 100 kV with magnification of 450000×. Observations were made in a bright field. The powdered samples were placed on 2000 mesh copper supports. XRD patterns were obtained via a Philips PW 1710 diffractometer with

CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) and graphite monochromator operated at 45 kV, 30 mA and 25 °C. The electrophoretic mobilities of SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ were measured with a Zetasizer Nano Series instrument (Malvern Instruments Ltd.) at room temperature, and the Zeta potentials were calculated using the Smoluchowski equation. Stock suspensions containing 0.1 gL⁻¹ of solid in 10⁻² M KNO₃ were used for the measurements. The pH of the suspensions was adjusted to the desired value by adding small volumes of HNO₃ or KOH solutions. The N₂ adsorption isotherms at 77.6 K were measured with a Quantachrome Nova 1200e instrument. The samples were degassed at 373 K for 720 min at a pressure of 1 × 10⁻⁴ Pa. FT-IR experiments were recorded in a Nicolet FT-IR Nexus 470 Spectrophotometer. To avoid co-adsorbed water the samples were dried under vacuum until constant weight and then they were diluted with KBr powder before the FT-IR spectrum was recorded.

2.3. Adsorption experiments

Adsorption experiments (in darkness to avoid photodegradation) were obtained with a batch equilibration procedure using 15 mL polypropylene centrifuge tubes covered with polypropylene caps immersed in a thermostatic shaker bath. Before starting the experiment, a stock MC solution (2 × 10⁻³ M) was prepared by adding the corresponding solid to buffer solutions. The pHs investigated were 4.4 (0.1 M acetate/acetic acid), 7.0 (0.1 M HPO₄²⁻/H₂PO₄⁻), and 9.5 (0.1 M CO₃²⁻/HCO₃⁻). 50 mg of mesoporous material were introduced into the tubes and mixed with varying quantities of MC and KCl (used as supporting electrolyte) solutions. The range of initial MC concentration was 5 × 10⁻⁵–2 × 10⁻³ M, and the final volume was 10 mL. The stirring rate was kept constant at 90 rpm. At different reaction times, the particles were separated from the supernatant by centrifugation at 4000 rpm during 2 min and the supernatant was immediately analyzed to quantify the concentration of adsorbed MC. After the quantification (see below), which took around 30 s, the supernatant was reintroduced into the tube. This procedure (separation, quantification of MC and reintroduction of the supernatant into the reaction tube) was repeated during several hours in order to achieve complete adsorption of the antibiotic or to gather enough data points. The last data point obtained in these experiments was assumed to represent equilibrium conditions. Adsorbed MC was calculated from the difference between the initial MC concentration and the concentration of the antibiotic that remained in the supernatant solution. In most experiments no supporting electrolyte was used and the working temperature was 25 °C (except when effects of KCl concentration and temperature were investigated).

To evaluate the effect of phosphate buffer on the adsorption of MC, the experiments were carried out in water and at pH 7 by adding HCl or KOH solutions. Before starting the experiment, a stock MC solution (2 × 10⁻³ M) was prepared by adding the corresponding solid to double distilled water. Its pH was then adjusted to the desired value by adding HCl or KOH solutions. Then, 50 mg of mesoporous material were introduced into the tubes and mixed with varying quantities of the MC solution and water (previously adjusted at pH 7). During the time when the suspensions were mixed, the pH was checked and kept constant by adding small volumes (microliters) of concentrated KOH or HCl solutions.

Quantification of MC was performed by UV–VIS spectroscopy at 354 nm for pH 4.4, at 345 nm for pH 7, and at 382 nm for pH 9.5 using an Agilent 8453 UV–VIS diode array spectrophotometer equipped with a Hellma 1 cm quartz cell. This is due to the shifting of the maximum absorption band of MC as pH varies [25]. The supernatant of the withdrawn aliquot was placed into the cell and the spectrum was recorded in the 200–900 nm wavelength range. Calibration curves at the working pH were conducted with several MC solutions having concentrations that ranged between 5 × 10⁻⁶ and 2 × 10⁻³ M. Very good linearity was found in all cases ($r^2 > 0.998$).

The adsorption kinetic is traditionally described following the expressions of the pseudo-first and the pseudo-second order equations originally given by Lagergren, which are special cases for the general Langmuir rate equation [26]. The pseudo-second order model, described by Eq. (1), was used here and in most solid/solution interaction studies [27]:

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_{2,s}q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e}t \quad (1)$$

where $k_{2,s}$ is the pseudo-second-order rate constant (gumol⁻¹ min⁻¹); and q_e and q_t (μmolg⁻¹) denote the amount of antibiotic adsorbed at equilibrium and at the reaction time t , respectively. The fitting validity of this model is traditionally checked by the linear plots of t/q_t versus t . The slope and intercept of the obtained straight line provide the respective kinetic constant and the q_e parameter.

Despite the Lagergren kinetic equations have been used in a great deal of adsorption kinetic works, this model cannot give interaction mechanisms, so another model was also used to test antibiotic adsorption on the studied materials. An intraparticle diffusion model (Morris–Weber model), described by Eq. (2), was examined [27]:

$$q_t = k_{\text{int}}t^{0.5} + I, \quad (2)$$

where k_{int} is the intraparticle diffusion rate constant and I is the intercept. I is also an indicator about the thickness of boundary layer, i.e., the larger the intercept, the greater the boundary layer effect. According to the model, if intraparticle diffusion is the rate-limiting step of the whole adsorption process, the plot of q_t versus $t^{0.5}$ yields a straight line passing through the origin. Otherwise, some other mechanisms are possibly involved along with intraparticle diffusion.

The adsorption isotherms were fitted using both Langmuir and Freundlich equations, which were commonly used in the adsorption of antibiotics on several adsorbent systems [28,29]. The linear forms of these equations are displayed as Eqs. (3) Langmuir and (4) Freundlich:

$$\frac{1}{MC_{\text{ads}}} = \frac{1}{q_{\text{mon}}} + \frac{1}{q_{\text{mon}}K_L MC_{\text{eq}}} \quad (3)$$

$$\ln MC_{\text{ads}} = \ln K_F + \frac{1}{n} \ln MC_{\text{eq}}, \quad (4)$$

where MC_{ads} is the adsorbed amount of MC (μmolg⁻¹); MC_{eq} is the equilibrium concentration of MC in the supernatant (μM); q_{mon} is the maximum amount of antibiotic adsorbed (μmolg⁻¹) corresponding to complete coverage on the surface; K_L and K_F are the Langmuir and Freundlich constants (μM⁻¹), respectively; and $1/n$ is the adsorption intensity. From the linearized form of Eqs. (3) and (4), q_{mon} , K_L , K_F , $1/n$, and the correlation coefficient, r^2 , can be calculated.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. General characteristics of the synthesized materials

The synthesized mesoporous SiO₂ particles had a characteristic white colouration, while Fe-SiO₂ was a yellowish/light brown powder, as shown in the Supplementary Material (SM, see SM Fig. S1), confirming the presence of iron oxide in the adsorbent matrix.

Fig. 2 shows the electronic micrographs of the synthesized samples. According to the SEM images, SiO₂ consists of agglomerates of polydisperse spheres (Fig. 2a). The morphology of Fe-SiO₂ (Fig. 2c) is similar to that of the silica support and there is no evidence of separate iron(III) oxide crystallites. This may indicate the formation of fine particles (mainly as Fe₂O₃) and their dispersion over the SiO₂ surface or into the mesopores. The formation of Fe₂O₃ on mesoporous silica was demonstrated in several works [19,30], where a triblock copolymer was

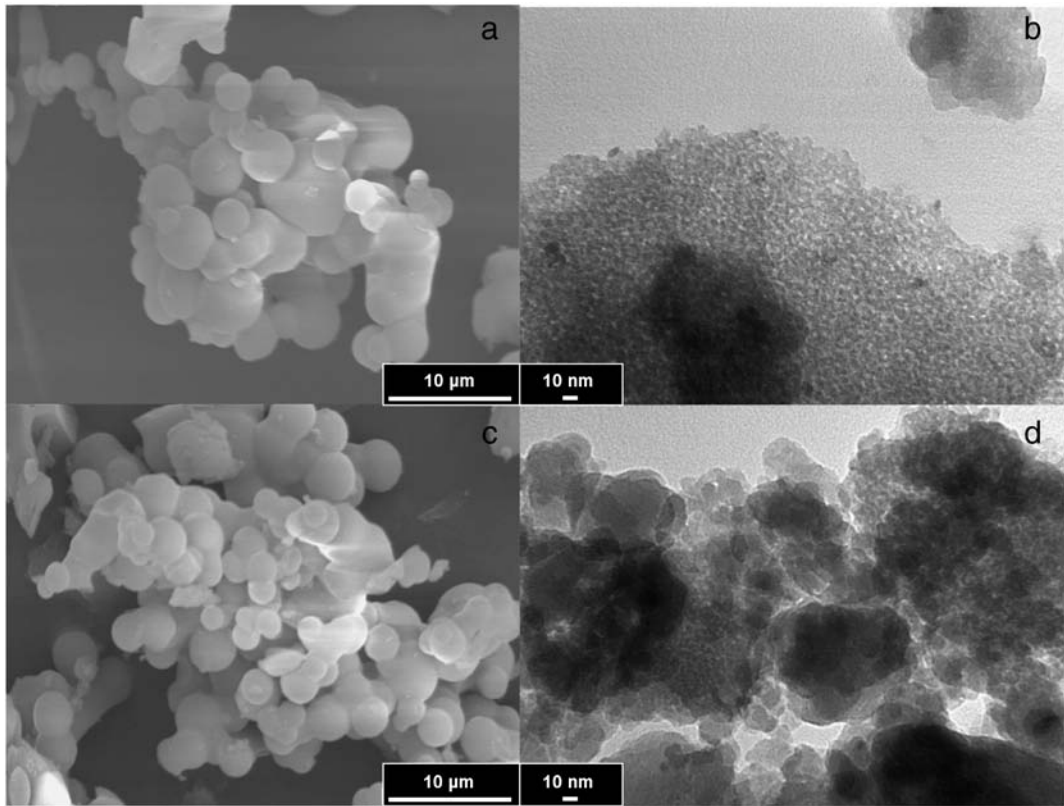


Fig. 2. SEM (20000 \times , left side) and TEM (450000 \times , right side) micrographs of: (a and b) SiO₂, and (c and d) Fe-SiO₂.

used as template, TEOS and Fe(NO₃)₃ were used as silica and iron oxide precursors, respectively, and where the resulting solid was calcined in air-flux furnace at 550 °C. The porous structure of the synthesized

materials is evidenced by TEM images. Fig. 2b and d show that SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ contain mesopores, with pore diameters of around 3.10 nm.

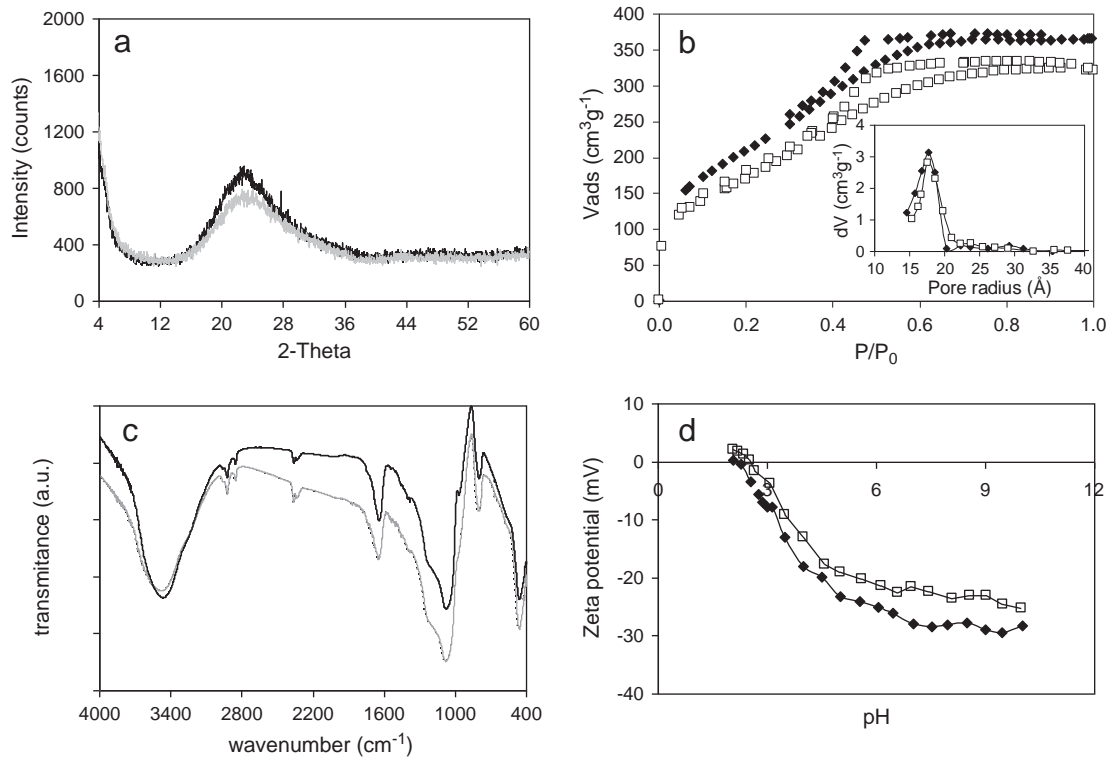


Fig. 3. Characterization of studied sample by: (a) XRD; (b) N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms, where the inset shows the pore radius distribution; (c) infrared spectroscopy; and (d) electrophoretic mobility measurements as a function of pH in a 10⁻³ M KNO₃ solution. Black line and solid diamonds, SiO₂; and gray line and open squares, Fe-SiO₂.

The results obtained by XRD, nitrogen sorption isotherms, FT-IR spectroscopy and electrophoretic mobility are shown in Fig. 3a–d, respectively. SiO₂ shows a XRD pattern typical of amorphous materials, which is also characteristic of mesoporous silicas [14]. The mesoporous structure of SiO₂ is stable under our synthesis conditions and it does not collapse during calcination at 540 °C resulting in the transformation to the cristobalite phase, as observed by Gu et al. [31]. Fe-SiO₂ shows a very similar XRD pattern, and no peaks of crystalline iron(III) oxides are observed. The question that arises about the Fe₂O₃ phase is whether it is present as a true amorphous phase or as small and undetectable nanocrystalline particles. It is known that nanoparticles of amorphous Fe₂O₃ crystallize into nanocrystalline maghemite (γ -Fe₂O₃) at around 300 °C, whereas the same transformation occurs at higher temperatures (700 °C or higher) for Fe₂O₃-SiO₂ amorphous nanoparticles [32]. The observed shift is related to the stabilization of the amorphous Fe₂O₃ nanophase due to preventive role of the silica matrix [30]. However, since our sample was calcined at 540 °C and there were not evidence of crystalline Fe-oxide phase from the XRD studies, only the presence of amorphous Fe-oxide can be suggested. Similar results were reported by Ennas et al. [33] and Gervasini et al. [34] for Fe₂O₃-SiO₂ materials at several Fe loadings.

The nitrogen sorption isotherms of SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ are typical type IV isotherms with H2 hysteresis loop, corresponding to a non-defined distribution of pore sizes and shapes, which appear in several inorganic oxide gels, glasses, and mesoporous silica as SBA-16 [35,36]. This was attributed in the past to “ink bottle pores”, but it is now recognized that this description provides an oversimplified picture of the actual situation, and that the role of network effects must be taken into account [37]. The calculated BET surface area and pore volume were 773 m²g⁻¹ and 0.564 cm³g⁻¹ for SiO₂, and 632 m²g⁻¹ and 0.510 cm³g⁻¹ for Fe-SiO₂, respectively. The observed decrease in these parameters is attributed to the coverage of the silica surface by the Fe-oxide phase, leading to a material with reduced surface area and smaller porosity than SiO₂ [32]. The well-defined step that occurs at P/P₀ between 0.5 and 0.6, corresponding to capillary condensation of N₂, indicates the uniformity of the pores, as shown in the inset of Fig. 3b. In fact, the pore radii were sharply distributed in a narrow range located at approximately 1.77 nm and 1.62 nm for SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂, respectively. This uniformity on the pore size is mainly attributed to the use of the F68 triblock copolymer in the material synthesis [12].

The most important features of the FT-IR spectra of SiO₂ are: a broad band centered at 3465 cm⁻¹ associated to OH stretching of surface hydroxyls bound to silicon (Si-OH); a peak at 1646 cm⁻¹ due to the OH bending mode of water molecules; a broad peak located at 1078 cm⁻¹ with a shoulder at 1195 cm⁻¹ which are attributed to asymmetric Si-O-Si vibrations; a peak centered at 798 cm⁻¹ due to symmetric Si-O-Si vibrations; and peaks at 968 and 459 cm⁻¹ assigned for Si-O-Si bending modes [38]. Characteristic bands at around 595 and/or 960 cm⁻¹, attributed to Fe-O-Fe bending and Si-O-Fe stretching modes, respectively, were not detected on the FT-IR spectrum of Fe-SiO₂. Liu et al. [39] reported that these bands can only be detected in Fe-SiO₂ samples with 9 wt.% Fe or higher. However, these authors showed a slightly modification of the 968 cm⁻¹ SiO₂ peak which is attributed to the presence of Si-O-Fe species in agreement with our results, i.e., a shift of this band towards higher wavenumbers.

The Zeta potential vs. pH data show that the mesoporous SiO₂ has an isoelectric point (IEP) of 2.1, whereas the IEP of Fe-SiO₂ is slightly higher (2.8). The IEP of silica is in agreement with those reported in the literature ([40], and references therein). It is known that the IEP of Fe₂O₃ is between pH 7.5 – 8.5 ([40], and references therein). Therefore, the small shift of IEP from 2.1 to 2.8 indicates that only a small fraction of the silica surface was covered with iron oxides, and that most of the charging behavior is dominated by the SiO₂ surface. Similar results were reported by Rufier et al. [41] and Xu and Axe [42] on the synthesis of hematite- and goethite-coated silicas, respectively.

3.2. MC adsorption studies

Adsorption kinetics of MC on SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ as a function of pH are shown in Fig. 4. The adsorption is very fast between $t = 0$ and $t = 5$ min in almost all experiments (Fig. 4a). It is so fast that no data point could be measured in this period with our experimental set up. At $t > 5$ min the adsorption takes place at a much slower and measurable rate, and at around 250 min equilibrium seems to be reached in all cases. The adsorption capacity increases in the order SiO₂ < Fe-SiO₂ suggesting that Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles dispersed on the silica surface or inside the mesopores offer more active sites for adsorption than the silica support. Fig. 4a also shows that the adsorption on both adsorbents is strongly dependent on the pH. It is relatively high at low pH and decreases significantly. All data were well-fitted by the pseudo-second order model (Eq. 1) with $r^2 > 0.99$, as shown in Table 1. The q_e and $k_{2,s}$ values are much higher than those reported in a previous paper on the adsorption of a tetracycline antibiotic on mesoporous SiO₂ and on the binary system TiO₂-SiO₂ at the same experimental conditions, where the silica support was synthesized in alkaline media by using the cationic surfactant CTAB as template [14], revealing that the synthesis conditions and the type of metal and/or metal oxide supported play an important role on the reactivity of mesoporous silica. Therefore, the obtained results show that both SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ act as very good adsorbents for MC kinetically (and probably for other tetracyclines).

If the Weber-Morris model is applied to our results, as shown in Fig. 4b, at least three linear sections with different slopes are obtained. The multilinearity indicates that three steps occur in the sorption process. The first is commonly attributed to the boundary layer diffusion. The second is attributed to the gradual or slow adsorption stage where intra-particle diffusion is the rate limiting step; this step was

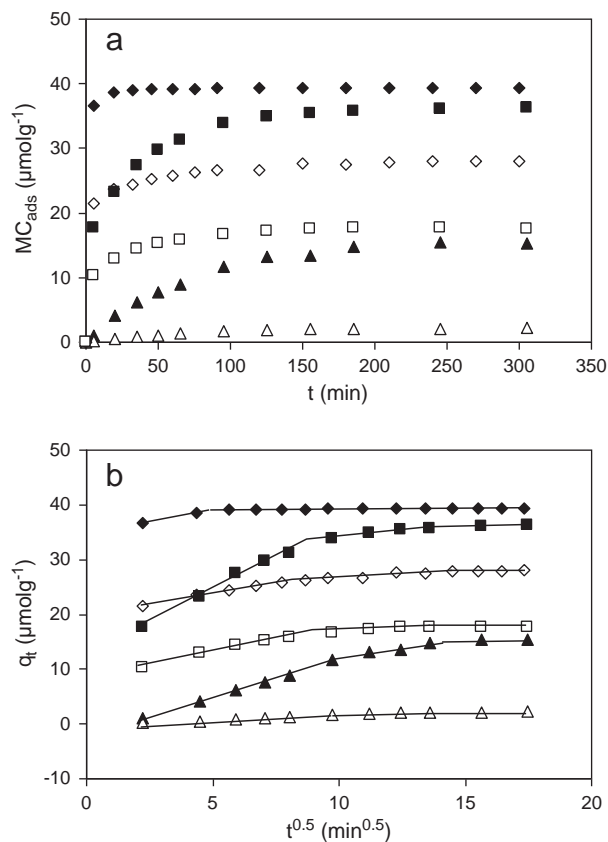


Fig. 4. Effect of pH on the adsorption kinetics of MC on SiO₂ (open symbols) and Fe-SiO₂ (solid symbols) at 25 °C: (a) adsorption rate, and (b) q_t versus $t^{0.5}$ for intraparticle diffusion model. pH values: diamonds, pH 4.4; squares, pH 7.0; and triangles, pH 9.5.

Table 1
Kinetic adsorption parameters for MC adsorption on the studied materials.

Pseudo-second-order model						
pH	SiO ₂			Fe-SiO ₂		
	q_e (μmolg^{-1})	$k_{2,s} \times 10^3$ ($\text{g}\mu\text{mol}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$)	r^2	q_e (μmolg^{-1})	$k_{2,s} \times 10^3$ ($\text{g}\mu\text{mol}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$)	r^2
4.4	28.41	6.84	1.00	39.37	119.47	1.00
7.0	18.25	6.37	1.00	37.59	2.44	1.00
9.5	2.92	4.38	0.99	19.72	0.70	0.99

Intraparticle diffusion model						
pH	SiO ₂			Fe-SiO ₂		
	$k_{\text{int}1}$	$k_{\text{int}2}$	$k_{\text{int}3}$	$k_{\text{int}1}$	$k_{\text{int}2}$	$k_{\text{int}3}$
4.4	0.87 (0.98)	0.33 (0.95)	0.04 (1.00)	0.72 (0.96)	0.02 (0.94)	0.00 (0.14)
7.0	1.15 (1.00)	0.47 (0.99)	0.07 (1.00)	2.39 (0.99)	0.60 (0.98)	0.13 (0.98)
9.5	0.18 (1.00)	0.20 (0.98)	0.03 (0.82)	1.41 (1.00)	1.37 (0.99)	0.15 (1.00)

Note. In parentheses the respectively r^2 values are shown.

also ascribed to the diffusion of pharmaceuticals in mesopores [43]. The third is related to the final equilibrium stage where intra-particle diffusion further slows down due to the extremely low concentrations of adsorbate left in the solutions [43]. The results suggest, therefore, that the mechanism of MC adsorption over the surface of the studied solids is complex and both the surface adsorption as well as intraparticle diffusion contribute to the actual adsorption process. Table 1 also shows the k_{int} values which are obtained from the slopes of Fig. 4b.

The effect of pH on the adsorption can be better observed in the respective adsorption isotherms, as shown in Fig. 5. As expected, the adsorption is relatively high at pH 4.4 and decreases significantly at pH 7 and 9.5 indicating that the affinity of MC for both SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ is higher at low pH. Since at a given pH the adsorption of MC on Fe-SiO₂ is higher than on SiO₂, the increase in adsorption can be attributed to the direct binding of the antibiotic to the supported Fe₂O₃.

According to Fig. 1, the main species of MC in aqueous solution at pH 4.4, 7 and 9.5 are MCH_3^+ , MCH_2^+ , and MCH^- and MC^{2-} , respectively. SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ have negative surface charges at all studied pH. Thus, the adsorption of MC on SiO₂ at pH 4.4 is easy to be understood since interaction by electrostatic attraction should drive the MCH_3^+ species to the negatively charged SiO₂. As pH increases, these interactions decrease mainly due to a decrease in MCH_3^+ concentration and/or an increase in MCH_2^+ , MCH^- or MC^{2-} concentration. The case of the last three species is somewhat different since the net charge of the molecules is respectively 0, -1, and -2. A simple electrostatic analysis considering only the net charge of these species indicates that MCH_2^+ should not be electrostatically attracted by SiO₂ and that MCH^- and

MC^{2-} should be repelled by the surface. However, since MCH_2^+ and MCH^- species contain a positively charged group in their structure, it is likely that the molecules arrange at the surface so that the positively charged group is located very close to the surface, leading the negatively charged one(s) as far as possible from the surface [22].

Fig. 5 also shows that at pH 7 the adsorption isotherm on Fe-SiO₂ is the same in the presence or absence of buffer, suggesting that phosphate ions do not compete with MC for the adsorption sites. It is known that phosphate ions compete with different adsorbates (carbonate, arsenate, pesticides such as glyphosate, etc.) for the adsorption active sites of several adsorbents and specially iron oxides and oxyhydroxides (e.g. goethite, ferrihydrite, etc.) [16,44,45]. However, all mentioned Fe-oxides have an IEP at around pH 7–9.5 and, therefore, the interaction phosphate-adsorbent (e.g., by formation of inner/outer-sphere complexes, ligand exchange, etc.) is expected to be more strongly than in SiO₂ (negligible or not exist) or in Fe-SiO₂, where both solids have an IEP lower than pH 2.5, i.e., the solids are negative-surface charged at pH 7. Besides, the low content of Fe-oxide in Fe-SiO₂ (1.03 wt.%) suggests that the effect of phosphate ions on MC adsorption is very low or no detectable by UV-VIS spectroscopy. Similar effects are expected by using acetate and carbonate buffers and thus the experiments at pH 4.4 and 9 without buffer were not performed. In fact, it was reported in literature that carbonate and acetate ions have a weak effect on the adsorption of tetracycline on a Fe-polyvinylpyrrolidone and on a Fe-Mn binary oxide [46,47]. Moreover, carbonate is known to be a weak competitor for the adsorption of anionic species (e.g., phosphate, arsenate, arsenite) on Fe-oxides [44,45].

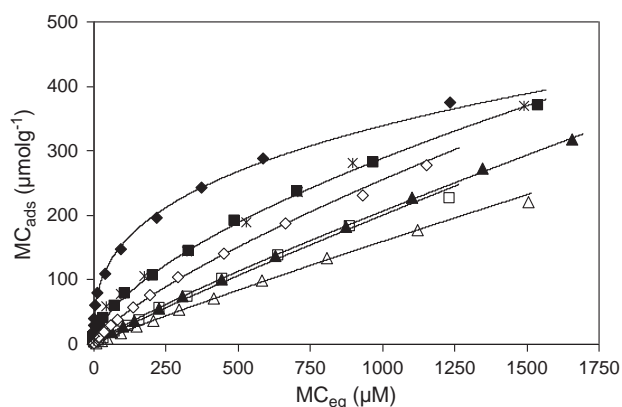


Fig. 5. Effect of pH on the adsorption of MC on SiO₂ (open symbols) and Fe-SiO₂ (solid symbols) at 25 °C. pH values: diamonds, pH 4.4; squares, pH 7.0; and triangles, pH 9.5. Slashes show the adsorption of MC on Fe-SiO₂ in absence of phosphate buffer. Lines show predictions of Eq. (3).

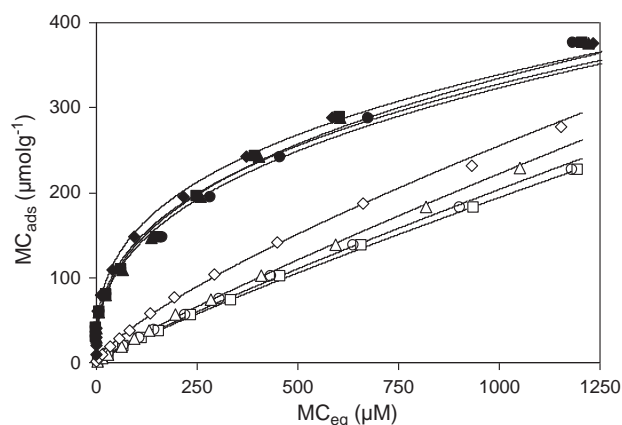


Fig. 6. Effect of KCl concentration on the adsorption of MC on SiO₂ (open symbols) and Fe-SiO₂ (solid symbols) at pH 4.4 and 25 °C. KCl concentrations: diamonds, 0 M; triangles, 0.01 M; circles, 0.1 M; and squares, 0.3 M. Lines show predictions of Eq. (3).

These results are supported by a decrease in the critical stability constants of both surface and aqueous complexes in the order Fe(III)-acetate < Fe(III)-carbonate < Fe(III)-phosphate [44,45,48].

Although the electrostatic interactions may play an important role in the adsorption of MC on both SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂, there may also exist non-electrostatic interactions between the organic species and the solid surface [49]. These interactions, such as hydrogen bonding, surface complexation and van der Waals interaction are likely to operate not only with cationic species (MCH₃⁺) but also with MCH₂[±], and MCH⁻ and MC²⁻ and they will contribute to the adsorption.

In order to analyze the hypothesis mentioned above, Fig. 6 shows the effects of ionic strength (KCl concentration) on the adsorption of MC isotherms on SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ at pH 4.4 and 25 °C. The adsorption on SiO₂ depends on the presence of electrolyte, decreasing as KCl concentration increases. Even though the effect is not very strong, the results suggest that formation of outer-sphere complexes (or ionic pairs) is taking place on SiO₂, and competition between MC (as MCH₃⁺, see Fig. 1) and K⁺ for negatively charged groups occurs, leading to a decrease in MC adsorption by increasing K⁺ concentration. Results resemble those reported in a previous work [25] for the adsorption of MC on ceria nanoparticles, where competition between the antibiotic and potassium ions was proposed to play a key role. On the other hand, the adsorption on Fe-SiO₂ does not depend on KCl concentration, suggesting a different adsorption process. It is known that the adsorption of several species on supported and unsupported Fe₂O₃ is related to the formation of inner-sphere complexes between the adsorbate and the active sites of the iron oxide [50,51] and, thus, they are expected to form in our system. In fact, Gu and Karthikeyan [52] reported that the antibiotic tetracycline forms inner-sphere complexes with both iron and aluminium hydrous oxides due to its tricarbonylamide (C1:C2:C3 in ring A) and carbonyl (C11 in ring C) functional groups.

The effects of temperature on the adsorption of MC on SiO₂ and Fe-SiO₂ at pH 4.4 are shown in Fig. 7. MC adsorption on SiO₂ is not significantly affected by varying the temperature from 15 to 45 °C. The weak dependence of the adsorption of MC with the temperature is consistent with formation of outer-sphere complexes or ionic pairs, where there is competition with the cations of the supporting electrolyte. If changes in temperature affect in a similar way the affinity of MC (as MCH₃⁺ at pH 4.4) and K⁺ for negatively charged sites, there will be no significant temperature effects. Similar results were reported in previous works for the adsorption of two cationic species on TiO₂-SiO₂ [14,15]. On the contrary, MC adsorption on Fe-SiO₂ increases as temperature increases reinforcing the fact that a chemisorption-like process may play an important role in the antibiotic-adsorbent system, i.e., formation of inner-sphere complexes between the functional groups of the antibiotic

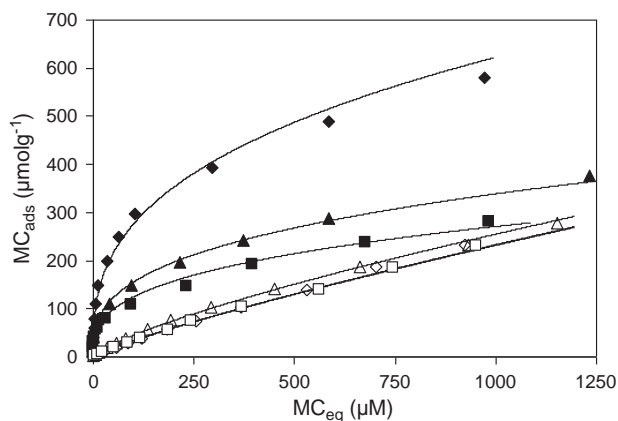


Fig. 7. Effect of temperature on the adsorption of MC on SiO₂ (open symbols) and Fe-SiO₂ (solid symbols) at pH 4.4. Temperatures: diamonds, 45 °C; triangles, 25 °C; and squares, 5 °C. Lines show predictions of Eq. (3).

Table 2
Thermodynamic parameters for MC adsorption on SiO₂.

T (°C)	ΔG° (kJmol ⁻¹)	ΔH° (kJmol ⁻¹)	ΔS° (JK ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹)
5	-15.44		
25	-16.59	0.52	57.44
45	-17.74		

and the active sites of Fe₂O₃. Similar results were reported by Tanis et al. [53] on the adsorption of tetracycline on iron oxides-coated quartz.

From the data showed in Fig. 7 the thermodynamic parameters Gibbs free energy (ΔG°), enthalpy (ΔH°), and entropy (ΔS°) for the adsorption of MC on the studied materials are obtained by using the following equations:

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K, \quad (5)$$

$$\ln K = \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{R} - \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{RT}, \quad (6)$$

where K is the equilibrium constant, T is the absolute temperature, and R is the gas constant (8.314 JK⁻¹mol⁻¹). The Langmuir isotherm can be applied to calculate the thermodynamic parameters assuming that $K = K_L$. ΔH° is obtained from van't Hoff plots as $\ln K_L$ versus $1/T$. The thermodynamic parameters are shown in Table 2. Physisorption and chemisorption are sometimes classified by the magnitude of the enthalpy change. When ΔH° is in the range of (0–10) kJmol⁻¹, the adsorption mechanism is considered to be physisorption; i.e., the bond between adsorbent and adsorbate is due to van der Waals interactions. When ΔH° is in the range of (30–70) kJmol⁻¹, the adsorption is considered to be chemisorption; i.e., a chemical bond is formed between the adsorbate and the surface [54]. However, the above classification is commonly used to interpret adsorption at the solid–gas interface, which may significantly differ from the solid–liquid interface. In this last case, if a ligand exchange reaction takes place between the adsorbate and the functional groups of the surface the ΔH° values could be negative, positive or even zero (with magnitudes up to 70 kJmol⁻¹) and still be a chemisorption reaction [55,56]. The ΔH° value for the adsorption of MC on SiO₂ is positive implying that the interaction of MC with the solid is an endothermic process. The positive sorption entropy indicates an increased randomness at the solid–water interface during MC adsorption [53]. Finally, the negative value of ΔG° at various temperatures shows that the nature of adsorption on SiO₂ is spontaneous under standard conditions. Unfortunately, the thermodynamic parameters for the Fe-SiO₂ were difficult to predict, due to the bad fit achieved with the Langmuir equation ($r^2 < 0.8$ in all experiments, data not shown), and thus they are not reported. The bad fit can be attributed to the heterogeneity on the surface, where the Langmuirian parameters have limited applications [57].

Table 3 shows the best-fit parameters using Eqs. (3) and (4). The adsorption isotherms of MC on SiO₂ at pH 4.4 were well-fitted using both the Freundlich and the Langmuir adsorption isotherms. The last result is expected mainly because the Langmuir's theory assumes monolayer coverage of adsorbate over a homogenous adsorbent surface [14]. The maximum adsorption capacity on SiO₂ is 500 µmolg⁻¹, which is favorably compared with those using natural (or synthetic) adsorbents for removal tetracycline-type antibiotics, such as illite, rectorite, kaolinite, chitosan, goethite and Ca-montmorillonite [6,58,59]. On the contrary, the adsorption data points in the MC-Fe-SiO₂ system were better-fitted using the Freundlich equation which is related to adsorbents with a heterogeneous energy distribution of active sites. The Freundlich parameters also show that the adsorption conditions in all cases are favorable ($n > 1$).

Table 3
Values of the Langmuir and Freundlich parameters for MC adsorption on the studied materials.

pH	T(°C)	I (M)	Langmuir			Freundlich					
			SiO ₂			SiO ₂			Fe-SiO ₂		
			$K_L \times 10^3 (\mu\text{mol}^{-1})$	$q_{\text{mon}} (\mu\text{molg}^{-1})$	r^2	K_F	n	r^2	K_F	n	r^2
4.4	25	0.00	0.85	500.0	0.998	1.38	1.32	0.999	32.86	2.96	0.995
7.0	25	0.00	0.77	357.1	0.999	0.38	1.10	0.999	4.20	1.63	0.999
9.5	25	0.00	0.68	312.5	1.000	0.27	1.08	0.999	0.52	1.15	1.000
4.4	5	0.00	0.78	495.0	0.995	0.73	1.20	0.999	26.45	2.97	0.982
4.4	45	0.00	0.80	498.0	0.995	0.72	1.20	0.997	54.36	2.83	0.992
4.4	25	0.01	0.68	473.9	0.999	0.41	1.14	1.000	21.73	2.79	0.985
4.4	25	0.10	0.67	434.8	0.997	0.36	1.13	1.000	19.51	2.65	0.990
4.4	25	0.30	0.66	416.7	0.995	0.34	1.12	0.999	19.36	2.68	0.989

4. Conclusions

The results shown in this article reveal that the adsorption of MC on the studied solids, from kinetic/isotherms studies, is strongly dependent on pH, increasing as pH decreases. The adsorption capacity at constant pH increases in the order SiO₂ < Fe-SiO₂ mainly due to the presence of Fe₂O₃ particles on the silica support or inside the mesopores offering more active sites for adsorption than silica particles.

The incorporation of a low concentration of iron (1.03 wt.%) on the SiO₂ matrix seems to change the adsorption mechanism. The adsorption of MC on SiO₂ is believed to be related to electrostatic attractions and H-bond formations between amide, carbonylic and phenolic groups of the antibiotic and silica active sites. On the contrary, formation of inner-sphere complexes between the functional groups of the antibiotic and Fe₂O₃ are believed to play a key role in the MC-Fe-SiO₂ system, as deduced from adsorption experiments performed at different KCl concentrations and temperatures. The analysis of thermodynamic parameters suggests that the adsorption on SiO₂ is endothermic and spontaneous in nature although this behavior is not possible to predict for the case of Fe-SiO₂ at all studied temperatures.

The obtained results have a significant importance in environmental and engineering processes, where the production of synthetic materials can play a key role. Mesoporous silica is known to be a very good adsorbent for several species (dyes, pesticides, drugs, heavy metals, etc.) due to the high surface area and pore size. However, since SiO₂ could be modified by the incorporation of metal ions or metal oxides on the mesopore structure, the M-SiO₂ and/or MO_x-SiO₂ (M = metal) systems may act not only as excellent adsorbents but also as alternative photocatalysts for pollution control. This will not only benefit the deactivation of the mentioned pollutants but also reduce their leaching and transport through groundwaters.

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2013.11.008>.

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