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Structural and optical properties of Cu-substitution of NiAl₂O₄ and their photocatalytic activity towards Congo red under solar light irradiation



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ABSTRACT

The present work focuses on the effect of Cu substitution on the crystal structure and photocatalytic activity of nano-spinel oxides $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0). The synthesized compounds by co-precipitation route are characterized by X-ray diffraction, FT-IR, X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy, Scanning Electron Microscopy and UV–vis diffuse reflectance. The photocatalytic activity is followed by UV–vis spectroscopy and Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy in order to confirm the good performance of the catalyst and the charge separation of photogenerated (e⁻/h⁺) pairs. The photocatalytic efficiency of the synthesized catalysts is investigated through the decomposition of Congo Red dye under solar light irradiation. The efficient catalyst is $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ with a removal conversion of 90.55% of the dye after 180 min. The parameters influencing the dye degradation like initial concentration are studied for the optimum degradation and the results have been discussed. This study shows that the adsorption kinetic of the Congo red has well followed the Langmuir isotherm model. The high photocatalytic activity of $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ can be attributed to the valence band of the catalyst which enhances the mobility of the photoexcited charge carriers.

1. Introduction

Our earth needs urgent actions to save the environment from pollutant emissions such as heavy metals, organic compounds, pesticides, and dyes, generated by heavy manufacturing industries and complex technological activities. These environmental pollutants pose serious toxic risks to microorganisms and represent a threat to aquatic life and human beings [1–4].

In reality, large amounts of dyes generating specifically from activities such as printing in textile industries, leather tannery, chemical and food manufacture, as well as pharmaceutical industries are continuously introduced into the environment (water, soil, and air) without any control [5,6]. Despite the fact that they are considered the main pollutants, quantities of dangerous dyes produced worldwide through synthesis, treatment, and application are still released into the environment without any prior treatment [7]. Most of these dyes contain stable compounds and non-biodegradable which are difficult to be destroyed due to mesomeric effect [8]. In this context, Azo Congo red (CR) is cationic dye which contains one or more -N = N- groups with an aromatic structure and one of the most important and widely used dyes. Its degradation is essential and indispensable for ecological protection. In this respect, several techniques have been employed such as filtration, coagulation, adsorption, biological, and oxidation and advanced oxidation processes (AOPs).

However, these methods are costly and often become ineffective at low concentrations [9,10]. Recently, photocatalytic degradation of dyes through AOP under UV irradiation on semiconductors has received much attention mainly to its capacity to degrade numbers recalcitrant dyes [11–14]. Among the candidates, TiO₂, ZnS, ZnO, Fe₂O₃, WO₃ and CdS are semiconductors of choice which are widely used as photocatalysts, but they require sometimes expensive UV irradiation for photocatalysis owing to their large band gap (Eg). Recently metal sulphide with doped semiconductors and spinel magnetic nanoparticles is also used as photo-catalyst for the degradation of various dyes [15–17]. The use of visible light can be another alternative. On the other hand, other researchers have investigated the degradation of CR in presence of narrow bandgap semiconductors like the spinels [18–24].

It is convenient to note that the photocatalytic process is focused on the creation of an electron/hole (e^-/h^+) pairs by illumination with visible or UV light, depending on the nature of the semiconductor

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 $(h\nu > E_g)$. Both electrons and holes may migrate to the catalyst surface of semiconductors and with the presence of the adsorbed azo dyes, redox reactions take place. The oxidizing radicals could attack the azo dyes and convert them partially into CO₂, H₂O and nontoxic inorganic molecules [25,26]. In this regard, Comparelli et al. [26] reported that the formation of free radicals is essential to reduce absorbed dyes and act as oxidizing species.

The metal oxide semiconductor materials have been generated great interest for photolysis, photocatalytic, solid oxide fuel cells, and photovoltaic applications due to their optical, electrical, and optoelectronic properties [27–30]. The spinel aluminate materials are widely used as ceramic pigments, magnetic devices, refractory materials, and catalytic material for chemical reactions and they have been studied for their dielectric properties, chemical and thermal stability, as well as for their mechanical resistance [31–33]. The optical and fluorescence properties of these compounds are dependent on their particles size and preparation methods. The nano-spinel oxides, have received a great attention due to their catalytic properties but to our knowledge and according to the literature, no study in which NiAl₂O₄ doped with copper was found for the dyes degradation of azo dyes.

The present study reports the application of the spinel solid solutions $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0) type spinel as an efficient photocatalysts for the degradation under solar irradiation of Congo red, a recalcitrant azo dye. The effect of different parameters such as, initial RC concentration and catalyst dose has been examined and the results obtained are discussed. The model of the photocatalytic kinetics degradation has also been studied.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Synthesis and characterization of catalysts

The chemicals used in this work were CuCl₂.2H₂O 97% (Fluka AG), Ni(NO₃)₂.6H₂O 97% (Sigma-Aldrich), Al(NO₃)₃.9H₂O 98% (Biochem-Chemopharma). They were used without any further treatment. Nanopowder Copper doped Nickel Aluminates were prepared by coprecipitation method using nitrate salts (purity 98%) of Cu, Ni and Al and chelated by NaOH (4 N) as precursors. Congo red dye (molecular weight = 696.67 g/mol⁻¹, C₃₂H₂₄N₆O₆S₂.2Na) was used without any further treatment. The stock solution of CR was prepared by dissolving appropriate amount of CR in 1.0 L of distilled water. The working solutions were prepared by simple dilution with distilled water for the photocatalytic experiments.

Adequate quantities of precursor were dissolved in distilled water and magnetically stirred for a few minutes. The obtained solutions were diluted in order to adjust the solution pH. After, a solution of NaOH (4 N) was slowly added until the neutralisation where a chelate was obtained. The obtained precipitate was filtered and heated in air at 120 °C for 24 h. The resulting powders were ground and calcined at 300 °C for 8 h in order to remove the nitrates, then at 550 °C and 800 °C, respectively, for 5 h until the formation of fine powders.

The X-ray diffraction was carried out using Cu-K_{α} monochromatic radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056$ Å) of a D8 Advance Bruker diffractometer. Data were collected between 15° and 90° at 0.04°/step for a counting time of 5 s and analyzed by using JCPDS cards and the resulting patterns were indexed by comparison with standard XRD patterns. The Morphology and grain size of the powders were characterized by scanning electron microscope (SEM, ZEISS EVO40 model). The infrared spectra of samples, shaped as KBr pellets, were recorded in the range 450–4000 cm⁻¹, using a SHIMADZU 8400 s spectrometer. The UV–vis spectra were recorded using a JASCO V-670 spectrophotometer on the 200–1800 nm domain with MgO as a standard. X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed using VG Escalab II electron instrument and Al K α x-ray source under low pressure (10⁻⁷ Pa). The spectra were recorded at room temperature and calibrated against C 1 s line [34]. The C1 s, O1 s, Al2p, Cu2p, Ni2p, and photoelectron lines were recorded and corrected by subtraction of a Shirley-type background. [35].

2.2. Electrical, electrochemical and photocatalytic experiment

The electrical conductivity measurement was conducted using the two probe techniques [36] with a copper wire and silver paint. The polished pellet was introduced in a glass tube and isolated with resin epoxy. The electrochemical measurement was done at ambient temperature using a conventional three-electrode cell and potential was given against a saturated calomel electrode (SCE). The potential was swept at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ and controlled by a Solartron Analytical 1287 A potentiostat. The Mott–Schottky plots of the interfacial capacitance were measured at a frequency of 10 kHz in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ electrolyte. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was done using a Solartron Analytical Frequency Response Analyzers (FRA) 1260 and the impedance spectra were recorded over a frequency range 100 kHz to 10 mHz with signal amplitude of 10 mV under the open circuit conditions. The Mott–Schottky and EIS measurements under illumination were done by using a xenon lamp (Phillips lamp, 150 W).

The photocatalytic tests were performed in a Pyrex cell. 50 mg of catalyst was suspended in 50 mL of RC aqueous solution (30 mg /L, pH \sim 7.2). The experimental measurements in dark were performed in a sealed black box. The amount of adsorbed RC is evaluated UV–visible spectrophotometer after the dark adsorption.

Before illumination, the solution with catalyst was stirred continuously in the dark for 60 min to establish the adsorption equilibrium of CR. Then, the reactor was exposed to solar light irradiation. The average solar light intensity at the midday measured with a Lux Meter was evaluated as 750 W/m^2 , while the temperature averaged 30 °C.

At regular time intervals, the aliquots (about 4 mL) were drawn and centrifuged to remove the photocatalyst powders. The remaining RC concentration was determined with UV–visible spectrophotometer at λ_{max} = 498 nm (UV-1800 Shimadzu, Japan) and the RC degradation rate was calculated using the difference in the CR concentration in the aqueous solution before and after adsorption as:

Degradation % =
$$[1 - (A_t / A_0)] \times 100$$
 (1)

Where A_0 and A_t are the absorbance of RC solution at initial tile 0 and time (t), respectively. All the photocatalytic experiments were conducted during the months of May and June with direct exposure to sunlight.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1 shows the powder XRD patterns of $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0) obtained after calcination at 800 °C for 5 h in air. The samples were essentially pure and the patterns revealed single phases. All XRD peaks are indexed in a cubic spinel structure isotypic of NiAl₂O₄ (JCPDS, No 10-0339) cubic phase of space group Fd-3 m corresponding to the spinel structure. It should be noted that the XRD pattern of NiAl₂O₄ (x = 0.0) confirms the presence of impurity peaks attributed to NiO.

The Cu-substitution of NiAl₂O₄ in the Ni-site did not change the peak position, nevertheless the intensity of the peaks of the reflections (331) and (400) which corresponding to 38° and 45° of all the compositions does not evolve in the same way. The decrease of Cu content, corresponds to a continuously decrease of the peaks continuously. Indeed, these two peaks are very sensitive to the phenomenon of intensity inversion observed in the case of spinel structure [37]. Moreover, the intensity of the (422) peak increases with the increase of Ni²⁺ substitution by Cu²⁺.

The lattice parameters obtained after Rietveld refinements using the Fullprof software (Table 1) increases with the increase of Cu content, due to the difference in ionic radii between Ni^{2+} and Cu^{2+} (r_{Cu2} +



Fig. 1. Powder XRD patterns of $\rm Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ oxides (x = 0.0–1.0) calcined at 800 $^\circ C.$

Table 1

Refined structural parameters of $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ powders (x = 0.0–1.0) synthesized through the co-precipitation route.

Ni _(1-x) Cu _x Al ₂ O ₄	Crystallite size (nm)	Cell parameters a (Å)	χ^2	R_{wp}
x = 1.0 x = 0.8 x = 0.6 x = 0.4 x = 0.2 x = 0.0	20.70 17.41 22.36 19.15 9.39 8.80	8.0692(1) 8.0723(5) 8.0595(3) 8.0527(8) 8.0533(2) 8.0482(3)	1.13 1.19 1.22 1.33 1.51 1.41	13.2 13.0 12.7 13.3 17.5 15.2
x = 0.0	8.80	8.0482(3)	1.41	15.2

$(0.73 \text{ Å}) > r_{\text{Ni2}} + (0.70 \text{ Å}))$ [38–40].

The radii values were taken from the Shannon Table for the ions in six fold coordination. The lattice parameters of $NiAl_2O_4$ and $CuAl_2O_4$ obtained in this study are in accordance with those reported in the literature [37,41,42].

The average crystallite size d_{DRX} is evaluated from the Debye-Scherrer equation:

$$d_{DRX} = \frac{0.9\,\lambda}{\beta\,\cos\theta} \tag{2}$$

where β is the width at mid-height of the most intense peak (311) and θ is the diffraction angle.

The evolution of the crystallite size as a function of the copper content (Table 2) shows that the sizes vary between 8.8 and 22.4 nm confirming the obtention of nanometric crystallites.

The surface morphology of the obtained nanocrystals of $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ was investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The obtained images (Fig. 2) confirm a polydispersed distribution of particles of nanometric sizes in the form of agglomerates. Consequently, the co-precipitation method allows obtaining nano crystallite.

Fig. 3 shows the FTIR spectra of the Ni_(1-x)Cu_xAl₂O₄ (x = 0.0–1.0) spinel powders recorded at room temperature between 450 and 4000 cm⁻¹. In general, all the spectra show the presence of broad absorption band around 3450 cm⁻¹ characteristic of the adsorbed water and correspond to the stretching vibration of the hydroxyl group (ν

Table 2					
Adsorption	Parameters	of the	two	isotherm	models.

Langmuir		Freundlich		
Q max (mg/g)	5.81	1/n	1.58	
K 1 (L/mg)	0.366	K f (L/mg)	1.190	
R ²	0.992	R ²	0.887	

(O-H)). While the band observed at 1644 cm cm⁻¹was attributed to the bending vibration of H–O–H. These values are in agreement with the literature [43,44]. The characteristic vibrational peaks of the spinel structure are observed between 500 and 800 (inset Fig.4). This can be associated with the vibrations of the tetrahedrally and octahedrally coordinated Al-O bond and the octahedrally coordinated Ni–O and Cu–O bands [34,41].

The XPS was employed to reveal the state for each element of the solid solution $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0) catalysts. The binding energies of the elements are reported separately in their regions for each composition (Fig. 4). All samples exhibit similar profiles in the O 1s spectral region with the presence of broad peaks of O 1 s at approximate binding energies of 530.5–531.09 eV (Fig. 4a). The peaks are ascribed to the characteristics of oxygen metal bonding in spinel oxides (oxygen of the lattice) including Cu–O, Ni–O and Al–O bonds according to the literature [45,46]. Fig. 4b reports the Al 2p region for all the samples; the binding energies for Al 2p peaks are in the range of 73.9–74.3 eV and characteristic of Al^{3+} environment [46].

Ni 2p region is characterized by two peaks at binding energies of 855.2–855.8 eV and 873.1–873.7 eV (Fig. 4c) with a shake-up peak at the high-energy side of the Ni $2p_{3/2}$ edge at around 862 eV [46–48], with a spin-orbital coupling around of 18.9 eV. This reveals the oxidation state of Ni²⁺ in all the samples in accordance with the literature, [46,48]. As shown in the spectrum, the intensities of the Ni $2p_{3/2}$ decrease when the Cu-content increases and disappears completely in CuAl₂O₄. Therefore, this situation suggests a harmonious substitution of Ni²⁺ by Cu²⁺.

In the case of Cu 2p spectrum (Fig. 4d), the two pronounced peaks at about 932.9–934.6 eV and 952.8–954.6 eV resulting from spin-orbital coupling ($\Delta E \approx 20 \text{ eV}$) are assigned to Cu $2p_{3/2}$ and Cu $2p_{1/2}$ of Cu(II)/Cu(I), because it is so difficult to distinguish these states, whereas a broad shake-up peaks observed at around 941.5 and 963 eV can be assigned to the presence of Cu(II) [46,48,49]. Clearly, the intensities of Cu²⁺ peaks decrease when the Ni-content increases in the same manner in the Ni region which means that the surface is so rich with the cations (Ni, Cu and Al) for an eventual catalytic effect.

The values of the optical gap (Eg) of the as-prepared Ni_(1-x)Cu_xAl₂O₄ (x = 0.0–1.0) are determined from the measurement of the reflectance by UV–Vis diffused reflectance. The band gap can be determined by extrapolation to the energy axis of the linear plots $(\alpha h\nu)^n$ as a function of the photon energy (h ν). To determine the type of transition, we have used the Tauc formula:

$$(\alpha h\nu)^{m} = A (h\nu - E_{g})$$
(3)

Where α and A represent the absorption coefficient and a constant, respectively. The exponent m takes the value 2 for a direct transition and 1/2 for an indirect transition.

Fig. 5 illustrates an example of the UV–Vis diffused reflectance spectra obtained for x = 0.8 (Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄) and its direct band gap obtained from the plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ versus $h\nu$. The direct optical band gap energy (Eg) for the as-prepared Ni_(1-x)Cu_xAl₂O₄ confirms a semiconductors character of the Cu-substituted NiAl₂O₄ compounds (Fig. 6).

The E_g values are found to decrease rapidly as x increases with Cusubstitution. This decrease can be attributed to the induced deep defects levels following the Cu doping. Therefore, the Cu-substituted NiAl₂O₄ can absorb more photons and generate more electron and holes, which is favorable for a higher photocatalytic activity compared to the unsubstituted compounds (NiAl₂O₄, CuAl₂O₄) with 2.37 and 2.04 eV of band gap energy (E_g), respectively. The E_g results agree with those reported in the literature for NiAl₂O₄ and CuAl₂O₄ [50–52].

The effect of contact time on the adsorption capacity of the CR onto $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0) catalysts is shown in Fig. 7a. As can be seen, the amount of adsorbed CR per unit weight of adsorbent (Qe) increases quickly at the beginning, except for the composition x = 0 (NiAl_2O_4), and remains nearly unchanged after 180 min, attesting the







Fig. 2. SEM images of $Ni_{(1-X)}Cu_XAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.2; 0.4 et 0.8).



Fig. 3. FTIR spectra of $Ni_{(1-X)}Cu_XAl_2O_4$ oxides (x = 0.0–1.0) calcined at 800 °C.

equilibrium achievement. This is due to the large availability of free active sites on the surface of catalysts. The maximum adsorption capacity of CR adsorbed on adsorbent at equilibrium is obtained for x = 0.8 (Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄). This catalyst is used to study the photocatalytic activity for the rest of this work.

The effect of the initial CR concentration on the adsorption capacity of Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ is shown in Fig. 7b. It is clear that the increase in the initial CR concentration from 0 to 40 mg/L results in an increase of the amount of CR adsorbed per unit weight of adsorbent (Qe), which

reaches its maximum value for 15 mg/L. The excellent adsorption contributes to the increase of photocatalytic activity.

The Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models were used to analyze the adsorption experimental data of CR on Ni_{0.2} Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ catalyst (Fig. 8). The mathematical Langmuir and Freundlich equations are the following [53,54]:

$$\frac{C_e}{Q_e} = \frac{1}{Q_{max}k_l} + \frac{C_e}{Q_{max}}$$
(4)

$$\ln Q_e = \ln k_f + \frac{1}{n}C_e \tag{5}$$

where Q_{max} is the maximum adsorption capacity (mg g⁻¹), k_l is the Langmuir constant related to the energy of adsorption (L mg^{-1}), Ce is the CR equilibrium concentration (mg/L), K_f is the Freundlich constant related to the adsorption capacity of the adsorbent $(mg^{1-n}L^ng^{-1})$, and n is the constant related to the facility of adsorption process.

The obtained adsorption parameters are summarized in Table 2. The experimental data were obeyed and fitted much better with the Langmuir isotherm than with the Freundlich, indicating that the Langmuir model describes well the CR adsorption. The maximum adsorption capacity determined from Langmuir isotherm model was 5.81 mg/g not far from the experimental value obtained at equilibrium (Fig.7b). In addition, the result indicates that the adsorption process is mainly monomolecular layer on a catalyst surface.

The photocatalytic activity of Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ catalyst has been investigated through the photodegradation of CR under solar light and the corresponding results are shown in Fig. 9a. The photocatalytic decolorization of CR solution in the absence of Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ catalyst did not occur. In contrast, the decolorization is strongly improved in the presence of the catalyst. The photodegradation is quite slow at the



Fig. 4. XPS spectra of $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_{x}Al_{2}O_{4}$ oxides (x = 0.0–1.0): (a) O 1 s, (b) Al 2p, (c) Ni 2p and (d) Cu 2p.

beginning and becomes faster after 50 min of exposure to solar light irradiation. The decolorization efficiency of 48% is obtained within 120 min which is better than commercial ZnO and TiO₂ P25 under UV light irradiation [30], 31% and 41%, respectively. 90.55% of CR was degraded after 180 min under solar light. This behavior can be attributed to the large surface area of the catalyst and electrons transfer, which facilitates the diffusion of CR molecules and retards the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes (e^-/h^+) pairs.

In order to study the kinetics of the photodegradation of CR, the linear plots of the pseudo-first order kinetic model is used to fit the experimental data. The plots ln (C_0/C_t) vs. irradiation time are given in Fig. 9b. The linear relationship between $ln(C_0/C)$ and irradiation time is given by the equation:





Fig. 5. (a) UV–Vis diffused reflectance spectrum of the as-prepared $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ oxide, b) direct band gap estimation from the plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ versus $h\nu$.



Fig. 7. a) Effect of contact time on the adsorption capacity of CR onto $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0) catalysts (initial [CR]: 30 mg L⁻¹; pH = 7.2), b) Effect of the initial CR concentration on the adsorption capacity of $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$.



Fig. 8. Adsorption a) Langmuir and b) Freundlich isotherms of CR onto Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄.

$$Ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C_t}\right) = k_{app}t$$
(6)

 $k_{app}~(mn^{-1})$ is the apparent rate constant, C_0/C_t is the normalized CR concentration and t is the reaction time. The value of the rate constant obtained is 0.004 min^{-1} .

The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) is considered as the powerful technique to study the charge transfer at the solid / liquid interface. EIS is performed on the most efficient catalyst $Cu_{0.8}Ni_{0.2}Al_2O_4$ to confirm the charge separation of photogenerated (e⁻

/ h^+) pairs [55,56]. Fig. 10 shows the Nyquist plots of the EIS spectra measured in the dark and under visible light irradiation for Cu_{0.8}Ni_{0.2}Al₂O₄ catalyst. The experimental data (symbol) suitably fit the calculated data (lines) using the equivalent circuit model (Fig. 10 insert). The error of the resistance (R) and Constant Phase Element (CPE) evaluated by the software Zview[®] is less than 1%.

The resistance at high frequency (R_1) is attributed to the electrolyte solution. The interface $Cu_{0.8}Ni_{0.2}Al_2O_4$ /electrolyte behavior was characterised by one arc at medium and low frequencies and can be fitted by the resistance R_2 in parallel with the pseudo capacitance CPE attributed



Fig. 9. Photodegradation activity of CR (30 mg L^{-1}) by the $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ under solar light irradiation, b) the corresponding kinetics.



Fig. 10. EIS Nyquist plot of $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ in the dark and under visible light irradiation measured in 0.1 M Na_2SO_4 aqueous solution.

to the double layer capacitance. R_2 is attributed to the charge transfer resistance and reflects the reaction rate occurring at the $Cu_{0.8}Ni_{0.2}Al_2O_4$ surface electrode. As expected, the resistance R_2 under visible light irradiation is smaller than that in dark which suggests a more effective separation of photo-generated (e⁻/h⁺) pairs and faster interfacial charge transfer at the solid–liquid interface highly desired for photocatalytic reaction [56,57].

The flat band potential $(V_{\rm fb})$ used to predict the photocatalytic reactions is determined from the Mott-Schottky relation:

$$\frac{1}{C_{sc}^2} = \left(\frac{2}{e\varepsilon\varepsilon_o N_A}\right) (V - V_{bp}) \tag{7}$$

The extrapolated plot to $C^{-2}=0$ gives the flat band potential $V_{\rm fb}(-0.39~V_{\rm SCE})$ (Fig. 11a). The negative slope indicates a p-type semiconductor behavior.

The evolution of the electrical conductivity vs. 1000/T (Fig. 11b) shows that the electrical conductivity obeys to the Arrhenius law with activation energy (Ea) of 0.17 eV obtained from the slope and attributed to the separation between the Fermi level and the valence band. The valence band position of $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ can be predicted using the known equation [58]:

$$E_{VB} = 4.75 + e V_{fb} + 0.059(pH - pH_{pzc}) + E_a$$
(8)

 pH_{pzc} is the zeta potential determined by measuring the equilibrium pH of a solution containing an excess of Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ powder (pH_{pzc} = 7.20). The photocatalytic mechanism on Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ shows that both electrons and holes are involved in the CR degradation under solar light irradiation (> $E_g = 1.46 \text{ eV}$). The photoelectrons

produced in Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ – CB (1.68 V) were transferred to the surface and reduce the CR dye. The dissolved and/or adsorbed O₂ on the catalyst surface acting as the electron scavenger react with electrons and produce free radicals \cdot O₂ and \cdot OH radicals (Fig. 12). Concomitantly, the holes react with H₂O to yield \cdot OH radicals. The free radicals attack the adsorbed CR molecules on Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄. OH radical is a very strong oxidizing agent with a standard potential + 2.8 V [59] that can degrade CR to CO₂ and mineral end products. The relevant reactions at the surface of the interface catalyst can be expressed as follows:

$$Ni_{0,2}Cu_{0,8}Al_2O_4 + hv \rightarrow Ni_{0,2}Cu_{0,8}Al_2O_4 (e_{CB}^- + h_{VB}^+)$$
 (9)

$$Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4 + (h_{VB}^+) + H_2O \rightarrow Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4 + H^+ + OH^-$$
(10)

$$Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4 + (h_{VB}^+) + OH^- \rightarrow Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4 + \cdot OH$$
 (11)

$$Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4 + (e_{CB}) + O_2 \rightarrow Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4 + O_2 \cdot^-$$
 (12)

$$O_2 \cdot \bar{} + H^+ \to HO2 \cdot \tag{13}$$

CR Dye + OH· / O_2 · \rightarrow CO₂ + H₂O + other products nontoxic (14)

4. Conclusion

The results obtained in this study show that all spinel oxides $Ni_{(1-x)}Cu_xAl_2O_4$ (x = 0.0–1.0) prepared by co-precipitation route present a pure phase except the composition x = 0 which shows the presence of NiO confirmed by X-ray diffraction. The SEM images and UV–vis reflectance confirm that the samples have a nanometric size and a direct optical gap between 1.45 and 2.37 eV. The $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$ catalyst shows the best adsorption capacity of Congo red at natural pH with an equilibrium time of ~ 3 h. The adsorption kinetics of CR dye obeys the Langmuir model on $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$.

The electrochemical study with EIS confirms the charge separation of photogenerated electrons and holes with good photocatalytic performance of the catalyst under solar light irradiation. The photocatalytic degradation of CR shows a removal of 90.55% of the dye after 3 h under illumination and the photodegradation follows the pseudo-first order kinetic model with a rate constant of 0.004 min⁻¹.

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Fig. 11. a) The Mott Schottky plot at 10 kHz and b) The thermal variation of the electrical conductivity of $Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al_2O_4$.



Fig. 12. A schematic illustration of the generation of electron-hole pairs and the corresponding redox reactions taking place on the Ni_{0.2}Cu_{0.8}Al₂O₄ surface.

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