

## Development of an innovative MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorod for efficient solar vapor generator

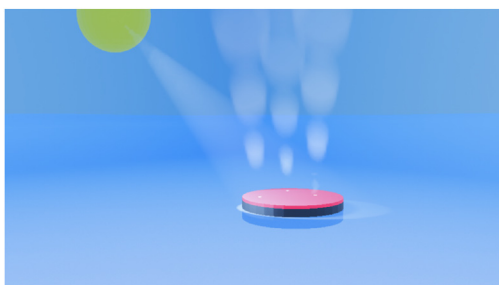


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### GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

**Hydrogel-based solar vapor generator** containing high thermal generating photo-thermal material for efficient desalination process via sunlight to produce freshwater.



### ARTICLE INFO

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### ABSTRACT

Finding an efficient water harvesting technique is currently highly sought-after due to the rise of water demand. Solar vapor generators (SVGs) have recently shown promising results to be used as a cleaner alternative water harvesting system for desalination application. However, recent SVGs using semiconductor as photo-thermal materials (PTMs) still suffer from a low average water evaporation performance. This study aims to develop a novel high-water generating hydrogel-based SVG consisting of cross-linked polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) matrix and designed MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods as solar-to-heat converter. Results indicated that the resultant hydrogel material exhibited a maximum water evaporation rate of 2.8 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) under 1 sun. Furthermore, the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel demonstrated salt resistant and filtration capability for desalination application with a consistent evaporation rate of 2.8 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) and >99.8% reduction of sodium ion concentration. In short, this study opens up a new pathway for the development of high performance SVG system for desalination applications.

### 1. Introduction

Over the past 100 years, water demand has surged by a factor of six

and has been continuously increasing at a rate of 1% per annum due to factors such as industrial, domestic, and agriculture water usage [1,2]. Agriculture production has taken 70% of the global water demand [3–5]

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and the water demand for energy and manufacturing production will increase to 85% and 400% respectively [1,2,6]. Furthermore, with the gradual increase of population however, domestic water usage is predicted to increase 130% by 2050 [1,7–11]. Besides the increasing water demand, wastewater containing detrimental elements such as microplastics, heavy metals, organics, nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizer pollutants may further degrade our freshwater resource [2,12–15]. Currently, used water production system rely on desalination technologies such as multi-effect distillation (thermal desalination) and electro-dialysis desalination (membrane desalination) for freshwater production [16,17]. However, these systems tend to leave a large environmental footprint as well as being cost-ineffective due to labor, operational, and maintenance cost [18–20].

As a replacement, recent strategy of interfacial solar vapor generation (SVG) has caught increasing attentions due to its practicality and promising water generating performance [21–23]. Similar to desalination techniques, interfacial SVG involves generating clean water through water evaporation from internally heating the water source caused by photothermal materials (PTMs) exposure to sunlight [24]. An example of interfacial SVG can be seen in luffa-inspired PC@PDA-C aerogel developed by Liu et al. [25]. This nanofiber-based aerogel was able to produce a high evaporation rate of 2.13 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) with 94.5% solar-vapor conversion efficiency under 1 sun, which is the result of the enhancing photothermal effect of PTMs. Li et al. [26] developed an aero-cryogel monolith SVG consisted of polyaniline and carboxymethyl cellulose, achieving 2.16 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) water evaporation with 93.6% efficiency under 1 sun. The authors highlighted that the hydrophilic polymer allows the gel to have lower evaporation enthalpy as large amount of weakly bonded water molecules were found.

Carbon-based materials, noble plasmonic nanoparticles, conjugated polymers, and inorganic semiconductors are known to contain broad light absorption property for an optimum solar-thermal energy conversion [22,24,27–29]. Among them, one-dimensional (1D) [30–32] or and two-dimensional (2D) carbon materials (i.e., carbon nanotubes, reduced graphene oxides, etc.) [33–35] have been widely employed as PTMs in hydrogel-based SVGs due to their wide availability, high solar-to-heat conversion and high heat conductivity. However, the hydrophobic surface of these PTMs results in relatively high evaporation enthalpy and poor water transport within the composite hydrogels, which in turn limits the evaporation performance. On the other hand, the inorganic semiconductors used in SVGs are mostly 3D spherical particles with hydrophilic surfaces. We thus saw this as an opportunity to develop novel 1D inorganic semiconductors to simultaneously achieve high solar-to-heat conversion, high heat conductivity, lower evaporation enthalpy and high water transport.

In this study, we developed a low-cost and high performing hydrogel-based SVG consisting of 1D nanorods and 3D particles metal oxide (MnO<sub>2</sub>) as PTM, as well as hydrophilic polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) matrix. The prepared MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and particles displayed high aspect ratio, high water affinity, high surface area and high solar-thermal conversion efficiency. However, it is expected that PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel would outperform its PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> counterpart due to possessing lower evaporation enthalpy and faster water transport. As a result, the developed PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> SVG system managed to produce a high-water evaporation rate of 2.8 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) with a very high efficiency under 1 sun. Furthermore, we demonstrated the SVG system has high salt resistance and stable performance when exposed to seawater, indicating that it has the potential to be a greener alternative to our current desalination systems.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Materials

All reagents including polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, Mw: 89–98 kDa), glutaraldehyde (GA, 25% aqueous solution), potassium permanganate

(KMnO<sub>4</sub>, >99%), manganese(II) sulfate monohydrate (MnSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, >98%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without any further purification. Both MnO<sub>2</sub> tunnel/birnessite structures were prepared according to the literature [36].

### 2.2. Preparation of inorganic MnO<sub>2</sub> particles and nanorods

MnO<sub>2</sub> was produced via redox reaction of KMnO<sub>4</sub> and MnSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O. In a typical reaction, 1 g KMnO<sub>4</sub> was dissolved in 75 mL of deionized water. 0.1 g and 1 g of MnSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O was added to KMnO<sub>4</sub> solution to produce MnO<sub>2</sub> end product with birnessite (MnO<sub>2</sub> 0.1:1) and tunnel (MnO<sub>2</sub> 1:1) structure respectively. Both mixture solutions were heated via hydrothermal reaction overnight at 200 °C producing precipitates to be collected, dried, and washed three times with deionized water. Both precipitates were then calcined at 300 °C for 3 h with a heating rate of 10°/min under nitrogen gas protection with a flow rate of approximately 10 mL/s.

### 2.3. Preparation of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel SVG

PVA solution (10 wt%) was prepared by dissolving PVA (Mw: 89–98 kDa) with deionized water under 80 °C for approximately 5 h. Both MnO<sub>2</sub> structures at different weight percentages (5%, 10%, and 15%) were then mixed with the prepared 2 mL PVA solution producing hydrogel solutions. 50 µL glutaraldehyde (25 wt%) followed by 100 µL HCl (1 M) were added into the mixtures before then freezing it overnight for gelation process to take place. Frozen hydrogel samples were then thawed at room temperature and integrated on a polystyrene foam for water evaporation performance testing to take place.

### 2.4. Characterization

Scanning electron microscope (SEM) imaging Zeiss EVO LS15 SEM system was used to show MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels microstructure. PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels were frozen dried prior to SEM imaging. Fourier-Transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectra of PVA, MnO<sub>2</sub>, and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels were taken by SHIMADZU MIRacle 10 single reflection ATR accessory. Renishaw Raman spectroscopy was used to calculate the intermediate water (IW) to free water (FW) ratio. Absorption spectra of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels were taken in the range of 200–2500 nm by ultraviolet-visible-near infrared (UV-VIS-NIR) Cary 7000 Universal Measurement Spectrophotometer. MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels surface temperature were measured and taken by Fluke PTi120 thermal imaging camera. PVA and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels vaporization enthalpy were measured with Q600 SDT Thermal Analyzer (DSC-TGA). Desalinated water salinity concentration was analyzed with Agilent 7900 ICP-MS.

### 2.5. Solar vapor generation experiment

Water evaporation testing were conducted on an inhouse built cabinet box consisting of a solar light simulator (NBeT HSX-F3000 xenon light source) calibrated to 1 sun irradiation (<=1 kW/m<sup>2</sup>), analytical balance (OHAUS Pioneer IC-PX 124), and a thermal camera (Fluke PTi120). Solar light simulator will be switched on in advance approximately for 1 h, allowing the ambient conditions to hit equilibrium before starting the experiment. Hydrogels are placed on top of a water source (DI water/seawater) to test its water evaporation rate under light exposure (light evaporation) and without light exposure (dark evaporation) to take account natural evaporation. The water mass loss for light and dark evaporation ( $\dot{m}_{light}$  and  $\dot{m}_{dark}$ ) will be recorded for every 4 min in an hour interval.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. The preparation of 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods

1D inorganic MnO<sub>2</sub> semiconductor was synthesized, investigated, and compared to its 3D counterpart. The morphology of MnO<sub>2</sub> PTM can be tuned by adjusting MnSO<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O:KMnO<sub>4</sub> weight ratio of 0.1:1 and 1:1, where in this study they are designated as 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> (0.1:1) and 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> (1:1), respectively. Based on the SEM images shown in Fig. 1a and b, the spherical 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> particles have an average diameter of ~1.15 μm. On the contrary, the 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> rod have an average dimension of ~12 μm in length and ~50 nm in width (Fig. 1e and f). The wide exposed surface areas of both structures allow a high amount of light absorption (from 300 to 2500 nm) allowing for high thermal generation as shown in Fig. 1c–d and 1g–h. Specifically, after 60 min irradiation, the 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> particles and 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods displayed an elevated temperature of 74.7 °C and 83.9 °C respectively, suggesting their excellent ability of solar-to-heat conversion.

#### 3.2. The preparation of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel SVG

With the 1D PTM in hand, we then constructed the hydrogel SVG. A typical synthesis of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel was illustrated in Scheme 1. Both MnO<sub>2</sub> PTMs were randomly dispersed and mixed with the prepared 10 wt% PVA stock solution. The PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> mixtures were then cross-linked by introducing glutaraldehyde and HCl (1 M). After standing for 30 min, the mixtures were placed in a freezer (–20 °C) overnight. The frozen gels were then thawed under room temperature for ~30 min before undergoing any water evaporation testing or characterization. In this study, six different types of gels were prepared with varying 1D or 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> PTMs loading (i.e., 5%, 10%, and 15%) for performance comparison and optimization purposes. The resultant PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels are designated as PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(x) or PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(x), where x is equal to 5, 10, 15%, respectively.

The prepared hydrogels were freeze dried before conducting SEM analysis. As shown in Fig. 2, both PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels exhibit relatively high surface roughness (Fig. 2a and c) which

minimizes light reflection, allowing the gels to have better light harvesting ability [37]. Furthermore, both gels contain continuous vertically aligned and random sized porous microstructure labelled in Fig. 2b and d, which helps to provide water transport/absorption [28,38,39].

We then characterized the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel chemical compositions by FTIR spectrometer. As shown in Fig. 3a, both hydrogels exhibit characteristic peaks of PVA and MnO<sub>2</sub>. The presence of MnO<sub>2</sub> is featured through the Mn–O stretching vibration at peaks between 400 and 650 cm<sup>–1</sup> [40,41]. Moreover, the C–O and C=O stretching of PVA and the remaining acetate groups of glutaraldehyde at 1112 and 1650 cm<sup>–1</sup> were observed. The C–H stretching of alkyl groups at 2840 cm<sup>–1</sup>, and broad OH stretch at 3300 cm<sup>–1</sup> emphasize PVA hydrophilic groups for water absorption [42,43]. The light harvesting ability of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels can be demonstrated based on their light absorption capability. As shown in Fig. 3b, both PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels display broad light absorption range from 300 to 2500 nm relative to pure PVA hydrogel. Due to this, PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels managed to produce fast solar-to-heat response rate as shown in Fig. 3c. In less than 20 min, all the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels were able to reach its plateau surface temperature and continually to increase to its maximum temperature ranging between 35 and 37 °C.

Water transport rate ( $V$ ) (Eq. (2)) of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels were investigated through determining its water content ( $Q$ ) (Eq. (1)), half-saturated time ( $t$ ), and state ( $0.5 Q_s$ ). PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels were freeze dried previous to this testing in order to obtain its dry state weight ( $W_{dry}$ ). The frozen dried gels were then saturated and weighted, obtaining its swollen state ( $W$ ).

$$Q = W / W_{dry} \quad (1)$$

$$V = 0.5 Q_s / t \quad (2)$$

The result shows that PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> saturated water content ( $Q_s$ ) is dependable on MnO<sub>2</sub> loading contents and morphology. As shown in Fig. 3d, an increase of MnO<sub>2</sub> weight percentage causes  $Q_s$  of PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> to increase from 2.88, 3.49, and 4.93 g/g. However, in the series of PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels, we observed a decrease in  $Q_s$  relative to the increase of MnO<sub>2</sub> weight percentage. This demonstrates that the

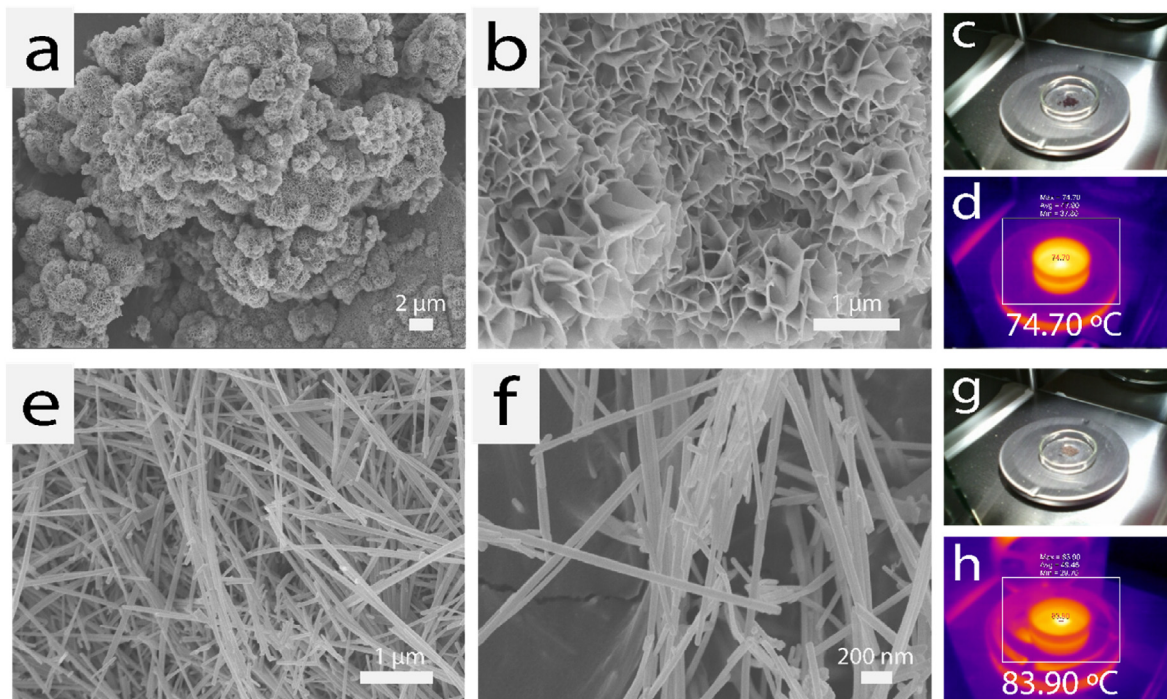
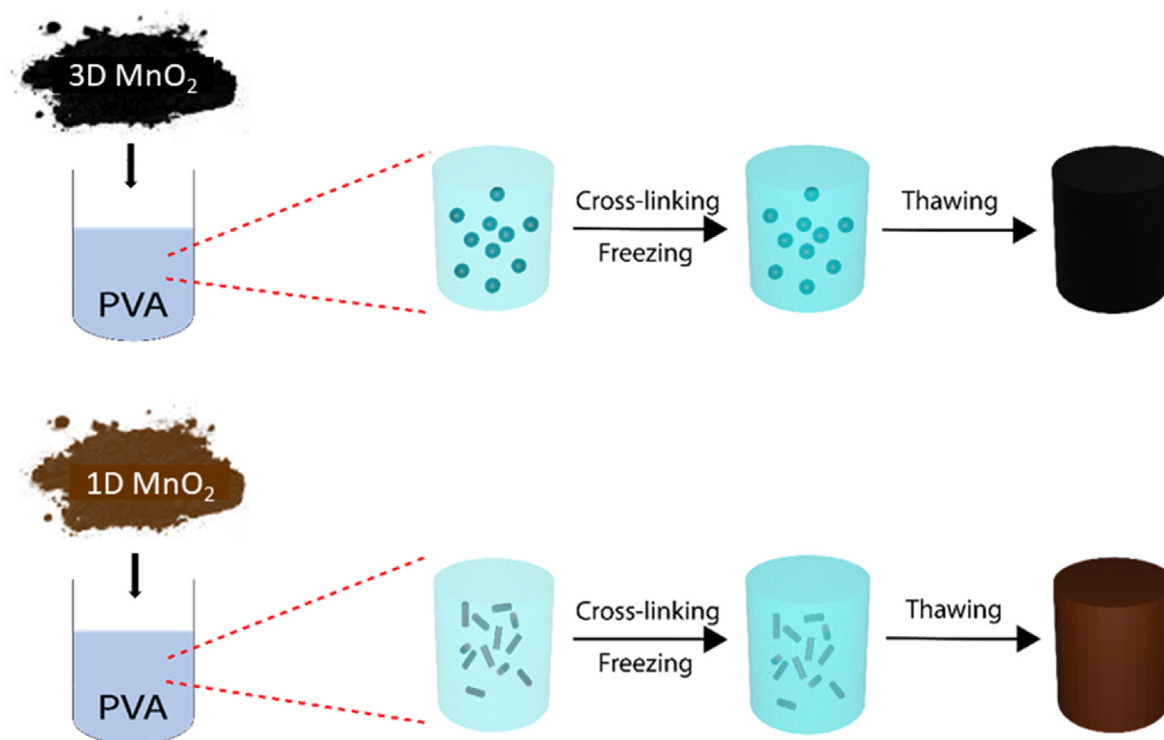


Fig. 1. SEM images of (a–b) 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> particles and (e–f) 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. Visual and thermal images of 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> particles (c–d) and 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods (g–h).





Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel SVGs.

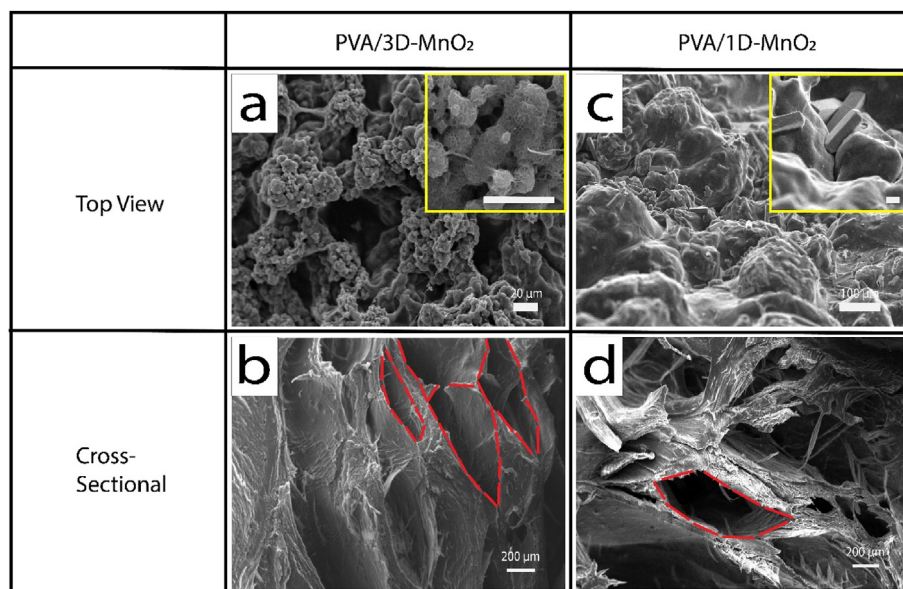


Fig. 2. (a, c) Surface structure and (b, d) cross-sectional SEM images of (a, b) PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and (c, d) PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels. The scale bars represent 10 μm in the inserts.

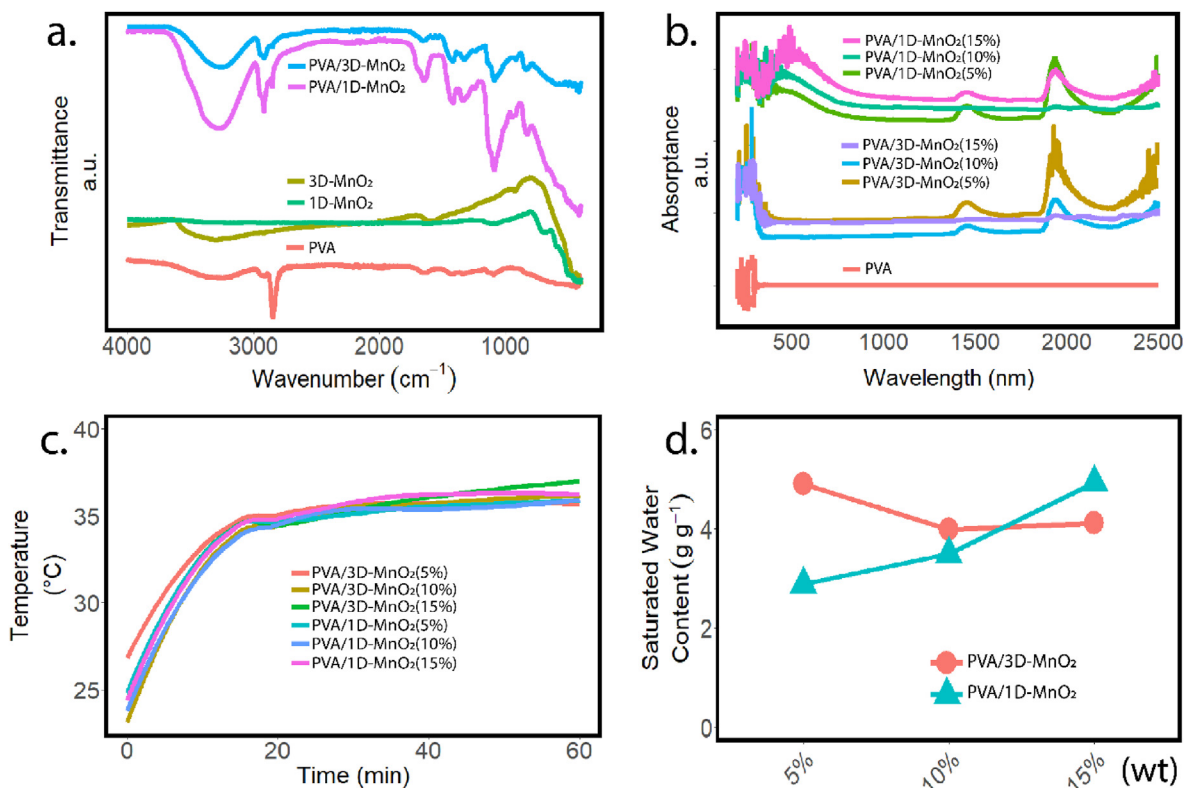
incorporation of MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods can further enhance the water transport within the hydrogels, which may be attributed to their fiber-like morphology which create additional water transport pathways along the MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrophilic surface [44–46].

Besides  $Q_s$ , the half-swollen time of the hydrogels are also needed to be considered to determine water transport efficiency since the hydrogels will mostly be at a near fully saturated state due to constant sunlight and water source exposure. From Fig. 4a and b, both hydrogels obtained an optimum half-swollen time at 10 wt% MnO<sub>2</sub>. Moreover, PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels display a faster half-swollen time compared to PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub>

counterparts.

### 3.3. Solar vapor generation performance

In order to measure and compare the SVG performance of each system, at least three samples for each hydrogel with specific exposed surface area were placed on top of a water source and exposed to ~1 sun irradiation (Fig. 5a). SVG measurements were determined by the amount of water evaporation produced by each hydrogel. The average mass loss rates were shown in Fig. 5b. In short, the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels manage



**Fig. 3.** (a) FTIR spectra of PVA, MnO<sub>2</sub>, and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel. (b) UV-VIS-NIR spectra of PVA and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels. (c) PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels surface temperature throughout 1 h water evaporation testing. (d) Saturated water content comparison between PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>.

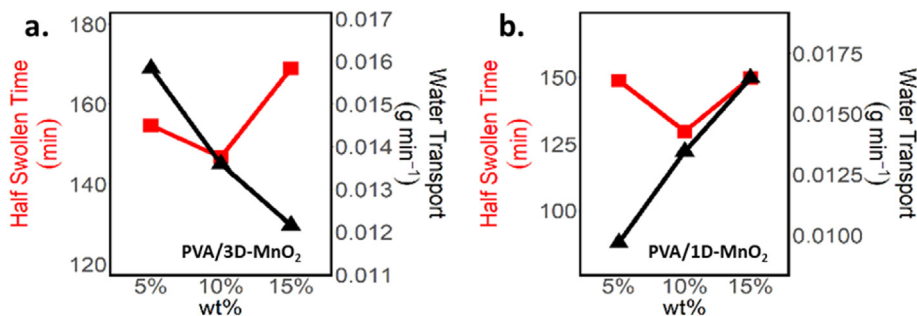
to generate high-water evaporation rate compared to bulk water and pure PVA hydrogel. This can be attributed to the hydrogels' high surface temperature and low evaporation enthalpy (Fig. S3) due to the incorporation of PTMs and the presence of high intermediate water ratio (Figure S2.2), respectively. The PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) was able to produce the highest net water evaporation rate of 2.8 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h), compared to other PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels. Of particular note, in comparison to bulk water and PVA hydrogel net evaporation, PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) generated 5.2 and 3.2 times higher respectively. Interestingly, both PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels water evaporation rate is optimized at 10 wt% MnO<sub>2</sub> loading, where PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) generated net evaporation rate of 2.6 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) as shown in Fig. 5c and d.

Furthermore, the solar-thermal conversion efficiency can be evaluated using Eq. (3):

$$\eta = \frac{\dot{m}(C_p \Delta T + \Delta H)}{c_{opt} I A \Delta t} \quad (3)$$

where  $\dot{m}$  is the change of water mass from water evaporation,  $C_p$  is the specific heat capacity of water (4.18 J/(g·K)),  $\Delta T$  is the temperature

difference between vapor and ambient,  $\Delta H$  is the vaporization enthalpy at the evaporation point,  $c_{opt}$  is the optical concentration,  $I$  is the solar irradiation (1 kW/m<sup>2</sup>),  $A$  is the material's exposed surface area, and  $\Delta t$  is the exposure time [47]. As seen from Eq. (3), the energy conversion efficiency is highly dependent on the value of  $\Delta H$ , which commonly can be determined by two methods [39,48]. In this study, we determined the  $\Delta H$ s by DSC-TGA measurements (Fig. S2, details are available in Supporting Information). The PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels managed to generate high evaporation performance and energy conversion efficiency with an increase of 3D MnO<sub>2</sub> loading percentage (Fig. 5c). At 10 and 15 wt%, PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> were able to have ca. 2.6 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h), and 96% and 99% efficiency, respectively. PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> however showed an optimum efficiency at 10 wt% 1D MnO<sub>2</sub> loading. Specifically, the PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> (10%) displays a higher evaporation rate of 2.8 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) with a  $\Delta H$  of 1411.8 kJ/kg and a conversion efficiency of 113%. In this study, conversion efficiency was calculated by considering the  $\Delta H$  obtained by DSC-TGA and the real-time surface temperature of the hydrogel (Table S1, Supplementary Material). The excess efficiency may indicate that these hydrogels experienced energy/heat transfer from environment



**Fig. 4.** Half-swollen time and water transport comparison between (a) PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and (b) PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>.

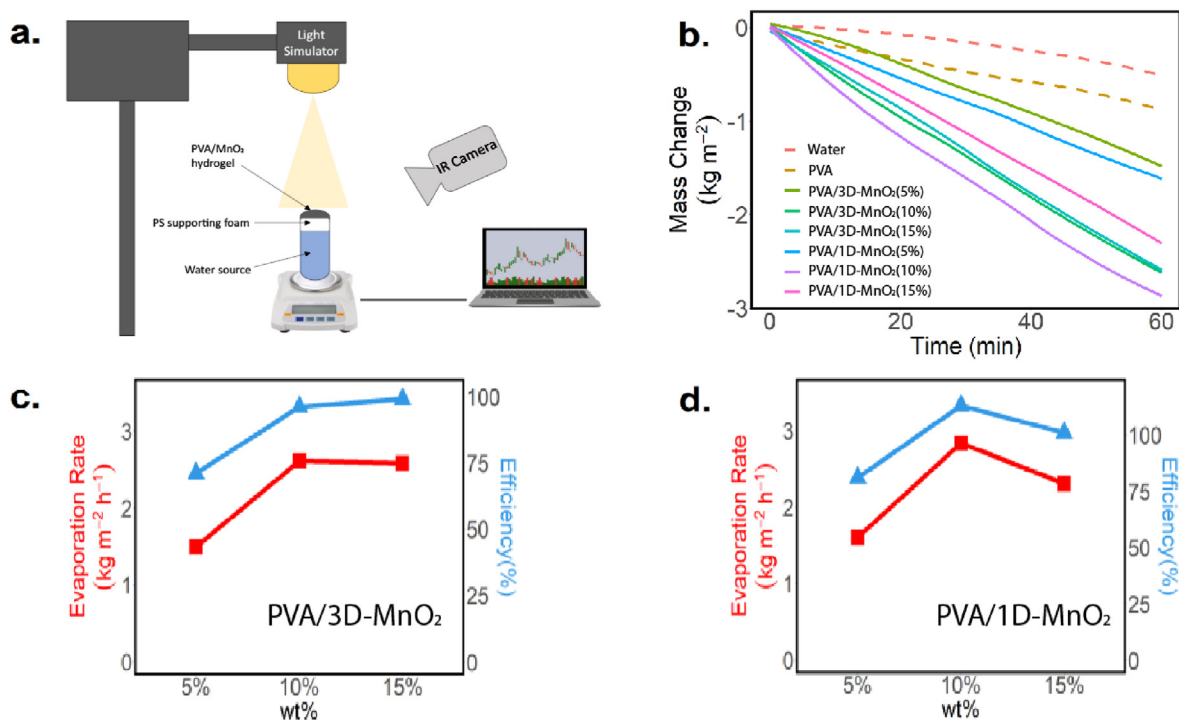


Fig. 5. (a) SVG set up. (b) Water mass loss rate between bulk water, PVA, and PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogels. Evaporation rate and efficiency comparison between (c) PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and (d) PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>.

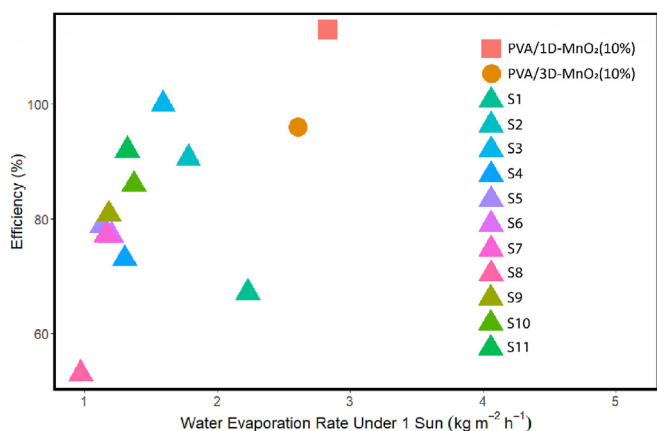


Fig. 6. The evaporation rate vs. energy conversion efficiency of the hydrogel-based SVGs using semiconductors. The details are listed in Table S2 (Supporting Material).

to the gels due to a temperature difference in the sealed system as experienced by Li et al. [49].

We further compared the performance of the PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) with other SVGs using semiconductors as PTMs and the results are shown in Fig. 6. As seen, PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub> and PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub> were able to outperform other semiconductor SVGs in water evaporation performance as well as conversion efficiency. This can be due to the low evaporation enthalpy that is produced by the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> matrix. For example, Song et al. [S10] SVG system demonstrated a high evaporation enthalpy of 2410 kJ/kg which is 1.7 and 1.9 times greater than PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) and PVA/3D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) respectively.

The obtained PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel was then used for desalination application using sea water sampling at Sydney coast (Sydney Darling Harbor: 33.8749° S, 151.2009° E). The hydrogel was exposed to sunlight for 1 h and the evaporation rate was recorded. After the hydrogel was cooled down to room temperature, the evaporation testing was repeated. As shown in Fig. 7a, PVA/1D-MnO<sub>2</sub>(10%) managed to produce fresh-water with an average of 2.8 kg/(m<sup>2</sup>·h) evaporation rate in 13-cycle testing. Of particular note, we did not observe severe salt accumulation on the surface of the hydrogel, thus high evaporation rate was maintained in the desalination application. These results indicate high durability, high performance stability and high salt resistance of the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel SVG system. The water vapor was then condensed and collected. The ions concentrations in the produced water were also

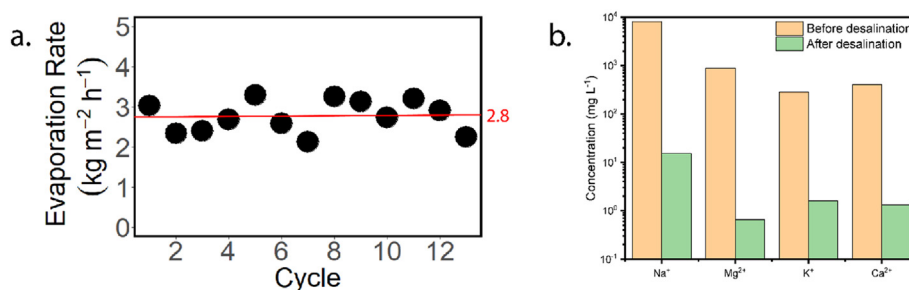


Fig. 7. (a) Evaporation performance stability and (b) the ICP-MS results of the PVA/MnO<sub>2</sub> hydrogel SVG in desalination application.

determined using ICP-MS. As shown in Fig. 7b, over 99% of salts ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ , and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) has been removed and the produced water far exceeds the WHO drinking water standard [50–52].

#### 4. Conclusion

A novel 1D metal oxide semiconductor was synthesized and incorporated into the PVA matrix to form a hydrogel-based SVG system. The 1D  $\text{MnO}_2$  displayed broad absorption range, high surface hydrophilicity and high light-to-heat conversion efficiency. The resultant hydrogel SVG system managed to produce a high-water evaporation rate of 2.8 kg/( $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{h}$ ) in both control and sea water desalination experiments with a very high energy conversion efficiency. The hydrogel SVG also displayed high durability and high salt resistance, achieving a stable evaporation performance in a long-term testing.

#### Declaration of competing interest

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

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.efmat.2022.08.001>.

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