

1 **Solar light degradation of organic dye pollutants and preparation of**
2 **bis(indoly)methanes using core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite**

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4 **Kaveh PARVANAK BOROJENI^{1*}, Zeinab TOHIDIYAN², Mina MIRZAEI¹**

5 ¹ Department of Chemistry, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord (115), Iran

6 ² Department of Chemistry, Shahrekord Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord, Iran.

7
8 e-mail: parvanak-ka@sku.ac.ir; Fax: 0098-038-32324419

9 ORCID:

10 First AUTHOR: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5995-5528>

11 Second AUTHOR: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1520-0147>

12 Third AUTHOR: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7486-2613>

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15 **Abstract**

16 In this research, a new ferromagnetic-recoverable core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO
17 nanocomposite of a certain size (20–25 nm) has been synthesized based on Cu(II)
18 complex coated on Fe₃O₄@SiO₂ nanoparticles by facile and fast solid state
19 microwave irradiation method. The photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposite
20 was investigated for degradation of methylene blue (MB) and methyl orange (MO)
21 dye pollutants in aqueous media under solar light irradiation. The nanocomposite

could destroy these dyes with high efficiency in short time. With comparison of degradation percentages can be concluded that the nanocomposite shows better photocatalytic activity for MB dye (97% in 180 s). Kinetic study revealed higher rate constant for degradation of MB ($k = 3.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}^{-1}$) with pseudo-zero-order model. Also, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite was an efficient magnetically recoverable catalyst for the preparation of bis(indolyl)methanes (BIMs) through the condensation of an aldehyde with 2 equivalents of indole in EtOH/H₂O as green solvents.

Key words: Core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite, Microwave irradiation, Solar-light photocatalytic degradation, Bis(indolyl)methanes, Catalysis

1. Introduction

Nowadays, protection of the environment has been received considerable attention. Polluter compounds are spread in environment from various sources. A type of hazardous polluter compounds are organic dyes, generated by industrial processes. The growing amount of different organic dyes in waste water is a worrying issue for human health and live species [1]. Consequently, it is necessary to develop strategies for removing them from environmental systems. Many techniques such as coagulation, flocculation, reverse osmosis, adsorption on the activated carbon, ultrafiltration, and adsorption have been reported as effective ways to remove the toxic dyes from waste water [2–3]. In recent years, photocatalytic degradation reactions have emerged as an alternative approach for the removal of different dye pollutants from waste water [4]. In fact, photocatalytic degradation

εο reactions are oxidation processes which lead to complete degradation of dye pollutants in
εϓ short times and even at low concentration. Due to versatility and relative simplicity along
εϛ with high degradation efficiency, very research efforts have focused on design and
εϜ preparation of various photocatalysts [5,6].

εϝ Core-shell nanostructures are complex systems that involve the benefits of both core
οο and shell to improve physiochemical properties. The core usually consists of the
οι inexpensive and easily oxidized metals and the shells include somewhat noble metals,
οϚ metal oxides, available carbon materials, polymers, silica, and so on [7]. Different methods
οϛ have been explored in the synthesis of core-shell systems, such as hydrothermal,
οϜ deposition–precipitation, and sonochemical method [8]. Among core-shell nanostructures,
οο core-shell composites with Fe_3O_4 at the center have been widely used because of their
οϓ characteristic properties such as easy separation from reaction vessel via an external magnet
οϛ and subsequent use in catalytic reactions, chemical stability, nontoxicity, high selectivity
οϜ and activity performance, and suitable industrial and biomedical applications [9,10].
οο However, applications of core-shell composites in catalytic field for preparing organic
οι compounds are rare. For instances, dendrimer–encapsulated Cu(II) nanoparticles supported
οϛ on superparamagnetic $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2$ nanoparticles and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2$ nanoparticles have
οϜ been applied as catalysts for the preparation of 5-substituted 1H-tetrazoles [11] and the
οο synthesis of tetrahydrobenzo[a]xanthen-11-ones [12], respectively.

οϛ BIMs are compounds consisting of two indolyl moieties which are connected to each
οϜ other by a carbon atom [13]. BIMs can be obtained either from different earthly and marine
οο natural sources or by the laboratory methods. The prominent biological activities associated
οι with BIMs are antimicrobial, antifungal, analgesic, and anti-inflammatory [14,15]. They are

78 inhibitors of bladder cancer [16]. Anti-cancer effects of 1,1,3-tri(3-indolyl)cyclohexane
79 (Scheme 1, I) in various lung cancer cells were surveyed [17]. Chromogenic 3,3'-
80 bisindolyl-4-azaphthalides (II) [18] has been employed as color formers in pressure-
81 sensitive or heat-sensitive recording materials. Also, complex (III) based on BIMs
82 containing radioactive metal ions (Gd^{3+}) [19] has been used as a contrast agent for radio-
83 imaging and visualization of various tissues and organs. One of the most frequently used
84 methods for the preparation of BIMs is the electrophilic substitution reaction of indole with
85 aldehydes and ketones. This reaction is usually catalyzed by several types of catalysts such
86 as $InCl_3$ [20], $LiClO_4$ [21], I_2 [22], sulfamic acid [23], HBF_4-SiO_2 [24], poly(ethylene-
87 glycol)-sulfonic acid (PEG- SO_3H) [25], sulfonated polyacrylamide [26], SiO_2-AlCl_3 [27],
88 Nafion-H® [28], [DABCO-H][HSO_4] [29], nano *n*-propylsulfonated $\gamma-Fe_2O_3$ [30],
89 $Sc(OTf)_3$ [31], CaO [32], graphene oxide [33], 4-(3-methylimidazolium)butane sulfonate
90 (MBS) [34], hyper-cross-linked polyaromatic spheres (HCP@ CH_2Br) [35], itaconic acid
91 [36], borophosphate glasses [37], and BF_3 -grafted $Fe_3O_4@sucrose$ nanoparticles [38].
92 However, many of these reported synthetic protocols suffer from some disadvantages like
93 long reaction time, low yields, strongly acidic conditions, tedious work-up, the use of toxic
94 solvents, formation of by-products, and difficulty of recovery and recycling. Therefore, the
95 preparation of BIMs seems still a challenge, especially from the viewpoint of green
96 chemistry.

97 Recently we introduced solid-state microwave method as a newer and 'greener'
98 synthetic methodology for the preparation of NiO nanoparticles [39]. This method has
99 interesting features and might find application for the preparation of nanomaterials with
100 improved properties which can provide considerable benefit in the fields of medicine. We

also used this method for the preparation of Co–Sn–Cu oxides/graphene nanocomposites as green and recyclable catalysts for preparing 1,8-dioxo-octahydroxanthenes and apoptosis-inducing agents in MCF-7 human breast cancer [40]. The superiority of solid-state microwave method over the above mentioned conventional methods [8,41,42] for the synthesis of core-shell systems are reduction of physical and chemical cost, simplicity, safety, generation of pure nanoparticles as well as this method is green (no surfactant) and fast. Along this line, herein, we want to synthesis of core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite by solid-state microwave method based on a novel nano-sized $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor, prepared from the reaction of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$ with a copper (II) Schiff base complex (CuL). Photocatalytic activity of the synthesized core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite was investigated for degradation of the cationic and anionic organic dye pollutants (MB and MO, respectively) under solar light. Also, this nanocomposite was applied as a new heterogeneous catalyst for the preparation of BIMs under mild conditions.

1.5

1.6 **2. Experimental**

1.7 **2.1. General**

1.8 The reagents and solvents were either prepared in our laboratory or were purchased from
1.9 commercial suppliers Merck and Fluka. For the microwave irradiation, a microwave oven
1.10 (LG: MH6535GISW, 1700 W, Korea) was applied. Ultrasonic (US) generator was carried
1.11 out on ultrasonic probe (Top-Sonics UPH-400, Germany). Proton nuclear magnetic
1.12 resonance (^1H NMR) spectra were recorded on 400 MHz spectrometer (Bruker, Germany)
1.13 in deuterated chloroform. Fourier-transformed infrared spectroscopy (FT–IR) was used to

114 obtain spectra of samples using a Shimadzu system FT-IR 8400 spectrophotometer
115 (Japanese) by KBr pellets. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was carried out using a
116 Rigaku D-max C III, X-ray diffractometer with Ni-filtered Cu Ka radiation (PANalytical
117 X'Pert Pro, Netherlands). The morphology of samples was founded with field emission
118 scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) that was taken on a Hitachi s4160/Japan with gold
119 coating that was equipped with a link EDX analyzer. The magnetic property of the sample
120 was measured by a vibrating sample magnetometer (VSM, Meghnatis Kavir Kashan Co.,
121 Kashan, Iran) at room temperature. UV-Vis spectra were measured on a double-beam
122 Shimadzu 1650 PC UV-Vis (Japanese) and the samples were dispersed in 20 mL EtOH at
123 room temperature for 20 min. Melting points were found out using a Fisher-Jones melting-
124 point apparatus (USA). Reaction monitoring was accomplished by thin layer
125 chromatography (TLC) (silica gel 60-F250 precoated, England). Transmission electron
126 microscopy (TEM) was imaged by Philips CM30 (Netherlands), a 300kV.

127

128 **2.2. Preparation of the nano-sized Fe₃O₄@SiO₂**

129 Fe₃O₄ magnetic nanoparticles were prepared by Fathirad's method [43]. First, a solution of
130 20 mL FeSO₄.2H₂O (1.6 g, aq.) and 50 mL FeCl₃.6H₂O (3.8 g, aq.) was prepared. Then, 10
131 mL NH₃ solution (25%) was slowly added to the above solution at the presence of
132 ultrasonic irradiation (100 W) for 15 min under N₂ atmosphere. After a few minutes, a
133 black suspension was generated and then the Fe₃O₄ magnetic nanoparticles were separated
134 using an external permanent magnet. The nanoparticles were washed with distilled water,
135 ethanol, and dried under vacuum at 70 °C. After the preparation of Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles,
136 Fe₃O₄@SiO₂ structure was prepared by coating the Fe₃O₄ nanoparticles with tetraethyl

137 orthosilicate (TEOS). For this purpose, to 30 mL ethanolic suspension of the obtained
138 Fe_3O_4 was slowly added 4 mL TEOS. Then, 12 mL aqueous solution of ammonia (25 %)
139 was added to this solution in the presence of ultrasonic irradiation (100 W) for 10 min. The
140 dark brown precipitate, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$, was formed with stirring at room temperature after 24
141 h. The obtained $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$ was filtered off, washed with methanol, and dried under
142 vacuum at room temperature.

143

144 **2.3. Preparation of 4,4'-dibromo-2,2'-[cyclohexane-1,2- 145 diylbis(nitrilomethanylylidene)]diphenol (H_2L)**

146 To a 20 mL of methanolic solution of 5-bromosalicylaldehyde (0.4 g, 2 mmol) was added
147 1,2-diaminocyclohexane (0.1 g, 1 mmol) with continuous stirring. Then, the above solution
148 was refluxed until a yellow precipitate was formed after 60 min. The precipitate was
149 filtered, washed with methanol and ether, and dried under vacuum at 50 °C. The solid crude
150 product was recrystallized from a solution of MeOH and DMF (2:1 in volume) to yield
151 pure crystals of H_2L after several days [44].

152

153 **2.4. Preparation of copper (II) Schiff base complex (CuL)**

154 H_2L ligand (0.3 mmol, 0.15 g), in methanol (10 mL), was exposed to ultrasonic irradiation
155 (150 W). Afterwards, 10 mL methanolic solution of $\text{Cu}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.3 mmol, 0.14
156 g) was added drop wise to the above mixture, followed by 15 min sonication at room
157 temperature. The mixture was filtered and the CuL powder (brown color) was washed
158 successively with methanol and diethyl ether, and dried in air at ambient temperature
159 overnight [45].

160 **2.5. Preparation of the nano-sized Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor**

161 A suspension of Fe₃O₄@SiO₂ (1 g) in chloroform (50 mL) was prepared by sonication and
162 then excess amount of CuL Schiff base complex (1.2 g, 2 mmol) was added drop wise to
163 the prepared suspension under ultrasonic irradiation for 30 min. The obtained dark brown
164 suspension was stirred at room temperature for 12 h, afterwards the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL
165 product was filtered off, washed twice with chloroform and diethyl ether, and dried under
166 vacuum at room temperature overnight.

167

168 **2.6. Preparation of the core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite**

169 To prepare core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite, 2 g of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL
170 precursor was poured into a porcelain crucible and it was placed in another bigger porcelain
171 crucible, filled with CuO powder (as microwave irradiation absorber). The collection was
172 placed in a microwave oven under microwaves irradiation in air (950 W, 350 °C). The
173 generated heat led to the decomposition of precursor sample. After 10 min, decomposition
174 of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor was completed. The Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO
175 nanocomposite product was washed with ethanol and dried under vacuum at room
176 temperature overnight.

177

178 **2.7. Photocatalytic tests**

179 The photocatalytic ability of the core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite was
180 surveyed for the removal of MB or MO as organic dye pollutants from aqueous solutions.
181 First, the dosage of photocatalyst (0.004–0.007 mg), amount of H₂O₂ (0–5 mL), and pH of
182 the solution (5–10) were selected and optimized. The photocatalytic tests were performed

183 on the days (10 a.m. to 2 p.m.) of bright sunny light (average light intensity of 180 mW cm⁻²). Typically, 0.005 g of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite as photocatalyst was added
184 2). Typically, 0.005 g of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite as photocatalyst was added
185 to 50 mL of MB or MO aqueous solution with concentration of 4 ppm and the mixture was
186 stirred (500 rpm) at room temperature in dark for 30 min, in order to establish an
187 adsorption–desorption equilibrium between catalyst and dye. Then, the mixture was
188 exposed to solar light in the presence of an appropriate amount of H₂O₂ (30%) at suitable
189 pH, and consequently the degradation process of the dye took place. The degradation of
190 MB and MO dyes was carried out at pH= 7 using 2 mL H₂O₂ and at pH= 9 using 1 mL
191 H₂O₂, respectively. At determined time intervals, the photocatalyst powder was isolated by
192 centrifugation of 3 mL of the mixture and the degradation process of each dye was
193 estimated by measuring the absorptions of MB and MO dyes at 663 and 462 nm,
194 respectively, on their corresponding UV-Vis spectra. The pH of solution was adjusted to
195 determined values by the dropwise addition of HCl (1 M) or NaOH (1 M) to the solution.
196 The percent of degradation was measured by the following equation (Eq. (1)):
197
$$\text{Degradation (\%)} = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100$$
, where C_t is the final concentration of dye solution after
198 a determined time (t) and C₀ is the initial concentration of dye solution. After each
199 experiment, the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite was separated from the solutions by an
200 external permanent magnet and then it was washed several times with water and ethanol
201 and dried at 70 °C, and reused for the next experiments.

202

203 **2.8. Typical procedure for the preparation of BIMs**

204 A mixture of 2-thienyl carbaldehyde (1 mmol) and indole (2 mmol) was placed in a round-
205 bottom flask containing 5 mL of EtOH/H₂O (1:1). Subsequently, Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO
206 nanocomposite catalyst (0.03 g) was added to the mixture and stirred at 80 °C. After the
207 completion of the reaction as followed by TLC (chloroform), the catalyst was separated by
208 an external permanent magnet. The remaining mixture was concentrated on a rotary
209 evaporator under reduced pressure to give the desired product. The products were purified
210 by recrystallization from ethanol or chromatographed on silica plates with chloroform as
211 eluent where necessary.

212

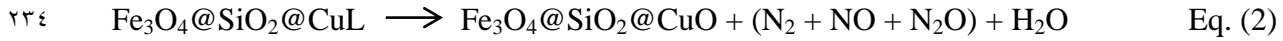
213 **3. Results and Discussion**

214 **3.1.Synthesis and structural characterization of nanocomposites**

215 The core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite was prepared from Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL
216 as a new precursor by solid-state microwave method (Scheme 2). In the first step, Fe₃O₄
217 nanoparticles reacted with TEOS to afford the core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂ [43]. In the second
218 step, the nano-sized new copper (II) Schiff base complex (CuL) was synthesized from the
219 chemical reaction of 1,2-diaminocyclohexane with 5-bromosalicylaldehyde, followed by
220 the reaction with copper salt, Cu(CH₃COO)₂.2H₂O, under ultrasonic irradiation [44,45].
221 Afterwards, Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor was prepared from the treatment of Fe₃O₄@SiO₂
222 with CuL Schiff base complex under ultrasonic irradiation. In the next step,
223 Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor was exposed to microwave irradiation in order to be
224 converted to core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite. However, the precursor
225 remained unchanged for 30 min, which it shows the compound cannot absorb microwaves.
226 Therefore, it seems that attendance of microwave absorber is required. For this purpose,

227 CuO powder was used as microwave irradiation absorber. By using CuO, we observed that
228 the precursor was completely decomposed during the absorption of heat from the hot CuO
229 and the nano-sized Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO powder was generated through the equation below
230 (Eq. (2)) [46]. Noting that in the synthesized core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO, Fe₃O₄ is a
231 magnetic core which increases magnetic property of particles and SiO₂ is chosen as an
232 intermediary layer for the connection between shell layer (CuO) and the core (Fe₃O₄).

233



235

236 Figures 1a,b show the FT-IR spectra of the nano-sized CuL complex and
237 Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor, respectively. In Figure 1b, the band at 1609 cm⁻¹ was
238 attributed to C=N group that show the red shift to lower frequency compared with those of
239 CuL complex (1640 cm⁻¹) [45] as a result of the metal complex formation. The peaks at
240 1095 and 466 cm⁻¹ were assigned to Si-O and Fe-O bands, respectively [47] By
241 comparison of the IR spectrum of the nano-sized Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO (Figure 1c) with
242 Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor (Figure 1b), it will be clear that the bands of CuL complex
243 were diminished and stretching frequencies of Si-O and Fe-O bands shifted toward 1097
244 and 467 cm⁻¹, respectively. In addition, in Figure 1c, the distinct band at 542 cm⁻¹ was
245 related to the Cu-O band in monoclinic phase [48] and the bands at 1630 and 3300-3400
246 cm⁻¹ could be assigned to the bending vibration and stretching vibration of H₂O absorbed
247 by KBr pellets or the sample, respectively [45]. Thus, the IR spectral results indicate the

successful decomposition of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor by solid-state microwave method and formation of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite.

Figure 2 exhibits XRD analysis of the synthesized $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite. The XRD result manifests the peaks of CuO in monoclinic phase (Space group: Cc, No: 9). The crystallographic parameters of a, b, and c are 4.69, 3.42 and 5.13 Å, respectively. Also, values of α , β , and γ parameters are 90.00, 99.54, and 90.00°, respectively. The significant peaks appeared at $2\theta = 35.77^\circ$, 38.95° , and 49.07° that can be exactly related to (-1 1 1), (1 1 1), and (-2 0 2) planes of crystal, respectively. In this pattern, only CuO (JCPDS Card No. 80–1916) and Fe_3O_4 (JCPDS Card No. 75–0449) phases were observed. It is obvious that SiO_2 have amorphous structure [49]. As shown in Figure 2, there are no peaks of impurity, suggesting that the pure crystalline $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ was formed via solid state decomposition of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor under microwave irradiation. Also, in the XRD pattern, wide width of the peaks is due to the formation of small size particles of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ (Table 1). The mean size of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ particles calculated by the Debye–Scherrer equation was found to be 23.83 nm [50].

The morphology of the synthesized $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite were investigated by FESEM analysis. The images of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor were shown in Figures 3a,b at different magnification. As it can be seen, the morphology of the precursor is nanorod. However, from Figures 3c,d, it is clear that the morphology of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ particles are spherical shape and they are quite different from that of the precursor compound. Therefore, these results reveal that $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor was converted to $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ particles by solid-state microwave method.

271 Figure 4a displays TEM analysis of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite. A typical
272 image of the synthesized sample shows core-shell shape of uniform nano crystalline
273 structures. The black spot shows Fe_3O_4 core which is surrounded by SiO_2 . Also, ashen parts
274 after SiO_2 regions illustrate CuO shell. The particle size distribution of nanocomposite is
275 20–25 nm (Figure 4b). The particle size estimated by XRD diffraction pattern and the TEM
276 analysis have good match with each other.

277 EDX spectrum of the core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite is illustrated in
278 Figure 5 and contains signals of Cu, Fe, Si, and, O elements. The Au and Si signals
279 (notated as coating) were observed duo to the instrument. Additionally, the weight and
280 atomic percentages of the resided elements in obtained nanocomposite have been shown in
281 a Table inserted in Figure 5. Therefore, from the above results, it can again be concluded
282 that $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite was papered by solid-state microwaved method.

283 The alteration in magnetization (M) vs. applied field (H) for the core-shell
284 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite at room temperature with field sweeping from – 15,000
285 to + 15,000 Oe is shown in Figure 6. The hysteresis loop shows a weak ferromagnetic
286 behavior. The hysteresis loop of nano-sized materials was related to the magnetic
287 anisotropy of the lattice, domain structure (pinning effect of magnetic domain walls at grain
288 boundaries), as well as impurities within the nano-sized structures [51]. The remnant
289 magnetization (M_r) and saturation magnetization (M_s) were found to be 0.25 and 3.22 emu
290 g^{-1} , respectively. The value of coercive field (H_c) was estimated as 0.053 Oe. The magnetic
291 property of synthesized core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite may be attributed to
292 the different parameters such as sample shape, size, crystallinity, magnetization direction,
293 and synthetic method.

294 The optical property of the prepared Schiff base complex CuL, nano-sized
295 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor, and core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite was
296 studied by UV–Vis spectroscopy. Figure 7a indicates the absorbance spectrum of the Schiff
297 base complex CuL. The bands at 200–300 nm were due to $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$ and $\text{n-}\pi^*$ transitions. The
298 band at around 380 nm was related to ${}^2\text{B}_{1g} \rightarrow {}^2\text{E}_g$ transition at D_{4h} field [52]. In the
299 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ spectrum (Figure 7b), the strong absorption band was observed at
300 around 250 nm, which is due to the $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$ transitions of the phenolic rings [53]. Also, the
301 bands appeared at 300–400 nm were related to the charge transfer transitions, MLCT and
302 LMCT (metal ligand charge transfer and ligand metal charge transfer, respectively), which
303 have shifted in comparison with those of CuL complex [45], due to the formation of
304 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$. In Figure 7c, the bands observed are related to the electronic transition
305 from Cu (3d) to O (2p) orbitals [54].

306 The band gap of the semiconductors can be calculated by Tauc's equation (Eq. (3)):
307 $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/n} = A(h\nu - E_g)$, where α , $h\nu$, A , and E_g are coefficient of absorption (cm^{-1}), energy of
308 photon (eV), proportionality constant, and the band gap energy (eV), respectively. The
309 value of the exponent denotes the nature of the electronic transition (allowed or forbidden),
310 and whether it is direct or indirect: $n = 1/2$ for direct allowed transitions, $n = 3/2$ for direct
311 forbidden transitions, $n = 2$ for indirect allowed transitions, and $n = 3$ for indirect forbidden
312 transitions. Plotting the $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/n}$ versus $(h\nu)$ is a matter of testing $n = 1/2$ or $n = 2$ to compare
313 which provides the better fit and thus identifies the correct transition type. Figures 7d and e
314 show curves of $(\alpha h\nu)^2 - h\nu$ for the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor and core-shell
315 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite, respectively, showing a direct allowed transition. The

316 linear region has been used to extrapolate to the X-axis intercept to find the E_g value. Using
317 this concept, the E_g values of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor and core-shell
318 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite were found to be 4.7 and 3.2 eV, respectively. Nothing
319 that the E_g values of Fe_3O_4 and $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2$ have been found to be 1.3 and 1.68 eV,
320 respectively [55]. As it can be seen, E_g of core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite
321 has shifted in comparison with those of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuL}$ precursor. The band of core-
322 shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite shows red shift toward CuO thin films [56] or
323 blue shift in comparison with quantum dots of CuO [57]. This difference is probably related
324 to morphology, size, and, effect of the present elements or synthetic method.

325 Because of a moderate band gap (3.2 eV) of core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$
326 nanocomposite, we anticipated that it can act as a photocatalyst for destroying the dye
327 pollutants. For this purpose, the photocatalytic activity of core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$
328 nanocomposite was investigated for solar light degradation of MB and MO organic dye
329 pollutants. Firstly, the experiments were carried out for degradation of MB as a typical
330 cationic dye. The degradation of MB dye was investigated at 663 nm at which the dye
331 shows a strong absorption. Figure 8a shows the values of C_t/C_0 of MB dye in different
332 conditions. Clearly, the C_t/C_0 values under the optimized conditions (pH= 7 and 2 mL of
333 H_2O_2) strongly decreased at room temperature duo to the solar light degradation process.
334 The H_2O_2 acts as an assisted-degradation and produces more free radicals ($\text{HO}\bullet$), which
335 leads to faster and more effective degradation. However use of further amounts of hydrogen
336 peroxide, up critical concentration, will not enhance the rate of dye degradation process
337 [58].

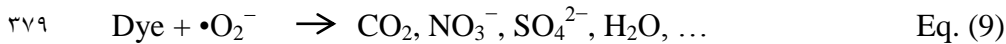
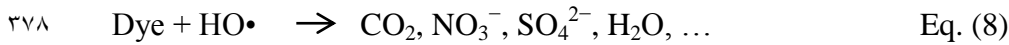
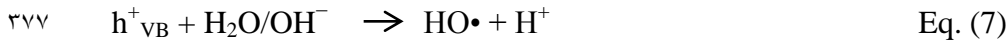
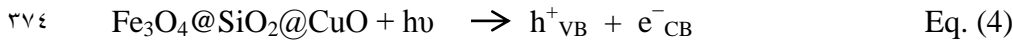
338 The characteristic absorption bands of MB dye at optimized conditions at 663 nm at
339 different times were given in Figure 8b. Clearly, the characteristic absorption decreases
340 with the passage of time. The absorption of MB is about zero after 180 s solar light
341 irradiation. During the degradation process, the intense blue colour of the initial solution
342 was decreased until becomes almost colourless, indicating the successful solar light
343 degradation process of MB. It is worth noting that, the absorption bands of MB were not
344 shifted at 663 nm, denoting that the degradation of MB is due to the degradation of the
345 chromophore groups [59]. Thus, the core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite is an
346 efficacious photocatalyst for the degradation of MB dye in short time with a degradation
347 efficiency of 97 %. In order to demonstrate the effectiveness of photons in dye degradation
348 processes, typically, 0.005 g of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite was added to 50 mL
349 of MB or MO aqueous solution with concentration of 4 ppm and the mixture was stirred
350 (500 rpm) at room temperature in dark for 30 min. UV-Vis spectra showed that the
351 significant absorption peaks of dyes were observed without decreasing. Therefore, dye
352 degradation is accomplished in the presence of light.

353 Based on this encouraging result, the core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite
354 was subsequently extended to the degradation of MO as a typical anionic dye in similar
355 conditions. The experimental tests showed that the values of C_t/C_0 of MO dye under
356 optimized conditions (pH= 9 and 1 mL of H_2O_2) decreased sharply at room temperature
357 (Figure 8c). The intensity change of the absorption bands at 462 nm over of the
358 $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite catalyst is plotted in Figure 8d as a function of time.
359 After 25 min, the degradation efficiency for MO was estimated as 72 %. When the results
360 obtained for the degradation of MB and MO dyes using the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$

371 nanocomposite were compared with each other, it was revealed that the degradation of MB
 372 dye (the cationic dye) was performed with higher yield in a shorter time, which indicates
 373 that the surface of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite catalyst is presumably
 374 negatively-charged.

375 A radical mechanism for the solar light degradation of MB or MO dyes over core-shell
 376 Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite is proposed in Figure 9 [55]. During irradiation,
 377 Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite ($E_g = 3.2$ eV) can create electron-hole pairs (Eq. (4)).
 378 The electrons on the conductive band (CB) react with H₂O₂ molecules to produce HO• and
 379 •O₂⁻ radicals (Eqs. 5 and 6). Meanwhile, holes on the valence band (VB) would be reacted
 370 with the H₂O molecules or OH⁻ ions to form HO• radicals (Eq. (7)). The produced active
 371 HO• and •O₂⁻ radicals effectively degrade the dye molecules to CO₂, H₂O and other
 372 inorganic products (Eqs. (8) and (9)).

373



380

381 The solar light degradation kinetics of MB (Figure 10a) and MO (Figure 10b) dyes
 382 were determined. The pseudo-zero order model was used: $C_t = -k_t t + C_0$, where C_0 and C_t are

the dye concentrations before and after solar light irradiation, respectively, t is the reaction time as well as k is the rate constant. As shown in Figure 10, the k values for the degradation of MB and MO dyes were found to be $3.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ and $0.213 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}^{-1}$, respectively. The results indicate that the MB degradation rate is more than those of MO dye. The k value for the photodegradation of MB dye using the Fe_3O_4 nanoparticles has been found to be $1.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ [60], lower than that of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite ($3.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}^{-1}$), thus the latter ones seem to be more effective for dye degradation process.

One of the important issues in the catalytic experiments is stability and reusability of the catalysts. The synthesized core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite is a magnetic material and after each reaction it was easily segregated using an external permanent magnet. After washing core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite severally with deionized water, the solid was dried and reused for consecutive cycles for the degradation of MB or MB dyes. The results showed that $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite can be reused up to five cycles with no significant decline in degradation efficiency (Figure 11a). Negligible loss in its activity is due to loss of catalyst during separation or through washing cycles. These results were authenticated with FESEM and EDX spectra of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite after fifth reuse (Figures 11b and c), indicating that the structure of the catalyst was preserved after recovery.

Finally, the photocatalytic performance of the synthesized core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite, for degradation of MB and MO dye pollutants was compared with previously reported literature (Table 2). The results showed that $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@ \text{SiO}_2@ \text{CuO}$ nanocomposite provides better catalytic performances than the previously reported photocatalysts from view of the degradation efficiency and reaction

rate. Notably, whereas many catalysts used for the degradation of dyes (entries 1–6) require an additional energy (UV irradiation, ultrasound or microwave source) or heating conditions, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite does not need an external energy and the degradation process of dyes was carried out only under solar energy. Noteworthy is that in a recent work [66], nanoplate of mixed- $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ synthesized by precipitation method was reported as a photocatalyst for destroying the MO dye. However, the degradation efficiency was low (17.6%) and the degradation process could be accomplished only under UV–Vis irradiation. The superiority of our core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite over nanoplate of mixed- $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ seems to depend on the differences in morphology and type of precursor, and also applied synthetic method. In the solid-state microwave decomposition method, at the molecular level, microwaves interact with the reactants and the electromagnetic energy is generated. This energy change to heat by rapid kinetics of the molecules and can improve the chemical reaction [39].

Encouraged by the results obtained from the photocatalytic efficiency of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ in degradation of organic dye pollutants, we turned our attention to examine the catalytic activity of this nanocomposite for the preparation of BIMs. Catalytic experiments were initiated with the reaction of 2-thienyl carbaldehyde (1 equiv.) with indole (2 equiv.) as a typical reaction. To find the optimum reaction conditions, the influence of the solvent nature, reaction temperature, and amount of catalyst were investigated. The best yields were obtained in EtOH/ H_2O (1:1) at 80 °C in the presence of 0.03 g of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite. After this, the performance of this approach was explored for the preparation of a wide variety of BIMs. BIMs were obtained in excellent yields using $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite from various aliphatic and

429 aromatic aldehydes, having different substituents, and indole (Table 3, entries 1–7, 10–12).
430 Also, heteroaromatic aldehydes smoothly reacted with indole using $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$
431 nanocomposite to yield their corresponding BIMs (entries 8,9). Reaction of ketones with
432 indole was very slow (entry 13), due to steric effects, and the product was afforded only in
433 trace amounts even after extended time (120 min). In all cases, the reaction proceeds
434 smoothly without the formation of any undesirable products, which normally are observed
435 under the influence of strong acid catalysts. The work-up is reduced to a mere separation of
436 the magnetic catalyst and evaporation of the solvent. Figure 12 shows the ^1H NMR
437 spectrum of the 3,3'-(2-thienylmethylene)bis-1H-indole (as a brick red powder).

438 To explore the actual role of $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite in the synthesis of
439 BIMs, we explain a plausible mechanism of the reaction in Scheme 3. An activated
440 aldehyde carry out an electrophilic substitution reaction at C-3 of an indole, which after
441 loss of water yields intermediate I. Addition of another molecule of indole to intermediate I,
442 like the Michael addition fashion, yields intermediate II, which produces the target product
443 after aromatization takes place via deprotonation.

444 The reusability of the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite catalyst in the synthesis of
445 BIMs was studied. The catalyst was reused up to five times without remarkable loss of its
446 efficiency (Figure 13).

447 A comparison of the present procedure, using $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite, with
448 selected previously reported catalysts is presented in Table 4. Clearly, $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$
449 nanocomposite in addition to having the advantages such as easy separation and
450 recyclability, has fine catalytic performance compared to other reported protocols.

4. Conclusion

In summary, well-defined core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ composite was prepared via a fast and efficient solid state microwave irradiation. The composite is a ferromagnetic material in the nano scale range of size (20–25 nm) with a moderate band gap of 3.2 eV, which make it suitable for applications in areas such as electronics and photonics. The MB and MO dyes were degraded over $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite as a reusable photocatalyst with 97 and 72% efficiency, respectively. The important feature of the present protocol was the use of solar energy to accomplish the degradation of dye pollutants. Also, the nanocomposite exhibited high catalytic activity in the BIMs synthesis. The catalyst is easily separable by an external magnet and its catalytic activity remains after several reaction cycles. The cleaner reaction profiles, simple work-up, no competitive side reactions, high reaction rates, and high yields of the desired products are other advantages of this method. The synthesis and applications of other core-shell nanocomposites with different magnetic cores using solid state microwave method is under investigation.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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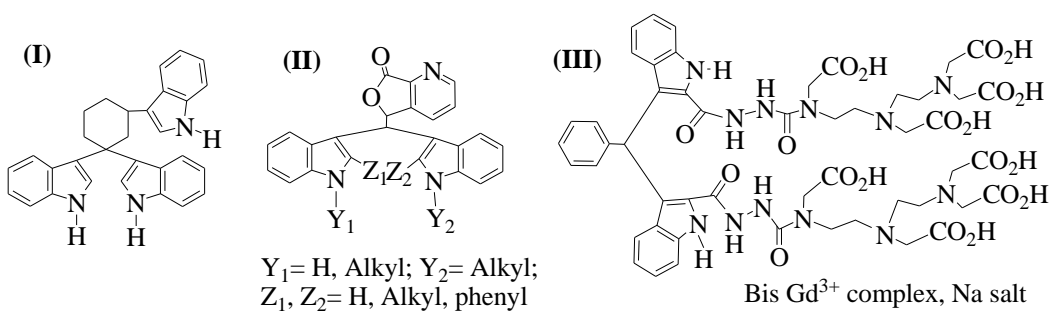
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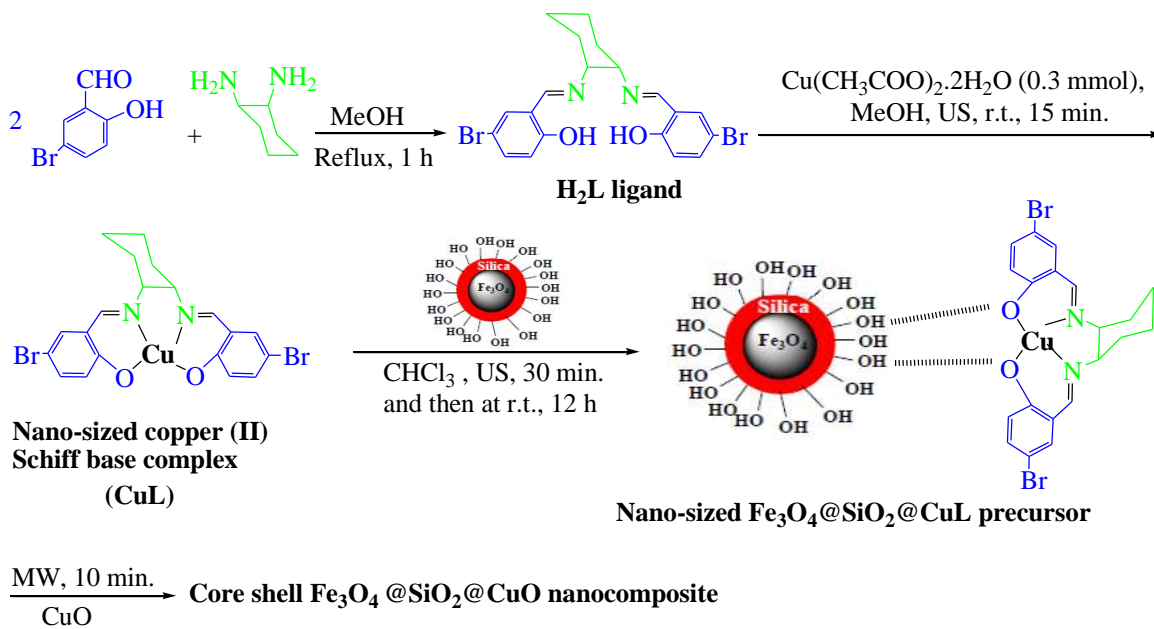
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Scheme 1. Biological applications of a series of BIM derivatives.

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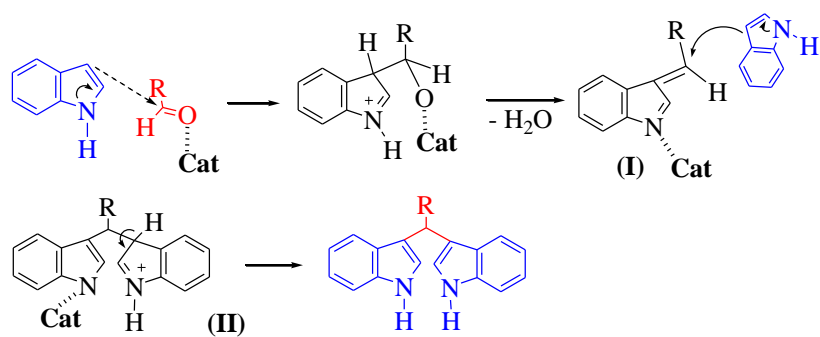
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US: Ultrasonic irradiation; MW: Microwave irradiation

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Scheme 2. The synthetic routes for Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite.

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۷۲۴ **Scheme 3.** A probable mechanism of the reaction of aldehydes with indole in the presence
 ۷۲۵ of Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite as catalyst.

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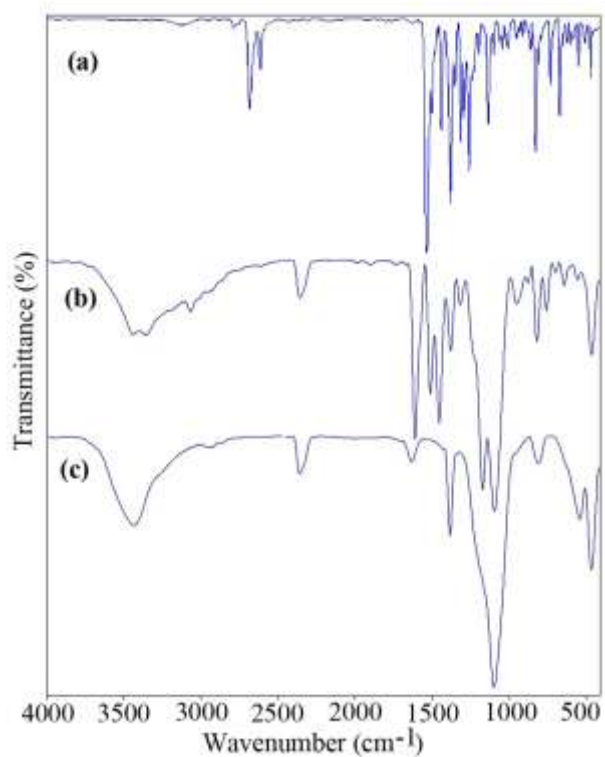
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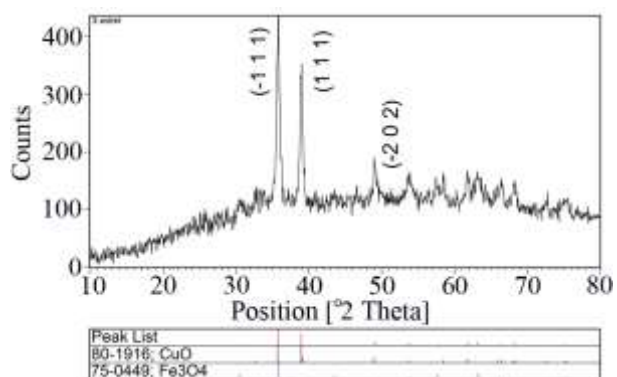
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V 4 4 **Figure 1.** FT-IR spectra of the nano-sized CuL complex (a), Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor

V 4 5 (b), and Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite (c).

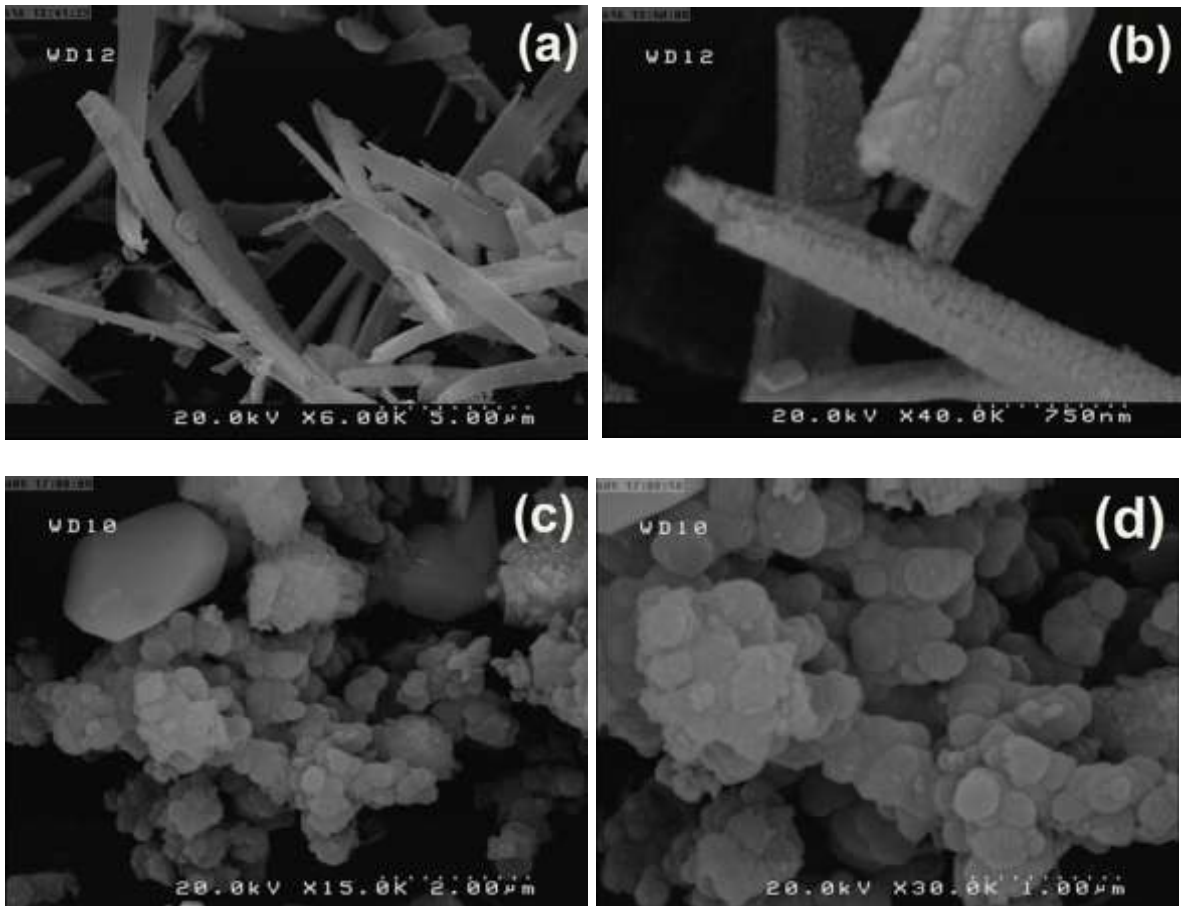
V 4 6



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V 4 8 **Figure 2.** XRD pattern of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite.

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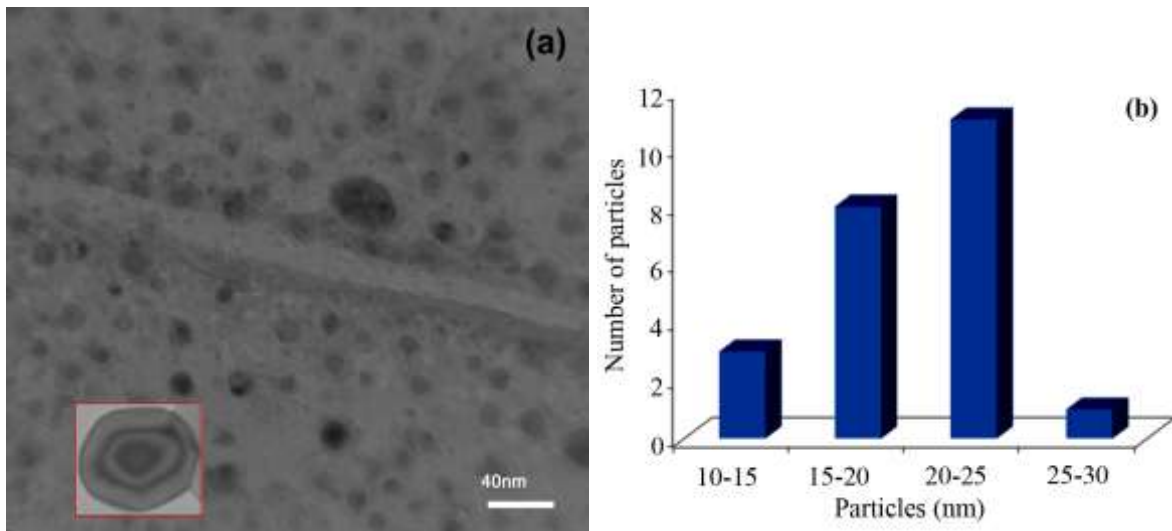
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Figure 3. FESEM of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor (a,b) and Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite (c,d) at different magnifications.



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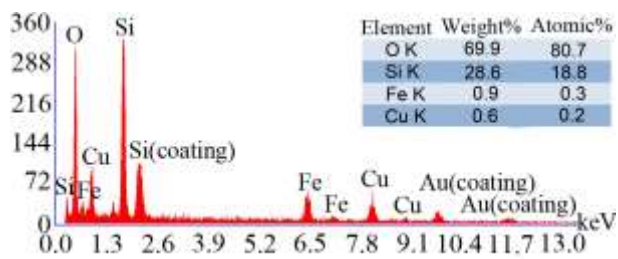
762 **Figure 4.** TEM image of core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite (a) and particle
 763 size distribution (b).

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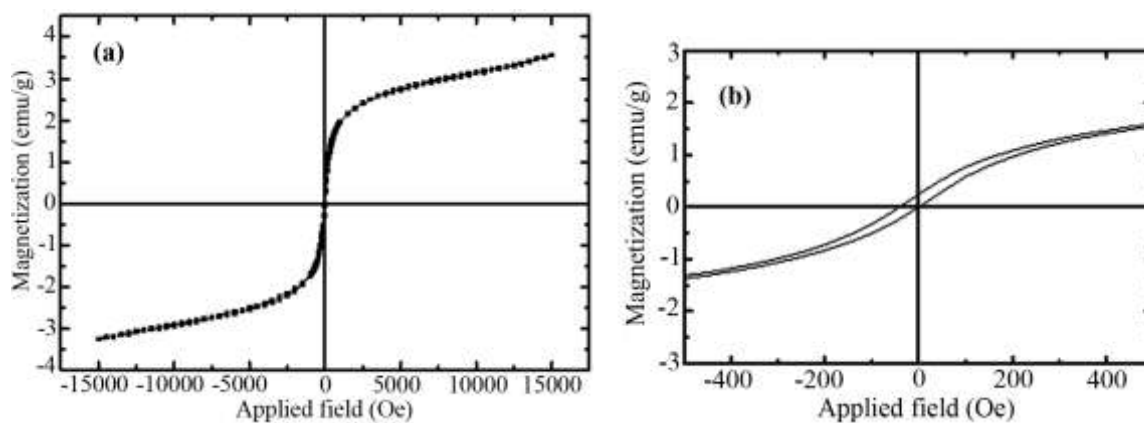
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769 **Figure 5.** EDX spectrum of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite.

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Figure 6. Magnetization versus applied magnetic field for Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO

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nanocomposite at room temperature (a) and enlarged view of the hysteresis loop in the low-

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field region (b).

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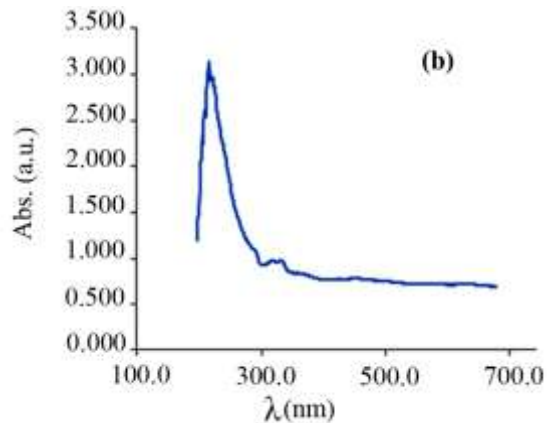
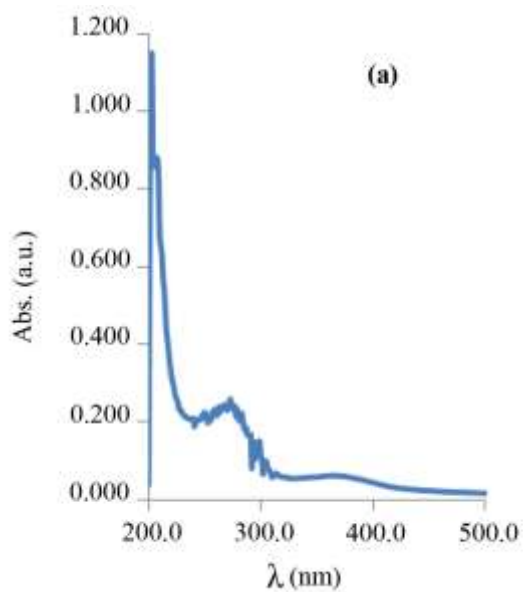
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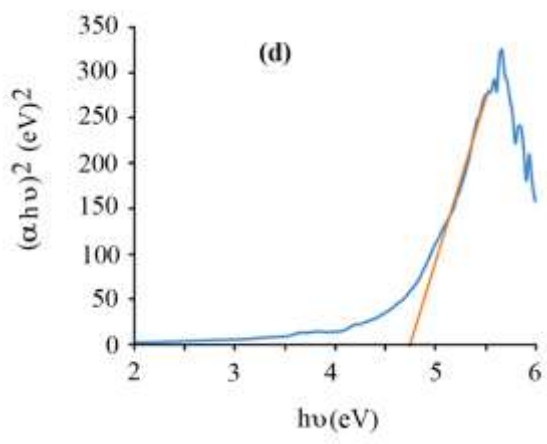
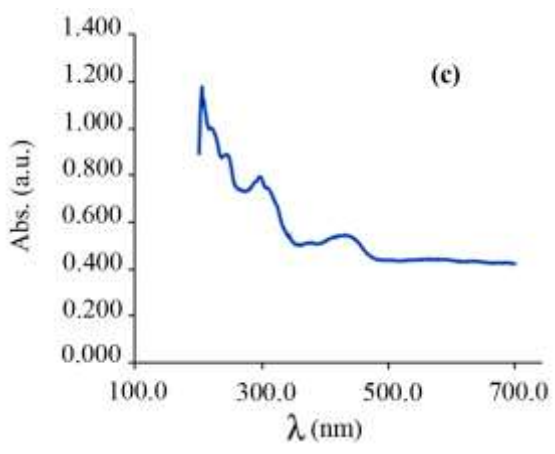
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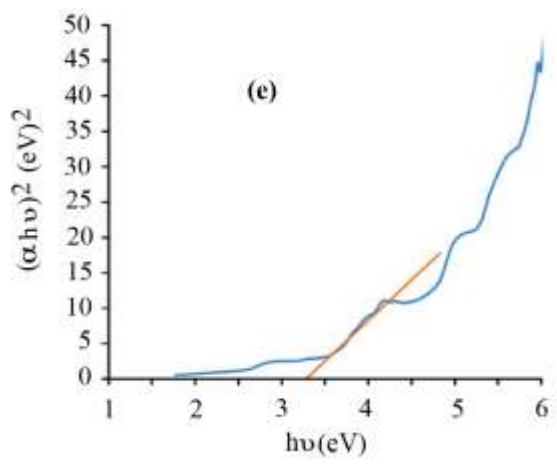
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786 **Figure 7.** Electronic spectra of Schiff base complex CuL (a), the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL
787 precursor (b), and core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite (c) and $(\alpha h\nu)^2-h\nu$ curves
788 of the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuL precursor (d) and core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposites
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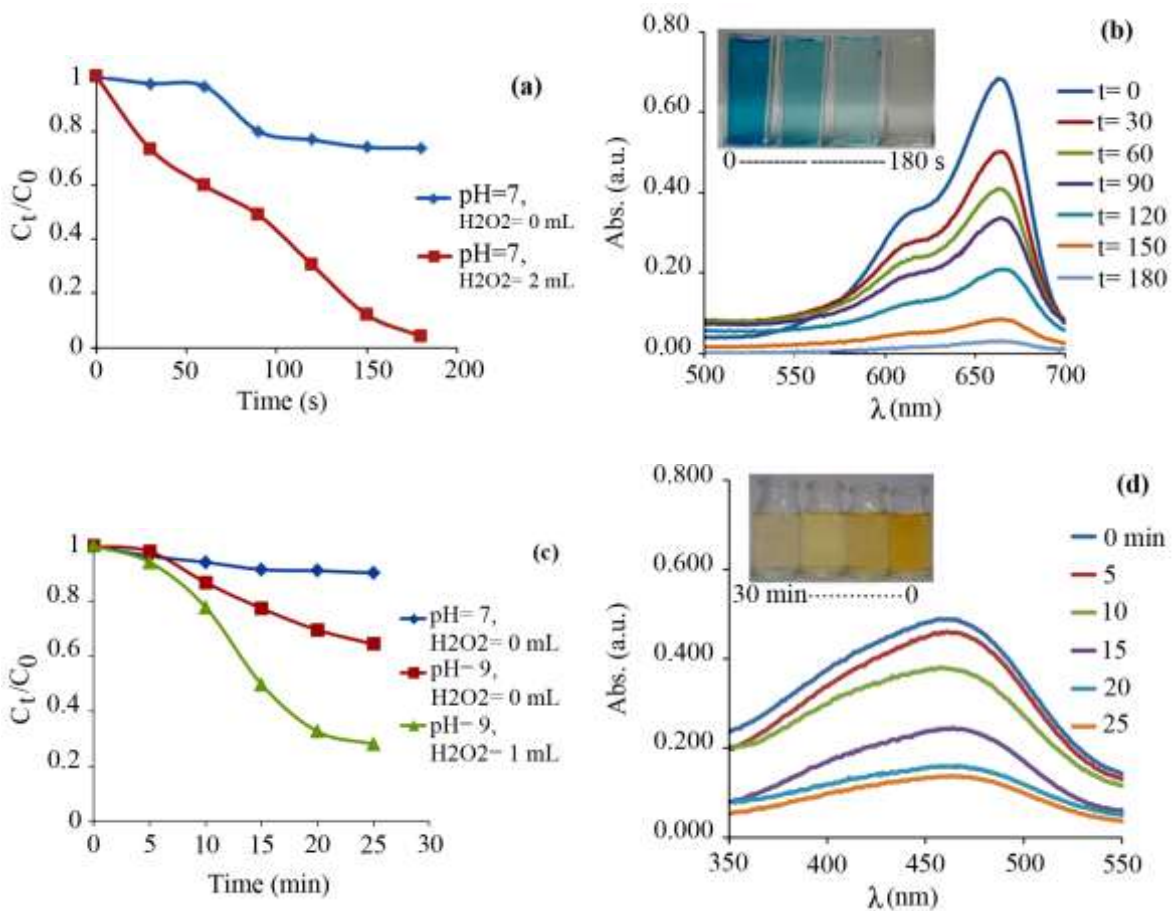
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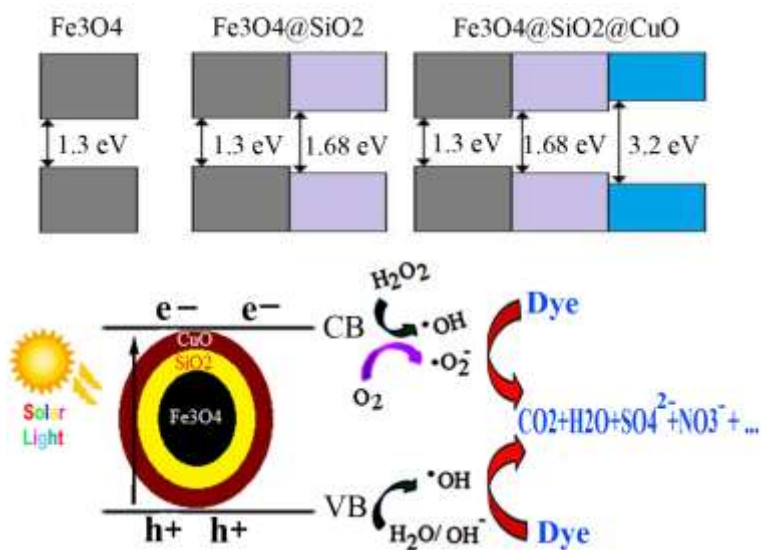
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Figure 8. Concentration changes (C_t/C_0) versus irradiation time and time dependent absorption spectrum during degradation process of a 4 ppm aqueous solution of MB (a,b, respectively) and MO (c,d, respectively) dyes in the presence of the core-shell $Fe_3O_4@SiO_2@CuO$ nanocomposite (0.005 g) as a photocatalyst.



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Figure 9. A proposed mechanism of solar light degradation of MB or MO dyes in aqueous

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solution over the core-shell Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite/H₂O₂ system with an

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energy level diagram. CB and VB are the conduction and the valence bands, respectively.

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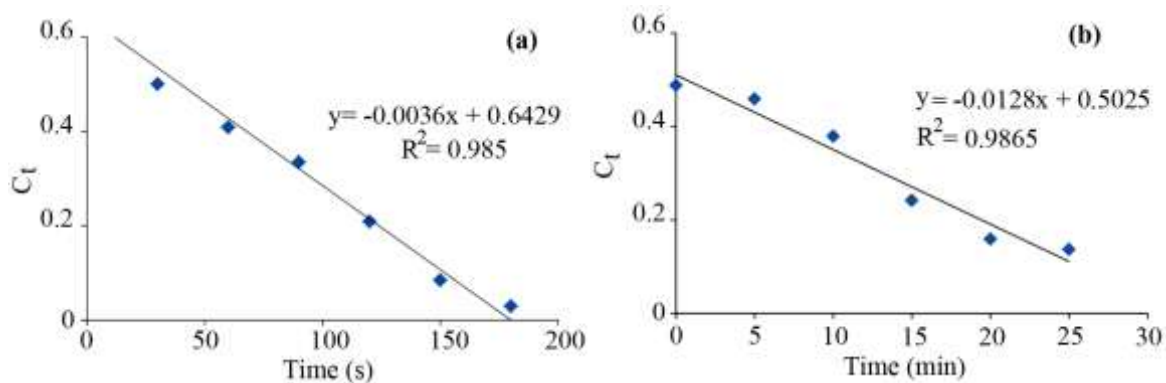
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Figure 10. Plot of C_t versus irradiation time for MB (a) and MO (b) dyes over

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$\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite. The removal of dyes by this nanocomposite followed

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pseudo-zero order kinetics.

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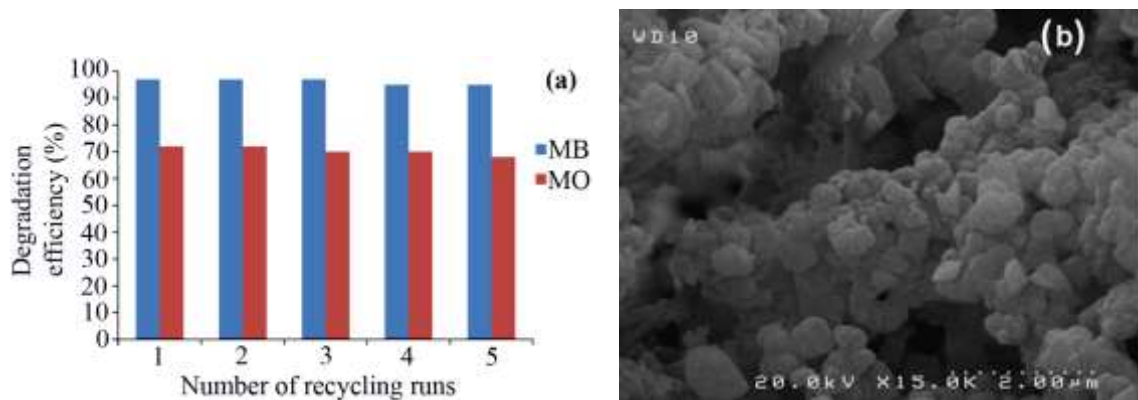
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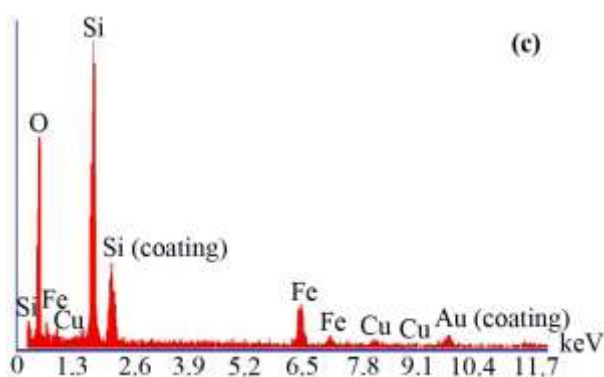
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844 **Figure 11.** Reusability of core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite (0.005 g) in the
 845 degradation of a 4 ppm aqueous solution of MB and MO dyes after 3 and 25 min,
 846 respectively, (a), its FESEM image (b) and EDX spectrum (c) after fifth reuse.

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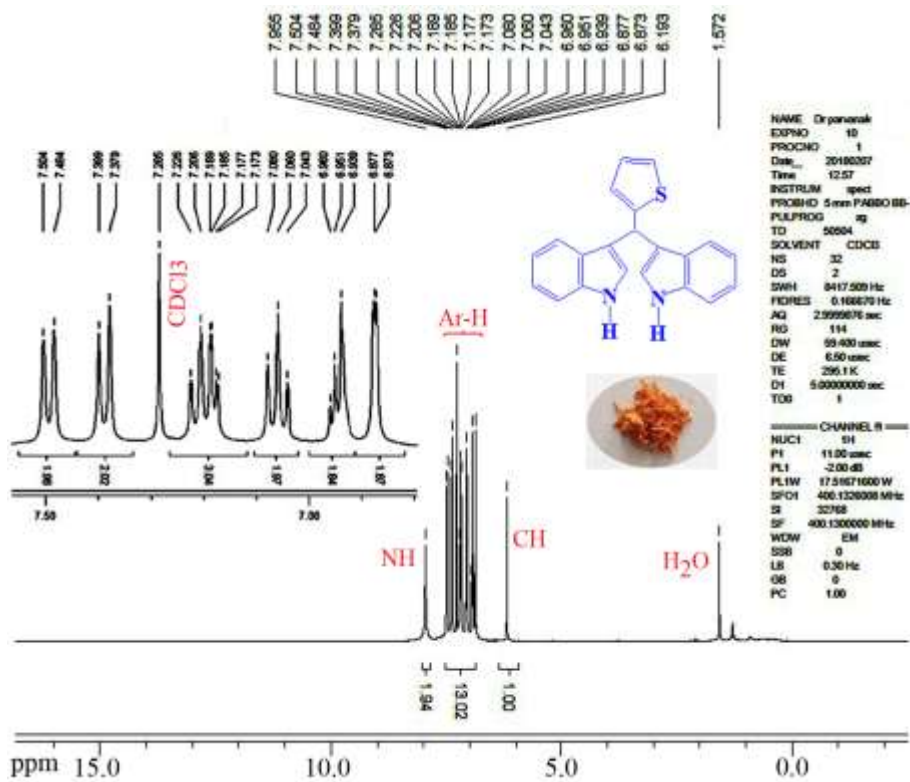
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Figure 12. ¹H NMR spectrum of the 3,3'-(2-thienylmethylene)bis-1H-indole in CDCl₃ as

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solvent.

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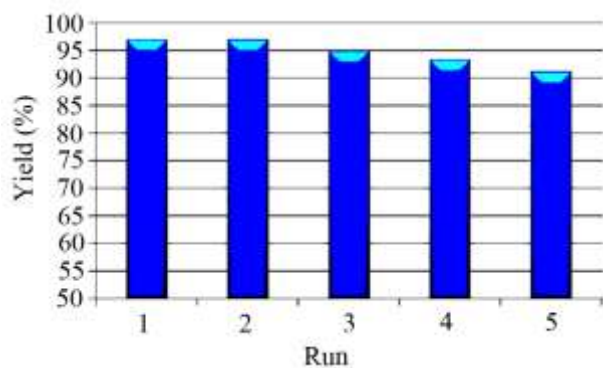
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866 **Figure 13.** Recyclability of Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite (0.03 g) in the reaction of
867 2-thienyl carbaldehyde (1 mmol) with indole (2 mmol) in EtOH/H₂O (1:1) at 80 °C after 20
868 min.

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Table 1. XRD data for the Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite.

No.	1	2	3
POS [°2TH]	35.77	38.95	49.07
FWHM [°2TH]	0.38	0.32	0.38
hkl plane	(-1 1 1)	(1 1 1)	(-2 0 2)
Particle size (nm)	21.94	26.33	23.23

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Table 2. Comparing the photocatalytic efficiency of core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$ nanocomposite with some previously reports in degradation of organic dye pollutants.

No	Nanomaterial	Dye	Irradiation	Degradation efficiency (%)	Time (min)	Synthetic method
1	CuO	MO	UV	12	120	Precipitation [61]
2	$\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{CuO}$ -RGO	MB	UV	94	150	Hydrothermal [62]
3	Mn_3O_4	MB	Heat	82	24	Sol-gel [63]
4	ZnFe_2O_4	MB	MW ^a	32	30	MW ^a sintering [64]
5	MIL-101(Cr)/RGO ^b / ZnFe_2O_4	MB	US ^c	96	50	Hydrothermal [65]
6	MIL-101(Cr)/RGO ^b / ZnFe_2O_4	MO	US ^c	80	70	Hydrothermal [65]
7	Core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$	MB	Solar light	97	3	MW ^a decomposition
8	Core-shell $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4@\text{SiO}_2@\text{CuO}$	MO	Solar light	72	25	MW ^a decomposition

^a Microwave.

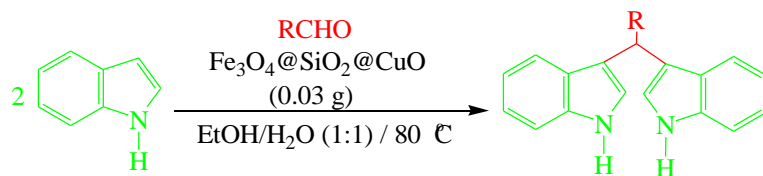
^b Reduced graphene oxide.

^c Ultrasound.


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Table 3. Preparation of BIMs.



No.	R	Time (min)	Yield (%) ^a	M.p (°C) (Lit. [Ref])
1		20	96	123–127 (126–127) [23]
2		11	97	216–220 (218–220) [36]
3		12	95	214–218 (220–222) [36]
4		12	94	211–215 (209–211) [23]
5		18	96	78–82 (77–78) [29]
6		20	95	113–117 (112–113) [23]
7		16	96	105–110 (100–102) [29]
8		22	93	315–318 (321–322) [36]
9		20	97	147–150 (151–153) [22]
10		28	93	185–187 (187–189) [22]
11		25	93	93–96 (95–97) [23]
12	CHO	30	92	70–73 (68–70) [21]

13		120	trace	-
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^a Isolated yield. All products are known compounds and were identified by comparison of their physical and spectral data with those of the authentic samples.

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Table 4. Comparison of the efficiencies of Fe₃O₄@SiO₂@CuO nanocomposite with other reported catalysts for the condensation of indole with benzaldehyde.

No.	Cat.	Solv.	Temp. (°C)	Time (min)	Yield (%) ^a
1	InCl ₃	MeCN	r.t.	240	96 [20]
2	LiClO ₄	MeCN	r.t.	300	90 [21]
3	I ₂	solvent-free	r.t.	10	72 [22]
4	Sulfamic acid	solvent-free	r.t.	92	30 [23]
5	HBF ₄ -SiO ₂	solvent-free	r.t.	10	94 [24]
6	PEG-sulfonic acid	MeOH	r.t.	150	95 [25]
7	Sulfonated polyacrylamide	MeCN	reflux	60	95 [26]
8	SiO ₂ -AlCl ₃	solvent-free	r.t.	35	96 [27]
9	Nafion-H [®]	PEG/H ₂ O	80 °C	25	94 [28]
10	[DABCO-H][HSO ₄]	neat	90 °C	120	91 [29]
11	Nano <i>n</i> -propylsulfonated γ -Fe ₂ O ₃	solvent-free	80 °C	60	82 [30]
12	Sc(OTf) ₃	THF	r.t.	210	92 [31]
13	CaO	solvent-free	100 °C	210	70 [32]
14	Graphene oxide	H ₂ O	40 °C	180	92 [33]
15	MBS	neat	r.t.	60	86 [34]
16	HCP@CH ₂ Br	neat	60 °C	60	96 [35]
17	Itaconic acid	H ₂ O	100 °C	120	90 [36]
18	Borophosphate glasses	solvent-free	70 °C	90	94 [37]

19	Fe ₃ O ₄ @sucrose-OBF ₃ H	EtOAc	70 °C	150	92 [38]
20	Fe ₃ O ₄ @SiO ₂ @CuO	EtOH/H ₂ O	80 °C	20	96

^a Isolated yields.

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