CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Basic Principle of Photocatalysis

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Heterogeneous photocatalytic was described by Palmisano and Sclafani in 1997 as "a catalytic process during, which one or more reaction steps occur by the photogeneration of electron-hole pairs on the surface of semiconductor materials, illuminated by proper energy of light" (Molinari *et al.*, 2014). From this definition, both catalyst and light are essential to induce a chemical process. When irradiation excites state of the photocatalyst, it will generate and initiate the next processes like reduction-oxidation reaction. The energy band diagrams of semiconductors is simplified and shown in Figure 2.1 (Angelo *et al.*, 2013). It consists of the highest band level (valence band E_{VB}) and the lowest band level (conduction band E_{CB}). The energy difference between conduction and valence edges is the bandgap energy of the semiconductor (E_{BG}).



Figure 2.1 Schematic representation of semiconductor energy band (Angelo *et al.*, 2013)

When a semiconductor absorbs photons with energy equal or higher than its band gap energy, electrons (e^{-}) are rised from the valence to the conduction band, leaving, at the same time, positively charged vacancies in the valence band, called holes (h^{+}). The photogenerated electron-hole pairs can induce redox reaction with electron donor (D) and electron acceptor (A). The electron can reduce the electron

acceptor (A'), whereas the hole can oxidize the electron donor (D^+), Figure 2.2. Normally, the hole can react easily with surface bound of water to produce hydroxyl radical (OH^{\bullet}) Eq. (2.1). Then, the OH^{\bullet} produced can react with dyes molecule to form other species and is thus responsible for the decolorization of dye (Rauf and Ashraf, 2009).

$$H_2O + h_{vb}^+ \rightarrow OH^{\bullet} + H^+$$
 (2.1)



Figure 2.2 Simplified schematic of photocatalytic reaction (Molinari et al., 2014).

2.1.1 Photocatalytic Degradation Mechanism

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Photocatalytic degradation is a part of advanced oxidation process (AOP), which has proven to be an encouraging technology for degrading organic compounds. This technique is more effective than other AOPs because semiconductors are inexpensive and can easily mineralize various organic compounds. The photocatalytic decolorization of a dye is believed to take place according to the following mechanism. When a catalyst is exposed to UV radiation, electrons are produced from the valence band to the conduction band. As a result of this, an electron-hole pair is generated, Eq. (2.2).

Catalyst + $hV \rightarrow e_{cb} + h_{vb}^+$ (2.2)

where, e_{cb}^{-} and h_{vb}^{+} are the electrons in the conduction band and the positively charged vacancy in the valence band, respectively. Both these entities can migrate to the catalyst surface, where they can enter in a redox reaction with other species present on the surface. In most cases, h_{vb}^{+} can oxidize easily with surface bound of water to produce OH[•] radicals, Eq. (2.3), whereas e_{cb}^{-} can reduce with O₂ to produce superoxide radical anion of oxygen O₂[•].

Eq. (2.2) and Eq. (2.3) prevent the combination of the electron and the hole, which are produced in the first step. The OH^{\bullet} and O_2^{\bullet} produced in the above manner can then react with the dye to form other species and is thus responsible for the discoloration of the dye.

$$O_2^{\bullet} + H_2O \rightarrow H_2O_2$$
 (2.5)

$$H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2OH^{\bullet}$$
 (2.6)

$$OH^{\bullet} + dye \rightarrow dye_{ox}$$
 (2.7)

$$Dye + e_{cb} \rightarrow dye_{red}$$
(2.8)

A schematic representation of the mechanisms of generation of oxidative species in a photocatalytic study is shown in Figure 2.3.



Figure 2.3 Schematic showing the mechanisms diagram in a photocatalytic reaction (Rauf and Ashraf, 2009).

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Molinari *et al.* (2014) studied the basic principle of photocatalytic hydrogen generation and focused on the photocatalytic able to work under visible light irradiation. The result showed that several methods, such as noble metal loading, ion doping, composite photocatalysts, increased the photocatalytic activity of semiconductors under visible light irradiation. That is because those methods improved the performance of semiconductor band gap on metal and also reduced the recombination charge.

Angelo *et al.* (2013) studied photocatalysis technology for NO_x photo abatement. The fundamentals of photoelectrochemical devices and the photocatalysis phenomena were reviewed. The effect of operation condition was discussed and shown that photocatalysis is a green process to answer a serious environmental issue especially NO_x pollution. However, the photocatalytic activity of titanium dioxide semiconductor strongly depended on several operating and process conditions when used in continuous reactors, i.e. i) inlet concentration of the pollutant, ii) air humidity, iii) light intensity and light spectrum, iv) flow rate/residence time, v) photocatalyst concentration per active area, vi) substrates, where TiO₂ is deposited.

Rauf and Ashraf (2009) reviewed the fundamental of heterogeneous photocatalytic dye degradation in solution using TiO_2 as a catalyst. They concluded that TiO_2 can be used as an effective catalyst for the degradation/decoloration of various dyes in solution. TiO_2 doped with metal ions increased its photocatalytic activity. Moreover, the degradation/decoloration rate can be influenced by operational parameters, for example, the amount of photocatalyst, pH, the type of additives, and concentration of substituent.

2.2 Titanium Dioxide

2.2.1 <u>Structure of TiO₂</u>

In generally, TiO_2 has three types of bulk crystalline forms, which are rutile, anatase, and brookite. Some research reviewed that the structural characteristics of both anatase and rutile materials are generally found in TiO_2 structure but the brookite structure is not often used for experimental investigations.

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Both the rutile and anatase crystal structures are in distorted octahedron classes. In rutile, slight distortion from orthorhombic structure occurs, where the unit cell is stretched beyond a cubic shape. In anatase, the distortion of the cubic lattice is more significant, and thus the resulting symmetry is less orthorhombic. Figure 2.4 depicts the distorted octahedral symmetries characteristic of rutile and anatase (Hashimoto and Fujishima, 2005).



Figure 2.4 Bulk crystal structures of rutile and anatase. Titanium atoms are gray, and oxygen atoms are black (Hashimoto and Fujishima, 2005).

2.2.2 Photocatalytic Mechanism of TiO₂

On account of high activity and stability under ultraviolent light, TiO_2 has been the most studied semiconductor for photocatalytic application. Several research discussed on the photocatalytic mechanism and reaction of TiO_2 semiconductor. When aquesous TiO_2 suspension is irradiated with light energy greater than its energy band gap (E_g 3.2 eV), both conduction band electron (e⁻) and valence band holes (h⁺) are generated at the same time. The photogenerated electrons could reduce the dye or react with electron acceptors such as O_2 adsorbed on the

Ti(III)-surface or dissolved in water, reducing it to superoxide radical anion $O_2^{\bullet-}$. In the meantime, the photogenerated holes can oxidize the organic molecule to form R⁺, or react with OH⁻ or H₂O oxidizing them into OH[•] radicals. The resulting OH[•] radical, being a very strong oxidizing agent can oxidize most of azo dyes to the mineral end-products. According to this reaction at the TiO₂ surface, the degradation mechanism can be shown as follows (Konstantinou and Albanis, 2004).

TiO ₂	+	hv (UV)	\rightarrow	$TiO_2(e_{cb}+h_{vb}^+)$	(2.9)
TiO ₂ (ł	n ⁺ vb)	+ H ₂ O	\rightarrow	$TiO_2 + H^+ + OH^{\bullet}$	(2.10)
TiO ₂ (h	n ⁺ vb)	+ OH.	\rightarrow	$TiO_2 + OH^{\bullet}$	(2.11)
TiO ₂ (e	cb)	+ O ₂	\rightarrow	$TiO_2 + O_2^{\bullet}$	(2.12)
O_2^{\bullet}	+	H^+	\rightarrow	HO ₂ •	(2.13)
Dye	+	OH	\rightarrow	degradation products	(2.14)
Dye	+	h^+_{vb}	\rightarrow	oxidation products	(2.15)
Dye	+	e _{cb}	\rightarrow	reduction products	(2.16)

Konstantinou and Albanis (2004) studied and reviewed the azo dye photocatalytic treatment using TiO_2 . They concluded that azo dye degradation is possible by photocatalysis in the presence of TiO_2 suspension and UV, visible or solar light. The kinetics of the photocatalytic oxidation followed a Langmuir-Hinshelwood model and depended on several factors such as dye concentration, mass of catalyst, and wave length.

Xagas *et al.* (1999) studied the texture and the effect of the extension of the surface. Titanium oxide films with different surface features were prepared by sol-gel (SOL films) and sintering methods (TR films). The result showed that the properties of the photocatalytic films were strongly dependent on their synthesis and processing controls. Not only have the TR (Triton) films had higher performance than the SOL (Sol-Gel) films but also larger surface areas and smaller particle sizes. Because of the large surface areas, more light energy is absorbed higher resulting in degradation.

2.3 Photocatalytic Mechanism of Zinc Oxide and Vanadium Oxide

Heterogeneous photocatalytic involving titanium dioxide (TiO₂) appears to be the most promising technology for organic dye degradation. However, because of the relatively large band gap (3.2eV), it is necessary to extend the photo-response of TiO₂ by modification of its structure/composition for efficient photocatalytic activity. Doping one of various techniques to improve its response and also reduces the electrons-hole pair recombination. The main objective of doping is to decrease the band gap energy. Several transition metals, such as Ni²⁺, Zn²⁺, Cr³⁺ and Fe³⁺ can be easily incorporated into the crystal lattice of TiO₂. One of the most popular metals is vanadium oxide (V₂O₅). An advantage of vanadium oxide dopant is to improve the catalytic activity of the active metal oxide phase because the mechanical strength on surface area is increased. The most important oxidation states in aqueous solution are V⁵⁺ and V⁴⁺. The specific vanadium oxide species that can exist depends on the solution pH and the vanadium oxide concentration. V⁵⁺ is known to undergo the following mechanism

V ⁵⁺	+	$e^- \rightarrow$	V^{4+}			(2.17)
V ⁴⁺	+	$O_2(abs) \rightarrow$	V ⁵⁺	+	O_2^{\bullet}	(2.18)
V ⁵⁺	•+	$h^+ \rightarrow$	V ⁶⁺			(2.19)
V ⁶⁺	+	$OH^- \rightarrow$	V ⁵⁺	+	OH●	(2.20)
V ⁵⁺	+	dye (ads) \rightarrow	V ⁴⁺	+	dye•	(2.21)
V ³⁺	+	O_2 (ads) \rightarrow	V^{4+}	+	O2 ^{•-}	(2.22)

 V^{4+} traps holes and electrons and forms V^{5+} and V^{3+} , respectively. Subsequently, the trapped electrons and holes are released and migrate to the surface of TiO₂. By accepting an electron, the adsorbed O₂ on the surface of TiO₂ is reduced to O₂^{•-}, while surface hydroxyl group translates into hydroxyl radical (OH[•]) by accepting a hole. Both O₂^{•-} and OH[•] can further degrade the dye molecule. As a result, the introduction of appropriate amount of V⁴⁺ ions in TiO₂ lattice can restrain the recombination rate of photogenerated electrons and holes, enhancing the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ (Rauf *et al.*, 2011).

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Due to zinc oxide (ZnO) has many advantages such as high chemical stability, good electric properties, high illuminated transmittance, and good substrate adherence, ZnO is an interesting material to couple with TiO₂ (Ivonava *et al.*, 2011). Zn^{2+} is a very important oxidation state. The presence of Zn^{2+} can act as the following mechanism.

$$Zn^{2+} + e^{-} \rightarrow Zn^{+}$$
 (2.23)

$$Zn^{+} + O_{2}(abs) \rightarrow Zn^{2+} + O_{2}^{\bullet^{-}}$$
(2.24)
$$Zn^{+} + h^{+} \rightarrow Zn^{2+}$$
(2.25)

$$Zn + n \rightarrow Zn$$
 (2.25)
 $Zn^{2+} + h^{+} \rightarrow Zn^{3+}$ (2.26)

$$Zn^{2+} + OH^{-} \rightarrow Zn^{2+} + OH^{\bullet}$$
(2.27)
$$Zn^{3+} + e^{-} \rightarrow Zn^{2+}$$
(2.28)

 Zn^{2+} can generate O_2^{\bullet} and OH^{\bullet} radicals, which can take place in photocatalytic reaction to effectively increase the dye degradation. Besides, in the TiO₂/ZnO composite, electron will transfer from the conduction band of ZnO to that of TiO₂, and hole can take place from the valance band of TiO₂ to the valance band of ZnO. This efficient charge separation causes the enhancement of photocatalytic activity and increases decolorization of dye (Rauf *et al.*, 2011).

Jaiswal *et al.* (2012) studied the preparation of V₆ and N-codoped TiO₂ photocatalyst powder synthesized by sol-gel method and their photocatalytic activity on rhodamine B (RhB) degradation. The effect of optimal dopant concentration for each element was discussed. The result showed that the molar ratios of 2% for V/Ti and 4% for N/Ti were suitable for the RhB degradation. The V-N codoped TiO₂ can increase the photocatalytic activity. In addition, the V₂O₅ species, on the surface of TiO₂, having lower energy level with respect to TiO₂, contributed in removing the photogenerated electrons leaving holes on the TiO₂.

Rauf *et al.* (2011) investigated a condense and coherent overview on the photocatalytic degradation of azo dye in the presence of TiO_2 doped with selective transition metals such as Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Zn, V, Ag, and W. The result showed that an important role in this process was played by molecular oxygen and resulting in other active species, such as $O_2^{\bullet-}$, HO_2^{\bullet} , H_2O_2 , OH^{\bullet} , and $HO_2^{\bullet-}$. They make the

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photocatalytic processes more efficient resulting in enhanced dye degradation via the formation of intermediates such as aromatic amines, phenolic compound sand several organic acids. The photocatalytic activity of vanadium doped TiO_2 film was estimated through degradation of Brilliant Red under visible light. Due to the narrowing band gap by vanadium doping, the degradation of dye was 60% for doped TiO_2 . The photocatalytic degradation of dye was found 7% for undoped TiO_2 .

Ivanova *et al.* (2011) studied the characterics of $ZnO-TiO_2$ films obtained by sol-gel method. The effect of calcined temperature was discussed. The result showed that the film structure had a mixture of crystalline phases and amorphous fraction at 400 °C. When increased the calcined temperature, to 750 °C, the ZnO-TiO₂ films were uniform with no defects but the surface area was decreased.

Pozan and Kambur (2014) studied the enhancement of 4-chlorophenol degradation by $ZnO-TiO_2$ catalyst. The catalyst was prepared by a solid-state dispersion method. The effect of weight ratio was discussed. The result showed that the photocatalytic efficiency decreased with the increase in the ZnO content increase. The optimum concentration of 20 wt% ZnO on ZnO-TiO₂ catalyst to resulted in higher reaction rate than TiO₂, and Degussa P-25, respectively, because the chemical interaction between ZnO and TiO₂ may affect the photo efficiency of oxide catalyst.

2.4 Acid Orange 7

Aze dyes are widely used in industry, such as textiles, papers, cosmetics, and in analytical chemistry. About a half of global production of synthetic textile dye is classified to azo compounds that have the chromophore of -N=N- unit in their molecular structure. These azo dyes are known to be largely non biodegradable and also can cause cancer on human beings (Wawrzyniak *et al.*, 2006).



Figure 2.5 Molecular structure of Acid Orange 7 Dye (www.lobachemie.com).

The photocatalytic degradation of an azo dye, namely acid orange 7 (AO7), has been examined with the use of TiO_2 catalyst. This dye mainly exists in two tautomeric forms, which is the azo form and the hydrazone form, as shown in Figure 2.6. However, the hydrazone is predominant in aqueous solution. It was found that the photocatalytic degradation of this leads to decoloration of the solution and to complete mineralization of the dye solution. AO7 adsorbs on the photocatalyst surface via the oxygen of its hydrazone form and the two oxygen atoms of the sulfonate group. Interaction with solar light results initially in cleavage of the dye molecule in the vicinity of the azo bond followed by the formation of molecules containing naphthalene and benzene-type rings. The primary reaction was the formation of aromatic acids to aliphatic acids, which caused the decrease of pH and an increase of conductivity in dye solution (Rauf and Ashraf, 2009).



Figure 2.6 Tautomeric forms of Acid Orange 7 in aqueous solution (Stylidi*et al.*, 2003)

Stoyanova *et al.* (2014) studied the preparation of nanosized cobalt and iron-cobalt spinel oxides-bulk and supported on MgO and investigated the effect of catalyst for oxidation degradation of AO7. Furthermore, the effect of various operating parameters influencing AO7 removal such as type, catalyst loading, concentration of oxidation, and pH solution, were studied. The result showed that the nano-dimentional Co_3O_4 and mixed Fe-Co spinal oxides supported on MgO were proven to be a very effective heterogeneous catalyst for AO7 oxidation degradation. The AO7 degradation efficiency and rate were strongly enhanced due to several factors such as decreasing pH in acid range, increasing catalyst amount, and physical mixtures systems concentration.

Kryukona *et al.* (2007) investigated the behavior of TiO_2 catalyst with real structure and modified surface of TiO_2 with Pt. The photo decomposition of aqueous AO7 was also used as a model to characterize the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 . Experimental result showed that the synthesized titania possessed relatively high photocatalytic activity in the oxidation of AO7 under UV light and showed noticeable AO7 adsorption in the dark. In the TiO_2 calcinated at higher than 500 °C, sulfur atoms began to leave the oxide bulk and led to the highest photocatalytic degradation of AO7 equal to 66%. Moreover, the small amount of Pt added into the samples was observed to enhance the photocatalytic activity with an AO7 degradation of 97%, which was higher than that of unmodified TiO_2 .

Muthirulan *et al.* (2014) studied the efficient route for the fabrication of TiO_2 decorated grapheme (GR) nanocomposites through one step route by examining the degradation of AO7 under UV/solar light irradiation. The result showed that the optimal assembly and interfacial coupling between the GR and TiO_2 , which enhanced redox activity and electrical conductivity, had higher efficiency in the photodegradation of AO7 than TiO_2 alone. That was due to the electron transfer between TiO_2 and GR greatly retarded the recombination of photoinduced charge carriers and prolonged the electron lifetime. In addition, the UV irradiation can bring better efficiency in the degradation of AO7 than the solar light.

2.5 Model for the Oxidation Energy Storage of TiO₂

As the photocatalytic reactions are allowed to drive only under irradiation, the functions of the photocatalyst in the dark will be very useful. Recently, the energy storage of photocatalytic has been attracting and investigated by doping an active semiconductor or p-n junction semiconductor. When a p-type and n-type semiconductors are combined, the nature of p-n junction model is formed and shown on Figure 2.7. The free electrons on the n-type and the free holes on the p-type move across the junction. At the junction, the electrons and the holes tend to react with each other, creating a region depleted of any moving charges. This region is called the depletion zone (www.st-andrews.ac.uk).



Figure 2.7 General p-n junction model (www.electronics-tutorials.ws).

2.5.1 <u>p-n Junction Model</u>

Semiconductors consist of p- and n-type. The n-type has a high electron concentration, while the p-type has a high hole concentration. The connection of the two types resulting in the move of excess electrons in the n-type material to the p-type side and the excess holes from the p-type material to the n-type side. An n-type semiconductor like TiO_2 adsorbs photon having energy equal to or higher than its band gap energy. With each photon of the required energy (i.e. wavelength), that electrons rise to the unoccupied conduction band, leading to excited state conduction band electron and leaving the positive valence band holes (h⁺) at the valence band.

Later, the electrons then transfer from the p-type (electron donor) to the valence band of the n-type (electron acceptor) semiconductor at the junction between the p- and ntype semiconductors. The holes at the p-type are not stable and need intercalation (x^{-}) from an electrolyte for stabilization, as shown in Figure 2.7 The energy storage of TiO₂ with the p-type semiconductor takes place with the below model. The p-n heterojunction photocatalyst accelerates the separation of electron-hole pairs. Therefore, the p-n heterojunction photocatalyst has attracted much attention in recent years. (Takahashi and Tatsuma, 2005).



Figure 2.8 p-n junction model for the oxidative energy storage photocatalyst (Takahashi and Tatsuma, 2005).

2.5.2 Mediation Model

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The first step of the mediation model resembles the p-n junction model. That is a TiO₂ photocatalyst adsorbs photon having energy equal to or higher than its band gap energy. With each photon of the required energy (i.e. wavelength), electrons rise to the conduction band, leading to excited state conduction band electrons and leaving the positive valence band holes (h^+) at the valence band. On the other hand, unlike the p-n junction model, the electrons from the mediation (H₂O₂) then transfer to the valence band of TiO₂ for electrical neutrality, and the electrons of redox active material are transferred to mediation. As the result of the redox active

material is wided in stability, intercalation (x⁻) from an electrolyte for stabilization as shown in Figure 2.8. The energy storage of TiO_2 with a redox active metal takes place with the below mechanism (Takahashi and Tatsuma, 2005).



Figure 2.9 Mediation model for the oxidative energy storage photocatalyst (Takahashi and Tatsuma, 2005).

Shifu *et al.* (2008) studied the p-n junction photocatalyst p- $2r_1\Omega/T^2O_2$, which was prepared by ball milling of TiO₂ solution doped with p-ZnO. The effect of ball milling time was discussed on the photocatalytic oxidation of methyl orange (MO) and the photocatalytic reduction of $Cr_2O_7^{2^2}$. The result showed that the photocatalytic reduction activity of p-ZnO/TiO₂ photocatalysts was higher than TiO₂ but the photooxidation activity of p-ZnO/TiO₂ was much lower than TiO₂. The optimum amount of doped p-ZnO was 2.0 wt%. The increase of ball milling time led to an increasing in the photoreduction efficiency of $Cr_2O_7^2$.

Yang *et al.* (2010) studied the photocatalytic degradation of p-nitrophenol (PNP) on a Cu_2O/TiO_2 p-n heterojunction network catalyst. The influence of pH and stability of Cu_2O/TiO_2 were also investigated. The result showed that the highest activity of Cu_2O/TiO_2 p-n junction in the photodegradation of PNP was obtained at pH 3. The high photocatalytic stability can be attributed to the highly stable physical

construction of the Cu₂O nanowire network and the high anti photocorrosion property of the perfect crystallization of Cu₂O/TiO₂. In addition, the Cu₂O/TiO₂ network showed much higher degradation rate (1.97 μ g/min cm²) than the unmodified TiO₂ (0.85 μ g/min cm²). The enhanced photocatalytic activity was due to the extended absorption in the visible light resulting from the Cu₂O nanowire networks, and the effective separation of photogenerated carries was driven by the photo induced potential difference generated at the Cu₂O/TiO₂ p-n junction interface.

Zhao *et al.* (2014) studied the preparation of the p-n heterojunction photocatalyst CuFe₂O₄/Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂ by ball milling with and without dispersant (H₂O). The effects of ball milling time and dispersant (H₂O) on the photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange (MO) were also investigated. The result showed that the photocatalytic performance of the sample was better than Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂. The heterojunction between CuFe₂O₄ and Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂ was formed during ball milling so the ball milling time strongly affected the photocatalytic activity. The enhanced photocatalytic performance can be attributed to the formation of the junction between CuFe₂O₄ and Bi₄Ti₃O₁₂, which reduced the recombination of photogenerated electrohole pairs. Moreover, the mechanism of the photocatalytic confirmed that O₂^{•-} and h⁺ were the main reactive species for the degradation of MO.

Ku *et al.* (2014) investigated the preparation of ZnO/TiO₂ for the photocatalytic reduction of hexavalent chromium Cr(IV). The effect of ZnO content on ZnO/TiO₂ photocatalyst was also studied. The result concluded that the ZnO/TiO₂ photocatalyst was prepared by wetness impregnation resulting in the bonds of ZnO on the surface of TiO₂. The containing 2.0 wt% ZnO on ZnO/TiO₂ exhibited the maximum photocatalytic reduction of Cr(IV) due to the enhancement of e^-/h^+ separation. The decrease of photocatalytic activity calcined at 700°C was attributed to the decrease of specific surface areas on ZnO/TiO₂.

2.6 Sol - Gel Method for Thin Film Preparation

Among various methods, the sol-gel method has been widely used due to the advantages of a relatively low cost and a flexible applicability to a wide range of sizes and shapes of the substrates. Sol-gel is the method involved with colloidal

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suspensions that can change to viscous gels and then to solid materials during the sol-gel processing. Normally, precursors such as titanium alkoxide, titanium tetrachloride, and titanium halogenide are heated under very high calcinations temperature to obtain the desired crystal properties and a good adherence on the support. During heating, OH groups from the catalyst surface and the support can react and evaporate a molecule of water, creating an oxygen bridge, thus increasing the adherence of the catalyst to the support. In general, a dip coating apparatus equipped with an adjustable motor is used to immerse the support into a solution (gel form) and then withdrawn it at a certain speed. Therefore, this route is suitable for the production of a thin film photocatalyst. However, some drawbacks of the sol-gel method include the wide variation in the particle size distribution and the necessity of a calcination step for crystallization, which may result in the melting of the substrate. To improve the drawbacks of substrate, there are many researches that studied sol-gel with dip-coating over fiberglass, woven fiber glass, aluminum plate, and glass slide as a substrate of thin film catalyst (Shan *et al.*, 2010)



Figure 2.10 Schematic simplify diagram of sol-gel method associate with dipcoating (Angelo *et al.*, 2013).

Shan *et al.* (2010) studied the overview of the evolution in the use of different support for TiO_2 as a semiconductor photocatalyst. The effect of several supports such as glass, activated carbon, silica materials, polymeric materials, and the commonly techniques such as sol-gel, thermal treatment, chemical vapour deposition (CVD), electrophorectic deposition were also discussed for the removal of contaminants in wastewater. The result showed that the sol-gel method resulted in

the strong adhesion of the coating to the substrate due to chemical bonding. The research reported that the immobilised photocatalyst films were produced by the modified sol-gel method, which gave better stability and increased photocatalytic activity.

Chen and Dionysios (2006) studied the effect of Degussa P25 loading (0-100 g/L) in the precursor sol on film crystallinity, strength of adhesion, hardness, thickness, and pore structure, and also investigated the photocatalytic activity of immobilized TiO₂ films using the P25 powder-modified sol-gel method (PPMSGM) on stainless steel. Result showed that the photocatalytic activity can be improved by increasing P25 loading from 30 to 50 g/L. This improvement can be explained by the change in the film structure including (i) an increase in the amount of crystalline material for both anatase and rutile on the support, (ii) a decrease in the grain size, (iii) an increase in the amount of these grains, (iv) an increase in the number of pores, (v) an increase in the number of microcracks, and (vi) a decrease in the concentration of foreign metal ions (i.e., Cr³⁺) on the surface of the immobilized TiO₂ films. On the other hand, the thickness of TiO₂ films does not affect directly with photocatalytic activity because the film thickness was not proportional to the amount of P25 particles in the films. In addition, the Scotch adhesion test showed that 50 g/L of P25 loading in the sol was the upper level, which could yield films with good adherence to the stainless steel support.

Lewkowicz *et al.* (2014) studied the preparation of the surface morphology and the optical properties of TiO₂ thin films deposited on glass with the sol-gel spin coating technique. The different temperatures of annealing (380-900 °C) were investigated. The result showed that the TiO₂ thin films without annealing were amorphous but their structure shifted through the anatase to rutile phases. It was clear that because the amorphous nature of TiO₂ was obtained using the sol-gel methods, the step of heat-treatment was required. With increasing the annealing temperature, the porosity of the TiO₂ thin films decreased from 67% to 15% because of shrinkage and densification of the films. The TiO₂ films crystallize was the anatase phase between 380-700 °C, while the rutile phase existed above 800 °C.

Hou *et al.* (2009) studied and proved the hypothesis that the application of bias potential across the photoanode can enhance the photocatalytic oxidation

process and a three-dimentional (3D) instead of a two-dimentional (2D) photoanode configuration, which would be much efficient in the electro-photocatalytic oxidation of organic compounds. The result showed that the applied bias was low but was sufficiently high enough to inhibit the recombination of electron-hole pairs efficiently and promoted acid orange II (AOII) degradation. Additionally, the 3D TiO_2/ACF electrode had large outer surface area along with good adsorption for organic compounds and exhibited much greater AOII degradation than the 2D TiO_2/ACF electrode.

2.7 Photocatalysis

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Patel *et al.* (2014) studied the synthesis of V codoped TiO₂ photocatalyst in the form of thin films and studied the photocatalytic performance under visible light irradiation. The result showed that the V-N codoped TiO₂ thin films had maximum narrow banc gap in the visible region (2.5 eV) as compared to single-element doped and undoped TiO₂. Moreover, the photocatalytic activity of V-N doped TiO₂ thin films was higher than the undoped or mono-doped films, which was attributed to both lower energy bad gap and reduced charge recombination rate.

Sun *et al.* (2008) studied the degradation of Orange G (OG) on nitrogendoped TiO₂ photocatalysis under visible light and sunlight irradiation. The effect of initial solution, pH, and the dosage of hydrogen peroxide were also investigated. The result showed that not only the N-doped TiO₂ caused the new absorption band but also the photosensitized oxidation mechanism originated from the azo dyes themselves and contributed to the higher visible light activity. For this reason, the Ndoped TiO₂ catalyst has higher the degradation OG than undoped TiO₂ catalyst under visible light. In contrast, the undoped TiO₂ catalyst exhibited high photocatalytic activity under sunlight irradiation. The pH result showed the optimal dosage of H₂O₂ was 0.5 for visible light and 15.0 mmol/l for sunlight irradiation.

Cao *et al.* (2009) studied the energy storage property of TiO_2 -WO₃ powder using simple wet-chemical technique. The energy storage ability of TiO_2 -WO₃ samples with different WO₃ crystal structures and various molar ratios of WO₃ to TiO_2 were evaluated. The result showed that the crystal structure of WO₃ could be changed through the change in the heat-treatment temperature. The energy storage ability of TiO_2 -WO₃ depended on the crystal structure of WO₃, and the molar ratio of WO₃/TiO₂ in 1:1 at heat-treated at 250 °C gave the best of energy storage ability. This ratio might help the electrons transfer during the process of photocatalytic energy storage.

Takahashi and Tatsuma (2005) studied Ni(OH)₂ as an energy storage material (p-type semiconductor) and coupled it with TiO₂ to give rise to oxidative energy by sol-gel methods. The prepared TiO₂-Ni(OH)₂ bilayer as a photochromic was estimated. The experiment result showed that the stored oxidative energy of TiO₂-Ni(OH)₂ bilayer can be discharged electrochemically or used for the chemical oxidation of various species. At pH 10 buffer, the Ni(OH)₂ layer was oxidized, and it turned from colorless to brown. The potential of the oxidative energy thus stored was about +0.7 V versus Ag/AgCl.

Huang *et al.* (2010) studied the photoelectrochromic properties of NiO film, which was deposited on a thin film of $TiO_{2-x}N_x$ by chemical bath deposition (CBD). $TiO_{2-x}N_x$ thin film was synthesized on the indium-tin oxide (ITO) conducing glass by sol-gel method. The result showed that the holes were generated in the $TiO_{2-x}N_x$ valence band oxidized NiO to NiOOH and the color of the $TiO_{2-x}N_x/NiO$ electrode changed from colorless to brown. After 2 hr irradiation, the discharge time was about 4.2 hr at the current density of 100 nAcm⁻².

Lian *et al.* (2011) studied the effect of OH⁻ concentration in the electrolyte and surface structure in the Ni(OH)₂ layer on the storage of the oxidation energy of TiO₂ by electrodeposition method. Various current densities of porous nanostructured TiO₂-Ni(OH)₂ bilayer were discussed. The result showed that the porous Ni(OH)₂ layers prepared by the cathodic electrodeposition on a TiO₂/ITO substrate had relatively current densities (higher than 1.0 mAcm⁻²). The particle size of Ni(OH)₂ was increased with increasing the deposition current density, which could be responsible for the enhanced oxidative energy storage of TiO₂-Ni(OH)₂ bilayer. Furthermore, the electrolytes with high OH⁻ concentration facilitated the oxidative energy storage of an UV-irradiated TiO₂ photocatalyst in Ni(OH)₂

Zhang *et al.* (2010) studied the effect of V content on the V doped TiO_2 nanofibers by electrospinning technique for photocatalyst applications. The result

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showed that V ions could modify the electron properties of TiO_2 and extend its light absorption in the visible light region. It can be explained that V⁴⁺ or V⁵⁺ ions were successfully incorporated into the crystal lattice of anatase TiO_2 nanofibers. The photocatalytic results indicated that the V doped TiO_2 nanofibers can cause to high activity for the photodegradation of methylene blue, especially 1.0 and 5.0%wt.

Akbarzadeh *et al.* (2010) studied the photocatalytic activity of vanadiatitania thin films for the degradation of methylene blue under sunlight, and the vanadia loading was also investigated by simple sol-gel method. The result showed that the optimum concentration of vanadia in titania to obtain uniform viscous gel was found to be 0.5-4 wt%. Beyond these, the vanadia particles would block the gel network. Titania with 4 wt% vanadia was the most active catalyst for the degradation of methylene blue. Compared with pure TiO₂, the vanadia in TiO₂ increased the photodegradation rate of methylene blue by a factor of 3-6.6 times.

Wu and Chen (2004) studied the preparation of highly dispersed state of V^{4+} incorporated titania photocatalyst by the sol-gel methods. The result showed that V-doped TiO₂ preserved its anatase phase after calcination at 400 °C. The vanadium ion in TiO₂ may change the band gap between the conduction and valence bands. The 0.035V/TiO₂ can take the capability of absorbing visible light so the degradation rates of crystal violet and methylene blue on the V-doped TiO₂ under visible light were higher than TiO₂.

Chang and Liu (2011) studied the effect of both conventional bulk doping and surface doping on the photocatalytic activity under UV irradiation and the effect of the photo-generated species including trapped holes, electrons, and OH radicals. The result showed that the bulk doping by sol-gel TiO₂ existed mainly in V³⁺ and V⁴⁺ states. In contrast, the surface doping V³⁺/V⁴⁺ ions drove charge to the surface and retarded the surface recombination of electron/hole pairs. The photocatalytic activity of the doped TiO₂ was enhanced by 1.9 times for $3.0x10^{-1}$ V/Ti molar ratio. The experimental result showed the formation of V₂O₅ separated the charge carriers through the formation of p-n junctions. The surface trapping and separation facilitated the interfacial charge transfer to catalyst. Therefore, surface doping metal ions improved the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ to greater extent than bulk doping.

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