

Cu-decorated Raschig-TiO₂ rings inducing MB repetitive discoloration without release of Cu-ions under solar light



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ABSTRACT

The methylene blue (MB) discoloration on innovative photocatalysts made up of Raschig-rings coated by pre-formed TiO₂ nanoparticles decorated with CuOx (RR@TiO₂-Cu) is presented. The MB-discoloration was drastically accelerated by the subsequent addition of 0.004% Cu. This Cu-content being ~3000 times below the TiO₂ present in the RR@TiO₂ samples led to MB-discoloration in shorter times. The Cu-ions released from the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% were determined ≤1ppb by inductively coupled plasma mass-spectrometry (ICP-MS). Cu-percentages >0.018% decreased the MB-discoloration kinetics due to the Cu acting as recombination sites for the photogenerated charges. The total organic carbon (TOC) reduction concomitant with the MB-discoloration is reported as well as the effect of the initial MB-concentration and pH on the discoloration kinetics. The Cu-addition shifted significantly the TiO₂ absorption into the visible region even when added in sub-microgram quantities (0.004%) to RR@TiO₂ as detected by diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS). The Cu level added to RR@TiO₂ was too low to be detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD). The roughness of the RR@TiO₂-Cu (0.018%–0.081% Cu) presented Rg-values between 11.8 nm and 23.9 nm. The RR@TiO₂Cu presented agglomerate sizes of ~200 nm for TiO₂ and for the Cu aggregates sizes of ~20 nm. The MB discoloration kinetics and reuse of the RR@TiO₂-Cu suggest the potential as a supported catalyst in environmental cleaning process. A reaction mechanism is suggested taking into consideration the role of the Cu^{1+/2+} intra-gap states involving redox catalysis as detected by X-ray photoelectron-spectroscopy (XPS).

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1. Introduction

TiO₂, doped TiO₂ and decorated TiO₂ either in colloid form or powder have been reported to degrade pollutants under band gap irradiation. Some studies report TiO₂ on glass/polymer and metal plates leading to pollutants. This subject has been the focus of recent reviews [1–6]. This type of catalysis/photocatalysis is used to degrade pollutants resistant to biological degradation at low concentrations involving reactions driven by solar light. In this case, the source of energy is free but its utilization requires

facilities that involve capital investment. The reactions when light reaches the semiconductor surface (TiO₂) in the presence of O₂ (air) leads to the generation of charges and radicals not needing any additional reactant to abate the organic pollutant. In this study, we have selected as a probe the dye methylene blue (MB). Glass in the form of Raschig rings, was used as a low cost inert support for the TiO₂. TiO₂ coated Raschig rings have been used for the degradation of pollutants in diluted solutions under band-gap irradiation to abate the dye direct-red 16 [7]. This approach has also been used to degrade several aromatic compounds in aqueous solution [8–10]. Our laboratory has reported Raschig rings coated by TiO₂ as a catalyst to degrade phenol-compounds [11], phenol [12] and chlorophenols [13]. This study addresses the preparation of Raschig rings coated with TiO₂ but adding small amounts of a 3d-transition element like Cu/Cu-ions to extend its absorption into

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the visible region with the objective of increasing the dye degradation kinetics under solar light.

We address the simple preparation of a low-cost RR@TiO₂-Cu photocatalyst and its testing with the degradation of MB. Supported TiO₂ avoids the separation of the catalyst from the solution at the end of the dye degradation process. The degradation kinetics of Cu-decorated TiO₂ Raschig rings, the reaction mechanism, the Cu-ions leaching from the catalyst surface and the characterization of the optimized photocatalyst surface will be systematically investigated in the course of this study.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials and synthesis of RR@TiO₂-Cu, reactor set-up, MB-discoloration, total organic carbon (TOC), X-ray fluorescence (XRF) and irradiation source

The Raschig rings that served as support for the RR@TiO₂-Cu were 4 × 4 mm in size and 1 mm thick, were made out of soda lime glass composed by: 70% SiO₂, 10% (Na₂O, CaO, MgO K₂O) and 5% (Fe₂O₃, Al₂O₃). TiO₂ used in the suspensions was Degussa P25 and the CuNO₃ × 3H₂O was Acros Organics. The polyethylene-graft-maleic anhydride powder (PEGMA) was a Sigma-Aldrich No.456624, Mw 2300. The reagent 3, 7-bis (Dimethylamino) phenazathionium chloride or Methylene Blue (MB from now) was Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. NaN₃ (Fluka) was used as a possible oxygen singlet scavenger (¹O₂). 1, 4-benzoquinone (BQ) and methanol were used respectively as O₂^{•-} radical scavenger and OH[•] scavengers [14]. Ethylenediamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA-2Na) was used as TiO₂vb hole scavenger [15].

The supported catalyst preparation was prepared according to the following sequence: the Raschig rings were washed with detergent and then treated with HNO₃ 30% for 10 min at 50 °C, then drained and rinsed with Milli-Q water. The clean Raschig rings were subsequently immersed in PEGMA dissolved in toluene 5% (wt/wt), then drained and dried overnight at room temperature. The dry Raschig rings with PEGMA on their surface were dipped in TiO₂ suspensions (5 g/l) and CuNO₃·3H₂O was added according to the amount selected to decorate the RR@TiO₂. The rings were drained and dried at 110 °C for 1 h. The latter step was repeated 3 times and the RR@TiO₂-Cu was calcined at 500 °C during 10 h to eliminate the PEGMA, the interfacial binder. TiO₂/Cu was deposited on the external and internal surfaces of the Raschig rings. The reproducibility of the amount of Cu deposited on the RR@TiO₂ was ± 20% and it was kept by following the preparation protocol.

The UV-vis spectra during MB discoloration were followed in a Shimadzu single beam instrument. The total organic carbon (TOC) was determined in a Shimadzu TOC 500 equipped with an ASI auto-sampler. The Ti and Cu content in (RR@TiO₂-Cu) was evaluated by X-ray fluorescence in a PANalytical PW 2400 unit. The TiO₂ and Cu weight percentages on the RR@TiO₂ rings are reported in Table 1 and were determined by X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy. By this technique, each element emits a defined X-ray wavelength that is associated with the particular atomic number of each element. The different TiO₂-Cu suspensions used to prepare the rings were 0.05% up to 3% w/w Cu/TiO₂.

Photolysis experiments were performed in the cavity of a solar simulated Hanau Suntest Lamp with a tunable light intensity attachment equipped with an IR filter to remove IR radiation >800 nm. The UV-radiation <305 nm was removed by the Pyrex wall of the reaction vessels. The Raschig rings used to fix the TiO₂-Cu were positioned between a central Teflon cylindrical tube and the reactor wall; in this way the photocatalytic bed was fixed inside the reactor. The Teflon support was fitted with small holes (2 mm diameter) to allow diffusion of the solution in the reactor. In the bottom of the reactor, and concentrically to both the Teflon tube

Table 1

Weight percentage of TiO₂ and Cu in the RR samples of RR@TiO₂-Cu as determined by X-ray fluorescence (XRF).

Sample	%wt/% wt glass	
	TiO ₂	Cu
RR@TiO ₂	11.30	< 0.001
RR@TiO ₂ -Cu 0.004%	11.98	0.004
RR@TiO ₂ -Cu 0.018%	22.67	0.018
RR@TiO ₂ -Cu 0.053%	18.73	0.053
RR@TiO ₂ - Cu 0.081%	13.04	0.081

and the reactor, a magnetic stirrer was positioned to keep the diffusion of the reactive species. The Suntest solar simulator (Heraeus, Hannau, Germany) is shown in Fig. 1a. The reactors cavity was ~30 cm wide, 20 cm long and 20 cm high. The distance between the Xe-lamp and the photo-reactor lid was 10 cm. The photo-reactor was 7 cm high without the lid and 11 cm high with the lid. Before each photocatalytic run the MB-solution (70 ml) was equilibrated in the dark with the RR-TiO₂-Cu (35 g) for 30 min.

The light intensity reaching the photo-reactor was 90 mW cm⁻² and was detected at the top of it. This light intensity was determined by a light dosimeter that measures the integrated photons in the Suntest simulator between 290 nm and 800 nm. The spectral range of photons generated by the Xe-lamp is shown in the Supplementary Fig. S5. The light in the Suntest cavity is reflected several times by the polished Al-walls.

2.2. ICP-MS determination of Ti-ions and Cu-ions leached out during MB discoloration

The determination by inductively coupled plasma mass-spectrometry (ICP-MS) of the Ti and Cu eluted during MB degradation was carried out by an ICP-MS Finnigan™ unit equipped with a double focusing reverse geometry mass spectrometer. It has an extremely low background signal and a high ion-transmission coefficient. The discoloured MB solution in contact with RR@TiO₂-Cu was digested with nitric acid 69% (1:1 HNO₃ + H₂O) to remove the organics in the solution and to insure that there were no adhered ions remaining on the flask wall. The samples droplets were introduced to the ICP-MS trough a peristaltic pump to the nebulizer chamber at ~7700 °C. This allows the complete sample evaporation. The Ti and Cu found in the nebulizer droplets were subsequently quantified by mass spectrometry (MS).

2.3. RR@TiO₂-Cu microstructure: surface properties

The atomic force spectroscopy (AFM) image signals were acquired in contact mode using a PSIA Xe-100 AFM. Silicon nitride cantilevers were used with feedback set points close to 1.0 nN. The AFM scanner and position sensors were calibrated using standard samples from Mikromash. The experimental error in the roughness was below 10%. The mean surface roughness (RMS) was calculated for scanned areas of 2 × 2 μm.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) of the RR@TiO₂-Cu Raschig rings were recorded on a Philips X'Pert PRO diffractometer equipped with an X'Celerator detector and a Ni-filtered Cu K radiation operating at 40 kV and 40 mA. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) of the RR@TiO₂-Cu was carried out in an AXIS NOVA photoelectron spectrometer (Kratos Analytical, Manchester, UK) provided for with monochromatic AlK_α (hν=1486.6 eV) anode. The surface atomic concentration was determined from peak the XRD areas using the electrostatic correction according to Shirley [16–18]. The carbon C1 s at 284.6 eV was used as reference for the peak positions of Ti, C, and O the XPS spectrogram as well [16].

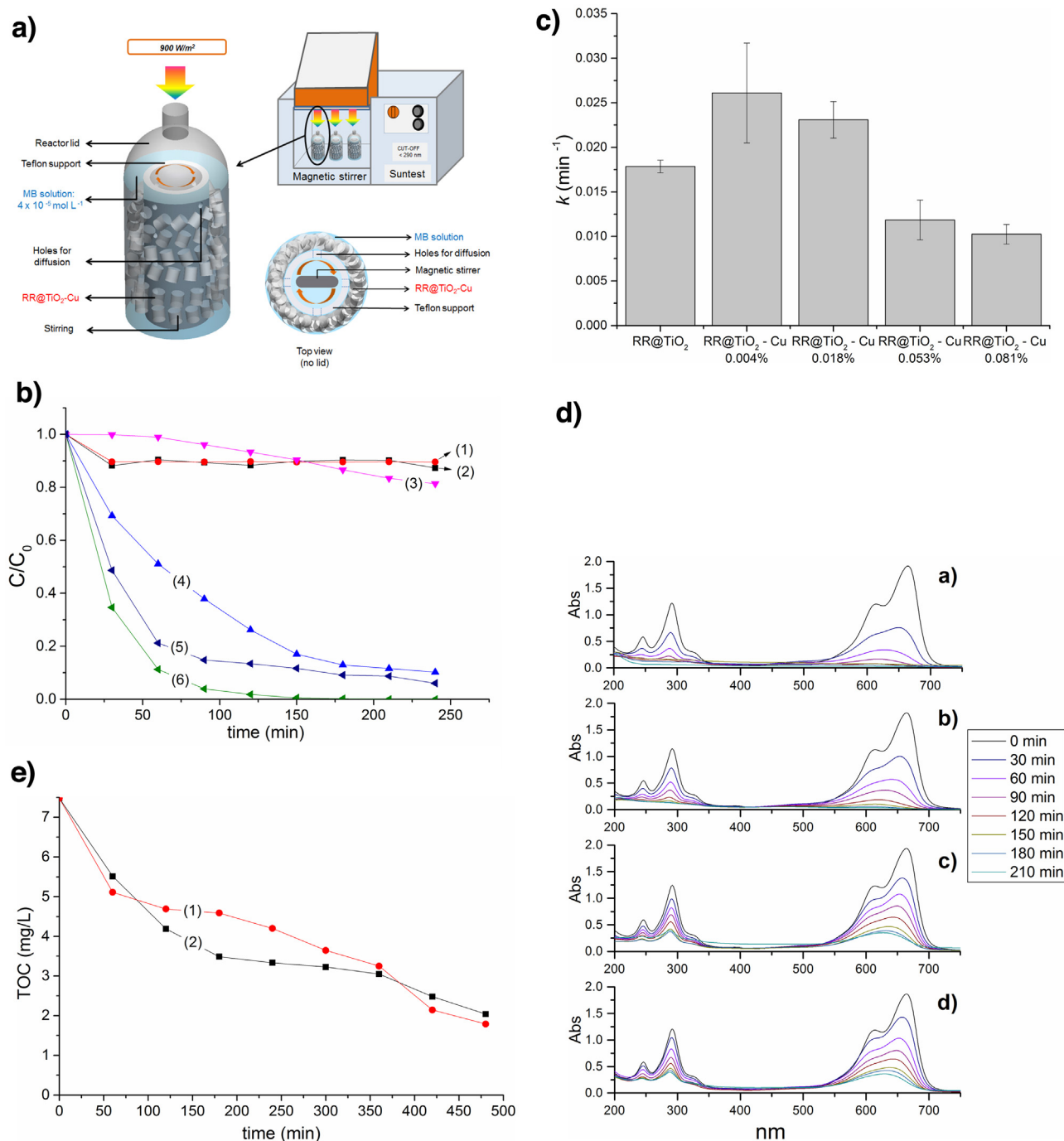


Fig. 1. (a) Schemes of the reactor and irradiation source. A Teflon support was placed concentrically inside the reactor for holding the RR@TiO₂-Cu bed. The reactors contained 70 ml of MB. Before photocatalytic reaction, the MB solution was equilibrated with the RR@TiO₂-Cu for 30 min (b) MB 4 × 10⁻⁵ mol L⁻¹ solution discoloration under Suntest irradiation (90 mW cm⁻²). Traces: (1) MB in contact with RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% in the dark, (2) MB in contact with Raschig rings in the dark, (3) MB in contact with Raschig rings under Suntest irradiation (90 mW cm⁻²), (4) MB in contact with RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.053% under Suntest irradiation (90 W cm⁻²), (5) MB in contact with RR@TiO₂ under Suntest irradiation (90 W cm⁻²), (6) MB in contact with RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% under Suntest irradiation (90 W cm⁻²). The initial pH of the solution was 5.7-6.0 (c) Dependence of the pseudo-first order rate constant *k* on the Cu-content of the RR@TiO₂-Cu photocatalyst during the discoloration of a solution MB 4 × 10⁻⁵ mol L⁻¹ under Suntest light set at 90 mW cm⁻². The initial pH of the solution was 5.7-6.0 (d) Absorption spectra of MB 4 × 10⁻⁵ mol L⁻¹ in contact with diverse RR@TiO₂-Cu photocatalysts under Suntest light set at 90 mW cm⁻²: a) RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004%, b) RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.018%, c) RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.053%, d) RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.081%. The initial pH of the solution was 5.7-6.0 (e) Total organic carbon (TOC) decrease during the photocatalytic degradation of MB 4 × 10⁻⁵ mol L⁻¹ mediated by RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% under Suntest light (90 mW cm⁻²). Initial pH of the MB solution: (1) pH 5.7 and (2) pH 10.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. MB discoloration kinetics

Table 1 presents the percentage of Cu and TiO₂ on the Raschig-rings obtained by X-ray fluorescence (XRF).

Fig. 1b, traces (1) and (2) show the MB adsorption in the dark on the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% surface and on bare Raschig rings. There is no significant difference between runs (1) and (2) shown in Fig. 1b due to the low percentages of TiO₂ and Cu on the support (~15% TiO₂ and 0.004% Cu). Fig. 1b, trace (3) shows the low light effect on MB-discoloration in presence of Raschig rings during 240 min. A

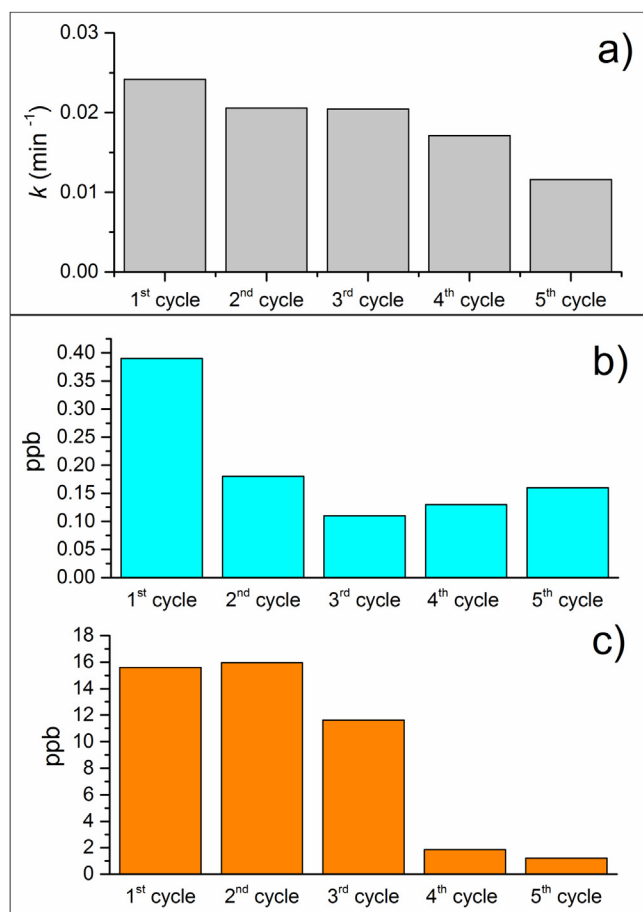


Fig. 2. (a) Rate constants (k) for the repetitive MB $4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ discoloration by RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% (b) Ti-ions released during MB-discoloration up to the 5th use cycle and (c) Cu-ions released during MB-discoloration up to the 5th use cycle. Suntest light set at 90 mW cm^{-2} .

RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.053% photocatalyst (trace (4)) shows no complete discoloration after 240 min. RR@TiO₂ is presented in trace (5), it displays a higher initial degradation rate compared to the RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.053% photocatalyst (trace (4)). RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% (trace (6)) is seen to lead to a faster discoloration compared to RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.053% (trace (4)) despite the lower Cu content (13.5 times less Cu). Also, RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% (trace (6)) performs better than RR@TiO₂ (trace (5)) with higher initial degradation rate and being able to reach complete discoloration. These observations suggest that the Cu-sites deposited on the RR@TiO₂ surface may involve to intra-gap sites facilitating the TiO₂ charge transfer to MB under band-gap irradiation. However, at higher concentrations of Cu on the TiO₂ surface the Cu-sites may act as charge recombination centers decreasing the amount of photogenerated charges [1–6]. The position of the potential energy level of the Cu-intra-gap states lies between the TiO₂ vb (3.1 eV) and the TiO₂ cb (–0.1 eV) and can be estimated to be close to 0.15 eV [19]. The Cu^{1+/2+} on the TiO₂ under band-gap irradiation would work as an electron acceptor enhancing MB-degradation [20].

Fig. 1c shows the pseudo-first order rate constant k of MB-discoloration as a function of the Cu-amount added to RR@TiO₂. Fig. 1c shows that the k for the MB-discoloration by RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% is higher compared to the k by the RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.018% photocatalyst and the other photocatalysts used to discolor MB (see Fig. 1c caption). This is the evidence for the RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% sample acting as a trap for the TiO₂vb (h⁺) increasing the charge separation and concomitantly decreasing the electron-hole

recombination in TiO₂. Higher amounts of Cu decorating RR@TiO₂ above Cu 0.004% act as charge recombination sites/centers decreasing the k values during MB-discoloration (see Fig. 1c). The MB-discoloration kinetics as a function of the initial MB-concentration and the initial pH are reported in Supplementary material S2 & S3.

Fig. 1d presents the changes in the MB-absorbance spectra between 200 and 800 nm for MB solutions $4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ in contact with RR@TiO₂ rings decorated with different amounts of Cu under Suntest light. The spectra in Fig. 1d (a–d) show that the MB-peak at 664 nm decreases more slowly as the Cu-content increases, which is consistent with results reported above in Fig. 1c. The MB-bands between 600 and 700 nm correspond to the conjugated π system comprising MB monomers/dimers [21]. The aromatic ring bands < 300 nm were observed also to disappear after around 120 min reflecting the progressive cleavage of the MB-aromatic ring. The small absorbance < 300 nm is assigned to long-lived organic intermediates left in solution [22]. The existence of long-lived intermediates in solution is further confirmed by the TOC results presented next for MB-discoloration/degradation in Fig. 1e.

Total organic carbon (TOC) decrease during the photocatalytic degradation of MB $4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ mediated by RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% under Suntest light (90 mW cm^{-2}) at initial pH values of (1) pH 5.7 and (2) pH 10 is presented in Fig. 1e. For the two pH-values investigated the initial TOC drops by 75%. The mineralization varied only in a narrow range on the Cu amounts added on the RR@TiO₂ rings. This information is available in Supplementary material S4.

3.2. Repetitive MB-discoloration and evidence for the RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% stability

Fig. 2a shows the kinetic constants during the discoloration of MB by RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% up to the 5th use cycle. The k values vary only 10% up to the 3rd cycle and became lower in the 5th cycle. The photocatalyst rings were carefully washed and dried after each cycle. Fig. 2b shows by ICP-MS the Ti-ions leached after each recycling, the values reported in Fig. 2b were far below the allowed limit set by sanitary regulations for the toxicity on mammalian cells, up to one gram TiO₂/L [23]. Fig. 2c shows the ICP-MS amounts of the Cu-ions leached during the MB-discoloration into the solution. The values of 1 ppb of Cu detected after the 5th cycle were far below the limit of 25 ppb set by some sanitary regulations [24]. The low levels found for the release of Ti and Cu indicate that we are in the presence of an oligodynamic effect involving catalysis by contact with metal and/or oxides and taking place with an almost negligible release of ions [25].

3.3. Light intensity effects on the MB-discoloration kinetics and ROS detected during the MB-degradation

Fig. 3a shows the effect of light intensity on MB discoloration in the presence of RR@TiO₂-Cu. The faster MB-discoloration kinetics was observed under a higher applied light intensity increasing the photogenerated charges in TiO₂ making up > 99.9% of the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004%. The run shown in Fig. 3a, trace (4) at 90 mW cm^{-2} , was carried out in the presence of a cut-off filter 400 nm to block the UV light. Although the UV-light is present in a relation of about 1:20 compared to the photons in the Suntest simulated light cavity emitting light in the visible range (400–800 nm), their high energy is seen to contribute to the MB-discoloration up to ~50%. Only semiconductor materials show an increased amount of photogenerated charges due to a higher applied light intensity. Fig. 3a shows that TiO₂ and not the Cu intra-gap absorbers are responsible for the observed MB-discoloration. This suggests that the TiO₂cb-

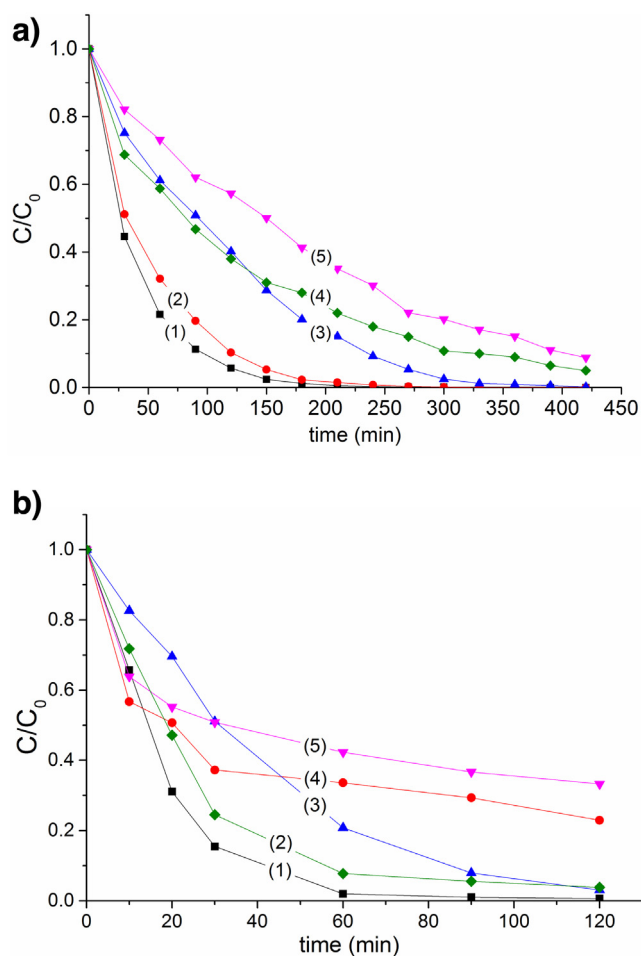


Fig. 3. (a) Discoloration of MB $4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ on RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004% as a function of the Suntest simulated sunlight intensity: (1) 120 mW cm^{-2} , (2) 90 mW cm^{-2} , (3) 60 mW cm^{-2} , (4) 90 mW cm^{-2} with UV filter at 400 nm and (5) 30 mW cm^{-2} (b) Discoloration of a solution MB ($4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$) on RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% showing the intermediates radical-species being identified by appropriate scavengers: (1) run without scavengers, (2) run in the presence of 0.2 mM methanol, (3) run in the presence of 0.2 mM NaN₃, (4) run in the presence of 0.2 mM p-benzoquinone, (5) run in the presence of 0.2 mM EDTA-2Na.

reacting with the adsorbed O₂ is the main channel leading in later stages to MB-discoloration

Fig. 3b shows the scavenging of the intermediate radicals generated on the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% surface: a) trace (2) MB-discoloration in the presence of methanol 20 mmol L⁻¹ quenching the OH[•]-radicals, b) trace (3) MB-discoloration in the presence of NaN₃ 20 mmol L⁻¹, a scavenger of oxygen singlet ¹O₂ [26,27], c) trace (4) MB-discoloration in the presence of benzoquinone 20 mmol L⁻¹ [1,2] a quencher of O₂^{•-}/HO₂[•] [28,29], d) trace (5) MB-discoloration in the presence of 20 mmol L⁻¹ ethylenediamine tetra-acetic acid disodium salt (EDTA-2Na), a widely used TiO₂vb (h⁺) scavenger [1,6]. Trace (1) shows MB-discoloration without the addition of scavengers.

Results in Fig. 3b show that the scavenging follows the series: vb (h⁺) > O₂^{•-}/HO₂[•] > ¹O₂ > OH[•]. The dissolved O₂ (8 mg L⁻¹) is not only a TiO₂ electron scavenger but its presence is necessary to generate the HO₂[•]. At pH > 4.8, more than 50% of the HO₂[•] is present in the form of O₂^{•-}. This form of the HO₂[•] radical predominates, since the initial pH of the MB-solution was ~6.0 decreasing during the MB-discoloration to a value of 4.7. The OH[•]-

radicals scavenged by methanol in Fig. 3b, trace 2) imply one electron reduction OH[•]/OH⁻ with E₀ 1.90 V NHE and show a smaller scavenging effect compared to O₂^{•-}/HO₂[•] with a lower potential of E₀ 0.75 V NHE. The lifetime and concentration of the OH[•]-radicals is much lower compared to the less energetic O₂^{•-}/HO₂[•] [30].

Azide NaN₃ has been generally reported as a singlet ¹O₂ scavenger [1,2]. However, it also reacts with OH[•]-radicals with a similar rate as it does with singlet ¹O₂ [3,15]. For this reason, the data reported in Fig. 3b wouldn't indicate in a specific way the effect of the singlet oxygen during MB-discoloration. Another issue to consider is that the CuOcb⁻ could react in two ways: a) directly with O₂ leading to O₂^{•-} or b) reducing the CuO to Cu⁺, as noted in Eqs. (1) and (2) below:



Reaction (2) is much faster than the CuO dissolution [19,20], shown in Eq. (3). The reaction (Eq (3)) involves CuO(Cu⁺) and could possibly lead to the reaction of CuO with the holes TiO₂vbh⁺.

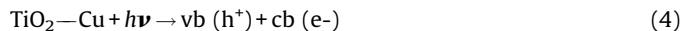


EDTA is used generally as a hole scavenger in TiO₂ photocatalysis. But it may not play this role in the case of CuO mediated photocatalysis. We observed that by scavenging TiO₂vbh⁺ with EDTA, the MB became colorless. After contacting the MB-solution with fresh air (O₂), the solution became blue again. This suggests that while blocking the TiO₂vbh⁺, MB gets reduced to the leuco form of methylene blue (LMB).

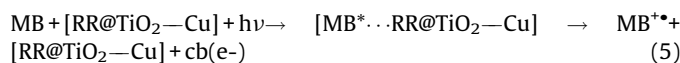
Based on these findings, the design of a reactor with a RR@TiO₂-Cu photocatalyst may consider two factors: a) good contact between the photocatalyst and the solution and b) good mixing inside the reactor for oxygen diffusion, which will improve the oxygenated radicals' formation.

3.4. Suggested reaction mechanism, involvement of Cu intra-gap states

Metals/oxides have been shown to increase the charge separation on semiconductors [1,6,19] leading to new interfaces. The discoloration mechanism is suggested to proceed initially by the photogenerated TiO₂ electrons transferred to the TiO₂cb by the Cu intra-gap states in the TiO₂ as suggested in Fig. 4.



The direct photosensitization of MB in the presence of RR@TiO₂-Cu under Suntest simulated sunlight shown in Fig. 4 may be suggested as:



Under sunlight irradiation, both the MB and TiO₂ are photosensitized, MB injects electrons into the TiO₂cb and in parallel converts MB to the MB^{•+} cation radical. The electron injected by the MB into the TiO₂ reacts with O₂ and generates highly oxidative radicals leading to the discoloration/degradation of MB as shown in Fig. 4 [20]. The low laying Cu intra-gap states promote the indirect transition of the electron from TiO₂ vb (h⁺) to the TiO₂cb. This is consistent with the results reported in Fig. 1b for RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% photocatalyst. The Cu^{1+/2+} intra-gap states also interact with the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% adsorbed O₂. In this way, the recombination rate of the TiO₂ e⁻/h⁺ pairs is hindered improving the photocatalyst MB-degradation. The addition of

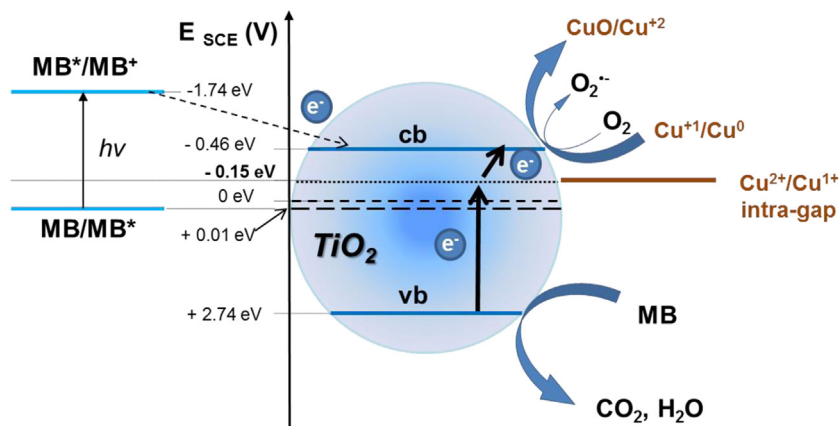


Fig. 4. Suggested scheme for RR@TiO₂–Cu intra-gap mediated electron transition under sunlight irradiation leading to MB-discoloration/degradation. For further details see text.

Cu > 0.004% makes the Cu-act as a recombination center because the thickness of the space layers decreases with increasing Cu-content [19]. The Cu¹⁺ would also reduce the air (O₂) consuming electrons or re-oxidize to Cu-ions by the photogenerated TiO₂ holes to Cu²⁺ [20,31,32].

The Cu^{1+/2+} and Ti³⁺ intermediate donor levels may be present due to the back charge transfer reaction: e⁻ + Ti⁴⁺ → Ti³⁺ following the reaction stated above in Eq. (4) [33]. The vb(h⁺) reacts with the TiO₂ O-vacancies formed concomitant to the Ti³⁺ through the channel: h⁺ + O²⁻ → O⁻ leading subsequently to the re-population of Cu¹⁺ in the Cu^{1+/2+} intra-gap states. Sputtered Cu-polystyrene was reported to present initially predominantly Cu¹⁺ states followed in later reaction stages by Cu²⁺ [15]. Cu intra-gap states in a TiO₂/Cu sputtered catalyst surface were reported to lead to more OH[•]-radicals, due to additional vb (h⁺) [16]. As long as the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% in Fig. 4 is photoactivated by light, it will continuously produce cbe- reacting with O₂ leading to the formation of oxidative intermediate radicals.

3.5. Surface properties of RR@TiO₂-Cu

3.5.1. Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS)

Fig. 5 shows the DRS spectra of the samples in Kubelka-Munk units. Cu is seen to move the RR@TiO₂ absorption drastically into the visible region. Similar optical modifications were found by Kamilashrami et al. [34] when doping TiO₂ with non-metals. Trace

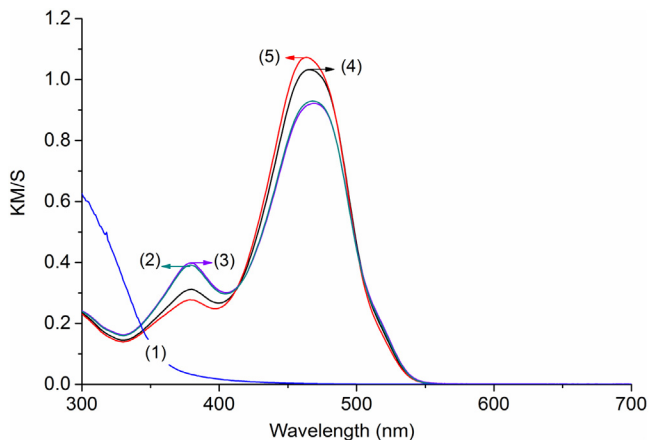


Fig. 5. DRS spectra for different Cu weight percentages in RR@TiO₂. (1) RR@TiO₂, (2) RR@TiO₂–Cu 0.004%, (3) RR@TiO₂–Cu 0.018%, (4) RR@TiO₂–Cu 0.053% and (5) RR@TiO₂–Cu 0.081%.

(1) shows the DRS spectrum of TiO₂ Degussa P-25 on glass. The Cu²⁺ ionic-radii are larger than the one of Ti⁴⁺, and therefore it would be difficult for the Cu²⁺ to replace Ti⁴⁺ in the crystal lattice [33,35]. The Cu-species may decorate the surface of the TiO₂ matrix. If Cu cations would be incorporated in the TiO₂ lattice by substituting Ti⁴⁺, the electro-neutrality demand would require the additional formation of O-vacancies. Peaks between 320 and 440 nm in Fig. 5, traces 2, 3 have been attributed to (Cu–O–Cu)²⁺ clusters in highly dispersed states. The peaks between 400 and 500 nm (Fig. 5, traces 4, 5) were assigned to three dimensional Cu¹⁺ clusters in CuO [36,37].

3.5.2. X-ray diffraction (XRD)

The XRD-spectrograms in Fig. 6 are shown for RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.018% in trace (1) and for RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.053% in trace (2). The presence of TiO₂ Degussa P-25 is confirmed by the peaks at 25° and 27.5° for anatase and rutile respectively, as reported by Hanaor et al. [38]. The size of the anatase crystals was assessed based on the (101) reflection in the spectra (1) and (2) and the calculations lead to particle size of ~20 nm in both cases. The calculations were made by means of the Debye-Scherrer equation, noted in Eq. (6).

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta \cos\theta} \quad (6)$$

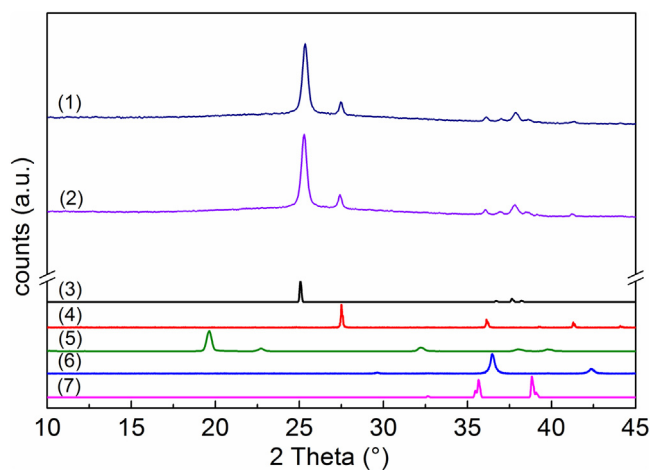


Fig. 6. XRD for different Cu weight percentages in RR@TiO₂ and references of TiO₂, Cu and Cu oxides. (1) RR@TiO₂ – Cu 0.018%, (2) RR@TiO₂ – Cu 0.053%. Reference XRD: (3) Anatase (R100013), (4) Rutile (R040049), (5) Copper (R061078), (6) Cu₂O (R050384), (7) CuO (R120076) [42].

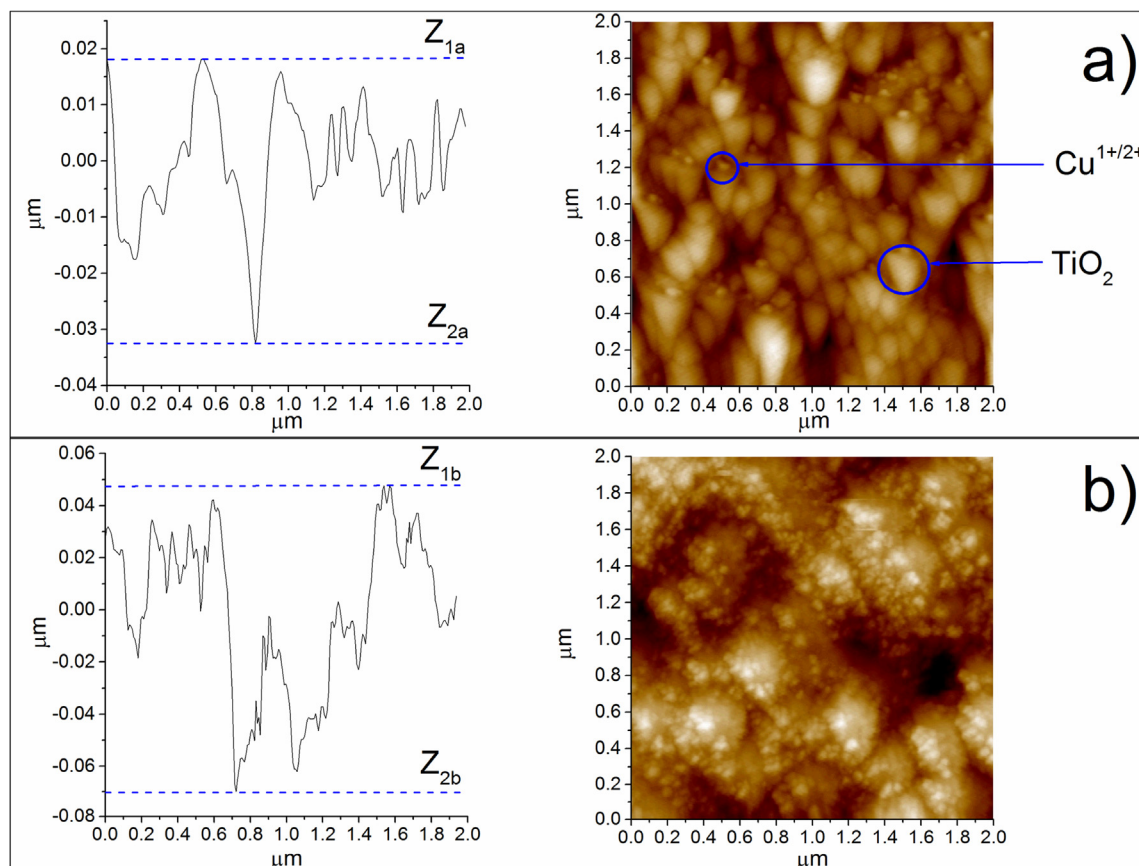


Fig. 7. (a) AFM- topography of RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.018% taken at a resolution of (2 × 2 μm), (b) AFM-topography of RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.081% taken at a resolution of (2 × 2 μm).

For Eq. (6), D stands for the crystal size in nm, κ = as the shape factor which is usually fixed as 0.89, λ = as the wavelength which is taken as 0.154 nm, β = which is the full width at half maximum for the prominent peak, and θ = as the Bragg's diffraction angle in radians [39,40]. The characteristic peaks of Cu and Cu oxides between 35° and 40° in Fig. 6, traces (1) and (2) appear as overlapping peaks of anatase (trace (3)), Cu (trace (5)), Cu₂O (trace (6)) and CuO (trace (7)). Cu-oxides peaks were found by XRD for higher Cu doping percentages (>5%) by Bensouici et al., [41]. The Cu and Cu-oxide peaks in Fig. 6 are referenced to the RRUFF database [42]; they appear between 35° and 40° for Cu, Cu₂O and CuO. In the course of this study, we could not sort out the different Cu-oxide species due to the extremely low amounts of Cu deposited on the catalyst surface.

3.5.3. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) and roughness (R_g)

Fig. 7 shows AFM-topography images of RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.018% (a) and RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.081% (b) for two scanning areas of 2 × 2 μm. The topography of RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.004% sample is not presented because the low amount of Cu could not be detected; only TiO₂ aggregates presented adequate signals. Fig. 7a) shows TiO₂ and Cu-agglomerates of ~200 nm ~20 nm in size respectively. The RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.018% samples presents a roughness (R_g) ≈ 11.8 nm. In this case, the topography of the AFM contour in Fig. 7a) shows peaks relatively closely packed to each other providing the contact points with MB [43]. Fig. 7b) illustrates the TiO₂—Cu 0.081% sample. TiO₂ and Cu agglomerates of ~200 nm and ~20 nm in size respectively were observed. The RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.081% sample presents roughness (R_g) ≈ 23.9 nm. The topography of the AFM contour in Fig. 7b) shows deeper and wider valleys to

accommodate the MB dye providing less surface contact between the photocatalyst and MB.

3.5.4. X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

Fig. 8 and Table 2 show the peak variation and the surface percentage atomic concentration of the elements present in the RR@TiO₂—Cu 0.004% during discoloration/degradation of the MB diluted solution. The XPS signal at time zero was taken after the sample was contacted with the MB solution for 30 min in the dark. Fig. 8a) shows the Ti2p doublet shift from 456.98 eV to 457.15 eV. This provides the evidence for a redox reaction occurring during the MB-degradation involving Ti³⁺/Ti⁴⁺. The appearance of Ti³⁺ species is associated to the peak initial peak shift of Ti⁴⁺ >0.2 eV [3]. Redox behavior was also observed for Cu2p_{3/2} and O1 s since peak shifts from 930.68 eV to 931.08 eV and from 528.19 to 528.39 were observed for both elements respectively as shown in Fig. 8b) and Fig. 8c) [17,18]. Fig. 8d) shows the XPS C1 s at time zero. It displays the contribution of several carbon bonds like C—C, C=C, COH, C=O, C—H etc., found in the MB such as C—C (sp²), C—C (sp³), C—N-R2 [44]. The XPS carbon peaks after 120 min irradiation (trace (2) in Fig. 8d)) were less intense, meaning a decrease in atomic carbon, consistent with the values for C1 s reported in Table 2, due to changes in the C—C (sp²) and C—C (sp³) during the MB degradation.

In Table 2 the percentage of C1 s is seen to decrease within 120 min due to MB discoloration, but a strong residual C1 s is noticed after 120 min. This observation is consistent with the TOC-results reported in Fig. 1d. No N-species adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface were detected by XPS as shown in Table 2 by the low atomic percentages found for N. The small amounts of

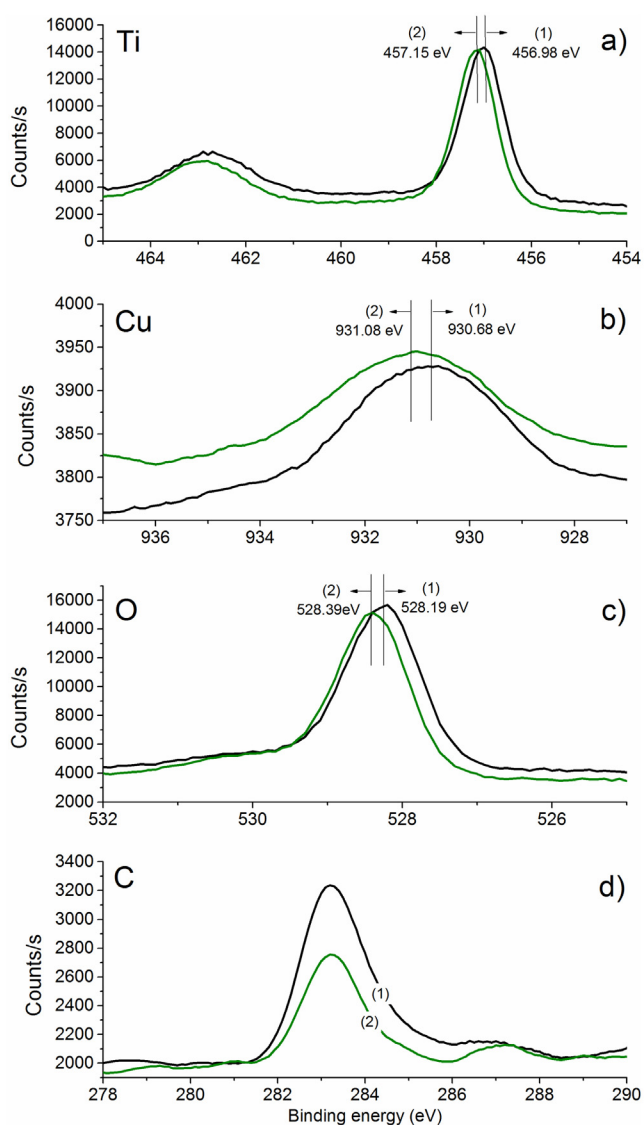


Fig. 8. XPS signals of Ti (a), Cu (b), O (c) and C (d) at time zero (1) and after discoloration of a MB 4×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹ solution on RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% (2). Suntest irradiation set at 90 mW cm⁻².

S- remained constant in experimental error during the MB-degradation. A complicated pattern is noticed for the percentage variation of O1 s signals as a function of time reported in Table 2. This may be due to the complicated nature of the O-containing intermediate radicals generated during the MB-degradation. The percentage of Cu could not be reported in the last column of Table 2 due to the low amounts of Cu in the RR@TiO₂-Cu 0.004% sample.

Table 2
Atomic percentage concentration of the elements of the sample RR@TiO₂-Cu-0.004%, during the degradation of MB: 4×10^{-5} mol L⁻¹.

Irradiation time (min)	C1s	N1s	O1s	S2p	Ti2p	Cu2p _{3/2}
0	18.04	3.54	62.48	0.18	24.06	0
30	16.72	1.40	76.03	0.58	20.23	0
60	13.51	0.44	70.22	0.52	22.30	0
120	13.11	0.40	60.42	0.37	23.72	0

4. Conclusions

Cu-decoration seems to induce an intra-gap-electronic state in the TiO₂ facilitating the indirect electron transition in the TiO₂ band-gap and leading to an accelerated MB-degradation kinetics. The results obtained during MB discoloration showed that a Cu-addition of 0.004% on RR@TiO₂ led to the highest photocatalytic activity. The addition of Cu on RR@TiO₂ shifts strongly the photocatalyst absorbance into the visible region. The Cu intra-gap states in RR@TiO₂-Cu could not be characterized due to the low amounts of Cu present in the photocatalyst. Higher Cu-levels on the TiO₂ surface seem to act as recombination centers for the photogenerated charges decreasing the rate of MB-discoloration. By the use of appropriate scavengers (TiO₂v b (h +)) was found to be the most important intermediate species leading to MB-degradation. The XPS-shifts during the photocatalytic degradation of MB provides the evidence for redox events between CuOx/TiO₂ and the MB. The AFM results indicate that a low Cu-loading on the RR@TiO₂ rings showed a close packed *contour* compared to the wide-spaced *contour* obtained with higher Cu-loadings. A close packed *contour* in the low Cu-loading provides more contact points with MB leading to faster degradation.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2016.12.006>.

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