

## Photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> doped with boron and vanadium

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Available online 20 April 2007

### Abstract

Boron (B)- and vanadium (V)-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysts were synthesized using modified sol–gel reaction processes and characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy and N<sub>2</sub> physisorption (BET). The photocatalytic activities were evaluated by monitoring the degradation of methylene blue (MB). The results showed that the materials possess high surface area. The addition of B favored the transformation of anatase to rutile, while in the presence of V, anatase was the only phase detected. The MB degradation on V-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> was significantly affected by the preparation method. In fact while the presence of V in the bulk did not influence strongly the photoreactivity under visible irradiation, an increase of surface V doping lead to improved photodegradation of MB. The degradation of MB dye indicated that the photocatalytic activities of TiO<sub>2</sub> increased as the boron doping increased, with high conversion efficiency for 9 mol% B doping.

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**Keywords:** TiO<sub>2</sub>; Doping; Methylene blue photodegradation; Boron; Vanadium

### 1. Introduction

Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) has attracted growing scientific interest for its good performances in photocatalytic oxidation of organic molecules, for its application in solar cells, thin-film optical devices, and as gas sensor [1]. TiO<sub>2</sub> mediated photooxidation is indeed used for environmental remediation [2], where toxic materials at low concentration are converted, in a series of chemical steps, to harmless oxidation products such CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. Honda and Fujishima have evidenced the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> since the pioneering studies of water reduction through photoexcitation of TiO<sub>2</sub> in 1972 [3].

Interestingly, according to many reports [1,4,5] the activity of anatase phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the photodegradation of various pollutants is, in general, much higher than that of rutile. It has been shown that the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> is influenced by crystal structure, surface area, crystallinity and porosity [5]. Many approaches have been used to obtain nanosized samples

phase of anatase titania, such as chemical vapor synthesis [5], the sol–gel method [6,7] and the hydrothermal [8,9] or solvothermal methods [10].

TiO<sub>2</sub> has the advantage of good chemical stability, absence of toxicity and relative low price, but a serious disadvantage is its large band-gap ( $E_g = 3.2$  eV) that requires that near-UV light is used to photoactivate this very attractive photocatalyst. Many techniques have been examined to extend the spectral response of TiO<sub>2</sub> into the visible region and enhance its photocatalytic activity. Recently, improved TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysts have been obtained by doping with non-metal atoms such as carbon [11–14], nitrogen [14,15], sulfur [14,16] or using codoped materials [14,17–19]. Several attempts have been also made to narrow the band gap energy by doping with various transition metals ions [20–23] and lanthanides [24,25]. At this regard, great attention has been dedicated to vanadium (V)-doped titania, for which the preparation procedure has dramatic effects on the reactivity. As a matter of fact, while several works show that V-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> has an increased photoactivity with respect to the undoped sample [26–28], there are same evidences that V-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> produced by a co-precipitation method yields to opposite performances [29]. More recently, promising bulk boron (B)-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> has been investigated [30,31]. Here we present results relative to the design of improved TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysts doped with

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V or B and we test their activity on the basis of the degradation of methylene blue (MB).

## 2. Experimental/material and methods

### 2.1. Reagents

Titanium(IV) butoxide ( $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$ , 97%) and V oxytripropoxide ( $\text{VO}(\text{OPr})_3$ , 98%) were from Aldrich, chloridric acid ( $\text{HCl}$ , 37%) and ethanol ( $\text{EtOH}$ ,  $\geq 99.9\%$ ) were from J.T. Baker, nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\geq 65\%$ ) was from Fluka and boric acid ( $\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3$ , 99.8%) was from CarloErba. The water was distilled twice before use. All chemicals were used as received.

### 2.2. Catalyst preparation

#### 2.2.1. V-doped samples

V-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples were prepared by a sol–gel method as follows. 30.0 mL of ethanol, 0.8 mL of  $\text{HCl}$ , 6.0 mL of  $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$  were mixed under stirring. The vanadium alkoxide was added at different times: after 1 min, 5 min, 30 min, 1 h and the samples will be denoted hereafter as TV1m, TV5m, TV30m, TV1h, respectively. The solvent was evaporated at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  until the xerogels were formed. The xerogels were annealed in air at a temperature of  $500^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 h and yellow–brown powders were obtained. In all cases the nominal molar ratio between titanium and vanadium was 99:1. For the sake of comparison, an undoped titania sample, labeled as  $\text{TiO}_2(\text{I})$ , was also prepared using the same procedure.

#### 2.2.2. B-doped samples

B-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples were prepared by a sol–gel method as follows. Typically, 17.0 g of  $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$  were dissolved at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  in 40.0 mL of anhydrous ethanol under argon atmosphere to form the solution 1. Meanwhile, 3.0 mL of concentrated  $\text{HNO}_3$  were mixed with 35.0 mL of anhydrous ethanol and 15.0 mL of water to prepare the solution 2. Then the solution 1 was added drop-wise into the solution 2, under argon atmosphere, within 20 min under vigorous stirring. Appropriate amounts of  $\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3$  were dissolved in 10.0 mL of bi-distilled water, and rapidly added drop-wise to the resulting solution. The solution was continuously stirred for 30–60 min until the formation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  gel. After aging for at least 24 h at room temperature, the as-prepared  $\text{TiO}_2$  gel was dried at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 12 h. The obtained solid was ground and annealed at  $450^\circ\text{C}$  for 6 h with a heating rate of  $3^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . For the sake of comparison, an undoped titania sample, labelled as  $\text{TiO}_2(\text{II})$ , was also prepared using the same procedure. The B-doped samples are denoted as  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-X}$ , where “X” represents the doping element B and the molar% nominal dopant loading.

### 2.3. Catalyst characterization

The specific surface areas of the samples (BET method) were obtained by  $\text{N}_2$  physisorption at liquid nitrogen temperature using a Micromeritics ASAP2020C apparatus. All the samples were previously degassed at  $350^\circ\text{C}$  for 12 h. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples after annealing were

recorded with a computer controlled Philips X'Pert diffractometer using  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation. Room temperature FT-Raman spectra were obtained using a Perkin-Elmer 2000 FT-Raman spectrometer equipped with an InGaAs detector. A diode pumped Nd:YAG laser (at 1064 nm), with a laser power of 300 mW, was used as the excitation source.

### 2.4. Photocatalysis experiments

The photocatalytic activity of the materials was tested with the degradation of MB. Experiments were carried out in a 450 mL Pyrex photochemical reactor with a 450 W medium pressure mercury lamp (model 7825–34, ACE GLASS Inc., USA). The initial concentration of the dye was 19 mg/L and the concentration of the photocatalyst was 2.8 g/L. The concentration of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  photocatalyst was chosen as the minimum concentration to obtain full absorption of the incident photon flux. The degradation was carried out at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . The addition of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  based catalysts induced a pH decrease to 5.5 in all cases. No significant modification of the pH was observed during the experiments. Cold aqueous potassium dichromate solution (3% w/w) was circulated through a cylindrical jacket, made of Pyrex and located around the lamp to filter the radiation with  $\lambda < 420\text{ nm}$  and to avoid the heating of solution. In this condition, the lamp yielded a photon flux of  $\phi_i = 0.5\text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ , at  $\lambda = 360\text{ nm}$  and of  $\phi_i = 108.0\text{ mW cm}^{-2}$  in the spectral range between 400 and 1050 nm determined by using a DeltaOHM radiometer HD2302.0 leaned against the external wall of the photoreactor containing only pure water, whereas  $\phi_i = 0.1\text{ mW cm}^{-2}$  at  $\lambda = 360\text{ nm}$  and  $\phi_i = 5\text{ mW cm}^{-2}$  in the visible region was measured in the presence of the catalyst suspension. Before irradiation the suspension was stirred in the dark for 1 h to reach adsorption equilibrium [32]. In the case of B-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$ , The maximum decrease of the dye concentration due to this phenomenon was about 2–3%, while in the case of V-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  a significantly higher adsorption of MB on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface was observed (15–30%). At each time step, an aliquot of 3.0 mL of the aqueous suspension was taken and filtered through a  $0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  millipore disc to remove the catalyst powder. A Perkin Elmer Lambda 2 UV–vis. spectrometer was used for the determination of dye concentration. Since the degradation pathway for the selected dye is known with high reliability [33,34], we have monitored only the decoloration process. The normalized intensity of the absorption band at 660 nm is therefore plotted as a function of time of irradiation.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterization

It is widely accepted that the efficiency of  $\text{TiO}_2$  as a photocatalyst is strongly related to its crystal structure. Titanium dioxide has three polymorphs: rutile (tetragonal, space group  $P4_2/mnm$ ), anatase (tetragonal, space group  $I4_1/amd$ ) and brookite (orthorhombic, space group  $Pbca$ ) [35]. Under ambient conditions bulk rutile is thermodynamically more stable than anatase or brookite. However, the phase stability depends upon

Table 1  
Texture and structural properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> and V and B-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>

Sample	BET surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	Cumulative pore volume (mL/g)	Pore diameter (nm)	Crystallite size <sup>a</sup> (nm)	Anatase (%)	Rutile (%)
TiO <sub>2</sub> (II)	83	0.16	5.7	13	100	–
TiO <sub>2</sub> –B2	86	0.13	4.1	A 8 R 22	97	3
TiO <sub>2</sub> –B9	127	0.26	3.1	A 6 R 6	94	6
TiO <sub>2</sub> –B18	139	0.26	5.2	A 5.9 R 10.5	79	21
TiO <sub>2</sub> (I)	58	0.12	5.4	12	100	–
T1V1m	58	0.14	7.3	12	100	–
T1V30m	85	0.18	6.0	12	100	–
T1V1h	107	0.22	6.2	12	100	–

<sup>a</sup> Obtained by Scherrer equation and the labels A and R refer to anatase and rutile respectively.

surface energy differences between the three phases and anatase with particle size below ca. 14 nm is more stable than rutile [36]. Also, anatase phase is more stable than brookite in nanocrystals with size smaller than 11 nm [37]. It is well documented that the anatase polymorph has a higher photoactivity compared to rutile or brookite polymorphs [1,4,38].

The sol–gel synthesis is an easy and rapid method to obtain single phase anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> [39–41], which may be also successfully doped with metal or non-metal ions [25,26,30,42]. By applying the sol–gel method we have obtained nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> powders doped with either B or V.

In the case of V, the vanadium precursor was added at different times during the sol–gel hydrolysis reaction. This procedure should produce TiO<sub>2</sub> samples with different distribution of the vanadium ions in the nanoparticle. In particular, the V ions should be more concentrated on the surface of the nanoparticles for samples in which the addition of the V precursor has been made at longer times. Table 1 summarize the XRD data and the texture characteristics (BET surface area and porosity). The phase contents of the samples were calculated from the integrated intensities of anatase and rutile diffraction peaks according to the following formula [37]:

$$W_R = \frac{A_R}{0.884A_A + A_R}$$

where  $W_R$  represents the weight fraction of rutile,  $A_A$  the integrated intensity of the anatase (1 0 1) peak and  $A_R$  the integrated intensity of the rutile (1 1 0) peak. The X-ray diffraction patterns indicate that the present V-doped samples consist of anatase single phase, with no contamination of other titania phases. This is also confirmed by Raman spectroscopy (see Fig. 1), a technique that can indicate the presence of additional phases (rutile or brookite) even at very low levels. In fact the Raman spectrum of anatase single crystal shows six Raman bands at 144 (E<sub>g</sub>), 197 (E<sub>g</sub>), 399 (B<sub>1g</sub>), 513 (A<sub>1g</sub>), 519 (B<sub>1g</sub>) and 639 cm<sup>-1</sup> (E<sub>g</sub>) [38]. On the other hand, the rutile phase has four Raman active modes at 143 (B<sub>1g</sub>), 447 (E<sub>g</sub>), 612 (A<sub>1g</sub>), and 826 cm<sup>-1</sup> (B<sub>2g</sub>) [39]. The brookite phase has three Raman bands at 366, 326 and 247 cm<sup>-1</sup> [43,44]. The Raman spectra of the B-doped samples show the typical bands of the anatase phase (see Fig. 1). In addition, some bands at 447 and 612 cm<sup>-1</sup>, due to the rutile phase, appear in the Raman spectra, giving rise to a broadening of the Raman bands. This evidence is more appreciable in the case of

TiO<sub>2</sub>–B18 sample, which contains the highest percentage of the rutile phase (21%, as indicated by the X-ray data, see Table 1). As already discussed in the literature [43,45], the Raman bands of rutile are broader in a mixed phase spectrum in which rutile is present as a minor component. Both the XRD and Raman data show that the presence of boron promotes the formation of the rutile phase.

The adopted preparation methods lead to the formation of mesoporous materials, all characterized by high surface area (Table 1). The addition of V after the hydrolysis of the titanium alkoxides enhances the surface area and porosity of the doped titania. The effect is more pronounced when the V addition is performed at higher hydrolysis degree, corresponding to higher

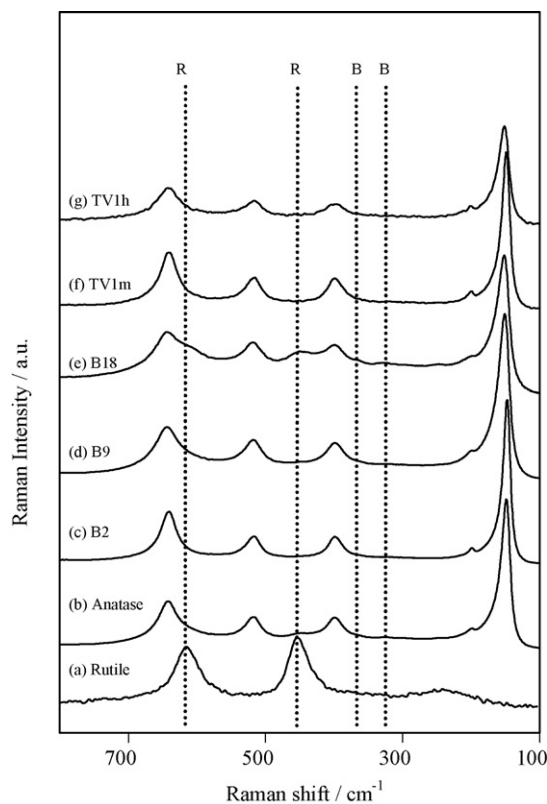


Fig. 1. Selected Raman spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> samples: (a) TiO<sub>2</sub> (rutile), (b) TiO<sub>2</sub> (anatase), (c) TiO<sub>2</sub>–B2, (d) TiO<sub>2</sub>–B9, (e) TiO<sub>2</sub>–B18, (f) TV1m and (g) TV1h. Dashed vertical lines indicate the position of rutile (R) and brookite (B) Raman peaks.

surface V concentration. The addition of growing quantities of B increases the surface area of the final materials. (Table 1)

### 3.2. MB photodegradation

The photocatalytic activity of the various TiO<sub>2</sub> systems was tested with the degradation of MB. Under the adopted experimental conditions, the degradation of the selected dye is significant only when TiO<sub>2</sub> and irradiation are simultaneously present.

Fig. 2 reports the MB degradation activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> and V-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> after 240 min of irradiation as a function of the preparation procedure. It must be noted that the MB adsorption on the catalyst surface is significant and depends on the preparation method. In fact adsorption of 27, 45, 38, 13 and 10% was observed respectively for TiO<sub>2</sub>(I), TV1m, TV5m, TV30m and TV1h. Mutual interaction between Ti<sup>4+</sup>/Ti<sup>3+</sup> and V<sup>5+</sup>/V<sup>4+</sup> was deeply investigated by Trifirò et al. [46]. It has been indicated that complex redox process involving these species can modify the nature of the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface [47] and therefore the adsorption capacity. The MB photodegradation, after correction for the dye adsorption, indicates that the addition of 1 mol% vanadium during the sol–gel process (mainly in the bulk) does not influence the reactivity significantly, while the presence of V on the surface and the consequent increasing of sample surface area improve the photoreactivity. It is worth noting that when V is mainly present on the surface (TV1h sample) deactivation start to occur even though the sample surface area is the highest of all the V-doped samples, suggesting the presence of some poisoning effects.

In agreement with previous observations [30], addition of bulk B enhances the photodegradation activity of the TiO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3). While the incorporation of 2 mol% of B has a minor effect, significant improvements are observed after doping TiO<sub>2</sub> with 9 and 18 mol% of B.

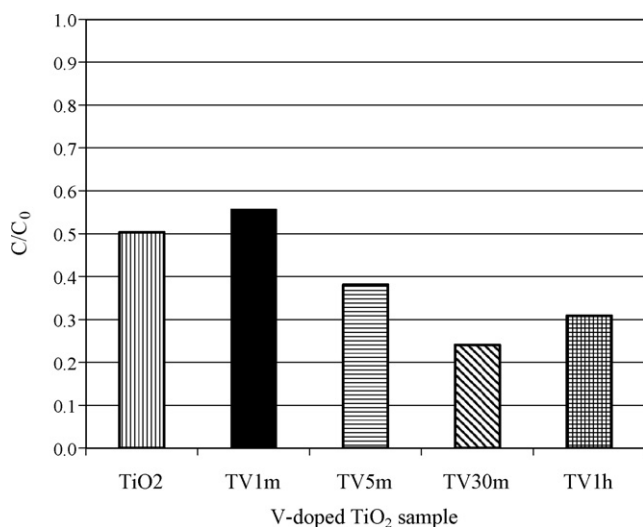


Fig. 2. Photocatalytic degradation of MB over V-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> after 240 min of irradiation. (a) TiO<sub>2</sub>(I), (b) TV1m, (c) TV5m, (d) TV30m and (e) TV1h. Conditions: C<sub>0</sub> = 19 mg/L, m (TiO<sub>2</sub>) = 1000 mg, V = 350 mL, T = 25 °C, natural pH.

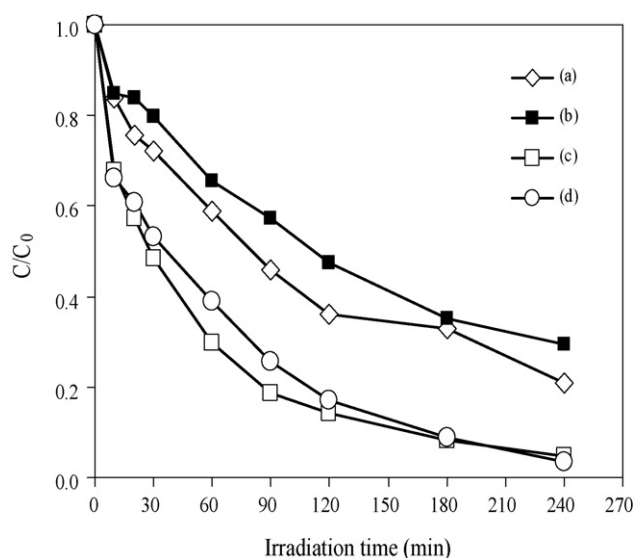


Fig. 3. Photocatalytic degradation of MB over B-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>. (a) = TiO<sub>2</sub>(II), (b) TiO<sub>2</sub>-B2, (c) TiO<sub>2</sub>-B9 and (d) TiO<sub>2</sub>-B18. Conditions: C<sub>0</sub> = 19 mg/L, m(TiO<sub>2</sub>) = 1000 mg, V = 350 mL, T = 25 °C, natural pH.

The improved photocatalytic activity of the B-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> is consistent with recent reports [11,12]. Our recent DFT calculations on 4 mol% B-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>, predict an increased band gap for interstitial B-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> [48]. The calculated DOS indicates the presence of three partially reduced Ti sites for each introduced B as an interstitial dopant. A reduced Ti center on the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface was recently demonstrated to be the site for activation of highly reactive super-oxide species [14].

## 4. Conclusions

We have presented in this paper photocatalysis results for doping processes of TiO<sub>2</sub> based materials. The addition of 1 mol% of V can enhance the photodegradation of MB. More specifically, the data indicate that the activity can be tuned by dosing the amount of surface V. Above a certain concentration, deactivation was observed. More effective is bulk TiO<sub>2</sub> B-doping, leading to a significant enhancement of MB conversion. 9 mol% B was identified as the optimal composition for best photodegradation performances.

## Acknowledgements

We are indebted to Prof. M. Graziani for numerous fruitful discussions and we are grateful to Prof. S. Enzo for the XRD measurements.

Universities of Trieste and Verona, Fondazione Cariverona, CENMAT, INSTM and FISIR2002 “Nanosistemi inorganici ed ibridi per lo sviluppo e l’innovazione di celle a combustibile” are acknowledged for financial support.

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