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# Studying TiO<sub>2</sub> coatings on silica-covered glass by O<sub>2</sub> photosorption measurements and FTIR–ATR spectrometry Correlation with the self-cleaning efficacy

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#### Abstract

Self-cleaning coatings on glass plates covered with a thin silica barrier layer were formed from anatase nanoparticles mixed with Ti and Si organic salts, and subsequent calcination. UV irradiation of these coatings exposed to  $O_2$  produced either a gradual increase or decrease in  $O_2$  pressure *P* (1–120 Pa). For each coating the initial *P* value, *P*<sub>sat</sub>, separating the domains of a net photoadsorption or a net photodesorption was regarded as characterizing the  $O_2$  photosorption capacity. *P*<sub>sat</sub> was found to be correlated to the self-cleaning efficacy evaluated by optically following the removal rate of an organic layer issued from hexadecanoic acid sprayed on the coating. The unfavorable role of SiO<sub>2</sub> (used to better anchor the coating) with respect to electron transfer between  $O_2$  and the UV-irradiated coatings is discussed, taking into account the fact that an FTIR–ATR study showed the existence of Si–O–Ti bonds in the coatings. © 2003 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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# 1. Introduction

Glass is a very widely employed industrial material. Its main sectors of use are housing and transportation. In most cases, periodical cleaning is required to maintain its optical properties, such as transparency and visual aspect, which can be costly, particularly when the accessibility to the glass surfaces is difficult (towers, roofs, etc.). Therefore there is a need for self-cleaning glass. A TiO<sub>2</sub> thin coating deposited onto the glass covered by a silica barrier layer has been shown to be effective in this regard owing to the photocatalytic destruction of organic dirt as a result of UV solar irradiation (see for example [1]).

Previous studies in our laboratory [2,3] have shown that  $TiO_2$ -coated glass samples similar to those examined here had a self-cleaning efficacy that appeared to be sufficient. This efficacy was assessed by spraying a thin layer of an organic compound representative of soiling. A fatty acid (hexadecanoic or palmitic acid (PA) [2]) and a polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (fluoranthene [3]) were used because these types of compounds are, in particular, important com-

ponents of suspended solid particles in the troposphere. The glass plates thus covered with an organic film were irradiated under conditions simulating solar light in the UV-A spectral region. Dissolution of the organic film with several solvents after various irradiation times and subsequent analysis of the solutions allowed us to measure the elimination rate of the deposited organic compound, to determine the nature of the degradation intermediate products (about 40) were identified in both cases), and to quantitate some of these products. Degradation pathways were deduced from these results. Additionally, quantitative measurements of volatile organic products ( $C_1$ – $C_6$  carbonyls) emitted during the removal of the organic film were utilized to evaluate the potential effect on air quality if the self-cleaning glass was employed indoors. About 20% of the organic carbon contained in hexadecanoic acid [2] or in fluoranthene [3] was transformed into these volatile carbonyls. This percentage was lower than that found when fluoranthene-which is photosensitive in the UV-A spectral region-was sprayed onto glass without the TiO<sub>2</sub>-coating; moreover, in this latter case, the irradiated organic layer became and remained yellowish [3]. For a layer of photoinsensitive hexadecanoic acid, a simple calculation showed that volatile carbonyls cannot be emitted in quantities high enough to significantly change their usual concentration in indoor air [2]. On the basis

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of these results, it seems possible to conclude that the use of this type of self-cleaning glass in confined atmospheres not only does not impair the air quality but can improve it.

Here we report characterizations of the TiO<sub>2</sub> coatings on glass by O<sub>2</sub> photosorption measurements and by FTIR–ATR spectrometry. Correlations with the self-cleaning efficacy are also presented. The main purpose was to determine the effect of the presence of silica in the binder employed to improve the anchoring of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles on the thin silica barrier layer covering the glass. As interaction of O<sub>2</sub> with TiO<sub>2</sub> is essential in photocatalytic oxidation we thought of interest to study the photosorption of O<sub>2</sub>. Its knowledge enables one to obtain information which offers the advantage of being independent of any other reactant.

# 2. Experimental

# 2.1. Coating

The industrial glass was covered by Saint-Gobain [4] with a thin silica barrier layer whose object was to hinder the TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalytic activity from being decreased by sodium ions migrating from the glass during the thermal treatment used to better fix the coating [1]. The coating was made of  $TiO_2$ nanoparticles and an inorganic binder. The TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were synthesized by Rhodia via thermohydrolysis of Ti salts in acidic medium. Calcination of the sol at 373 K produced particles of anatase (90%) and no rutile. The elementary crystallite size was  $7.0 \pm 0.5$  nm and the average diameter of the lentil-shape particles was 40 nm. Their volumic mass of 2.8 g cm<sup>-3</sup> compared with 3.85 g cm<sup>-3</sup> for an anatase single crystal was indicative of a high porosity. These nanoparticles were mixed in appropriate proportions with organic salts of Ti and Si dissolved in ethanol +1. 2-ethanediol [5]. According to the Saint-Gobain procedure [4], the mixture was poured into a cell, whose vertical walls (one or several) were constituted by the glass plates to be coated, and was withdrawn at a constant rate. The film thus deposited was subsequently calcined, the maximum temperature being 773 or 823 K. For the four samples studied, the mass of coating was comprised between 0.17 and  $0.20 \,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{m}^{-2}$  of glass, the mass ratio of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to the binder was always 1:1, the weight percent of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder with respect to  $SiO_2$  was varied from 14 to 75 (Table 1).

Table 1 Data about the coatings

Weight percent <sup>a</sup> of TiO <sub>2</sub> in the binder	Coating amount per glass area (g m <sup>-2</sup> )
75	0.20
50	0.17
25	0.18
14	0.17

<sup>a</sup> With respect to SiO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 2.2. O<sub>2</sub> photosorption measurements

For the measurements of  $O_2$  photosorption, the glass plate (5 cm × 3 cm × 4 mm) was introduced into a specially designed Pyrex glass cell with an optical window allowing UV irradiation. The aperture permitting the glass plate introduction was closed by means of a metallic flange and a Viton O-ring. The cell was connected to a vacuum system including a Pfeiffer Duo 2.5 rotatory pump and an Edwards BRV 10 oil diffusion pump enabling one to achieve a residual pressure of  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-6}$  Pa. This system was also linked to a cylinder containing  $O_2$  whose pressure was measured with a Datametrics Dresser barocel sensor.

Irradiation was provided by a Philips HPK 125 W high pressure mercury lamp through a 2 cm thick circulating-water cuvette and the cell optical window transmitting wavelengths >300 nm. If one takes into account the TiO<sub>2</sub> absorption, the Hg lines able to activate TiO<sub>2</sub> were those at 313 and 365.5 nm. The radiant power at the glass plate level was estimated, by use of a UDT 21 A power meter, to be ca. 40 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>.

Before each experiment, the coated-glass sample was irradiated under  $1.3 \times 10^5$  Pa of O<sub>2</sub> for 15 h to photocatalytically oxidize the adsorbed/deposited organic compounds, and the cell was evacuated in the dark to a residual pressure <0.01 Pa. The O<sub>2</sub> pressure desired for the photosorption experiment was then introduced in the dark.

# 2.3. FTIR-ATR study

A Perkin Elmer Spectrum One spectrometer equipped with a universal attenuated total reflection (ATR) accessory was used. The incident IR beam through the composite Zn Se/diamond crystal has a limited penetration depth into the sample pressed against this crystal, so that it allows one to characterize preponderantly the sample surface, that is in the present case the glass coating.

# 2.4. Palmitic (hexadecanoic) acid (PA) test

As mentioned in Section 1, the self-cleaning efficacy had been estimated in our laboratory by following via gas chromatography analysis the kinetic disappearance of PA sprayed onto the glass coating [2]. In the test to which we refer in this paper this disappearance was determined by Saint-Gobain by measuring the ratio of the diffuse transmission to the total transmission of the glass and equating this ratio to a layer thickness of PA. This optical measurement is faster than the chemical analysis and better corresponds to the cleaning process, since in fact it does not refer to PA only but also to its degradation intermediate products remaining on the coating and accordingly susceptible to modifying the optical properties.



Fig. 1. Variations in the logarithm of the  $O_2$  pressure as a function of the irradiation time over the coating containing 75 wt.% of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder (cf. Table 1) for the initial pressures indicated.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. $O_2$ photosorption

The  $O_2$  initial pressure  $P_0$  corresponded to the adsorption equilibrium in the dark. This equilibrium was reached within 1–4 h for the  $P_0$  range investigated, that is 1–120 Pa. Upon irradiation a gradual decrease or increase in the O<sub>2</sub> pressure P was observed. We recorded P over 25-75 h depending on the extent of its variations. In a plot of ln P against the irradiation time t the experimental points were found to be satisfactorily aligned (Fig. 1), i.e.  $\ln(P/P_0) = kt$ , a positive k reflecting a net photoadsorption and a negative k a net photodesorption. Differentiating this experimental relationship leads to dP/dt = kP; in other words, the photosorption was found to be a first-order phenomenon with respect to P over the P range studied. This relationship also means that recording P over a few hours is sufficient to determine the value of k; durations as long as those mentioned above (25-75 h)were used only to ascertain the relationship and it will not be necessary to reach such durations in regular experiments.

The  $P_0$  value for which the sign of k changes corresponds to the saturation of the surface by oxygen species under the irradiation conditions used; it is denoted as  $P_{\text{sat}}$  (Fig. 2). It can be regarded as reflecting the O<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity of the coating. The higher  $P_{\text{sat}}$  is, the higher the O<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity under irradiation. Note that photoproduced electrons induce oxygen adsorption on being captured by O<sub>2</sub>, forming O<sub>2</sub>•<sup>-</sup> and possibly O<sup>•-</sup> adsorbed/surface species, while photoproduced holes induce oxygen desorption on being captured by these radical-anions.

Fig. 3 shows a plot of  $P_{\text{sat}}$  as a function of  $\Gamma_{\text{TiO}_2,b}$  the mass of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder per area unit of glass plate (the mass of TiO<sub>2</sub> introduced into the coating in the form of nanoparticles was kept nearly constant as can be derived from the amount of coating per glass area (Table 1)

and the nanoparticles/binder 1:1 mass ratio).  $P_{sat}$  increased slightly on going from  $\Gamma_{TiO_2,b} = 1.2$  to 2.2 µg cm<sup>-2</sup>, but much more markedly for the higher  $\Gamma_{TiO_2,b}$  values (4.2 and 7.5 µg cm<sup>-2</sup>). This increase is not unexpected since insulating silica, used in place of titania in the binder, can both forbid or restrict the accessibility of O<sub>2</sub> to TiO<sub>2</sub> by encapsulation and favor the confinement of photogenerated electrons in the individual TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to which O<sub>2</sub> can access, thereby potentially increasing the recombination rate of these electrons. By contrast, electrons photogenerated in the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles can migrate into the semiconducting TiO<sub>2</sub> binder and be captured by O<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on it.

 $P_{\text{sat}}$  was also determined for the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles used in the coating preparation. For that, these nanoparticles were dried and as uniformly as possible spread onto the glass plate covered with the silica barrier layer. The variations in *P* as a function of  $P_0$  were measured as for the normally coated glass plates. In that case  $P_{\text{sat}}$  was found to be about 2.5 Pa,



Fig. 2. Slopes of the straight lines  $(\ln P = kt + \ln P_0)$  of Fig. 1 against the initial O<sub>2</sub> pressure  $P_0$ .  $P_{sat}$  is the  $P_0$  value above which a net photodesorption was observed for this coating.



Fig. 3. Values of  $P_{\text{sat}}$  depending on the mass of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder per glass area for the samples of Table 1. The  $P_{\text{sat}}$  value obtained for a uniform layer of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles used in the coatings is also shown.

that is lower than for the coatings irrespective of the silica fraction in the binder (Fig. 3). Although the dispersion of the UV light by the spread nanoparticles or by the coatings probably differs, this markedly smaller O<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity in the absence of any binder is indicative both of an electron transfer from the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to TiO<sub>2</sub> binder and of a higher amount of adsorbed O<sub>2</sub> on TiO<sub>2</sub> binder than on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. This increase in adsorbed O<sub>2</sub> is not unexpected since scanning electron micrographs [2] showed the binder to be amorphous, which points to a high surface area and hence a high adsorption capacity. The amorphous character of TiO<sub>2</sub> binder also suggests a higher density in structural defects with respect to TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and therefore a higher recombination rate of charges photogenerated in the  $TiO_2$  binder. Consequently, we think that the main reason for the increase in the O<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity due to the  $TiO_2$  binder (Fig. 3) is not dominantly caused by the creation of electron-hole pairs in this part of the coating, but by transfer of electrons from the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to the  $TiO_2$  binder and subsequently to  $O_2$  adsorbed on it.

# 3.2. Correlation $O_2$ adsorption capacity—self-cleaning efficacy

As indicated in Section 2, the self-cleaning efficacy was equated to the removal rate  $r_{PA}$  of a palmitic acid layer and accordingly expressed in layer thickness unit per time unit. Fig. 4 shows that  $r_{PA}$  and  $P_{sat}$  are correlated. In more detail,  $r_{PA}$  is roughly proportional to  $P_{sat}$  for the three samples containing between 14 and 50 wt.% of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder with respect to SiO<sub>2</sub>, the increase in this percentage having a greater effect on  $r_{PA}$  than on  $P_{sat}$ . By contrast, when this percentage increases from 50 to 75, the augmentation in  $r_{PA}$  is smaller than that in  $P_{sat}$ . To explain this slope change in the  $r_{PA}$ - $P_{sat}$  plot (Fig. 4) the removal rate of the organic de-

posit initially constituted of palmitic acid can be regarded as limited by the amount of adsorbed oxygen species and/or the quantity of available holes (which increases with increasing electron capture) for the samples with the lowest weight percent of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder, since both types of entities can be involved in the oxidation of the organic deposit. For TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder >50 wt.%—that is the highest O<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity—these quantities would have reached such values that their relative influence on the organic deposit removal rate becomes less important.

#### 3.3. FTIR–ATR study of the coatings

We also addressed the question about whether the preparation of the coating created Si–O–Ti bonds along with the Ti–O–Ti and Si–O–Si bonds. The Si–O–Ti bonds have a characteristic absorption band in the 910–960 cm<sup>-1</sup> spectral region [6–8]. To search for this band we used an ATR device which allowed us to avoid or minimize the contribution of the silica barrier layer to the infrared spectrum of the coating which also contained silica.

Fig. 5 shows the spectra obtained. For the two highest contents of silica in the binder, a band at ca.  $960 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is clearly visible. Computerized deconvolution also indicates a weak absorption around  $960 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the two other coatings containing Si, and its absence for a specially prepared coating without Si. Also, a  $960 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  band was found to be present in the spectrum of the powder obtained by mulling the binder containing 86 wt.% of SiO<sub>2</sub> which had been calcined under the conditions used to elaborate the coatings.

As proposed in Ref. [7], the relative density of the Si–O–Ti bonds with respect to the Si–O–Si bonds was determined by the use of the expression

$$D = \left(\frac{I_{\rm Si-O-Ti}}{I_{\rm Si-O-Si}}\right) \left(\frac{x_{\rm Si}}{x_{\rm Ti}}\right)$$



Fig. 4. Correlation between the self-cleaning efficacy, as expressed by the removal rate of a palmitic acid layer (see text), and  $P_{\text{sat}}$  reflecting the  $O_2$  adsorption capacity under the UV irradiation used for the samples containing 14, 25, 50, and 75 wt.% of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder (from left to right).

where *I* is the intensity of the band corresponding to the bonds shown in the subscript, viz. the band at ca. 960 or  $1210 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $x_{\text{Si}}$  and  $x_{\text{Ti}}$  are the molar fractions of, respectively, Si or Ti in the binder. In Fig. 6, *D* is plotted against the mole percent of TiO<sub>2</sub> in a mixed TiO<sub>2</sub>–SiO<sub>2</sub> powder [7] and in the binder of the coatings we examined. Both curves display the same pattern; however, for the lowest TiO<sub>2</sub> contents, the preparation mode of the coatings produced relatively less Si–O–Ti bonds than the sol–gel method used by the authors of Ref. [7]. Nevertheless, for the coatings with the two highest  $x_{\text{Si}}$ , *D* attains high values (Fig. 6) showing an important mixing between the Si and Ti atoms in the binder. Furthermore, with the reservation of a low accuracy on *D* for the two smallest  $x_{\text{Si}}$ , ln *D* appears to be roughly

inversely proportional to  $\ln P_{\text{sat}}$  or, similarly, to  $\ln r_{\text{PA}}$  since  $P_{\text{sat}}$  and  $r_{\text{PA}}$  are correlated (Fig. 7).

The possibility that silica shields the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles from the gas phase and/or isolates the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles from one another as we hypothesized to explain the gradual decrease in  $P_{\text{sat}}$  and  $r_{\text{PA}}$  for increasing  $x_{\text{Si}}$  is thus supported and explicated by the FTIR–ATR study. This study shows the creation of Si–O–Ti bonds during the coating preparation by use of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and a Si organic derivative [4,5]. Previous studies [9–11] have shown a Ti electron affinity in Si–O–Ti bonds higher than in Ti–O–Ti bonds in agreement with the difference in electronegativity between Si and Ti. Consequently, the electrons photoproduced in TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles might be trapped at the interface with



Fig. 5. FTIR-ATR spectra of the coatings containing 0 wt.% (a), 25 wt.% (b), 50 wt.% (c), 75 wt.% (d) and 86 wt.% (e) SiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder.



Fig. 6. Variations in the relative density of Si–O–Ti bonds as a function of the mole percent of  $TiO_2$  in the coating (solid line) or in the  $SiO_2$ – $TiO_2$  mixed oxide [7] (dotted line).



Fig. 7. The log-log plots of the relative density of Si-O-Ti bonds in the coatings vs.  $P_{\text{sat}}$  or  $r_{\text{PA}}$ .

the binder rich in Si–O–Ti bonds and hence be less easily transferred to  $O_2$ , which would account for the decrease in  $P_{\text{sat}}$  for increasing Si contents.

# 4. Conclusion

This study reveals that the use of a Si organic salt and subsequent calcination to anchor  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles cre-

ates Si–O–Ti bonds. The relative density in these bonds with respect to the Si–O–Si bonds is detrimental to the coating self-cleaning efficacy (while it increases the adhesion forces between the coating and the solid substrate). We suggest that this effect might stem from deep trapping of photoproduced electrons at the Ti cations of the Si–O–Ti bonds resulting in a less easy electron capture by O<sub>2</sub>. In parallel, we have shown that the higher the TiO<sub>2</sub> fraction in the binder, the higher the O<sub>2</sub> initial pressure  $P_0$  at which a net photodesorption is observed for the coatings previously exposed to various  $P_0$  in the dark. Consequently, the use of  $TiO_2$  as a binder increases the  $O_2$  amount adsorbed on the coating under UV irradiation and hence the self-cleaning efficacy. This is tentatively attributed to the transfer of photoproduced electrons from the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to the amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> binder where they are captured by larger quantities of adsorbed O<sub>2</sub>. Unlike SiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub> in the binder cannot cause the above-mentioned electron trapping, and as a semiconductor allows the migration of electrons within the coating. These interpretations provide a basis that may help to optimize the proportions of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and Ti and Si organic derivatives used to elaborate these types of coatings [4,5]. They also indicate that the challenge is to find a binder based on a semiconductor oxide whose metallic element has an electronegativity close to that of Ti, with the additional requirement that, compared with TiO<sub>2</sub>, this semiconductor oxide must possess better binding properties with the silica barrier layer covering the glass.

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