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# Effect of Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion doping to TiO<sub>2</sub> on the photocatalytic degradation of Malachite Green dye under UV and vis-irradiation

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### ABSTRACT

 $Fe^{3+}$  ion-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were synthesized by the hydrothermal process at 225 °C. Titanium isopropoxide (Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub>) was used as precursor material. Both undoped and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were used to coat glass surface. The coated surface was examined with respect to their photocatalytic performance for degradation of Malachite Green (MG) dye in aqueous solution under UV and vis-light irradiation. The particles and the films were characterized by XRD, SEM and UV/vis/NIR techniques. The results showed that crystallite size of the hydrothermally synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> particles are in nanoscale. Anatase was only the crystalline phase. Doping of Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion improved the photodegradation performance of TiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces. Degradation performance of Fe<sup>3+</sup> doped TiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces. It was concluded that the photodegradation of 2.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MG under UV-light irradiation with the catalysis of Fe<sup>3+</sup>-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> follows the pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics with the rate constant of 0.0202 min<sup>-1</sup>.

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#### 1. Introduction

If the literature is anything to go by, semiconductor photochemistry continues to be the hottest subject in photochemistry. Recently, greatest interest in the subject has focused primarily on the semiconductor photocatalysis (SPC) as a possible route for providing clean water, air and surfaces [1–3]. The basic process for SPC is summarized as

 $organic pollutant + O_2 \xrightarrow[semiconductor]{h\upsilon \geq E_{bg}} CO_2 + H_2O + minerals$ 

where minerals are generated if there are any hetero atoms such as S, N and Cl, present in the original organic pollutant. Here,  $E_{bg}$  is the band gap energy of the semiconductor. As a popular photocatalyst, anatase titanium dioxide has been widely studied because of its various merits, such as chemical and biological inertness, mechanical toughness, excellent photocatalytic activity, low cost and easy of deposition [4,5]. The synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> has attracted extensive attention due to its effective photodegradation activity for organic pollutants in water and air under illumination of UV-light [6–8]. Recently, most of the investigations have focused on preparing TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts which can be activated by VIS-light because there is much more energy produced by the sunlight in the visible lights region compared to the UV region [9–11]. Generally, doping or combin-

ing of TiO<sub>2</sub> with various metal or non-metal ions was reported as a good tool to improve the photocatalytic properties [12,13] and for enhancement of visible light response [14]. Metal ion dopants may act as electron or hole traps and, consequently, alter electron-hole pair recombination rates. Indeed, special efforts have been dedicated to doping TiO<sub>2</sub> with Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions [15–17]. Amongst a variety of transitional metals, iron has been considered to be an appropriate candidate due to the fact that the radius of Fe<sup>3+</sup> (0.79 Å) is similar to that of Ti<sup>4+</sup> (0.75 Å), so that Fe<sup>3+</sup> can be easily incorporated into the crystal lattice of TiO<sub>2</sub> [18]. This interest is based on the idea that Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions act as shallow charge traps in the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice [18–20]. However, the role of Fe ions in TiO<sub>2</sub> is controversial. Some authors suggest the Fe<sup>3+</sup> behaves as  $\bar{e}/h^+$  recombination center [21]. Other authors have postulated that the role of dopant ion is to favor  $\bar{e}/h^+$  separation, which enhances the photoactivity [15.16.18.22].

Due to the large number of possible variations, it is rather difficult to find out the appropriate compositions and concentrations of dopants, especially if lattice doping should be avoided. For these reasons, it is likely that investigations will continue for many years to find suitable and efficient photocatalysts to function under daylight conditions.

Up to now, many methods such as the sol-gel process [23-26], metal organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD) [27,28], the microemulsion or the reverse micelles and the hydrothermal process have been established for the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts. However, above methods, except for the hydrothermal process, have some disadvantages for industrial applications. For example, the sol-gel process is more common but needs high temperature

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(>500 °C) for obtaining TiO<sub>2</sub> crystalline particles. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles synthesized by the hydrothermal process have some typical properties, such as being in pure anatase crystalline phase, having fine size with more uniform distribution, high-dispersion ability either in polar or non-polar solvents, easy coating on different supporting material since TiO<sub>2</sub> particles disperse in various solvent system [29]. It is well known that the photocatalytic performances of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based thin films depend strongly on the methods of metal ion doping and the amount of doping, since they give a decisive influence on the properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film [30–32]. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the effects of doping method and doping content on the photocatalytic performance of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based thin films.

In this work, Fe<sup>3+</sup>–TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were hydrothermally synthesized at 225 °C. Photocatalytic activity of Fe<sup>3+</sup> doped and undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films supported on glass were examined for the degradation of Malachite Green in aqueous solutions under UV and vis-lights.

# 2. Experimental

#### 2.1. Chemicals and apparatus

As the starting precursors, the following reagents were employed: titanium-(IV)-isopropoxide, [Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub>, Alfa Aesar, 97%], as TiO<sub>2</sub> source; hydrochloride acid (HCl, Merck, 37%) as catalyst; Iron(III) nitrate [Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·9H<sub>2</sub>O, Alfa Aesar, 99%] as dopant source; deionized water as hydrolysis agent; 3-glycidoxypropyltrimethoxysilane (GLYMO, Aldrich, 98%) and tetraethylorthosilicate (TEOS, Aldrich, 98%) as binder reagents; 2-butoxyethanol (2-BuOEtOH, Aldrich, 99%), ethyl alcohol (EtOH, 96%), and npropanol (98%) as solvents. Oxalate salt of Malachite Green ([( $C_{23}H_{25}N_2$ )( $C_2HO_4$ )]<sub>2</sub>· $C_2H_2O_4$ ) (MG) used as the model pollutant and purchased from a local textile factory was of analytical reagent grade.

Berghoff model hydrothermal unit interfaced with a temperature controller (up to 250 °C) and timer unit was used for the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub>. In order to determine the crystal phases in the powder samples, Rigaku Geigerflex D Max/B MGdel X-ray diffractometer (XRD) with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda$  = 0.15418 nm) in the region  $2\theta$  = 10–70° with a step size of 0.04° was used. The average crystallite size of the particles were calculated according to the following Scherrer's equation,

$$d_{hkl} = \frac{k\lambda}{(\beta\cos(2\theta))} \tag{2}$$

where  $d_{hkl}$  is the average crystallite size (nm),  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the Cu K $\alpha$  radiation applied ( $\lambda$  = 0.154056 nm),  $\theta$  is the Bragg's angle of diffraction,  $\beta$  is the full-width at half maximum intensity of the peak observed at  $2\theta$  = 25.24 (converted to radian) and k is a constant usually applied as ~0.9.

The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area, average pore diameter and micropore volume of the TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were analyzed by nitrogen adsorption using Asap 2000 model BET analyzer. During the BET analysis, the samples were degassed at 130 °C for 4h prior to nitrogen adsorption measurements. The BET surface area was determined by multipoint BET method using adsorption data in the relative pressure  $(P/P_0)$  range of 0.02–0.3. Surface morphologies of the particles and coated surfaces were investigated using LEO Evo 40 model scanning electron microscope (SEM). The amount of iron in Fe<sup>3+</sup> doped TiO<sub>2</sub> was determined by PerkinElmer, Analyst 800 model flame atomic absorption spectrometer (FAAS) in the centrifuged solution obtained after the hydrothermal treatment. Contact angles of coatings with water were measured by Rame Hart 100-00 model goniometer. Film thickness of the coated surfaces was measured by Mahr-M1 model perthometer. For this purpose, half of the glass plate area was coated. Film thickness was automatically measured from the thickness differences between coated and uncoated surfaces sides.

Dye concentration in the aqueous solution was measured by Varian Carry 5000 model UV–vis-NIR spectrophotometer. Coated surfaces positioned in the dye solution were irradiated with and without 400 nm cut-off filter without shaking in a Solar Box 1500 model radiation unit combined with a Xe-lamp ( $690 W m^{-2}$ ) and operated with a controller for timing and power input between 390 and  $1100 W m^{-2}$ .

# 2.2. TiO<sub>2</sub> synthesis

The method employed for the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> in this work is similar to that reported elsewhere [33], which employs a hydrothermal process in which  $Ti(OPr^{i})_{4}$  was used as starting material. 11 mL of 97% Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub> solution was dissolved in 32 mL of 98% n-propanol. After stirring for a few minute at room temperature, 0.587 mL of 0.1N HCl was drop wise added to the above alkoxide solution with a burette under stirring conditions. Then, 0.042 and 1.016 g of ferric nitrate was suddenly added in order to obtain Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub> ratios (mol/mol) as to be 0.003 and 0.07, respectively. The last solution was stirred until a clear and homogeneous solution with slightly brown and dark brown color formed. A mixed solution of 0.831 mL water for 0.003 Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub> ratio or 0.424 mL water for 0.07 Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub> ratio and 5 mL of 98% n-propanol was added dropwise to the last solution by burette under stirring. The reaction was allowed to continue for 1 h, and sol-solution was transferred into a 250 mL Teflon crucible, then left in a pre-heated (225 °C) stainless steel autoclave device. The reaction was allowed to occur at 225 °C for 1 h. After this time, autoclave was removed from the heating unit and cooled down to room temperature. As-obtained powders were separated through centrifuging and dried in a vacuum sterilizer. Thus, primrose yellow and cream TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were obtained. Undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> (UTiO<sub>2</sub>) with a white color was also synthesized as described above, with the exception of using dopant.  $HCl/Ti(OPr^{i})_{4}$ , and H<sub>2</sub>O/Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub> ratios (mol/mol) were 0.2 and 2, respectively. In the text, the powders with 0.003 and 0.07 (mol/mol)  $Fe^{3+}/Ti(OPr^{i})_{4}$ ratios were described as 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively.

#### 2.3. Preparation of the coating solution

Prior to preparation of the coating solution,  $TiO_2$  sol was prepared by dispersing  $TiO_2$  in deionized water in the absence of dispersant. This mixture was treated in an ultrasonic bath for a few minutes until transparent  $TiO_2$  sol occurred.

For preparing the coating solution, GLYMO was first reacted with TEOS for 10 min (GLYMO/TEOS: 1, mol/mol), then EtOH was added to this mixture (EtOH/GLYMO: 10.3, mol/mol) and stirred for 10 min. HCl was allowed to react with GLYMO/TEOS/EtOH for 10 min (HCl/GLYMO: 0.055, mol/mol) and finally H<sub>2</sub>O was added to GLYMO/TEOS/EtOH/HCl and allowed to react for 10 min (H<sub>2</sub>O/GLYMO: 6.5, mol/mol). As a result, the coating solution was prepared. Equivalent weight of TiO<sub>2</sub> sol and the coating solution was mixed and the mixture was stirred for 5 min before adding 2-BuOEtOH. After stirring the mixture for 40 h, transparent coating solution was obtained. Glass surfaces  $(5 \text{ cm} \times 5 \text{ cm})$  were coated with the coating solution by means of spin-coating apparatus which was operated at 1000 rpm for 10 s. The coated glass surface was treated at 80°C for 60 min for curing. To be able to maintain a hydrophilic surface, the coated glass surfaces were irradiated under UV lamp operating at 8 W.

#### 2.4. Photocatalytic degradation tests

Photocatalytic performance of the films was examined using the degradation of Malachite Green dye in water. The photocatalytic



Scheme 1. Photoreactor system. (A) UV irradiation applied without filter, (B) vis irradiation applied with UV cut-off filter, (C) UV measurement after irradiation. (a) Solar Box irradiation unit, (b) Sn doped TiO<sub>2</sub> coated glass plate, (c) dye solution, (d) control unit of the Solar Box, (e) UV lamp, (f) UV lights and (g) Glass UV filter.

degradation intermediates of MG were not determined quantitatively, but the photocatalytic mechanisms of Fe<sup>3+</sup>-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were tentatively discussed. The coated glass plates were immersed into 25 mL aqueous MG solution at two different concentrations (2.5 and  $5.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) in a polystyrene reaction cell which has 12 separate sample compartments and one cover. The cell was immediately located in the Solar Box ready for UV-irradiation. The coated plate and dye solution system was irradiated in the vertical direction without shaking. The distance between the UV lamp and plate/dye solution system was kept within 20 cm. The change of MG concentration with respect to irradiation time was measured by UV/vis/NIR spectrophotometer. The photocatalytic performance was determined without cut-off filter for UV irradiation. and with 400 nm cut-off filter for vis irradiation. The photocatalytic reactor system used for testing the photocatalytic performance of Fe doped and undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces is shown in Scheme 1.

# 3. Results and discussion

For determining the amount of iron in the precipitated  $TiO_2$  powders, FAAS analysis was performed using the supernatant of  $TiO_2$  containing suspension in the autoclave. It was calculated that the amount of iron in the powder is 0.19 and 4.89 wt.% for 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively.

XRD patterns of the hydrothermally synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> particles are shown in Fig. 1. When the patterns were compared with PDF#21-1272 data files, it was found that all peaks observed at 25.16°, 37.91°, 48.19°, 55.01°, 62.68° for UTiO<sub>2</sub>, and 25.08°, 37.72°, 47.81°, 54.14°, 62.56° for 0.3FeTiO2, and 25.20°, 37.62°, 47.88°, 54.32°, 62.61° for 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> 2Theta values are consistent with anatase (101), (004), (200), (211) and (204) spacings, respectively. Other crystalline forms of TiO<sub>2</sub>, namely rutile and brookite, were not detected. Moreover, no other crystalline phases correspond to iron containing compounds were detected in the XRD patterns of 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>. This may be due to the fact that Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions may substitute  $Ti^{4+}$  ions and insert into the crystal lattice of  $TiO_2$ , since the radii of  $Ti^{4+}$  and  $Fe^{3+}$  ions are similar. For a coordination number of 6, Fe<sup>3+</sup> and Ti<sup>4+</sup> have similar ionic radius (0.79 Å versus 0.75 Å), so it can be inferred that iron ions might insert into the structure of TiO<sub>2</sub> and located at interstices or occupied some of the lattice sites of TiO<sub>2</sub>, forming an iron-titanium solid solution [34]. These results support that the current doping procedure allows uniform distribution of the dopants to form solid solution.



Fig. 1. XRD patterns of UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> particles.

In order to detect free or segregated iron oxide phase found with  $Fe^{3+}$  doped TiO<sub>2</sub> powders, if any, samples of UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> were heated at 800 °C in air for 2 h and then, heated samples were analyzed by XRD (Fig. 2). The first thing observed from the XRD patterns, all of the peaks of all samples are very sharp and the samples contains very well-formed TiO<sub>2</sub> crystals, as compared to



Fig. 2. XRD patterns for the samples of UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> heated at 800  $^{\circ}C$  for 2 h.

#### Table 1

Some intrinsic properties of UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> particles and films.

|  | UTiO <sub>2</sub> | 0.3FeTiO <sub>2</sub> | 7FeTiO <sub>2</sub> |
|--|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| Particle property                                      |                   |                       |                     |
| Crystalline type                                       | Anatase           | Anatase               | Anatase             |
| Particle color   | White             | Primrose yellow       | Dark cream          |
| Crystallite size (nm)                                  | 9.76              | 9.20                  | 9.00                |
| BET surface area $(m^2 g^{-1})$                        | 40.84             | 83                    | 126.1               |
| Film property  |                   |                       |                     |
| Thickness (µm)   | 5                 | 6-8                   | 5-7                 |
| Contact angle with water<br>(before/after irradiation) | 60°/17°           | 69°/8°                | 65°/7–8°            |

the unheated samples (Fig. 1). XRD patterns of UTiO<sub>2</sub> and 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> samples are almost identical and contain both the anatase and rutil phase of TiO<sub>2</sub>. It is known that transformation from anatase to rutil phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> occurs in a temperature interval of 700–900 °C. In addition to rutil phase of TiO<sub>2</sub>, 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> contains also Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub> as perovskite. Deficiency of Fe<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>5</sub> in the heated 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and occurrence in the heated 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> was attributed to the occurrence of free iron oxide phase in the unheated 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>. It was interesting to observe that some of the XRD peaks of anatase in the heated 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> either decrease or disappear, while those of rutil stand still and increase. It can be concluded from this experiment that almost all of the Fe<sup>3+</sup> in 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> are trapped in the crystal lattice of TiO<sub>2</sub>, whereas 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> contains segregated iron oxide in addition to Fe<sup>3+</sup> doped TiO<sub>2</sub>.

These results are in good agreement with those observed by Adán et al. [35] suggesting a solubility limit for iron in the anatase structure around 1 wt.%, due to the lattice expansion resulting from compensating effects between iron substitution of titanium cations (Fe<sup>3+</sup> showing slightly lower ionic radius than Ti<sup>4+</sup>) and oxygen vacancy formation for maintenance of charge neutrality. However, Fe doping has an effect on the crystallization on TiO<sub>2</sub>. It can be seen that the larger amount of Fe doped, the wider the width of diffraction peaks, the worse the crystallization of TiO<sub>2</sub>, and the smaller crystallite size calculated from the Scherrer equation of TiO<sub>2</sub> particles. For example, UTiO<sub>2</sub> has the crystallite size of 9.80 nm; it decreases to 9.20 and 9.0 nm for 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively (Table 1). This modification may prevent particle agglomeration, forming well-defined nanocrystalline particles with high surface area [36]. BET surface areas of all particles are shown in Table 1. Reduction in the particle size caused by doping Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion led to larger surface area. 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> have high surface areas of 83 and 126.1  $m^2 g^{-1}$ , respectively, while the UTiO<sub>2</sub> has very low BET surface area as  $41 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . Higher surface area may be benefit to their high photocatalytic performance, due to enhanced adsorption of photons and dye molecules.

Some physicochemical characteristics of the UTiO<sub>2</sub>,  $0.3FeTiO_2$ and  $7FeTiO_2$  particles and films are shown in Table 1. The particles have different color changing from white to dark cream. This change was affected by the amount of the Fe addition. As the iron ratio increased as 0.003 (mol/mol) or 0.19 wt.%, the promise yellow color occurs, but further addition of Fe changed the powder color to a dark cream. It is likely that the white UTiO<sub>2</sub> powder changed to dark cream due to red shift by the high Fe addition. This result is consistent with UV measurements (Fig. 3).

Diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) technique is a useful technique to characterize the optical absorption properties of nanoparticles. The DRS spectra of Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> with different modification level in comparison with undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> are shown in Fig. 3. For UTiO<sub>2</sub>, an absorption edge rising steeply toward the UV below 387 nm can be attributed to band-gap excitation of anatase ( $\sim$ 3.2 eV). UTiO<sub>2</sub> has no absorption in visible region (>400 nm), whereas Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> samples exhibit red shifts of absorption edge and significant enhancement of light absorption at 400–600 nm. The light absorption in the range from 450 to 650 nm increases with increasing Fe content in TiO<sub>2</sub>, accompanied with the changes on color from white to primrose yellow and dark cream. According to the previous reports [23,36], the presence of metal ions in TiO<sub>2</sub> does not modify the position of the valence band edge of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Instead, it introduces new energy levels (Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Fe<sup>4+</sup>) of the transition metal ions into the band gap of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the absorption edges shifting toward longer wavelengths for the Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> should come from the electronic transition from the dopant energy level ( $Fe^{3+}/Fe^{4+}$ ) to the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Additionally, Adán et al. [35] also states about the enhanced absorption in the visible region, which can be attributed to the excitation of 3d electrons of Fe<sup>3+</sup> to the TiO<sub>2</sub> conduction band (charge transfer-transition) giving rise to a band centred at 400 nm. Besides, a band centered at ca. 500 nm, apparent for the samples with higher iron content, can be ascribed to the d-d transition of Fe<sup>3+</sup> ( ${}^{2}T_{2g} \rightarrow {}^{2}A_{2g}$ ,  ${}^{2}T_{1g}$ ) or the charge transfer transition between interacting iron ions (Fe<sup>3+</sup> + Fe<sup>3+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  Fe<sup>4+</sup> + Fe<sup>2+</sup>).

The direct band gap energy for Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> can be estimated from a plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  versus photon energy  $(h\nu)$ . The intercept of the tangent to the plot will give a good approximation of the band gap energy for Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>. According to Kormann et al. [37] and Rottenberger et al. [38], the absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  can be calculated from the measured absorbance. The band gap energies estimated from the intercept of the tangents to the plots are 3.20, 2.97 and 2.88 eV for the doped metal concentrations at 0.0, 0.19 and 4.89 wt.%, respectively.

From Fig. 3, it is observed that 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> sample with low iron content shows a constant absorption in the visible region which is higher than UTiO<sub>2</sub>. It can also be noticed that Fe doped TiO<sub>2</sub> powders have enhanced absorption characteristics in region of 450–650 nm, and this enhancement increases as the doped Fe is increased, accompanying with the change of powder color from primrose yellow to dark cream. It seems that photocatalytic activity under visible light depends on the addition of Fe.

Typical SEM images of UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> powders are shown in Fig. 4. Shape of the particles is generally spherical and quite similar to each other. Spherical structure is become regular with increasing the doped Fe<sup>3+</sup> concentration. However particle size distribution of the powders was not determined, the size of the particles varies in the range of 1.02–10.19  $\mu$ m for 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub>, 1.06–9.89  $\mu$ m for 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and of 1.07–11.72  $\mu$ m for UTiO<sub>2</sub>, as measured using SEM images. Introducing Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion decreased the particle size and gained more spherical shapes.

One interesting result obtained in this work is that the crystallite size and the particle size of the  $Fe^{3+}$  doped  $TiO_2$  are smaller than those of  $UTiO_2$ , which can signify that the presence of  $Fe^{3+}$ in the reaction media might be used to control the particle and crystallite sizes of the oxides. Moreover, increasing the  $Fe^{3+}$  ion



Fig. 3. UV-vis absorption spectrum of undoped and Fe doped-TiO<sub>2</sub> particles.



Fig. 4. SEM photomicrographs of (a) UTiO<sub>2</sub>, (b) 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and (c) 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> particles.

concentration decreases the particle size. Usually, the smaller the crystallite size, the larger the specific surface areas. Zhou et al. [39] also reported that the BET surface areas increased as Fe-doping concentration decreases. However, Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles prepared by the sol-gel process is smaller than that of Degussa P25, but the BET surface area values of the particles are also smaller than that of Degussa P25. This is probably due to the fact that the long heat-treatment time of the samples at 773 K for 3 h and the heat of combustion of residual alkyls and organic substances cause the aggregation and sintering of the TiO<sub>2</sub> particles [40,41]. Leite et al. [42] also reported a novel approach to control particle size of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> doped (5 mol%) SnO<sub>2</sub> prepared by the polymeric precursors method. They observed that Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-SnO<sub>2</sub> mixed oxide is formed with lower crystallite size than the pure SnO<sub>2</sub>, with a Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-SnO<sub>2</sub> solid solution restricted to the surface of particles. The lower crystallite size of doped particles was attributed to this surface effect, with the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> preventing the formation of necks between particles and the process of coalescence.

As expressed in Table 1, the film thickness was measured as 5, 6-8 and 5-7 µm for UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces, respectively. Contact angle with water was measured as 60°, 69° and 65° on the original surfaces coated with UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. After irradiation, it was measured as 17°, 8° and 7–8°, respectively. The decrease in the contact angle can be attributed to the reaction of produced electrons and holes in a different way. According to Fujishima et al. [11], the electrons tend to reduce the Ti(IV) cations to the Ti(III) state and the holes oxidizes the O<sup>2-</sup> anions. In the process, oxygen atoms are rejected, creating oxygen vacancies. Water molecules can then occupy these oxygen vacancies, producing adsorbed OH groups which tend to make the surface hydrophilic, to form active OH radicals for further photocatalytic performance. Therefore, we can conclude that the irradiated surface has almost super-hydrophilic property and it has an important role for photocatalytic properties.

Photocatalytic activity test results for 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub>, 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and UTiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces employed for degradation of MG under UV and vis-lights irradiation are shown in Figs. 5 and 6. It was observed that photocatalytic performance of Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films for the degradation of MG is higher than that of undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> films either under UV or vis-lights. Iron ion doping improves the photocatalytic activity. 75, 81 and 73%, and 58, 76 and 68% of initially 2.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MG was degradated with UTiO<sub>2</sub>, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> thin films in 110 min under UV and vis-lights irradiation, respectively (Fig. 5). When initial concentration of MG was increased to 5.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, 76%, 85% and 83%, and 64%, 77% and 79% of MG was degradated under UV and vis-lights irradiation (Fig. 6). It was revealed that the photodegradation rate increases with the increase in dye concentration under UV and vis-lights irradiation. Under the



Fig. 5. Photocatalytic degradation of 2.5 mg  $L^{-1}$  MG under UV and vis-light irradiation.



Fig. 6. Photocatalytic degradation of  $5.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ MG}$  under UV and vis-light irradiation.

same conditions, photoactivity of UTiO<sub>2</sub> thin film is less important than that of 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> thin films and 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> is more photoactive than 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub>. There are various reasons for the increase in the photocatalytic performance:

(a) High photocatalytic activity of Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> may be related to small crystal size and high surface area as well as its mesoporous structure. It is well known that, as the particle size decreases, the surface area increases, and as the process is adsorption-dependent, the photocatalytic photodegradation rates also increases. Thus, 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> and 7FeTiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces, which have surface areas of 83 and 126.1 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, showed that higher photocatalytic performance than UTiO<sub>2</sub>, which has a surface area of 40.84 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). Dagan and Tomkiewicz [43] and Tomkiewicz et al. [44] also showed that TiO<sub>2</sub> with a surface area of 600 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> showed greater activity then commercial Degussa P-25 which has a surface area of 55 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. The effect of Fe<sup>3+</sup> doping on the photocatalytic activity under UV light irradiation should be due to the reason that an appropriate amount of Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions can act as intermediates for

photo-generated holes and electrons transfer, and inhibit the recombination of holes and electrons.

Due to the facts that the energy level for  $Fe^{3+}/Fe^{4+}$  is above the valence band edge of  $TiO_2$  and the energy level for  $Fe^{3+}/Fe^{2+}$ is below the conduction band edge of TiO<sub>2</sub> [45,46], Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions, acting as both electrons and holes traps, can turn into Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>4+</sup> ions by trapping photogenerated electrons and holes traps, respectively Eqs. (1)-(4). According to the viewpoint of crystal field theory [47], Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Fe<sup>4+</sup> ions are relatively unstable when compared to  $Fe^{3+}$  ions, which have half-filled  $3d^5$  orbital. Therefore, the trapped charges can easily release from Fe<sup>2+</sup> or Fe<sup>4+</sup> ions and then migrate to the surface to initiate the photocatalytic reaction. Fe<sup>2+</sup> ions can be oxided to Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions by transferring electrons to absorbed O<sub>2</sub> on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> Eq. (5) or a neighboring surface  $Ti^{4+}$  ions Eq. (6). Meanwhile, the adsorbed  $O_2$  is reduced to  $O_2^-$  Eqs. (4) and (6), which can further degrade MG (Scheme 2). Similarly, Fe<sup>4+</sup> ions also are reduced to  $Fe^{3+}$  ions by releasing electrons, while surface hydroxyl group translates into hydroxyl radical Eq. (7). As a result, the introduction of appropriate Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions is responsible for the reduction of the photogenerated hole-electron recombination rate and favors the improvement of photocatalytic activity.

$$\mathrm{TiO}_2 + \mathrm{h}\nu \to \mathrm{e}^- + \mathrm{h}^+ \tag{1}$$

$$\mathrm{Fe}^{3+} + \mathrm{h}^+ \to \mathrm{Fe}^{4+} \tag{2}$$

$$\mathrm{Fe}^{3+} + \mathrm{e}^{-} \to \mathrm{Fe}^{2+} \tag{3}$$

$$Fe^{2+} + O_2(ads) \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + O^{2-}$$
 (4)

$$Fe^{2+} + Ti^{4+} \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + Ti^{3+}$$
 (5)

$$Ti^{3+} + O_2(ads) \rightarrow Ti^{4+} + O_2^{-}$$
 (6)

$$Fe^{4+} + OH^{-}(ads) \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + OH^{\bullet}(ads)$$
 (7)

However, when the concentration of  $Fe^{3+}$  ions becomes too large,  $Fe^{3+}$  ions can act as the recombination centers for the photo-generated electrons and holes Eqs. (1), (4) and (8)–(10), resulting in the decrease of photocatalytic activity.

$$\mathrm{Fe}^{4+} + \mathrm{e}^{-} \to \mathrm{Fe}^{3+} \tag{8}$$



Scheme 2. Proposed mechanism for MG degradation under UV and vis-light irradiations.

$$Fe^{2+} + h^{+} \rightarrow Fe^{3+}$$
(9)  
$$Fe^{2+} + OH^{\bullet} \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + OH^{-}$$
(10)

Different with the intrinsic excitation of TiO<sub>2</sub> under UV irradiation, the excitation behavior of Fe–TiO<sub>2</sub> under visible irradiation arises from the electronic transition from the dopant energy level (Fe<sup>3+</sup>/Fe<sup>4+</sup>) to the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Due to the fact that the  $t_{2g}$  level of 3d orbital of Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion is above the valence band of TiO<sub>2</sub>, Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion can absorb a photon with a wavelength exceeding 400 nm to produce a Fe<sup>4+</sup> ion and a TiO<sub>2</sub> conductive band electron. The conductive band electron further reacts with adsorbed O<sub>2</sub> to form O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, while Fe<sup>4+</sup> reacts with surface hydroxyl group to produce hydroxyl radical. Furthermore, dopant Fe<sup>3+</sup> improves electron transfer efficiency from the LUMO band of MG to the conduction band of Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>. Subsequently, increasing the amounts of radicals occurred above as shown in Scheme 2. Thus, MG was photodegraded even under the visible light irradiation [46] Eqs. (11)–(15).

$$Fe^{3+} + h\nu \rightarrow Fe^{4+} + e^{-}$$
 (11)

$$e^- + O_2(ads) \rightarrow O_2^- \tag{12}$$

 $(TiO_2)e_{CB} + MG_{(LUMO)} \rightarrow (TiO_2)e^{-}_{CB} + MG^{+\bullet}_{(LUMO)}$ (13)

 $MG^{+\bullet}_{(LUMO)} + O_2^- \rightarrow \text{ "degraded products"}$  (14)

 $MG^+ + HO^{\bullet} \rightarrow \text{``degraded products''}$  (15)

- (b) The increase in photocatalytic activity with Fe doping is related to shift in optical absorption of the catalyst in visible region. Pure TiO<sub>2</sub> absorbs only UV energy ( $\approx$ 380 nm) whereas Fe doped catalyst absorbs vis energy beside UV energy, hence there is increase in the photocatalytic activity.
- (c) As dye concentration increases in solution, the photodegradation rate decreases. Briefly, the higher the concentration, the lower the rate of photodegradation. This negative effect can be commented as follows; as the dye concentration is increased, the equilibrium adsorption of dye on catalyst surface active sites increases, hence competitive adsorption of OH- on the same sites decreases, which means a lower formation rate of OH• radical which is the principal oxidant indispensable for a high photodegradation efficiency. When the dye concentration increases the amount of dye adsorbed on the catalyst surface increases. The increase in dye concentration also decreases the path length of photon entering the dye solution. At high dye concentration a significant amount of solar light may be absorbed by the dye Molecules rather than the catalyst and this may also reduce the catalytic efficiency. Consequently, the degradation efficiency of the dye decreases as the dye concentration increases.
- (d) The high photocatalytic performance of the coated plate can also be related to its surface which has almost super hydrophilic property. These reasons are confirmed with the obtained results by Schmidt et al. [48].

Kinetics of the degradation was also investigated. However the regression coefficients for the degradation of  $2.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  initial MG concentrations are low, it was determined that photocatalytic degradation of MG follows the pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics with a good agreement with the literature [49]. The pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics is represented by the following equation

$$\ln C_0 - \ln C = kt \tag{16}$$

where *C* is the final concentration  $(\text{mg L}^{-1})$  of MG after irradiation,  $C_0$  is the initial concentration  $(\text{mg L}^{-1})$  of MG prior to irradiation, *t* is the irradiation time (min) and *k* is the apparent reaction rate constant (min<sup>-1</sup>). For this reason, photocatalytic degradation data



Fig. 7. Pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics curves for photocatalytic degradation of MG with 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst under UV and vis-light irradiation.

presented in Figs. 5 and 6 for 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> sample were re-plotted in the  $\ln C_0/C - t$  coordinates (Fig. 7). It was observed that the values of rate constants, k, are consistent with the photodegradation of MG. For example, 81% and 85% of 2.5 and 5.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MG, respectively, was degradated with 3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> thin film within 110 min with UV irradiation (Figs. 5 and 6). Photodegradation rate constants were determined as 0.0202 and 0.0191 min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. On the other hand, 76% and 79% of 2.5 and 5.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> MG, respectively, was degradated with 0.3FeTiO<sub>2</sub> under vis irradiation (Figs. 5 and 6). The rate constants are 0.0136 and 0.0131 min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

### 4. Conclusions

Nano-sized Fe-doped and undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> particles were synthesized by hydrothermal process at low temperature. Ti(OPr<sup>i</sup>)<sub>4</sub> was used as starting material. The particles were fully anatase crystal form, simply dispersed in water and they can be easily used to obtain thin films on different surfaces. In this work, very transparent, hydrophilic and smooth TiO<sub>2</sub>-based thin films were prepared by spin-coating technique. Doping of the Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion decreased the particle size which resulted in an increase in the surface area. The photocatalytic performance of Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film for degradation of MG was higher than that of the undoped TiO<sub>2</sub> film under UV and VIS lights. It was determined that degradation of MG with use of Fe<sup>3+</sup> doped TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films follows the pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics. Use of Fe-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> coated surfaces for preparing self-cleaning and/or an antibacterial surface is suggested.

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