



Elaboration of stable anatase TiO₂ through activated carbon addition with high photocatalytic activity under visible light

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ABSTRACT

Photoactive TiO₂ was directly obtained by sol–gel method or from titanium dioxide/activated carbon composite (TiO₂/AC), then calcinated under air at 700 °C. The obtained materials were characterized by N₂ adsorption (77 K), X-ray diffraction (XRD), diffuse reflectance UV–vis spectroscopy (UV/DRS) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The solid prepared from (TiO₂/AC) composite was found to be mainly pure anatase phase with SiO₂ and Fe₂O₃ traces, whereas, pure TiO₂ was predominantly rutile. Adding activated carbon increases the surface area of photocatalyst, reduces the grain size of titania particles and causes a blue shift of the light absorption spectrum due to the quantization of band structure. Photocatalytic activity was tested and compared with that of TiO₂ Degussa P25 on the degradation of methylene blue (MB) in an aqueous solution under visible irradiation. TiO₂(AC-700) catalyst was found to be two times more active than TiO₂-P25.

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1. Introduction

Heterogeneous photocatalysis research has received great interest in the two last decades, especially for the purification of wastewater [1–6]. Even if the famous titanium dioxide (TiO₂) semiconductor is the most used, because of its photocatalytic activity, high stability, non-toxicity and inexpensiveness, the interest is much more focused nowadays on the synthesis of photocatalyst materials to overcome some limitations of the use of TiO₂. Some of the important limitations are: TiO₂ powder is difficult to recycle, easy to agglomerate, and causes a problem of separation from the solution [7]. Furthermore, TiO₂ is a wide band-gap semiconductor (3.20 eV for anatase TiO₂ and 3.02 eV for rutile TiO₂) which makes the photocatalytic activity quite limited in the visible light, solar and fluorescent light [8].

For these reasons and others, several approaches have been followed, even if the way to enhance the photocatalytic efficiency is still a critical concern. Some of these approaches are: (i) preparing new photocatalysts based on metals oxides other than TiO₂ [9–11] (ii) doping and/or codoping TiO₂ [12–14] (iii) immobilizing TiO₂ on an inert and suitable supporting matrix [15–18] in order to increase the active area as a promising pathway to enhance the photodegradation of pollutant molecules in vapor- or liquid-phase [19,20]. For this purpose several porous media are used, as far as

possible, to provide a vast pore structure for dispersing TiO₂ photocatalysts such as zeolite, alumina, silica, glass, carbon nanotube and activated carbon [21–26].

Among these materials, activated carbon (AC) is widely used as a support in gas and water remediation due to its good adsorption properties and seems to be an attractive support for TiO₂ [27–29]. Indeed, a synergistic effect has been already observed by using TiO₂ and AC as mechanical mixture or composite [30,31].

The temperature and atmosphere of calcination of the TiO₂/AC precursor have a very important effect on the properties and activity of the final TiO₂/AC composite. Unfortunately, many researchers do not always specify the atmosphere of calcination of the TiO₂/AC precursor. When calcinations took place under inert atmosphere, the surface area would increase implying that an enhancement in the TiO₂/AC activity may be due especially to the synergistic effect between AC and TiO₂. Moreover, the activity was limited under visible light due to the total absorption of the light by the activated carbon. But when the calcination took place under air or oxygen atmosphere, the total combustion of activated carbon could be expected beyond 400 °C. In this case, a significant decrease of the surface area is observed and the synergistic effect due to the presence of common contact interface created between both solids must disappear.

Many oxides from metals inorganic species (such as Fe, Ca, Mg, Na, K, Si, Al, V and Ni) are usually present in the basic matrix of activated carbon. Certain transition group metals contributed to the oxidation reactions as catalysts [32]. In this work, a sol–gel method was used to prepare a bare TiO₂ photocatalyst and TiO₂

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through activated carbon addition. Since the calcination was carried out under air at high temperature (700 °C), we expected the AC disappearance but we wanted to check and confirm that the activated carbon was not acting only by synergistic effects to increase the adsorption and promote contact pollutant photocatalyst. Many experiments were conducted to understand how the presence of AC influences the physico-chemical properties of the photocatalyst: is it only an increase in contact area? Or does it completely change the structural and textural properties of TiO₂? Do the oxides present in AC ash, such as SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, Al₂O₃, Na₂O, CuO and K₂O... [33] have any effects?

For this purpose, we investigated the physicochemical properties of the prepared photocatalyst TiO₂(AC-700) by X-ray diffraction, BET analysis, UV-vis spectroscopy and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Methylene blue was selected to evaluate the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂(AC-700) under visible light. Such molecule is usually used as representative of dyes commonly discharged in wastewater.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) photocatalysts

TiO₂ was prepared directly by titanium tetraisopropoxide hydrolysis (TTIP (Ti(OC₃H₇)₄) Fluka pure grade), 0.067 mol of TTIP was dissolved in 10 ml isopropanol (Fluka). After stirring for 5 min at room temperature, 30 ml water was added dropwise. The solution was maintained under stirring for 60 min until a homogenous gel was formed. The activated carbon used for the composite preparation was CECA 12-40 (Calgon Carbon Corporation). The TiO₂/AC catalyst was prepared by a similar method by adding 2.67 g of activated carbon (50 wt.% with regard to the TiO₂ amount) to the TTIP-iPrOH solution. The gels were dried at 100 °C for 12 h. The obtained solids were ground and calcinated at 700 °C in air flow for 2 h to obtain bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) samples.

2.2. Photocatalysts characterization

X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded using a PANalytical X-ray diffractometer in the range $2\theta = 10\text{--}100^\circ$ using CuK α as X-rays source and the average crystallite size of anatase and rutile phase were determined according to the Scherrer equation using the full width at half maxima (FWHM) of the main peak of each phase.

The BET surface area and pore size distribution were determined by N₂ physisorption at 77 K using a Micrometrics 2010 apparatus. Before the adsorption test, the samples were out-gassed at 200 °C until the residual pressure decreases below 3 μmHg . BET surface area was determined by multipoint BET method using the adsorption data in the relative pressure (P/P_0) range of 0.05–0.25. Desorption isotherms were used to determine the pore size distribution using the Barret–Joyner–Halander (BJH) method with cylindrical pore size.

TEM measurements were performed on a Philips G20 Ultra-Twin transmission electron microscope equipped with a CCD camera. Operating at 200 kV, the microscope reaches a point resolution of 0.14 nm and a line resolution of 0.1 nm. Scale calibration was done on the Au (100) planes. Both dry and wet depositions were performed with ethanol and water as solvent. Powders were deposited on carbon coated copper grids.

For the characterization of the light absorption features and band-gap determinations, diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the powders were measured in the range of 200–800 nm on a UV-Vis-NIR scanning spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, 3101 PC) equipped with an integral sphere using BaSO₄ as a reference. The photocat-

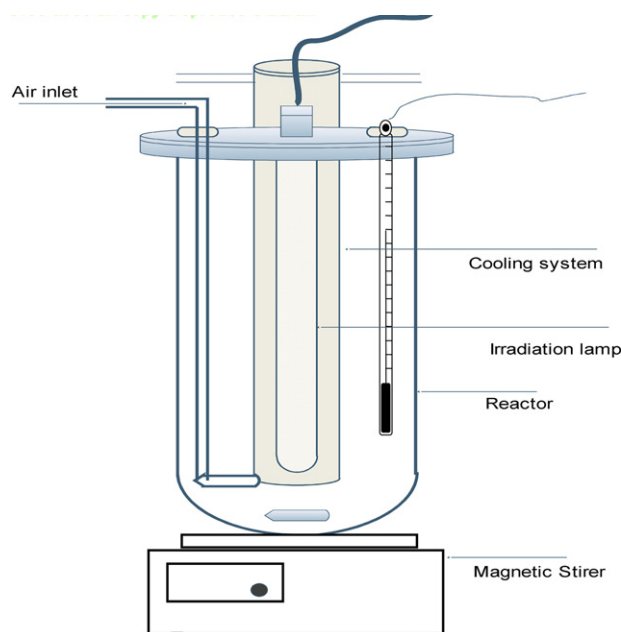


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the static photocatalytic reactor.

alyst powder was placed in the sample holder on an integrated sphere for the reflectance measurements.

2.3. Photoreactor and photodegradation experiments

The experiments were carried out using a cylindrical batch reactor (Fig. 1) opened at the air with 150 ml of capacity. The visible irradiation source was a commercial Halogen lamp (Duralamp 250 W). The lamp was maintained in the centre of the reactor and placed in an axial position inside the water jacket crossed by the water circulation to avoid heating of the solution. The UV emission of the lamp is filtered to approximate to sunlight while avoiding its variation with time and cloudiness. The relative emitted light intensity of the lamp was obtained (Fig. 2) by using radiometric calibration standard (Ocean Optics) and the intensity of light is about 140 W/m².

Methylene blue MB (Aldrich) was chosen as a model molecule for the photocatalytic test. Such molecule is usually used as representative of dyes commonly discharged in wastewater. For all experiments, the reactor was initially loaded with 125 ml MB

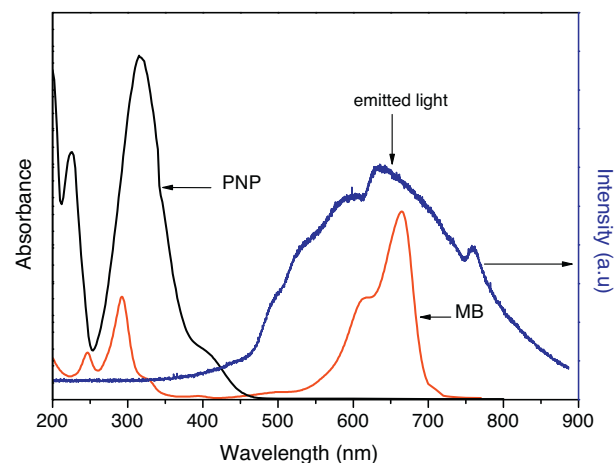


Fig. 2. UV-vis absorption spectrum of MB, PNP aqueous solution and the relative emitted light intensity of the lamp.

aqueous solution (30 mg/l) and 0.5 g/l of catalyst, the mixture maintained in a continuous stirring. Before the illumination, the suspension was stirred in the dark for 90 min to establish the adsorption–desorption equilibrium. 2 ml of suspension was withdrawn periodically and immediately centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 15 min to separate the catalyst from the solution. 1 ml was diluted five times and its absorbance at 664 nm was measured by UV-Vis spectroscopy (Shimadzu spectrophotometer UV-1700). Total organic carbon (TOC) was determined by using a TOC-V_e Analyzer (Shimadzu) to follow the mineralization of MB.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalysts characterization

3.1.1. X-ray diffraction analysis

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of activated carbon, bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) are shown in Fig. 3. The TiO₂ phase composition was calculated from the integrated intensities of anatase (1 0 1) and rutile (1 1 0) peaks using the following formulas. Eq. (A.1) [34]

$$W_A = \frac{k_A A_A}{(k_A A_A + A_R)} \quad \text{and} \quad W_R = \frac{A_R}{(k_A A_A + A_R)} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

W_A and W_R represent the weight fractions of anatase and rutile, respectively. A_A and A_R are the integrated intensities of anatase (1 0 1) and rutile (1 1 0) peaks, respectively while k_A is a constant equal to 0.886. The crystal size of the particles was determined using the Scherrer formula. Eq. (A.2)

$$L_{hkl} = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta_{hkl}} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

where L_{hkl} is the crystalline size in nm, λ (0.15418 nm) is the wavelength of the X-ray radiation, k usually taken as 0.89 and β is the line width at half maximum height for the anatase (1 0 1) peak ($2\theta = 25.37^\circ$) and for the rutile (1 1 0) peak ($2\theta = 27.62^\circ$).

The XRD pattern of activated carbon corresponds to that of amorphous carbon containing different mineral species, mainly SiO₂ and Fe₂O₃ [33,35].

The XRD pattern of bare TiO₂ show that the catalyst contains 10% of anatase and 90% of rutile phase, while the TiO₂(AC-700) is mainly constituted by anatase phase with trace of SiO₂. The disappearance of Fe₂O₃ phase was observed. The persistence of only SiO₂ oxide is probably due to its major quantities in the activated carbon. The stability of anatase phase leads to conclude that the activated carbon suppresses the phase transformation of titania anatase to rutile. AC matrix with high surface areas baffles the anatase to rutile phase transformation resulting from its large interfacial energy, which creates the anti-calcination effects for AC matrix [36–38].

The crystallite size of TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) samples were calculated to be, respectively 60 and 17 nm. The addition of activated carbon to TTIP-iPrOH solution during TiO₂ elaboration may be responsible of this crystallite size reduction by the fact that the formation of TiO₂ can occur into the pores of activated carbon. Moreover, the presence of SiO₂ and Fe₂O₃ oxides in AC matrix may inhibit grain growth by providing a barrier among titania grains [32].

3.1.2. Optical features

The DRS spectra of TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) samples are shown in Fig. 4(a). A blue shift in the UV-visible spectrum towards the lower wavelength side was observed in TiO₂(AC-700) sample. At the same time, the absorption clearly increase for TiO₂(AC-700) in the UV region but slightly in the visible region compared to bare TiO₂ extending its activity under visible irradiation. To calculate the band gap energies, DRS experimental data were converted to

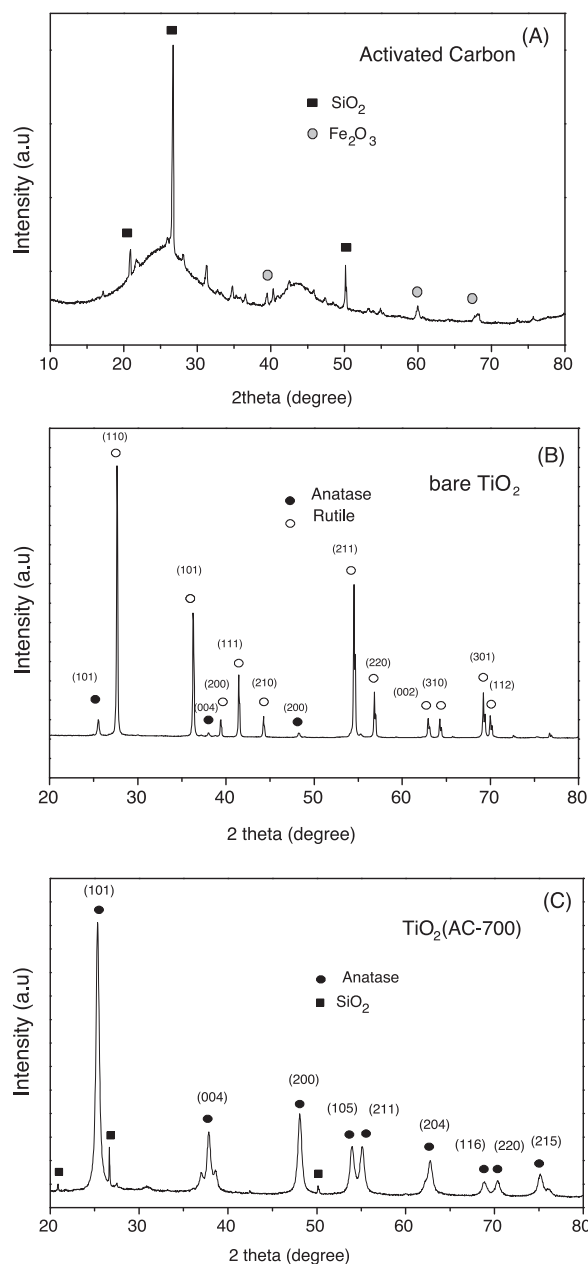


Fig. 3. XRD patterns for the activated carbon (A), bare TiO₂ (B) and TiO₂(AC-700) (C).

absorption coefficient values $F(R)$ according to the Kubelka–Munk equation [39,40] Eq. (A.3):

$$F(R_\infty) = \frac{(1 - R_\infty)^2}{2R_\infty} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$F(R_\infty)$ is the so-called remission or Kubelka–Munk function where ($R_\infty = R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}$).

The theory of interband optical absorption shows that at the absorption edge, the absorption coefficient of a semiconductor can be expressed as:

$$[F(R_\infty)h\nu]^n = A(h\nu - E_g) \quad (\text{A.4})$$

where h is the Planck's constant (6.62608×10^{-34} J s), ν is the frequency of the light (s^{-1}), A is a constant, E_g the band-gap of allowed transitions (eV), and n is a number characterizing the transition process. For an indirect TiO₂ allowed transition, n is equal to 0.5. Therefore, a transformed Kubelka–Munk function can be con-

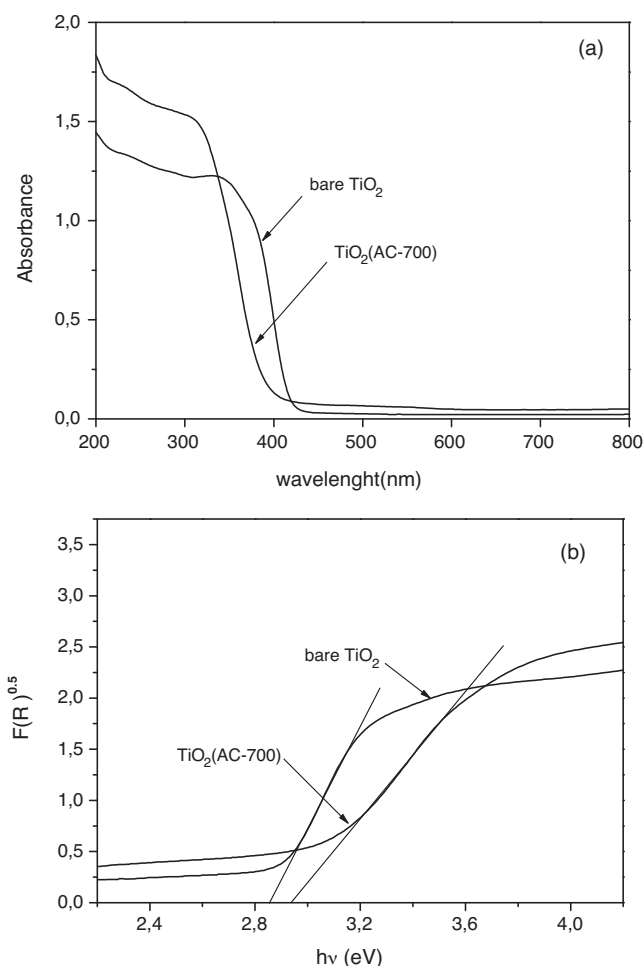


Fig. 4. (a) Diffuse reflectance UV-vis spectra for bare TiO₂ and TiO₂/AC; (b) Kubelka-Munk elaboration.

structured by plotting $[F(R_{\infty})]^{0.5}$ against $h\nu$ to obtain the band gap of the TiO₂ particles [41]. To obtain the band gap value, the converted curves can be fitted by a Boltzmann sigmoidal equation. As showed in Fig. 4(b), the x -axis intercept of the line tangent to the inflection point of the curve provides the band gap values as 2.94 and 2.85 eV for TiO₂(AC-700) and TiO₂, respectively.

The observed blue shift and the increased band gap indicate that the band structure of TiO₂(AC-700) becomes quantized. This result is in good agreement with the decrease of particle size (from 60 nm to 17 nm) and the anatase phase content. The quantization in the band structure of TiO₂(AC-700) may improve the photoactivity since the electrons photoexcited are confined in the conduction band and their life time is elongated. Thus, the electron hole recombination rate during the illumination of catalyst decreases [42–44]. As a result, the photocatalytic activity is supposed to be improved. Furthermore, the increase of the band gap energy can be attributed to the interface interaction due to the presence of SiO₂ oxides in the catalyst. This effect was also seen by Periyat et al. [32].

3.1.3. Morphological characterization

Fig. 5(a)–(c) shows the N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of activated carbon, bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) composites, respectively. The typical isotherm type II is identified for both activated carbon and TiO₂. The hysteresis loop H₄ type was observed with activated carbon and it was indicative of its microporosity and confirms the existence of the narrow slit-like pores usually associated to activated carbon.

Table 1

Textural characterization results for activated carbon (AC), synthesized bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) photocatalysts and anatase rutile repartition.

Parameters	AC	Bare TiO ₂	TiO ₂ (AC-700)
S_{BET} (m ² g ⁻¹)	1058	5.8	51.5
V pores total (ml g ⁻¹)	0.68	0.01	0.13
L_{hkl} (nm)	–	60	17
Anatase (%)	–	10	100

The TiO₂ isotherm presents a hysteresis loop H₃ type suggesting the presence of aggregate particles which can be assigned to a capillary condensation taking place in non rigid texture.

The typical isotherm type IV is observed in the case of the synthesized TiO₂(AC-700). The mesoporosity of this sample is confirmed by the hysteresis loop H₂ type. We can observe that the adsorption at lower P/P_0 increases from bare TiO₂ to TiO₂(AC-700) to activated carbon, which is in correlation with the S_{BET} values obtained (Table 1). Both TiO₂(AC-700) surface area and pore volume are ten times higher than that of bare TiO₂. Since calcinations occurred at high temperature (700 °C) in flow of air, normally, activated carbon is totally transformed to ash. Oxides present in ash content of activated carbon, such as silica, can enter the matrix which could increase the defects in the titania matrix and therefore the surface area would increase [32].

Fig. 6(a and b) shows TEM images of the surface of bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) powders respectively. Only one type of morphologies was observed: spherical-like TiO₂ particles. We note and confirm the absence of the AC matrix in the final TiO₂(AC-700) powder by the fact that after calcinations the activated carbon was completely burned giving rise to white colors photocatalyst.

Furthermore, the particles size of the bare TiO₂ powders is greater than that of TiO₂(AC-700) suggesting that in absence of AC, the TiO₂ powder agglomerate more easily during the calcinations process. AC matrix acted as a barrier which controlled the growth of TiO₂ particles and prevents their agglomeration which has been also reported by Li et al. [36] and Wang et al. [37]. Furthermore, these effects can be related in part with the decrease in the particle size observed previously by XRD in the case of TiO₂(AC-700), but possibly also with the progressive occurrence of sintering phenomena, leading to larger aggregates of TiO₂ in absence of activated carbon. Moreover, the decrease in particle size can be correlated with the observed increase of the surface area (approximately ten times higher for TiO₂(AC-700) than for bare TiO₂).

Fig. 6(c and d) shows the spectra taken using Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX) for both photocatalysts and the corresponding data were listed in tables included. These spectra showed that the main elements presents are Ti and O in the ration 1:2 and no C was detected. However in the case of the TiO₂(AC-700) sample, the presence of Si element was confirmed which is in correlation with the XRD results but the values of the elements weight percents can not be explained in this level.

3.2. Photocatalytic performance

3.2.1. Adsorption kinetic studies

The adsorption phenomena over TiO₂-P25, bare-TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) were studied in the dark for initial concentration of MB equal to 30 mg l⁻¹ and 0.5 g l⁻¹ of catalyst concentration. The pH was maintained constant and it was the initial pH (6.7) of the MB solution. All experiments were carried out with the same agitation speed.

Adsorption kinetics obtained and shown in Fig. 7 indicate that the thermodynamic equilibrium time was 60 min. To study the kinetics of adsorption in its totality, the Lagergren model [45] given

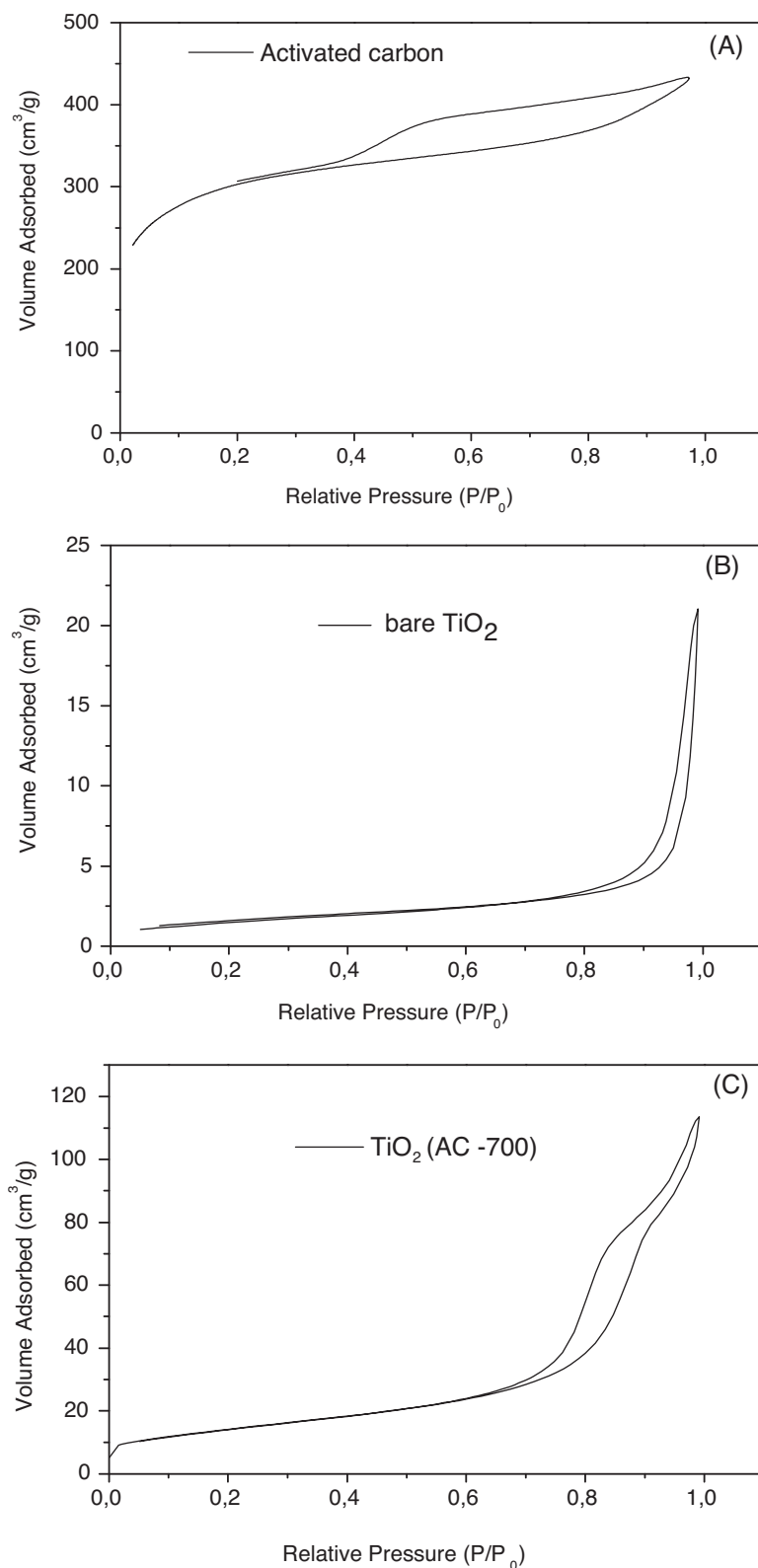


Fig. 5. N₂ adsorption isotherms of (A) activated Carbon, (B) bare TiO₂ and (C) TiO₂(AC-700).

by the following equation was used. Eq. (A.5):

$$q_t = q_e [1 - \exp(-k_{\text{ads}}t)] \quad (\text{A.5})$$

where q_t and q_e (mg g⁻¹) are the adsorbed amount at t instant and at equilibrium respectively, k_{ads} is the apparent kinetic constant

(min⁻¹). The adsorption kinetics was well fitted as first order with this model. The Lagergren parameters obtained q_e , k_{ads} and the correlation coefficient are given in Table 2. The presence of activated carbon enhance both MB equilibrium adsorbed amount and the apparent constant k_{ads} which can be correlated with the increase

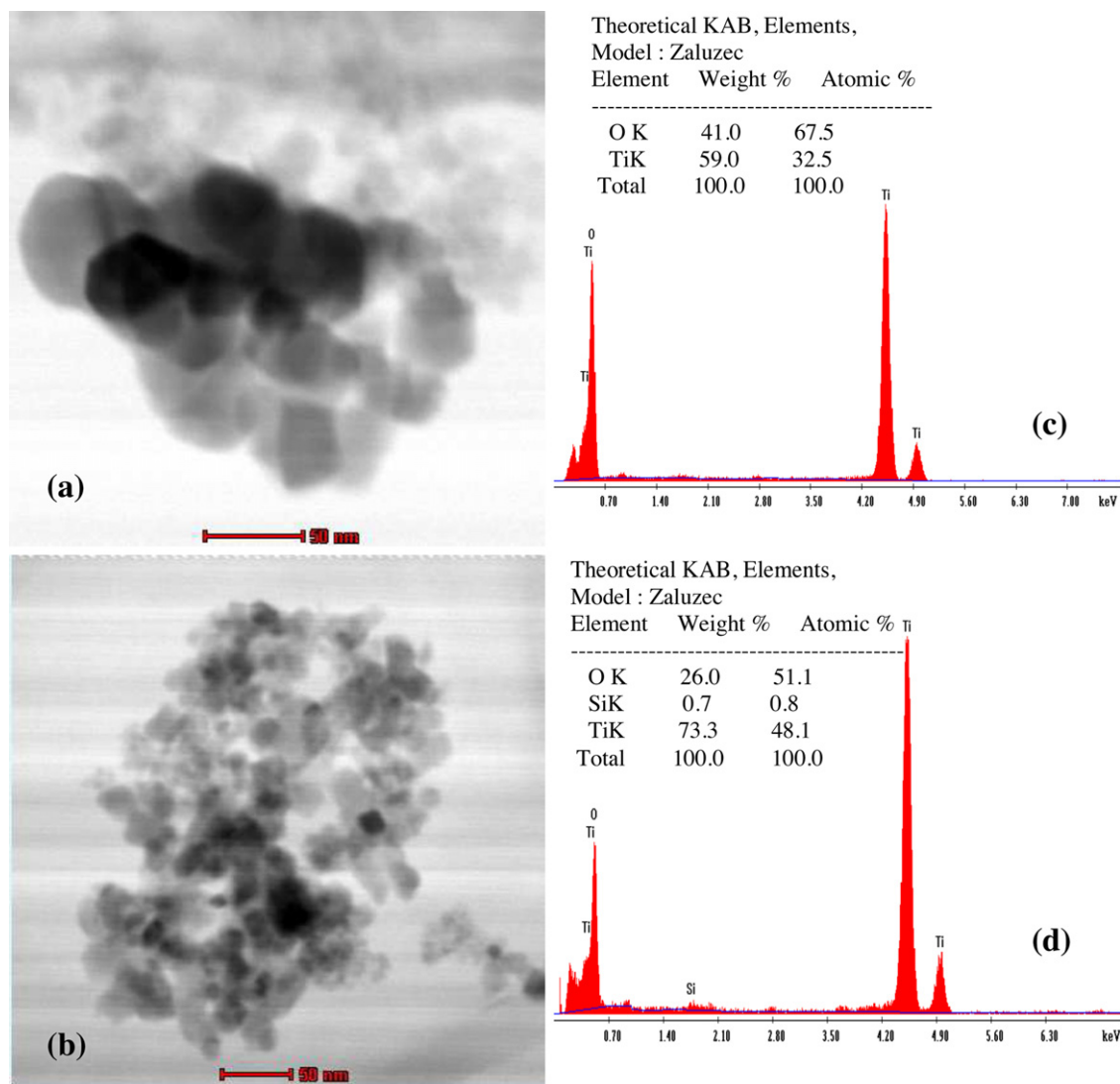


Fig. 6. TEM micrographs and EDX spectra of (a) and (c) bare TiO₂; (b) and (d) TiO₂(AC-700).

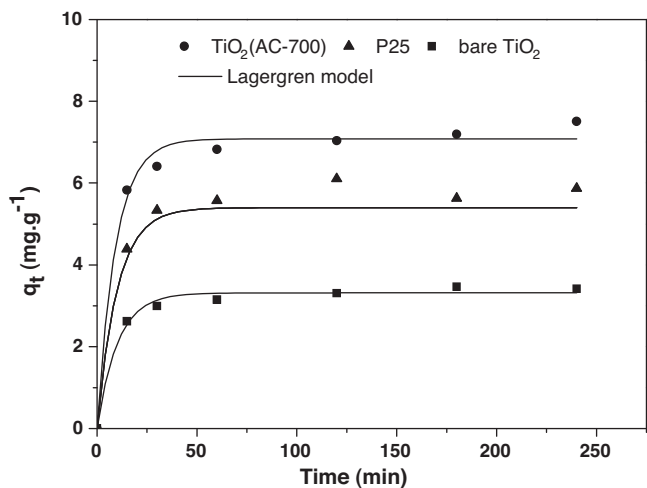


Fig. 7. Adsorption kinetics of methylene blue in the dark on TiO₂-P25, bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700).

of surface area and total pore volume of TiO₂ as already mentioned. Moreover, TiO₂(AC-700) catalyst exhibit the high BET surface area which may provides more active sites for the photocatalytic reaction

3.2.2. Photocatalytic degradation

The photocatalytic activity of TiO₂(AC-700) and bare TiO₂ materials were evaluated by using the degradation of the standard organic dye, methylene blue (MB), under visible light irradiation as probe reaction. For comparison, the activity of the commercial photocatalyst TiO₂ Degussa P25 and synthesized photocatalysts were tested under the same conditions.

The results displayed in Fig. 8 show that MB solution becomes completely decolorized within 180 min of irradiation with TiO₂(AC-

Table 2

Kinetic parameters of methylene blue adsorption on the dark and degradation under visible irradiation on TiO₂-P25, bare TiO₂ and TiO₂(AC-700) photocatalysts.

Sample	Dark adsorption			Visible light degradation	
	q_e (mg·g ⁻¹)	k_{ads} (10 ⁻² min ⁻¹)	r^2	k_{app} (10 ⁻³ min ⁻¹)	r^2
TiO ₂ (AC-700)	7.88	10.12	0.98	49.75	0.99
Bare TiO ₂	3.32	9.16	0.98	18.58	0.99
TiO ₂ P25	5.39	9.90	0.97	22.74	0.99

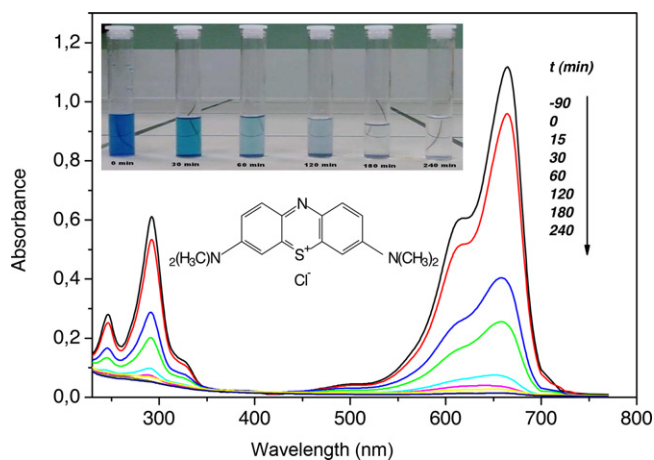


Fig. 8. Changes in the UV-vis spectra during photodegradation of methylene blue on $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ (inset: molecular structure of MB).

700) sample. This figure shows also, the UV-vis absorption spectra of MB which were studied at different times of irradiation. As it is presented, the bands relating to different molecular parts in this dye are decreased with respect to time. MB is a phenothiazine dye in which the chromophore part of molecular structure contains amino and thiocarbonyl linkage and shows a strong absorbance in the visible region, while the absorbance peaks of the benzene rings appear in the UV region. The perfect disappearance of the bands at 664 nm and at 290 nm reveals that MB is eliminated in the presence of $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ suspension.

Normalized kinetics of MB degradation in presence of visible light with and without catalysts are shown in Fig. 9. In all the cases these kinetics are well fitted with a classic first order given by the following equation Eq. (A.6)

$$C_t = C_0 \exp(-k_{\text{app}} t) \quad (\text{A.6})$$

where C_0 is the initial MB concentration, C_t is its concentration at t time and k_{app} is the apparent first order constant. Total removal of MB can be obtained in the case of $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ after less than 150 min while it needs more than 200 min with the other photocatalysts tested. The total mineralization of methylene blue using $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ was also improved by measuring the TOC before irradiation (15.80 ppm) and after 180 min of irradiation and it was

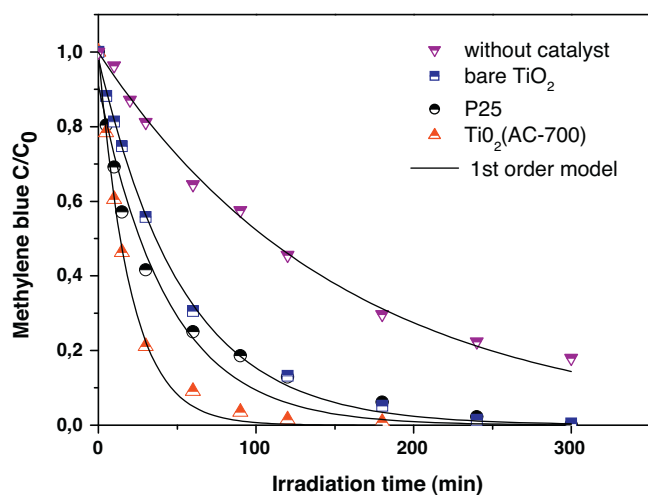


Fig. 9. Photocatalytic degradation of MB in aqueous suspension as a function of visible irradiation time with bare TiO_2 , TiO_2 -Degussa P25 and $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$. Experimental condition: natural pH; $C_0(\text{MB}) = 30$ ppm; $m(\text{catalyst}) = 62.5$ mg; $V(\text{solution}) = 125$ ml.

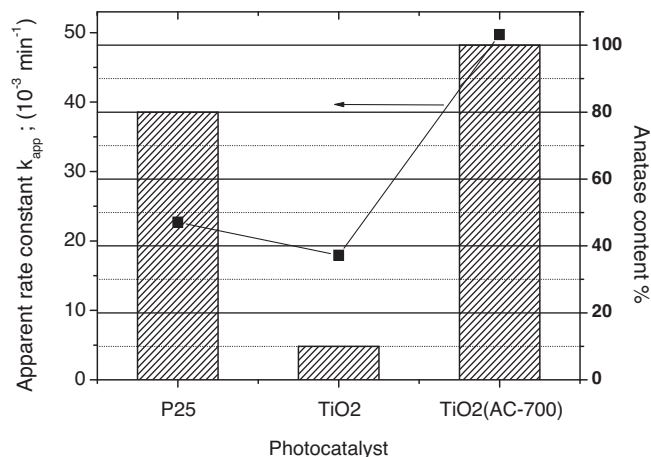


Fig. 10. Apparent rate constants of MB for the photocatalytic degradation as a function of catalysts and correlation with anatase phase ratio.

found to be equal to 2 ppm. Results show also that direct photolysis of MB solutions without catalyst followed pseudo first-order kinetics with an apparent rate constant equal to 0.006 min^{-1} .

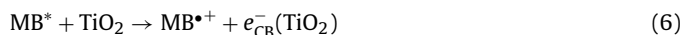
All apparent rate constant k_{app} for the different photocatalysts are summarized in Table 2. A correlation between anatase amount in catalyst and its apparent rate constant was found and shown in Fig. 10. The apparent rate constant of $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ is much higher than those of TiO_2 -P25 and bare TiO_2 . In presence of dye and visible light the photoactivity of catalyst must be demonstrated.

Many researches [46–48] have proposed that photocatalytic process and photosensitized process contributed together in the degradation of dye by TiO_2 especially in the presence of visible irradiation. In our experiments, the degradation of methylene blue is performed by the means of three processes: the direct photolysis, the photosensitized process and the photocatalysis.

Through the interaction of visible light and methylene blue, which characterized by a main band at 664 nm and exhibit high absorption of the visible light emitted by the lamp (Fig. 2), three possible ways can be presented in the mechanism of degradation of MB in absence of catalyst. The first way passes through a cationic radical, while the others involve either oxygen or hydroxyl radical. For each of these pathways, the first step is the absorption of photon by MB with energy at least equal to the difference energy between the highest occupied orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied orbital (LUMO), leads to the excited state of MB (Eq. (1)). This last excited state can return to its original state when it reacts with the dissolved oxygen, or generate a cationic radical through an electron transfer (Eqs. (2) and (3)). The cationic dye radicals readily reacts with water or hydroxyl ions undergoing oxidation via or interacts effectively with OH^\bullet species leading to the degradation of the dye (Eqs. (4) and (5)).



For the mechanism of photosensitized oxidation, in presence of catalyst the excited state of MB inject an electron into the conduction band (Eq. (6)). Whereas, the dye is converted to the cationic dye radicals ($\text{Dye}^{\bullet+}$) that undergoes degradation to yield products as follows (Eqs. (7)–(10)) [49].



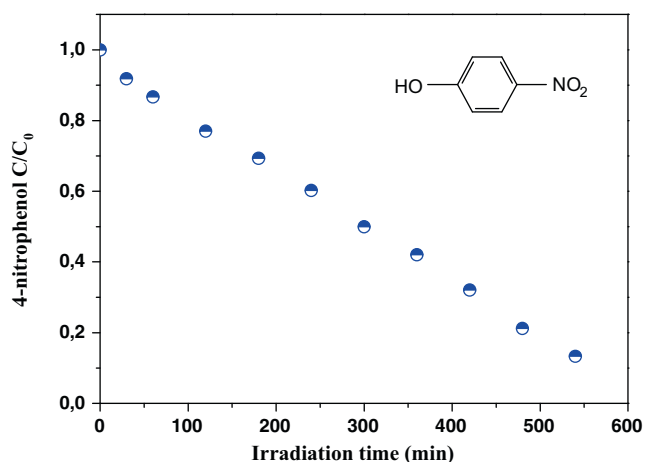
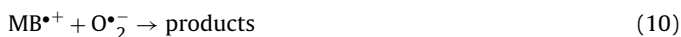


Fig. 11. Photocatalytic degradation of 4-nitrophenol (PNP) in aqueous suspension as a function of visible irradiation time using $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ (inset: molecular structure of PNP). Experimental condition: natural pH; $C_0(\text{PNP}) = 30$ ppm; $m(\text{catalyst}) = 62.5$ mg; $V(\text{solution}) = 125$ ml.



The photocatalytic process of $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ semi-conductor is confirmed by the degradation of 4-nitrophenol (PNP). Fig. 11 shows the photocatalytic results of PNP by $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$. The total degradation rate of PNP was over 90% within 6 h of irradiation and the reaction follows first order kinetics with an apparent rate constant equal to $2.03 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$. PNP dissolved in water will form a colorless solution and this solution is very stable under light irradiation. Therefore, the degradation of PNP can be attributed only to the photocatalytic activity of $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$. This experiment may prove that the $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ have the ability in the photocatalytic degradation process of MB under visible irradiation. Thus, the absorption of visible light by $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ produced hole in the valence band and electron in the conduction band. The electron-hole pairs, thus generated, are able of initiating oxidation and reduction reactions on the surface of TiO_2 particles. Holes (h_{VB}^+) react with adsorbed OH^- groups and produce OH^{\bullet} radicals. Whereas, electrons (e_{CB}^-) react with O_2 and produce superoxide anion radical $\text{O}_2^{\bullet -}$. OH^{\bullet} and $\text{O}_2^{\bullet -}$ radicals worked together to degrade MB.

The experimental results show that the degradation rate of MB using $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ is high compared to bare- TiO_2 and $\text{TiO}_2\text{-P25}$ which could be attributed to the anatase phase stability, the high surface area and the existence of SiO_2 oxides. As confirmed by many works, the rutile phase is generally less active due to lower surface affinity for many organic compounds and generally higher rates of recombination of photogenerated charge pairs. Moreover, the surface area which will help the adsorption of more dye molecules on the surface of catalyst and the band gap energy which may induce a modification in the valence band (VB) and conduction band (CB) levels causing higher CB and lower VB level. Thus the electron-hole recombination rate decreases during the illumination of catalyst [50–52].

Furthermore, the important factor which enhances the photoactivity of TiO_2 is the presence of SiO_2 . Activated carbon impurities may improve the thermal stability of titania by suppressing the anatase-to-rutile phase transformation, the growth of crystalline size, the surface area and preserve a higher content of surface hydroxyl groups [37,53].

4. Conclusion

We reported the elaboration of TiO_2 through activated carbon addition with high stability and high activity under visible light. It was found that photoactivity of TiO_2 catalyst was improved by the addition of activated carbon. In fact, our results suggested that activated carbon matrix not only counterworked the growth of TiO_2 particles, prevented the agglomeration TiO_2 particles, retarded the transformation from anatase to rutile phase, but also the activated carbon produced a doping or/and junction effects by some structural AC mineral oxides, such oxide at least SiO_2 .

The photocatalytic process and the photosensitized process were identified to contribute in the degradation process of MB under visible irradiation using $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$, TiO_2 and P25. $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ shows higher degradation rate more than TiO_2 and $\text{TiO}_2\text{-P25}$ powders. Owing to its high performance in visible irradiation, the $\text{TiO}_2(\text{AC-700})$ solid prepared by sol-gel method is a very promising photocatalyst for the degradation of organic pollutants which must be tested under UV or solar irradiation.

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