

Photocatalytic activity of polypyrrole/TiO₂ nanocomposites under visible and UV light

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Abstract A series of polypyrrole (PPy)/titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanocomposites were prepared in different polymerization conditions by ‘in situ’ chemical oxidative polymerization. The nanocomposites were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), Fourier transform infrared spectra (FT-IR), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy spectra (XPS), and UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra. The photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange (MO) was chosen as a model reaction to evaluate the photocatalytic activities of TiO₂/PPy catalysts. The results show that a strong interaction exists at the interface between TiO₂ and PPy, the deposition of PPy on TiO₂ nanoparticles can alleviate their agglomeration, PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites show stronger absorbance than neat TiO₂ under the whole range of visible light. The obtained PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites exhibit significantly higher photocatalytic activity than the neat TiO₂ on the degradation of MO aqueous solution under visible and UV light illumination. The reasons for improving the photocatalytic activity were also discussed.

Introduction

Nanoparticulate TiO₂ has attracted much attention in last score years not only for its effectiveness as materials for photoelectric conversion and photocatalysis, but also for its inexpensiveness, easy production, photochemical and biological stability, and innocuity to the environment and human beings [1–3]. However, TiO₂ has a wide energy

band gap of 3.2 eV so that it can be excited only by the ultraviolet light which is only about 4–6% of the solar spectrum. So, TiO₂ nanoparticles cannot efficiently utilize the solar energy. In addition, the high recombining probability of electrons and holes photogenerated in TiO₂ would decrease its photocatalytic activity. All these drawbacks limit its application especially in the large-scale industry. To solve the above problems, many methods have been applied to extend the light absorption of TiO₂ into the visible region and increase its photocatalytic activity, as for instance transition metals ion doping [4–7], non-metals ion doping (including doping of nitrogen [8–12], carbon [13–16], sulfur [17] and iodine [18, 19]), ion implantation [20], and photosensitization [21, 22]. The photosensitization is one of most important modification techniques for improving the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂, in which the usual photosensitizers are the dyes and conducting polymers with the conjugated structure.

In recent years, conducting polymers (e.g., polyaniline, polypyrrole, and polythiophene) have aroused great interest to the researchers because of their unique electrical and optical properties [23, 24], such as high absorption coefficients, efficient electron donors and good electron transporters in the visible light radiation, high mobility of charge carriers, and excellent stability [25]. As a traditional conducting polymer, polyaniline has been studied in the modification of TiO₂ widely [26–29] for improving the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂. As another common conducting polymer, polypyrrole (PPy) has higher conductivity than polyaniline [30]. The conjugated structure and perfect conductivity of PPy can be useful to electron transfer during the photoaction. Kwon et al. prepared various polypyrrole/titania hybrids as the photovoltaic materials using different synthetic methods, and observed that photoelectric conversion efficiencies increased in

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proportion to the polypyrrole content of the hybrid composites [31]. Melo et al. prepared conducting polypyrrole blends gas sensors [32]. But so far, few studies have been carried out on the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ modified by PPy except that the photocatalytic activity of PPy–TiO₂ nanocomposites under sunlight was studied by our group [33].

In this article, a series of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites were prepared by ‘in-situ’ deposition oxidative polymerization of pyrrole, and the effects of polymerization conditions on their photocatalytic activities were evaluated by photodegradation of methyl orange aqueous solution under visible and UV light. PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites were characterized by TEM, XPS, FT-IR, and UV–Vis spectra. The reasons for improving the photocatalytic activity of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites were also discussed.

Experimental

Reagents and materials

Pyrrole (Tianjin Chemical Works, China) was used after distillation at reduced pressure. Methyl orange, ferric chloride, tetrabutyl titanate, and hydrochloric acid (Tianjin Chemical Reagents Company) were of AR grade and used without further purification. Absolute ethanol and acetic acid (Beijing Chemical Reagents Company) were used as received. The water was deionized water in this study.

Preparation of TiO₂ nanoparticles

Nanoparticulate TiO₂ (mostly anatase) was prepared in our laboratory by sol–gel hydrolysis and condensation of ethanol solutions of tetrabutyl titanate as follows. Tetrabutyl titanate and acetic acid were added into absolute ethanol under continuously stirring condition. Deionized water, absolute ethanol, and acetic acid were mixed together to inject dropwise into the above solution for 30 min under magnetic stirring. The obtained mixture was stirred for another 30 min and aged for 24 h at room temperature and then dried in an oven at 100 °C for 36 h. After grinded, the final gels were heat-treated in a furnace at 500 °C for 3 h.

Preparation of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites

PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites were prepared according to the reported procedure [33]. The as-prepared TiO₂ nanoparticles (2.0 g) were suspended in HCl aqueous solution (1.5 mol/L, 100 mL) and sonicated for 30 min. Then pyrrole (the molar ratio of TiO₂ to pyrrole in the polymerization system was from 60:1 to 140:1) was injected into the above suspension at certain temperature (0, 15, 25, 35, and

45 °C) with constant stirring. After that, ferric chloride dissolved into 1.5 mol/L hydrochloric acid aqueous solution was added to the above mixture by dropwise. The resulting mixture reacted at constant temperature bath for the designed time (2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 h). Afterward, the reaction mixture was filtered, the precipitate was washed with hydrochloric acid solution, and a large amount of deionized water, respectively. Finally, the product was dried at 100 °C until its mass reached the constant. According to this method, a series of PPy/TiO₂ samples were synthesized and labeled as PPy/TiO₂ (1:X), where 1:X is the molar ratio of pyrrole monomer to TiO₂.

Measurements of photocatalytic activities

Photocatalytic activities of the samples were evaluated in terms of the photodegradation of methyl orange (MO) aqueous solution under UV or visible light illumination. A 20 W UV lamp (Beijing Lighting Research Institute, with peak emission at $\lambda = 254$ nm) and a 300 W tungsten halogen lamp (PHILIPS, equipped with a 400 nm cut-off filter) were used as UV light and visible light source, respectively. The distance between the lamp and the surface of suspension was about 10 cm. Circulating water was used to cool the suspensions for visible light photocatalytic reactions. PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites (0.4 g) were suspended into 10 mg L⁻¹ MO aqueous solution (400 mL) and sonicated for 30 min to disperse the nanoparticles well. Then the suspension containing MO and photocatalyst was magnetically stirred in a dark condition for 60 min until an adsorption–desorption equilibrium was established. After that, the suspension was irradiated under UV or visible light. At the given time intervals, a few milliliters of the suspension were taken out and separated by high speed centrifugation. The concentration of clarified solution was analyzed by measuring the absorbance of MO at a wave length of 464 nm with a 723 spectrometer. The degradation rate (*D*, %) could be calculated as the following equation:

$$D = (c_0 - c_t)/c_0 \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

Where, *c*₀ and *c*_{*t*} are the concentrations of MO solution before and after irradiation, respectively.

Characterization

Fourier transform infrared spectra (FT-IR) of the samples were recorded on spectrometer (SHIMADZU) in the range 400–4000 cm⁻¹. Measurements were performed in the transmission mode in spectroscopic grade KBr pellets for all the powders. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were taken on a tecnai G2 F20 transmission electron microscopy, whereby the samples were dispersed on a carbon-coated copper grid. The x-ray diffraction (XRD)

patterns of both neat TiO_2 and PPy/TiO_2 were obtained in the scanning range of $2\theta = 10\text{--}90^\circ$ on a Rigaku D/MAX-2500 diffractometer (Rigaku Co., JAPAN) operated at 40 kV and 100 mA using $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm). The UV–visible diffuse reflectance spectra of the catalysts were measured between 200 and 800 nm using a Varian Cary 100 Scan UV–visible system equipped with an integrating sphere attachment (USRS-99-010) as a reflectance standard. X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS) was carried out on a Perkin Elmer PHI1600 ESCA system with an Mg $\text{K}\alpha$ x-ray source. In the data analysis, the binding energy of core level C1s was set at 284.8 eV to compensate for surface-charging effects. Specific surface area of nanoparticles was calculated using BET method, and adsorption–desorption isotherms of nitrogen at 77 K were measured on the NOVA2000 adsorption instrument (Quantachrome Instruments Co., USA).

Results and discussion

Morphology of TiO_2 nanoparticles and PPy/TiO_2 nanocomposites

Figure 1 shows the transmission electron microscope images of neat TiO_2 nanoparticles and PPy/TiO_2 (1:100) nanocomposites. It can be found that the morphology and sizes of the nanocomposites (Fig. 1b) do not differ much from those of neat TiO_2 (Fig. 1a), while the aggregation of PPy/TiO_2 nanocomposites is less than that of neat TiO_2 , indicating that modification of PPy can alleviate the aggregation of TiO_2 nanoparticles. The typical HRTEM image of PPy/TiO_2 (1:100) (inset of Fig. 1b) reveals that the thickness of PPy layer adsorbed on TiO_2 surface is about 0.7 nm. Based on the fold-line frame structure of PPy molecules and the size of pyrrole structure, we can infer that PPy on TiO_2 surface might exist with the

monomolecular layer, which is similar to that described in the literature [34]. The XRD patterns of neat TiO_2 nanoparticles and PPy/TiO_2 (1:100) nanocomposites are shown in Fig. 2. It can be concluded that anatase diffraction peak at 25.3 , 37.8 , and 48.1° appeared which attributed to the 101, 004, and 200 reflection, respectively, indicating the as-prepared TiO_2 is anatase phase. The mean sizes of TiO_2 nanoparticles and PPy/TiO_2 nanocomposites calculated from Scherrer's formula, are 14.6 and 15.5 nm, respectively. In addition, the specific surface area (82.6 m^2 g^{-1}) of PPy/TiO_2 (1:100) nanocomposites, determined from the adsorption isotherm of nitrogen at 77 K, is obviously larger than that (69.3 m^2 g^{-1}) of neat TiO_2 , further confirming that PPy deposited on the surface of TiO_2 nanoparticles can improve the dispersity of PPy/TiO_2 nanocomposites. The reason for the dispersity improvement of TiO_2 nanoparticles may be that the molecules of doped PPy possess positive charges, leading PPy/TiO_2 nanoparticles to repel each other and alleviate their aggregation.

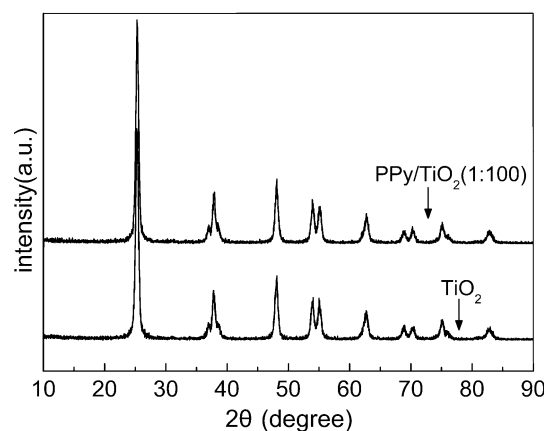
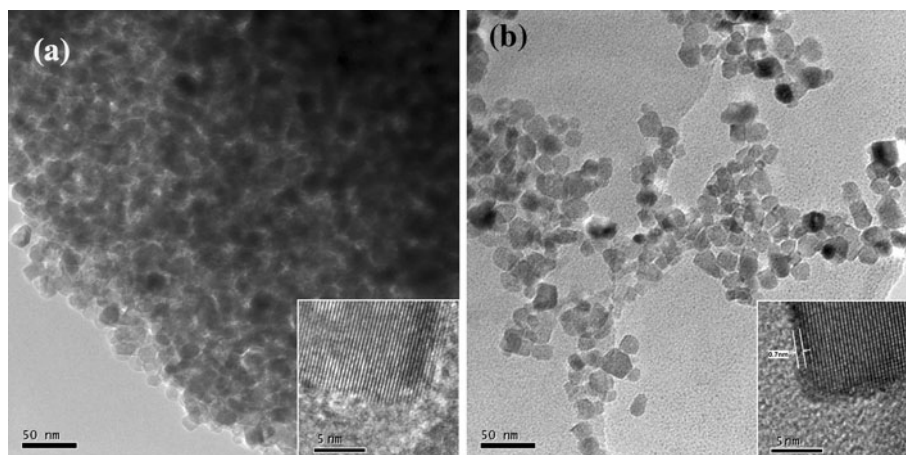


Fig. 2 XRD patterns of neat TiO_2 and PPy/TiO_2 (1:100)

Fig. 1 TEM images of **a** neat TiO_2 and **b** PPy/TiO_2 (1:100)



Light absorption of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites

Figure 3 displays the UV–visible diffuse reflectance spectra of PPy/TiO₂ (1:100) nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization time. It can be clearly seen that the absorbance of PPy/TiO₂ is enhanced within the whole range of visible light. With prolonging polymerization time, the visible light absorbance of PPy/TiO₂ increases, which might be associated with PPy content on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles. The results reveal that PPy can facilitate nanocomposites to absorb more visible light and

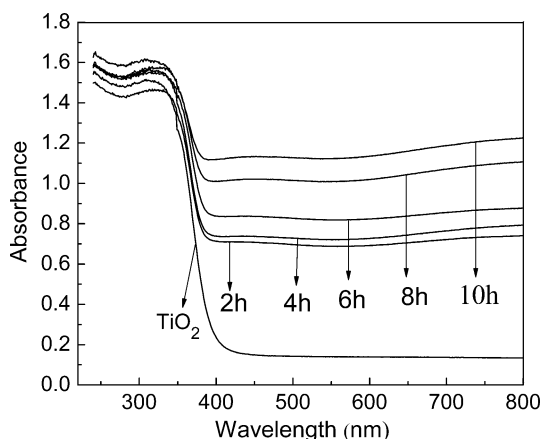


Fig. 3 UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of PPy/TiO₂ (1:100) nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization time

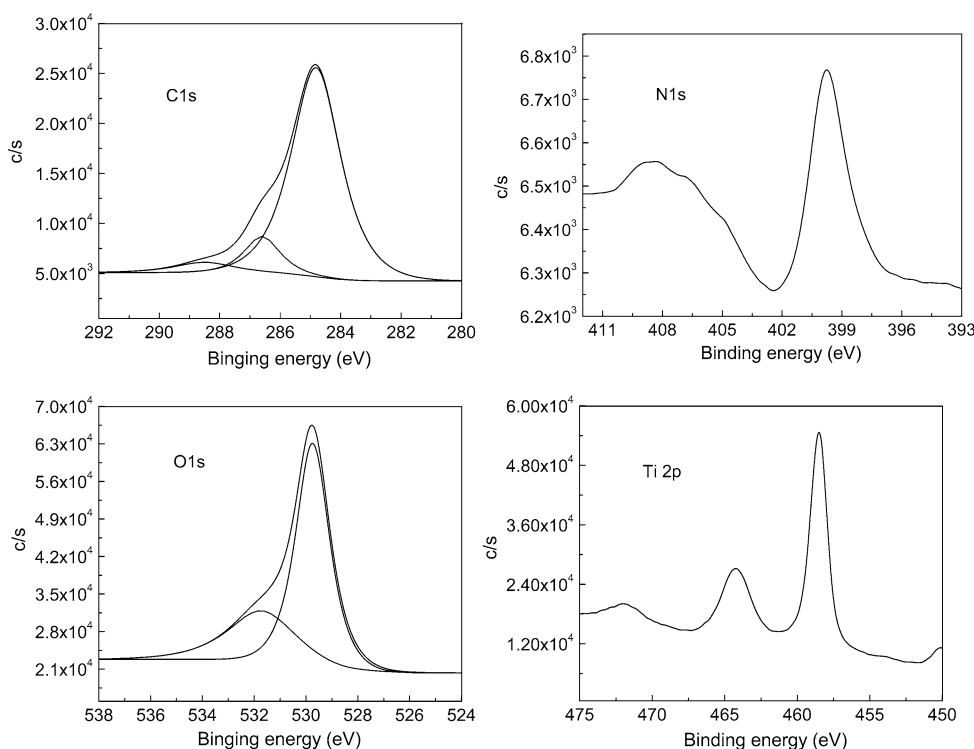
generate more electron–hole pairs, which could result in the higher photocatalytic activities of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

Interaction between PPy and TiO₂

According to the XPS survey spectra (Fig. 4) of PPy/TiO₂ (1:100), the nanocomposite contains the elements of Ti, O, C, and N. The binding energies for C1s, O1s, Ti2p, and N1s are 284.8, 529.8, 458.5, and 399.44 eV, respectively. To investigate the polypyrrole states in the photocatalyst, we measured C1s, O1s core levels. The peaks at binding energies of 284.87 and 286.66 eV indicate the presence of C in polypyrrole. The peak of 288.75 eV indicates the presence of C–O bond. The signal of O1s at 529.8 eV confirms the Ti–O bond in TiO₂, and the other peak at 531.9 eV is attributed to the presence of H-bonds between O in TiO₂ and H in the N–H of polypyrrole. It can be inferred that the H-bonds lead to the tight combination between TiO₂ and PPy.

Figure 5 compares the FT-IR spectra of neat TiO₂, PPy doped by HCl and PPy/TiO₂ sample. The main characteristic peaks of PPy are assigned as follows: the bands at 3422 and 1625 cm⁻¹ are attributable to N–H stretching mode and bending mode, respectively. C=C and C–N stretching modes for the polypyrrole rings occur at 1540 and 1454 cm⁻¹, respectively. The bands at 1294, 1170, and 1040 cm⁻¹ are also attributed to stretching mode for polypyrrole. The spectrum of neat TiO₂ has one major band at about 500 cm⁻¹. Many characteristic peaks of PPy

Fig. 4 XPS spectra of C1s, O1s, Ti2p, and N1s in PPy/TiO₂ (1:100) nanocomposites



disappear in the spectrum of the PPy/TiO₂ (1:100) nanocomposites due to the small content of PPy in nanocomposites. PPy/TiO₂ (1:5) nanocomposites were prepared by the same method in order to explain the interaction between PPy and TiO₂. The bands at 3432, 1634, 1559, 1465, 1303, and 500 cm⁻¹ appear in the spectrum of PPy/TiO₂ (1:5) nanocomposites, which can be concluded that the nanocomposites are composed of PPy and TiO₂. Compared with the spectrum of PPy, the characteristic peaks of PPy in nanocomposites shift to higher wave number, indicating that a strong interaction exists at the interface between TiO₂ and PPy.

Photocatalytic activities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites under UV and visible light

A series of samples of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites were prepared in different polymerization conditions, and the effects of polymerization conditions on photocatalytic activities of the samples were investigated by MO degradation under UV or visible light illumination. The results were showed in Figs. 6, 7, and 8.

Figure 6 shows that the degradation of MO can be described by first-order reaction in the presence of neat TiO₂ or PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites with different molar ratios of pyrrole monomer to TiO₂ under UV or visible light irradiation, and the kinetics plots are shown by apparent first-order linear transform $\ln(c_0/c) = k_{\text{app}} t$. The photocatalytic activities of neat TiO₂ and PPy/TiO₂ catalysts can be evaluated by comparing the apparent rate constants (k_{app}) listed in Table 1. It is found that PPy/TiO₂

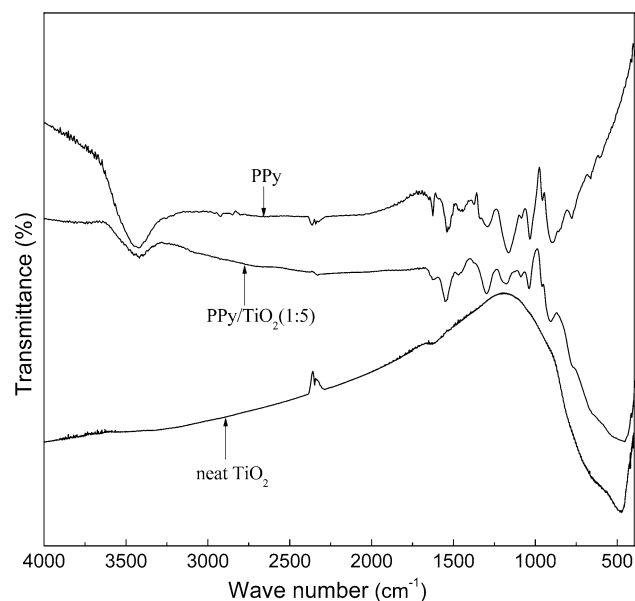


Fig. 5 FT-IR spectra of TiO₂, PPy doped by HCl, and PPy/TiO₂ (1:5) nanocomposites

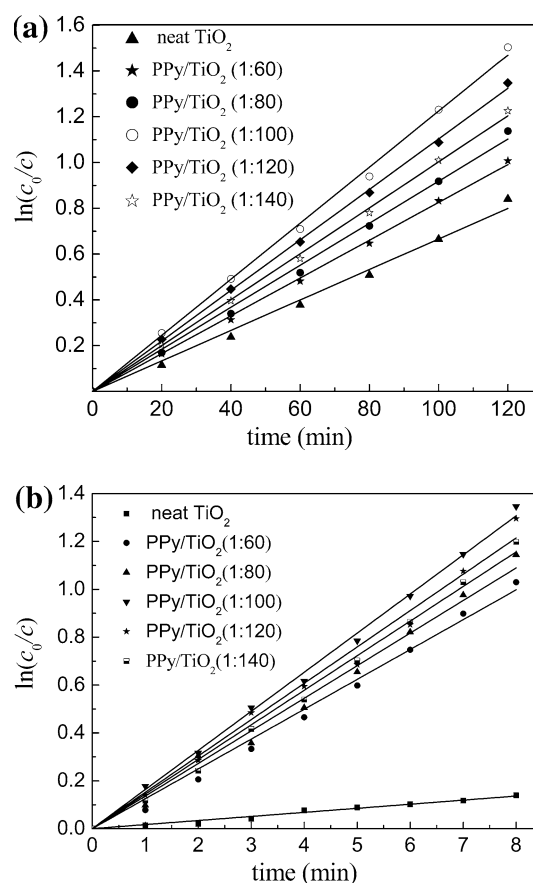


Fig. 6 Apparent first-order linear transform $\ln(c_0/c)$ via time for neat TiO₂ and PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites with different molar ratios of pyrrole to TiO₂ under **a** UV light illumination and **b** visible light irradiation

nanocomposites have higher photocatalytic activities than neat TiO₂. The introduction of a small amount of PPy to TiO₂ nanoparticles enhances the photocatalytic activities under UV and visible light. With the increase of the molar ratio of pyrrole to TiO₂ from 1:140 to 1:60, the degradation rate of MO increases and then decreases, the highest degradation rate occurs at the molar ratio of 1:100.

The higher photocatalytic activities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites compared with neat TiO₂ under UV light can be interpreted by the two aspects as follows. First, the introduction of a little of PPy to surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles can decrease the aggregation of TiO₂ nanoparticles and increase the specific surface area due to repelling force of the nanoparticles from the doped PPy with the positive charges. PPy/TiO₂ nanoparticles with larger specific surface area have higher absorption of MO, which can lead to faster degradation rate under UV light. Second, a strong interaction exists at the interface between TiO₂ and PPy, and the conjugated structure and perfect conductivity of PPy can easily transfer the electrons generated in TiO₂ nanoparticles under UV light, so the recombining

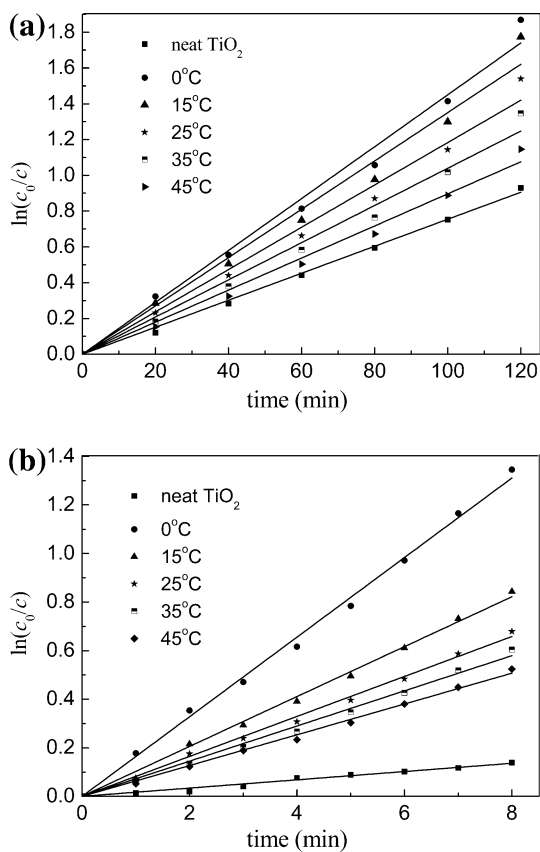


Fig. 7 Relationship between $\ln(c_0/c)$ and time for MO photodegradation catalyzed by PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization temperatures under **a** UV light illumination and **b** visible light irradiation

probability of photogenerated electrons and holes decreases and their separating probability increases, which favors the improvement of photocatalytic activity of PPy/TiO₂ nanoparticles under UV light. Simultaneously, except for the above two aspects which can also favor the photocatalytic activities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites under visible light, the third reason is that absorbance spectra of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites presented in Fig. 3 would favor the photocatalytic activities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites under visible light instead of UV light. PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites show stronger absorbance in the whole visible light range. When PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites are illuminated under visible light, PPy can absorb photons and be excited to produce electron–hole pairs. The electrons photogenerated by conducting PPy under visible light can transfer to the conduction band of TiO₂, which can enhance the electron–hole separation and in turn improve the visible light photocatalytic ability of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites. Therefore, PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites have significantly higher photocatalytic activity than neat TiO₂ nanoparticles under visible light.

With increasing pyrrole concentration in the polymerization system, the PPy content on the surface of PPy/TiO₂

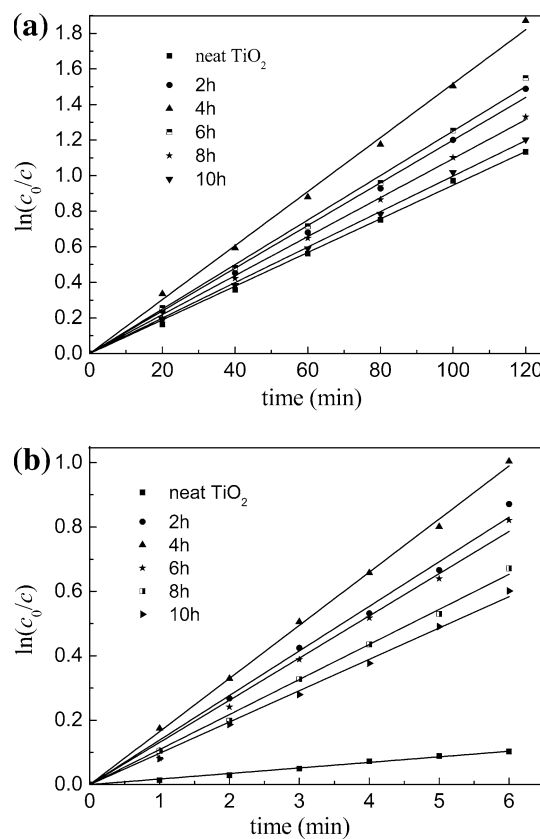


Fig. 8 Relationship between $\ln(c_0/c)$ and time during MO photodegradation in the presence of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization time under **a** UV light illumination and **b** visible light irradiation

nanocomposites increases, which favors the increment of the specific surface area of the nanocomposites, separating probability of electrons and holes photogenerated on nanocomposites, and the absorbance of nanocomposites in visible light region. So, the photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposites under UV or visible light irradiation increases. When PPy layer on the nanocomposite surface is thicker than that of the monomolecular layer, more PPy content cannot obviously increase the specific surface area of TiO₂ nanoparticles because of the repelling force not greatly increasing, and not obviously decrease the recombining probability of photogenerated electrons and holes. However, too more PPy content may decrease UV light absorbance to excite TiO₂, and disfavor the electrons photogenerated by conducting PPy under visible light to transfer to the conduction band of TiO₂ because the most easily excited PPy might not tightly touch with TiO₂. So, further increasing pyrrole concentration in the polymerization system can decrease the photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposites under UV or visible light irradiation. For the PPy/TiO₂ (1:100) nanocomposites, all the above-mentioned factors favor the photocatalytic activity due to the monomolecular layer of PPy on the surface of TiO₂, so

Table 1 Apparent rate constants (k_{app}) of MO photodegradation catalyzed by neat TiO₂ and PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites prepared with different molar ratios of pyrrole to TiO₂ and linear regression coefficients from a plot of $\ln(c_0/c) = k_{app}t$

$n(\text{Py}):n(\text{TiO}_2)$	Under UV light illumination		Under visible light irradiation	
	k_{app} (min ⁻¹)	R	k_{app} (h ⁻¹)	R
Neat TiO ₂	0.00707	0.9976	0.0170	0.9930
1:60	0.00826	0.9995	0.125	0.9965
1:80	0.00976	0.9989	0.136	0.9952
1:100	0.0130	0.9989	0.163	0.9990
1:120	0.0117	0.9996	0.152	0.9959
1:140	0.0106	0.9994	0.145	0.9981

Table 2 Apparent rate constants (k_{app}) and linear regression coefficients from a plot of $\ln(c_0/c) = k_{app}t$ of MO photodegradation catalyzed by PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization temperatures

Polymerization temperature (°C)	Under UV light illumination		Under visible light irradiation	
	k_{app} (min ⁻¹)	R	k_{app} (h ⁻¹)	R
0	0.0145	0.9949	0.164	0.9989
15	0.0135	0.9926	0.103	0.9978
25	0.0118	0.9943	0.0823	0.9968
35	0.0104	0.9946	0.0724	0.9979
45	0.00896	0.9960	0.0634	0.9985
Neat TiO ₂	0.00755	0.9988	0.0172	0.9936

the photocatalytic activity is highest under UV or visible light irradiation.

The effects of polymerization temperatures on degradation of MO under UV or visible light irradiation were shown in Fig. 7. The degradation rate constants (k_{app}) were displayed in Table 2. It is found that photocatalytic activity of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites decreases with the increase of polymerization temperature under both UV light and visible light irradiation. This is likely related to PPy structure on the surface of TiO₂. At lower temperatures the polymerization rate of pyrrole is lower, and a higher degree of structural regularity can be easily obtained during the formation of PPy chains, which will be favorable to the photocatalytic activity. With the increase of polymerization temperature, oxidative polymerization rate may be so fast that the conjugated degree of polymer chain decreases, resulting in lower photocatalytic activity.

Figure 8 displays MO photodegradation catalyzed by neat TiO₂ and PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization time. The degradation rate constants (k_{app}) were listed in Table 3. It can be seen that the photocatalytic activities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites increase and then decrease with the increase of polymerization time from 2 to 10 h, the highest degradation rate occurs at 4 h. The experimental result can be explained as follows. With prolonging the polymerization time, the content of PPy on TiO₂ surface increases gradually, and the absorbance of TiO₂/PPy nanocomposites in the visible light region also increases as shown in Fig. 3, which can favor the photocatalytic activities of TiO₂/PPy samples. However, further prolonging the polymerization time might lead to other side

Table 3 Apparent rate constants (k_{app}) and linear regression coefficients from a plot of $\ln(c_0/c) = k_{app}t$ of MO photodegradation in the presence of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites prepared at different polymerization time

Polymerization time/h	UV light illumination		Visible light illumination	
	k_{app} (min ⁻¹)	R	k_{app} (h ⁻¹)	R
2	0.0120	0.9987	0.138	0.9970
4	0.0152	0.9991	0.165	0.9995
6	0.0125	0.9989	0.131	0.9967
8	0.0109	0.9996	0.109	0.9990
10	0.00998	0.9997	0.0973	0.9987
Neat TiO ₂	0.00947	0.9994	0.0172	0.9980

reactions such as the overoxidation of PPy, which disfavors the photocatalytic activities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites.

Photocatalytic stabilities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites under UV and visible light

The photocatalytic stabilities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites under UV and visible light were performed with the concentration of MO (10 mg L⁻¹) and catalyst dosage (1 g L⁻¹) for each cycling run. The regeneration of PPy/TiO₂ was done by filtrating the suspension to remove the bulk solution and drying the photocatalysts at 60 °C for 24 h. The regenerated photocatalysts were reused in the next cycle. The results displayed in Fig. 9 show that the degradation rate of MO is still about 70% of that of the first cycling run after five successive cycles under UV and visible light irradiation, indicating that the photocatalytic

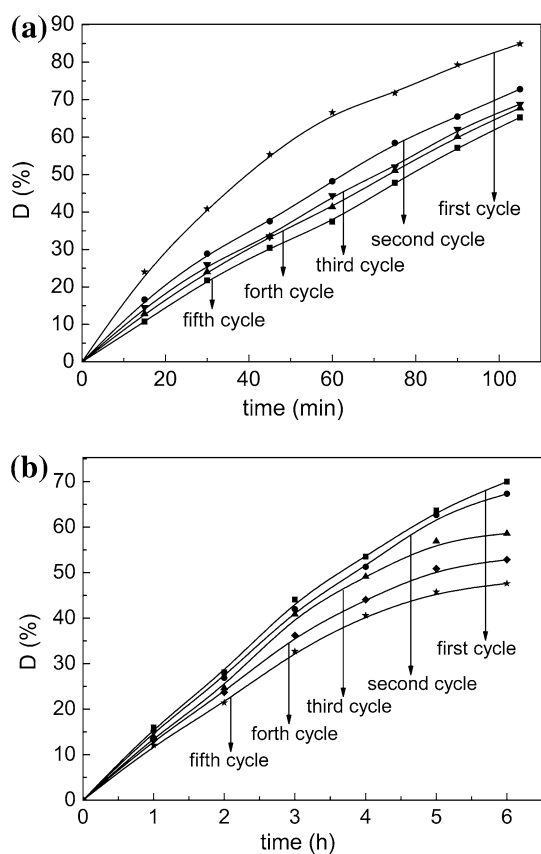


Fig. 9 The photocatalytic experiments of PPy/TiO₂ (1:100) nanocomposites for five cycles under **a** UV light illumination and **b** visible light irradiation

stabilities of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites are excellent. The slight decrease of photocatalytic activity after each cycle may be due to the aggregation of nanoparticles during the photocatalytic degradation process.

Conclusions

PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites were prepared by ‘in situ’ chemical oxidative polymerization of pyrrole in the TiO₂ suspension. The degradation of MO in aqueous solution was carried out to evaluate the photocatalytic activity. It was found that PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites showed significantly higher photocatalytic activities than neat TiO₂ under visible and UV light irradiation, and the highest photocatalytic activity of PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites was obtained when the molar ratio of pyrrole monomer to TiO₂ was 1:100, the polymerization temperature was 0 °C, and the polymerization time was 4 h. TEM images and BET-specific surface areas showed that PPy could enhance the dispersity of TiO₂ nanoparticles efficiently. UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra confirmed that the PPy/TiO₂ nanocomposites could absorb more photons under visible

light irradiation. XPS and FT-IR analyses suggested that a strong interaction existed at the interface between PPy and TiO₂ in the nanocomposites. PPy modification could be an efficient method to improve the visible light photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ photocatalyst.

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