

Photocatalysis of TiO₂ Nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT

Titanium dioxide is a wideband gap semiconductor that can be excited to produce electron– hole pairs when irradiated with light. Such photoinduced electron–hole pairs have been utilized to generate electricity in solar applications, to split water into hydrogen and oxygen, to oxidize and degrade inorganic /organic/biological compounds in environments as well as to create superhydrophilicity. This review would assist the readers to obtain an overview of this exciting and promising field.

Keywords- Superhydrophilic, Titanium dioxide, Photoactivity, Photocatalyst.

1. INTRODUCTION

Titanium, the world's fourth most abundant metal (exceeded only by aluminium, iron, and magnesium) and the ninth most abundant element (constituting about 0.63% of the Earth's crust), was discovered in 1791 in England by Reverend William Gregor, who recognized the presence of a new element in ilmenite[1]. Titanium dioxide is the oxide of titanium with a chemical formula of TiO₂. It is also known as titanium (IV) oxide, titania. Photoactivity of TiO₂ was first noticed in 1929[2] when it was used as white pigments in buildings. Compared with the bulk TiO₂ materials, the TiO₂ nano-materials have attracted more attentions. Because of high surface-volume ratio, TiO₂ nanostructures provide increased surface area at which photo-induced reactions may occur, enhancing light absorption rate increasing surface photo-induced carrier density, enhancing the photo-reduction rate, and resulting in higher surface photoactivity. At the same time, the high surface-volume ratio of the nanoparticles enhance the surface absorption of OH⁻ and H₂O, increasing the photocatalytic reaction rate. Up to now TiO₂ nanoparticles have been applied in photocatalytic water-splitting [3], purification of pollutants[4], photocatalytic self-cleaning[5], photocatalytic antibacteria[6], photo-induced superhydrophilicity[7] as well as in photovoltaics[8] and photosynthesis[1].

II.PROPERTIES OF TITANIA

1. Physical Properties of TiO_2 .

The polymorphs of TiO_2 are,

- Anatase (tetragonal),
- Rutile (tetragonal),
- Brookite (orthorhombic).

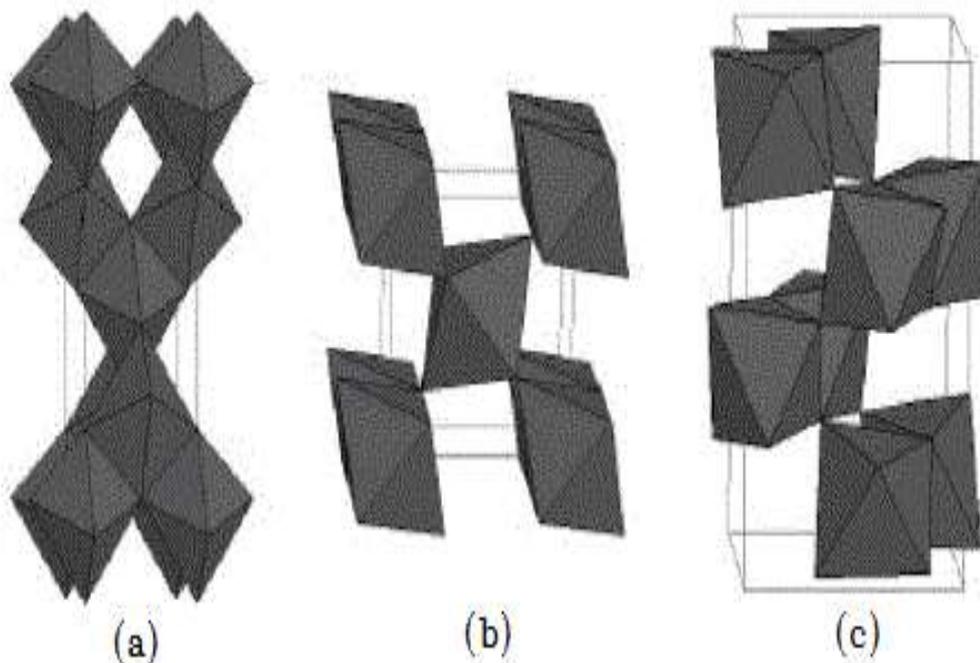


Figure 1: (a) Anatase, (b) Rutile, (c) Brookite.

The metastable anatase and brookite phases can irreversibly convert to stable rutile upon heating[9]. Among these polymorphs, only rutile and anatase show photocatalytic effects. Both of them are inexpensive, chemically stable, harmless and photocatalytic. The crystallographic structure of rutile consists of corner-shared TiO_6 octahedra in a tetragonal cell[10]. The structure of anatase consists of edge-shared TiO_6 octahedra in a tetragonal cell[11]. Rutile and anatase show very similar physical properties while slight differences exist. The physical property causes rutile TiO_2 nanoparticles absorb violet visible light while anatase absorb UV to show photo-induced catalytic effects[12].

2. Photoactivity of TiO₂ Nanoparticles.

Anatase possesses an energy band gap of 3.2eV with an absorption edge at 386 nm which lies in the near UV range. Rutile has a narrower energy band gap of 3.02eV with an absorption edge in the visible range at 416 nm[13]. Both forms are photocatalytic. When TiO₂ is exposed to an UV light with a wavelength of 280–400 nm (3.10–4.43eV), the UV light will be absorbed by TiO₂ and an electron is elevated from the valence band to the conduction band of TiO₂, leaving behind a hole in the valence band, as shown in Fig. 2, to form electron–hole pairs.

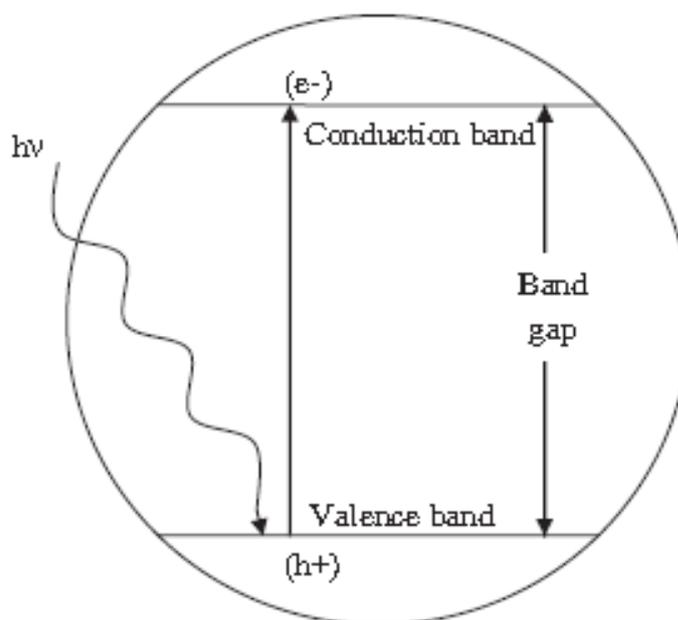


Figure 2: Illustration of photo-generation of charge carriers in a Photocatalytic TiO₂ nanoparticle.

This excited electrons and holes can either be used directly to create electricity in photovoltaic solar cells or drive a chemical reaction, which is called photocatalysis. In the photo-activated applications, reactive species are usually adsorbed on TiO₂ surfaces to enhance photo-induced performances[14].

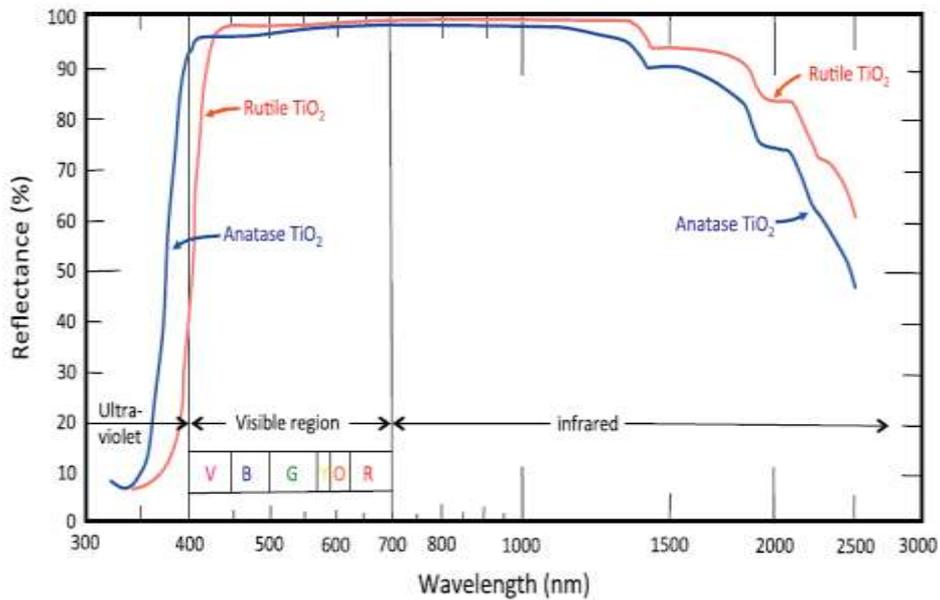


Figure 3: Reflectance of TiO₂[15].

3. Applications on Photocatalysts.

Among various photocatalysts, TiO₂ has the most efficient photo-activity, the high stability, guaranteed safety to humans and environment, and the lowest cost. Therefore TiO₂ photocatalysts are almost the only photocatalyst suitable for industrial applications at present and also probably in the future [16].

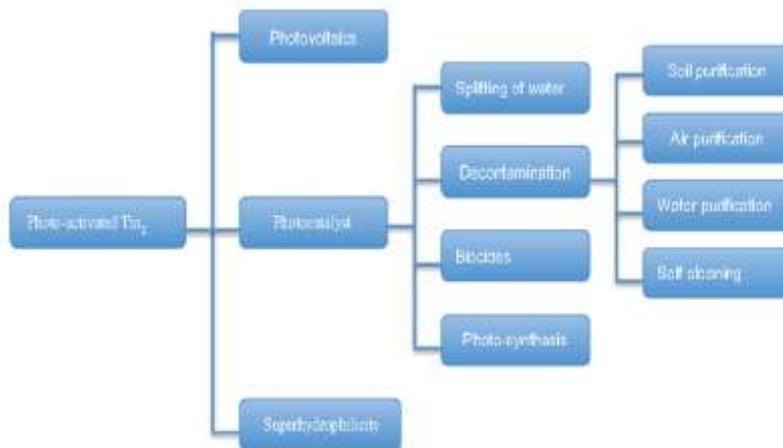


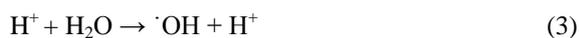
Figure 4: Applications of TiO₂ photocatalyst.

As shown in Eq. (1), under an UV irradiation, electrons in the valence band of TiO₂ will be activated to the conduction band, forming electrons (e⁻) with high activity. At the same time, holes (h⁺) will be created in the

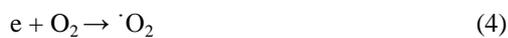
valence band. Therefore the formed electron-hole pairs are strong redox systems. The photo-produced holes h^+ on TiO_2 nanoparticle surfaces can oxidize OH^- and H_2O molecules absorbed on TiO_2 surfaces into hydroxyl radicals $\cdot OH$.



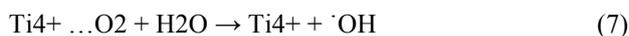
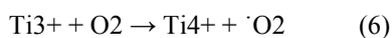
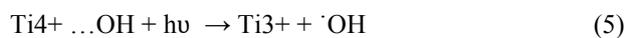
The holes can also facilitate oxidation through the presence of absorbed water on TiO_2 surfaces



At the same time, the electrons in the conduction band can facilitate reduction of electron acceptors through the presence of absorbed air on TiO_2 surfaces to form adsorbed radicals



These formed hydroxy and peroxy radicals are atomic species with a free unpaired electron, possessing strong ability to degrade organic pollutants and to split water. These photo-activities occur on Ti atom surfaces. In order to emphasize the location of the photo-activities, the chemical formation of the high-active radicals at Ti surfaces are also expressed as



On combining these equations,



These photo produced hydroxyl and peroxy radicals, expressed in Eqs. (2-8), in turn oxidize and degrade organic/ inorganic materials.

4. Self cleaning of Organic compounds.

The initial process of self-cleaning of organic compounds is the generation of electron-hole (e^-/h^+) pairs on the TiO_2 nanoparticle surfaces expressed in Eq. (1). The produced holes react with absorbed water to produce hydroxyl radicals $\cdot OH$. The produced hydroxyl radicals have enough oxidizing power to convert any organic compounds to CO_2 and water

[17].

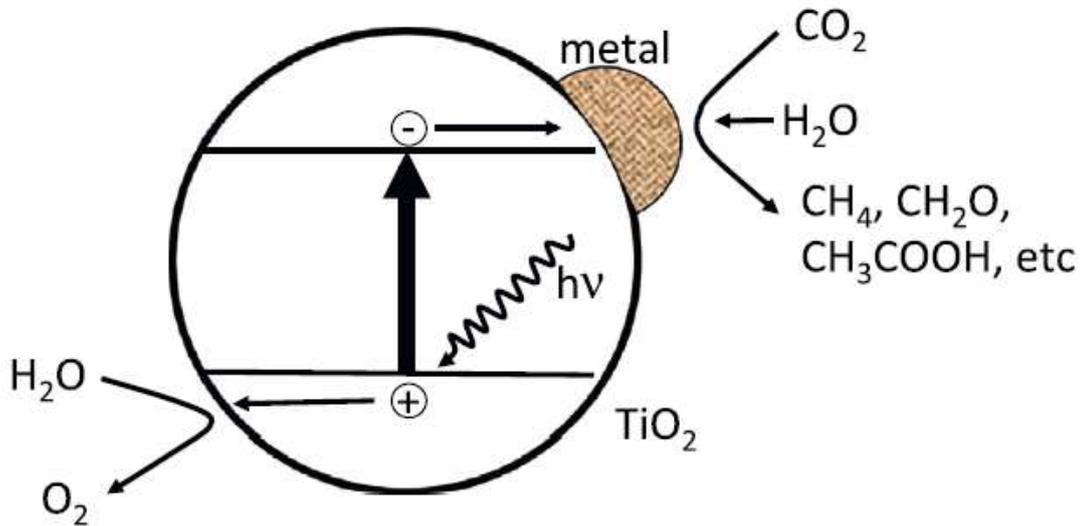


Figure 5: CO₂ photo-reduction on a TiO₂ nanocatalyst [13].

The photo-induced radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$ and $\cdot\text{O}_2$) expressed in Eq. (8) oxidize the organic compounds into CO₂ and H₂O. Thus it is practical, through TiO₂ coating, to maintain clean windows and windshields, remove finger marks off walls, reduce colony density of micro-organisms on hospital walls, oxidise oil films of water. The self-cleaning application and photocatalytic mechanism of TiO₂ self-cleaning have been reviewed [18].

5. Superhydrophilicity

UV illumination of TiO₂ may induce a patchwork of superhydrophilicity (i.e., photoinduced superhydrophilicity or PSH) across the surface that allows both water and oil to spread [18]. This PSH is accompanied by photocatalytic activity, as both phenomena have a common ground; so the surface contaminants will be either photomineralized or washed away by water. A possible application is self-cleaning windows [19].

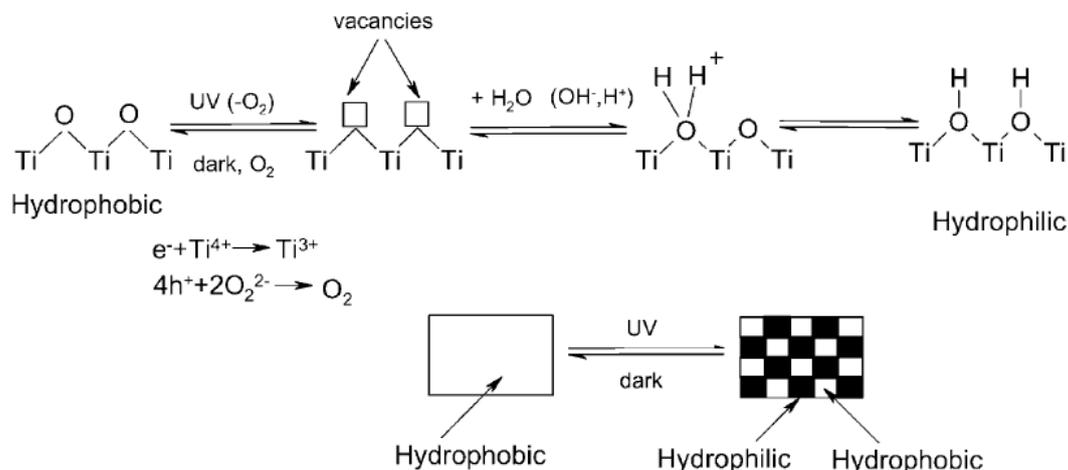


Figure 6: Mechanism of photoinduced superhydrophilicity of TiO₂[20].

PSH involves reduction of Ti(IV) cations to Ti(III) by electrons and simultaneous trapping of holes at lattice sites (usually bridging oxygen) or close to the surface of the semiconductor[21]. Such trapped holes weaken the bond between the associated titanium and lattice oxygen, allowing oxygen atoms to be liberated, thus creating oxygen vacancies[22]. The subsequent dissociative adsorption of water at the site renders it more hydroxylated. An increased amount of chemisorbed OH⁻ leads to an increase of van der Waals forces and hydrogen bonding interactions between H₂O and OH⁻. Water can easily spread across the surface and hydrophilic properties will be enhanced[23]. PSH was found to be of primary commercial importance due to the anti-fogging and self-cleaning properties of the deposits. The technology is now being increasingly used in commercial applications, particularly in Japan[24].

6. Future aspects of TiO₂ Photocatalysts

TiO₂ photocatalysts are stable and highly efficient. However TiO₂ catalysts can only be excited by UV light, which only occupies a small part of the solar spectrum. In order to improve the utilization of solar energy, TiO₂ catalysts should work under visible light in the future. Morphology of TiO₂ nanocrystals affects the photocatalytic activities of TiO₂ catalysts. It is reported that the crystallographic facets affect photocatalytic activities of TiO₂[25]. The electron and hole relaxation rate strongly depend on size of TiO₂ nanocrystals too[26], affecting the efficiency of TiO₂ nanocatalysts. TiO₂ nanocrystals with controlled morphology and controlled size are expected in the coming decades to increase the photocatalytic activities of TiO₂[27]. With the rapid developments of nano-engineering and nanotechniques, highly sufficient TiO₂ catalysts are expected to work under visible light in the 21st century.

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