

Formation of hydroxyl radicals and kinetic study of 2-chlorophenol photocatalytic oxidation using C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N Co-doped TiO₂ under visible light

Jirapat Ananpattarachai¹ · Supapan Seraphin² · Puangrat Kajitvichyanukul¹

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Abstract This work reports on synthesis, characterization, adsorption ability, formation rate of hydroxyl radicals (OH[•]), photocatalytic oxidation kinetics, and mineralization ability of C-doped titanium dioxide (TiO₂), N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ prepared by the sol–gel method. X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and UV–visible spectroscopy were used to analyze the titania. The rate of formation of OH[•] for each type of titania was determined, and the OH-index was calculated. The kinetics of as-synthesized TiO₂ catalysts in photocatalytic oxidation of 2-chlorophenol (2-CP) under visible light irradiation were evaluated. Results revealed that nitrogen was incorporated into the lattice of titania with the structure of O–Ti–N linkages in N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂. Carbon was joined to the Ti–O–C bond in the C-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂. The 2-CP adsorption ability of C,N co-doped TiO₂ and C-doped TiO₂ originated from a layer composed of a complex carbonaceous mixture at the surface of TiO₂. C,N co-doped TiO₂ had highest formation rate of OH[•] and photocatalytic activity due to a synergistic effect of carbon

and nitrogen co-doping. The order of photocatalytic activity per unit surface area was the same as that of the formation rate of OH[•] unit surface area in the following order: C,N co-doped TiO₂ > C-doped TiO₂ > N-doped TiO₂ > undoped TiO₂.

Keywords TiO₂ · Hydroxyl radical · Phenol · Visible light · Photocatalyst · Oxidation

Introduction

Nowadays, the application of photocatalysis as an advanced oxidation technology for the removal of organic contaminants has received much attention. One of the major factors governing the removal efficiency of this process is the physicochemical properties of catalysts (Zhao et al. 2008). Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is the most widely used photocatalyst due to its high activity, optical properties, chemical stability, and nontoxicity. The band gap energy of TiO₂ corresponds with UV light range ($\lambda < 380$ nm), and thus only a small portion of the solar spectrum is absorbed by TiO₂. Hence, many recent works have been focused on the development of TiO₂ photocatalyst that is capable of efficient utilization of the visible light, the main part of the solar spectrum. Most of the researchers focused on modifying the optical response in visible light range by decreasing of the energy gap of TiO₂. The most environmentally friendly and efficient approach for this modification is the non-metal-doped process with the utilization of N, F, S, and C as a dopant (Ananpattarachai et al. 2009; Pelaez et al. 2009; Han et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2012).

There are two approaches to obtain the band gap narrowing in N-doped TiO₂. The first method is the mixing of nitrogen 2p states with oxygen 2p states on the top of the valence band at the substitutional lattice (Di Valentin et al. 2007). The second method is the generating of inter-gap states induced by the

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✉ Puangrat Kajitvichyanukul
puangratk@nu.ac.th; kpuangrat@gmail.com

¹ Center of Excellence on Environmental Research and Innovation, Faculty of Engineering, Naresuan University, Phitsanulok 65000, Thailand

² Department of Materials Science and Engineering, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721, USA

formation of NO bond with the π character at interstitial lattice sites (Ananpattarachai et al. 2009). The visible light catalytic activity of S-doped TiO₂ requires the overlap of sulfur 3p states and oxygen 2p states (Tachikawa et al. 2004). Sulfur can substitute either the oxygen as an anion or the titanium as a cation (Yu et al. 2005). For C-doped TiO₂, carbon atoms prefer to be interstitial and substitutional to Ti atoms under oxygen-rich conditions, whereas they prefer to be substitutional to O under anoxic conditions (Di Valentin et al. 2005). Among all nonmetal-doped TiO₂ materials, N- and C-doped TiO₂ nanomaterials have been reported on their superior photocatalytic activity under visible light irradiation. Doping with N becomes an attractive approach due to its comparable atomic size with oxygen, small ionization energy, and good stability. On the other hand, C-doped TiO₂ exhibits the superb catalytic activity. Hence, doping of two kinds of atoms into TiO₂ has attracted considerable interest since it may result in a higher photocatalytic activity than those doped solely with carbon or nitrogen. Several works have been done in synthesizing this C,N co-doped TiO₂ by several methods such as a hydrothermal method (Pang and Abdullah 2013), microemulsion-hydrothermal process (Cong et al. 2006), and sol-gel method (Chen et al. 2007). Those works have reported the increase of photocatalytic activity of this co-doped material under visible light. However, the photocatalytic activity of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ is hardly comparable owing to the difference in preparation methods of these three materials, which contributes to the difference in their catalytic activities. To our knowledge, no report is available for the comparative study of the formation of hydroxyl radicals (OH[•]), photocatalytic activity, kinetics, and mineralization ability of three types of TiO₂ (C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂). This information is necessary for the selection of catalyst for the application of advanced oxidation technology.

In this work, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized by a modified sol-gel method. We hypothesized that such materials have increased photocatalytic performance under visible light. This enhancement is possibly due to the optical response arisen from the band gap narrowing as well as better electron-hole separation owing to the formation of heterojunctions. The characteristics of these three materials obtained via the same preparation methods were compared. X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and UV-vis spectroscopy were utilized to obtain intrinsic characteristics of all catalysts. The rate of formation of OH[•] was determined, and the OH-index was calculated. The kinetics of as-synthesized TiO₂ catalysts in photocatalytic oxidation of 2-chlorophenol under visible light irradiation were evaluated. 2-Chlorophenol was chosen to be the pollutant model in this work owing to its high toxicity towards humans and

aquatic life and its extensive use in many industrial activities. Mineralization ability of three catalysts was evaluated from total organic carbon (TOC) measurement of 2-chlorophenol during irradiation. The photocatalytic mechanisms in degradation of 2-chlorophenol using C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles were discussed.

Materials and methods

Materials

Titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTiP), 4-aminoantipyrine (C₁₁H₁₃N₃O), ammonium chloride (NH₄Cl), ammonium hydroxide (NH₄OH), and potassium ferricyanide (K₃Fe(CN)₆) were obtained from Aldrich Chemicals. Ethanol (EtOH), nitric acid (HNO₃), terephthalic acid, sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), and 2-chlorophenol (2-CP) were obtained from Merck Chemicals. Ethanolamine, diethanolamine, and triethanolamine were used as dopants. These chemicals were purchased from Acros Organics. All solutions were prepared using 18 M Ω deionized water (H₂O). All chemicals used in this work were of analytical grade which were used as received.

TiO₂ catalyst synthesis

A modified sol-gel method was used to synthesize undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂. Undoped TiO₂ nanoparticles were prepared by using the chemicals with a mole ratio of 1:20:1:1 for TTiP/EtOH/HNO₃/H₂O. The tetraisopropoxide (TTiP) was dissolved in EtOH as the first portion, and the solution was stirred for 30 min. Then, the second EtOH portion was mixed with the mixture solution of H₂O and HNO₃. After mixing both portion, precipitation has occurred. The homogeneous transparent solution was separated from the mixture and kept under stirring conditions for 30 min at 4 °C. After drying at 100 °C for 90 min, the xerogel powders were formed. These powders were calcined at 500 °C for 30 min in an electric tube furnace in air atmosphere.

For the doped TiO₂, a mole ratio of 1:20:1:1:1 for TTiP/EtOH/HNO₃/H₂O/dopant was used. A series of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N doped TiO₂ was prepared by changing the types of dopant and the calcination conditions. Ethanolamine was used as a dopant for C-doped TiO₂, and the obtained xerogel powders were calcined at 500 °C in air atmosphere. Diethanolamine and triethanolamine were used as dopants for N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂, consequently. In all types of TiO₂ catalyst synthesis, 1 M of dopant was used in each condition. The obtained xerogel powders were calcined at 800 °C in a N₂ atmosphere.

TiO₂ catalyst characterization

All synthesized TiO₂ samples were analyzed by SEM, TEM, XRD, XPS, and UV–vis spectroscopy to obtain intrinsic characteristics. The SEM (a field emission Hitachi S-4500) was operated at 15 kV to examine the morphology all types of TiO₂. The TEM (Hitachi H-8100) were operated at 200 kV to obtain the size, shape, and crystallinity of the TiO₂ nanoparticles. The XRD (Philips X-ray diffractometer) was operated using Cu K α radiation and a step size of 0.02° in the range of 2 θ –70°. The step time was 1 sec to obtain a good signal-to-noise ratio in the mean reflections of the two main TiO₂ crystalline phases, (1 0 1) anatase (2 θ –25.281°) and (1 1 0) rutile (2 θ –27.495°). The Scherrer equation was used to obtain the average crystallite size of the anatase according to the using the full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) of the (1 0 1) or (1 1 0) peak.

The UV–vis spectroscopy (PerkinElmer UV/Vis Lambda 35 spectrophotometer) with integrating sphere (Lambda 35 (P/N C6951014)) was employed to get the optical absorption spectra of the TiO₂ samples. The Kubelka–Munk theory was used to convert the diffuse reflectance spectra to the absorbance units. The XPS (Kratos 165 Ultra photoelectron spectrometer) was operated with either an Al K α or Mg K α monochromatic source to obtain the spectra. The Brunauer, Emmett, and Teller (BET) surface areas were measured by nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms at 77 K with a Quantachrome AUTOSORB-1.

Determination of hydroxyl radicals (OH \cdot)

The Hitachi F-4500 fluorescence spectrophotometer was used to determine the formation of OH \cdot generated on the photocatalysts' surface under visible light irradiation. The determination procedure was followed the previous published work (Xiao and Ouyang 2009; Wu et al. 2010). In a first solution, a diluted NaOH aqueous solution with a concentration of 2×10^{-3} M was prepared. A second solution with 0.10 g of photocatalyst in 30 mL of terephthalic acid solution with a concentration of 0.83 g/L or 5×10^{-4} M was poured to the first portion and mixed. A 150-W halogen lamp (Sylvania) was used as a visible light source. The intensity of the incident light inside the photoreactor was measured as 0.75×10^{-5} Einstein s $^{-1}$ by uranyl actinometer method (Heidt et al. 1979). The solution containing 1 M sodium nitrite was employed as a UV filter to eliminate light <420 nm. The irradiated solution was filtrated through 0.45- μ m membrane filter and analyzed by fluorescence spectrophotometer for the measurement of 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid. This acid can be detected at the wavelength of about 425 nm. The fluorescence intensity was recorded to determine the formation rate of OH \cdot .

Photochemical reaction

The batch photoreactor was cylindrical shape with a volume of 1.1 L made from quartz glass (ACE Glass Co. 7841-06; Vineland, NJ). A 150-W halogen lamp (Sylvania) was used as a visible light source. A solution containing 1 M sodium nitrite was used as a UV filter to eliminate light <420 nm (Kamat 1993; Cheng et al. 2004). The 2-CP solution was photocatalytic treated in batch operation mode in an oxygen atmosphere. The solution pH value was kept at 7.0 by adding concentrated sulfuric acid to the 2-CP solution. The temperature maintained at 25 ± 2 °C throughout the experiment. After reaching equilibrium in the dark for 30 min, the light was turned on to start photocatalytic reaction. The solution was fully stirred with a magnetic stirrer to ensure sufficient mixing. Aliquots from photocatalytic reactor were withdrawn during time interval and filtered through a membrane filter (0.1 μ m).

The aliquots were subsequently reacted with 4-aminoantipyrine in the presence of potassium ferricyanide at pH 7.9 ± 0.1 to form a colored antipyrine dye. The absorbance of this dye was measured at 510 nm by a UV–vis spectrometer (Lambda 35 PerkinElmer). The reaction was performed for 50 min unless otherwise specified. For mineralization determination, the values of initial and treated total organic carbon were analyzed by TOC analyzer (a Shimadzu 700 TOC ANALYZER 0-1 Analytical) after filtration.

Results and discussion

X-ray diffraction

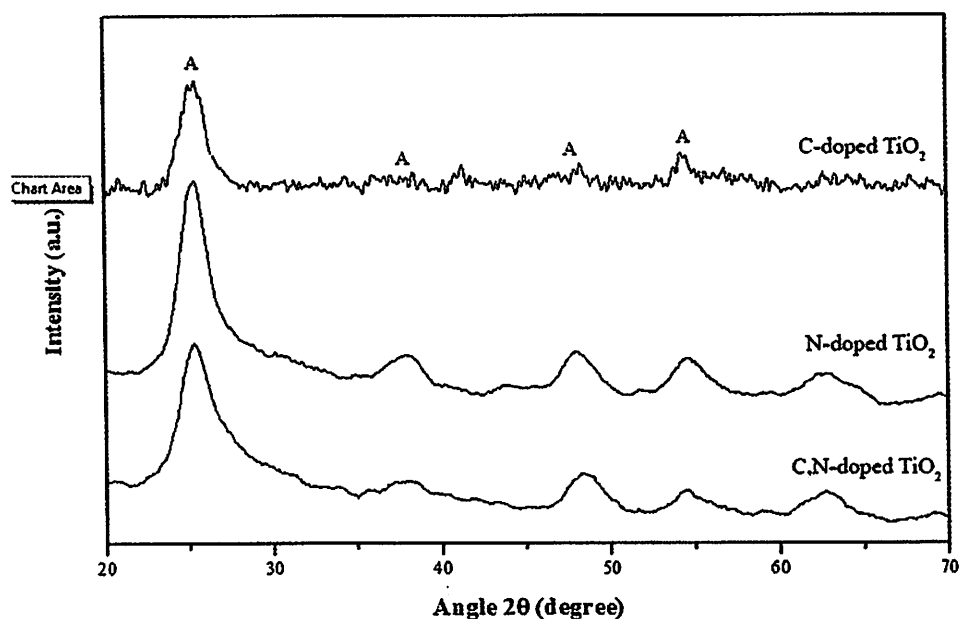
Phase composition and crystallite size of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ were analyzed by X-ray diffraction. Figure 1 shows that the anatase phase was the predominant structure in all synthesized TiO₂ nanoparticles. A major peak corresponding to (1 0 1) reflections of the anatase phase of TiO₂ was apparent at the angle of 25.28°, while the minor peaks appeared at 37.80°, 48.05°, 53.89°, and 55.06°. There is no rutile detected in all TiO₂ samples. The average particle size was estimated by applying the Scherrer formula on the anatase (1 0 1) peak (the highest intensity peak):

$$L = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos\theta} \quad (1)$$

where L is the crystallite size, K is a constant (usually 0.89), λ is the wavelength of the X-ray radiation (0.15418 nm for Cu K α), β is the line width at the half-maximum height, and θ is the corresponding diffraction angle in degrees.

Estimated crystal sizes and surface areas from BET analysis of undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N

Fig. 1 XRD spectra showing crystal structures of C-, N-, and C,N doped TiO₂



co-doped TiO₂ samples are listed in Table 1. Anatase crystal sizes of three types of TiO₂ were in the range of 5.83–6.87 nm with the surface area in the range of 9.15–12.01 m²/g. C,N co-doped TiO₂ had the smallest crystal size of the anatase and the highest surface area. However, the corresponding surface area of each titania catalyst was not significantly different.

Morphologies from SEM and TEM

Morphologies of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ revealed by SEM micrographs are shown in Fig. 2. All samples appeared as agglomerations of small particles. The TiO₂ nanopowders in all cases presented aggregates consisting of smaller particles (50–100 nm for N-doped TiO₂) to larger particles (about 300–500 nm for C-doped TiO₂) with a high tendency to crystallization. Fine particles with a very homogeneous size distribution can be seen in both N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂.

TEM images (Fig. 3) of all three catalysts demonstrated all anatase phase with a uniform dimension with an average crystal size of about 5–8 nm, and no rutile phase was detected. The crystallite sizes observed in the TEM micrographs were consistent with those obtained from the estimation of peak broadening of XRD spectra.

UV–vis spectroscopy and bandgap

The UV–vis spectra of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C,N co-doped TiO₂, and undoped TiO₂ were shown in Fig. 4. This figure illustrates the response of all synthesized TiO₂ nanopowders to visible light (400–800 nm). Undoped TiO₂ has a higher absorption in UV region (200–300 nm) than the

other TiO₂ but no significant absorption in the visible light region. C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ had high absorption in the visible region but relatively low absorption in UV region compared to undoped TiO₂. This result indicates that the investigated dopants effectively extended absorption of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ into the visible light range. This information suggests that visible light absorption ability is mainly dependent on the type of dopant and calcination condition leading to different types of doped TiO₂. Among all types of investigated TiO₂, C,N co-doped TiO₂ provided the highest visible light absorption ability.

The bandgap energy of all synthesized TiO₂ nanopowders can be estimated from plots of the square root of Kubelka–Munk functions $F(R)$ versus photon energy (Asahi et al. 2001). The relation of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ and $(h\nu)$ was plotted. The bandgap of TiO₂ can be determined from the following equation:

$$ah\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^r \quad (2)$$

where A is a constant, $h\nu$ is the photon energy, E_g is the optical energy gap of the material, and r is characteristic of the optical transition process, which is equal to 2.0 for an indirect allowed

Table 1 Crystal size and surface area of undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂

TiO ₂	Crystal size (nm)	Surface area (m ² /g)
Undoped TiO ₂	5.83	12.01
C-doped TiO ₂	6.83	9.84
N-doped TiO ₂	5.86	11.84
C,N-co-doped TiO ₂	6.87	9.15

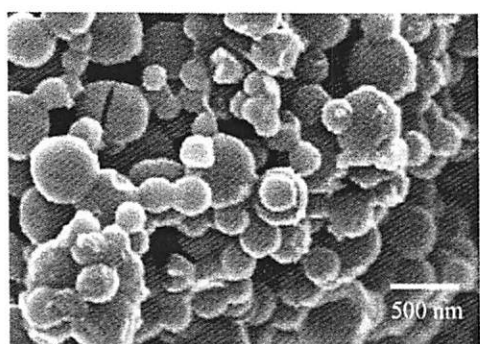
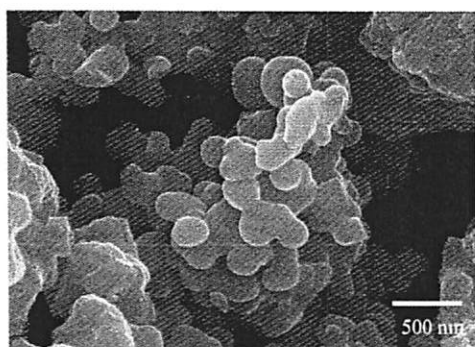
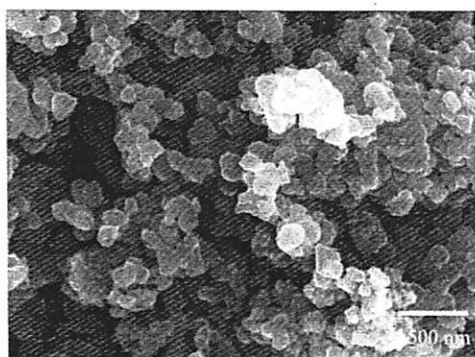

 a) C-doped TiO₂

 b) N-doped TiO₂

 c) C,N-doped TiO₂

Fig. 2 SEM micrographs of a C-doped TiO₂, b N-doped TiO₂, and c C,N doped TiO₂

optical transition of an amorphous semiconductor. Bandgap energies of the investigated TiO₂ nanopowders are summarized in Table 2. Determinations of bandgap for undoped TiO₂ and N-doped TiO₂ are shown in Supplementary Information.

Results show that the bandgap changed from 3.20 eV (undoped TiO₂) to 2.95, 2.85, and 2.80 for C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂, respectively. The value of this bandgap was narrower than the original value. This information reflects the doping effect of carbon and/or nitrogen on the band edges of the TiO₂ and the contribution of carbon and/or nitrogen to the redshift of the bandgap. This narrower bandgap will facilitate excitation of electrons from the valence

band to the conduction band in the doped TiO₂ under visible light illumination, which can result in higher photocatalytic activities. The visible light absorption ability of all investigated TiO₂ can be arrayed in the order of C,N co-doped TiO₂ > N-doped TiO₂ > C-doped TiO₂ > undoped TiO₂.

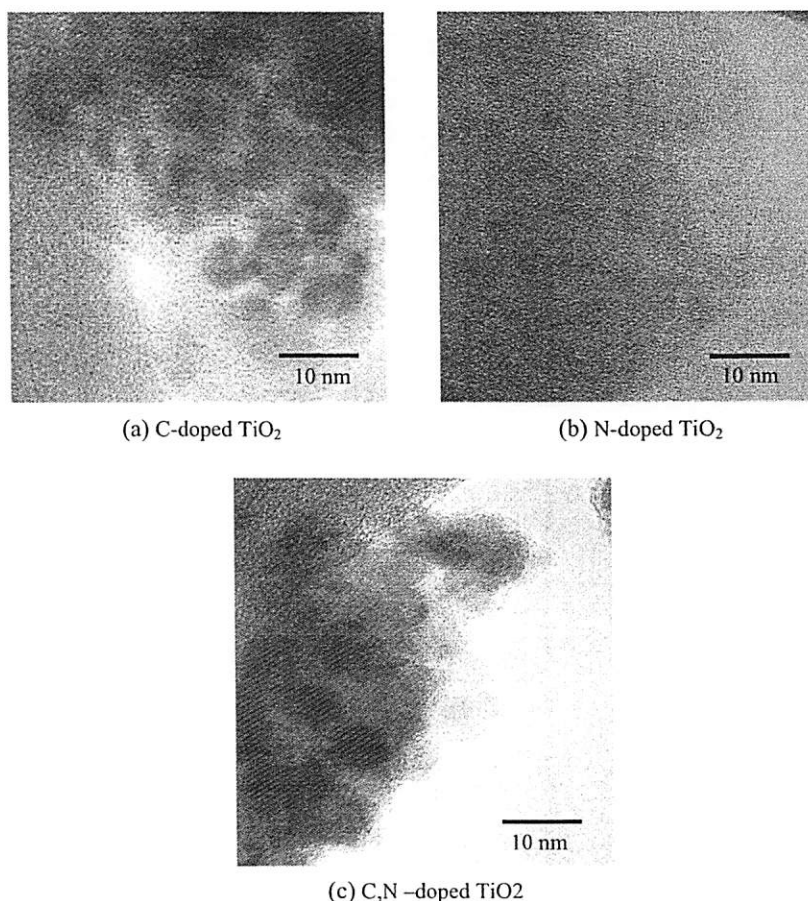
XPS

The high-resolution XPS spectra of N 1s, C 1s, Ti 2p, and O 1s, taken on the surface of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ samples are shown in Fig. 5. The atomic compositions of C, O, Ti, and N elements in each type of TiO₂ were determined as shown in Table 3.

The observed N 1s spectra were detected in N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂, which were in the range of previously reported of nitrogen doping in oxide molecule (Peiró et al. 2001; Sakthivel et al. 2004; Ananpattarachai et al. 2009; Pang and Abdullah 2013). The N 1s spectrum was detected at 406.1 eV for N-doped TiO₂ and 400.8 and 402.5 eV for C,N co-doped TiO₂ samples. The binding energies of N 1s spectrum detected in this work were higher than that of the typical binding energy at ≤ 397.5 eV in Ti-N (Peiró et al. 2001; Sakthivel et al. 2004; Ananpattarachai et al. 2009; Pang and Abdullah 2013). These observed peaks in the range of 398.5–402.5 eV may attribute to the NO species. The main peak at 402.5 eV of C,N co-doped TiO₂ were attributed to NO, indicating the higher concentration of NO in as prepared nitrogen-doped TiO₂ as described in previous work (Peiró et al. 2001). The strong signal at 406.1 eV was reported previously by Sakthivel et al. (2004), and it was assigned to the presence of nitrite specie (NO₂⁻). This N 1s peak may ascribe to electron binding energy of a lower valence state of nitrogen in the environment of O-Ti-N. In addition, the peak localized at 400.8 eV was ascribed to the anionic N⁻ in O-Ti³⁺-N linkages in the TiO₂ (Pang and Abdullah 2013). Results from this work suggest that both N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂ from investigated nitrogen precursors are interstitial type with different bonding of N and O in the molecular structure of N-doped TiO₂.

The peaks of C 1s at 284.5 eV were detected in all TiO₂ samples. However, the C 1s spectrum XPS peaks at 286.5 and 288.6 eV were found in both C-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂, whereas no appearance of these two peaks was detected in N-doped TiO₂. It was reported previously that the smaller component at a binding energy of 284.5 eV may attribute to C 1s electrons from the carbon tape (Xiao and Ouyang 2009). The C 1s peak at 286.5 and 288.6 eV was reported as two types of carbonate species, C–O and C=O, respectively (Papirer et al. 1995). Ohno et al. (2004) observed the carbonate species with binding energies of 288.0 eV in their C-doped TiO₂ samples, and they thought that C⁴⁺ ions were incorporated into the bulk phase of TiO₂. Ren et al. (2007) also observed that the carbonate species with binding energies of

Fig. 3 TEM micrographs of **a** C-doped TiO₂, **b** N-doped TiO₂, and **c** C,N doped TiO₂



288.6 eV and proposed that carbon may substitute for some of the lattice titanium atoms and form a Ti–O–C structure. Chen et al. (2007) revealed that the doped carbon can form a layer on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles with the compound mixture of carbon and carbonate species. This carbonaceous material can increase the absorption ability of TiO₂ for visible light, in the same way, with organic dyes as the photosensitizer during irradiation.

Through deconvolution based on the profile of O 1s, three peaks were found at 529.6 of C-doped TiO₂ and at 531.3 and 532.4 eV for both N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂. The first peak found in C-doped TiO₂ can be assigned to the lattice oxygen in Ti–O bond of TiO₂ (Shao et al. 2008). As described by Sun et al. (2008), the peak at 531.3 eV found in both N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂ may arise from OH[•] radical. The last peak at 532.4 or 534 eV found in both N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂ may be contributed to the oxygen of NO_x.

The peaks for Ti 2p_{3/2} and Ti 2p_{1/2} were located at 458.6 and 464.4 eV for all three types of TiO₂. These binding energies were characteristic of Ti⁴⁺. For Degussa P25 (referenced titania), the peaks for Ti 2p_{3/2} and Ti 2p_{1/2} appeared at 458.9 and 464.7 eV. These peaks were contributed by the linkage of

O–Ti–O in TiO₂ (Chen and Burda 2004). Compared with the binding energy of Degussa P25, the binding energy of Ti 2p of synthesized titania samples decreased after anion doping. Results from this work are in a good agreement with Shao et al. (2008), and it can be explained that the decreasing of binding energy of Ti 2p is the result from the different electronic interactions of Ti with anions (carbon or nitrogen).

Adsorption ability and isotherm of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂

Adsorption ability and the adsorption isotherm of three catalysts have been extensively investigated to describe the equilibrium established between adsorbed 2-CP on the TiO₂ as an adsorbent (q_e) and 2-CP remaining in solution (C_e). Preliminary adsorption experiments revealed that, in the absence of TiO₂, there was no noticeable change in 2-CP concentration during 30-min experimental period. The 2-CP adsorption ability of all synthesized TiO₂ was evaluated. The highest concentrations of adsorbed 2-CP on different types of TiO₂ surface were determined. Figure 6 shows that the C, N doped TiO₂ provided the highest adsorption of 2-CP on the surface of titania, whereas undoped TiO₂ provided the lowest

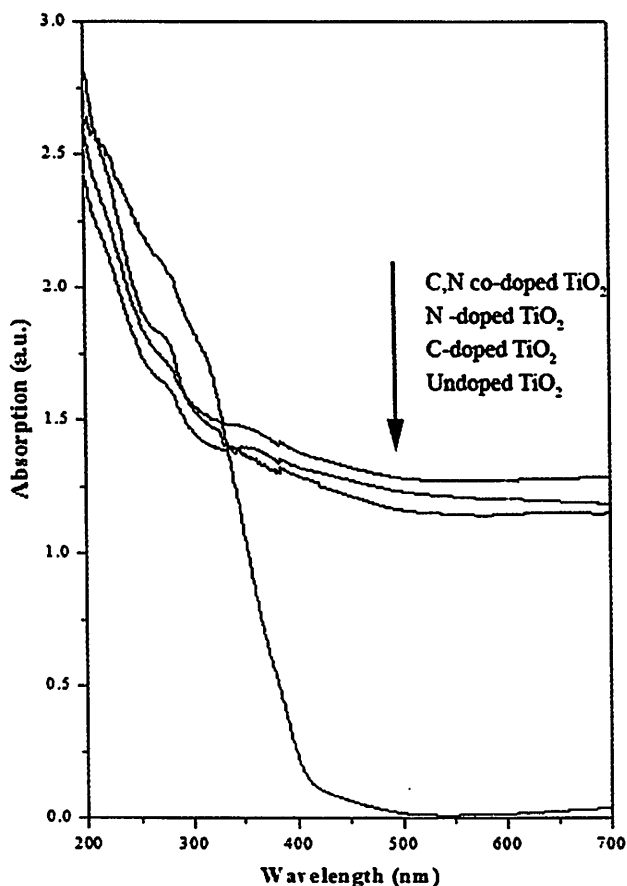


Fig. 4 UV-vis absorption spectra of undoped TiO₂ and C-, N-, and C,N doped TiO₂

adsorption ability. The 2-CP adsorption ability of all investigated TiO₂ can be arrayed in the following order: C,N co-doped TiO₂ > C-doped TiO₂ > N-doped TiO₂ > undoped TiO₂.

Adsorption isotherm of four catalysts, undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂, was conducted using Langmuir and Freundlich models. The Langmuir model assumes a monolayer sorption on a surface and is represented by the following equation:

$$q_c = \frac{q_{max} b C_c}{1 + b C_c} \tag{3}$$

where q_{max} is the maximum quantity of 2-CP per unit weight of adsorbent to form a complete monolayer on the surface, C_c

Table 2 Bandgap energy of undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂

TiO ₂	Bandgap (eV)
Undoped TiO ₂	3.20
C-doped TiO ₂	2.95
N-doped TiO ₂	2.85
C,N doped TiO ₂	2.80

is the equilibrium concentration, q_c is the amount of 2-CP adsorbed at equilibrium, and b is the Langmuir constant related to the energy of 2-CP adsorption.

The Freundlich isotherm assumes that the uptake of metal ions occurs on a heterogeneous surface by a multilayer adsorption:

$$q_c = K_f C_c^{(1/n)} \tag{4}$$

where K_f and n are the Freundlich constants related to adsorption capacity and intensity, while C_c and q_c are equilibrium concentrations of adsorbate and the amount adsorbed at equilibrium, respectively.

According to the coefficient correlation (R^2) obtained, Langmuir isotherm of all investigated catalysts had a better fitting model than the Freundlich isotherms because of the higher coefficient correlation. The calculated Langmuir constants for undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ are summarized in Table 4. The maximum of 2-CP adsorption capacity (q_{max}) on the C,N co-doped TiO₂ (13.889 ± 0.8 mg/g) and C-doped TiO₂ (13.193 ± 0.5 mg/g) was obviously higher than that of N-doped TiO₂ (9.479 ± 0.8 mg/g) and undoped TiO₂ (5.394 ± 0.4 mg/g). In addition, the b values related to the energy of adsorption for undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ were 0.095, 0.102, 0.136, and 0.217 L/mg, respectively. It implied that C,N co-doped TiO₂ nanopowders had the highest affinity to adsorb 2-CP among all four catalysts. This finding ascribed that carbonaceous species formed as a layer at the surface of C,N co-doped TiO₂ and C-doped TiO₂ (discussed earlier in XPS analysis) could adsorb more 2-CP than N-doped TiO₂ and undoped TiO₂. This result is in a good agreement with Chen et al. (2007). Moreover, a smallest nanosize of C,N co-doped TiO₂ can provide the highest surface area supporting the highest adsorption ability of 2-CP among all investigated catalysts.

Formation of hydroxyl radicals (OH[•]) by C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂

Fluorescence technique with terephthalic acid was used to determine the formation of OH[•] on the surface of TiO₂ under visible light irradiation. From previous work (Ishibashi et al. 2000; Tryba et al. 2006; Xiao and Ouyang 2009), this terephthalic acid was readily reacted with OH[•] to produce highly fluorescent product, 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid. At low concentration of terephthalic acid (less than 10^{-3} M, room temperature), the hydroxylation reaction of terephthalic acid proceeded mainly by OH[•]. The photogenerated O₂^{-•}, HO₂[•], and H₂O₂ did not interfere with the reaction between OH[•] and terephthalic acid. Hence, the fluorescence intensity attributed to 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid was known to be proportional to the amount of OH[•] formed during irradiation

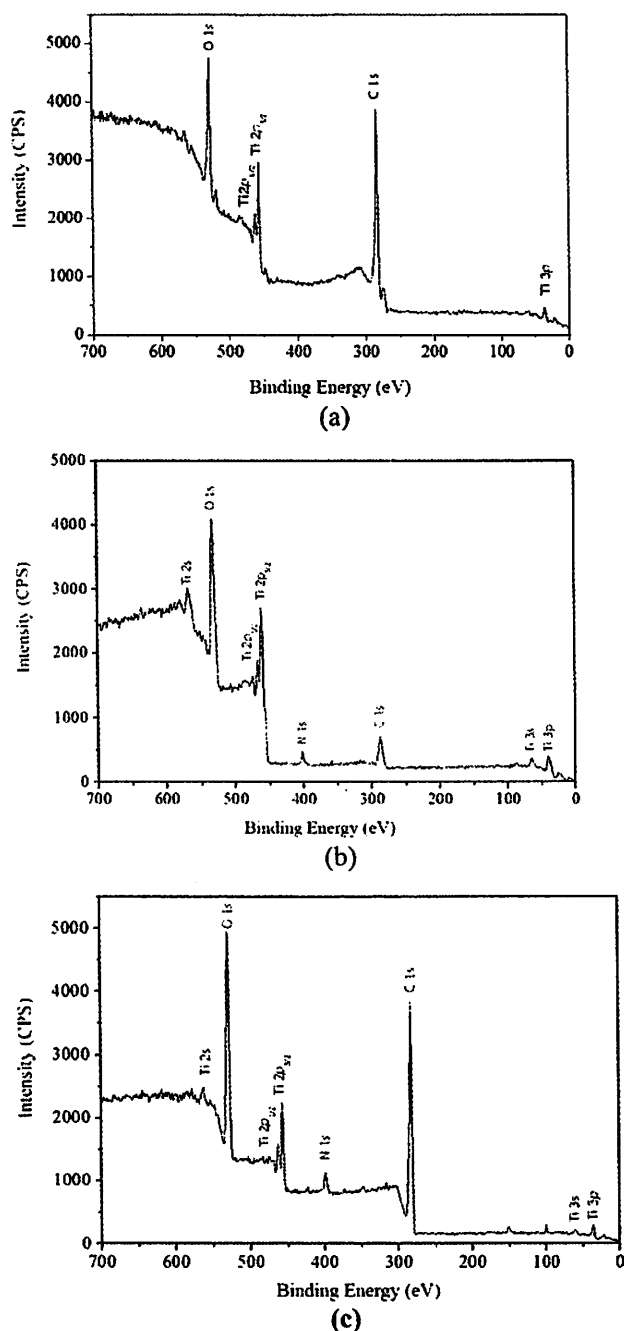


Fig. 5 XPS spectra of a C-doped TiO₂, b N-doped TiO₂, and c C,N doped TiO₂

(Ishibashi et al. 2000; Tryba et al. 2006; Xiao and Ouyang 2009). In addition, the 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid was the only product with any significant fluorescence. In this work, the formation of OH[•] by C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C, N co-doped TiO₂ was determined by following Xiao and Ouyang's work (Xiao and Ouyang 2009).

Figure 7 showed the plots of the r_{OH} per unit surface area using fluorescence spectrophotometer with time for undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N

Table 3 The atomic compositions of C, N, Ti, and O elements in undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ from XPS analysis

TiO ₂	%C content	%N content	%Ti content	%O content
Undoped TiO ₂	29.35	0.00	18.21	52.44
C-doped TiO ₂	73.93	0.04	7.22	18.81
N-doped TiO ₂	26.19	4.11	18.39	51.31
C,N-doped TiO ₂	70.63	3.72	2.95	22.70

co-doped TiO₂. The rate of OH[•] formation or r_{OH} was also calculated from this graph. Results show that OH[•] formed at the interface of TiO₂ in all cases were in proportional to the light illumination time obeying zero-order reaction rate kinetics. The formation rate of OH[•] could be expressed by the slope of these lines, and the value of formation rate of OH[•] (r_{OH}) per units surface area were calculated as shown in Table 5. Recently, Bubacz et al. (2013) introduced a new concept, the "OH-index," to compare the formation rate of OH[•] on different photocatalysts. The new parameter referred formation rates of OH[•] on the irradiated semiconductor (r_{OH}) to the reference material (r_o). The OH-index was expressed as:

$$OH\text{-index} = \left(r / r_o \right) \times 100 \quad (5)$$

In general, the larger OH-index, the higher photocatalytic activity was observed. Degussa P25 has been used as a material for UV irradiation in Bubacz et al. (2013). Hence, in this work, we also used Degussa P25 as a reference material irradiated under visible light. The OH-index for all investigated catalysts is shown in Table 5.

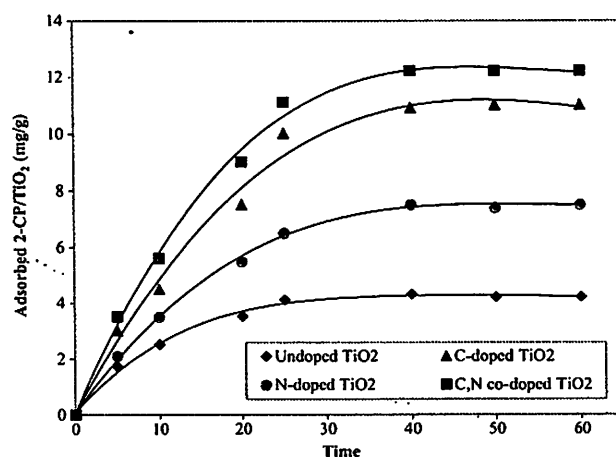


Fig. 6 Adsorption of 2-chlorophenol on the surface of undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂. Experimental conditions: C_{2-CP}=50 mg/l, TiO₂=1 g/l

Table 4 Langmuir isotherm and constants of undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ in 2-CP adsorption process

TiO ₂	q_{\max} (mg/g)	b (L/mg)	Langmuir equation	R^2
Undoped TiO ₂	5.394±0.4	0.095	$q_c=(0.5108C_e)/(1+0.0947C_e)$	0.9616
N-doped TiO ₂	9.479±0.5	0.102	$q_c=(0.9631C_e)/(1+0.1016C_e)$	0.9908
C-doped TiO ₂	13.193±0.8	0.136	$q_c=(1.7945C_e)/(1+0.136C_e)$	0.9611
C,N-doped TiO ₂	13.889±0.8	0.217	$q_c=(3.008C_e)/(1+0.2166C_e)$	0.9847

Results indicate that, during 60-min visible light irradiation on terephthalic acid, C,N co-doped TiO₂ provided the highest value of r_{OH} per unit surface area, whereas Degussa P25 provided the lowest value of r_{OH} per unit surface area. The values of ν units surface area of all doped TiO₂ (C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂) were in the range of 14.499–18.130 min⁻¹ m⁻² which were in the same range previously reported for C-doped TiO₂ (Xiao and Ouyang 2009). Both undoped TiO₂ and Degussa P25 exhibited very poor visible light activity r_{OH} due to the bandgap energy of both catalysts was approximately 3 eV. After C and N atoms had been doped into the TiO₂ photocatalysts, the visible light photocatalytic activities of the synthesized samples increased greatly as seen from Fig. 4. The highest formation rate of OH[•] for C,N co-doped TiO₂ (ν per unit surface area = 18.130 min⁻¹ m⁻²) was five times faster than that of undoped TiO₂ (r_{OH} per unit surface area = 3.453 min⁻¹ m⁻²). However, the corresponding formation rate of OH[•] for C,N co-doped TiO₂ was slightly higher than that for C-doped TiO₂ (r_{OH} per unit surface area = 17.513 min⁻¹ m⁻²) and N-doped TiO₂ (r_{OH} per unit surface area = 14.499 min⁻¹ m⁻²). All doping TiO₂ nanopowders also provided a relatively high value of OH-index than undoped TiO₂ and Degussa P25. The non-metal doping may generate an intermediate energy level above

the valence band of TiO₂, thereby narrowing the bandgap to induce visible light absorption (Dong et al. 2008). These results demonstrate that all doping TiO₂ nanopowders (C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂) could be effective visible light-driven and higher activity photocatalysts.

Visible light irradiation and kinetics of photocatalytic oxidation of 2-chlorophenol

Photocatalytic oxidation of 2-CP by visible light was investigated to obtain photocatalytic activity and kinetic of C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂. The photocatalytic behavior of undoped TiO₂ was also measured as a control. Notably, 2-CP was confirmed to be reasonably photostable in aqueous solution under irradiation by light in the 315–400-nm wavelength range. This chemical undergoes photolysis when irradiated at 254 nm (Ragaini et al. 2001; Bertelli and Selli 2006). In addition, our results in previous work (Ananpattarachai et al. 2009) showed that the 2-CP degradation through direct photolysis in the visible light range was negligible (<4 %). Hence, the 2-CP degradation after treating with all investigated TiO₂ was likely due to the photocatalysis of the applied TiO₂. The photocatalytic reactivity of TiO₂ was represented by the ratio of residual concentration to the initial concentration of 2-CP, C/C_0 , as a function of irradiation time in Fig. 8a.

After 90 min irradiation, C,N co-doped TiO₂ has the highest photocatalytic activity under visible light compared with other types of TiO₂. Under the same reaction condition, the photodegradation efficiency of undoped TiO₂ nanoparticles was about 24 %. C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ all have higher photocatalytic activity than undoped TiO₂. The high performance of the doped TiO₂ tends to be the results of the defects created by the dopants which increased the trapped electrons on the surface of the catalyst. With higher amount of the trapped electrons on the surface of TiO₂, the recombination of the electron-hole pairs is also prevented (Zhang et al. 2014; Shao et al. 2015). These defects also introduced the localized donor energy level under the conduction band, further narrowing the bandgap of the TiO₂ as shown in Table 2.

The photocatalytic activity of C-doped TiO₂ is also greater than that of N-doped TiO₂. The highest photocatalytic activity of the C,N co-doped TiO₂ might have been

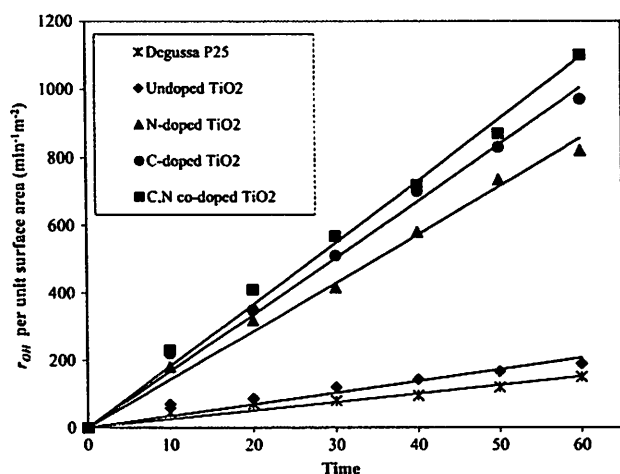


Fig. 7 Plots of the r_{OH} per unit surface area against irradiation time for terephthalic acid (TPA) on Degussa P25, undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂. Experimental conditions: C_{TPA} = 0.83 g/l, TiO₂ = 3.3 g/l

Table 5 Formation rate of OH[•] (r_{OH}) per unit surface area and OH-index of Degussa P25, undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂

TiO ₂	r_{OH} (min ⁻¹)	r_{OH} per unit surface area (min ⁻¹ m ²)	r_{OH}/r_0	OH-index
Degussa P25	2.533	0.461	1.000	100
Undoped TiO ₂	3.456	3.453	7.497	625
N-doped TiO ₂	14.267	14.499	31.482	3,148
C-doped TiO ₂	16.725	17.513	38.027	3,803
C,N-co-doped TiO ₂	18.221	18.130	39.367	3,936

due to the existence of a synergistic effect of carbon and nitrogen co-doping. Nitrogen can initiate the intense absorption in the visible light range (Fig. 4) and a redshift in the bandgap transition (Table 2). Hence, more photogenerated electrons and holes participated in the photocatalytic reactions under visible light, and more radicals were produced by the photocatalytic oxidation. Carbon doping introduced a complex mixture of active carbon and carbonate species at the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles (Sakthivel et al. 2004; Chen et al. 2007). In our photocatalytic process, 2-CP should be pre-concentrated

and adsorbed on the surface of the TiO₂ nanoparticles led to a higher efficiency in 2-CP degradation during irradiation. Thus, C,N co-doped TiO₂ and C-doped TiO₂ could adsorb 2-CP molecules in a larger amount than N-doped TiO₂ and undoped TiO₂. Besides, the carbonaceous materials formed by doped C atoms act a role of photosensitizer like organic dyes (Chen et al. 2007). These carbons could be excited and injected electrons into the conduction band of TiO₂ resulted in a higher efficiency of C, N co-doped TiO₂ and C-doped TiO₂ than that of N-doped TiO₂.

From kinetic studies on photocatalytic reactions of all types of TiO₂, the reaction can be well explained by a pseudo-first-order pattern, with the following equation demonstrating the relationship of C and t :

$$\ln\left(\frac{[C]}{[C]_0}\right) = -k_{obs}t \quad (6)$$

where k_{obs} is the apparent reaction rate constant, t the reaction time, C_0 the initial concentration of 2-CP in aqueous solution, and C the residual concentration of 2-CP at time t . The value of k_{obs} was determined from the slope of the graph plotted between $-\ln(C/C_0)$ and the reaction time (Fig. 8b). The R^2 value for linear regression was calculated to exhibit the tendency of the reaction, which followed the pseudo-first-order pattern. Values of the initial rate, r , kinetic constant, k_{obs} , and the half-life of 2-CP, $t_{1/2}$, calculated from the pseudo-first-order equations are shown in Table 6.

Results show that within 50 min of visible light irradiation in the presence of the doped TiO₂ catalysts, the degradation rate of 2-CP was 0.2696, 0.9944, 1.2978, and 1.7155 mg/L-min for undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂, respectively. This pattern suggests that the reaction rate can be enhanced by nitrogen and/or carbon incorporation into the TiO₂ matrix. The reaction rate enhancement of the C,N co-doped TiO₂ was sixfold higher than that of the undoped TiO₂. The rate constant of the undoped TiO₂ reaction was only $0.35 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$, whereas the rate constant of the C,N co-doped TiO₂ was $2.55 \times 10^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$. This increase may have been attributable to the synergistic effect of carbon and nitrogen doping as discussed previously.

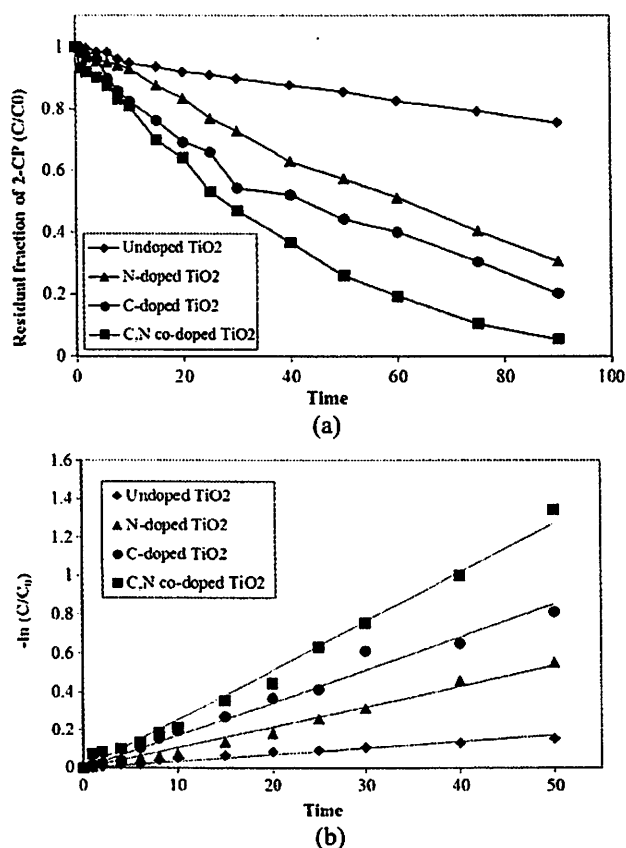


Fig. 8 Photocatalytic oxidation of 2-chlorophenol using different types of TiO₂. a The residual fraction plot and b the $-\ln(C/C_0)$ versus reaction time and b 2-chlorophenol degradation versus reaction time. Experimental conditions: C_{2-CP} = 10–120 mg/l, TiO₂ = 1 g/l, pH 7

Table 6 Values of kinetic parameters included initial rate, r , kinetic constant, k_{obs} , and half-lives of 2-chlorophenol, $t_{1/2}$, from the photocatalytic reactions of undoped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂

TiO ₂	r (mg/L min)	k (min ⁻¹)	$t_{1/2}$ (min)	%Removal
Undoped TiO ₂	0.2696	0.0035	198.0421	24.53
N-doped TiO ₂	0.9944	0.0107	64.78011	69.36
C-doped TiO ₂	1.2978	0.0171	40.53492	79.74
C,N doped TiO ₂	1.7155	0.0255	27.18224	94.39

Mineralization of 2-chlorophenol using C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ under visible light

The degradation percentage of 2-CP in terms of mineralization of TOC in the presence of undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ was also investigated. The initial concentration of 2-CP was 100 mg/L with an initial TOC value of 80 mg/L. The degradation percentage and mineralization to total organic carbon of 2-CP in the presence of the four types of doped TiO₂ catalysts are shown in Fig. 9. In all cases, rapid degradation of phenol occurred and the 2-CP concentration decreased after irradiation for 30 min. Mineralization of 2-CP in the presence of undoped TiO₂ showed the lowest yield. Results indicate that C,N co-doped TiO₂ provided the lowest residual concentration of TOC for 2-CP. Other types of C-doped TiO₂ and N-doped TiO₂ can reduce TOC concentration, as well. The mineralization ability of all doped TiO₂ catalysts and 2-CP degradation performance can be ranked in the following order: C,N co-doped TiO₂ > C-doped TiO₂ > N-doped TiO₂ > undoped TiO₂.

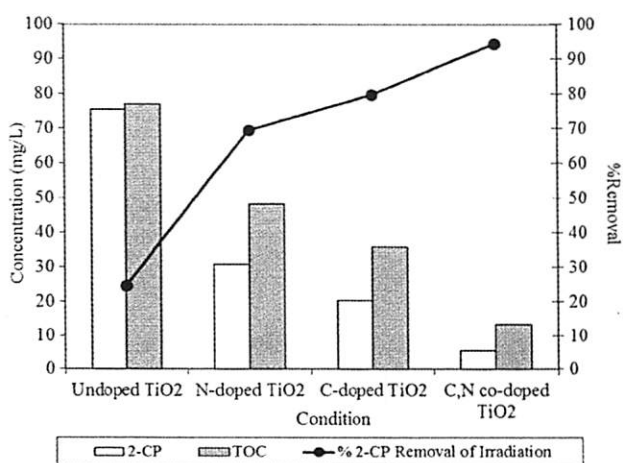


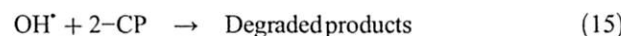
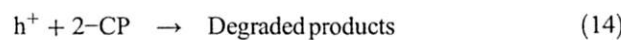
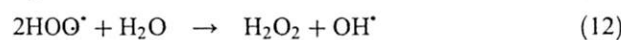
Fig. 9 Percentage removal of total organic carbon (TOC) of 2-chlorophenol in the presence of undoped TiO₂, C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂. Experimental conditions: C_{2-CP}=100 mg/l, C_{TOC}=80 mg/l, TiO₂=1 g/l, pH 7

From photocatalytic activity and mineralization ability in 2-CP degradation, the possible mechanism to generate active species of C,N co-doped TiO₂ could be explained in Fig. 10.

In C-doped TiO₂, carbon doping can improve the adsorption of 2-CP from a complex mixture of active carbon and carbonate species at the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Thus, 2-CP adsorbed on the carbonaceous layer can transfer to the residual vacancies through surface diffusion, which may be a faster process than free diffusion in solution. Moreover, the carbonaceous specie (C) formed by doped C atoms acts a role of photosensitizer (C*) like organic dyes (Chen et al. 2007). This carbonaceous specie can be excited and inject electrons into the conduction band of TiO₂. Thus, these electrons (e⁻) could be transferred to oxygen (O₂) absorbed on the TiO₂ surface, which can further transform to H₂O₂ and OH[•], resulting in the oxidation of 2-CP.

For N-doped TiO₂, nitrogen doping can lead the redshift of the bandgap that can facilitate excitation of electrons from the valence band to the conduction band in the doped TiO₂ under visible light illumination (Ananpattarachai et al. 2009). Nitrogen doping can create intra-bandgap states (IB) close to the valence band edges, which induces visible light absorption at the new formation bandgap (Chen et al. 2007). The intercalated nitrogen can also shift the position of flat-band (FB) potential to a higher level than that of undoped TiO₂.

Those major effects of carbon and nitrogen are the synergistic effect of C,N co-doped TiO₂ in 2-CP degradation, and the overall reactions during irradiation are shown below.



The 2-CP was initially adsorbed by carbonaceous species (C) on the surface of C,N co-doped TiO₂. Under visible light irradiation, both electrons (e⁻) from the IB valence band of TiO₂ (Eq. 7) and the carbonaceous species were generated (Eq. 8). The electrons from the intra-bandgap states above the valence band were energetically captured at the new FB potential of the conduction band, then further transferred, and localized to the lower energy level below the conduction band (Eq. 9) (Yang et al. 2006). This Ti³⁺ state was known to be the most reactive site for the oxidation process on TiO₂ surface (Suriye et al. 2007). Electrons from this state reacted with the

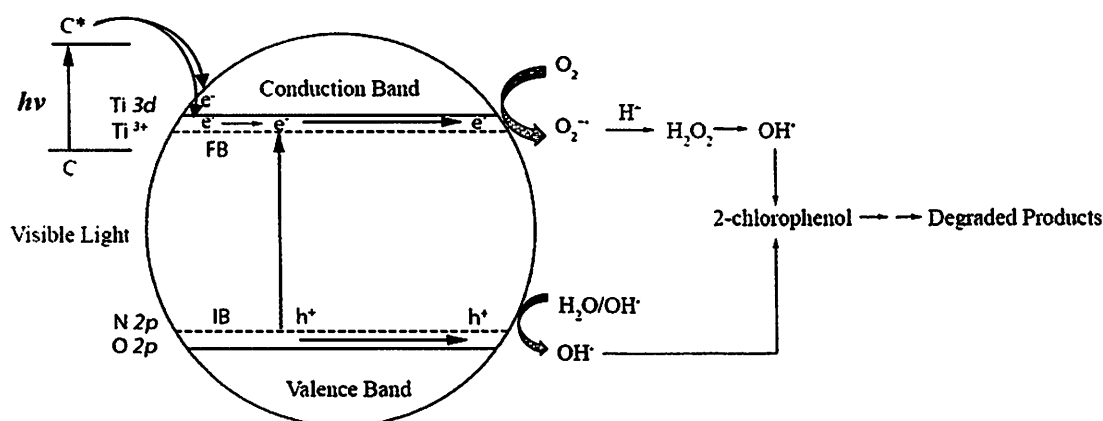


Fig. 10 Schematic of tentative mechanism for 2-chlorophenol degradation on C,N co-doped TiO₂ under visible light

surface-adsorbed oxygen molecules ($O_{2\text{surf}}$), and the superoxide anion radicals (O_2^-) were obtained (Eq. 10). These radicals can further transform to H_2O_2 and OH^\cdot (Eqs. 11–13), resulting in the oxidation of 2-CP adsorbed on the surface of C,N co-doped TiO₂. In the meantime, the generated electrons from the carbonaceous species can be injected into the conduction band of TiO₂ for further oxidation reaction of 2-CP. Thus, the rate of electron transfer in 2-CP degradation was enhanced. The direct oxidation of 2-CP by generated holes (h^+) from the new IB states also occurred. The generated holes can either directly oxidize 2-CP adsorbed on C,N co-doped TiO₂ surface (Eq. 14) or degrade indirectly through OH^\cdot generated by the reaction of holes and water molecules (Eq. 15). Hence, with the co-doping of carbon and nitrogen in the lattice of TiO₂ structure, the degradation of 2-CP was enhanced by synergistic effects of both anion species. For the degradation of 2-CP, our detected intermediate product was mainly hydroquinone, and the final products were carbon dioxide, chlorine ion (Cl^-), and water.

Conclusion

C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ display differences in visible light absorption ability and bandgap energies with different TiO₂ structures. XPS results show that nitrogen was ascribed to interstitial N with the structure of O–Ti–N linkages in N-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂; carbon was assigned to the Ti–O–C bond in the C-doped TiO₂ and C,N co-doped TiO₂; both carbon and nitrogen were detected in TiO₂ structure of C,N co-doped TiO₂. The higher 2-CP adsorption ability of C,N co-doped TiO₂ and C-doped TiO₂ than other types of TiO₂ due to a layer composed of a complex carbonaceous mixture at the surface of TiO₂. C,N co-doped TiO₂ nanopowders had higher formation rate of OH^\cdot and photocatalytic activity than those doped solely with carbon or nitrogen under visible light. The order of photocatalytic

activity per unit surface area was the same as that of the formation rate of OH^\cdot unit surface area, which can be ranked in the following order: C,N co-doped TiO₂ > C-doped TiO₂ > N-doped TiO₂ > undoped TiO₂. The highest performance in 2-CP degradation of C,N co-doped TiO₂ was accounted for a synergistic effect of carbon and nitrogen co-doping. C atoms act a role of photosensitizer that can be excited and inject electrons into the conduction band of TiO₂. Thus, these electrons (e^-) could be transfer to oxygen (O_2) absorbed on the TiO₂ surface, which can further transform to H_2O_2 and OH^\cdot , resulting in the oxidation of 2-CP. Nitrogen atoms induced the new IB states close to the valence band and shift the position of FB potential to a higher level than that of undoped TiO₂. This study on the C-doped TiO₂, N-doped TiO₂, and C,N co-doped TiO₂ not only provides fundamental data for the properties of those doping TiO₂ nanoparticles but also provides in-depth data in formation rate of OH^\cdot , photocatalytic oxidation kinetics and mineralization ability of these materials in environmental applications, specifically for the treatment of 2-CP-contaminated water.

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