Intermediate state created by dopant ions (Mn, Co and Zr) into TiO₂ nanoparticles for degradation of dyes under visible light

Lalitha Gnanasekaran a,⁎, R. Hemamalini a,⁎, Rajendran Saravanan b, K. Ravichandran c, F. Gracia b, Vinod Kumar Gupta d

a Department of Physics, Queen Mary’s College, Chennai 600 004, India
b Department of Chemical Engineering and Biotechnology, University of Chile, Beauchef 850, Santiago, Chile
c Department of Nuclear Physics, University of Madras, Guindy Campus, Chennai 600 025, India
d Department of Applied Chemistry, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg, South Africa

Abstract

To expand the absorption of pure nanosized TiO₂ to the visible light range for improving the photocatalytic efficiency necessary for industrial application, the way of doping different transition metals such as Mn, Co and Zr into TiO₂ was done by sol-gel synthesis method. The X-ray diffraction studies were identified that the metal doped TiO₂ and undoped TiO₂ samples have the same tetragonal structure with pure anatase phase. Obviously, the crystallite size is smaller for the doped materials than that of pure TiO₂ sample. The characteristic FE-SEM images revealed well distributed spherical shaped particles. The dopant materials induced significant changes in the surface area of TiO₂ which was confirmed by Brunauer Emmet Teller method. The absorption edge of doped TiO₂ is at a higher wavelength that corresponds to red region, because of the formation of intermediate states in the doped metal ions into TiO₂ sites. Moreover, for the photocatalytic degradation of MB and MO dyes, the prepared catalysts were tested under both UV and visible light irradiation. The observation confirms that among all the other samples, Mn doped TiO₂ shows amazing photocatalytic performance in visible light due to its smaller crystallite size, large surface area and lower band gap.

© 2016 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Water pollutants may exist in different hazardous wastes like pharmaceutical wastes, pesticides, herbicides, textile dyes, resins and phenoilic compounds [1–2]. In the modern era, water pollution has become the finest topic to discuss because of depleting underground water resources and the lack of managing waste water, which ensures unsustainable life with safe water. Even, very lesser amounts of water effluents promote adverse health effects in humans and other ecosystems. Hence, industrial discharge of waste water needs proper sewage treatment plants for the essential waste water management [1–4]. Water treatment technologies have come across with various efficient methods, but cheaper and less time consuming method is a major tool to access safe water [5]. The powerful method of waste water recycling has been done with the cost effective advanced oxidation processes (AOPs). Waste water treatment of water splitting on TiO₂ electrode by means of heterogeneous photocatalysis under UV light irradiation was experimented by Fujishima and Honda in 1972 [6]. Thus, photocatalysis is intended for modern day researchers to accomplish the complete degradation of waste water by decaying the harmful chemical effluents present in waste water [3,4]. Oxidation of waste water also requires another influential method in AOP called the Photo-Fenton process. Photocatalytic process benefits over this method by the unessential requirement of any chemicals other than the catalyst. In general, photocatalysis means “speeding up of a chemical reaction by an appropriate light source” [3–4,6].

In recent years, addressing and resolving of various environmental issues is a globally needed task and so the researchers make use of metal oxide semiconductor nanomaterials [7]. Inspite of many researchers conducted to study about the activity of semiconductor photocatalysts, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is one of the noticeable photocatalysts which has peculiar properties to function as a recoverable and reusable catalyst, which offers an eco-friendly and non-toxic approach. Also, it has favorable bandgap energy, high chemical stability, photo-stability, corrosive resistant, high refractive index, high dielectric constant and low cost availability [8–9]. The production of more electrons and holes is an essential step in the photocatalytic degradation of harmful species in waste water [8–9]. TiO₂ has three phases including anatase, rutile and brookite of which the most sensitive and attractive phase is the anatase phase having a notable photocatalytic activity due to its thermal stability and adsorption power [10–11].

⁎ Corresponding authors.
E-mail addresses: lalitha1887@gmail.com (L. Gnanasekaran), hemaphy.qmc@gmail.com (R. Hemamalini).
Poor efficiency of visible light response tends to the limitation of using pure TiO₂ due to its large band gap which hinders the catalysts inefficiency to degrade under natural sunlight illumination, as the solar spectrum contains more visible region [12–14]. Doping of TiO₂ with different metals (Ce, Co, Cu, Fe, Mn, Mo, Ni, Y, V, Cr and Zr) possess more degradation efficiency under visible light, which attains the successful waste water treatment process [13–15]. Moreover, the particle size is reduced by the incorporation of dopant material into the semiconductor material to facilitate an essential role in obtaining better activity of the photocatalyst [13–15]. Further, catalysts modification improves the band gap reduction and this is achieved by doping with different synthesis process. [15–16]. Chonia et al. reported that higher pollutant concentration with increase of zirconium (Zr) doping TiO₂ catalyst at the surface has shown higher activity and excellent adsorption properties in low concentrated aqueous solution due to larger surface area [17]. On the other hand, Cobalt (Co) doped TiO₂ is an efficient and stable photocatalyst for continuous hydrogen production from gliceral aqueous solution under solar light irradiation due to band gap alteration which induces the synergistic effects [18]. The work of Deng et al. [19] had showed that Mn doping with TiO₂ induced the narrow band gap under visible light degradation of methylene blue dye. While increasing Mn content, it greatly increases the absorption in the red region of the spectrum and promotes narrowing of band gap by providing better degradation of the photocatalysts [19]. Another literature had reported the synthesis of co-doping TiO₂ with Fe and N by sonochemical method and the results exhibited the anatase phase crystal structure in which the TiO₂ absorption edge has been red shifted so that the catalyst has exhibited good photocatalytic performance due to the hindering of electron-hole pairs recombination on the degradation of dye under natural sunlight [20]. Besides, the doping of TiO₂ with transition metals like Mn, Ni, Fe were employed in various other applications [21–23].

The major curiosity of the present task is implied on the preparation of anatase phase nanosized pure TiO₂ semiconductor and doping with various transition metals include manganese (Mn), cobalt (Co) and zirconium (Zr) by sol-gel process. Later, the calculation of the catalysts was followed at 450 °C uniform temperature for 1 h. Further, the prepared catalysts were performed with various analytical techniques and the detailed results are obtained. The dopant materials have induced enhanced photocatalytic performance under UV and visible light condition. The visible light photocatalytic mechanism and their corresponding experimental observations are explained in detail.

2. Experimental procedure

2.1. Materials

Titanium tetra isopropoxide (TTIP), isopropyl alcohol, cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB), subsequent doped metal sources (manganese nitrate, cobalt nitrate and zirconium propoxide) and for photocatalytic degradation, the methylene blue (MB) and methylene orange (MO) dyes were obtained from Sigma Aldrich. Double distilled water is used for preparing all aqueous solutions.

2.2. Synthesis of pure TiO₂

At first, the pure TiO₂ nanomaterial has been prepared by sol-gel method and their consequent steps are clearly represented in a flowchart (Fig. 1).

Initially, isopropyl alcohol of 150 mL was taken in a 500 mL beaker. Then, 5 mL TTIP was taken in a syringe and instantly transferred to the above solution contained in the beaker, since TTIP has the ability to change its state rapidly. Magnetic stirring of this solution was done for more than 1 h and by this time, aqueous CTAB of 0.01 M was slowly added in drops into it. Stirring of the solution has been continued for another 24 h. Now, this solution mixture was transformed to a dirty white gel in the beaker, where it was left for drying at room temperature.

Later, the powder was grounded taking in the mortar and was allowed placing in a muffle furnace for calcining at 450 °C for 1 h in which the rate of 4 °C temperature per minute has been increased.

2.3. Synthesis of Mn, Co and Zr doped TiO₂ nanomaterials

The main goal of this paper is to report on the dopant materials induced photocatalytic activity by the use of the prepared catalysts synthesized by a simple sol-gel method. While preparing pure TiO₂, 95:5 weight ratios of TTIP and the metal sources of each element (Manganese nitrate, Cobalt nitrate and Zirconium propoxide) were mixed independently and the above same procedure was followed.

2.4. Photocatalytic experiment

The scrutinization of photocatalytic activity of the catalysts is performed for the degradation of dye solutions at uniformly irradiated time intervals. The samples were then collected, centrifuged, filtered and analyzed by UV–Visible spectrophotometer. Without the presence of catalysts, the dyes were first tested for its stability. Under UV light irradiation, magnetic stirring of the aqueous dye solutions of MB and MO were carried out under dark condition for 2 h. While analyzing through UV–Vis spectrophotometer, no change was observed in the solution concentration and this ensures the stability. To avoid the direct contact of light source with the dye solution, a cylindrical glass tube made of quartz is used to cover the UV light source of 8 W mercury vapor lamp having a wavelength of 365 nm. The photocatalytic mixture is well prepared in a 500 mL cylindrical beaker by taking 100 mg of prepared catalyst in 100 mL of dye solution (MB/MO) with an initial concentration of 5 × 10⁻³ mol/L. To maintain a constant temperature of the solution at 25 °C, the beaker is surrounded by a water jacket and this was stirred 20 min magnetically under the dark condition to ensure adsorption/desorption equilibrium condition. For every 20 min, the sample was collected, centrifuged and filtered. Then the samples were analyzed by UV–Vis spectrophotometer and the degradation efficiencies of MO and MB were determined by the following formula.

$$\eta = \left[1 - \frac{C}{C_0}\right] \times 100$$  (1)

where, C₀ and C are the concentrations of the solution before illumination (t = 0) and after illumination of light for ‘t’ minutes respectively. For visible light degradation of dyes, experiment involves a photo reactor set up which has a visible light source (SCIENCETECH, model no: SF300B along with AM 1.5G filter which is due to given standard solar
surface area was calculated using Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET, Micromeritics ASAP 2020, USA) equation. The prepared catalysts were examined through UV-visible spectrophotometer (RX1, Perkin – Elmer, USA) to obtain the exact bandgap and also their photocatalytic activities were evaluated.

### 2.5. Characterization results

The analysis of structure, phase and crystallite size of the prepared samples were obtained from X-ray diffraction method using a D5000 (Siemens) diffractometer with CuKα (λ = 1.5406 Å) radiation. The studies on the surface morphology of the prepared samples were analyzed with FEI quanta FEG 200-Field emission Scanning Electron Microscope. Energy dispersive X ray spectroscopy (EDXS) analysis was done for finding out the existence of elements in the samples. The specific surface area was calculated using Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET, Micromeritics ASAP 2020, USA). The prepared catalysts were examined through UV–visible spectrophotometer (RX1, Perkin – Elmer, USA) to obtain the exact bandgap and also their photocatalytic activities were evaluated.

### 3. Results and discussion

The X-ray diffraction patterns of 450 °C calcined pure and metal doped TiO2 were presented in Fig. 2. The XRD pattern of pure TiO2 depicted in Fig. 2(a) shows well identified tetragonal structure anatase phase with no other phase entries like rutile and brookite. On comparing with other phases, anatase phase is proven best due to its large crystallite size is observed in pure TiO2 which is in agreement with the previous reports [24–27].

Even doping Mn, Co and Zr with TiO2 resulted in the restriction of the structural and phase transformation, hence remains the same anatase phase tetragonal structure which is shown in Fig. 2(b), (c) and (d). The diffracted crystalline peaks at the corresponding 2θ values 25.3°, 37.01°, 37.8°, 38.64°, 48.14°, 53.97°, 55.18° were assigned to the (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105) and (211) hkl planes respectively, which was well matched with the JCPDS card no 89-4921. The crystallite size is obtained from the full width half maximum of the higher intensity (101) peak using Scherrer formula [15].

\[ D = \frac{K \lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \]

where D is the crystallite size of the material, K is the shape factor = 0.9, \( \lambda \) is the wavelength of the x-ray (0.154 nm), \( \beta \) is the line broadening at half the maximum intensity of the diffracted peaks, \( \theta \) is the Bragg’s angle and the calculated crystallite size values of the samples are listed in Table 1.

The higher intensity (101) peak of the synthesized samples was shown in Fig. 3. In Fig. 3(b), Mn doped TiO2 peaks exhibit higher angle shift. Besides, adding Co and Zr impurities to TiO2 shown in Fig. 3(c) and (d) indicate the lower angle shift when compared with pure TiO2 (Fig. 3 (a)). These results confirm the shifting of diffraction peaks consisting of doped metals in which the Mn4+ (0.55 Å), Co2+ (0.65 Å) and Zr4+ (0.72 Å) ions are substituted into the Ti4+ (0.61 Å) sites. When compared with pure Ti4+ site, the ionic radius which seems to be lower in Mn4+ stimulates the peaks to shift into higher angle [24]. But, Co2+ and Zr4+ having higher ionic radius induce lower shift compared to the TiO2 which has low ionic radius [16,25]. On observing the doped sites, there was a slight decrease in the peak intensity and the peaks are wider. Thus, it results increase in full width half maximum and induces the doped TiO2 to exhibit smaller crystallite size, while larger crystallite size is observed in pure TiO2 which is in agreement with the previous reports [24–27].

Hence, from the XRD results, it is evident that none of the dopant elements disturb the anatase structure of TiO2. So it clearly represents that the dopant materials were not observable on the TiO2 surface, because of the absence of any secondary structure; instead it may exists at the grain boundaries that hinder the crystallinity and reduce the crystallite size of the doped TiO2 materials [24–27].

The size and morphology of the prepared samples and the distribution of the dopant metals on the TiO2 catalyst were characterized using FE-SEM technique. The FE-SEM image of pure TiO2 presented in Fig. 4(a) shows a closer study of more spherical shaped particles which has aggregation of densely packed nanoparticles. Fig. 4(b), (c) and (d)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Crystallite size-D (nm)</th>
<th>BET surface area (m²/g)</th>
<th>Absorption wavelength (nm)</th>
<th>Bandgap-E (eV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pure TiO₂</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mn doped TiO₂</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co doped TiO₂</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>79.3</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr doped TiO₂</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>74.2</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. The XRD pattern of a) pure TiO₂, b) Mn doped TiO₂, c) Co doped TiO₂ and d) Zr doped TiO₂.

Fig. 3. The higher intensity (101) XRD peak of a) pure TiO₂, b) Mn doped TiO₂, c) Co doped TiO₂ and d) Zr doped TiO₂.
apparently show the spherical shaped Mn, Co and Zr doped TiO₂ nano-
structures. On comparing pure TiO₂ images with the doped ones, the
later show ultra-fine nanoparticles. The obtained average size of the
TiO₂ nanoparticles is about 30–35 nm, whereas the doped TiO₂ is in

Fig. 4. FE-SEM images of a) pure TiO₂, b) Mn doped TiO₂, c) Co doped TiO₂ and d) Zr doped TiO₂.

Fig. 5. EDS of a) pure TiO₂, b) Mn doped TiO₂, c) Co doped TiO₂ and d) Zr doped TiO₂.
range of 18–25 nm. The attractive morphology of the samples was useful for the study of structural properties and also for modifying the electronic structure in order to obtain higher photocatalytic activity under visible light [28].

The energy dispersive x-ray spectra (EDXS) of pure and doped TiO₂ were shown in Fig. 5, which indicates the elements present in the sample. Fig. 5(a) represents the occurrence of Ti and O elements in the pure TiO₂ nanoparticle. The other doped nanoparticles in the Fig. 5(b), (c) and (d) exhibit the existence of Ti, O, Mn, Co and Zr elements in the samples. The occurrence of Ti arises as large intensity peaks; whereas the lower intensity peaks were recognized as Co, Mn and Zr. From this observation, it is evident that the dopant metals are evenly scattered on the TiO₂ surface.

The Brunner Emmet Teller (BET) specific surface area of pure and doped samples is listed in Table 1. The surface area of the metal doped TiO₂ is well observed higher than that of pure TiO₂, because of the synergistic effect between TiO₂ and doped metal ions [29–32]. This in fact reduces the crystallite size of the doped materials. Large surface area induces photocatalytic enhancement and so the photocatalytic efficiency is more profitable by the advancement of redox reaction to occur with the modified surface property of the doped TiO₂ [29–32]. Moreover, these results had good agreement with XRD and FE-SEM results.

The electronic structure of the samples to function as the optical properties such as absorption and band gap by the irradiating light intensity was determined from UV–Visible spectroscopic analysis.

Fig. 6 illustrates the UV–Visible absorption spectra of pure and doped samples. From the absorption spectrum, it is noticeable that the optical absorption edge of the pure samples is at a wavelength of 382 nm. In contrast, impurities added TiO₂ signify higher wavelength which corresponds to red region of the solar spectrum. The band gap of the samples can be obtained using the following equation.

\[ E = hν = \frac{1240}{λ} \]  

where \( h \) is the planck’s constant, \( ν \) is the frequency of light waves and \( λ \) is the wavelength of the light used.

The pure TiO₂ belongs to higher band gap (3.25 eV) and this band gap energy is sufficient to produce electrons and holes during the UV light irradiation. Simultaneously, pure TiO₂ is impotent to degrade dyes under visible light. In contrast, after doping of metal ions into TiO₂, the absorption edge shows higher wavelength due to the formation of intermediate states produced by metal ions into the TiO₂ structure [33–34]. Consequently, the UV absorption of the dopant material is favorable to achieve higher degradation efficiencies under both UV and visible light irradiation.

3.1 Photocatalytic degradation of MB and MO

The photocatalytic reaction event does not happen without the catalyst and light source [35]. As a result, pure and metal doped catalysts have the capacity to degrade under irradiating light energy. The synthesized pure and doped TiO₂ catalysts for the degradation of methylene blue (MB) and methyl orange (MO) dyes with irradiation time of 60 min under UV light and its efficiency is calculated from Eq. (1) and the values are shown in Table 2. The degradation was attained for all the samples with an increasing irradiation time. The doped TiO₂ samples show an excellent degradation of MB and MO in the same UV light when compared with pure, since the dopant metal ions have an impact to generate more electrons and holes. These in turn promotes more degradation efficiency under UV light. The improved surface properties and the smaller crystallite size of the doped catalysts have the probable electron transfer properties which increases the photocatalytic activity [36–37]. On the other hand, the degradation of dyes depends on the shape factor of the synthesized particles [38–39]. It has been reported from the literatures that the spherical shape of the particle having large surface area plays a substantial role for organic dye degradation [40]. The literature report of Kaneva et al. had shown comparing with the crystallite size, the morphology of the prepared samples revealed

Table 2: Degradation efficiency of all prepared samples under UV and visible light irradiation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Degradation efficiency of MO in 60 min under UV light (%)</th>
<th>Degradation efficiency of MB in 60 min under UV light (%)</th>
<th>Degradation efficiency of MO in 240 min under visible light (%)</th>
<th>Degradation efficiency of MB in 240 min under visible light (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pure TiO₂</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mn doped TiO₂</td>
<td>85.2</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co doped TiO₂</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr doped TiO₂</td>
<td>70.1</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
greater influence on surface properties. Saravanan et al. had displayed the uniform spherical shaped nanoparticle morphology synthesized by chemical precipitation method which influences better photocatalytic activity with enhanced efficiency compared to the thermal decomposition method of synthesizing rod shaped nanoparticles.

In our work, maximum efficiency is achieved for Mn doped TiO2 sample for both MB and MO dyes than pure and metal doped TiO2 because of its higher surface area. In the case of MB degradation under UV light irradiation, Mn doped TiO2 sample shows 21% more efficiency than pure TiO2 sample. Similarly, followed by 7% higher efficiency than Co doped sample and 15% than Zr doped sample. For MO degradation, Mn doped TiO2 sample provides 20% more efficiency than pure TiO2 sample, 7% than Co doped sample and 15% than Zr doped TiO2 sample. On evaluating the degradation of both the dyes, MB has resulted in higher efficiency than MO for both pure TiO2 and metal doped TiO2 samples. The simple structure of MB provides an efficient degradation of the samples in which it enhances the photocatalytic reactions. Moreover, MB acts as a sensitizer and so it degrades quicker than MO.

The visible light irradiated time course degradation curves for MB and MO with 240 min irradiation time were given in the Figs. 7 and 8. The efficiency percentages for degradation of dyes are given in Table 2. For MB degradation, Mn doped sample has 8.9% higher than Co doped sample and 35% than Zr doped sample. Similar observation has obtained for MO degradation too. Mn doped sample exhibits an increase of 12% than Co doped sample and 42% than Zr doped sample. Pure TiO2 sample exhibits very less degradation in visible light due to its large band gap properties.

The photocatalytic first order rate constants (k) were deliberated from the following equation:

\[ k = \frac{\ln(C/C_0)}{t} \]

where C and C0 are the irradiation and initial concentrations of MO/MB dyes. The first order rate constant values of the prepared catalysts were tabulated which was shown in SI 1. In both UV and visible light irradiation, the calculated first order rate constant (k) values were undoubtedly specified that the Mn doped TiO2 has superior degradation rate when compared with Co and Zr doped TiO2 as well as pure TiO2 material.

Furthermore, recycling process of the superior photocatalyst Mn doped TiO2 material is essential to describe the long term environmental usability and find the stability of the catalyst. The result of three times recycling process of MO using Mn doped TiO2 material under visible light irradiation is shown in SI 2 and the results obviously described very small variation. Hence, it was specified that the Mn doped TiO2 material shows good stability and long term reusability for photocatalytic degradation of dyes under visible light irradiation.

The visible light photocatalytic pathway mechanism is denoted in the schematic diagram as shown in Fig. 9. For the period of visible light irradiation on the doped TiO2 surface, the electrons in the intermediate states are excited since the dopant metal ions created intermediate states in the TiO2 structure, thus have sufficient energy to access more visible light absorption and transfer electrons to TiO2 surface that stimulate more electrons under visible light which in turn advances the redox reactions. These properties of the doped metal ions improve the photocatalytic reactions. Concurrently, transfer of electrons takes place from the valence band to
the conduction band by creating holes in the former and these holes in turn react with water molecules present in the dye and helps in the formation of OH radicals [15–21]. These OH radicals were supportive and significantly successful in degrading the dyes under visible light irradiation [45–64].

From the photocatalytic results, it is concluded that Mn doped sample shows extraordinary performance than the others and so it can be used for environmental applications. The major distinguishing parameters for the effective decomposition of organic species under light irradiation were the synthesis method, shape, the concentration of dopant materials, high surface area, the energy level and distribution of the dopant within TiO₂ structure [26,30,32,36].

4. Conclusion
This paper reports the effective synthesis of nanosized TiO₂ and (Mn, Co and Zr) doped TiO₂ by sol-gel method. The samples were characterized by different techniques and their degradation efficiencies were compared under the MB and MO dyes for both ultraviolet and visible light illumination. The pure and doped TiO₂ exhibits the anatase phase tetragonal structure and showed agglomerated spherical shaped nanoparticles. The doped samples have wavelengths in the red region, while the pure sample has in the blue region of shorter wavelength. Because of the wide band gap 3.25 eV of pure TiO₂, it was unable to excite electrons to higher level during visible light photocatalytic reactions. Meanwhile, the doped samples have increased surface area with smaller crystallite size which favors the photocatalytic reactions. Thus the doped samples are likely to increase photocatalytic activity under visible light, since it has intermediate states in the TiO₂ lattice by preventing electron-hole pairs. Investigating among the doped TiO₂ under both ultraviolet and visible light irradiance, Mn doping promotes more degrading efficiency for both MB and MO while the Co and Zr doped samples have decreased activity. From overall study of the pure and doped TiO₂ samples; increased surface area, smaller crystallite size and reduced band gap of the doped samples have come up with the best photocatalytic efficiencies under visible light.

Acknowledgements
We acknowledge SAIF-IIT Chennai, India for FE-SEM characterization. The authors (R.S., F.G.) acknowledge the support of CONICYT materials, high surface area, the energy level and distribution of the dopant within TiO₂ structure [26,30,32,36].

Appendix A. Supplementary data
Supplementary data to this article can be found online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.molliq.2016.08.105.

References


