

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Synthesis of carbon self-doped titanium dioxide and its activity in the photocatalytic oxidation of styrene under visible light irradiation

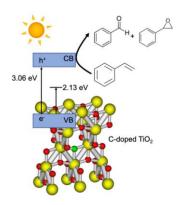
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Article history

Received 20 February 2019 Revised 6 March 2019 Accepted 27 March 2019 Published Online 14 April 2019

Graphical abstract



Abstract

Carbon self-doped titanium dioxide (C/TiO_2) photocatalyst was synthesized by a simple sol-gel method using titanium isopropoxide as both the titanium precursor and carbon source. The effects of calcination temperatures in the range of 300 to 700 °C to the structure and physicochemical properties of the C/TiO_2 were investigated by X-ray diffraction (XRD), field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) coupled with energy dispersive X-ray (EDX), Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, UV-visible diffuse reflectance (UV-Vis DR) spectroscopy, photoluminescence spectroscopy, N_2 adsorption-desorption and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). XPS results proved the presence of self-doped carbon at the interstitial and substitutional lattice of TiO_2 . The C/TiO_2 calcined at 300 and 400 °C (C/TiO_2 -300 and C/TiO_2 -400, respectively) showed mesoporous characteristic and large surface area of about 100 m² g¹¹. The C/TiO_2 photocatalysts were then tested in the photo-oxidation of styrene under visible light irradiation with aqueous hydrogen peroxide as the oxidizing agent. The C/TiO_2 -300 and C/TiO_2 -400 showed the highest total concentration of products (benzaldehyde and styrene oxide) at 1.1 mmol and 1.0 mmol, respectively.

Keywords: Titanium dioxide, carbon doped, photocatalytic activity, styrene, photo-oxidation

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INTRODUCTION

Titanium dioxide (TiO2) is considered to be an excellent and superior photocatalytic material due to its low material cost, excellent stability, high specific surface area, environmental friendliness, nontoxicity, and superior photocatalytic activity (Ganesan et al., 2015, Lavand and Malghe, 2015). Despite its numerous advantages, two significant drawbacks have hindered the usage of TiO2 in further applications. The first drawback is that the band gap of anatase TiO2 is fairly large, at about 3.20 eV, and can only be activated under UV light irradiation in the solar spectrum. However, UV light only constitutes to a small fraction (3-5%) of the solar spectrum (Hamal and Klabunde, 2007). In order to utilize free and abundance solar energy, more researches should be focused on visible light driven photocatalyst since visible light covers about 39% of the sunlight rays. The second drawback is the fast electron-hole pair recombination, an undesirable process where the absorbed energy is wasted as heat or reemitted without doing any chemical work. These two inherent properties are the major reasons for the low efficiency and are obstacles for practical applications of TiO2. Therefore, in order to establish an economical, safe and clean reaction system, researchers are digging into suitable methods to modify TiO2 to enhance its photocatalytic performance.

The addition of small amounts of carbon impurity to TiO₂ semiconductor, or referred as C-doped TiO₂, is one of the best methods to improve the photocatalytic performance under visible light irradiation. In the past decade, C-doped TiO₂ (C/TiO₂) has been synthesized by a variety of methods including thermal plasma (Park *et al.*, 2010), xerogel carbonization (Liu *et al.*, 2014), hydrothermal (Parayil *et al.*, 2012) and sol-gel methods (Liu *et al.*, 2012).

Most of the synthesis of pure TiO₂ in previous studies are focused on the application in UV light, such as the photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants under UV light irradiation. One of the simplest method in synthesizing pure TiO₂ is by using titanium alkoxide as the titanium precursor. Titanium alkoxide will be hydrolyzed and the polycondensations of metal alkoxides, leading to the formation of extended network (Simonsen and Søgaard, 2010). The TiO₂ formed might contain a small amount of C doped inside the lattice of TiO₂ as a result of incomplete hydrolyzation of the titanium alkoxide. This formation of self-doped C could be responsible in enhancing the photocatalytic activity in the visible light region (Lettmann *et al.*, 2001).

The photo-oxidation of styrene are of great interest at academic and commercial levels. The oxidation of styrene produces benzaldehyde, styrene oxide and phenylacetaldehyde, which are useful intermediates in the fine chemicals and pharmaceuticals industry. A few studies

attempted to explain the formation of C self-doped TiO₂. Park and Luna synthesized C self-doped TiO₂ by hydrolysis of titanium butoxide, without using any external precursor and the obtained material was used in the photocatalytic reaction of 4-chlorophenol and acetominophen (Park *et al.*, 2009, Luna *et al.*, 2016). In another research, Gorska and coworkers (Gorska *et al.*, 2009) reported the synthesis of C self-doped TiO₂ by the hydrolysis of titanium (IV) isopropoxide for the degradation of phenol. However, to the best of our knowledge, research publications based on the synthesis and application of C self-doped TiO₂ (C/TiO₂) in the photo-oxidation of styrene under the irradiation of visible light.

Therefore, in this study, the photocatalytic capability of C self-doped TiO_2 photocatalyst in visible light is shown through the photocatalytic oxidation of styrene with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) as the oxidizing agent. The presence self-doped C and its relation to the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 with increasing calcination temperature are investigated and studied in details.

EXPERIMENTAL

Materials

The chemicals used in the synthesis of C self-doped TiO_2 were isopropyl alcohol (i-PrOH, 99.8%, Qrec), ethanol (EtOH, 95%, VChem), and titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP, 97%, Sigma-Aldrich). Meanwhile, the chemicals used for the photo-oxidation reaction were styrene (99%, Merck), acetonitrile (reagent grade, Merck), and hydrogen peroxide (30%, Merck). As for the standard in the photo-oxidation of styrene, the chemicals used were benzaldehyde (99% Aldrich) and styrene oxide (97%, Aldrich). Commercial TiO_2 was purchased from ACROS (98%).

Synthesis of C self-doped TiO₂ photocatalyst

20 mL of ethanol and 80 mL of deionized water were mixed to form a mixture. 6 mL of titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) were then added drop-wise into the mixture to form a white precipitate. The mixture was kept under constant stirring at room temperature for 24 hours. Following that, it was then centrifuged, washed and dried at 80 °C for 5 hours, to obtain C/TiO₂. Finally, the synthesized C/TiO₂ were calcined at temperatures of 300, 400, 500, 600 and 700 °C for 5 hours. The samples are denoted as C/TiO₂-X, where X stands for the calcination temperature that was used to prepare it.

Characterization

The physicochemical properties of C/TiO₂ were determined by various characterization techniques. The crystalline phase and crystallite size of the C/TiO2 were determined by X-ray diffractometer (Bruker AXS D8 Automatic Powder Diffractometer) operating at 40 kV, 30 mA and Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ nm) at $2\theta = 10 - 90$ °. The surface morphology of C/TiO2 and commercial TiO2 were observed from the magnified images of the crystallites by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM). The weight percentage of atoms on the sample surface was observed by energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis. The sample was scanned with parameters i.e. accelerating voltage of 15.0 kV, probe current of 2.56160 nA and the range energy of 0 - 20 keV. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) (Nicolet 6700 spectroscopy Thermo Scientific Spectrophotometer) was used to detect the existence of C group and other functional groups of the samples in TiO2. For the UV-visible diffuse reflectance (UV-Vis DR) spectroscopy, a Perkin Elmer Lambda 35 UV-Vis-NIR spectrometer was used. The spectra were recorded at room temperature in air at a wavelength range of 200 to 800 nm. The photoluminescence analysis was done in order to study the electrons-holes recombination of the photocatalysts. Emission spectra of the samples were determined at room temperature using JASCO spectrofluorometer (FP-8500) with 150 W Xe lamp as the source of excitation. The sample excitation was conducted at 355 nm and the emission was scanned from 200 to 800 nm. The specific surface area and the type of porosity of the samples were assessed from Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) analysis by measurement of nitrogen adsorptiondesorption (Quantachrome NOVA touch LX4) at multilevel as a function of relative pressure. The relative pressure P/P_0 (P and P_0 are the pressure of N_2 vapour and its saturation vapour pressure at 77 K, respectively) used in the calculation of BET surface area. The data was automatically recorded into the computer. By using the model of Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH), the pore volume and pore size distribution were calculated from the desorption branch. The X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were recorded using high resolution multi technique X-ray spectrometer (Axis Ultra DLD XPS, Kratos). The binding energy of C1s at 285 eV was used as the internal reference to calibrate all the binding energies. Density functional theory (DFT) by Gaussian 09 sofware was used to detect the presence of the sub-band gap energy induced by the self-doped C is further proved by computing the band gap energy of anatase.

Photocatalytic oxidation of styrene

The photocatalytic activity of C/TiO_2 photocatalysts were tested by the photo-oxidation of styrene under visible light irradiation. The reaction mixture of styrene (10 mmol), 30% aqueous H_2O_2 (10 mmol) as the oxidizing agent, acetonitrile (5 mL) as the solvent and catalyst (50 mg), were placed in a capped-glass tube. The reactions were performed under visible light irradiation at room temperature for 24 hours. The type of lamp used as visible light source was halogen lamp with the power of 150 W. The reactions were placed at a distance of 10 cm from the light source and magnetically stirred throughout the irradiation. The blank reaction was also carried out in same condition but without catalyst. After 24 hours, the catalyst and products were separated from the mixture by centrifugation.

Gas chromatography-flame ionization detector (GC-FID) (Shimadzu GC-2014) with non-polar capillary column (BPX5) was used to identify the reaction product of styrene oxidation. A column flow of 3 mL/min with nitrogen and hydrogen as carrier gas were used. Operating conditions of GC-FID were as follows: oven temperature of 80 °C; initial temperature of 80 °C; initial time of 1 min; final temperature of 140 °C; hold time of 0.5 min; rate of 15 °C min⁻¹. Standards of products (benzaldehyde and styrene oxide) were prepared with acetonitrile as the solvent in order to obtain the calibration curve and allow the identification of products. The concentration of products (mmol) was calculated using the equation obtained from the calibration curve graph.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physicochemical properties of C/TiO_2 at different calcination temperatures

The presence of the self-doped carbon in the TiO₂ lattice has been proven by the analyses of EDX, FTIR and XPS. Table 1 shows the elemental composition of C/TiO₂ determined by EDX. The results confirmed the presence of Ti, O and C as the main elements in C/TiO₂. As compared to commercial TiO₂, the carbon composition for C/TiO₂ shows higher amount of self-doped carbon incorporated into TiO₂ lattice. With the increase of calcination temperature, the amount of carbon in C/TiO₂ were decreased as carbon was decomposed during the calcination process.

Fig. 1 shows the FTIR spectra for C/TiO₂ photocatalyts at calcination temperatures of 300, 400, 500, 600, and 700 °C. For C/TiO₂, a weak adsorption peak observed in C/TiO₂ at the wavelength of 1664-1707 and 1260-1000 cm⁻¹, which are attributed to the stretching vibrations of C=O and C=O, respectively. The observation of these peaks further proved the presence of self-doped carbon into TiO₂ lattice of C/TiO₂. A broad adsorption peak at 3000-3500 cm⁻¹ and the adsorption peak at 1630 cm⁻¹ in both C/TiO₂ and commercial TiO₂ were assigned to the surface hydroxyl groups (Kumar *et al.*, 2000). It was observed that when the calcination increased to high temperature, these hydroxyl peaks were decreased and reduced significantly. In addition, the broad peak observed at around 450-890 cm⁻¹ corresponded to the Ti=O bond.

XPS measurements were carried out to determine the concentrations of carbon and their chemical states. The XPS survey spectra in Fig. 2 (a) confirmed the existence of Ti, O and C elements in C/TiO_2 and the atomic concentration of the elements are tabulated in Table 1. The atomic percentage of carbon element decreased with increasing calcination temperature.

Table 1 Summary of the physicochemical properties of the commercial TiO2 and synthesized C/TiO2.

Samples	Crystallite Size (nm) ^a	Atomic Weight ^b (%)			Atomic Concentration ^c (%)			Band Gap ^d	Surface Area ^e	Pore Volume ^f	Pore Diameter ^f
		Ti	0	С	Ti	0	С	(eV)	(m²/g)	(cm³/g)	(nm)
Commercial	26.26	55.5	39.6	4.9	21	47	32	3.44	11	N/A	N/A
C/TiO ₂ -300	5.52	51.3	40.6	8.1	-	-	-	3.54	150	0.32	4.6
C/TiO ₂ -400	6.99	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.56	116	0.28	5.4
C/TiO ₂ -500	12.11	-	-	-	21	49	30	3.49	64	0.14	6.3
C/TiO ₂ -600	28.20	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.21	12	0.03	8.1
C/TiO ₂ -700	28.75	57.2	35.0	7.7	29	53	18	3.13	7	N/A	N/A

^a Calculated by Scherrer equation. ^b Detemined from the EDX analysis. ^c Calculated from XPS spectra. ^d Optical band edge from Tauc plot of UV absorption studies. ^e BET surface area calculated from the linear part of the BET plot. ^f Calculated from BJH distribution

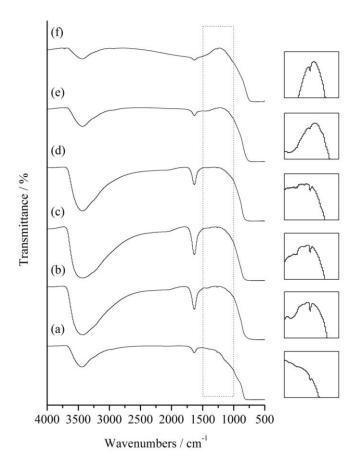


Fig. 1 FTIR spectra of (a) commercial TiO_2 and C/TiO_2 samples at different calcination temperatures of (b) 300, (c) 400, (d) 500, (e) 600, and (f) 700 °C. The insets show a zoomed plot of the adsorption peak at 1500-1000 cm⁻¹, which corresponds to C–O stretching vibrations.

This is in well agreement with the EDX and FTIR results. Meanwhile, Fig. 2 (b) to (d) show the high resolution XPS spectra of Ti 2p, O 1s and C 1s for C/TiO2-500, C/TiO2-700 and commercial TiO2. In the Ti 2p spectra (Fig. 2 (b)), two peaks that appeared at 459 and 465 eV for all of spectra were the typical peaks of Ti 2p_{3/2} and Ti 2p_{1/2} binding energy region (Choi et al., 2004, Shao et al., 2010). This indicates the presence of Ti⁴⁺ ions in TiO₂ (Parayil et al., 2012). The slight shifting in C/TiO₂ peaks from calcination temperature of 500 to 700 °C was due to the change in the bonding environment of Ti when calcination temperature increased. For C/TiO2 calcined at 700 °C and the commercial TiO2, beside Ti 2p3/2 binding energy of Ti4+, a new and weak Ti 2p3/2 core level peak appeared around 456-457.4 eV, suggesting that Ti^{3+} species were formed in the TiO_2 lattice due to the partial reduction of Ti⁴⁺ to Ti³⁺. The emergence of Ti³⁺ species would result in the formation of oxygen vacancy defects due to C-doping which took place during the synthesis of the catalysts (Raja et al., 2006, Shao et al., 2010).

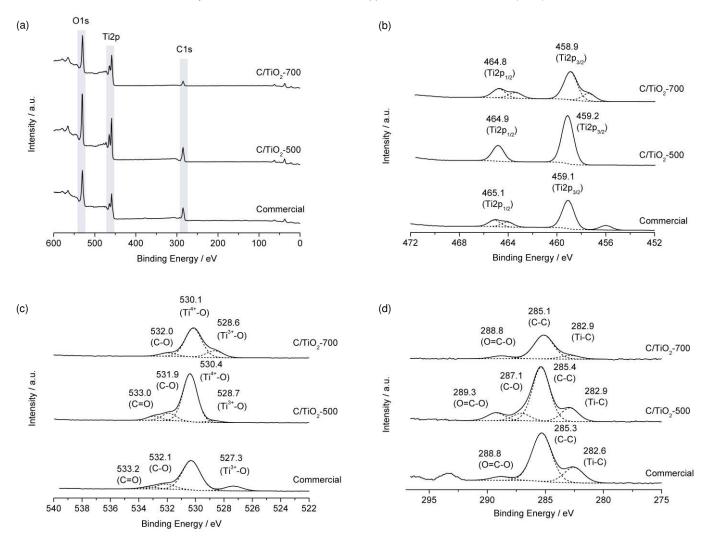
Fig. 2 (c) displays spectra corresponding to O1s region for, C/TiO₂-500, C/TiO₂-700 and commercial TiO₂. All samples exhibited strong

peaks at around 530 eV, which is the result of Ti–O bonds and the peak around 532 eV is due to the presence of C–O bond. In C/TiO₂-500 and commercial TiO₂, a signal at around 533 eV was detected due to the presence of C=O bond. An additional peak at around 527.7-529.1 eV for all the samples is possibly attributed to the presence of O atoms bonded with Ti³⁺ (Kumar *et al.*, 2000, Shao *et al.*, 2010). Ti³⁺ ions could act as an electron trap in the photocatalytic reaction and thus preventing the recombination of the charge carriers (Muniandy *et al.*, 2016).

Fig. 2 (d) compares the XPS profiles in the region of C1s binding energy for C/TiO2-500, C/TiO2-700 and commercial TiO2. In all of the spectra, the peak attributed to C1s was observed in the range of 290 to 282 eV with two to four of deconvulated peaks. The peak signal at around 285 eV for all of the samples corresponds to the C-C and C-H bonds due to the presence of elemental carbon (sp² hybridized carbon) as well as adventitious carbon (Yang et al., 2008, Lim et al., 2010, Shao et al., 2010, Muniandy et al., 2016). The peak around 283 eV corresponded to the Ti-C bond due to the substitutional of C atom to O in TiO₂ lattice (Shao et al., 2010). All spectra have a peak signal around 289 eV that corresponds to the O=C-O bond and an additional peak in C/TiO₂-500 at 287 eV, corresponding to C-O bond (Muniandy et al., 2016). The presence of the carbonate-like species, O=C-O and C-O bond were due to interstitial and/or substitutional C to Ti atom in TiO2 lattice (Liu et al., 2014, Muniandy et al., 2016). The presence of these three peaks indicate that C was self-doped into TiO2's lattice at substitutional and interstial positions.

Photoluminescence (PL) study was conducted in order to understand the nature of the electron-hole recombination of the composites. In the field of photocatalysis, it is a good technique to understand the separation efficiency of photogenerated electrons and holes. Fig. 3 illustrates the PL spectra obtained from the recombination of electrons and holes for C/TiO2 calcined at 300, 400, 500, 600 and 700 °C, and commercial TiO2 in the range of 340 - 600 nm with 325 nm wavelength excitation source. The PL spectra displayed a similar pattern with three main peaks observed at 337-340 nm, 362-364 nm and 408-413 nm. The intense peak observed at 337-340 nm is assigned to the band luminescence the samples. Peaks at 362-364 nm and 408-413 nm arise from recombination at dopant levels or sub-band gaps induced by self-doped C and oxygen vacancies (Kavitha and Devi, 2014). Meanwhile, the small emission peak at 468 nm is due to the surface oxygen vacancies when Ti³⁺ charge is transferred to oxygen vacancy in TiO₆8- octahedra (Kavitha and Devi, 2014, Kao and Chen, 2017).

The presence of the sub-band gap energy induced by the self-doped C is further proved by computing the band gap energy of anatase using density functional theory (DFT) as shown in Fig. 4. DFT calculations of 51 atoms ($2\times1\times1$ supercell) of $Ti_{21}O_{30}$ anatase cluster were performed using Gaussian 09 sofware. The C-doped was studied at substitutional position (by replacing oxygen) and interstitial position. The doping concentration of C at substitutional and interstial position is 1.96 at.% and 1.92 at.%, respectively. The calculated results shows that by doping with C, additional energy levels were formed in the band gap of anatase called sub-band gap at 2.13 eV for substitutional and 2.77 eV at interstitial position, which is in the visible light region (Siti Hajar Alias, 2019).



 $\textbf{Fig. 2} \ \ (a) \ \, \text{XPS survey specta and the binding energy of (b) Ti2p, (c) O1s and (d) C1s of commercial TiO_2, C/TiO_2-500, and C/TiO_2-700.}$

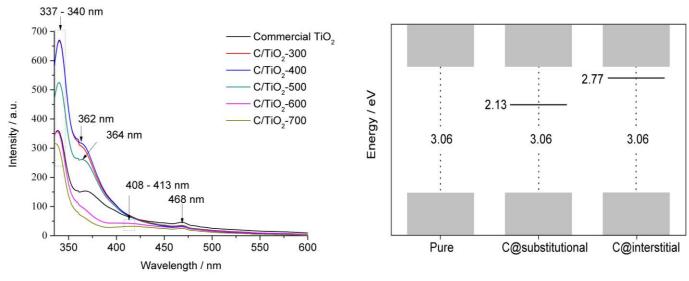
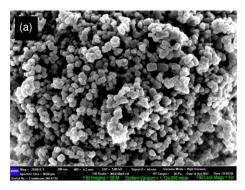
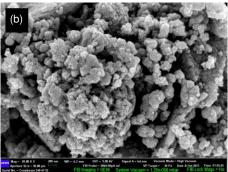


Fig. 3 Photoluminescence spectra of (a) commercial TiO_2 and (b) $/TiO_2$ samples at different calcination temperature (b) 300, (c) 400, (d) 500, (e) 600, and (f) 700 °C.

Fig. 4 Schematic illustration of the band gap energy of pure anatase $Ti_{21}O_{30}$, C-doped at substitutional position and C-doped at interstial position of anatase $Ti_{21}O_{30}$ calculated by DFT.





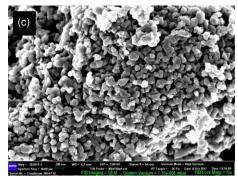


Fig. 6 FESEM images of (a) commercial TiO₂, (b) C/TiO₂-300, and (c) C/TiO₂-700 composites.

Fig. 5 (a) shows the XRD pattern of commercial TiO2 anatase. It was observed that the sharp features of the XRD pattern is consistent with the anatase phase. Fig. 5 (b) to (f) shows the effect of calcination temperatures to the phase structures of C/TiO2. From the results, it can be seen that the calcination temperature strongly influenced the phase composition and crystallinity of the TiO2. As shown in Fig. 5, the C/TiO₂ photocatalyst was in the anatase phase with calcination temperature of 300 to 500 °C (JCPDS No. 21-1272), with the diffraction peaks observed at 20 values of 25.3° and 48°. As the calcination temperature increased to 600 °C, the phase transformed to rutile phase with the composition of 43.45%. Upon increasing the calcination temperature to 700 °C, the anatase phase was mostly transformed into highly organized rutile phase by reconstruction of the TiO₆ octahedral (Hanaor and Sorrell, 2011). The diffraction peaks located at 2θ values of 27.4° , 36.1° , 41.2° , 54.3° and 56.6° were attributed to the rutile phase of TiO2 (JCPDS No. 21-1276). The smallest crystallite sizes are obtained from C/TiO2-300 and it increased from 5.52 to 28.75 nm, when the calcination temperature increased to 700 °C, as shown in Table 1. As the calcination temperature increase, the former crystallites also increased, which can be ascribed to the thermally promoted crystalline growth.

The FESEM image of the commercial TiO₂ is presented in Fig. 6 (a). It shows that the morphology of the commercial TiO₂ is spherical to irregular shapes. Fig. 6 (b) and (c) show the FESEM images of the C/TiO₂ at calcination temperature of 300 and 700 °C, respectively. At 300 °C, FESEM image shows that the C/TiO₂ particles were non-homogeneous and agglomerated. The formation of spherical C/TiO₂ increased and became more defined as the calcination temperature increased to 700 °C.

The optical response of the C/TiO₂ and its correlation with the increasing calcination temperature was studied by DR UV-Vis spectroscopy. The UV-Vis DR spectra in the axis of Kubelka-Munk of C/TiO₂ photocatalyst calcined at 300 to 700 °C and for commercial TiO₂ are shown in Fig. 7. The figure shows a similar pattern between the C/TiO₂ and commercial TiO₂ at about 250 and 320 nm. The absorption in the range of 250 nm is associated to a charge transfer in tetrahedral-coordinated Ti between O²⁻ and the central Ti(IV) atom. The second absorption peak at 320 nm is assigned to the charge transfer in octahedral-coordinated Ti (Astorino *et al.*, 1995, Zecchina *et al.*, 1996, Nur, 2006). The absorption edges of the C/TiO₂ were remarkably shifted to higher wavelength of 360 nm when the calcination temperature increased, implying the decrease in the band gap energies from 3.54 to 3.13 eV (refer Table 1).

Fig. 8 shows the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of C/TiO₂ and commercial TiO₂. Commercial TiO₂ exhibited the Type III isotherm, characteristics of a non-porous or macroporous solid. As shown in the isotherm, the hysteresis loop in the region of P/P_0 from 0.8 to 1.0 indicates that a sorption of porous structure and an interparticles porosity among neighbouring particles (Liu *et al.*, 2008). C/TiO₂ calcined at 300 to 600 ° showed Type IV isotherm with a H2 hysteresis loop, characteristics of a mesoporous solid, which differs from that of commercial TiO₂. At the highest calcination temperature of 700 °C, the isotherm for C/TiO₂ was identified as Type III isotherm, similar to that of commercial TiO₂. The Barret-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) pore size distribution of C/TiO₂ and commercial TiO₂ are illustrated in

Fig. 9. The pore size distribution of C/TiO₂-700 and commercial TiO₂ confirmed their non-porous structures. The narrow pore size distribution curves imply that C/TiO₂ calcined at 300 to 600 °C have uniform pores in the mesopore region. The values of BET surface area, pore volume and pore diameter are presented in Table 1. It is shown that the surface area of C/TiO₂ decreased as the calcination temperature increased, from 150 to 7 $\rm m^2/g$. On the other hand, when the calcination temperature increased from 300 to 600 °C, the cumulative pore volume and pore diameter of the C/TiO₂ were reduced and enlarged, respectively. The pore volume and pore diameter for C/TiO₂ composite for 700 °C and commercial TiO₂ were not available due to their non-porous structure.

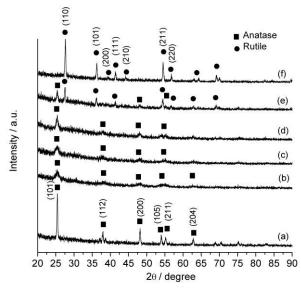


Fig. 5 XRD patterns of (a) commercial TiO₂, (b) C/TiO₂-300, (c) C/TiO₂-400, (d) C/TiO₂-500, (e) C/TiO₂-600 and (f) C/TiO₂-700

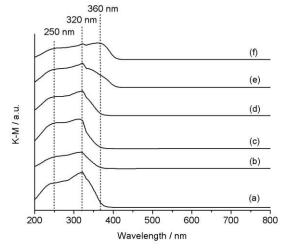


Fig. 7 DR UV-Vis spectra for (a) commercial TiO_2 , (b) C/TiO_2 -300, (b) C/TiO_2 -400, (b) C/TiO_2 -500, (b) C/TiO_2 -600, (b) C/TiO_2 -700.

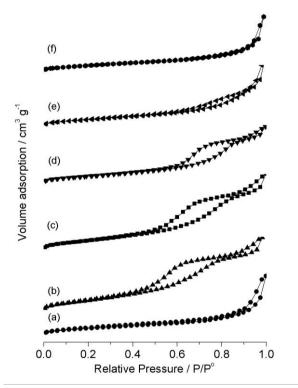


Fig. 8 Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of (a) commercial TiO_2 and C/TiO_2 samples at different calcination temperature (b) 300, (c) 400, (d) 500, (e) 600, and (f) 700 °C.

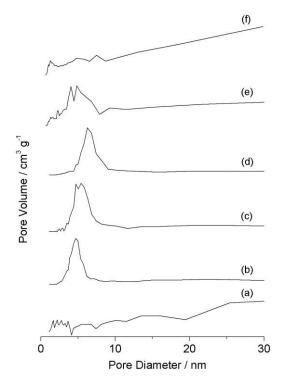


Fig. 9 Pore size distribution curve obtained from the adsorption branch of the isotherm of (a) commercial TiO_2 and (b) C/TiO_2 at different calcination temperature (b) 300, (c) 400, (d) 500, (e) 600, and (f) 700 °C

Evaluation of photocatalytic activity

The photocatalytic activity of C/TiO₂ composites were tested out in the photocatalytic oxidation of styrene under visible light irradiation. Analysis from gas chromatography indicated that benzaldehyde was the main product, alongside with styrene oxide as the minor product. The trend of photocatalytic activity in the form of yield of products' concentration is displayed in Fig. 8. As comparison, the blank experiment produced very low amount of products, as it is difficult to oxidize styrene in the absence of catalyst. However, the photo-

oxidation of styrene by C/TiO_2 photocatalysts and commercial TiO_2 were significantly enhanced due to the presence of self-doped C that has been incorporated in the TiO_2 's lattice which has been proven by the FTIR, XPS and EDX analyses. The Ti–C and C–O bonds from the XPS results show the presence of interstitial C-doping as well as C substitution by replacing oxygen or Ti atoms in the TiO_2 lattice. The self-doped C induced the sub band in the band gap of TiO_2 and hence, significantly enhanced the photocatalytic activity under visible light irradiation. Additionally, PL spectra also shows the presence of defect states. Hence, these characteristics allow C/TiO_2 to be an active photocatalyst under the irradiation of visible light.

The highest total concentration of products (benzaldehyde and styrene oxide) was achieved by the C/TiO2 photocatalyst calcined at 400 and 300 °C with the concentration of 1.1 mmol and 1.0 mmol, respectively. However, when the calcination temperature of C/TiO₂ further increased to 500 - 700 °C, the yield of the products decreased. The high yield of products achieved by C/TiO2-300 °C and C/TiO2-400 °C could be due to the higher C content, higher surface area, and the anatase phase crystallinity. The crystal phase and crystallinity are among the most important factors for the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂, where anatase phase is considered as the most active form of TiO₂, while rutile and amorphous TiO₂ are believed to be relatively inactive (Lettmann et al., 2001). Apart from that, it is known that large surface area helps to improve the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂. Surface area is correlated to the number of effective active sites, where larger surface area means more active sites, on which target molecules and intermediate products can be adsorbed. To relate the low yield of products by commercial TiO2 to those of synthesized C/TiO2 photocatalysts is impractical because the synthesis method of the commercial TiO2 is unknown and it might be different from the synthesis steps of C/TiO₂ photocatalyst.

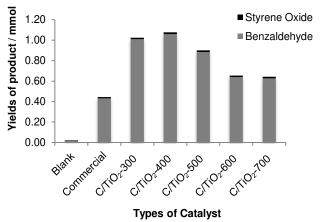


Fig. 8 Amount of products in the photo-oxidation of styrene with hydrogen peroxide under the irradiation of visible light for blank, commercial TiO_2 and the prepared C-self doped TiO_2 calcined at different temperatures, as the photocatalysts.

CONCLUSION

In this study, C self-doped TiO₂ (C/TiO₂) was synthesized using a simple sol-gel method by using titanium isopropoxide, ethanol and deionized water. Calcination temperatures of the C/TiO₂ photocatalyst affected the crystallinity, phase, morphology, surface area, porosity, crystallite size and amount of carbon present. The C/TiO₂ photocatalyst was found to be effective in oxidizing styrene under visible light irradiation due to the presence of self-doped C in the TiO₂'s lattice. The self-doped C induced the sub band gap in the TiO₂ and thus enhanced the photo-oxidation under visible light irradiation. C/TiO₂-300 °C and C/TiO₂-400 °C showed high yield of products due to the higher C content, higher surface area and the anatase phase. Therefore, it is proven that TiO₂ synthesized without any external carbon source is also active for visible light photocatalytic reactions due to the presence of self-doped C.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was financially supported by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Information, Malaysia under Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (R.J130000.7826.4F923) and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia under the Research University Grant and Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia (Vot No. 4L825 and Q.J130000.2526.18H69). One of the authors (Siti Hajar Alias) would also like to thank the Universiti Teknologi MARA Malaysia and Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia for financial support under SLAB/SLAI programme. The authors gratefully acknowlege Prof. Dr. Hadi Nur for the fruitful discussions.

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