



Difference in performance and mechanism for methylene blue when TiO₂ nanoparticles are converted to nanotubes



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ABSTRACT

There are few reports on the diversification in adsorption and photo-catalysis caused by morphological changes. In this study, TiO₂ nanotubes (TiO₂ NTs) were synthesized by alkaline hydro-thermal method using commercial TiO₂ nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) as raw materials. When TiO₂ nanoparticles are converted to nanotubes, the difference in adsorption and photocatalytic performance was analyzed using methylene blue (MB) as a model pollutant. The results showed that TiO₂ NPs exhibited low adsorption capacity and greater photocatalytic activity for MB. In contrast, TiO₂ NTs showed dual functions of adsorption and photo-catalysis. It exhibited better adsorption performance for MB and the maximum uptake was 102.41 mg/g. However, the photo-catalytic activity changed because the hydro-thermal method altered the crystal structure and increased the gap energy of TiO₂ NTs, which led to the partial reduction of photo-catalytic activity compared to TiO₂ NPs. The dominating free radicals were ·OH, followed by ·O₂ in the process of MB photodegradation by TiO₂ NPs while ·OH and ·O₂ were main radicals in the process of MB photodegradation by TiO₂ NTs. Moreover, 99% MB was degraded in 24 min via adsorption and photo-catalysis synergy under the following optimal conditions: TiO₂ NTs dose = 6 mg, pH = 9, and light intensity = 19 A. Compared with other photo-catalysts reported, TiO₂ NTs exhibited a superior performance through adsorption and photo-catalysis synergy with advantages of faster degradation, less catalyst dose and high efficiency. This work hopes to provide reference for the design and synthesis of materials with dual functions of adsorption and photo-catalysis.

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1. Introduction

For the past few years, the combination of adsorption with photo-catalysis has been reported to effectively remove organic pollutants (Chen et al., 2020a; Yu et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2020; He et al., 2020). Pollutants can be attached to a material through adsorption, and are then degraded through the photo-catalytic process, which not only solves the problem of adsorption saturation, but also solves the difficulty of recycling of photo-catalysis (Sheng et al., 2019). The basis of adsorption-photo-catalysis technology is a material; moreover, the method of constructing an adsorption-catalytic dual-functional material is the key to improve efficiency of removal of contaminants (Chen et al., 2020b).

TiO₂ is not only widely used in photo-catalytic processes because of its stability, non-toxicity, and low cost but also because it is one of the most commercially promising photo-catalytic materials (Ye et al., 2020). Currently, there are increasing concerns related to TiO₂-based materials with dual functions of adsorption and photo catalysis (Gu et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019; Bian et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2021). The commonalities of these materials are: 1) they are all composite materials, and the adsorption-photocatalysis synergy were achieved by use of the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ and the adsorption performance of other materials; 2) the drawbacks associated with them such as complex preparation conditions, energy-consuming preparation, and presence of metallic components limit their large-scale industrial applications. In the context of this technology, there is an urgent need for single materials that are easy to prepare in large quantities with minimal use of toxic substances, that are efficient to use and recover to be used again.

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Compared with TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs), the morphology and specific surface area of TiO₂ (NTs) are easier to control and the stability of TiO₂ NPs is better, so the dual functions of adsorption-photo-catalysis are easier to achieve in the case of TiO₂ NTs than in the case of TiO₂ NPs. Mostly TiO₂ NTs are synthesized using commercially TiO₂ NPs by many researchers (Cheng et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2019; Pang and Abdullah, 2012). They focus on the preparation of TiO₂ NTs and explored the influence of various factors on their morphology and structure. For instance, Sandoval et al. (2017) synthesized TiO₂ NTs and explored effects of different sodium content on the removal of methylene blue by combined adsorption and photocatalysis. Jiang et al. (2012) evaluated the effect of calcination temperature on the adsorption and photocatalytic activity of hydrothermally synthesized TiO₂ NTs. Zulfiqar et al. (2020) found that organic solvent played an important role on the adsorption and photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ nanotubes. However, few studies have linked TiO₂ NTs with TiO₂ nanoparticles precursor to explore the changes in adsorption and photo-catalysis performance when their morphologies are changed.

In this study, the adsorption and photo-catalysis performance and mechanism of TiO₂ NPs and NTs were investigated. To facilitate the investigation of the mechanisms, TiO₂ NPs were simply transformed via an alkaline hydro-thermal method at certain closed pressure, which altered the morphology and properties of the material (i.e., TiO₂ NPs). Morphologies and properties of obtained TiO₂ NTs were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, and the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method. The performance difference between TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs was investigated through adsorption and photo-catalysis experiments using methylene blue (MB) as a target pollutant. This study revealed the influence of changes in morphology and crystalline form on the adsorption and photo-catalysis performance of TiO₂ through comparative studies, and provided a reference for the development and design of materials with high adsorption and high photo-catalysis performance.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

TiO₂ NPs were purchased from J&K Scientific Ltd. (25–50 nm, average surface area 19.6 m²/g). MB was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and was used as a target pollutant. NaOH and HCl were purchased from Macklin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd. All chemicals and reagents used in this study were of analytical grade or relatively greater purity. The water (ultrapure water, 18.2 MΩ cm) used in all experiments was prepared using a Milli-QSP reagent water system (Millipore, Bedford, MA).

2.2. Preparation of protonated TiO₂ NTs

TiO₂ NTs were prepared via the alkaline hydro-thermal method (Zhao et al., 2019). First, 3 g of anatase-phase TiO₂ NPs powder was dispersed in 100 mL of a 10 M NaOH solution and vigorously stirred for 24 h. Subsequently, the mixture was autoclaved at 150 °C for 24 h. The obtained white product was washed with DI water until the supernatant pH became neutral and then soaked in a 0.5 M hydrochloric solution for 5 h. Interlayer sodium ions were anticipated to be exchanged for protons during the soaking of the nanotubes in the acidic solution. Afterward, the protonated TiO₂ NTs were again washed to pH 7 with DI water. Finally, the products were dried at 90 °C.

2.3. Characterization

TEM images were evaluated using FEI Tecnai G2 F20 field-emission transmission electron microscope (USA) operating at 200 kV. The surface composition of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs was determined by XPS (ESCALAB 250Xi, Thermo Scientific, UK). To verify the chemical composition of the samples (TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs before and after adsorbed or catalyzed MB), FTIR spectroscopy was conducted using a Thermo Fisher Nicolet IS5 infrared spectrometer (USA) in the wavelength range of 400 cm⁻¹ to 4000 cm⁻¹ at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹; moreover, 64 scans were recorded for the background and samples. The BET surface area was measured by nitrogen adsorption at -196.15 °C and nitrogen desorption at 200 °C for 12 h. UV–visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) was performed using UV spectrophotometer (UV2700, Shimadzu, Japan). Photo-luminescence (PL) spectra of TiO₂ NTs or TiO₂ NPs were collected using an Edinburgh FLSP 920 fluorescence spectrometer equipped with a 900 W xenon lamp; moreover, these PL spectra were collected in the wavelength range of 400–700 nm at a step size of 0.5 nm and a temperature of 27.40 °C.

2.4. Photo-electrochemical measurements

Photo-electrochemical measurements were performed using a photoelectric catalytic testing system (CHI760E) with a three-electrode system, which consisted of a working electrode, counter electrode, and reference electrode. Samples of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs, coated on indium tin oxide (ITO) glass were used as working electrodes. A platinum electrode and silver chloride electrode were used as the counter electrode and reference electrode, respectively. A 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution worked as the electrolyte. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed and its frequency ranged from 100 kHz to 1 Hz with an amplitude of the sinusoidal wave of 5 V. Additionally, to separate photo-generated electron–hole pairs, the photocurrent experiment was conducted under the same conditions as those used during the EIS experiment. The initial voltage was changed to 0.248 V. A UV light source (i.e., a 300 W xenon lamp with a visible light cut-off of λ > 420 nm) was located at a distance of 15 cm from the photo-electrochemical cell.

2.5. Experiments

2.5.1. Conditional optimization of TiO₂ NTs under simultaneous photo-catalysis–adsorption experiment

A simultaneous photo-catalysis–adsorption experiment was conducted to optimize conditions and assess efficiencies of removal of pollutants from actual sewage treatment plants. The simultaneous photo-catalysis–adsorption system was employed under a 300 W xenon lamp (with a visible light cut-off of λ > 420 nm) placed at a distance of 15 cm. According to the single variable method, while maintaining the concentration of MB at 10 mg/L, one of the following factors was changed to measure the removal efficiency of MB: TiO₂ NT dosage (4, 6, and 8 mg), initial pH (3–11), and current intensity (15, 17, and 19 A (A)). Typically, during irradiation, 3 mL of the sample was withdrawn at specific time intervals and immediately centrifuged; subsequently, the resultant supernatant was analyzed at a wavelength of 665 nm by a UV–vis light spectrophotometer.

To evaluate stabilities of TiO₂ NTs, four reusability experiments were conducted. After the adsorption and photo-degradation of MB by TiO₂ NTs under optimum conditions, TiO₂ NTs were collected and washed with ultrapure water; subsequently, the washed TiO₂ NTs were dried at 65 °C. Finally, dried TiO₂ NTs were reused under

the same conditions.

2.5.2. Evaluation of adsorption and catalysis performance of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs via dark adsorption and photo-catalysis experiment

MB was used as a probe dye to evaluate the adsorption and catalysis capabilities of TiO₂ NPs or TiO₂ NTs. An adsorption experiment was implemented under dark conditions. Typically, in this experiment, TiO₂ NPs or TiO₂ NTs (6 mg) were dispersed into 10 mg/L of MB aqueous solutions with pH values of 9 (adjusted by 0.1 mol/L NaOH or HCl solution). Afterward, 3 mL of the sample was taken at given intervals and immediately centrifuged to discard the sediment. Subsequently, the resultant supernatant was analyzed by a UV–vis light spectrophotometer.

A photo-catalysis experiment was carried out under a 300 W xenon lamp (with a visible light cut-off of $\lambda > 420$ nm) located at a distance of 15 cm. The photocurrent was 19 A, which represented the light intensity in this experiment. Before the photocatalytic experiment, conditions for the dark adsorption experiment were the same as those for the adsorption experiment and the solution was magnetically stirred for 30 min to reach adsorption–desorption equilibrium and then turning on the light to carry out photocatalytic experiment. The sample was removed within a given period and measured at 665 nm by UV–vis light Spectrophotometer.

Furthermore, in order to determine the main active species in TiO₂ NPs or TiO₂ NTs, radical-trapping experiments were conducted under the light. Glycerol, p-benzoquinone (BQ), and ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid tetrasodium salt (EDTA-2Na) were used as scavengers of hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$), superoxide radicals ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$), and holes (h^+), respectively.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterizations

3.1.1. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

In the process of transformation of TiO₂ NPs to TiO₂ NTs, the sheet folding mechanism was assumed (By Tomoko Kasuga et al., 1999; Wang G Q H et al., 2002; Sun and Li, 2003). As shown in Fig. 1, firstly, the three-dimensional TiO₂ NPs was transformed to two-dimensional (2D) lamellar products with a mass of Ti–O–Na bonds after alkali treatment. Then the product was washed by water and hydrochloric solution to form new Ti–O–H bonds instead of old Ti–O–Na bonds. Finally, the tubular structure was formed by bending and rolling further of sheet due to residual electrostatic repulsion of Ti–O–Na bonds. Morphologies and microstructures of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs prior to and after adsorption and photo-catalysis of MB were.

Observed by TEM; the corresponding morphologies and microstructures are shown through TEM images (Fig. 2). The diameter of TiO₂ NPs is in the range of 25–50 nm (Fig. 2a). The measured lattice distance of 0.24 nm, which possibly corresponds to the (021) plane of anatase TiO₂ is shown (Fig. 2b). This plane is not observed in the TEM image of TiO₂ NTs (Fig. 2d) (Pang and Abdullah, 2012). In

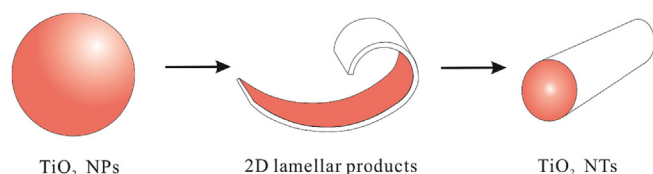


Fig. 1. The transformation diagram from TiO₂ NPs to TiO₂ NTs.

addition, TiO₂ NTs exhibit irregular arrangement. Besides, the TiO₂ NTs possess hollow and uniform tubular structures, outer and inner diameters of which are in the range of 8–9 nm and 5–6 nm, respectively (Fig. 2c and d). These TEM results indicate that TiO₂ was successfully transformed from nanoparticles to nanotubes. Fig. 2(e, g) and 2(f, h) will be discussed in sections 3.3.2 and 3.4.1, respectively.

3.1.2. XPS

The wide difference between TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs was identified via XPS (Fig. 2i). The full XPS spectrum of TiO₂ NTs was compared with that of TiO₂ NPs. It was found that the typical four peaks of Ti3p, C1s, O1s, and Ti2p in the spectra of TiO₂ NTs were consistent with those of TiO₂ NPs. The XRD analysis results obtained in our previous study (Zhao et al., 2019) have shown that the crystal forms of TiO₂ NTs are inconsistent with those of TiO₂ NPs. Moreover, the typical anatase phase is found in TiO₂ NPs, and sodium hexatite is the primary phase in TiO₂ NTs (Zhao et al., 2019). A possible reason is that dissolution of TiO₂ NPs breaks the Ti–O–Ti bonds and generates free Ti ions to react with NaOH, forming Na₂Ti₆O₁₃ (Zhao et al., 2019); this leads to a change in the crystal structure of TiO₂. In this study, compared with TiO₂ NPs, the XPS spectrum of TiO₂ NTs exhibited two novel peaks at the binding energy positions of 495.0 eV and 1070.0 eV for TiC 2p_{3/2} and Na (Fig. 2i), respectively, which can be ascribed to the formation of Ti–C bonds and the retention of Na element caused by the preparation of TiO₂ NTs via the alkaline hydrothermal method.

To further understand the chemical states of Ti2p, C 1s, O 1s, the high-resolution XPS spectra of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs (Figure S1(a–c) and S2(a–c)) were analyzed. Binding energies of Ti in case of TiO₂ NTs (458.4, 464.2 eV) and TiO₂ NPs (458.5, 464.2 eV) were assigned to 2p_{3/2} and 3p_{1/2}, respectively, revealing the existence of Ti in the form of Ti⁴⁺ (Wang et al., 2009, 2018, 2020). The Ti 2p intensity of TiO₂ NTs was apparently greater than that of TiO₂ NPs, which indicated the presence of relatively more Ti⁴⁺ in TiO₂ NTs. Moreover, Ti2p_{3/2} of TiO₂ NTs was shifted by approximately 0.11eV compared to that of TiO₂ NPs, which manifests that the electron cloud density was enhanced. Further, the O1s spectrum was deconvoluted into three peaks. The peaks corresponding to the Ti–O bond was observed at 529.7 eV and 529.9 eV in the high-resolution O1s spectra of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs, respectively (Chen et al., 2020c; Guo et al., 2020). The peak at 531.7 eV was attributed to the –OH, while the peak at 532 eV was ascribed to the surface adsorbed hydroxyl.

Groups in the TiO₂ NPs (Hou et al., 2019; Santhi et al., 2020). Besides, the peak at 530.5 eV was ascribed to Ti₂O₃ in TiO₂ NTs (Alves et al., 2017). The mechanism of MB adsorbed on TiO₂ surface and the stability of TiO₂ after MB photo-catalysis will be discussed in section 3.3.2 and 3.4.1, respectively.

3.1.3. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy

The molecular structure and chemical composition of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs before and after the adsorption–photo-catalysis of MB were determined through FTIR spectroscopy; the FTIR spectroscopy results are displayed (Fig. 3a). The band extending from 400 to 700 cm^{−1} was attributed to the two characteristic peaks of stretching vibrations of Ti–O and Ti–O–Ti bonds (Zhao et al., 2019; Kadam et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2019). The peak corresponding to the Ti–O bonds in TiO₂ NTs was shifted to a relatively low wavelength and a peak was absent in the FTIR spectrum of TiO₂ NTs compared to that of TiO₂ NPs, which possibly indicated a change in the crystal structure of TiO₂. The absorption bands at approximately 1629 and 3319 cm^{−1} belonged to the stretching vibrations of –OH groups, which indicated the adsorption of H₂O, –OH groups on the surface of TiO₂ NTs (Li et al.,

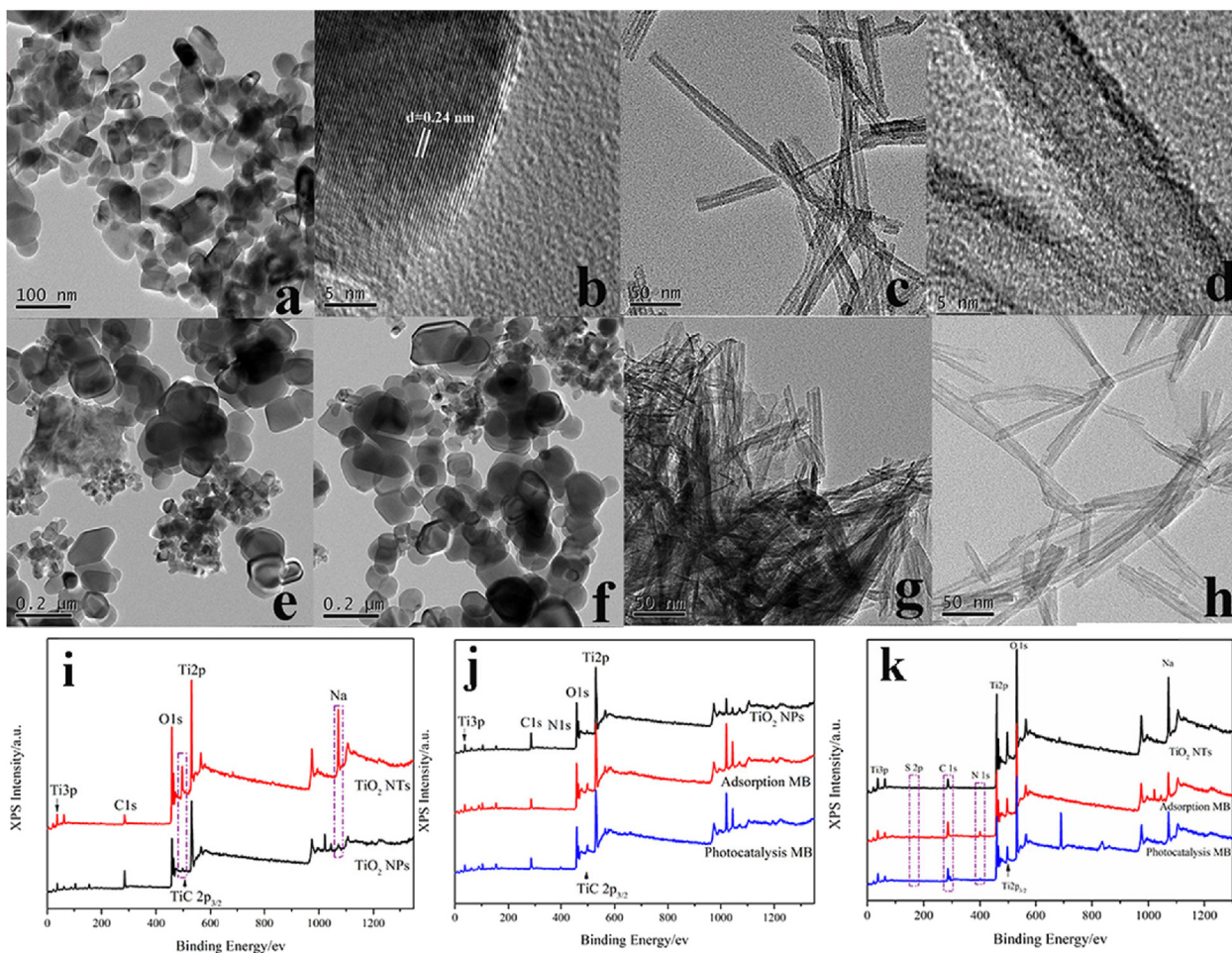


Fig. 2. TEM images of TiO₂ NPs(a,b), TiO₂ NTs(c,d), TiO₂ NPs(e) and TiO₂ NTs(g) after MB adsorption, TiO₂ NPs(f) and TiO₂ NTs(h) after MB photo-catalysis; Full XPS spectrum of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs(i), TiO₂ NPs(j) and TiO₂ NTs(k) after adsorption and photo-catalysis MB, respectively.

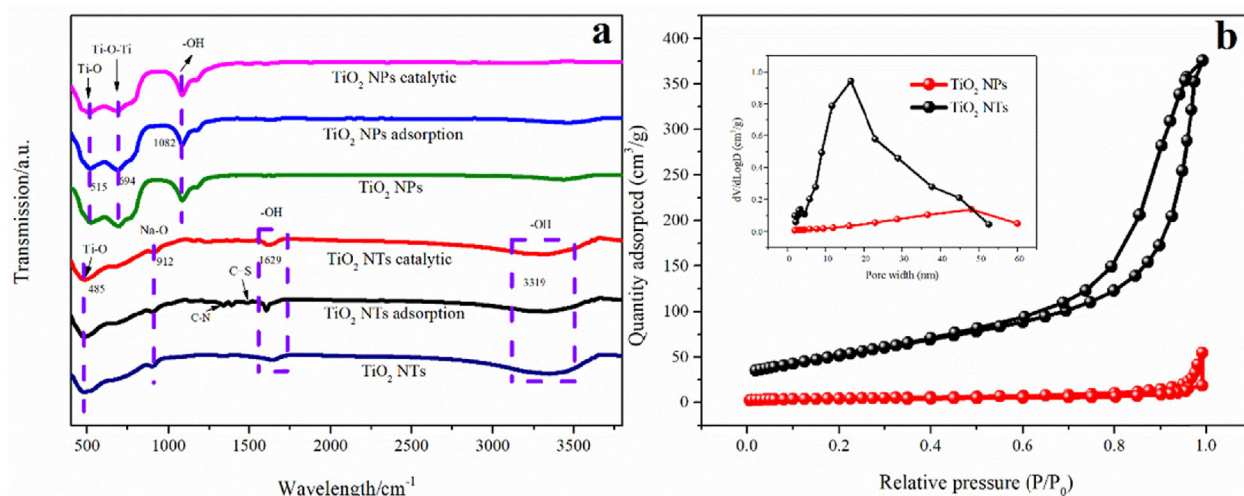


Fig. 3. FTIR spectrum of before and after adsorption and photo-catalysis MB by TiO₂ NPs, TiO₂ NTs, respectively(a), Nitrogen-desorption isotherms of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs, and the inset is the distribution of pore diameter(b).

2020; Shao et al., 2015). A strong absorption peak at 912 cm⁻¹ was attributed to the Na–O bonds, which were formed because of the preparation of TiO₂ NTs by the alkaline hydrothermal method. In

the spectra of TiO₂ NPs, the peak at 1082 cm⁻¹ was attributed to –OH vibrations (Seo et al., 2020).

3.1.4. Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method

The N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms and Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) pore-size distribution plots are shown (Fig. 3b). Based on International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) classification, isotherms of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs were in accordance with their classification as type IV, which indicated that TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs had mesoporous structures. At lower relative pressures, monolayer adsorption was observed in the case of both TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs. Hysteresis loops of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs appeared at relatively higher pressure, which indicated that capillary agglomeration occurred in mesopores (Al-Hajji et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the shape of the hysteresis loop of TiO₂ NPs was narrower than that of TiO₂ NTs, which suggested that the percentage of mesopores present in the structure of TiO₂ NPs was less than that present in the structure of TiO₂ NTs. The mesopore diameter of TiO₂ NTs was in the range of 15–17 nm (Fig. 3b inset). The pore volume of TiO₂ NTs was 0.58 cm³/g. The surface area (191.56 m²/g) of TiO₂ NTs was 12.66 times the surface area of TiO₂ NPs (15.13 m²/g). Further, mean pore diameter of TiO₂ NTs (10.95 nm) was less than that of TiO₂ NPs (21.43 nm). Consequently, the difference in surface areas between TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs was attributed to mesoporous walls and tube openings of TiO₂ NTs (Liu et al., 2020), which might be the reason to improve the adsorption capability of TiO₂ NTs.

3.2. Conditional optimization

The simultaneous photo-catalysis–adsorption experiment was employed by turning.

On the UV light while adding titanium dioxide. To study adsorption–catalysis synergistic effect of TiO₂ NTs, the concentration of the target pollutant (MB) was maintained at 10 mg/L; moreover, one of the following factors was simultaneously changed: TiO₂ NTs dose, pH, and photocurrent intensity. In addition, other conditions remained unchanged. The absorbance after the adsorption and catalysis of MB was measured, and the role of different factors in the adsorption–catalytic degradation of MB by TiO₂ NTs was investigated.

3.2.1. Amounts of TiO₂ NTs

The amount of TiO₂ NTs has a considerable effect on the removal efficiency; therefore, the effect of different dose of TiO₂ NTs (4, 6, and 8 mg) was investigated. A higher removal rate was obtained with an increase in the amount of TiO₂ NTs (Fig. 4a). On the one hand, the characterization of N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms showed that TiO₂ NTs had mesoporous structures. The mesoporous structure of TiO₂ NTs may provide adsorption sites, which promoted the adsorption of MB. Alternatively, according to the XPS characterization of TiO₂ NTs, it found the retention of Na element. Due to cation exchange, Na titanate nanotubes promote adsorption of MB (Sandoval et al., 2017), in order that MB is adsorbed relatively more easily on the surface of TiO₂ NTs. When the degradation time was 20 min, almost the same proportion of MB was adsorbed regardless of whether the dose was 6 or 8 mg. To reduce industrial costs and save resources, a 6 mg dose of TiO₂ NTs was used in further experiments.

3.2.2. pH values

The MB removal efficiency of TiO₂ NTs at pH values in the range of 3–11 was determined. The results presented in Fig. 4b indicate that as the pH increases, the removal rate increases. This might be related to the isoelectric point of TiO₂ NTs. When the pH of the solution is higher than the isoelectric point of TiO₂ NTs (point of zero charge (PZC) = 3.2), a negative charge exists on the surface of TiO₂ NTs. The higher the pH, the stronger the electrostatic

adsorption and thus more the amount of MB adsorbed. Further, more the amount of MB adsorbed, the higher the removal efficiency. When pH = 9, the removal rate is the highest; therefore, pH 9 is the optimal pH.

3.2.3. Photo-current intensity

Photo-current intensity is one of the important factors which affects photo-catalysis. Efficiency of removal of MB by TiO₂ NTs under different photo-current intensities was investigated (Fig. 4c). Efficiency of removal was directly proportional to intensity of light. This is because the greater intensity of photo-current generates easier electron transitions, which results in formation of relatively more electron–hole pairs; furthermore, the more electron–hole pairs, the better the catalytic performance. When the photo-current intensity was 19 A, the removal efficiency of MB was greatest; therefore, a photo-current intensity of 19 A was selected for subsequent experiments.

Based on the results of conditional optimization, optimal conditions were as follows: TiO₂ NT dose = 6 mg, pH = 9, and light intensity = 19 A. Notably, the removal efficiency of TiO₂ NTs was higher than the removal efficiencies of other catalysts (see Table 1). This result demonstrates that TiO₂ NTs have the advantages of low dose, high degradation efficiency and relatively short degradation time.

3.2.4. Reusability studies

Reusability is an important factor to verify the stability and recyclability of materials. In this study, four consecutive cycles were conducted using the same conditions. TiO₂ NTs retained 83.8% of adsorption–photo-catalysis activity, which indicated that its removal efficiency did not decrease significantly (Fig. S3). Thus, it was demonstrated that TiO₂ NTs with outstanding recyclability could be used repeatedly.

3.3. Adsorptive performance of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs

3.3.1. Adsorption kinetics of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs

Adsorption plays an important role in the removal organic pollutants. The adsorption performances of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs are shown (Fig. 4d). For TiO₂ NTs, 33.89% of MB was quickly adsorbed within 2 min and the maximum adsorption capacity (q_e) of 102.41 mg/g was reached in approximately 30 min. TiO₂ NPs exhibited relatively low MB adsorption (1.6 mg/g) within 30 min.

To evaluate the rate of adsorption by TiO₂ NTs, kinetic models of pseudo–first–order and pseudo–second–order rates were determined (Equations (1) and (2)).

$$\log(q_e - q_t) = \log(q_e) - \left(\frac{k_1}{2.303}\right) \cdot t \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e} \cdot t \quad (2)$$

where: k_1 and k_2 are the rate constants of adsorption (min^{-1} and $\text{g} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, respectively), q_t is the amount of MB adsorbed by TiO₂ NTs at a specific time ($\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$), q_e is equilibrium adsorption amount ($\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$).

Adsorption kinetics revealed that the coefficient of determination (R^2 up to 0.9941) of the pseudo-second-order kinetic model was greater than that of the pseudo-first-order kinetic model (R^2 up to 0.9638), which indicated that the computed and experimental values of q_e were almost consistent with each other (Fig. 4e–f). Thus, it can be easily inferred that the pseudo-second-order kinetic model is more appropriate to describe the

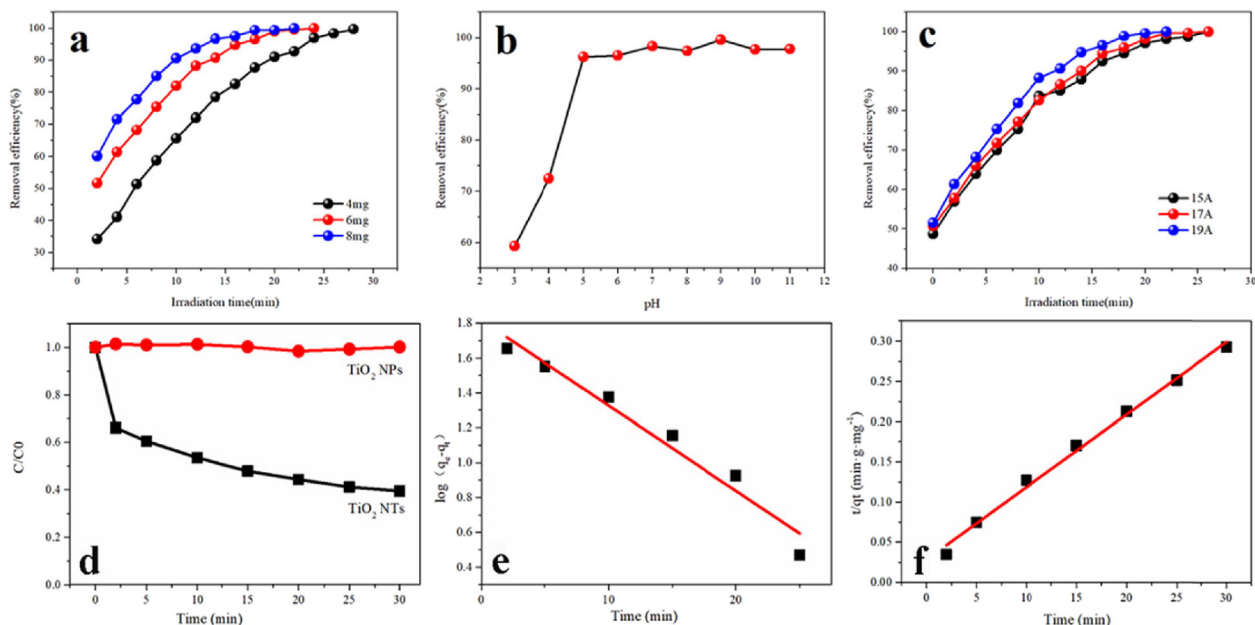


Fig. 4. Impact factors affecting removal efficiency including TiO₂ NTs dose (a), pH value (b), and photocurrent intensity (c); Adsorption performances of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs (d); The pseudo-first-order kinetic curves (e) and pseudo-second-order kinetic curves (f) of TiO₂ NTs.

Table 1

Comparison of TiO₂ NTs with other photo-catalysts.

Materials	Photo-catalyst dose (mg)	Target pollutant: MB		Catalyst:MB (mg/mg)	Light source	Degradation time (min)	Removal efficiency (%)	Ref.
		Concentration (mg/L)	Volume (mL)					
TiO ₂ /rGO-8/500	160	10	200	80:1	UV	120	100	Kusiak-Nejman et al. (2019)
10 wt% WO ₃ /TiO ₂	30	10	50	60:1	UV	180	99	El-Yazeed and Ahmed (2019)
TiO ₂ -MoS ₂ (wt% = 5:7)	50	50	200	5:1	UV	40	80	Ibukun et al. (2019)
SnO ₂ (600 °C)	10	10	100	10:1	UV	180	90.70	Sadeghzadeh-Attar (2018)
ZnO/NiFe ₂ O ₄ NPs	75	16	50	375:4	UV	70	>95	Adeleke et al. (2018)
SnO ₂ NPs (170 °C)	20	10	70	200:7	UV	30	100	Tammina et al. (2018)
TiCr10	100	3	100	625:2	UV	60	>90	Ahmed et al. (2017)
TiFe7	100	3	100	625:2	UV	60	>95	Ahmed et al. (2013)
DTC-5.0	10	8	100	25:1	UV	180	90	Nguyen-Phan and Shin (2011)
La (0.5%)-Eu (1.0%)/TiO ₂ calcined 600 °C	200	40	50	100:1	UV	120	100	Shi et al. (2011)
NiO catalyst	100	10	100	100:1	UV	120	>45	Wan et al. (2013)
ZRGO80	200	10	200	100:1	UV	20	>90	Qin et al. (2017)
TiO ₂ -HTaWO ₆ nanocomposite	20	20	100	10:1	UV	105	>85	Lin et al. (2012)
3 mol% WO ₃ /ZnWO ₄	100	30	100	100:3	UV	480	55.54	Keereeta et al. (2015)
Cu@CuSO ₄ /TiO ₂	20	5	150	80:3	UV	60	94	Zarghami et al. (2015)
ZnO 47.0 nm	20	10	200	10:1	UV	60	70	Mekasuwandumrong et al. (2010)
rGO-CdO	50	3	50	1000:1	UV	110	80	Kumar et al. (2016)
CdS/CNT-TiO ₂ composite	10	3	50	200:3	UV	150	98.6	Zhu et al. (2012)
TiO ₂ submicrosphere	250	20	500	25:1	UV	90	>95	Zhang et al. (2009)
Sm ³⁺ -BiPO ₄	125	10	250	50:1	UV	50	97	Nithya et al. (2019)
TiO ₂ NTs	6	10	100	6:1	UV	24	99	This work

adsorption behavior of MB on TiO₂ NTs.

3.3.2. Mechanisms of adsorption of MB

The surface topography and elemental composition of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs after the adsorption of MB as determined by TEM, XPS and FTIR spectroscopy.

After TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs adsorbed MB, the changes in their morphologies were different. The morphology of TiO₂ NPs did not

change significantly after adsorption of MB, which suggested that TiO₂ NPs had poor adsorption capacity for MB (Fig. 2e). However, the disappearance of partial hollow structure indicated that the surface of TiO₂ NTs might have been occupied by MB (Fig. 2g). Thus, it can be speculated that TiO₂ NTs are possibly more attractive toward MB compared with TiO₂ NPs. There were no distinct differences in Ti3p, C1s, O1s and Ti2p peaks in the XPS spectra of TiO₂ NPs before and after MB adsorption (Fig. 2j and S1 (d-f), which

indicated that there was no interaction between TiO₂ NPs and MB, which was consistent with the experimental results. However, a completely different result was obtained in the case of TiO₂ NTs after MB adsorption. In the spectrum of the TiO₂ NTs after MB adsorption, S2p was observed at 164.0 eV; at the same time, intensities of C1s and N1s peaks were stronger compared with those of C1s and N1s peaks before adsorption of MB (Fig. 2k), which indicated that MB was successfully adsorbed onto TiO₂ NTs. Moreover, the peak corresponding to elemental Ti did not shift appreciably after adsorption of MB by TiO₂ NTs, but its intensity was significantly less, which indicates that MB adsorbed on surfaces of TiO₂ NTs might have hindered detection of Ti. Notably, the peak corresponding to the C=O bond disappeared. Intensities of the O1s spectrum (Ti–O (529.3 eV), Ti₂O₃(531.0 eV)) and C1s spectrum (C–C (284.8 eV), C–OH (287.7 eV)) decreased or increased, respectively (Figs. S2(d–f)). This can be attributed to transfer of electrons between TiO₂ NTs and MB, which indicates that chemical bonds play an important role in the adsorption of MB.

In the FTIR spectrum of TiO₂ NPs after MB adsorption (Fig. 3a), all TiO₂ NP samples remained almost unchanged. However, in the FTIR spectrum of TiO₂ NTs after MB adsorption (Fig. 3a), two new absorption peaks appeared at 1342 cm⁻¹ and 1485 cm⁻¹, which were attributed to the stretching vibrations of C–N and C=S bonds in MB adsorbed on the surface of TiO₂ NTs (Alver et al., 2020).

3.4. Photo-catalysis performance of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs

3.4.1. Photo-catalysis kinetics of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs

Adsorption and photo-catalysis of TiO₂ NTs are shown (Fig. 5a). Adsorption–desorption equilibrium was reached after 30 min in the dark. Subsequently, UV light was turned on to perform photo-catalysis experiments. Although TiO₂ NTs adsorbed 60.52% of MB, they exhibited high photo-catalytic activity, which indicates that self-assembled TiO₂ NTs contain photo-catalytic–active sites; moreover, these sites contribute to the generation of electron–hole pairs and radicals. TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs could completely remove MB in a short time, which especially demonstrates that TiO₂ NTs possess excellent removal capacity. Compared with TiO₂ NPs, TiO₂ NTs could catalytically degrade MB after the adsorption of MB, which achieves adsorption–photo-catalysis synergistic degradation of an organic pollutant. To further comprehend the diversity of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs in terms of photocatalytic activity, rates of photo-catalysis after adsorption–desorption equilibrium were ascertained (Fig. 5b). Photo-catalytic process conformed to pseudo-first-order reaction kinetics (Equation (3)).

$$-\ln(C/C_0) = k_t t + b \quad (3)$$

where: k_t is the rate constant of photo-catalysis (min⁻¹), C and C_0 are the concentrations of MB at time t and t_0 (mg · L⁻¹), respectively, b is a constant.

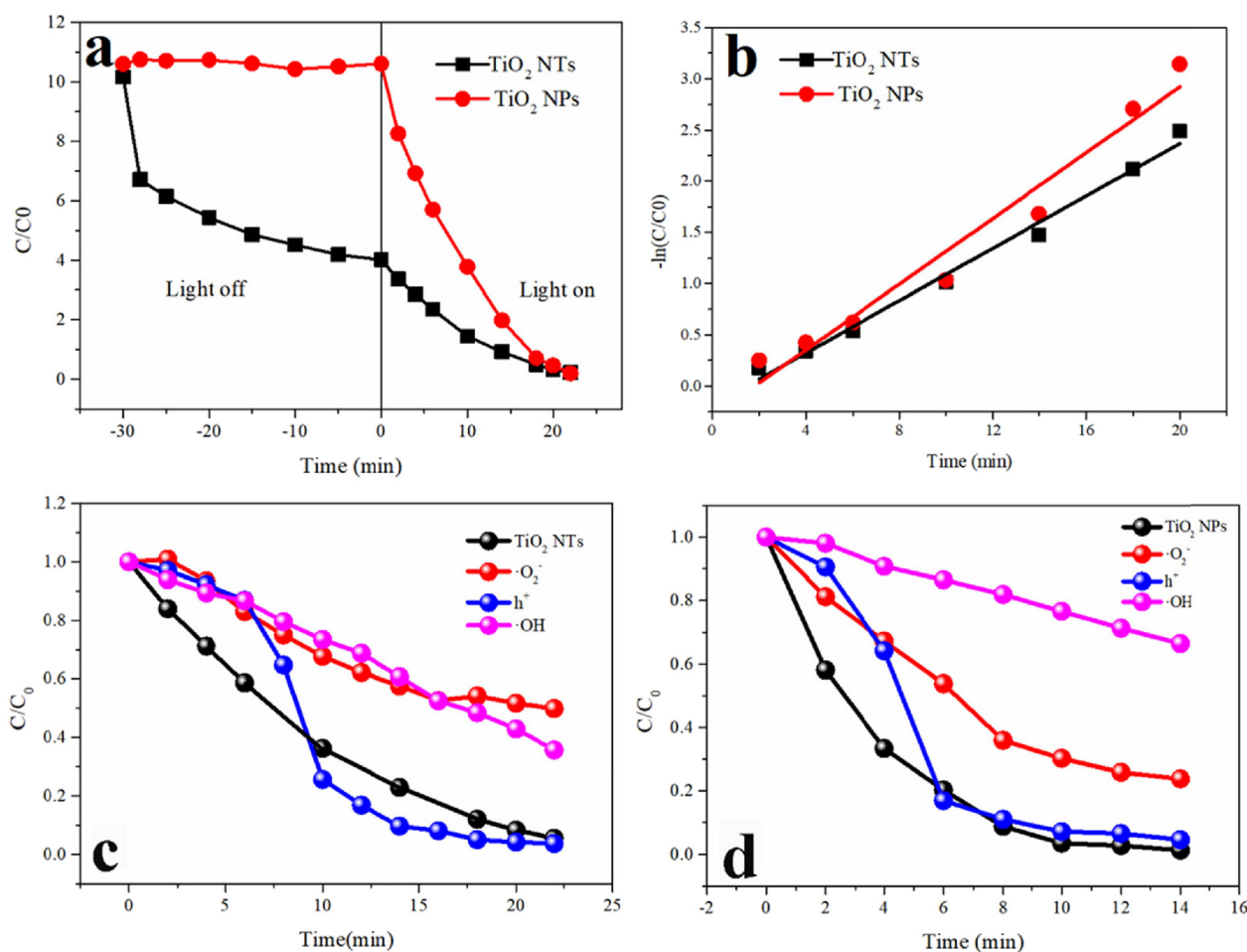


Fig. 5. Photo-catalytic degradation of MB by TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs (a) and linear simulation $-\ln(C/C_0) = k_t t$ of the kinetic curves for MB degradation (b); Free radical scavenging experiments of TiO₂ NTs(c) and TiO₂ NPs(d).

Rates of photo-catalysis of MB by use of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs were 0.1277 and 0.1603 min⁻¹, which were calculated in Fig. 4b. Nevertheless, it is undeniable that TiO₂ NTs possesses excellent catalytic performance in terms of MB catalysis and present remarkable absorption–photo-catalysis synergy.

Stabilities of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs before and after catalytic degradation of MB were assessed through TEM, XPS, and FTIR spectroscopy. When TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs catalyze MB, it can be noticed that they maintain their original appearance without any change, which suggests that TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs have good stability during catalytic degradation of MB (Fig. 2f and h). The structural stabilities of TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs after MB catalysis were determined by XPS and FTIR (Fig. 2j–k and Fig. 3a). The elements and functional groups are in agreement with that of original TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs and do not exhibit any changes. This result indicates that TiO₂ NPs and TiO₂ NTs possess excellent stability under UV light.

3.4.2. Mechanisms of photo-catalysis of MB by TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs

TiO₂ NTs not only have high adsorption capacity because of their mesoporous structures, but also have high catalytic activity (Fig. 5a–b). To explore mechanisms of photo-catalytic by TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs, effects of hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$), superoxide radicals ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) and holes (h^+) on their catalytic behavior were determined (Fig. 5c–d). Efficiency of removal by TiO₂ NTs in the presence of various free radical scavengers is shown (Fig. 5c).

Compared with the efficiency of removal of MB in the absence of scavengers, removal of MB with holes (h^+) scavenger is first inhibited in early stages of photo-catalysis process and is not changed thereafter, which signifies that h^+ play an important role in the first stage of the photo-catalytic process. Furthermore, with addition of hydroxyl radical ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and superoxide radical ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) scavengers, the removal efficiency decreases to 64.28% and 50.12%, respectively, which indicates that $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radicals are the main radicals in photocatalysis. It can be seen from Fig. 4d that the difference between TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs is that when TiO₂ NPs degrade MB, the dominating free radicals are $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals, followed by $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radicals.

To further understand the conduction band (CB) energies of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs, band gap energies of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs were determined from the UV–visible diffuse reflectance spectrum (DRS) (Fig. 6). The absorption peak of TiO₂ NTs was approximately in the wavelength range of 200–500 nm TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs have strong absorption in the ultraviolet region (Fig. 6a). The band gap of TiO₂ NTs was calculated through the Tauc plot, which was obtained (Equation (4)).

$$(\alpha h\nu)^{1/n} = A(h\nu - E_g) \quad (4)$$

where α is the absorption coefficient, h is the Planck's constant (6.63×10^{-34} J s), A is a constant, ν is frequency (calculated by c/λ), c is light velocity (3×10^8 m s⁻¹), λ is wavelength (nm), E_g is semiconductor band gap, and n is index (which depends on the type of a semiconductor; when $n = 2$ or $1/2$, a semiconductor is direct bandgap semiconductor or indirect bandgap semiconductor, respectively).

It is worth noting that α can be replaced by absorbance because they are proportional. A plot with $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/n}$ as the ordinate and $h\nu$ as the abscissa was created. In addition, the straight part in the plot was extended to intersect the abscissa. The resultant intersection point was the band gap. The band gaps of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs corresponded to 3.76 and 3.30 eV, respectively (Fig. 6b). The valence band (VB) energies (E_{VB}) of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs were 2.79 and 2.61 eV, respectively, which were calculated by VB XPS (Fig. 6c). CB energy (E_{CB}) was calculated using the $E_{\text{CB}} = E_{\text{VB}} - E_g$ formula; therefore, the E_{CB} of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs were -0.97 and -0.67 eV, respectively.

The mechanism of the photo-catalytic degradation of MB by TiO₂ NTs or TiO₂ NPs is shown (Fig. 7). It was considered that photo-electron–hole pairs were generated under ultraviolet light while reduced photoelectrons (e^-) migrated from the VB to the CB, leaving oxidized h^+ in the VB. According to free radical scavenging experiments, h^+ cannot react directly with MB. The CB potential and the VB potential of TiO₂ NTs were more negative than the reduction potential of $\text{E}_0(\text{O}_2/\cdot\text{O}_2^-)$ and more positive than the potential of $\text{E}_0(\cdot\text{OH}/\text{H}_2\text{O})$; therefore, the electrons could react with O_2 to produce $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and the holes could react with H_2O to generate $\cdot\text{OH}$. Ultimately, the $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ mineralized MB into small molecules such as CO_2 and H_2O . The mechanism of MB degradation by TiO₂ NPs is similar to that of MB degradation by TiO₂ NTs. The difference is that $\cdot\text{OH}$ catalytic degradation of MB is the primary step, and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ catalytic degradation of MB is the secondary step. Consequently, compared with TiO₂ NPs, the decrease in the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ NTs might be because of the increase in band gap, which reduces the absorbable range of light.

Electron–hole recombination rate is another important factor affecting the photo-catalytic activity of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs. The PL spectra of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs were collected in the wavelength range of 450–650 nm (Fig. 8a). The greater the intensity, the less the efficiency of recombination of the photo-generated carriers and thus longer the lifetime of photo-generated electron and holes pairs. As can be seen in Fig. 8a, intensity of TiO₂ NTs was slightly less than that of TiO₂ NPs, which indicates the electron–hole pairs of TiO₂ NTs are easier to recombine than those of TiO₂ NPs, which is one of the reasons why the catalytic activity of TiO₂ NTs is slightly less than that of TiO₂ NPs.

To evaluate photo-chemical properties of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs, photo-current responses were measured (Fig. 8b). Electron–holes were generated by UV light irradiation; subsequently, the

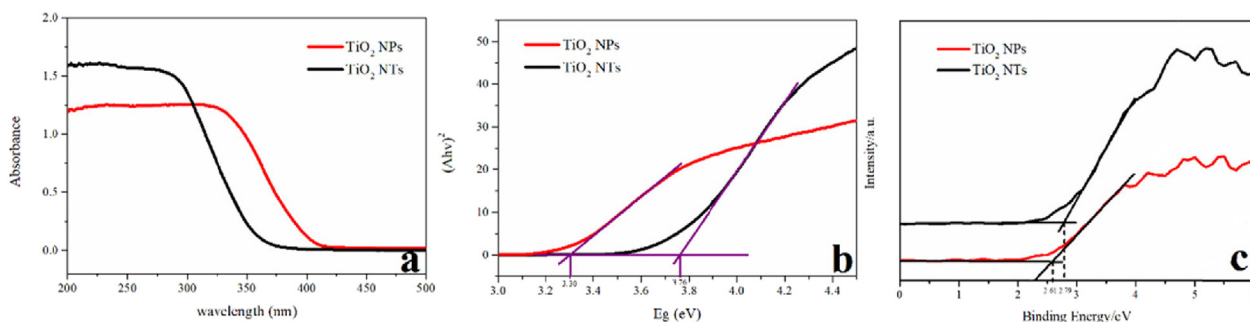


Fig. 6. UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (a), band gap energy (b), and Valence band X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (c) of TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NPs.

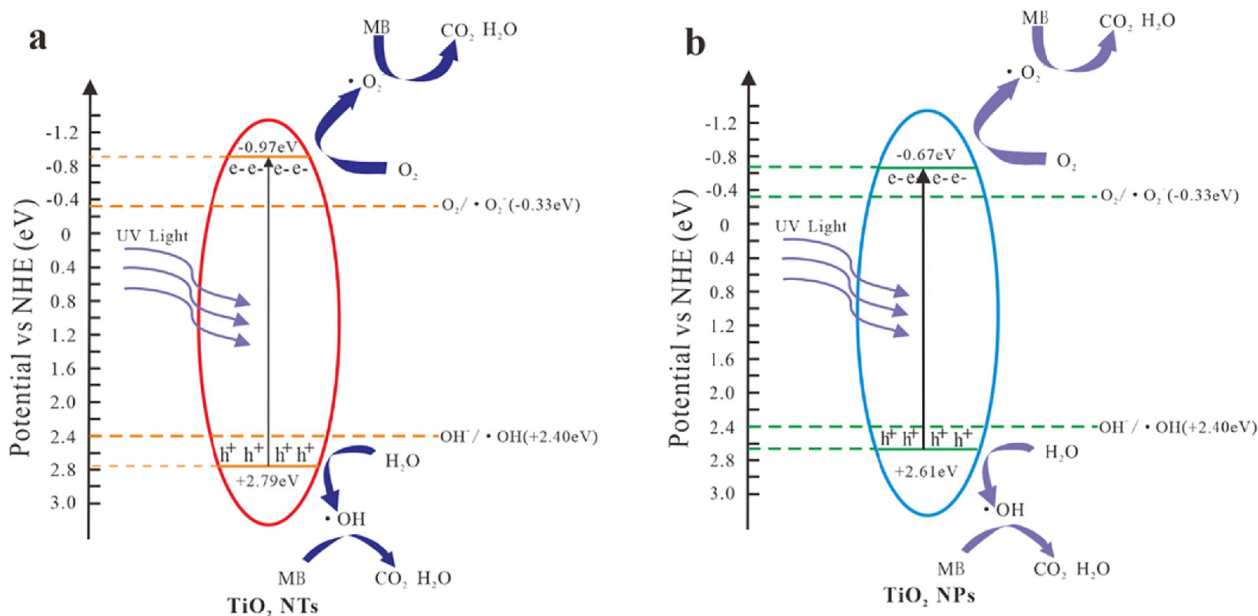


Fig. 7. Mechanism of TiO_2 NTs (a) and TiO_2 NPs (b) in photocatalytic degradation of MB.

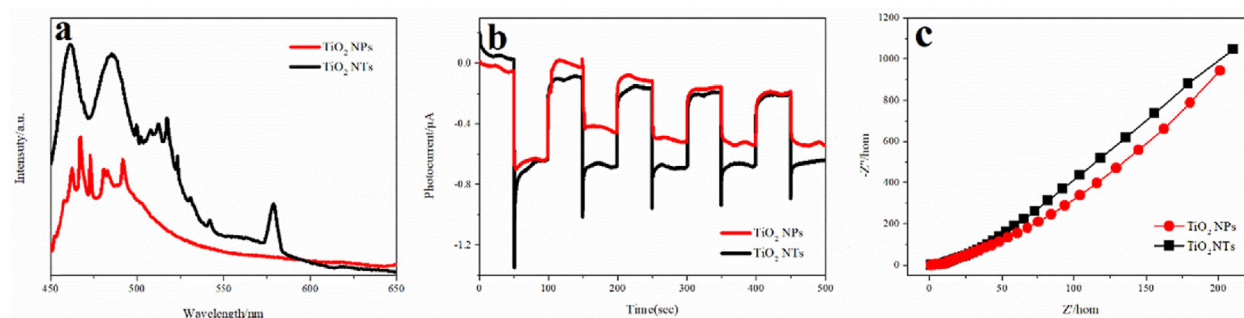


Fig. 8. Photoluminescence (PL) spectra (a), transient photocurrent responses of plots (b) and EIS Nyquist (c) of TiO_2 NTs and TiO_2 NPs.

photocurrent was measured using an electro-chemical station (Lv et al., 2019). The photo-current of TiO_2 NTs was weaker than that of TiO_2 NPs, which suggests that TiO_2 NPs have greater electron-hole separation efficiency and slower rates of recombination. EIS was conducted to determine the transfer rate of the electron-hole pairs. Arc radii Nyquist plots of TiO_2 NTs and TiO_2 NPs, show the separation efficiency of electron-hole pairs (Fig. 8c). The radius of the arc radii of TiO_2 NPs is significantly smaller than that of TiO_2 NTs, which indicates lesser interface between the electrolyte and photo-catalysts resistance and charge transfer resistance on the surface. Hence, the faster rates of migration of electron-hole pairs and slower recombination for TiO_2 NPs are than that of TiO_2 NTs, which results in relatively more radicals being generated that can degrade the pollutant and thus resulting in relatively greater photocatalytic activity.

4. Conclusions

In summary, titanate nanotubes with uniform hollow tubular structure were synthesized that possessed adsorption and photocatalysis synergy concerning MB. TiO_2 NTs with sodium hexatitanate phase exhibited good MB adsorption because of its mesoporous structure, low isoelectric point and cation exchange mechanism. Conversely, TiO_2 NPs exhibited lesser MB adsorption. The high

photo-catalytic activity of TiO_2 NPs resulted from the presence of anatase. The reduction in photo-catalytic activity of TiO_2 NTs was attributed to the easier recombination of photo-electron-hole pairs compared with that for TiO_2 NPs and the wider band gap energy than that of TiO_2 NPs. TiO_2 NTs exhibited excellent adsorption-photo-catalysis synergistic degradation of MB compared with other catalysts, which led to a degradation rate of 99% in a short time. When TiO_2 was transformed from nanoparticles to nanotubes, TiO_2 not only retained high photo-catalytic activity but also exhibited a significant increase in adsorption capacity. On the one hand, this study shows that the changes in structure and morphology would lead to a wide range of properties and possibly provide some research ideas for the study of adsorption-photo-catalysis bifunctional material synthesis. In contrast, the dual functions for removing pollutants in the water environment may be the focus of future research.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Lin Niu: Investigation, Writing – original draft, Methodology. **Xiaoli Zhao:** Conceptualization, Methodology. **Zhi Tang:** Formal analysis, Data curation. **Hongzhou Lv:** Resources, Formal analysis. **Fengchang Wu:** Supervision, Resources. **Xiaolei Wang:** Visualization, Investigation. **Tianhui Zhao:** Data curation, Conceptualization.

Junyu Wang: Project administration, Supervision. **Aiming Wu:** Validation, Project administration. **John.P. Giesy:** Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.126498>.

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Difference in performance and mechanism when TiO₂ nanoparticles are converted to nanotubes: Adsorption and photo-catalysis synergistic effect to methylene blue

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Figure captions

Figure S1. The high-resolution TiO₂ NPs XPS spectrum of before and after adsorption MB.

Figure S2. The high-resolution TiO₂ NTs XPS spectrum of before and after adsorption MB.

Figure S3. Recycling runs of TiO₂ NTs

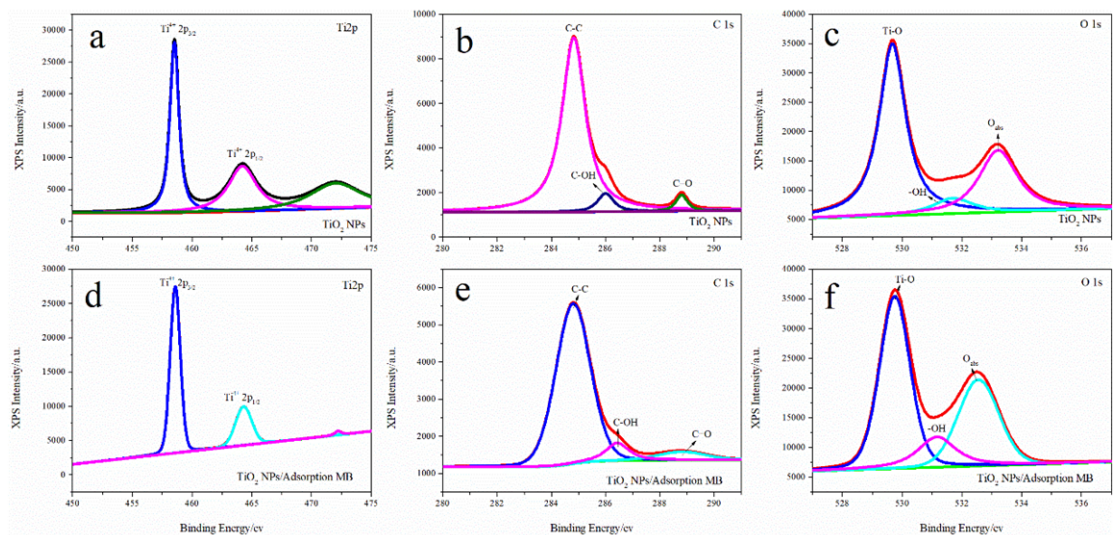


Figure. S1 The high-resolution TiO_2 NPs XPS spectrum of before and after adsorption MB.

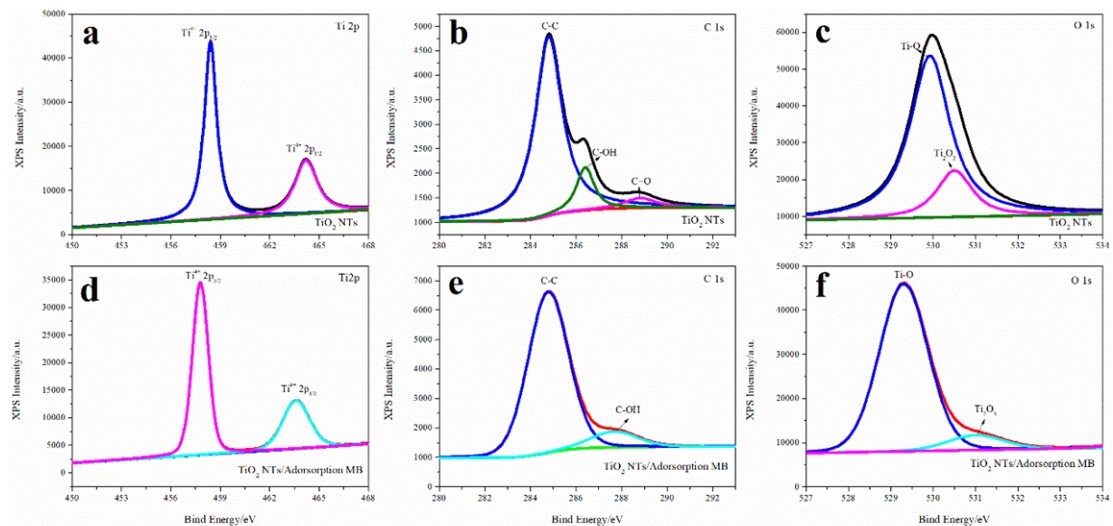


Figure. S2 The high-resolution TiO_2 NTs XPS spectrum of before and after adsorption MB.

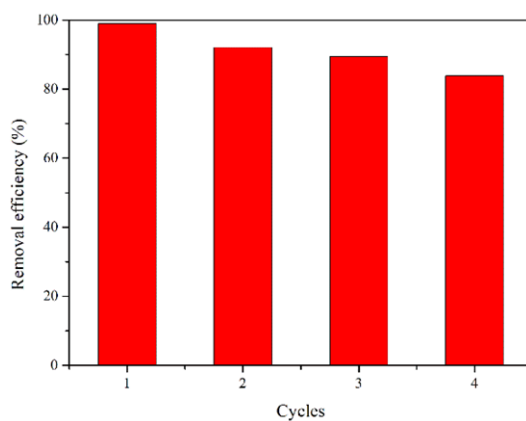


Figure. S3 Recycling runs of TiO_2 NTs