

# Influence of Palladium Loading on the Degradation Property of Titania Nanostructures

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**ABSTRACT:** The influence of palladium loading on titania nanostructures with three different morphologies viz., cubes, spheres and rods was studied. Nanotitania was synthesized by microwave irradiation method. Nano-sized palladium particles were loaded on synthesized titania nanostructures by metal sol method. As-synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> and Pd-TiO<sub>2</sub> were characterized by XRD, UV-visible spectroscopy, BET surface area, PL and TEM techniques. Photocatalytic degradation property of titania and palladium loaded titania nanostructures were investigated using the dye methylene blue under sunlight. The dye degradation capabilities of nano-sized Pd-TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts were found superior to bare TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures. The higher photoactivity of Pd-TiO<sub>2</sub> can be ascribed to the effect of enhancement of electron hole separation by the Pd deposits acting as electron traps on the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface.

**Key words:** Dye degradation, microwave irradiation, photocatalysis, Pd-TiO<sub>2</sub>, titania.

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## I. Introduction

Many photocatalysts have been attempted for the degradation of pollutants in wastewater. Among the semiconductors employed, titanium dioxide has generated intensive interest for its semiconducting and photocatalytic properties [1-4]. It is environmentally benign and relatively inexpensive with unique electronic and optical properties. It also exhibits long-term stability against photo and chemical corrosion [5]. It has also been applied to inactivate bacteria, viruses, and cancer cells [6-7].

There are a few drawbacks associated with the use of TiO<sub>2</sub>. It has a high bandgap ( $E_g > 3.0$  eV) and it is excited only by UV light ( $\lambda < 400$  nm) to inject electrons into the conduction band and to leave holes into the valence band. Thus, this practically limits the use of sunlight or visible light as an irradiation source in photocatalytic reactions on TiO<sub>2</sub>. Numerous studies have been recently performed to enhance electron-hole separation and to extend the absorption range of TiO<sub>2</sub> into the visible range. These studies include doping metal ions into the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice, addition of inert support and deposition of noble metals [8-18].

We have already reported a simple microwave method to synthesize phase pure anatase and rutile nanotitania with different morphologies viz., cubes, spheres and rods [19]. Au and Ag loaded titania nanostructures were prepared to investigate the effect of both physical and chemical characteristics of the catalyst together with their influence on the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> towards the photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue. Au and Ag loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> showed higher photocatalytic activity compared to bare TiO<sub>2</sub> and shifted the absorption into visible region [20,21]. In the present work, we could enhance the visible light photocatalysis of titania nanostructures by loading platinum by metal sol method [22]. In the present work, we report the influence of palladium loading on the degradation property of titania nanostructures. To the best of our knowledge no one has reported previously the preparation of Pd loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> using TiO<sub>2</sub> synthesized by microwave irradiation technique. By applying microwave heating, the reaction mixture is heated rapidly and more uniformly through direct molecular interaction with electromagnetic radiation. This technique would also reduce reaction time and gives better yield. The major advantages of using microwaves are rapid heat transfer and selective heating [23-24]. The catalytic performances of morphologically different three crystalline nanotitania and their palladium loaded structures (Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub>) were studied for dye degradation of methylene blue under sunlight.

## II. Experimental Details

### 2.1. Materials

All reagents were purchased from Merck, Germany. Titanium trichloride (15 wt. % TiCl<sub>3</sub>, 10 wt. % HCl) was used as the titanium precursor. NH<sub>4</sub>OH (1.5 M), NaCl (5 M) and NH<sub>4</sub>Cl (5 M), PdCl<sub>2</sub>, NaBH<sub>4</sub>, and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) were employed for the synthesis. Commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub> (P-25) from Degussa (Germany) consists of 70% anatase and 30% rutile with a specific BET surface area of 50 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and having

particle size of 30 nm was used throughout the experiments. A typical microwave oven (Whirlpool, 1200 W) operating at a frequency of 2450 MHz was used for the synthesis. All chemicals were of reagent-grade quality and were used as received.

## 2.2. Synthesis of Pd loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures

The TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures having cubical (S1), spherical (S2) and rod like (S3) morphology were synthesized as in our early report[19] and were loaded with 0.5 wt %Pd using metal sol method. For this a suitable amount of PVA solution (1 wt %) was added to an aqueous PdCl<sub>2</sub> solution (0.1 mg Pd/ml) under vigorous stirring. Then, a freshly prepared solution of NaBH<sub>4</sub> (molar ratio NaBH<sub>4</sub>/Pd = 4) was slowly added dropwise into the mixture. The TiO<sub>2</sub> samples were added after the pH was adjusted to 6.0 by NH<sub>4</sub>OH or HCl solution. The mixture was stirred at 60°C for 3 hrs, then filtered and washed until no Cl<sup>-</sup> was detected by AgNO<sub>3</sub> solution. After being dried at 100°C overnight, the samples were calcined at 550 ° C in air for 4 hrs. The Pd loaded on samples S1, S2 and S3 are represented as PdS1, PdS2 and PdS3 respectively.

## 2.3. Characterization of Pd loaded and pure Titania Nanostructures

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the titania were recorded on a Bruker D8 advance diffractometer with CuK $\alpha$  radiation. The crystallite size of TiO<sub>2</sub> was calculated using Debye Scherrer equation,  $L = k\lambda/(\beta \cos\theta)$ , where L is the average crystallite size,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the radiation,  $\theta$  is the Bragg's angle of diffraction,  $\beta$  is the full width at half maximum intensity of the peak and k is a constant usually applied as 0.89. High resolution transmission electron micrographs and electron diffraction patterns were recorded using a JEOL JEM-3010 HRTEM microscope at an accelerating voltage of 300 kV. The TEM specimens were prepared by drop casting the sample on the surface of the carbon coated copper grid. The BET surface area, pore size distribution and pore volume of the samples were measured on a Micromeritics ASAP 2010 analyzer based on N<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 77 K in the pressure range from 0.1 to 760 mm Hg. The ultraviolet–visible absorption (UV–vis) spectra were recorded using a UV-2450 Shimadzu UV–visible spectrophotometer. The photoluminescence (PL) spectral measurements were made using Perkin Elmer LS-55 luminescence spectrometer at an excitation wavelength of 325 nm.

## 2.4. Photocatalytic Activity Measurements

Photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> was evaluated by the degradation of the dye, methylene blue (MB) in aqueous solution under sunlight in the presence of as-synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> and the Pd loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>. The changes in the concentrations of methylene blue in the aqueous solution were examined by absorption spectra measured on a UV-2450 Shimadzu UV–visible spectrophotometer. Before examining the photocatalytic activity for degradation of aqueous methylene blue, TiO<sub>2</sub> and Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> sol was prepared. About 100 mg of the synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> or Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> was dispersed ultrasonically in 100 ml of  $4 \times 10^{-5}$  M methylene blue solution in a quartz reactor. To maximize the adsorption of the dye onto the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface, the resulting mixture was kept in the dark for 30 min under stirring conditions[25].The degradation of the dye was monitored by measuring the absorption maximum of methylene blue at 661 nm at 30 min intervals of reaction.

# III. Results and Discussion

## 3.1. X-ray Diffraction Studies

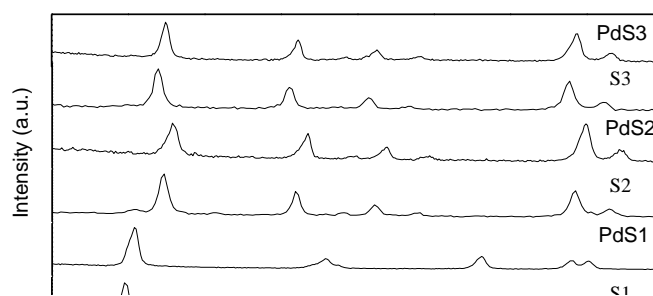


Fig.1 XRD patterns of bare and Pd loaded titania

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns (Fig. 1) of the TiO<sub>2</sub> particles show that anatase phase with lattice constants,  $a = 3.777$  and  $c = 9.501$  was formed (JCPDS file no. 89-4921) in NH<sub>4</sub>OH medium (S1). All the peaks in S2 (NaCl medium) and S3 (NH<sub>4</sub>Cl medium) correspond to rutile phase with lattice constants  $a = 4.608$ ,  $c = 2.973$  and  $a = 4.548$ ,  $c = 2.946$ , respectively (JCPDS files, no. 76-0319 and 88-1173). It is clear from the fig.1 that all the samples are highly crystalline and phase pure. It is also observed that there is no phase change due to palladium loading on the samples S1, S2 and S3. Further, no palladium peaks were found in the XRD patterns. The average crystallite sizes of S1, S2, S3, PdS1, PdS2 and PdS3 are 12, 10, 21, 11, 10 and 20 nm respectively. On palladium loading the average crystallite sizes decreased slightly [26]. The X-ray diffraction patterns of palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> samples almost coincide with that of bare TiO<sub>2</sub> showing no diffraction peaks due to palladium species thus suggesting that the metal particles are well dispersed on the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface [27]. This result can presumably be due to a combination of factors namely low Pd contents for loading, small particle size and homogeneous particle distribution [28-29]. X-ray diffractograms (Fig. 1) shows that on Pd loading, there is a slight shift of the peak to the higher angle indicating a slight decrease in the d spacing. This is consistent with d value obtained from TEM analysis.

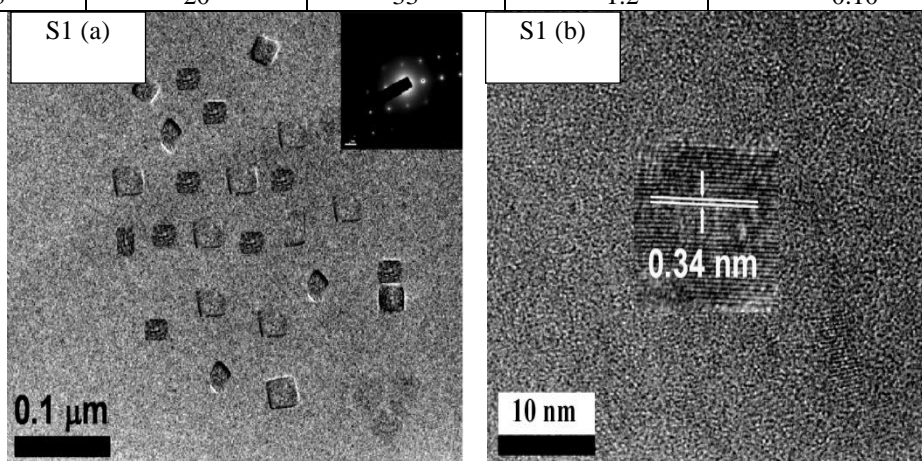
### 3.2. BET Surface Area Analysis

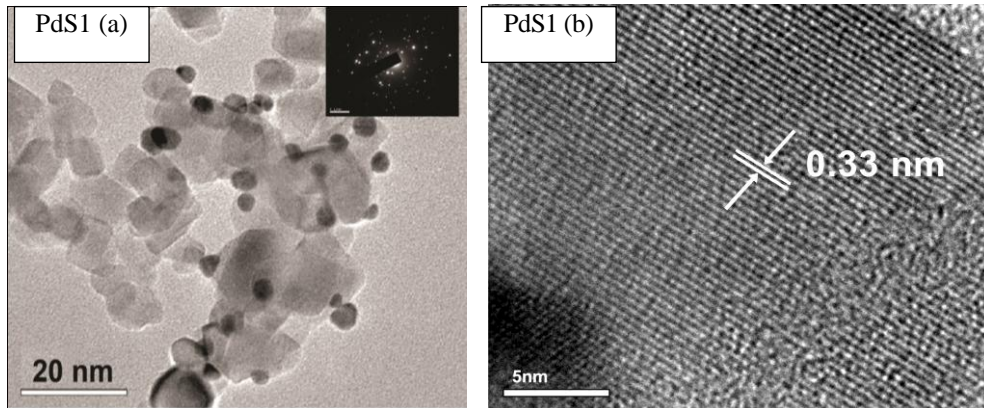
The crystallite size, BET surface area, pore size, and pore volume values are summarized in Table 1. The surface area of S1, S2, and S3 are 96, 77, and 34 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The sample S1 has highest surface area and is due to its mesoporous nature with pore size around 4 nm. Palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> particles show a decrease in surface area of the samples as is evident from the table and this can be ascribed to the calcination process used during the synthesis. The decrease in surface area after palladium loading is appreciable in the case of S1. This may be due to the blocking of pores on the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocube surface by palladium particles.

### 3.3. Microscopic Analysis

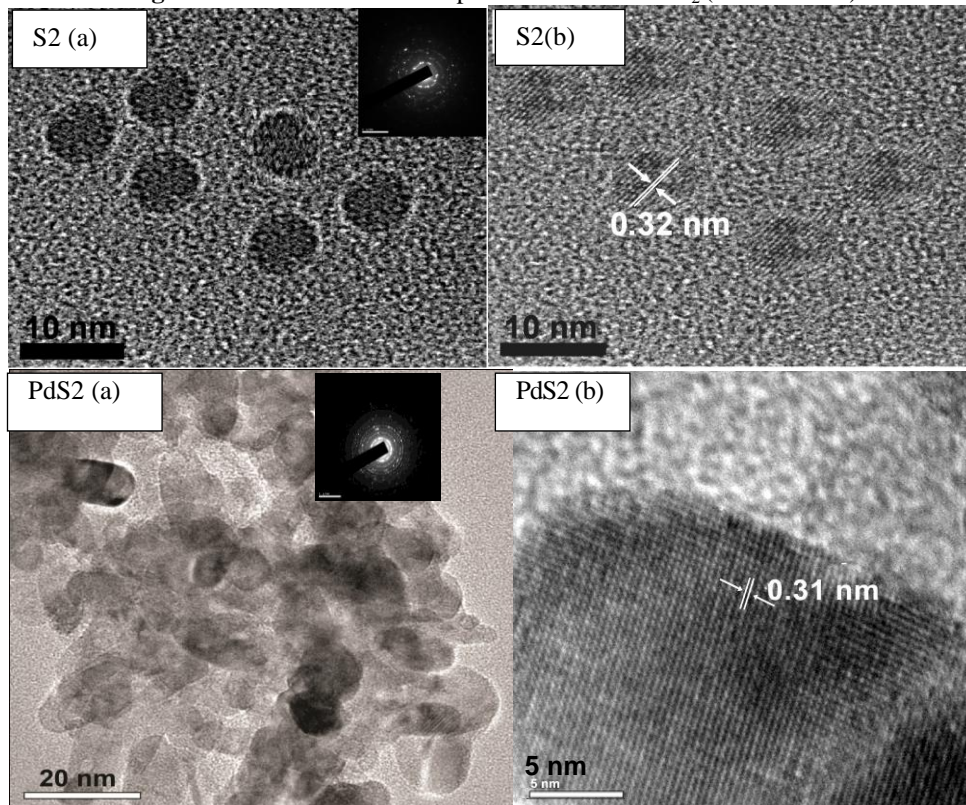
**Table 1** The crystallite size, BET surface area, pore size, and pore volume values of bare and Pd loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> samples

| Sample code | Crystallite size from XRD (nm) | BET surface area (m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ) | Pore size (nm) | Pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ) |
|-------------|--------------------------------|--|----------------|--|
| S1          | 12                             | 96   | 4              | 0.37   |
| S2          | 10                             | 77   | 2.5            | 0.18   |
| S3          | 21                             | 34   | 2.0            | 0.10   |
| PdS1        | 11                             | 76   | 2.5            | 0.29   |
| PdS2        | 10                             | 65   | 1.7            | 0.12   |
| PdS3        | 20                             | 33   | 1.2            | 0.10   |

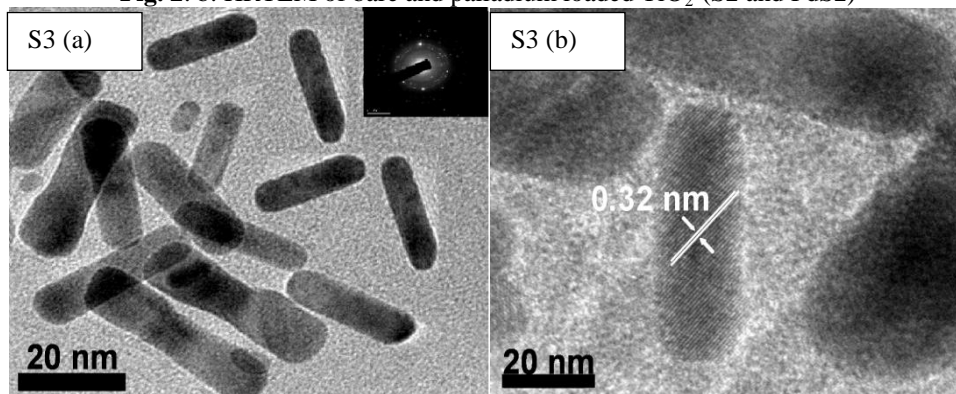


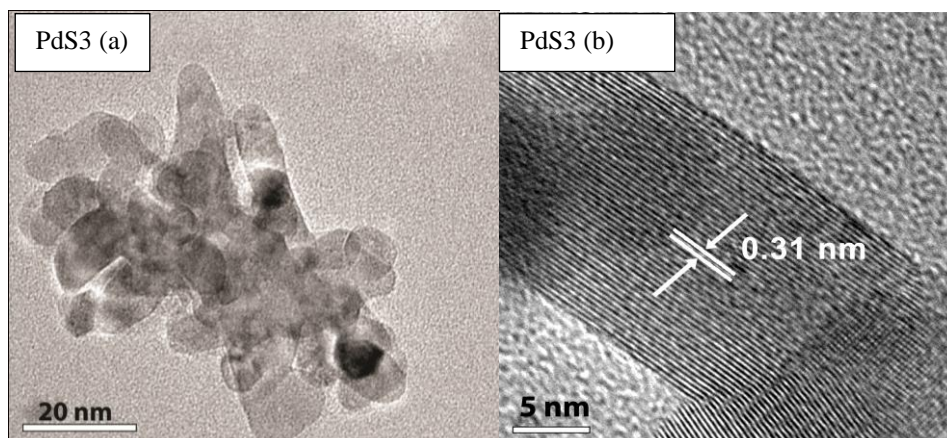


**Fig. 2. a.** HRTEM of bare and palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> (S1 and PdS1)



**Fig. 2. b.** HRTEM of bare and palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> (S2 and PdS2)





**Fig. 2. c.** HRTEM of bare and palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> (S3 and PdS3)

The HRTEM images of the bare and palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles synthesized are shown in Fig. 2. TEM images of S1 (a) and PdS1 (a) shows the formation of nanocubes with particle size around 25 nm with pores. The HRTEM image of S1 (b) shows lattice fringes of the anatase phase with  $d = 0.34$  nm and PdS1 (b) shows lattice fringes of the anatase phase with  $d = 0.31$  nm. The selected area electron diffraction pattern in the inset of the S1 (a) and PdS1 (a) confirms that the sample S1 is a single crystalline anatase phase. The high surface area observed for the sample S1 and PdS1 may be due to the highly porous nature of the cubes. Sample S2 (a) and PdS2 (a) shows the formation of nanospheres with average size around 8 nm. Corresponding selected area electron diffraction pattern of S2 and PdS2 are shown in the inset. The pattern indicates the polycrystalline nature of the sample. Lattice image of S2 (b) of these nanospheres shows lattice fringes of the rutile phase with  $d = 0.32$  nm and lattice image of PdS2 (b) shows lattice fringes of the rutile phase with  $d = 0.31$  nm. S3 (a) and PdS3 (a) shows the formation of nanorods with an average aspect ratio of around 4 nm. Corresponding SAED pattern indicates a polycrystalline nature, which may be due to the diffraction in a bunch of nanorods. The HRTEM image of nanorod S3 (b) shows clear lattice fringes of the rutile phase with  $d = 0.32$  nm and PdS3 (b) shows lattice fringes of the rutile phase with  $d = 0.31$  nm. In all the three Pd loaded samples  $d$  spacing has decreased and can be ascribed to the effect of occupation of Pd particles in the lattice. Pd loaded samples showed the presence of very small, spherical and well dispersed palladium nanoparticles on the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface and it appears as black spots in Fig. 4 (PdS1(a), PdS2(a) and PdS3(a)).

### 3.4. UV–Visible Absorption Studies

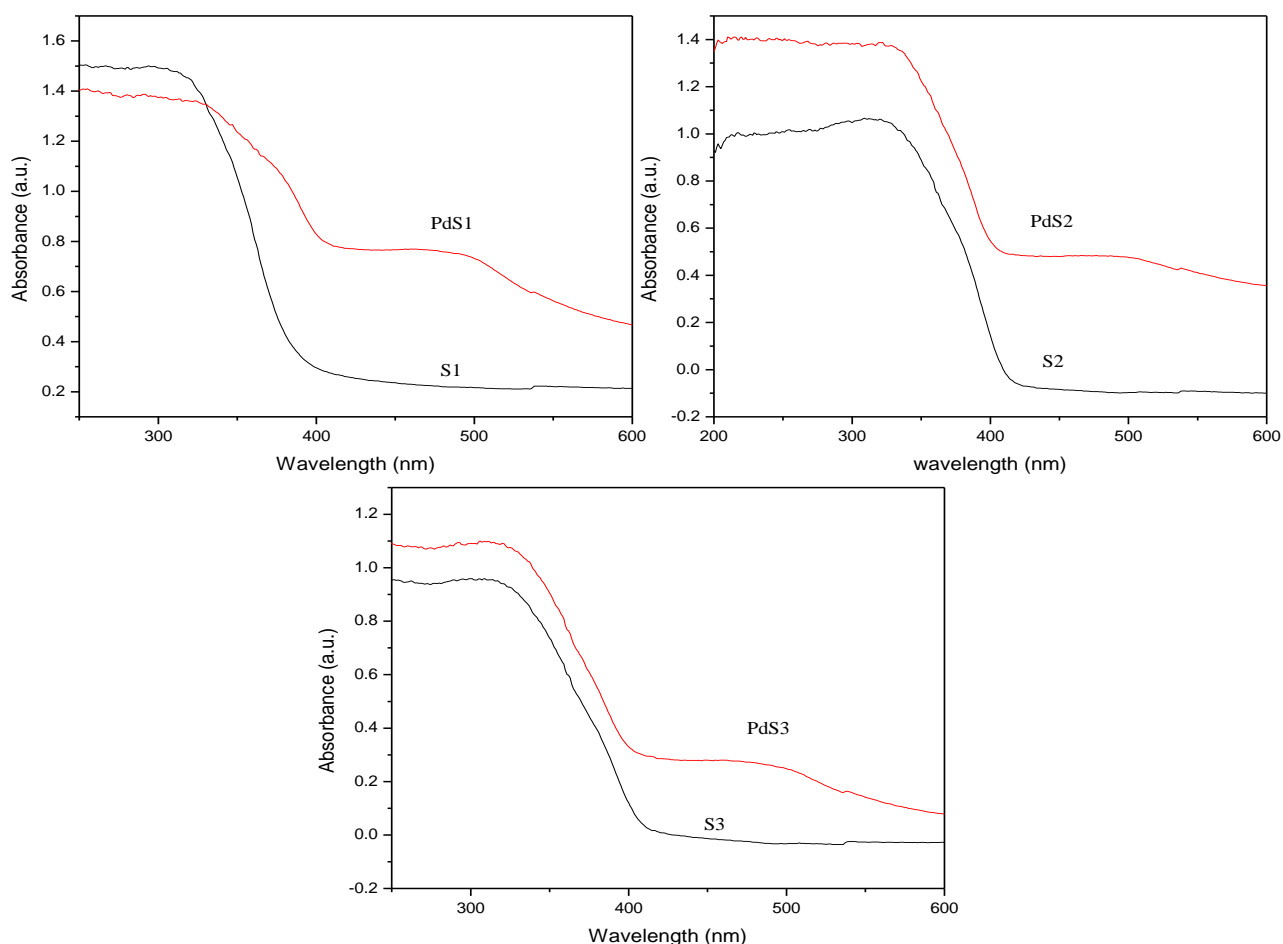
Fig.3 shows the UV-vis absorption spectra of titania nanostructures S1, S2, and S3. The onset of absorption for the three samples is 382, 405, and 415 nm for S1, S2 and S3, respectively.

The broad absorbance band in 450-550 nm regions in the palladium loaded samples PdS1, PdS2 and PdS3 corresponds to the well reported plasmon resonance of nanopalladium particles[30].

It is clear from the fig.3 that palladium loaded samples showed significant absorption in the visible region. The red shifted photoresponse of these samples may lead to high photocatalytic activity under visible region which helps in the enhancement of photocatalytic activity under sunlight. The band gap energies were calculated using the equation[30]

$$E_g = 1239.8/\lambda$$

where  $E_g$  is the band gap (eV) and  $\lambda$  (nm) is the wavelength of the absorption edges in the spectrum.



**Fig. 3** UV–visible absorption spectra of bare and palladium loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$

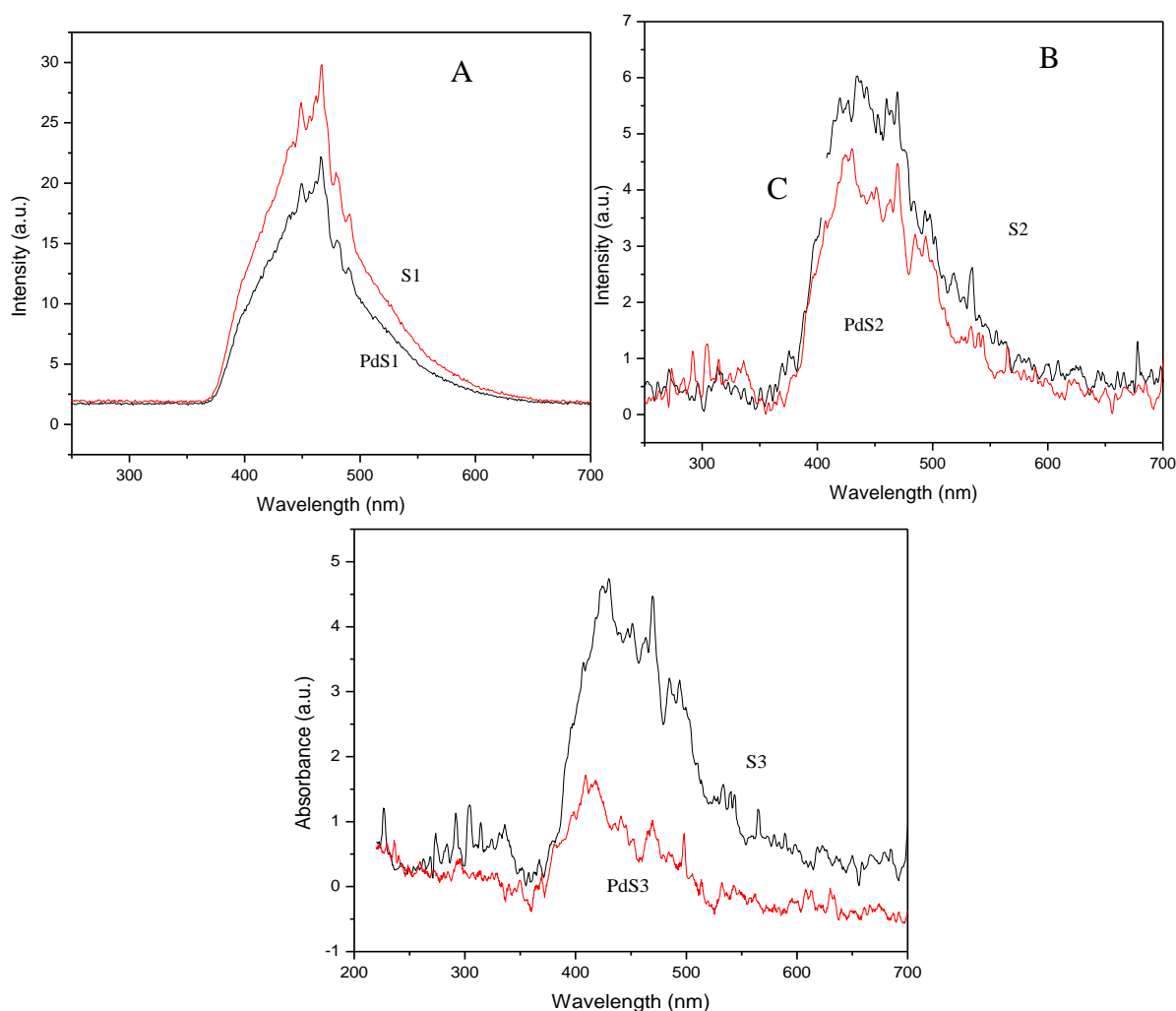
**Table 2** Band gap values of bare and Pd loaded nano  $\text{TiO}_2$

| Sample | Band gap (eV) |
|--------|---------------|
| S1     | 3.2           |
| S2     | 3.17          |
| S3     | 3.15          |
| PdS1   | 2.95          |
| PdS2   | 2.89          |
| PdS3   | 2.91          |

The band gap values of bare and palladium loaded nanotitania samples are given in Table 2. The band gap energy of nanocubes (S1, 3.2 eV) is significantly higher as compared to that of nanospheres (S2, 3.17 eV) and nanorods (S3, 3.15 eV). For anatase, the band gap ( $E_g$ ) is estimated to be 3.2 eV, which is in good agreement with the reported value for anatase (3.2–3.3 eV). The absorption spectrum of rutile shows a lower absorption and the calculated band gap is around 3.17 and 3.15 eV respectively for the nanostructures S2 and S3. However, rutile nanostructures show a slightly higher band gap than the reported value (3.0–3.1 eV). The higher band gap may be due to the smaller particle size. The band gap values of palladium loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples are less than that of bare titania nanostructures (Table 2). The lower band gap of palladium loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$  can enhance the photocatalytic activity of these samples under visible light.

### 3.5. Photoluminescence Studies

The photoluminescence emission spectra (PL) of bare and palladium loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples were studied in the range of 250-700 nm to investigate the separation efficiency of charge carriers and the results are shown in Fig. 4.



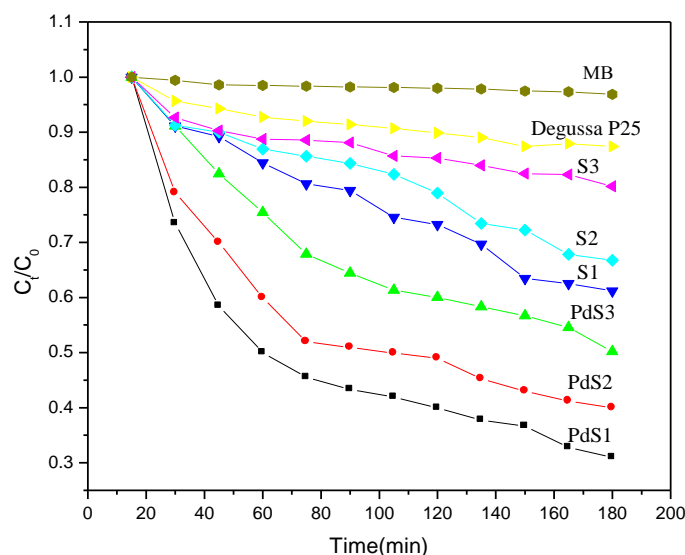
**Fig. 4** The photoluminescence emission spectra (PL) of bare and palladium loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$

It is evident from the fig.4 that the PL intensity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  was decreased with palladium loading. The lower PL intensity shows that the rate of recombination between electrons and holes are low[31,32]. The electrons are excited from valence band (VB) to conduction band (CB) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  under UV irradiation and generate photoexcited electrons and holes. Although loading with palladium narrows the band gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples, the recombination of electrons and holes are relatively slow which is evident from PL spectra.

For palladium loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples, palladium plays an important role in the interfacial charge transfer and in the decrease in rate of electron-hole recombination. Palladium particles could act as an effective electron scavenger to trap the photo induced electrons and holes of  $\text{TiO}_2$  leading to the reduction of electron-hole recombination and thus improving the photocatalytic efficiency. The decrease in PL intensity of palladium loaded samples is in the order  $\text{PdS1} > \text{PdS2} > \text{PdS3}$  as is evident from the fig.4 which indicates that the electron – hole recombination is less for PdS1 than PdS2 and PdS3. This also helps for the higher photocatalytic activity of PdS1 than PdS2 which in turn greater than PdS3. The electrons trapped in palladium sites were subsequently transferred to the surrounding adsorbed  $\text{O}_2$ . PL emission spectra studies have been widely used to investigate the fate of electron hole pairs in semiconductor particles, since PL emission results from the recombination of free carriers[31,32]

### 3.6. Photocatalytic activity

To investigate the photocatalytic activity of synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> samples in solar light, the degradation of methylene blue was studied in presence of bare and palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles under sunlight. For comparison, photocatalytic studies were also performed with commercially available photocatalyst, Degussa P25 and the results are depicted in Fig. 5.



**Fig. 5** Photocatalytic activity of bare and palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> samples in solar light

Methylene blue (MB) shows a maximum absorption at 661 nm. The absorption peak gradually diminishes upon solar light irradiation, illustrating the methylene blue degradation. It is clear that the anatase titania nanocubes (S1) shows higher photocatalytic activity than the other two rutile nanostructures (S2 and S3) as we reported earlier [20]. The difference in activity of the synthesized samples is related to their surface area, particle size and phase. Small crystallite size and mesoporous texture produces high surface area TiO<sub>2</sub> and can provide more active sites and adsorb more reactive species. S1 is purely anatase phase and has the highest surface area among the three samples, it exhibits the highest photocatalytic activity. The appreciable activity observed for the nanorods (34 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) compared to Degussa P25 (50 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) is due to the preferentially grown 110 planes in the nanorod morphology as reported in our paper [20]. The activity of different samples in sunlight is in the order PdS1 > PdS2 > PdS3 > S1 > S2 > S3 > Degussa P25. The high activity of palladium loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> than corresponding bare titania nanostructures is mainly attributed to the decrease in band gap so that visible light is enough to excite electrons from valence band to conduction band.

### IV. Conclusions

Anatase nanocubes (S1), rutile nanospheres (S2) and rutile nanorods (S3) were synthesized using a simple microwave irradiation technique by changing the pH of the media. The synthesized titania nanostructures were loaded with palladium in order to improve the photocatalytic activity of the samples under visible region. Structural and physicochemical characterization revealed the dependence of photocatalytic activity with different morphologies. Among bare samples, anatase nanocubes (S1) exhibit a much higher BET specific surface area than rutile nanospheres (S2) and nanorods (S3). The band gap energy for anatase nanocubes is greater than that of the rutile nanospheres (S2) and nanorods (S3). Loading of palladium particles could improve the photocatalytic properties of the titania nanostructures under sunlight. Among the various titania nanostructures, Pd-loaded titania nanocubes exhibit enhanced photocatalytic activity compared to Pd-loaded titania nanospheres and nanorods.

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