

Chapter 1

HISTORY OF PHOTOCATALYSIS

1.1 Introduction

There is generally a conception that Photo-catalysis originated with the discovery of Photo-electrochemical decomposition of water by Fujishima and Honda [2] in the 70s. Photo-catalysis which is a phenomenon where in an acceleration of a chemical reaction in the presence of photons and catalyst has been reported in the literature in 50s (possibly even earlier to this) by Markham and Laidler [16]. Sister Markham followed this with a publication in chemical education [15] wherein she reported the photo-catalytic properties of oxides. In fact, Sister Markham had a number of subsequent publications on the photo-catalytic transformations on irradiated zinc oxide [10]. Photo-catalysis deals with the absorption of photons by the solid which generate electron hole pair which are utilized in the generation free radicals (hydroxyl radicals (.OH)). The chemical consequence of this process today goes with the name of advanced oxidation process (AOP; which may or may not involve TiO_2 and Photons).

Photochemistry has been an integral part of life on earth. One often associates photo-catalysis with photosynthesis. However the term photo-catalysis found mention in an earlier work by Plotnikov in the 1930's in his book entitled *Allaemeine photochemie*. The next major systematic development as stated in the previous paragraph was in the 1950's when Markham and Laidler performed a kinetic study of photo oxidation on the surface of zinc oxide in an aqueous suspension. By the 1970's researchers started to perform surface studies on photo-catalysts like Zinc Oxide and Titanium dioxide.

The most commonly employed photo-catalyst is Titanium dioxide. TiO_2 exists mainly in three crystallographic forms, namely Brookite, Anatase and Rutile. There have been a number of studies on the three modifications of titania. The energetics of the titania polymorphs were studied by high temperature oxide melt drop solution calorimetry. It has been shown that relative to bulk rutile, bulk brookite is 0.71 ± 0.38 kJ/mol and bulk anatase is 2.61 ± 0.41 kJ/mol higher in enthalpy. [17]. The effect of particle size on phase stability and phase transformation during growth nanocrystalline aggregates and has been shown that mixed phases transform to brookite and/or rutile before brookite trans-

forms to rutile. [11] Among these three forms, the most often used photo-catalyst is the anatase phase either in pure form or in combination with rutile form. There are various reasons for this preference of TiO_2 as photo-catalyst. These reasons include that it was the first system studied by Fujishima and Honda and TiO_2 exhibits possibly maximum photon absorption cross section (i.e., it absorbs maximum number of photons of correct wavelength). This preference over TiO_2 is seen from the data given in Table 1.

Table 1 Statistical distribution of scientific publications focussed on nano-materials for PEC/Photo-catalysis hydrogen production [13]

Materials	percentage of study
TiO_2	36.2
Non- TiO_2 oxides	10.9
Oxy-sulphides	18.8
Oxy-nitrides	5.1
Other semiconductors	5.8
Composites and Mixtures	17.4
Non Semiconductors	5.8
Total	100

Degussa P25 Titanium dioxide generally employed as catalyst in many of the studies reported in literature and hence, considered as standard for photo-catalytic activity comparison, contains both anatase (about 80 percent) and rutile (about 20 percent). It is in general impossible to completely trace the history of Photo-catalysis. Even Fujishima and his coworkers [3] have expressed concern on completely outlining the history of photo-catalysis. The main difficulty appears to be that photo-catalysis unlike other chemical reactions involves simultaneously both oxidation and reduction reactions on a surface possibly assisted by photons of appropriate wavelength corresponding to the band gap of the semiconductor employed as catalyst. In 1921 Renz reported that titania was partially reduced when it was illuminated with sunlight in the presence of organic substrates like glycerol. [20] In 1924, Baur and Perret [?] probably were the first to report the photo-decomposition of silver salt on ZnO to produce metallic silver. Probably Baur and Neuweiler [5] were the first to recognize that both oxidation and reduction are taking place simultaneously on the production of hydrogen peroxide on ZnO. This was followed by the work of Renz in 1932 [21] who reported the photo-catalytic reduction of silver nitrate and gold chloride on TiO_2 . Goodeve and Kitchener [6] studied the photo-catalytic decomposition of dye on titania surfaces and even reported the quantum yields. In 1953, it has been recognized that the organic substrate was oxidized and oxygen was reduced. Unfortunately, these studies have been carried out on ZnO surfaces and hence could have been hampered because of the inevitable problem of photo corrosion of ZnO. [16] There were few attempts in between for the production of hydrogen peroxide and decomposition of dyes on illuminated semiconductor surfaces. There were attempts to study the photo-catalytic oxidation of organic substrates on a variety of oxide surfaces from other parts of the world in and around this period. In the 1960s photo-electrochemical studies on ZnO with various redox couples were started. All these studies culminated in the photo-

electrochemical decomposition of water by Fujishima and Honda which opened up means for solar energy conversion and also for the generation of hydrogen fuel. Subsequently Bard and his coworkers [14] have demonstrated that illuminated TiO_2 could be used for the decontamination of water by photo-catalytic decomposition. This has led to new photo-catalytic routes for environmental clean-up and also for organic synthesis. These aspects will be dealt with in separate chapters in this monograph. Fujishima et al., have provided a more detailed and authentic write-up on the history of photo-catalysis. [3]

1.2 Basic Principle of Photocatalysis

According to the glossary of terms used in photochemistry [IUPAC 2006 page 384] photo-catalysis is defined as the change in the rate of a chemical reaction or its initiation under the action of ultraviolet, visible or infra red radiation in the presence of a substance the photo-catalyst that absorbs light and is involved in the chemical transformation of the reaction partners. When a semiconductor (or an insulator) is irradiated with light of suitable wavelength corresponding to the energy of the band gap, electrons occupying the usually or mostly filled energy levels in the valence band will be transferred to an allowed energy state in the normally empty conduction band thus creating a hole in the valence band. This electron-hole pair is known as exciton. These photo-generated electron-hole pairs promote the so called redox reaction through the adsorbed species on the semiconductor or insulator surface. However, the band gap of the insulators will be usually high and as such generating of such high energy photons will not be comparatively easy and hence insulators are not considered as possible candidates for Photo-catalysis. Generally, metals cannot be employed as photo-catalysts since their occupied and unoccupied energy states are overlapping with respect to energy and hence the recombination of electron-hole pair will be the most preferred process and hence the conversion of photon energy to chemical energy using metals will not be advantageous. It is generally considered that the energy position of the top of the valence band of a semiconductor is a measure of its oxidizing power and the bottom of the conduction band is a measure of its reducing capacity. It is therefore necessary one has to know with certain level of certainty the energy positions of the top of the valence band and bottom of the conduction band so that the reactions that these excitons can promote can be understood. One such compilation is given later in this chapter in Table 3 and more extensive data are given in Appendix. Photo-catalytic destruction of organic pollutants in water is based on photochemical process involving semiconductors. When a semiconductor is irradiated with UV (usually but it can be any other radiation as well) light of wavelength appropriate for excitation from valence band to the conduction band of the chosen semiconductor an exciton is created. The photochemical oxidation of the organic substrate normally proceeds by the adsorption of the substrate on the surface of the semiconductor with transfer of electrons with the hole generated. However other possible oxidation processes can also take place with radicals generated (OH radical if the solvent is water) at the surface of the semiconductor surface. Thus a variety of surface reactions will take place on the photo-excited semiconductor surface, the preferred reaction depends on the nature of the substrate under consideration and its nature of adsorption and activation on the semiconductor surface. In Fig

1 a simple representation of these possible processes are shown by considering simple general reactions water giving hydroxyl radicals and organic substrate being oxidized all the way to carbon dioxide and water in order to get an idea of what can take place on the surface of semiconductor as a result of photo-excitation and catalysis.

Since it is possible that the organic substrate can be completely degraded to carbon dioxide and water, this process has been considered to be a viable method for the decontamination of water. In addition, it should be kept in mind that hydroxyl radical is a powerful oxidizing agent as compared to other common oxidizing agents as can be seen from the data given in Table.2. It is clear from the data given in Table.2 that the aqueous phase reactions will still be preferred in Photo-catalysis.

Table 2 Oxidizing power of some of the commonly employed oxidizing agents

Oxidant	oxidation Potential(V)
Hydroxy radical	2.80
Ozone	2.07
Hydrogen Peroxide	1.77
ClO ₂	1.49
Chlorine (Cl ₂)	1.35

1.3 Limitations of photo-catalysis

Though Photo-catalytic technology has been emerging as a viable technology for the remediation of pollutants from water, it can be applied to a variety of compounds. One of the factors to be considered is the possibility of mass transfer limitations due to the characteristics imposed in the reaction chamber by the existence of the catalyst in various forms in dispersed state. In fact the construction of a appropriate photo-chemical reactor itself has been a major issue and various designs have been proposed in literature. A simple reactor design conventionally employed is shown in Fig.2.

Sclafani et al. [4] postulated external mass transfer limitations to interpret their

results in a packed bed reactor filled with spheres of semiconductor catalyst (in this case pure titanium dioxide (ca. 0.12 cm in diameter)). Chen and Ray [8] studied internal and external mass transfer limitations in catalytic particles of photo-catalytic reactors and concluded only mild mass transfer restrictions since the effectiveness factor observed was near 0.9 and hence rotating disc photo reactor when the spherical particles of the semiconductor fixed on a solid support. The specific role of mass transfer was analyzed in terms of one of the dimensionless Damkhler numbers. In other reactor configurations, particularly films and membrane reactors other quantitative observations of internal mass transfer limitations have been published. [9], [7] and many others (see for example one of the reviews on this topic in Legrini et al. [18]. Unfortunately, these limitations have not been examined with other type of reactors like slurry reactors. In addition, since photons are coupling with a heterogenous system, this can result in gradients in concentration or the coupling of the photon field with the scattering particles.

The points that emerge from the data presented in these two tables are that the top of the valence band is nearly the same for the oxide semiconductors and the bottom of the conduction band depends on the cation involved and hence the oxide semiconductors will be more or less behaving in a similar manner. The other chemical limitations involved in the photo-catalytic degradation of pollutants from water are: The adsorption of the pollutant species on the surface of the semiconductor. This fact has been recognized in the literature but still not many quantitative relationships have emerged indicating the importance of this step in the photo-degradation processes. However, the importance of this step is apparent since the charge transfer from the semiconductor to the substrate and hence cause their degradation is possible only in the adsorbed state of the substrate since charge transfer has restrictions with respect to distances involved. In addition the adsorption is directly related to the surface area of the photo-catalyst and hence it is conventional to optimize the surface area of the photo-catalyst.

The pH may also have an effect on the photo-degradation of organic pollutants since the nature of the species involved can change with respect to pH. In addition in aqueous medium the potential changes by 59 milli-volts per pH unit and this also can affect the process of degradation.

In solution phase, the presence of both type of counter ions namely, anions and cations can affect the photo-degradation process due to reasons like photon absorption by the ions and also the type of species that will be generated as a result of photon absorption. When the composite solar radiation is employed for photo-degradation process, the temperature of the system can affect all the reactions (normally increase is noticed) except for the electron hole creation step. However, the solubility of oxygen will decrease with increase in temperature and this can also affect the rate of photo-degradation reaction. In a separate chapter, the studies reported on the application of photo-catalysis for the decontamination of water will be considered. This field seems to assume importance in these days due to various reasons. However, the studies reported in this area have to be considered with care since the products of oxidation and their effects have not yet been established though it is generally assumed to be carbon dioxide.

Table.3. Electro-negativity, $[\chi]$, Band gap, (E_g) energy levels of the conduction band bottom (E_{CB}) and energy position of the top of valence band (E_{VB})

[data extracted from Y.Xu and M.A.A.Schoonen, American Mineralogist, 85, 543-556 (2000)]

Substance oxide	electro-negativity [χ] (χ)	Band Gap (E_g)	conduction band E_{CB}	Valence band E_{VB}
BaTiO ₃	5.12	3.30	-4.58	-7.88
Bi ₂ O ₃	6.23	2.80	-4.83	-7.63
CoTiO ₃	5.76	2.25	-4.64	-6.89
CuO	5.81	1.70	-4.96	-6.66
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.88	2.20	-4.78	-6.98
Ga ₂ O ₃	5.35	4.80	-2.95	-7.75
KNbO ₃	5.29	3.30	-3.64	-6.94
KTaO ₃	5.32	3.50	-3.57	-7.07
MnTiO ₃	5.59	3.10	-4.04	7.14
Nb ₂ O ₃	6.29	3.40	-4.59	-7.99
NiO	5.75	3.50	-4.00	-7.50
NiTiO ₃	5.79	2.18	-4.70	-6.88
PbO	5.42	2.80	-4.02	6.82
SnO ₂	6.25	3.50	-4.50	-8.00
SrTiO ₃	4.94	3.40	-3.24	-6.64
TiO ₂	5.81	3.20	-4.21	-7.41
V ₂ O ₅	6.10	2.80	-4.70	-7.50
WO ₃	6.59	2.70	-5.24	-7.94
ZnO	5.79	3.20	-4.19	-7.39
ZrO ₂	5.91	5.00	-3.41	-8.41

Table.4. Band positions of some semiconductor photo-catalysts in aqueous solution at pH =1 and positions are given in volts versus NHE.

Semiconductor material	Valence Band (V Vs NHE)	Conduction Band (V vs NHE)	Band gap (eV)	Band gap (Wavelength)
TiO ₂	+3.1	-0.1	3.2	387
SnO ₂	+4.1	+0.3	3.9	318
ZnO	+3.0	-0.2	3.2	387
ZnS	+1.4	-.2.3	3.7	337
WO ₃	+3.0	+0.2	2.8	443
CdS	+2.1	-0.4	2.5	496
CdSe	+1.6	-0.1	1.7	729

As seen earlier that one of the areas in which photocatalysis has been extensively employed is the decontamination of water. Water covers over tow thirds of earth's surface and less than a third is the land area. Oceans, rivers and other inland waters are continuously polluted by human activities leading to a gradual decrease in the quality of water. There are specified limits of concentration beyond which the presence of some substances is considered as polluting water.

In table 5, the recommended tolerance limits of pollutants are given.

Table 5 Recommended tolerance limits of pollutants in water [Data collected from K.C.Agarwal, Industrial power engineering and Applications, Butterworth-Heinemann, pp.565 (2001)

S.No	Parameter	recommended Tolerance level
1	Biological Oxygen Demand (BOD)	30mg/l
2	Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD)	250mg/l
3	Alkali traces	maximum upto pH 9
4	Acid	Note less than Ph 5.5
5	total suspended solitds	100mg/l
6	oiland grease	10mg/l
7	Dissolved phosphates as P	5mg/l
8	chlorides as (Cl)	600mg/l
9	sulphates (as SO ₄)	1000mg/l
10	Cyanides as (CN)	0.2mg/l
11	Total Chromium	2mg/l
12	hexavalent Chromium	0.1mg/l
13	Zinc as Zn	0.25mg/l
14	Iron	3mg/l
15	total heavy metals	7mg/l
16	Total Phenoloic compounds	1mg/l
17	Lead (Pb)	0.1mg/l
18	Copper as Cu	2.0 mg/l
19	Nickel as Ni	2.0 Mg/l
20	bioassay Test	90% survival after 96 hours

The common pollutants in water are classified as inorganic contaminants and organic pollutants. The main inorganic contaminants are the metal ions, nitrates, nitrites, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, ammonia, azide and halide ions. There are various studies reported in literature that deal with the photocatalytic decomposition or transformation of these inorganic contaminants. This will be dealt with in a separate chapter. Photocatalytic decomposition (mostly oxidation) of organic pollutants has been of great interest. In these studies, the reaction is carried out in presence of molecular oxygen or air for complete oxidation to carbon dioxide and water and possibly inorganic mineral acids as the final products. It has been shown that man of the organo-chlorides, pesticides, herbicides and surfactants are completely oxidized to carbon dioxide, water and hydrochloric acid. It may be worthwhile to realize the effect of some of the pollutants on human health. The data collected from literature are given in Table.6. It is to be remarked the effects of pollutants generally affect the human health in a variety of ways basically affecting the nervous system.

Table 6 Possible pollutants in water and their effect on human health

pollutant	adverse effect on human health
Atrazine	cancer,damage to nervous system
Benzene	cancerand anemia
Pentachlorophenol	Liver and Kidney damage and cancer
Trichloroethylene	cancer
Trichlorethane	Damage to Kidney, liver and nervous system
Bromoform	damage to nervous system and muscle
Carbofuran	Damage to nervous system, kidney, reproductive system and liver
carbon tetrachloride	cancer
Chlorobenzene	Damage to nervous system, Kidney and liver
Dibromochloroethane	Damage to nervous system and muscle and cancer
Endrin	Damage to nervous system, Kidney,Liver, anemia and cancer
Ethylbenzene	Damage to nervous sytem,liver and kidney
Heptachlor	cancer
Hetachlor epoxide	cancer
Hexachlorocycopentadiene	Damage to kidney and stomach
Lindane	Damage to nervous system, liver and kidney
Simazine	Damage to nervous system, cancer
Styrene	Damage to nervous system,kidney and liver
Tetrochloroethylene	Damage to nervous system, cancer
Toluene	Damage to nervous system, liver and kidney
1,2,4-trichlorobenzene	Damage to liver and kidney
Xylene pesticides	Damage to nervous system,liver, kidney lungs and membranes

In addition there are some Persistent Organic Pollutants (POP) like aldrin, chlordane DDT,hexachlorbenzene, furans,polychlorinated biphenyls, Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and so on. These substances some of which are called the dirty dozen cause many disorders including cancer breast cancer, damage to reproductive system, neuro-behavioural disorders and health related concerns.

1.4 Advanced Oxidation Processes

Irrespective of the method of generation of hydroxyl radicals, the methods which utilize hydroxyl radicals for carrying out the oxidaiton of the pollutants are grouped as Advanced Oxidation Processes. Hydroxyl radicals are extraordinarily reactive species and have one of the highest oxidation potential (2.8 V). The values of rate constants in reactions with organic substrates are in the range of $10^6 - 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [19][1] [12](Table 7). In addition hydroxyl radicals do not show any selectivity with respect to the position of attack on the organic substrates which is useful aspect for the treatment of water. The fact that the production of hydroxyl radicals can be made by a variety of methods adds to the versality of Advanced Oxidation Processes thus allowing a better compliance with the specific treatment requirements.An important consideration to be made in the application of AOP to waste water treatments is the requirement of expensive reactants like hydrogen peroxide and /or ozone. Hence, AOP cannot replace the application of more economical treatments methods such as biologi-

cal degradation whenever possible. A list of the different possibilities offered by AOP are briefly given in Table 8.

Table.7. Values of second order rate constants for the oxidation by ozone and hydroxyl radical for a variety of compounds [data from [19]

Organic compound	value of rate constant $M^{-1}s^{-1}$	
	Ozone ^a	OH* radical ^b
Benzene	2	7.8×10^9
n-butanol	0.6	4.6×10^9
t-butanol	0.03	0.4×10^9
Chlorobenzene	0.75	4×10^9
Tetrachloroethylene	<0.1	1.7×10^9
Toluene	14	7.8×10^9
Trichloroethylene	17	4.0×10^9

a- from Hoigne and Bader, 1983; b- from Farhatziz and Ross, 1977.

Table 8 Sources involved in the various Advanced Oxidation Processes

Source of Oxidants	Name of the processes
H_2O_2/Fe^{2+}	Fenton
H_2O_2/Fe^{3+}	Fenton like
$H_2O_2, / Fe^{2+}, Fe^{3+}, / UV$	Photoassisted Fenton
$TiO_2, h\nu, / O_2$	Photocatalysis
O_3 or H_2O_2 / UV	photoassisted oxidation

1.5 Bibliography

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