



TiO₂ modified with polyoxotungstates should induce visible-light absorption and high photocatalytic activity through the formation of surface complexes

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ABSTRACT

TiO₂ nanospherical particles prepared by the sol-gel method were modified with tungstophosphoric (TPA) and tungstosilicic acid (TSA) at 30% (w/w) and then annealed at 500 °C for 2 h. Materials were characterized by multitechniques, such as scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDX), FT-Raman spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), X-ray diffraction (XRD), diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS), ³¹P, ¹H and ²⁹Si magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance (MAS-NMR). Acidity and isoelectric point measurements were also performed. DRS results showed evidence of visible light absorption of TiO₂-TPA and TiO₂-TSA. MAS-NMR, XPS and FT-Raman characterization revealed evidence of a strong interaction between the Keggin anion of TPA or TSA and TiO₂ surfaces, possibly promoted by the formation of surface heteropolyacid-TiO₂ complexes; the latter should be responsible of its visible light absorption. Photocatalytic activity was evaluated in the degradation of malachite green (MG), a cationic triphenylmethane dye, and 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) aqueous solutions under UV-A and visible light irradiations. Under UV-A light, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ materials showed high photocatalytic activity towards MG degradation, even higher than that of TiO₂ P-25. When 4-CP was degraded, TiO₂ P-25 exhibited higher photocatalytic activity. Under visible light irradiation and using the modified photocatalysts, malachite green oxidation was achieved, while 4-chlorophenol reached almost 20% of degradation. Mechanisms of photocatalytic oxidation either under UV-A or visible irradiation are discussed.

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1. Introduction

During two decades, the potential of heterogeneous photocatalysis over TiO₂ to destroy a wide range of waterborne pollutants and microorganisms has aroused enormous interest [1,2]. These studies have positioned this technology as a promising process for the detoxification and disinfection of wastewaters.

However, nowadays several limitations have been highlighted and must be overcome for the successful application of heterogeneous photocatalysis over TiO₂ for water detoxification under solar light conditions. Among them, the absorption of visible light represents an enormous limitation in solar-driven photocatalytic

processes since it is well known that TiO₂, in any of its crystalline structures, anatase or rutile, absorbs only UV light, which is not abundant on the planet's surface (4–7% of total sunlight hitting the earth surface) [3,4]. Moreover, the high electron-hole recombination rate is an important issue since most of the charge carriers induced on TiO₂ by UV-light absorption undergoes fast recombination [5].

For this reason, many efforts have been focused on preparing TiO₂ based materials that absorb visible light while hindering electron-hole recombination [6–10]. The addition of heteropolyoxometallates (POMs), which are clusters of transition metals and oxygen, to TiO₂ has risen as a successful alternative to synthesize visible light absorbing materials with high photocatalytic activity, especially because the electronic features of POMs could decrease the electron-hole recombination [11–13].

The mechanism by which TiO₂ modified by POMs absorbs visible light is not yet a clear issue and many mechanisms have been

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proposed in the literature. For instance, Yu et al. [14] have suggested that visible light absorption of TiO₂ samples modified with tungstophosphoric acid (TPA) and annealed at 350 °C is due to the presence of phosphorus doping (P-doping) and WO₃, both species arising from the thermal degradation of TPA. However, this point is not clear since some studies reported in the literature have demonstrated that the Keggin anion of TPA is stable at temperatures up to 400 °C, even in TiO₂ samples modified with this POM [15].

On the other hand, Li et al. [16] and Lu et al. [17] have suggested that visible light absorption of the TPA/TiO₂ materials annealed at high temperatures is due to the charge transfer from O 2p orbitals of the valence band to the new conduction band formed by the hybridization of Ti 3d from TiO₂ and W 5d orbitals from the Keggin anion (band gap narrowing). In this case, evidence is given about the TPA Keggin anion remaining unaltered on the TiO₂ surface and about the formation of Ti–O–W bonds between terminal W=O groups from the Keggin unit and surface Ti atoms. However, the band gap narrowing caused by orbital hybridization is a controversial issue in visible light absorbing TiO₂ materials. Regarding N-doped TiO₂, Serpone [18] argues that hybridization of N 2p with O 2p orbitals should not be possible and might require high dopant loadings, altering the original integrity of the metal oxide.

Recently, our research group has prepared TiO₂ materials modified by tungstophosphoric acid (TPA) and tungstosilicic acid (TSA) via sol-gel synthesis at high temperatures (>400 °C) that exhibited high photocatalytic activity [19–21]. These studies found evidence about increasing the load of POMs in the TiO₂ samples, materials exhibited high visible light absorption and high photocatalytic activity, being the materials containing 30% (w/w) of TPA or TSA and annealed at 500 °C, those with the highest visible light absorption and photocatalytic activity [19–21]. In 2011, we claimed that visible light absorption of TPA–TiO₂ materials could be due to the formation of visible light absorbing WO_x species, such as WO₃ coming from the partial thermal degradation of TPA, although there is evidence that the Keggin anion remains unaltered on TiO₂ [19]. In 2014, we prepared several TPA–TiO₂ materials by impregnation of TPA at different pH values (1.0, 2.0, 5.0 and 10.0) [21]. Visible light absorption was only observed in the samples impregnated at low pH (1.0 and 2.0). At these pH values, the Keggin anion is the main TPA species in solution, leading us to suggest that the cause for visible light absorption in the TPA–TiO₂ systems could be attributed to the strong interaction between the Keggin anion and TiO₂ surface yielding a TPA–TiO₂ surface complex rather than to the presence of WO_x species.

Regarding the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ materials modified by heteropolyoxometallates, mainly by TPA, a common conclusion can be drawn: these materials show high photocatalytic activity either under UV or visible light irradiation [11–22]. Indeed, few studies suggesting mechanisms of photocatalytic activity have been reported. Under UV light irradiation, it is clear that photocatalytic activity is caused by the low electron-hole recombination in TPA–TiO₂ materials since the electronic transfer of photoinduced conduction band electrons to TPA species could be thermodynamically favored [11–13]. However, the mechanisms under visible light irradiation are yet under debate. For instance, Yu et al. [14] suggested that P-doping in TiO₂ should be responsible for visible light absorption, thus yielding photoinduced electrons and holes. The valence band holes on TiO₂ should be responsible for the oxidation of organic compounds, while the conduction band electrons should be transferred to WO₃ (since the conduction band of P-doped TiO₂ is more cathodic than the conduction band of WO₃). Yang et al. [22] proposed a mechanism for the degradation of methylene blue under visible light irradiation by TPA–TiO₂ materials. They claimed that TPA–TiO₂ nanocomposites absorb visible light generating electron-hole pairs on TiO₂ particles and then, the conduction band electrons are transferred to TPA decreasing the electron-hole

recombination. Moreover, the high photocatalytic activity of such materials is also attributed to their bimodal porous structure, which provides enhanced mass transport and high adsorption of methylene blue on the photocatalyst surface. It is not clear, however, how these materials can absorb visible light. On the other hand, Lu et al. [17] have suggested that the oxidation of Rhodamine B aqueous solutions by TPA–TiO₂ composites is due to the generation of electron-hole pairs by visible light irradiation. This excitation is possible since TPA might cause a band gap narrowing on TiO₂, thus photoinduced valence band holes or •OH radicals should be responsible for Rhodamine B oxidation.

In our study published in 2011 [19] we reported that TPA–TiO₂ materials showed a high activity towards the oxidation of malachite green (MG), a cationic triphenylmethane dye, under UV and visible light irradiation. We concluded that visible light activity could be attributed to the excitation of WO_x species producing oxidative forms responsible for malachite green abatement. Regarding the photocatalytic activity of materials containing tungstosilicic acid (TSA) with either UV or visible light irradiation, there are not many studies in the literature. For instance, the preparation of monovacant Keggin anion-silica composites (SiW₁₁–SiO₂) leads to the formation of materials with an interesting photocatalytic activity towards malic acid oxidation upon UV light irradiation. The authors suggested that this activity was related to the excitation of the Keggin anion of the polyoxometallates by UV irradiation [23,24]. Recently, we reported that TSA–TiO₂ materials synthesized via the sol-gel process exhibit visible light absorption and high photocatalytic activity during 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) oxidation upon UV + visible light irradiation [20].

The main aim and novelty of this study was to gain a better understanding, by performing a multitechniques characterization and evaluating the photocatalytic activity upon UV-A and visible light, about why TiO₂ nanoparticles modified with polyoxometallates absorb visible light and which should be their photocatalytic mechanisms to the organics abatement upon different light sources irradiation.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

The chemical substances used to synthesize the TiO₂-based samples and perform the photocatalytic tests were: titanium tetraisopropoxide (99%, Sigma-Aldrich), urea (99%, Sigma-Aldrich), tungstophosphoric acid (H₃PW₁₂O₄₀·23H₂O), tungstosilicic acid (H₄SiW₁₂O₄₀·23H₂O) (99%, Fluka), malachite green oxalate (MG) (99%, Sigma-Aldrich), 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) (99%, Fluka), ethanol (Merck, absolute grade), HCl (37%, Carlo Erba). All chemicals were used as received.

2.2. Sample preparation

Titanium isopropoxide (26.7 g) was mixed with absolute ethanol (186.6 g) and stirred for 10 min under N₂ at room temperature to obtain a homogeneous solution, then 0.33 mL of 0.28 M HCl aqueous solution was dropped slowly into the above mixture to catalyze the sol-gel reaction and was left to stand for 3 h. Then, 120 g of urea-alcohol-water (1:5:1 wt ratio) solution was added to the hydrolyzed solution under vigorous stirring, to act as template, together with an ethanol solution of H₃PW₁₂O₄₀·23H₂O (TPA) or H₄SiW₁₂O₄₀·23H₂O (TSA). The amount of TPA or TSA solutions was fixed in order to obtain a concentration of 30% TPA or TSA (W concentration of 22.9% TPA (w/w) and 23.5% TSA (w/w)) by weight in the final material.

The gels were dried at room temperature in a beaker. The solids were ground into powder and extracted with distilled water for three periods of 24 h to remove urea, in a system with continuous stirring. Finally, the solids were thermally treated at 500 °C for 2 h. The samples will be named TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂, respectively.

2.3. Sample characterization

2.3.1. Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS)

The diffuse reflectance spectra of the materials were recorded using a UV-vis Lambda 35, PerkinElmer spectrophotometer, to which a diffuse reflectance chamber Labsphere RSA-PE-20 with an integrating sphere of 50 mm diameter and internal Spectralon coating is attached, in the 250–800 nm wavelength range. Spectralon was used as reference.

2.3.2. X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements

X-ray diffraction patterns of the samples were recorded using Philips PW 1732 equipment with a built-in recorder and CuK α radiation, nickel filter, 20 mA and 40 kV in the high voltage source, and scanning angle between 5 and 60° of 2 θ at a scanning rate of 1° per min.

2.3.3. Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR)

²⁹Si and ³¹P MAS NMR experiments were performed on a 9.4 T Avance Bruker Spectrometer operating at 161.9 MHz and 79.5 MHz, respectively. We used a 4 mm diameter rotor spinning at 10 kHz and applied Bloch decay (single pulse acquisition) with a radio-frequency field of 100 kHz (³¹P) and 35 kHz (²⁹Si) and pulse width of 10°. Due to the very small amount of NMR active nuclei in the sample, no relaxation time measurement could be performed and we chose a recycle delay of 15 s (³¹P) and 1 s (²⁹Si) based on various trials while accumulating between 21120 (3.7 days) and 642600 (7.5 days) scans, respectively. ¹H MAS-NMR experiments were performed on a 17.6 T Avance III Bruker spectrometer operating at 750.3 MHz. Hahn echo experiments were performed spinning at 30 kHz to remove the large probe background using a delay of 5 rotor periods (160 μ s) and a radio-frequency field strength of 100 kHz. ³¹P spectra are referenced to a 1 M solution of H₃PO₄, whereas ²⁹Si and ¹H ones are referenced to tetramethylsilane.

2.3.4. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

XPS analyses were carried out with XPS Analyzer Kratos model Axis Ultra with a monochromatic AlK α and charge neutralizer. The deconvolution software program was provided by Kratos, the manufacturer of the XPS instrument. All the binding energies were referred to the C1s peak at 285 eV of adventitious carbon. Powder samples were prepared by deposition of the solid on carbon type stuck to the sample holder.

2.3.5. Fourier transform Raman spectroscopy (FT-Raman)

Raman scattering spectra were recorded on a Raman Horiba Jobin-Yvon T 64000 instrument with an Ar⁺ laser source of 488 nm wavelength in a macroscopic configuration.

2.3.6. Acidity measurements by potentiometric titration

The solid (0.05 g) was suspended in acetonitrile (Merck) and stirred for 3 h. Then, the suspension was titrated with 0.05 N *n*-butylamine (Carlo Erba) in acetonitrile using Metrohm 794 Basic Titrino apparatus with a double junction electrode.

2.3.7. Isoelectric point (IP)

The isoelectric point was calculated from zeta potential measurements at different pH values. Laser Doppler velocimetry was applied to characterize the electrophoretic mobility (EPM) of the

particles using a Malvern Zetasizer Nano ZS. Measured EPMs were converted to zeta potential using the Smoluchowski equation:

$$U = \varepsilon \frac{\zeta}{\mu} \quad (1)$$

where U is the electrophoretic mobility, ε is the dielectric constant of the solution, μ is its viscosity, and ζ is the zeta potential.

Disposable folded capillary cells were employed. First, 0.05 g of solid was suspended in 15 mL of Milli-Q water and the solution pH was modified by adding HCl or NaOH.

2.3.8. Scanning electron microscopy with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDX)

The secondary electron micrographs of the samples were obtained by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using Philips 505 Model equipment and EDAX 9100 analyzer at a working potential of 15 kV and graphite-supported samples metallized with gold.

2.3.9. Atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS)

Tungsten (W) determination was carried out using an atomic absorption spectrometer Varian AA model 240 spectrophotometer. The calibration method was used with in-house prepared standards. Analyses were carried out at a wavelength of 254.9 nm, bandwidth 0.3 nm, lamp current 15 mA, phototube amplification 800 V, burner height 4 mm, and acetylene-nitrous oxide flame (11:4 volumetric ratio).

2.4. Photocatalytic activity

TiO₂ (1.0 g l⁻¹) was added to a 1.0 \times 10⁻⁵ M aqueous malachite green oxalate solution or 1.0 \times 10⁻⁴ M aqueous solution of 4-chlorophenol contained in 50 mL cylindrical Pyrex bottles. Prior to UV or blue-light irradiation, the resulting suspension was kept under magnetic stirring in the dark for ca. 30 min to ensure that dye/TiO₂ or 4-chlorophenol/TiO₂ surface adsorption/desorption processes were reached. The suspension was then irradiated by 5 UV black light lamps Philips TLD 18W (emission spectra: 330–400 nm and UV intensity between 300 and 400 nm: 38 W m⁻²) or 5 blue fluorescent lamps Philips TLD-18W (emission spectra: 400–500 nm with UV intensity: 0.1 W m⁻² and global intensity between 290 and 1100 nm: 60 W m⁻²). UV and global intensity were monitored with a Kipp & Zonen (CM3) power meter (Omni instruments Ltd, Dundee, UK). The samples taken at different illumination times were filtered through membranes of 0.22 μ m pore size, and the discoloration of the MG solution was followed by UV-vis spectrophotometry (Varian Cary 1-E) monitoring the absorbance at 618 nm. The initial pH of each solution was adjusted to 5.0 by adding HCl (Cl⁻ concentration was kept below 1 mM). The running temperature was never higher than 38 °C.

The W leaching experiments were performed by adding amounts of TPA-TiO₂ or TSA-TiO₂ materials to 50 mL of distilled water until a solid concentration of 1 g l⁻¹ was obtained. These suspensions were then irradiated for 4 h with UV-A light. Finally, the solutions were centrifuged and the supernatant was analyzed by AAS.

3. Results

3.1. TiO₂, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ characterization

Fig. 1 shows the DRS spectra of pristine TiO₂ and TiO₂ modified with TPA or TSA. TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples exhibit a broad absorption band in the UV region due to the presence of TiO₂, as well as TPA or TSA. TiO₂ shows light absorption at wavelengths below 400 nm mainly due to electronic promotion from the O 1s valence band to the Ti 2p conduction band [25]. On the other hand,

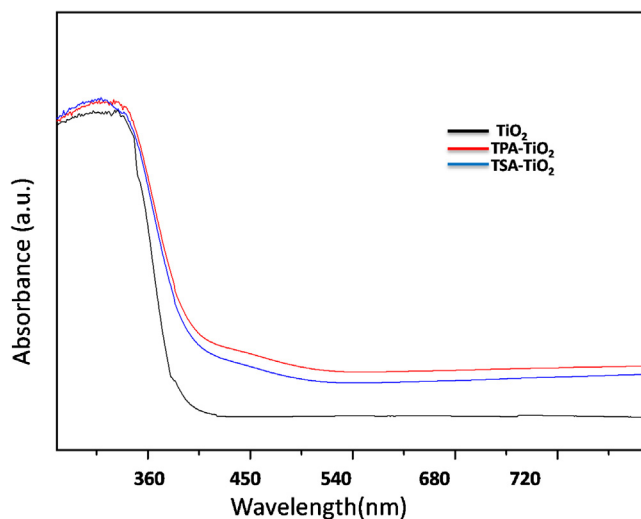


Fig. 1. DRS spectra of TiO₂ (black line), TPA-TiO₂ (red line) and TSA-TiO₂ (blue line) samples. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

TPA and TSA exhibit two intense bands in the range 200–450 nm [26], attributed to the charge transfer from bridging or terminal O 2p to W 5d (W–O–W and W–Od).

However, it was not possible to identify single absorption bands corresponding to TPA and TSA in the TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples, respectively. In addition, DRS results revealed that TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples absorb visible light at wavelengths up to 400 nm.

The W content in the TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples was estimated as the difference between the W amount contained in the TPA or TSA solutions and the remaining amount of W in the solutions obtained during the washing of xerogels. The amount of W was determined by atomic absorption spectrometry. The results obtained revealed that the W content in the samples was 22.6% (w/w) and 23.2% (w/w) for the TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples, respectively, which agrees well with the initial W amount added as TPA and TSA during the synthesis (W concentration 22.9% TPA (w/w) and 23.5% TSA (w/w)).

The SEM images (S1) showed that all the synthesized samples are composed of spherical nanoparticles with an average diameter of around 500 nm. This morphology is produced by the presence of urea during sample preparation. As already reported [19,27], urea decomposition in aqueous solution during sol-gel synthesis might smoothly increase the pH, leading to the formation of TiO₂ nanoparticles with a controlled morphology, in this case, spherical. On the other hand, the EDX measurements revealed the existence of W signals $\text{L}\alpha 1$ and $\text{M}\alpha 1$ at 8.396 and 1.779 KeV, respectively in TiO₂-TPA samples, while TiO₂-TSA samples showed the same W signals and a new one at 1.838 KeV assigned to Si $\text{M}\alpha$ line. This fact is closely related to the presence of POMs or some of their degradation by-products on the modified TiO₂ surface.

The XRD patterns of the synthesized samples are shown in S3. All the samples exhibited peaks related to the anatase phase of TiO₂ ($2\theta = 25.3^\circ, 37.9^\circ, 47.8^\circ$ and 54.3°) [28]. TPA and TSA peaks were not found, probably because heteropolyacids (HPAs) are highly dispersed on the titania matrix or as a noncrystalline phase. Fig. 3 also shows the line broadening that took place, which is an indication of a low crystallinity. Indeed, previous studies indicated that the presence of TPA or TSA produces a detrimental effect on the crystallinity of TiO₂ [15,29].

The FT-Raman scattering spectra (Fig. 2A) revealed the presence of the typical peaks often linked to the presence of anatase TiO₂ in all the TiO₂ samples. Anatase TiO₂ belongs to the tetragonal space

group D_{4h}^{1g} ($I4_1/amd$), which exhibits six Raman active modes ($A_{1g} + 2B_{1g} + 3E_g$) at 141.3 cm^{-1} (E_g), 197 cm^{-1} (E_g), 394.4 cm^{-1} (B_{1g}), 516.1 cm^{-1} (A_{1g}, B_{1g}), and 636.7 cm^{-1} (E_g) [30]. On the other hand, the FT-Raman spectrum of bulk TPA showed Raman vibration bands typically assigned to the Keggin anion at 1080, 990, 930, and 890 cm^{-1} , which are attributed to antisymmetric vibrations of P–O, W=O and W–O–W bonds [31]. TSA exhibited FT-Raman peaks at 1000 cm^{-1} , 976 cm^{-1} and 926 cm^{-1} corresponding to ν_s (W–O), ν_{as} (W–O) and ν_{as} (W–O–W), respectively, which agree very well with those of the Keggin anion of TSA [32,33].

Fig. 2C shows that Raman peaks of TPA and TSA between 1000 and 800 cm^{-1} undergo an important broadening when HPAs are present on TiO₂. Furthermore, the main Raman scattering peak of TiO₂ at 141 cm^{-1} exhibited a strong blue shift and broadening (Fig. 2B). Some authors have attributed the shift and broadening of the Raman band at 141 cm^{-1} in anatase TiO₂ to deviations from stoichiometry [34,35]. This Raman band arises from O–Ti–O band-bending-type vibrations; thus this shift may be related to the presence of oxygen deficiencies or disorders induced by minority phases [30,34–36]. Moreover, Li et al. [16] have argued that the shift and broadening of the Raman vibration modes of TPA and TiO₂ could also be associated with a strong interaction between the TiO₂ network and TPA.

The XPS spectra are shown in Fig. 3. The literature reports a doublet for the W 4f XPS peak of pure TPA and TSA with binding energies (BE) at 37.9 and 35.8 eV corresponding to W (VI) typically present in the Keggin anions of TSA and TPA [37,38]. On the other hand, high resolution XPS spectra of W 4f from TiO₂-TPA and TiO₂-TSA samples (Fig. 3a and b) also exhibited a doublet with BE at 38.2 and 36.2 eV, indicating that these peaks underwent a slight shift, which is too small for a change in the oxidation state of W atoms, and should be related to some interaction between the Keggin anion and the TiO₂ surface.

Figs. 3c and d show the high resolution XPS spectra for Ti 2p and O 1s signals. Often, TiO₂ shows a Ti 2p doublet signal with BE at 459 and 465 eV due to the presence of Ti (IV), while the O 1s signal reveals two peaks with BE at 530.6 and 532.2 eV due to Ti–O and Ti–OH bonds, respectively [39,40]. The TiO₂-TPA and TiO₂-TSA samples did not show any change of the XPS Ti 2p signal; however, the O 1s peak at 530 eV underwent a slight shift.

The acidity measurements of the catalysts by means of potentiometric titration with *n*-butylamine led us to estimate the acid strength and the number of acid sites and their distribution. As a

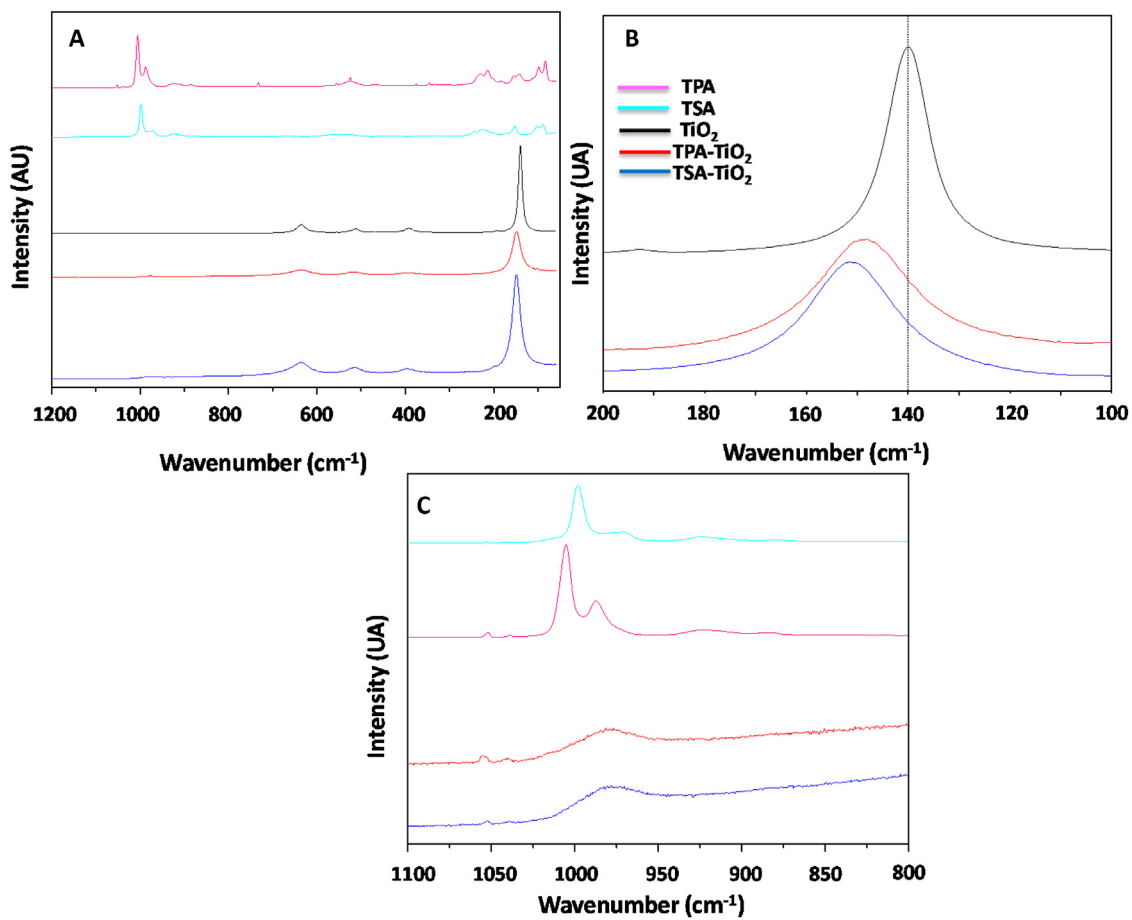


Fig. 2. FT-Raman spectra of TPA, TSA, TiO₂, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples.

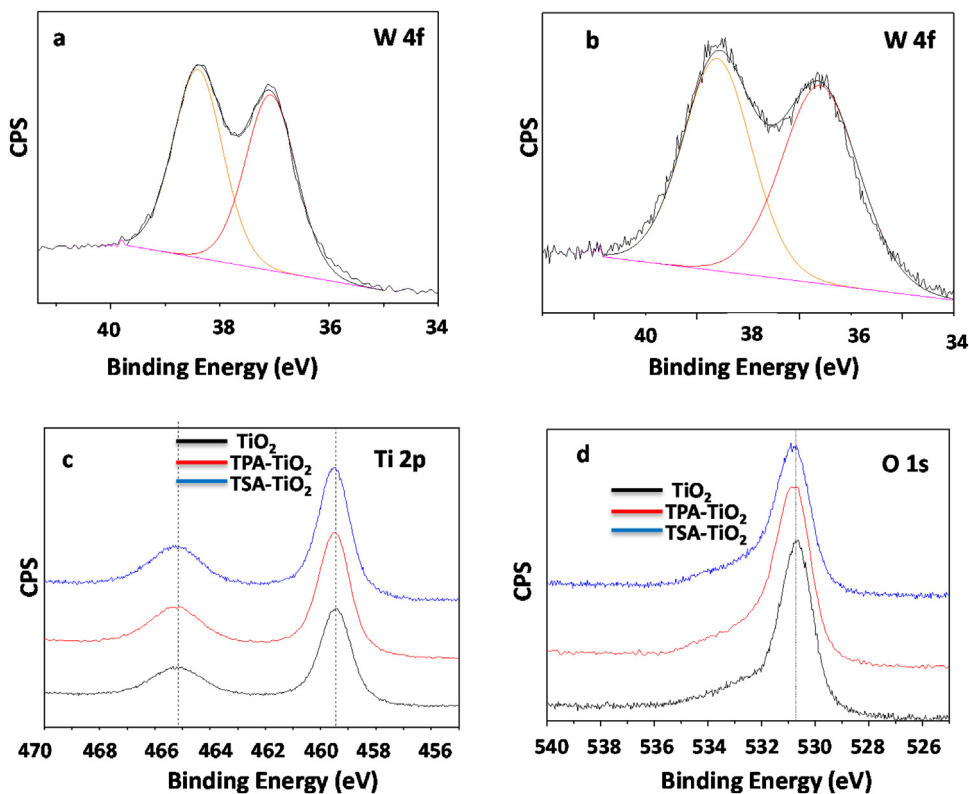


Fig. 3. XPS spectra of W 4f signal in (a) TPA-TiO₂, (b) TSA-TiO₂ samples. (c) Ti 2p and (d) O 1s signals in TiO₂, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples.

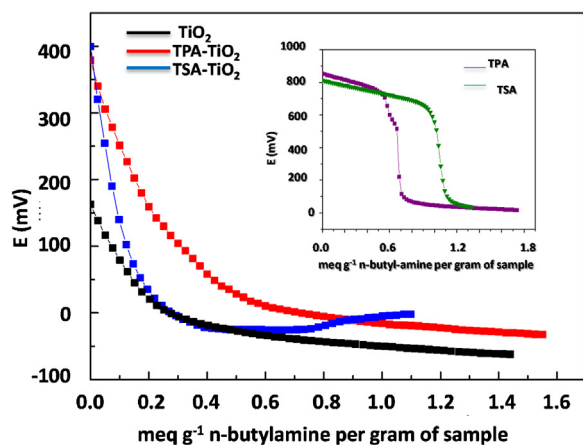


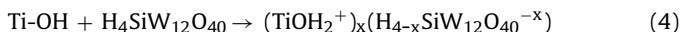
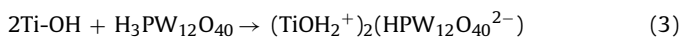
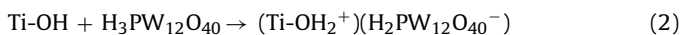
Fig. 4. Potentiometric titration with *n*-butylamine of TiO₂, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples (TPA and TSA as inset).

criterion to interpret the obtained results, it was suggested that the initial electrode potential (E_i) indicates the maximum acid strength of the sites and the value of meq amine g⁻¹ solid where the plateau is reached indicates the total number of acid sites. The acid strength of these sites may be classified according to the following scale [41,42]:

$$E_i > 100 \text{ mV (very strong sites)}, 0 < E_i < 100 \text{ mV (strong sites)}, \\ -100 < E_i < 0 \text{ (weak sites)} \text{ and } E_i < -100 \text{ mV (very weak sites)}.$$

According to the potentiometric titration curves of TiO₂, TiO₂-TPA and TiO₂-TSA samples (Fig. 4), the acid strength of the TiO₂-TPA and TiO₂-TSA samples ($E_i = 378$ and 398 mV, respectively) is higher than that of TiO₂ ($E_i = 150$ mV) but lower than that of bulk TPA and TSA ($E_i = 800$ and 850 mV, respectively). The titration curves of bulk TPA and bulk TSA are shown in the inset of Fig. 4. Bulk TPA and TSA showed a very high acidity ($E_i = 800$ and 850 mV, respectively). The lower acid strength of the TiO₂-TPA and TiO₂-TSA samples compared to bulk HPA could be assigned to the fact that the protons in TPA and TSA are present as H⁺(H₂O)_n species, whereas in the titania-modified samples they are interacting with the Ti-OH groups.

The interaction can be assumed to be of the electrostatic type due to the transfer of protons to Ti-OH sites according to:



The z-potential measurements were performed to determine the isoelectric point (IP) of the solids (Table 1). Synthesized pristine anatase TiO₂ exhibited an IP of 5.7, which agrees very well with the IP of anatase TiO₂ (IP 6.0) [43]. On the other hand, the samples containing heteropolyacids showed an important decrease of their IP. The TiO₂-TPA sample exhibited an IP close to 1.8, while the IP of the TiO₂-TSA sample was 3.5. The presence of acid sites

Table 1
Isoelectric points of samples.

Sample	pH _{pzc}
TiO ₂	5.7
TiO ₂ -TPA-30%	1.8
TiO ₂ -TSA-30%	3.5

evidenced by the acidity measurements could be closely linked to these observations.

The MAS-NMR measurements of ³¹P, ²⁹Si and ¹H nuclei were also performed. Results of ³¹P MAS-NMR of bulk TPA showed a doublet at -14.7 ppm and -15.0 ppm, which can very probably be related to the hydrated Keggin anion of tungstophosphoric acid (H₃PW₁₂O₄₀·6H₂O) [44,45] (Fig. 5a.2). However, the spectrum of TPA-TiO₂ sample exhibited an intense signal at -13.5 ppm and also a broad peak ranging from 1 to -20 ppm (Fig. 5a.1). The deconvolution of the latter signal (Fig. 5a.3) revealed the presence of small peaks at -11.2 and a wide signal at -12 ppm, which was absent in the “blank” experiment performed on the pure TiO₂ precursor. The peak at -13.5 ppm could be related to the presence of the Keggin anion of TPA interacting with the TiO₂ surface by forming surface species such as (≡TiOH₂⁺)(H₂PW₁₂O₄₀⁻) and (≡TiOH₂⁺)₂(HPW₁₂O₄₀²⁻) [29,46] or surface complex with the formation of Ti-O-W bonds between TPA and TiO₂. On the other hand, the wide signal at -12.0 and the small peak at -11.2 ppm should be due to the presence of dimeric and lacunar species [31] of TPA ([P₂W₂₁O₇₁]⁶⁻ and [PW₁₁O₃₉]⁷⁻, respectively), the former presenting a large distribution of phosphorus environments, as evidenced by its important ³¹P line width. The ²⁹Si solid NMR data are shown in Fig. 5b. The ²⁹Si signal for bulk TSA (Fig. 5b.2) exhibited a narrow peak at -84.7 ppm, which corresponds to the Keggin anion [47]. In TSA-TiO₂ this signal showed a tiny shift (ca. 0.3 ppm) since a peak at -85 ppm was detected (Fig. 5b.1). Furthermore, a broad peak localized between -100 and -120 ppm and centered at ca. -110 ppm was also observed. This latter signal is consistent with the presence of amorphous silica Q₄ species or lacunar species such as [SiW₁₁O₃₉]⁸⁻ coming from the partial degradation of TSA [33,47].

Moreover, ¹H MAS-NMR characterization was also done (Fig. 6a and b). The ¹H spectra of bulk TPA and TSA (which have not been previously dehydrated) showed two peaks at high and low fields (at 7.5 and 6.8 ppm for TPA and 7.8 and 6.9 ppm for TSA), which could be related to interactions of water with protons of Keggin anions by forming H₃O⁺ [45] (Fig. 6(a.3) and (b.3)).

Pristine TiO₂ samples exhibited two signals, a first intense and broad peak with a chemical displacement at ca. 5.6 ppm, probably due to bridging titanol groups (Ti-OH) and a second small and broad peak at 1.5 ppm, which could correspond to terminal titanol groups on the TiO₂ surface [48] (Fig. 6(a.2) and (b.2)).

The TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples (Fig. 6a.1 and b.1) showed the intense and broad signal at 5.5 ppm assigned to bridging titanol groups [48]. This peak is broader in samples containing TPA and TSA than in pristine TiO₂. The TSA-TiO₂ sample revealed two new signals at ca. 3.5 and 1.1 ppm, which could be related to the presence of silanol groups, such as those in SiO₂ [48]. A very small peak can also be observed on the left tail of the main component at 6.8 ppm, i.e., very close to the position of the ¹H peak of bulk TSA.

Fig. 7 shows the spectra of the same samples with a long (5 ms) echo delay that removes all fast relaxing components, such as the strongly dipolar-coupled titanol groups, while keeping the isolated or rapidly moving species. The above-mentioned tiny signal is then observed in both TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples at 6.8 ppm, in agreement with the presence of Keggin anions of TPA and TSA interacting with the TiO₂ surface and hence confirming the presence of acid sites on the surface. It is also interesting to note that the appearance of those surface species in the same long delay echo acquisition means that they are very probably mobile, at least on the NMR time scale. The remaining broad peak observed for TiO₂-TPA could probably be related to the broad peak observed in the ³¹P spectra, i.e., decomposed TPA.

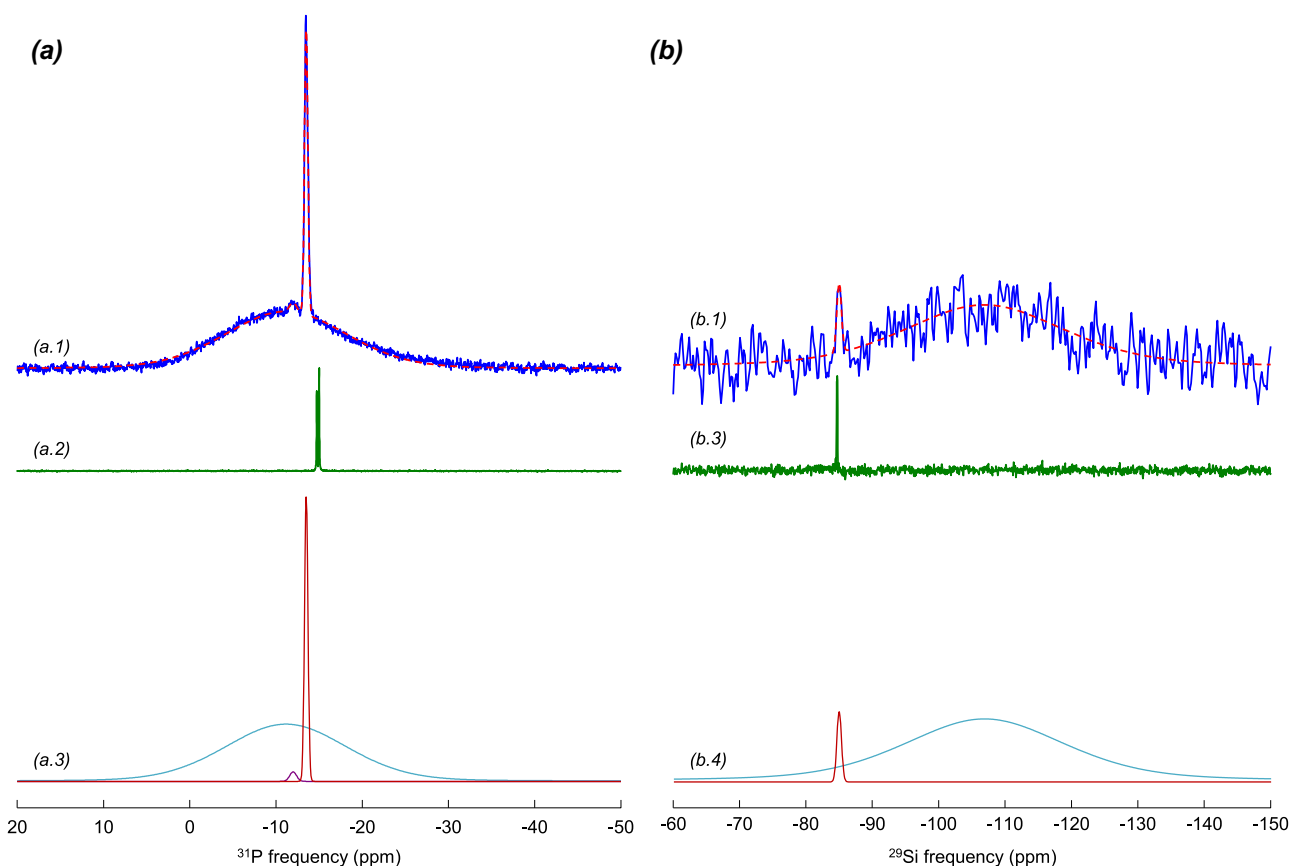


Fig. 5. (a) ^{31}P MAS-NMR spectra of (a.1) TPA-TiO₂ and (a.2) bulk TPA samples (a.3) the three individual components of the simulation are displayed. (b) ^{29}Si MAS-NMR spectra of (b.1) TSA-TiO₂ and (b.2) bulk TSA (b.3), the two individual components of the simulation are displayed.

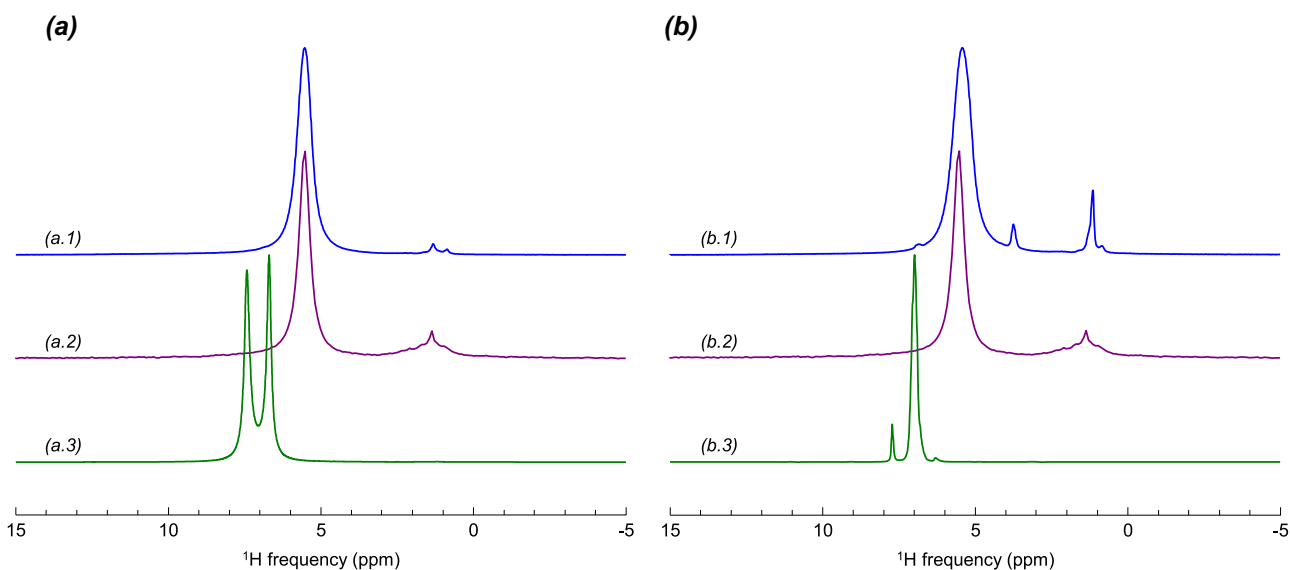


Fig. 6. ^1H MAS-NMR spectra of (a.1) TPA-TiO₂ and (b.1) TSA-TiO₂ along with (a.2, b.2) pristine TiO₂, (a.3) bulk TPA and (b.3) bulk TSA.

3.2. Photocatalytic activity upon UV-A and visible irradiation

Regarding the photocatalytic activity of the synthesized samples, Fig. 8 shows the photocatalytic experiments performed upon UV-A irradiation. The TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples exhibited a higher photocatalytic activity towards malachite green (MG) degradation than that of pristine sol-gel synthesized TiO₂ and Evonik P-25 powders. However, the photocatalytic activity of TPA-TiO₂

sample was slightly higher than that of TSA-TiO₂. The existence of a strong dark adsorption of MG dye on heteropolyacid-modified TiO₂ (Fig. 8a) is remarkable. This could be due to the fact that MG is a cationic dye and at pH 5.0 (pH at which experiments were performed), TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples should show a negatively charged surface since their IPs are 1.8 and 3.5, respectively, thus electrostatic interactions between the cationic dye and the modi-

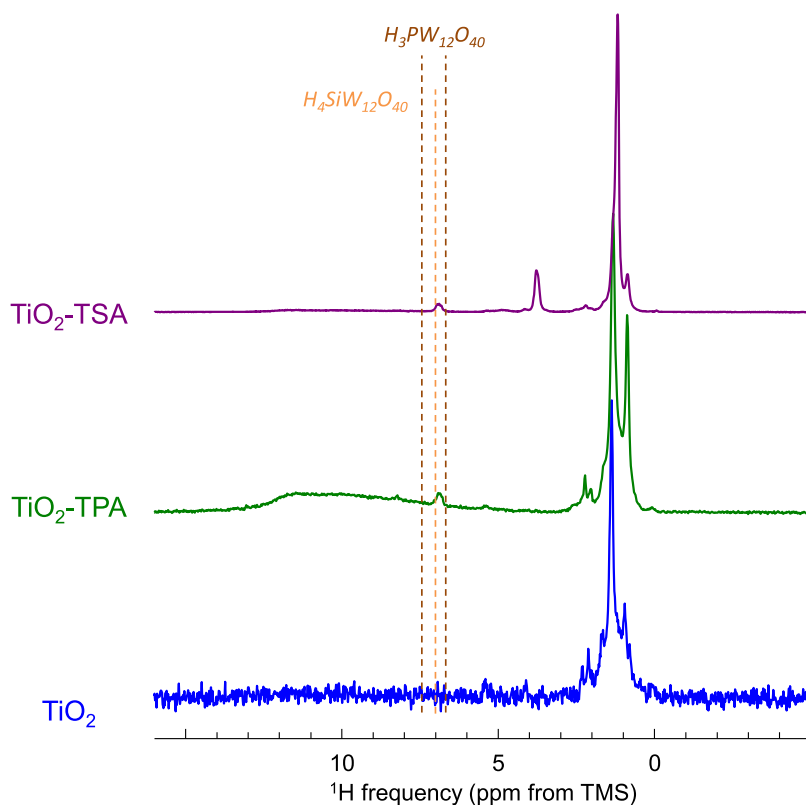


Fig. 7. ^1H MAS-NMR spectrum of TiO_2 , TPA- TiO_2 and TSA- TiO_2 samples obtained using a long delay (5 ms) Hahn echo acquisition, selecting components with long (transverse) relaxation times.

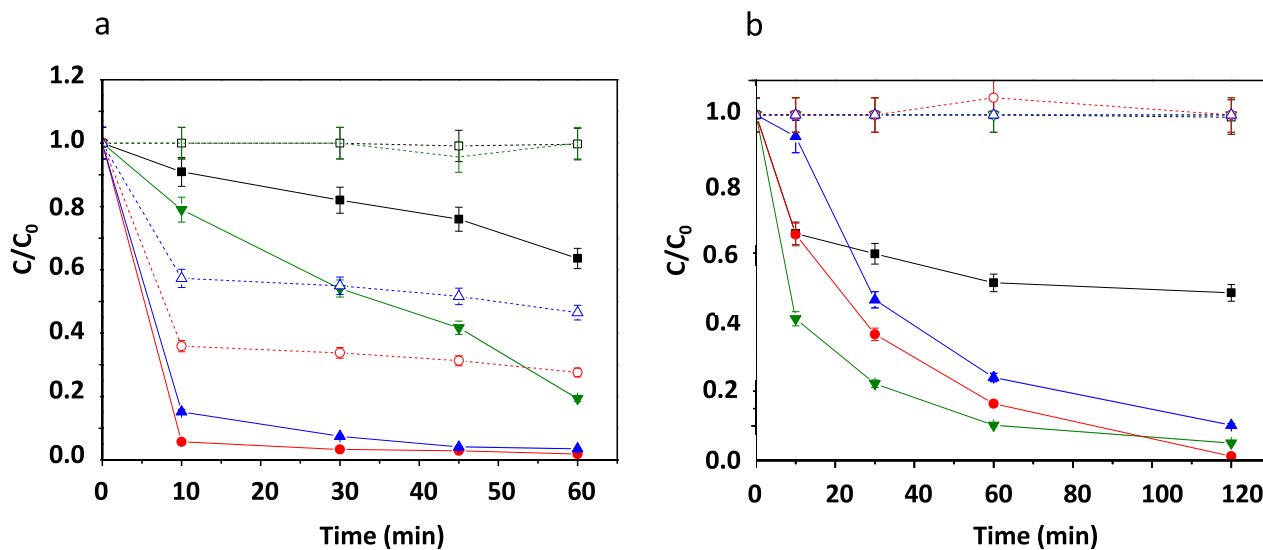


Fig. 8. Photocatalytic activity upon UV-A light irradiation of (a) malachite green and (b) 4-chlorophenol. \square – dark + Pristine TiO_2 ; –x– MG + UV light; – \triangle – dark + P-25; – \triangle – dark + TSA- TiO_2 ; – \square – dark + TPA- TiO_2 ; – \blacksquare – Pristine TiO_2 + UV-A; – ∇ – P-25 + UV-A; – \blacktriangle – TSA- TiO_2 + UV-A; – \blacklozenge – TPA- TiO_2 + UV-A. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

fied TiO_2 may take place. Results also evidenced that UV-A light did not produce malachite green degradation.

Surprisingly, 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) revealed a different behavior (Fig. 8b). In this case, Evonik P-25 showed the best photocatalytic activity upon UV-A irradiation, followed by TPA- TiO_2 and TSA- TiO_2 modified samples, respectively. In contrast, pristine sol-gel synthesized TiO_2 powder exhibited the worst performance. Dark adsorption of 4-CP was negligible.

Upon visible light irradiation, the results showed that MG was rapidly degraded by TPA- TiO_2 and TSA- TiO_2 samples (Fig. 9a); however, the former showed the highest photocatalytic activity. Evonik P-25 and pristine TiO_2 did not exhibit photocatalytic activity. On the contrary, when 4-CP was used as organic target, TPA and TSA modified TiO_2 powders showed a slight degradation (ca. 20%), while pristine TiO_2 and Evonik P-25 did not exhibit any activity (Fig. 9b).

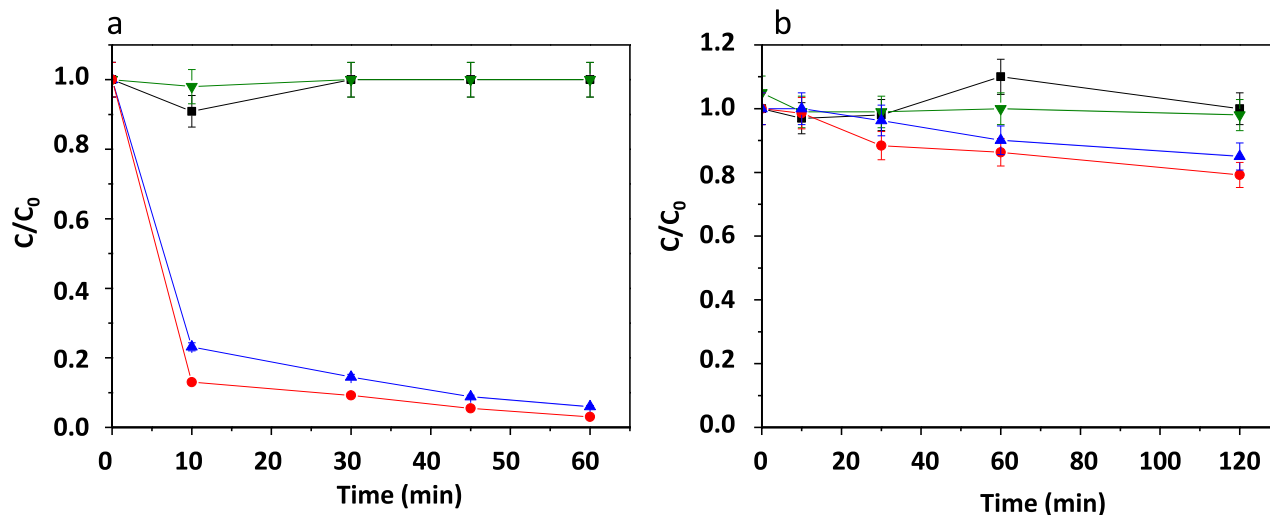
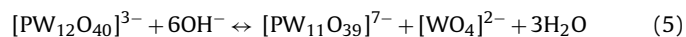


Fig. 9. Photocatalytic activity upon visible light irradiation of (a) malachite green and (b) 4-chlorophenol. ■— Pristine TiO₂ + vis; ▽— P-25 + vis; ▲— TSA-TiO₂ + vis; ■— TPA-TiO₂ + vis. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Finally, the leaching of heteropolyacids into the water from TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples was evaluated by measuring the W amount by atomic absorption spectroscopy after 4 h of UV-A irradiation. Results suggested that a small amount of the TPA or TSA initially added during the preparation of samples leached after light irradiation (0.04% for TPA-TiO₂ and 0.08% for TSA-TiO₂). This indicates high stability of the samples and that most parts of TPA and TSA are interacting strongly with the TiO₂ surface. However, further characterization studies of the modified materials after the photocatalytic process are required in order to evaluate the chemical stability of the heteropolyacids present in TiO₂.

4. Discussion

The ³¹P and ²⁹Si MAS-NMR measurements and XPS signal of W 4f peak demonstrated that the [PW₁₂O₄₀]³⁻ and [SiW₁₂O₄₀]⁴⁻ Keggin anions should be the main species present in TiO₂ modified samples. The Keggin anion of TPA and TSA heteropolyacids is stable at low pH, thus its degradation could be neglected during the sol-gel synthesis since it was catalyzed by HCl in ethanolic media [49]. At high temperatures (T > 500 °C), a partial thermal degradation was observed in TPA-TiO₂ sample leading to the production of dimeric ([P₂W₂₁O₇₁]⁶⁻) and lacunar ([PW₁₁O₃₉]⁷⁻) species. On the other hand, the sol-gel synthesis involved urea addition; urea can decompose, forming ammonia (NH₄⁺), which may increase the pH leading to the partial decomposition of TPA to lacunar species (Eq. 4). The latter species could lead to the production of wolframate (WO₄²⁻), which could be the precursor of WO_x species (among them WO₃, which is a semiconductor with low band gap and visible light absorption) [49]. However, in previous studies we found that wolframate production by TPA degradation is not related to visible light absorption in TiO₂ materials modified with TPA [21].



The ²⁹Si MAS-NMR of TSA-TiO₂ sample showed the presence of tungstosilicic or SiO₂ species. It has been previously reported that bulk TSA undergoes thermal degradation at temperatures higher than 500 °C [50], leading to the production of SiO₂ and WO_x species (Eq. 5). TSA could also be sensible to pH changes; at basic pH values, [SiW₁₂O₄₀]⁴⁻ can be transformed to [SiW₁₁O₃₉]⁸⁻ and [SiW₉O₃₄]¹⁰⁻ lacunary isomers [51]. However, herein their presence could not be established. XRD and XPS measurements did not

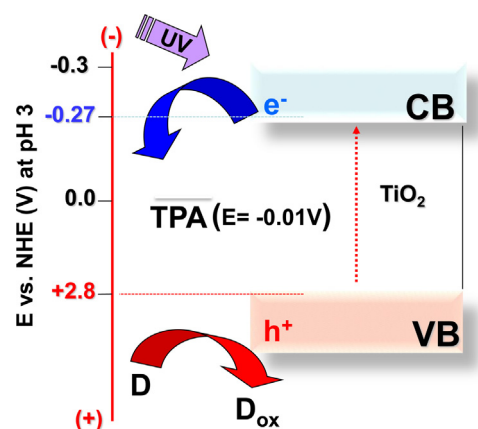
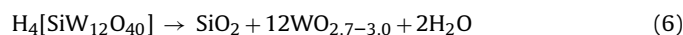


Fig. 10. Mechanism suggested for the photocatalytic activity of TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples upon UV-A light irradiation.

reveal the presence of WO₃, thus the participation of the latter in visible light absorption could be discarded.



The Keggin anions of both heteropolyacids or some of their degradation by-products should be on the TiO₂ surface since SEM-EDX analysis revealed the presence of W and Si in TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples, respectively; however, since the heteropolyacids were added during the sol-gel synthesis, these species could also be present in the solid bulk.

It is highly possible that TPA (H₃PW₁₂O₄₀, which has three highly acid protons) protonates Ti-OH groups (formed during the sol-gel synthesis), inducing the formation of (TiOH₂⁺)(H₂PW₁₂O₄₀⁻) and (Ti-OH₂⁺)₂(HPW₁₂O₄₀²⁻) species through electrostatic interactions.

However, after annealing some acid species (TiOH₂⁺)(H₂PW₁₂O₄₀⁻) and (Ti-OH₂⁺)₂(HPW₁₂O₄₀²⁻) can remain anchored to the TiO₂ surface through electrostatic interactions, being responsible for the acidity found in the TPA-TiO₂ sample, as well as the low IP and the ¹H signals found at 7 ppm and the shift of the XPS O 1s peak at 531 eV.

Something similar can be suggested for TSA-TiO₂ sample. The tungstosilicic acid (H₄SiW₁₂O₄₀) exhibits four protons available to interact with one, two or three Ti-OH groups by forming surface

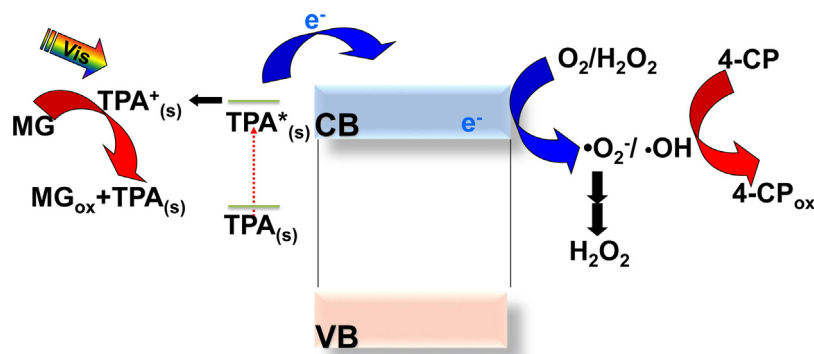


Fig. 11. Mechanism suggested for the photocatalytic activity of TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples upon visible light irradiation.

($\equiv\text{TiOH}_2^+$)_x(H_{4-x}SiW₁₂O₄₀^{x-}) acid species after the annealing at 500 °C. Similar results were found in SiO₂-TSA composites [23,24]. On the other hand, TSA could also form surface complex with TiO₂.

On the other hand, these results cannot explain why TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples show visible light absorption. As mentioned in the Introduction section, this is a capital issue that is still under debate. Herein, DRS results revealed visible light absorption in the heteropolyacid-modified TiO₂ powders, either on TPA-TiO₂ or TSA-TiO₂ samples. FT-Raman TiO₂ and TPA, TSA bands at 141 cm⁻¹ and 900–1100 cm⁻¹, respectively, underwent a strong blue shift in the former and in the latter, an important broadening in the modified TiO₂ samples. This fact has already been mentioned in the literature and it is often linked to a strong interaction between TiO₂ and the heteropolyacid (specifically for TPA since there is no information about it for TSA) [16].

Thus the results presented here may curtail the responsibility for P-doping or the formation of WO₃-TiO₂ mixed oxides in the visible light absorption of TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples. We have previously reported that visible light absorption of TPA-TiO₂ or TSA-TiO₂ samples should be due to the formation of surface complexes between the Keggin anion and TiO₂ [21]. Several authors have argued that surface organic and inorganic complexes on TiO₂ may lead to visible light absorption [52–58]. Our study highlights a strong interaction between the heteropolyacids and TiO₂ surface, yielding acid sites on the samples. Legagneux et al. [59] have suggested that at high temperatures (T > 300 °C), in SiO₂ samples containing TPA, TPA species with an acidic proton H[PW₁₂O₄₀]²⁻ could generate Si-O-W bonds, while Li et al. have argued that TPA could interact with titania surfaces through Ti-O-W covalent bonds formed by the interaction of W=O or W-O-W bonds with Ti-OH species [59,60]. Taking these findings into account, we suggest that at high temperatures (T = 500 °C), the acidic proton linked to TPA in (TiOH⁺)₂ (HPW₁₂O₄₀²⁻) species, which is highly reactive, could react with one of the protonated titanols, leading to water production and the formation of Ti-O-W bonds by generating a TPA-TiO₂ surface complex. The latter could be held responsible for visible light absorption and for the modifications observed in the Raman, XPS and MAS-NMR spectra.

The photocatalytic activity exhibited by these samples may also support this fact. Indeed, upon UV-A and visible light irradiation, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ samples showed high light-induced MG degradation. At pH 5.0 (pH at which photocatalytic experiments are performed), the cationic dye can interact strongly with modified TiO₂ surfaces through electrostatic interactions since the IPs of the heteropolyacid-modified TiO₂ powders are low (1.8 for TPA-TiO₂ and 3.5 for TSA-TiO₂). UV-A irradiation induces the formation of TiO₂ e⁻/h⁺ pairs that can migrate to the semiconductor surface, leading to a classical photocatalytic reaction (Fig. 10). Electrons can be easily transferred from the TiO₂ conduction band (CB) (redox

potential of CB electrons at pH 0 –0.1 V) to TPA or TSA Keggin anions on the surface (redox potentials are +0.218 and +0.054 V, respectively) [60,61], decreasing the e⁻/h⁺ recombination and leaving more valence band holes (h⁺_{VB}) available to react either with pollutant molecules previously adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface or water molecules to yield •OH radicals. The different photocatalytic activities observed with MG and 4-CP upon UV-A irradiation could be explained by this. 4-CP is not adsorbed on TiO₂ surfaces, thus the attack should be achieved by the photoinduced •OH radicals near the TiO₂ surface, while in the case of MG, the molecule is closer to the surface and the oxidative attack may take place more efficiently. It is well known that in the photocatalytic reactions over TiO₂, molecules previously adsorbed on the semiconductor surface are more efficiently degraded than those whose adsorption is lower.

The photocatalytic activity upon visible irradiation unveils important findings. MG cationic dye was efficiently degraded under these conditions, while 4-CP only underwent incipient degradation. If TPA-TiO₂ or TSA-TiO₂ surface complexes are activated by visible light, an excited state of the heteropolyacid-TiO₂ complex may be induced. The excited states of HPA can directly oxidize organic compounds by electron transfer resulting in its reduction through photosensitized reactions. This oxidation is favored when the organic molecule is preassociated with the HPA [26]. Thus, the excited state of the heteropolyacid-TiO₂ complex could directly oxidize the MG molecules that are previously adsorbed at the surface, resulting in a photosensitized reaction. The reduced TPA-TiO₂ surface complex could then be reoxidized by molecular oxygen. Another photosensitized mechanism induced by visible light absorption could also take place. In this scenario, the excited state of the TPA-TiO₂ or TSA-TiO₂ complex could inject an electron into the TiO₂ conduction band. This electron could then migrate to the semiconductor surface taking place redox reactions mediated by molecular oxygen, leading to the formation of •OH radicals through the formation of superoxide radicals (•O₂⁻) and its disproportionation to H₂O₂ [62] (Fig. 11). Hydrogen peroxide can undergo a reduction by e⁻_{CB}, producing •OH. However, the production of H₂O₂ through disproportionation of superoxide radicals is extremely low in irradiated TiO₂ surfaces [63,64], which should account for the low degradation of 4-CP.

5. Conclusions

TiO₂ synthesized by the sol-gel method and subsequently modified with tungstophosphoric (TPA) and tungstosilicic (TSA) acids led to the formation of visible light absorbing nanoparticles. This fact could be induced by the generation of surface complexes between Keggin anions of HPAs and TiO₂ through the formation of Ti-O-W bonds. The characterization of the synthesized materials revealed

the presence of acid sites, probably caused by the presence of acid species of the Keggin anions.

TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ materials exhibited high photocatalytic activity upon UV-A irradiation, leading to a classical photocatalytic mechanism that, however, it was found to be higher for strongly adsorbed organic target. On the other hand, the high photocatalytic activity could also attributed to heteropolyacids, which have more positive redox potentials than the TiO₂ conduction band, and may induce low e⁻/h⁺ recombination in modified nanoparticles. Upon visible light irradiation, a different mechanism with two photosensitized paths was suggested: (i) a mechanism where the excited state of the TiO₂-HPA complex should act as an electron acceptor (from the organic substrate), oxidizing only organic molecules strongly adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface (near or on the HPA-TiO₂ surface complex sites) and (ii) a second one where the excited state of the TiO₂-HPA complex may inject an electron into the TiO₂ conduction band, inducing the formation a reduction path involving H₂O₂ production of •OH radicals that could attack adsorbed or not adsorbed organic molecules.

Finally, TPA-TiO₂ and TSA-TiO₂ materials seem to be stable since tungsten leaching after 4 h of UV-A irradiation was very low; however, further studies about the stability of TPA and TSA present in TiO₂ after UV or visible light irradiations are necessary.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.02.033>.

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