Hydrothermal synthesis of graphene wrapped Fe-doped TiO_2 nanospheres with high photocatalysis performance

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Abstract

In this study, graphene wrapped Fe-doped TiO₂ (G-TiO₂-Fe) spheres were prepared through a simple hydrothermal process. The structural, optical and photocatalytic properties of synthesized composite were characterized by field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman Microprobe (Raman), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectrophotometer (DRS). The G-TiO₂-Fe composite showed a significant red-shift in light response edge as compared with TiO₂. Meanwhile, the band gap exhibited an obvious decline from 3.24 to 2.99 eV. The photocatalytic capacity of G-TiO₂-Fe was further evaluated by methylene blue (MB) degradation experiments, and the results indicated that the optimized G-TiO₂-Fe exhibited a remarkable increase in photocatalytic activity. The superior photocatalytic performance of the novel material could be ascribed to the synthetic effects of Goved Fe and wrapped graphene shells. The unique geometrical configuration and constructive component which modified the TiO₂ electronic structure will largely improve the electron transporting efficiency and restrain the electron-hole recombination.

Key words: TiO₂; Griphene; Fe doping; Photocatalysis; Methylene blue

1. Introduction

Photocatalysts, capable of utilizing solar energy for pollutant degradation and hydrogen production, have been studied to alleviate environmental deterioration and energy crisis [1-3]. Among various photocatalysts, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is considered as one of the most suitable candidates because of its high chemical inertness, long-term stability, slight toxicity, strong oxidation and low cost [4-7]. However, with a wide band gap reached to 3.2 eV [8], TiO₂ photocatalyst only responses to ultraviolet light with a wavelength below 387 nm, which occupies about 4% of total solar spectrum. [9-11]. Thus, the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ in wastewater treatment under solar light is restricted. In order to break the limit, many improving methods have been explored including surface modification, element doping and heterogeneous composition [12-15]. Doping has been regarded as a feasible method to modify the electronic structure of TiO2, owing to its ability to narrow the band gap and broaden the solar absorption range. To date, it has been reported that non-metal such as (26), B [17] and N [18], transition metal including Fe [19], Pt [20], Au [21] and In [22] had been successfully doped into TiO₂, and the light response wavelength of the resulting materials showed significant red-shift. un various kinds of elements increasing the light response Though doped wavelength and improving the photocatalytic performance of TiO2, their drawbacks still exist. For example, the non-metal ions doped in TiO₂ crystal lattices are easy to be destroyed under high temperature, and some metals are quite precious, which would restrict their practical application [23]. In comparison, Fe is an abundant metal resource in nature, and it is rather stable under many complex conditions [24]. Importantly, it is easy to be doped into TiO₂ crystal lattice due to the approximate size with Ti atoms [25]. Overall, it is an excellent candidate for TiO₂ doping. Khan and Swati [26] doped Fe³⁺ into TiO₂ nanoparticles, which resulted in a significantly enhanced photocatalytic activity for 4-chlorophenol degradation under both UV and visible irradiation. Wang et al. [23] prepared Fe doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays with enhanced photoelectrochemical performance for methylene blue (MB) degradation. Zhu et al. [27] successfully synthesized Fe doped nanocrystalline TiO₂ via a nonhydrolytic sol-gel route, which showed mesoporous structure and exhibited increased photocatalytic activity on MB degradation under visible irradiation. However, previous studies mainly focus on the individual effects of doping on the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂, and the studies referring joint effects with other nanomaterials are rare.

Graphene, a two-dimensional carbon allotrope with strict honeycomb structure, has attracted tremendous attention among academic vircles since its first discovery in 2004 [28-30]. Owing to its unique structure praphene possesses many exceptional physical and chemical characteristics, such as large surface area, efficient electric charge transfer, optical transperity as well as mechanical strength [31-34]. Therefore, it has been widely applied in many fields including pollutant adsorption, solar cell photo-elect ods, photocatalysis, etc [35-40]. Notably, graphene combined exhibits multiple magnificent properties. Its superior electrical with photocatalysts conductivity, which largely separate the electron and electro-hole generated during photoelectron excitation and inhibit their rapid recombination, will contribute to the photocatalytic reaction in a large degree [41]. Furthermore, the carbon atoms arranged in the honeycomb network through an ideal sp² hybridization endow graphene great adsorption capacity via π - π interaction, which will facilitate the movement of organic pollutants onto the photocatalysis interface and conduce to the photochemical reaction [42-46]. With such magnificent characters, graphene has become a hot spot in

photocatalysis field, and many researches have been carried out in designing new graphene-TiO₂ hybrid materials. Zhu et al. [47] fabricated one-dimensional mesostructure TiO₂-graphene composite with enhanced photovoltaic photocatalytic properties in dye-sensitized solar cells and photodegradation of methyl orange. Pan et al. [48] grafted TiO₂ nanowires and TiO₂ nanoparticles onto graphene sheets respectively and further identified their improved photocatalytic performance over TiO₂ towards MB under solar light. Kim et al. [49] successfully fabricated nanosized graphene coated TiO₂ nanoparticles for enhanced H₂ production and photocurrent generation rate in comparison to TiO₂ nanoparticles leading on larger graphene sheet. Based on the previous studies, we constructed a triking core/shell geometric model and wrapped thin graphene layers on the Fe-doped TiO2 spheres to gain Fe3+-doped TiO2 core and graphene shell can spheres. The unique structure makes TiO2 a higher contact ratio with stablene in comparison to some other geometry like loading configuration and that would render TiO2 a tight integration with graphene which would hard the detached even in some extreme condition. [49, 50] Moreover, the higher contact ratio endues TiO2 higher electron and hole separation efficiency.

Given the above consideration, herein, a novel graphene coated Fe-doped TiO₂ (G-TiO₂-Fe) composite with high photocatalytic performance under both visible and solar light was successfully synthesized through a hydrothermal process. The photocatalysis performance of the new material was evaluated by MB photodegradation experiments under visible and solar light. It turned out that the G-TiO₂-Fe composite showed strong photocatalytic capacity in light irradiation, and the photodegradation efficiency was far above that of anatase TiO₂. Hence, it was a

potential photocatalytic material for further practical application in organic pollutants wastewater treatment.

2. Experiment section

2.1. Materials

Graphite powder (C, ≥99.85%) was obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (3-Aminopropyl) trimethoxysilane (APTMS, 97%), Titanium isopropoxide (TTIP, 95%) and 1-Hexadecylamine (HDA, 90%) were purchased from Aladdin Industrial Corporation (Shanghai, China). H₂O₂, KMnO₄, H₂SO₄, HCl, ethanol (99.7%), MB, NaNO₃, KCl and FeCl₃·6H₂O were obtained from Sino harm Chemical NSCK Reagent (Beijing, China).

2.2. Method

2.2.1. Graphene oxide synthesis

Graphen oxide (GO) was prepared within motified Hummers method [51]. Briefly, 24 mL concentrated sulfuric acid was heated to 80°C and maintained constant temperature in water bath, then Graphite powder, 5 g P_2O_5 and 5 g $K_2S_2O_8$ were orderly added to get a well dispersed mixed solution. After being stirred for 4.5 h, the graphite powder was collected with suction method, washed with enough deionized water, dried under vacuum condition and grounded into powder for later use. 120 mL concentrated sulfuric acid was frozen to 4°C in an ice bath, then 5 g as-prepared graphite powder and 2.5 g NaNO₃ were dispersed to the solution under magnetic stirring to get a homogeneous dispersion, afterwards, 15 g KMnO₄ was slowly added and the dispersion was kept stirring at 4°C for 4 h. After the stage, the solution was slowly heated to 35°C, stayed stirring for another 2 h. Then the solid-liquid mixture was transferred to 240 mL pre-prepared cold deionized water, and placed in a 90°C water bath for 20 min. After the water bath heating, 720 mL deionized water was added to stop the reaction, then 20 mL 30% hydrogen peroxide was added to remove the residual MnO₄, meanwhile, the solution would turn purple green into golden yellow. The solution was kept at room temperature for 2 days, and the precipitation was recovered by centrifugation and thoroughly washed with HCl (5%) and deionized water orderly. Then the well washed GO suspension was freeze-dried and resuspended into moderate amount of deionized water to gain a required concentration of graphene oxide suspension.

2.2.2. Preparation of TiO_2 precursor with different Fe^{3+} doping amounts (TiO_2 -Fe).

2.648 g HDA was dissolved in 400 mL ethanol, and then 1.5 mL 0.1 M KCl was added to obtain an uniform dispersion. Afterwards, certain amounts of FeCl₃·6H₂O (0, 5, 10 and 20 mg) were dissolved into the solution, and then 8.8 mL TTIP was added under vigorous agitating at room temperature. The resulting TiO₂ suspensions with different colors due to the different doping amounts were kept static at ambient temperature for 18 h. Ultimately, the precipitate was collected by an air pump filtering process, washed with larger mount of ethanol and dried at room temperature.

2.2.3. Hydrothermal preparation of graphene wrapped Fe^{3+} -doped TiO_2 spheres (G- TiO_2 -Fe).

0.4 g as-prepared TiO₂-Fe precursor was dispersed in 200 mL ethanol by ultrasonication for 30 min, then 2 mL APTMS was added into the solution. To obtain pure positive-charged TiO₂-Fe, the mixture was heated and refluxed for 4 h, washed with ethanol to remove the redundant APTMS, and filtered with a vacuum filter and dried at ambient condition. In order to wrap graphene oxide onto Fe³⁺-doped TiO₂ spheres, 0.4 g positive-charged TiO₂-Fe was suspended into pre-prepared negative charged GO suspension, and then the resulting mixture was sonicated for 20 min. The

composite (GO-amorphous TiO₂-Fe) was recovered through filtration and transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel vessel using 20 mL ethanol and 10 mL deionized water as solvent. Then reactors were placed in oven at 180°C for 16 h. Ultimately, the material was calculated at 400°C in argon atmosphere for 2 h. The final hydrothermal-treated materials prepared with 0, 5, 10 and 20 mg FeCl₃·6H₂O were defined as G-TiO₂-Fe (0), G-TiO₂-Fe (5), G-TiO₂-Fe (10) and G-TiO₂-Fe (20), respectively.

2.3. Photocatalytic activity test

Photo-degradation reactions were conducted with an autonomous photo reactor. The solar light was simulated by a 300 W xenon (Xe) lamp purchased from CeAulight China. A 420 nm light filter was used to gain visible light. 100 mL MB with a concentration of 10 mg/L was poured in a glass container, and then 50 mg material was added into the vessel. In order to reach desorption/desorption equilibration, the mixed solution was agitated for an hour in dark condition [52]. Next, the reaction vessel was transferred to the visible (solar) light environment and kept stirring for another 2 h (1 h). During the photoreaction stage, 3 mL suspension was sampled every 15 min (10 min). After being centrifuged, the sample concentration was measured with a pariolet spectrophotometry.

2.4. Characterization

Field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, MIRA 3 LMU/X-Max20/H1002) equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS, INCA 250) was used to investigate the morphology and the components of G-TiO₂-Fe. X-ray diffraction (XRD, SIMENS D500) with Cu-Ka radiation (λ =1.54184 Å) was applied to analyze phase change of the materials after hydrothermal reaction. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, K-Alpha 1063) purchased from Thermo Fisher was

used to quantify the valence state and composition of G-TiO₂-Fe. UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectrophotometer (U3900, Hitachi) was used to measure the optical adsorption discrepancy of composite materials with different Fe³⁺ doping amount. UV-vis spectrophotometer (UV-2550) was used to measure the MB concentration during the photo-degradation process. Raman Microprobe (Labram-010) with 632 nm laser light was applied to investigate the redox state change of GO.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of synthesized materials

According to the SEM image (Fig. 1a), the GO was successfully synthesized, and the GO nanosheet was quite thin, which would ensure its high optical transmittance. The amorphous TiO2 was synthesized through a sol-gel roless, and the samples with different FeCl₃·6H₂O adding amounts presented by ous distinctions in color (Fig. 1b). The color of TiO₂ precursor was pure white, while the TiO₂-Fe precursor changed from light yellow to orange with the increasing amount of FeCl₃·6H₂O. Commonly, to be better wrappe to GO, the amorphous TiO₂ was modified with APTMS to get a positive charged surface. Zeta potential analysis was performed to detect the potential change during the wrapping process. The zeta potential of amorphous TiO cleased from -20.5 to 14.4 mV after being modified with APTMS, indicating that the positive changed amorphous TiO₂ was successfully obtained. To investigate the potential changes of GO after being mixed with the modified amorphous TiO2, further zeta potential analysis was conducted. After GO suspension was mixed with the prepared positively-charged TiO₂, the surface charge of the composite increased dramatically to -6.5 mV from -40.3 mV, which indicated that GO and TiO₂ were successfully integrated through electrostatic interaction. To investigate the interior structure change, XRD and Raman spectrum were conducted.

XRD pattern was performed from 15° to 80° in 20 with 0.02° steps/s, and the result is shown in Fig. 2. It was obvious that the as-prepared TiO₂ precursor showed no characteristic peaks which confirmed its amorphous phase. According to JCPDS card NO. 21-1272, the characteristic peaks of hydrothermal-treated TiO₂ at 2θ of 25.42°, 37.98°, 48.10°, 54.18°, 55.15°, 62.98°, 69.02°, 70.35° and 75.32° were assigned to the (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220) and (215) cyastallographic plane of anatase-phase TiO₂, respectively. The G-TiO₂-Fe presented identical peaks, except for small deviates in peak position which could be caused by the doped Fe³⁺. As we know, the Fe³⁺ doped into the crystal lattice would cause lattice expansion and lead to left-shift of the diffraction peaks, for the subtle distinction of Fe³⁺ (0.064 nm) and Ti⁴⁺ (0.068 nm) in ionic radii [23]. Therefore, amorphous TiO₂ was well crystallized during the hydrothermal treatment. In addition, the diffraction peaks of G-TiO2-Fe the substitution of Fe³⁺ ions into the TiO₂ crystal lattices. It followed that the doping and wrapping treatments did not ricct the TiO2 crystallization. The Raman analysis result is presented in Fig. 3, and the peaks at 153, 399, 519 and 641 cm⁻¹ corresponded to Eg, Blg, Alg and Eg of matase TiO2 phase, respectively. Peaks at 1329 and 1597 cm and G band of graphene materials, respectively [53]. The were assigned a intensity ratio of D and G band (I_D/I_G) is usually seen as an index to indicate the degree of defects presented in graphene materials. As is evident from the Raman spectra, the slight increase of I_D/I_G from 1.00 to 1.09 after the hydrothermal process revealed the existence of higher defects in the hybrid. It might be caused by the preceding hydrothermal treatment during which few fragmented smaller sp² domains formed and exfoliated from the TiO2 surface leading to a high intensity of D band [54]. In addition, slight red-shift of G band from 1597 to 1605 cm⁻¹ was observed. Both the I_D/I_G and red-shift of G band confirmed the successful reduction of wrapped GO [13, 53]. Meanwhile, the color change of hybrid material from brown to black after the hydrothermal treatment could also reflect the reduction process.

Fig. 4 showed the FE-SEM images of amorphous TiO₂ precursor (Fig. 4a), anatase TiO₂ (Fig. 4b) and G-TiO₂-Fe (Fig. 4c). The prepared amorphous TiO₂ spheres possessed an average diameter of 1150 ± 50 nm. According to the images and the corresponding XRD analysis, it is easy to see that the amorphous TiO₂ was crystalized to form uniform spheres with a diameter of 1000 ± 50 nm after the hydrothermal treatment. The slightly reduction in sphere size could be attributed to the more regularly arranged atoms in crystal. Besides, it could be found that the crystal TiO₂ spheres consisted of many small nanocrystals and possessed relatively rough surfaces. In contrast, with graphene wrapped outside, the G-NO₂-Fe spheres possessed very smooth surfaces and presented no obvious granular features. It could be clearly seen that the TiO2 sphere was well coated by graphene with some winkles on its surface, which indicated the successful capping treatment. The EDS analysis was further performed to verify the component of G-TiO₂-Fe. As shown in Fig. 4d and Fig. 4e, the hybrids were composed of C, O, Si Ti and Fe which could also validate the successful doping a Fe. The doped Fe occupied a Fe content of 0.47% and a Fe/Ti atomic ratio of 0.16. The Si existed in the composites was originated from the ATPMS used during the TiO₂ modification procedure as well as the sample holder. Since the EDS result only revealed the ingredients and percentages of the composites, XPS was conducted to investigate the further details about the valence state and composition.

The component and valence state of the composites were determined by XPS analysis. Fig. 5 showed the XPS core level spectra of C 1s, O 1s, Ti 2p and Fe 2p in

G-TiO₂-Fe composite. The full XPS spectrum validated the main component elements of Ti, O, C and Fe, which was in reasonable agreement with the EDS results. The weak intensity of Fe spectrum was ascribed to the small doping amount. The detailed XPS results of Ti 2p region around 455-468 eV, O 1s region around 525-535 eV, C 1s region around 282-291 eV and Fe 2p region around 705-735 eV were displayed in Fig. 5 The Ti 2p core level (Fig. 5a) exhibited two major characteristic doublet at 459.43 and 465.12 eV, respectively, which was attributed to the spin orbital splitting of 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} states. The O 1s XPS spectrum (Fig. 5b) showed a strong peak at 530.14 eV, and it could be deconvoluted into three peaks at 530.01, 530.56 and 531.90 eV, which were ascribed to the surface adsorbed oxygen and hydroxyl, oxygen of TiO2 and oxygen vacancies, respectively. After december of the C 1s XPS spectrum (Fig. 5c) could also be resolved into three peaks: the first peak at 284.73 eV could be attributed to the C-Can C=C bonds in graphene, the second peak at 285.80 eV was ascribed to C-OH bonds existing in graphene edge, and the third peak at 286.91 eV was assigned to C=O due to the incomplete reduction. The Fe 2p core level XPS spectrum Fig. 5d) displayed two major characteristic peaks at 710.61 and 725.33 eY for Fe $2p_{3/2}$ and Fe $2p_{1/2}$, respectively. After the further peak deconvolution it and be resolved into four peaks located at 708.73, 710.65, 714.85, 724.80 eV. The peaks at 710.65 and 724.80 eV were attributed to the doped Fe³⁺, while the peaks at 708.73 and 714.85 eV were attributed to Fe²⁺, which might form during the hydrothermal process for the high temperature and pressure. Thus, we could conclude that the doped Fe was major in the form of Fe³⁺ state.

The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of G-TiO₂-Fe with different Fe doping amounts are presented in Fig. 6a. The adsorption spectrum of anatase TiO₂ indicated that TiO₂ could only adsorb ultraviolet light with a wavelength below 400

nm, which was attributed to its broad band gap. In comparison, the absorption edge of G-TiO₂-Fe (0) exhibited a significant red-shift which is well coincident with previous study [1]. In addition, it is noteworthy that all of the G-TiO₂-Fe composites with Fe doped exhibit obvious red-shift in light response as compared to TiO₂. The red-shift was ascribed to the intense interaction between TiO₂ energy band and the d-electrons of the doped Fe³⁺ as well as graphene. Furthermore, the intercepts of the tangents to the (ahv)² vs. photon energy (hv) plots of each hybrid materials was obtained in virtue of Kubelka-Munk remission function. As is shown in Fig. 6b, the band gaps of TiO₂, G-TiO₂-Fe (0), G-TiO₂-Fe (5), G-TiO₂-Fe (10) and G-TiO₂-Fe (20) were estimated at 3.24, 3.04, 2.99 and 2.37 eV, respectively. The distinguished performance of utilizing visible light makes the hybrid material a superior candidate in solar cell and photocatalysts.

3.2. Photocatalytic activity

In order to investigate the photocatalytic activity of the hybrid materials with different Fe doping amounts, the photo-degradation of MB tests were conducted respectively. As is shown in Fig. 7, the photounder visible and solar light, degradation curves ethilhed approximate trends under both irradiation conditions. MB showed little en-degradation, and the bare anatase TiO₂ exhibited relatively low catalytic capacity. In contrast, TiO2 wrapped by graphene and doped with different amounts of Fe showed discriminating degradation efficiency. The disparities in photocatalytic performance could be attributed to the synergetic effect of graphene and Fe³⁺. The graphene wrapped outside the spheres was beneficial to improve the electron and hole separation efficiency and gave rise to an enhanced photocatalysis capability [1], which could account for the higher photodegradation of G-TiO₂-Fe (0) compared to bare TiO₂. To our surprise, the photocatalytic activity of the hybrid materials with different Fe doped amounts showed great distinctions. Compared to anatase TiO₂, G-TiO₂-Fe (5) and G-TiO₂-Fe (10) showed significant increase in photo degradation efficiency, whereas G-TiO₂-Fe (20) exhibited a dramatical reduction in identical situation. As we know, Fe³⁺ could make influence on the electron and hole combination process. Fe³⁺ could serve as electrons and holes trapper. The doped Fe³⁺ could be reduced to Fe²⁺ through photoelectron capture and further be re-oxidized to Fe³⁺ by the O₂ molecules existing in the mediums, thus, accomplish the electron transmission. Therefore, when a small amount of Fe³⁺ was doped, it was beneficial to the electron and hole separation and gave rise to an improved photo-degradation activity. Nevertheless, when large amount of Fe³⁺ was doped, the distance among trappers would sharply decline, and Fe³⁺ would turn into recombination centers. The trapped electron would deliver to the hole directly, which would lead to a low photocatalytic activity [55, 56].

3.3. Photocatalytic mechanism

A proposed transfer pathway furcharge carriers in the G-TiO₂-Fe (10) composite is shown in Fig. 8 to clarify the enhanced photocatalytic performance. As is evident from the UV-vis DR6 analysis, the G-TiO₂-Fe composite exhibits red-shifted light adsorption edge are narrowed band gap, which indicate that the doping Fe³⁺ and wrapping graphene play important roles in modifying the band structure of TiO₂ due to the d-d transition of Fe³⁺ ions and conducting band (CB) electrons, and charge transfer among CB electrons, interacting Fe³⁺ ions and graphene.

Fe³⁺ can serve as hole trapper (Fe³⁺ + h⁺ \rightarrow Fe⁴⁺) owing to the slight higher energy level than TiO₂ valence band. The trapped holes would be delivered to the surface adsorbed hydroxyl to produce hydroxyl radicals (Fe⁴⁺ + OH⁻ \rightarrow Fe³⁺ + OH[•]). Fe³⁺ can also act as trapping sites for photogenerated electrons to form Fe²⁺ (Fe³⁺ + e⁻ \rightarrow Fe²⁺).

The Fe²⁺ is quite unstable and tends to re-form Fe³⁺ due to the destruction of half-filled $3d^5$ electronic configuration. The Fe²⁺ would be oxidized by the surface adsorbed O_2 molecule and produce $O_2^{\bullet\bullet}$ (Fe²⁺ + O_2 (ads) \rightarrow Fe³⁺ + $O_2^{\bullet\bullet}$). The $O_2^{\bullet\bullet}$ are easy to be captured by the photoinduced h^+ and produce O^{\bullet} which would be further converted to hydroxyl radicals by surface adsorbed H_2O ($O_2^{\bullet\bullet}$ + h^+ \rightarrow $O^{\bullet\bullet}$; $O^{\bullet\bullet}$ + H_2O (ads) \rightarrow OH $^{\bullet}$ + OH $^{\bullet}$) [57]. Additionally, the work function of graphene (4.2-4.5 eV) is slightly lower than the conduction band of Fe-doped TiO₂, and the excited electrons would be delivered to the conduction band of graphene, which would lead to a narrowed band gap hindering charge recombination [58].

4. Conclusion

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Figure legends

Figure 1. FE-SEM image of GO sheets (a) and the amorphous TiO₂ with different Fe doping amounts (b).

Figure 2. X-ray diffraction patterns of amorphous TiO₂, anatase TiO₂ and G-TiO₂-Fe.

Figure 3. Raman spectra of bare amorphous TiO₂ NPs, anatase TiO₂, GO-amorphous TiO₂-Fe and G-TiO₂-Fe.

Figure 4. FE-SEM images of amorphous TiO₂ (a), anatase TiO₂ (b) and G-TiO₂-Fe (10) (c) and EDS analysis results (d, e) of G-TiO₂-Fe (10).

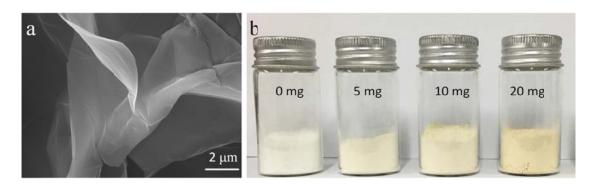
Figure 5. XPS core level spectra of Ti 2p (a), O 1s (b), C 1s (c), and Ee 2p (d) of G-TiO₂-Fe (10) sample.

Figure 6. Diffuse reflectance spectra (a) and plots of the Kubelka-Munk remission function (b) for TiO₂ NP, G-TiO₂-Fe (5), G-TiO₂-Fe (10) and G-TiO₂-Fe (20).

Figure 7. Photocatalytic degradation curves for matase TiO₂, G-TiO₂-Fe (5), G-TiO₂-Fe (10) and G-TiO₂-Fe (20) under visible light (a) and solar light (b) as well as G-TiO₂-Fe (10) in dark condition.

Figure 8. Proposed mechanism for the enhanced visible light photocatalytic activity of G-TiO₂-Fe.

Figure 1



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Figure 2

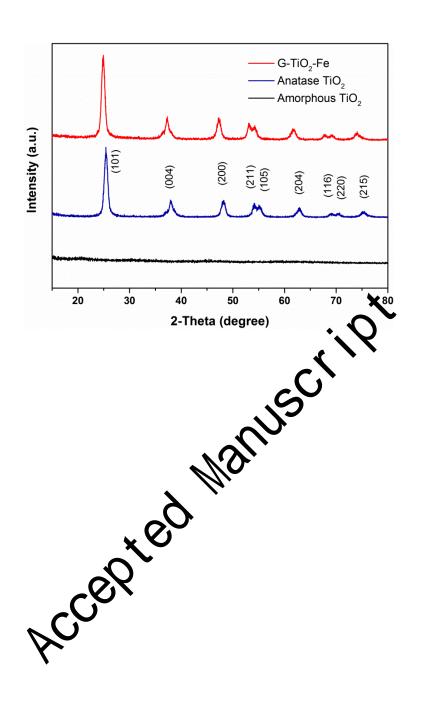


Figure 3

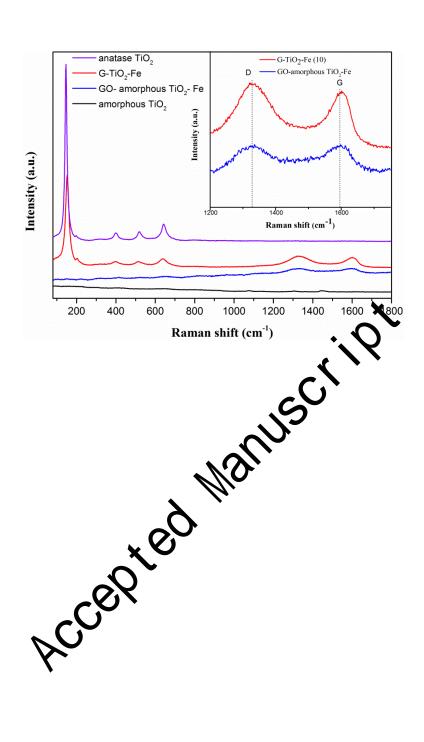
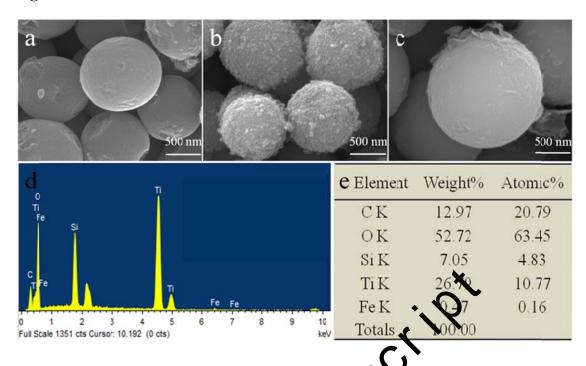


Figure 4



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Figure 5

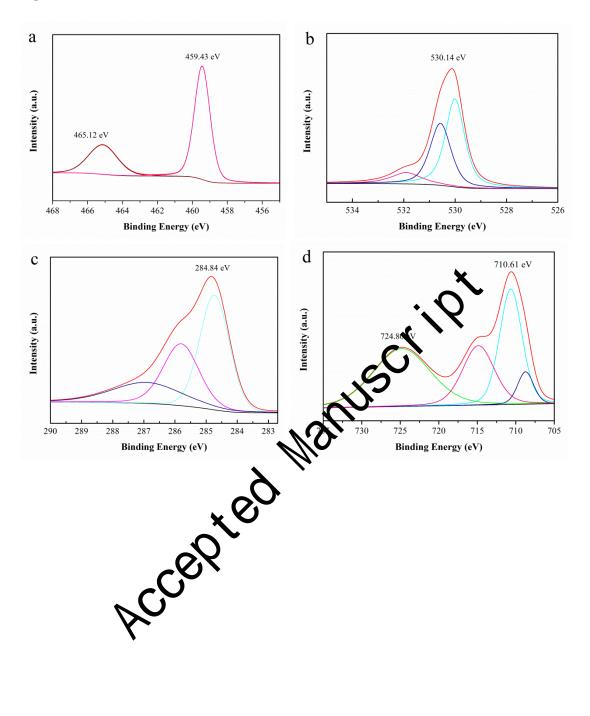
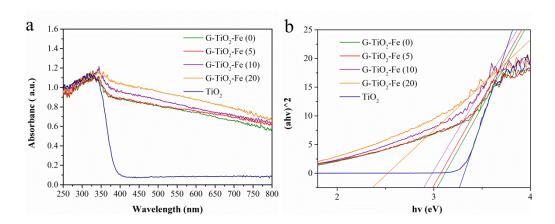


Figure 6

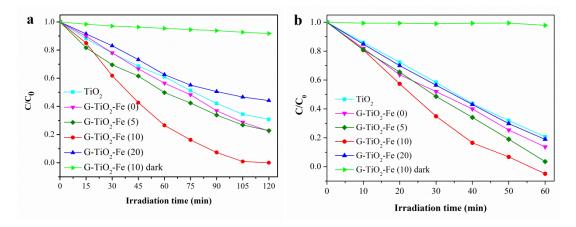


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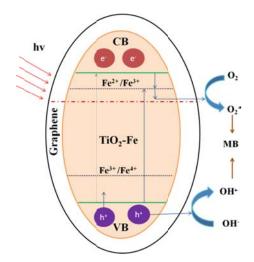
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Figure 7



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Figure 8



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