UV-assisted photocatalytic synthesis of TiO₂-reduced graphene oxide with enhanced photocatalytic activity in decomposition of sarin in gas phase

R.M. Mohamed

Chemistry Department, Faculty of Science, King Abdulaziz University, P.O. Box 80203, Jeddah, 21589, Saudi Arabia
Advanced Materials Department, Central Metallurgical R&D Institute, CMRDI, P.O. Box 87, Helwan, Cairo, 11421, Egypt
Center of Excellence in Environmental Studies, King Abdulaziz University, P.O. Box 80216, Jeddah 21589, Saudi Arabia
Tel. +966 540715648; Fax: +966 2 6952292; email: rmohamedy@cmrdi.sci.eg

Received 10 March 2012; Accepted 4 June 2012

ABSTRACT

TiO₂-reduced graphene oxide (RGO) composite are successfully prepared by UV-assisted photocatalytic reduction of graphite oxide by TiO₂ nanoparticles in ethanol. These nanocomposites prepared with different ratios of graphene oxide (GO) were characterized by scanning electron microscopy, transmission electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction spectroscopy, UV–vis absorption spectrophotometer (UV–vis), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. Photocatalytic degradation of nerve agent, isopropyl methylphosphonofluoride, Sarin (GB) as a real Chemical Warfare Agent on nanocomposites have been studied using Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry analysis in ambient atmosphere. RGO-TiO₂ nanocomposites exhibited much higher photocatalytic activity than TiO₂ for degradation of GB under visible light irradiation.

Keywords: Graphene oxide; TiO₂; Visible photocatalyst; Nerve agent

1. Introduction

In recent years, photocatalysis has attracted attention as a low cost, environmentally benign method, and detoxification for chemical warfare agents (CWA) has been studied using this high technology. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is known to be good photocatalyst for the degradation of environmental contaminants due to its high photocatalytic activity [1–4].

In the past few decades, doping with metal ions, coupling with a second semiconductor, and anchoring TiO₂ particles onto large-surface-area materials, such as mesoporous materials, zeolites or carbon-based materials, have all been elucidated as efficient techniques to improve the photodegradability of semiconductor oxide photocatalysts [5–7]. Among them, TiO₂/carbon nanotube composites have been established as viable potential photocatalysts for use in both water and air purifications [8–10]. The synergetic effect of carbon nanotubes on photocatalyst enhancement, in which carbon nanotubes act as the electron sink for the hindrance of charge carrier recombination [8] or as the photosensitizer to generate a greater density of electron/hole pairs [9], has been previously demonstrated. These TiO₂–nanocarbon composite exhibited higher photocatalytic performance than that of bare...
TiO₂. However, some problems still hinder further promotion of efficiency of TiO₂–nanocarbon composites, such as the weakening of light intensity arriving at surface of catalysts and the lack of reproducibility due to the preparation and treatment variation [11].

Graphene is a new star on applications of condensed-matter physics, electronics, and material science after carbon nanotube and C₆₀ [12]. Because graphene is a single-atom thick sheet arranged by sp²-bonded carbon atoms in a hexagonal lattice, which shows outstanding mechanical, thermal, optical, and electrical properties. Therefore, the interesting graphene-based materials have been extremely extended to application in diverse fields such as nanoelectronic devices, biomaterials, intercalation materials, drug delivery, and catalysis [13–18]. Nanocarbon materials such as carbon nanotube (CNT) and C₆₀ have some beneficial effects on the photocatalytic activity of homogeneous and heterogeneous semiconductors by effective electron transfer and interaction effects [19–21]. Among the various semiconductors, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is known to be good photocatalyst for the degradation of environmental contaminants due to its high photocatalytic activity [3,4]. In comparison with CNT and C₆₀, graphene has perfect sp²-hybridized two-dimensional carbon structure with better conductivity and larger surface area, it seems reasonable to envision that the novel graphene–TiO₂ nanocomposite with high interfacial contact and potential could be much more promising to improve the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂. Furthermore, graphene is easy to produce from inexpensive natural graphite through intermediates product "graphite oxide" [22,23]. The presence of oxygen-containing functional groups in GO and reduced GO makes them as excellent supporters to anchor TiO₂ nanocrystals for the synthesis of graphene-TiO₂ [24,25]. The direct growth of the nanocrystals on GO sheets was achieved by a two-step method, in which TiO₂ was first coated on GO sheets by hydrolysis and crystallized into anatase nanocrystals by hydrothermal treatment in the second step [24]. Liu et al. prepared the self-assembly of TiO₂ with graphene composites in the stabilization of graphene in aqueous solution by assistance of anionic sulfate surfactant [26]. Chen et al. prepared a visible-light responsive GO/TiO₂ composite with p/n heterojunction by adding sodium dodecylsulfate in an aqueous of TiCl₃ and GO, in which TiO₂ could be excited by visible light with wavelengths longer than 510 nm [27]. Some people synthesized graphene/TiO₂ composites using GO and P25 as reactants by a facile one-step hydrothermal method and obtained higher photocatalytic activity [28,29].

In this study, a UV-assisted photocatalytic reduction of graphite oxide by TiO₂ nanoparticles in ethanol is reported. The photocatalytic activity of the reduced graphene oxide (RGO)–TiO₂ nanocomposites is assessed by examining the degradation of real Sarin (GB) from gas phase as a probe reaction under visible light irradiation.

2. Experimental
2.1. Catalysts preparation
2.1.1. Materials
Graphite powder (purity 99.999%); anhydrous ethanol; sodium nitrate; potassium permanganate; titanium tetrachloride (TiCl₄), titanium teterisoperpoxide (TTIP); and ethanol (EtOH) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. GB has a purity >99%, this agent has high toxicity; it should be handled only by trained personnel using applicable safety procedures.

2.1.2. Synthesis of GO
GO was synthesized by the oxidation of graphite powder using Hummers method [11]. The details are the following: 1 g graphite powder was added in concentration H₂SO₄ (30 mL) and 1 g NaNO₃ solution at 0˚C. While maintaining vigorous stirring, 3 g (1.9 × 10⁻² mol) KMnO₄ was slowly added to the above mixture and left to warm to room temperature. The mixture was continuously stirred at 30˚C until it became pasty brownish, followed by slow addition of deionized water (60 mL), which produced a rapid increase in solution temperature up to a maximum of 90˚C. Then the resultant bright-yellow suspension was terminated by the addition of more distilled water (150 mL), followed by a hydrogen peroxide solution (H₂O₂, 35 wt.%, 3 mL). The mixture was centrifuged and washed in succession with 200 mL of 1:10 HCl solution, and water until pH = 7. The powder was dried at room temperature under vacuum condition.

2.1.3. Synthesis of titania (T)
At room temperature, a TiCl₄/TTIP solution was prepared by dropping TiCl₄ (0.6 mL) and TTIP (3 mL) into EtOH (5.0 mL) under vigorous stirring for 10 min. After stirring the resulting mixture for 24 h at room temperature, a semi-transparent sol was obtained. The
sol was subjected to hydrothermal treatment at 160°C for 48 h at a heat rate of 2°C/min. The resulting hydrogel was dehydrated slowly at 40°C for 24 h, 60°C for 12 h, and 80°C for 12 h, successively, until a complete gel particulate was formed. Titania nanoparticles were obtained after thermal treatment at 100°C for 24 h.

2.1.4. Synthesis of RGO/T composites

A certain amount of 4 mg/ml GO and 1 g T nanoparticles was dispersed in 60 mL ethanol and sonicated for 30 min to produce uniform dispersion. UV-assisted photocatalytic reduction of GO by T nanoparticles in ethanol was carried out in a 100 mL cylindrical quartz glass vessel using a 250 W high pressure Hg lamp with the main wave crest at 254 nm for about 24 h under ambient conditions and magnetic stirring. After UV irradiation, it was obviously found that the color of suspension had changed into grayish-black, indicating the successful chemical reduction of GO sheets [30]. The as-synthesized T-RGO samples with 0.4, 0.8, 1.2, 1.4 wt.% RGO, named as TG-1, TG-2, TG-3, TG-4 were isolated by filtration, washed thrice with distilled water, and finally dried in a vacuum oven at 60°C for 24 h. Finally, the obtained samples were calcined at 400°C for 4 h under argon.

2.1.5. Synthesis of T and RGO/T composites plates

The T plate was prepared as follows: T (0.01 g) was dispersed in 40 mL of distilled water and spread on glass plate (5 cm x 5 cm), which was heated on a hot plate (about 80°C). Distilled water was evaporated and thus T was immobilized on glass-plate. The same method is applied to prepare RGO/T composite plate.

2.2. Characterization and properties

The crystal structures of the resulting products were characterized by X-ray power diffraction (XRD, Bruker advance-D8 power diffractometer with Cu Ka radiation, λ = 0.154178 nm at 40 kV and 100 mA flux). The morphologies and compositions of the resulting products were studied by transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100 Japan), scanning electron microscope (SEM) images were taken with a Hitachi S-4800 microscope, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed using an ESCALab220i-XL probe (VG Scientific) with monochromated Al Kα radiation (hν = 1486.6 eV). Analysis was carried out in a vacuum chamber (<2 x 10⁻⁹ mbar). Peak fittings and deconvolution were performed using the Eclipse (VG Scientific software). Specific surface areas of the samples were measured by Brunauer-Emmette-Teller (BET) method on a Surface Area Analyzer (NOVA2000e, USA) at 77 K through N₂ sorption. The samples were dried at 100°C for 24 h and then degassed at 150°C for 12 h prior to determination. The UV-vis reflectance of the catalysts was measured by diffuse reflectance spectroscopy using a (Perkin Elmer, Lamba 35) instrument. Emission spectra were recorded on FLS 920 spectrofluorometer.

2.3. Photocatalytic reaction

Fig. 1 shows a schematic diagram of the photocatalytic-reaction system for GB analysis in the gas phase.
Air supplied by the compressor was dried with silica gel, let through a soda lime container to remove CO₂, and bubbled into GB/hexane solution. The vaporized GB was passed through mist trap to remove aerosol and introduced into a 500-mL Pyrex-glass reactor, where a T-plate or T/RGO plate was placed. Teflon stage, O-ring and tube were used for all connections and inner wall of the reactor was treated by silane application in order to decrease adsorption of GB at inner wall of experimental systems. In this study, the GB concentration was basically adjusted by diluting with hexane as solvent. The residual concentration of the vaporized GB in the photocatalytic reactor was then 0.5 \mu mol. The GB/hexane solvent was injected into a glass tube (volume of 500 mL, GL science) equipped with a gas flow cock and was completely vaporized by heating the GB liquid spot in the tube with a heat blower from outside. Then, the temperature in the glass tube was usually 334 K. The vaporized GB/hexane in the glass tube was pumped into the photocatalytic reactor by an air cylinder at a flow rate of 200 mL/min for 2 min. The exhaust cock of the gas pipe in the reactor was then opened in order to keep the pressure of the photocatalytic reactor. After pumping, the inlet and exhaust cocks of the gas pipe in the photocatalytic reactor part were closed. The photocatalysis started after observing the adsorption of the vaporized GB at the surface of T or RGO/T in the dark. Visible irradiation was carried out by Black light (150 W, center wavelength 364 nm) doubly covered with a UV cut filter. The intensity data of UV light are confirmed to be under the detection limit (0.1 mW/cm²) of a UV radiometer. All of experiments were carried out in ambient air. Gas chromatograph GC-2014 (GC; Shimadzu Co., Kyoto, Japan) was used to analyze GB decrease in the reactor. Sample gas in the reactor was injected automatically through the stainless steel pipe connected directly with the reactor. Organic compounds and phosphoric compounds were detected by flame ionization detector and flame phosphorus detector, respectively. The gaseous products generated by GB photooxidation were analyzed by gas-chromatography–mass spectrometry GC–MS–QP2010 (GC–MS; Shimadzu Co.). Analytical data from the control unexposed to visible light show that no dark degradation or hydrolysis of GB occurs. The decontamination rate was calculated as the percentage of compound consumed from the initial quantity. Caution: GB as CWAs is highly toxic by both inhalation and ingestion. The compounds should always be handled with special care in a special experimental room under reduced air pressure and should be immediately destroyed with sodium hypochlorite after use.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Spectral and morphological properties

Fig. 2 shows XRD patterns of the prepared samples. All of the diffraction peaks match the standard data for pure anatase phase (JCPDS No. 21-1272) of TiO₂, the characteristic peak of GO disappeared in XRD pattern of the composites, revealing that GO was reduced by UV-light at room temperature. What is more, the peak belong to the graphite was also absent in the composites, indicating the decoration of TiO₂ onto graphene sheets caused the enlargement and disorder the layer of graphene.

Fig. 3 shows the SEM images of TG composites. The results reveal that the density of TiO₂ nanocrystals coated on graphene was controlled by the feed ratio of GO/TiO₂, decreasing as the amount of GO increased (Fig. 3).

Fig. 4 shows the EDX spectra of TG-3. The results show the presence of C, O and Ti in TG-3 which confirm the formation of TiO₂–RGO composite.

Fig. 5 shows TEM images of GO, T, and TG composites synthesized with different amounts of GO. As shown in Fig. 5(a), the prepared TiO₂ was spheres with diameter of 90 nm, composing of smaller particles. The introduction of GO to the synthesis system caused the formation of TG composites. As for TG-1 (Fig. 5(b)), TiO₂ nanoparticles with the size of about 35 nm were thickly covered on graphene sheet, some of them aggregated to some extent. In TG-2, the increased amount of GO in reaction system led to the homogeneously scattering of TiO₂ particles on graphene sheet without apparent aggregation, the size of TiO₂ particles decreased slightly to 30 nm. As for TG-3, which was synthesized by further increase the
amount of GO, the formed TiO₂ particles with dramatically reduced size of 23 nm were homogeneously and densely scattered on graphene sheet, and the wrinkles of graphene could also be clearly observed. In TG-4, further increase in GO amount, the density of the covered TiO₂ particles decreased, the size of TiO₂ is 19 nm. All of the TEM images reveal that the oxygen containing groups in GO can act as anchoring sites to govern the size and dispersity of TiO₂. Proper amount of GO (1.2 wt.%) in the reactant mixture favors the homogeneous scattering of TiO₂ on graphene sheet with smaller size, proper density, and better dispersity, which will further determine the photocatalytic activity of TG composites.

The information regarding the chemical and bonding environment of the graphene matrix and TiO₂ phase were ascertained using XPS (Fig. 6). The binding energies (BE) of Ti 2p3/2 and O 1s are 459.1 and 530.0 eV, respectively, which are identical to those for pure TiO₂. With respect to the XPS spectra of O 1s, four peaks at 530.4, 531.3, 532.17, and 533.77 eV have been fitted, which are ascribed to Ti–O–Ti (lattice O), C = O (and COO), Ti–OH, and C–OH (and C–O–C) species, respectively [31,32]. The main C 1s peak is dominated by elemental carbon at 284.6 eV, attributed mainly to sp² hybridized carbon at 284.6 eV, attributed mainly to sp² hybridized carbon at 284.6 eV. The weak C 1s peak at 285.2 eV is attributed mainly to sp3 hybridized carbon, and two weak peaks at 286.3 and 288.9 eV are assigned to the oxygen bound species C–O and O–C O, respectively [33,34]. No C 1s peak at 281 eV (Ti–C bond) [35] is
observed, and the chemical environments for Ti and O are not changed, strongly suggesting that carbon atom does not directly enter into bulk TiO$_2$ lattice. This is not expected as many conventional C-doped TiO$_2$ is synthesized at temperatures higher than 600˚C [35–37]. Under crystallization conditions used herein, it is thought that TiO$_2$ is grafted onto the graphene layers via C–O–Ti bond, with such structure favoring the desired charge transfer upon light excitation [38]. C–O–Ti bond extends the light absorption to longer wavelengths.

The nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms of the prepared materials are type IV with an H$_2$ hysteresis loop, which is a representative characteristic of mesoporous materials (Fig. 7). As shown in Fig. 7, the N$_2$-adsorbed amount of TiO$_2$ decreased significantly compared with GT composites. The corresponding textural parameters are summarized in Table 1. After
prepared samples, the TG-3 exhibited the largest pore diameter and pore volume, and the TG-3 showed the highest BET surface area.

The UV–vis absorption spectra of TiO2, TG-1, TG-2, TG-3 and TG-4 are shown in Fig. 8. The sharp characteristic absorption peak at 390 nm indicates the presence of good crystalline and impurity suppressed TiO2 nanostructures. It is observed that the absorbance of TiO2–RGO composite increases even in visible light region with the increase of RGO content. Such an increase in absorbance may be due to the absorption contribution from RGO, the increase of surface electric charge of the oxides and the modification of the fundamental process of electron-hole pair formation during irradiation [39]. In addition, the red shift in the absorption edge of TiO2–RGO composite obtained by extrapolating the linear portion of the curve to zero absorbance as compared to pure TiO2 is ascribed to the chemical bonding between semiconductor photocatalyst and RGO. Therefore, the presence of RGO in TiO2 can increase the light absorption

![Graphene/TiO2 and TiO2 composite](image1)

**Fig. 6.** (A) XPS survey spectra of graphene, TiO2 and graphene@TiO2. (B) High resolution Ti 2p XPS spectra of TiO2.

![N2 adsorption and desorption isotherm](image2)

**Fig. 7.** N2 adsorption and desorption isotherm of TiO2 and TiO2–RGO Composite formed with various GO wt.%.

The introduction of graphene absorbed into the TiO2 matrix, showed significant increase in pore diameter, pore volume, and BET surface area. In the five

![UV–vis absorption spectra](image3)

**Fig. 8.** UV–vis absorption spectra of TiO2 and TiO2–RGO composite formed with various GO wt.%. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>( V_p )</th>
<th>( S_{\text{BET}} )</th>
<th>Band gap energy, eV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TiO2</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG-1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG-2</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG-3</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG-4</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>( V_p )</th>
<th>( S_{\text{BET}} )</th>
<th>Band gap energy, eV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
intensity and range, which is beneficial to the photocatalytic performance. It can be seen from Table 1 and Fig. 8 that the absorption edge of photocatalyst, or the band gap energy, changed with the GO wt.%. The band gap energy of the composites photocatalyst decreased with the increasing GO wt.%.

Fig. 9 shows PL spectra of TiO$_2$, TG-1, TG-2, TG-3 and TG-4. As compared with the spectrum of pure TiO$_2$, the PL peak of TiO$_2$–RGO composite displays a red shift, which is consistent to the result of UV–vis absorption spectra. Furthermore, the introduction of RGO decreases excitonic PL intensity, which indicates that the recombination of photo-induced electrons and holes in TiO$_2$ can be effectively inhibited in the composite.

### 3.2. Photocatalytic activity

The photocatalytic activities of TiO$_2$ and G-TiO$_2$ composites (TG1–TG4) was measured by the photodegradation of GB in gas phase under visible light irradiation. It was clear from Fig. 10 a photocatalytic activity of TiO$_2$ is low, only 5% of GB was degraded. The photodegradation activity of G-TiO$_2$ composites (TG1–TG4) were significantly enhanced compared with TiO$_2$. This indicated that the interactions between graphene and TiO$_2$ led to the improvement of the photocatalytic activity. Conduction band position of TiO$_2$ is 3 eV (using vacuum level as a reference), and the work function of graphene is calculated to be 4.42 eV, so graphene can accept conduction band electrons from TiO$_2$. Under excitation, the conduction band electrons of TiO$_2$ can be transferred to graphene, and the recombination of photo-generated electron-hole pairs was efficiently retarded. From this point, the improvement in photocatalytic activity of G-TiO$_2$ composites is imaginable. Furthermore, in the G-TiO$_2$ composites (TG-1–TG-4), the amount of graphene is paramount in determining the photocatalytic activity. From TG-1 to TG-2, the photocatalytic activity for GB was gradually increased, and TG-3 demonstrated the maximized photocatalytic activity, about 99.9% of GB was decomposed in 180 min, dramatically higher than TiO$_2$ catalyst. This implies that, in TG-1 and TG-2, with the amount of GO in the reaction system is lower than 3 wt.%, the insufficient amount of GO cannot control the homogeneously scattering of all the TiO$_2$ particles, partial TiO$_2$ particles aggregated or exhibited larger size, which could not effectively interact with graphene, this portion exhibits a lower activity, hinder the overall activity of photocatalyst. The increment of GO in the reaction system led to better dispersity and smaller particles size of TiO$_2$ on graphene sheets, the more efficient interactions between graphene and TiO$_2$ resulted in the retard of electron-hole pairs recombination, so the enhanced of photocatalytic activity was obtained. With the further increment of GO in the reaction system (over 3 wt.%), the photocatalytic activity of G- TiO$_2$ composite (TG-4) decreased. This is also reasonable because the insufficient amount of TiO$_2$ in the G-TiO$_2$ composites cause a decrease of the transferred electrons from excitation stated TiO$_2$, so that reduced the photocatalytic activity.

It is known that during photocatalysis, the light absorption and the charge transportation and separation are crucial factors [28]. The enhancement of the photocatalytic performance should be ascribed to the increase of the light absorption intensity and range, and the reduction of electron-hole pair recombination in
The photo-stability of TG-3 by investigating its photocatalytic performance under visible light irradiation with three times of cycling uses was studied. It can be seen that the recycled use of TG-3 does not conspicuously affect its photocatalytic activity thrice. Apparently, the composite is stable under the studied conditions.

4. Conclusions

TiO$_2$–RGO composites are successfully synthesized via UV-assisted photocatalytic reduction of GO by TiO$_2$ nanoparticles in ethanol. The experimental results indicate that (i) TiO$_2$–RGO composites exhibit a better photocatalytic performance than pure TiO$_2$; (ii) the photocatalytic performance of TiO$_2$–RGO is dependent on the proportion of RGO in the composite and TiO$_2$–RGO composite with 3.0 wt.% RGO achieves a highest GB removal rate of 99.5%; (iii) the enhanced photocatalytic performance is ascribed to the increased light absorption intensity and range as well as the reduction of photoelectron-hole pair recombination in TiO$_2$ with the introduction of RGO.

References


