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Synthesis and characterization of nitrogen-doped TiO₂/AC composite for the adsorption–photocatalytic degradation of aqueous bisphenol-A using solar light

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ABSTRACT

A photocatalytic composite, namely nitrogen-doped titanium dioxide supported on activated carbon, or N-TiO₂/AC, was synthesized using the sol-gel method. This composite was characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD), N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm, UV-vis spectrophotometry, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The titania was found to consist predominantly of anatase. The AC-supported N-TiO₂ had a smaller average crystallite size (ca. 5.0 nm) as compared to the unsupported N-TiO₂ (ca. 5.4 nm). XPS revealed that interstitial nitrogen doping occurred in N-TiO₂ and N-TiO₂/AC. Observations under TEM revealed that N-TiO₂ nanocrystals were anchored on the surface of the AC. The dual-functionality properties of N-TiO₂/AC were evaluated using bisphenol-A (BPA) as the target pollutant in the aqueous phase. The effect of pH and influence of excitation wavelengths were investigated. Inhibition of BPA adsorption occurred at pH 11.0, thus resulted in slower kinetics of BPA photodegradation. N-TiO₂/AC was found to be photoresponsive under visible-light (420–630 nm) illumination.

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1. Introduction

Among various advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), heterogeneous photocatalysis appears to be an appealing option for water and wastewater treatment, because it (i) does not require the usage of toxic, hazardous, and expensive chemicals, (ii) allows the destruction of a myriad of organic aqueous pollutants including recalcitrant compounds, and (iii) is more energy efficient compared to sonolysis and photolysis. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) stands out to be a promising photocatalyst because it is chemically and biologically stable, available at competitive costs, has low toxicity, and typically yields high photocatalytic effect under UV irradiation [1].

To overcome mass transfer limitation associated with TiO₂ application in water treatment, the slurry system in which TiO₂ powder is well dispersed in suspension is favourable over the fixed system. For the slurry system, the nanosized TiO₂ particles can be mounted to suitable particulate support to enhance its separation from the treated water, and to increase adsorption of target pollutant to the supported TiO₂. Activated carbon (AC) emerges as one of the most attractive TiO₂ support [2]. The favourable characteristics of AC include: (1) it has strong affinity for a wide range of organic pollutants, (2) it has a long tradition of proven application for water and wastewater treatment, (3) it can be

conveniently obtained at competitive cost and available in a variety of particle sizes, and (4) in contact with TiO_2 , it has the capability to extend the separation lifetime of photogenerated e^-/h^+ [3] and thus increasing the quantum efficiency of TiO_2 .

Meanwhile, various modifications of TiO₂ to render it photoactive under visible-light have also been attempted. Some notable techniques include the modification with noble metals [4,5], metal-ions [6–8] or anions [9–11]. Considering the thermal instability of metal-ions [12] and expensive costs of noble metals, anion doping appears as the more favourable method. Among the possible anions, nitrogen is an attractive dopant for TiO₂ as findings have shown that N-TiO₂ induces desirable visible-light photoresponsive properties [13,14].

In recent years, bisphenol-A (BPA) has attracted increasing public concern, after it was found to leach out from polycarbonate baby bottles [15]. Albeit useful as a chemical for the production of polycarbonate bottles, epoxy resins, flame retardants, etc. [16], BPA has been reported to cause adverse environmental and health effects because it is an endocrine disrupting compound (EDC) that poses potential estrogenic and toxicological risk [17–19]. Of late, numerous occurrences of BPA in our natural and engineered water systems have been reported worldwide [20–23]. Hence, it is necessary to develop the economically viable and sustainable treatment technologies to tackle this issue.

The current project embarks on developing a dual-functional composite, namely nitrogen-doped TiO₂ supported on activated carbon (N-TiO₂/AC). In this study, N-TiO₂/AC was prepared and

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deployed to remove BPA in the aqueous system. Specifically, the effect of solution pH and influence of excitation wavelengths were examined.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of N-TiO₂/AC composite

N-TiO₂/AC was synthesized using the sol-gel method. Ultrapure water (18.2 M Ω cm) was used for preparing all aqueous solutions. Powdered AC (Norit SA UF, Switzerland) was purchased from Behn Meyer, Singapore. The powdered AC was first rinsed with ultrapure water, pre-treated in NaOH solution, and finally vacuum-dried. Titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) (Merck) was used as the Ti-precursor, while the nitrogen source was urea (Merck). Absolute ethanol was used as a solvent. HCl was used to acidify absolute ethanol, and this solution was mixed with a separate solution comprising absolute ethanol and TTIP. Urea solution was added dropwise and the resulting solution was left to mix overnight. Subsequently, ultrapure water was added for hydrolysis. This was followed by the immersion of powdered AC and the slurry suspension was stirred to ensure uniform dispersion. After that, the solution was gradually heated, and the gel-coated AC precipitates were recovered and vacuum-dried. For comparison, N-TiO₂ powder was prepared without addition of AC, while TiO₂ powder was prepared without addition of urea and AC. Finally, these vacuum-dried samples were calcined using a tube furnace at 400 °C for 2 h under N2 gas flow, to yield the N-TiO₂/AC, N-TiO₂ and TiO₂, respectively.

2.2. Characterization of N-TiO₂/AC composite

The crystallinity of N-TiO₂/AC, N-TiO₂ and TiO₂ was examined using a X-ray diffractometer (Bruker AXS D8 Advance) with Cu $K\alpha$ radiation of $\lambda = 1.54 \,\text{Å}$, at the condition of 40 kV and 40 mA. Porosimetric studies were carried out using nitrogen adsorptiondesorption at 77 K (QuantaChrome Autosorb-1 Analyzer) to obtain the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface areas (S_{BET}) and Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) pore size distributions of the materials. The surface chemistry of samples was probed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (KratosAXIS Ultra spectrometer), operated with monochromatic Al Ka X-rays (1486.71 eV). Calibration of binding energies for all elements in XPS spectra was made with reference to adventitious carbon (C1s = 284.8 eV). Photoactivity of selected materials was studied with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Lambda 35, PerkinElmer), equipped with an integrating sphere accessory. The morphology of N-TiO₂/AC and surface N-TiO₂ wt% were studied using a scanning electron microscope (SEM)-energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) (JSM-6360 microscope with JED-2300 X-ray analyzer). Bulk N-TiO₂ wt% was determined using gravimetry method, i.e. ashing in a muffle furnace (Nabertherm) at 700 °C for 2 h. The N-TiO₂ crystal perfections and the interfacial titania coatings on AC were probed using the transmission electron microscope (TEM) (JEOL 2010F microscope).

2.3. Analysis of BPA

2.3.1. BPA chemical

BPA was purchased from Merck, and was used without any pretreatment. All BPA solutions were prepared with ultrapure water (18.2 ${\rm M}\Omega$ cm).

2.3.2. Adsorption experiment

Kinetic studies on the adsorption of BPA by N-TiO₂/AC and virgin AC were carried out in the dark and it was found that

adsorption equilibrium was achieved within 1.5 h (data not shown). Thus, 1.5 h was chosen as the adsorption equilibrium time. Batch equilibrium adsorption experiments were conducted in the dark over a range of initial concentrations to obtain the adsorption isotherm of BPA on N-TiO₂/AC and virgin AC, respectively. The solution pH were measured with a pH meter (Horiba, Japan) and the pH was adjusted using either HCl (1.0 M) or NaOH (1.0 M) solutions. After adsorption equilibrium, the final pH of BPA solutions was measured. Finally, aliquots were sampled and filtered using a 0.45 µm cellulose acetate membrane syringe filter. High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (PerkinElmer) was used to analyze the BPA concentrations. The mobile phase used was ultrapure water/acetonitrile (20:80, v/v), with a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min through a C18 column (Inertsil ODS-3, 4.6 mm i.d. \times 150 mm length, 5 μ m). The detection wavelength was 225 nm and a temperature of 25 °C was maintained for the column throughout analysis.

2.3.3. Photocatalytic degradation (PCD) experiment

Prior to all PCD experiments, adsorption of BPA in the dark was performed to allow for adsorption equilibrium. PCD experimental runs were carried out using a solar simulator (Newport, USA), equipped with a Xenon arc lamp of 150 W. The light intensity of the solar spectrum was measured to be ca. 1000 W/m² (as measured with a digital power meter, EDTM). The UV and visible-light intensity were found to constitute ca. 6.5% and 40%, respectively, of the light intensity for solar spectrum. The initial concentration of BPA solution used was 36 mg/L and the BPA solution volume was 250 mL. Dosage of N-TiO₂/AC used was 0.25 g/L. PCD experiments were conducted without aeration and a quartz cover was placed on top of the glass reactor to minimize loss of water due to evaporation. The passage of electromagnetic waves with specific ranges of wavelengths (i.e. 280-400 nm and 420-630 nm) was controlled using dichroic mirrors. An additional polycarbonate filter was included for the case of visible-light (420-630 nm) experiments in order to reduce the UV to less than $10 \,\mu\text{W/cm}^2$ (as measured with AccuMAX XRP-3000 radiometer). PCD studies on BPA were also conducted using TiO₂, N-TiO₂ and Degussa P25 (all of which with the comparable photocatalyst loading) at the same excitation wavelengths as that of the experiments with N-TiO₂/AC composite.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characteristics of N-TiO₂/AC composite

The physical properties of the 30 wt% N-TiO₂/AC composite, along with that of various materials, are shown in Table 1. The higher surface N-TiO₂ wt% of N-TiO₂/AC composite as compared to its bulk wt% was because SEM microscope only analyzed the elemental composition on the surface of the composite. The reduction of $S_{\rm BET}$ for N-TiO₂/AC composite as compared to that of virgin AC was attributed to the deposition of N-TiO₂ on AC surface. Coatings of N-TiO₂ on AC were also investigated using EDX and further examinations under the SEM confirmed that the titania was supported with good integrity on the AC surfaces (data not shown).

The mineralogical properties of N-TiO₂/AC composite are as shown in the XRD pattern (Fig. 1). The crystal phases of N-TiO₂ and TiO₂ consisted of predominantly anatase. Crystallite sizes were estimated using the Debye–Scherrer's equation [24]. TiO₂ crystals (ca. 5.7 nm) were relatively larger than N-TiO₂ crystals (ca. 5.4 nm). This indicates that nitrogen-doping had relatively restricted the growth of the TiO₂ crystals. N-TiO₂ nanocrystals supported on AC (ca. 5.0 nm) were smaller than unsupported N-TiO₂. This is due to the anti-calcination effect, whereby the production of interfacial energy between the surface of AC and the N-TiO₂ particles prevented the agglomeration of N-TiO₂ on AC [25].

Table 1 Physical characteristics for various materials.

Samples	$S_{\rm BET}~({\rm m}^2/{\rm g})$	BJH predominant pore size (nm)	BJH cumulative desorption pore volume (cm ³ /g)	Bulk wt% of N-TiO ₂ ^a	Surface wt% of N-TiO ₂ ^b	At% of N ^c	Mass% of N ^c
Virgin AC	799	1.4	0.39	_	_	_	_
P25	57.8	2.3	0.14	-	-	-	-
TiO ₂	79.6	4.0	0.11	-	-	-	-
N-TiO ₂	60.4	3.8	0.09	_	-	0.33	0.21
N-TiO ₂ /AC	559	3.8	0.19	ca. 30%	ca. 58%	0.67	0.58

- (-) Not applicable.
- ^a Determined via gravimetry (ashing method).
- b Determined via EDX analysis.
- ^c Determined via XPS.

The characteristic of adsorption–desorption phenomenon as shown in Fig. 2 indicates that N-TiO $_2$ /AC composite was a porous material. The inset shows that the predominant pore size of N-TiO $_2$ /AC was ca. 3.8 nm, suggesting that this composite was mainly mesoporous.

XPS spectra (Fig. 3) reveal that the N1s peaks for N-TiO $_2$ and N-TiO $_2$ /AC occurred at binding energy of ca. 399.7 eV and 400.8 eV, respectively. This indicates the formation of molecularly chemisorbed γ -N $_2$ onto the TiO $_2$ surface (binding energy of 400 eV and 402 eV) [13,26]. In other words, it also means that nitrogen atoms were interstitially doped into the TiO $_2$ crystal lattices [27]. The higher at% and mass% of surficial nitrogen in the N-TiO $_2$ /AC composite (Table 1) as compared to that of N-TiO $_2$ might be due to the fact that supporting AC adsorbed some of the liberated ammonia during the decomposition of urea, hence resulted in additional incidental nitrogen doping for the composite. When both P25 and TiO $_2$ were used a reference, XPS verified that there was no detectable N1s peak on these photocatalysts.

The red-shift phenomenon exhibited by the as-synthesized N- TiO_2 in the visible-light region (ca. 400–550 nm region) was shown in the UV–vis absorbance spectra (Fig. 4). The estimated second absorbance edge for N- TiO_2 was ca. 2.25 eV (corresponding to light absorbance up to ca. 550 nm). The fact that TiO_2 did not exhibit

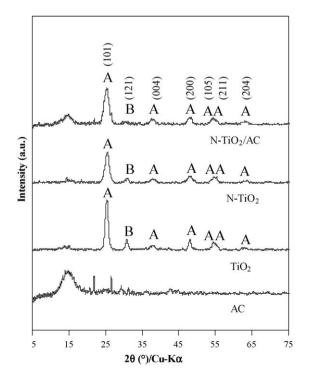


Fig. 1. XRD patterns for AC, TiO_2 , $N-TiO_2$ and $N-TiO_2/AC$ (*Note*: A and B denote anatase and brookite phases, respectively).

significant absorbance in the visible-light spectrum as compared to N-TiO₂, indicated that it was urea (and not other foreign contaminants) which had contributed to the visible-light photoactivity effect of the N-TiO₂. This is in agreement with previous report [28] that nitrogen doping using urea resulted in the lowering of $E_{\rm g}$ of TiO₂ to ca. 2.3 eV, thus inducing desirable visible-light photoactivity properties. The UV–vis absorbance spectrum for N-TiO₂/AC was also analyzed (data not shown) and this black colour composite absorbs the whole spectrum of UV–vis light spectrum.

The anchorage of N-TiO₂ particles on the surface of AC is evidenced by TEM image (Fig. 5). The contrast in the features of N-TiO₂ crystals and the amorphous carbon could be observed. The insets (a and b) showed the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern for the N-TiO₂ and AC, respectively. The presence of polycrystalline N-TiO₂ was indicated by the formation of concentric rings. AC did not exhibit this feature since it was predominantly amorphous. Given the non-uniform topology of AC surface, the thickness of the N-TiO₂ deposition was found to be varied. Nevertheless, N-TiO₂ coating of up to ca. 100 nm thickness was possible

3.2. Adsorption studies

Fig. 6 depicts the adsorption isotherm of BPA on N-TiO₂/AC composite and virgin AC under the influence of solution pH. Langmuir adsorption isotherm model [29] was chosen for fitting the isotherm of BPA adsorption by N-TiO₂/AC and virgin AC. The corresponding adsorption parameters, such as maximum sorption capacity ($S_{\rm max}$) and the adsorption constant ($K_{\rm ads}$) are presented in Table 2. It was found that N-TiO₂/AC exhibited reductions in its adsorption capacity for BPA as compared to virgin AC for all

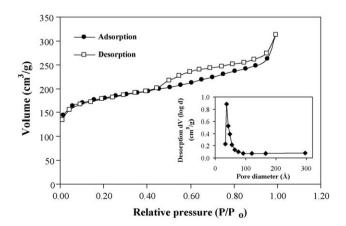


Fig. 2. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherm analysis for N-TiO₂/AC (*Inset*: The corresponding pore size distribution for the composite).

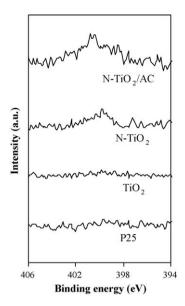


Fig. 3. XPS spectra depicting binding energy of N1s for N-TiO₂ and N-TiO₂/AC.

investigated values of pH. This is due to the fact that N-TiO₂/AC possessed considerably lower S_{BET} than virgin AC.

Solution pH is an important environmental parameter as it governs the protonation/deprotonation of target compounds in the aqueous phase and the surface functional groups of AC, thus affecting the efficiency of adsorption and PCD. BPA adsorption on N-TiO₂/AC was found to be considerably inhibited at pH 11.0. BPA can deprotonate and formed monoanion (HBPA-) and dianion (BPA^{2-}) at its pK_{a1} (9.59) and pK_{a2} (10.2), respectively [30]. Under alkaline condition, the AC surface functional groups would be negatively charged (AC-O⁻) [31]. It is known that the pH_{pzc} (point of zero charge) for the TiO₂ is in the range of pH 5-7 [1,32]; i.e. a net positive and negative charge occurs on TiO₂ surface when $pH < pH_{pzc}$ and $pH > pH_{pzc}$, respectively. For the case of N-TiO₂, the pH_{pzc} has been reported to shift to a slightly higher value (ca. 1.0 unit pH only) as compared to the case of TiO₂ [14]. It is therefore postulated that BPA anions are considerably repelled by the predominant negatively charged functional groups present on the surface of N-TiO₂/AC at pH 11.0. In contrast, a relatively greater adsorption of BPA was exhibited by the composite at pH 3.0. Under acidic condition, positively charged surface functional groups

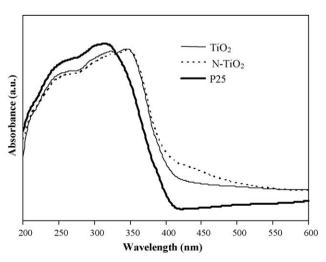


Fig. 4. UV-vis absorbance spectra for P25 and as-synthesized titania.

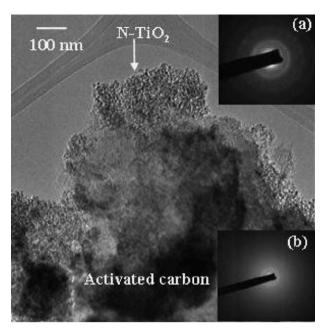


Fig. 5. TEM image depicting the anchorage of N-TiO2 on the surface of AC (*Inset*: (a) SAED pattern for N-TiO₂ crystals and (b) SAED pattern for AC).

formed on both AC (AC-OH₂⁺) [31] and N-TiO₂ (\equiv Ti-OH₂⁺) [1,32] will tend to have less electrostatic repulsion with the molecular form of BPA.

3.3. PCD studies

3.3.1. Effect of solution pH

At the end of 3 h of PCD experiment, the efficiency of PCD was found to generally decrease with increasing levels of pH (Fig. 7). The least BPA photodegradation at pH 11.0 was ascribed to the net electrostatic repulsion. Nevertheless, PCD of BPA at pH > pK_{a2} still occurred because of the increasing OH⁻ ion concentrations in the solution. Reaction of OH⁻ with the photogenerated holes would produce hydroxyl radicals (*OH) to photocatalytically degrade BPA. The relatively improved BPA photodegradation in the acidic regime may be attributed to the positively charged surface groups on TiO₂ (\equiv Ti-OH₂*) [1,32]. It has been reported that surface protonation of

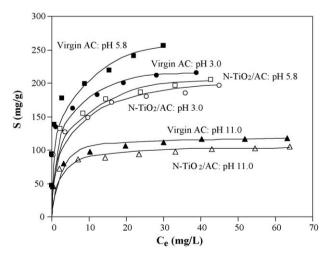


Fig. 6. Adsorption isotherm of BPA on virgin AC and N-TiO2/AC at different pH levels (*Note*: Symbols \bigcirc , \bullet , \square , \square , \triangle , \triangle denote experimental data; continuous curves are best-fitted based on Langmuir isotherm model).

Table 2Adsorption parameters derived from the best-fitted Langmuir isotherm model.

Samples	pН	S _{max} (mg/g)	K _{ads} (L/mg)	R^2
Virgin AC	$3.0 \pm 0.2 \\ 5.8 \pm 0.2 \\ 11.0 \pm 0.2$	217 252 120	1.05 1.13 0.58	0.996 0.992 0.999
N-TiO ₂ /AC	$3.0 \pm 0.2 \\ 5.8 \pm 0.2 \\ 11.0 \pm 0.2$	196 204 106	0.62 0.74 0.54	0.995 0.995 0.998

 TiO_2 in acidic solutions could lead to the production of photocurrent [33]. Thus, charge carriers separation could be relatively more favourable at acidic pH than at circumneutral and alkaline pH. Since our experiments did not involve aeration, thus it may be possible that the protonated surfaces of N-TiO₂ had compensated the role of dissolved oxygen as electron scavengers in the photocatalytic reaction system.

3.3.2. Effect of excitation wavelengths

The influence of excitation wavelengths on the photodegradation of BPA employing N-TiO₂/AC is presented in Fig. 8(a). After 3 h of solar irradiation, the blank experiment resulted in less than 4% of BPA removal through photolysis effect. It is postulated that the effect of photolysis would be further reduced in the presence of N-TiO₂/AC particles because of the significant light attenuation in the turbid solution. N-TiO₂/AC composite was found to be photoactive under both UV and visible-light illumination. Apparently, interstitial nitrogen doping for TiO₂ could result in desirable PCD effect. This demonstration of visible-light photoresponsiveness of N-TiO₂/ AC is particularly encouraging as it indicates the potential of harnessing the visible-light energy from the solar irradiation, and possibly too, interior lightings. Given that nitrogen doping may result in visible-light absorbance up until ca. 550 nm (Fig. 4), further red-shift for the second absorbance edge onset may significantly improve PCD performance under visible-light irradiation. Further optimization of several pertinent factors such as crystallinity, porosity, nitrogen content (at%) in titania, loading of N-TiO₂ (wt%) in N-TiO₂/AC composite, and particle size of AC will also likely to improve PCD efficiency under visible-light.

The comparison of PCD efficiency achieved by N-TiO₂/AC with that of other photocatalysts is presented in Fig. 8(b). It was found that N-TiO₂/AC had relatively higher photodegradation efficiency for BPA after 3 h of experiment as compared with TiO₂, N-TiO₂ and

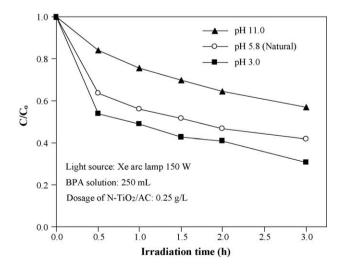
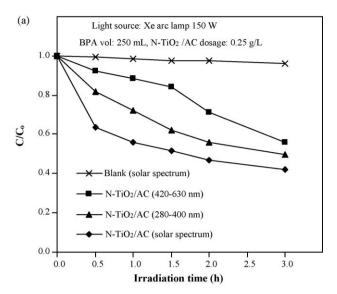


Fig. 7. Effect of pH on the photocatalytic degradation efficiency for BPA under simulated solar irradiation (*Note*: C_0 denotes the equilibrium concentration of BPA after adsorption in the dark).



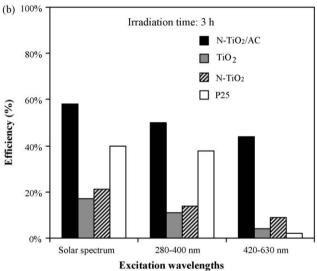


Fig. 8. (a) Effect of excitation wavelengths on the photocatalytic degradation efficiency for BPA (*Note*: C_0 denotes the equilibrium concentration of BPA after adsorption in the dark) and (b) comparison of BPA removal performance under various excitation wavelengths for N-TiO₂/AC, TiO₂, N-TiO₂ and P25.

P25. For the case of P25, its favourable PCD effect for solar and UV (280–400 nm) could partly be due to the presence of predominantly anatase–rutile mixture. However, in the visible-light range (420–630 nm), P25 displayed negligible removal of BPA. N-TiO₂ consistently exhibited greater BPA photodegradation efficiency than TiO₂ for all ranges of the investigated excitation wavelengths. In particular, N-TiO₂ exhibited more than two-fold PCD efficiency as compared to TiO₂ under visible-light illumination. This result is in agreement with the UV–vis absorbance results (Fig. 4). Indeed, synergistic effect of adsorption–photocatalysis exhibited by the dual-functional N-TiO₂/AC had resulted in greater BPA photodegradation, which otherwise was not achieved by the photocatalysts without AC support.

4. Conclusions and future work

A dual-functional composite, namely N-TiO $_2$ /AC, which exhibited both adsorption and PCD effect, was synthesized using the solgel method and characterized. Interstitial nitrogen doping was verified with XPS analysis and the TEM image revealed the anchorage of N-TiO $_2$ on the surface of AC. PCD performance for BPA

was least at highly alkaline pH. The N-TiO₂/AC was photoactive under the irradiation of solar spectrum, UV (280–400 nm) and visible-light (420–630 nm). Future work shall address some of the aforementioned issues and to explore improved methods of synthesis for N-TiO₂/AC composite in order to yield greater removal efficiency for a wide range of recalcitrant aqueous organic contaminants with diverse molecular characteristics.

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