



# Fabrication and characterization of Ag- and Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes (NTs) by in situ anodization method as an efficient photocatalyst

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## Abstract

In this study, copper (Cu) and silver (Ag)-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes were fabricated by in situ anodization method to improve their photocatalytic performance. The resulting nanotubes (NTs) were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, and Mott-Schottky analysis. The SEM study shows the formation of NT structure and reveals that the doping does not affect the surface morphology. The XPS analysis proves that a mixture of Ag<sup>0</sup>/Ag<sup>+</sup> and Cu<sup>+</sup>/Cu<sup>2+</sup> exists simultaneously on the surface of the Ag- and Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, respectively. XRD and Raman spectroscopy analyses show that the doping shifted the anatase and rutile phase transformation and stabilized the anatase phase. The Mott-Schottky measurements demonstrate that the potential of the flat band shifted to negative values by doping. The prepared NTs were evaluated in methylene blue (MB) photodegradation under UV. The results reveal that the doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were more efficient than pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs in the degradation of MB. The Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs exhibited excellent degradation efficiency of about 92.61% with a kinetic rate 0.0089 min<sup>-1</sup>. Furthermore, the reusability studies showed that the photocatalysts are globally stable and efficient for the degradation of MB.

**Keywords** Electrochemical anodization · Photocatalysis · Photodegradation · Nanotubes · TiO<sub>2</sub> · XPS · Methylene blue

## Introduction

Titanium dioxide is the most widely used semiconductor as a chemically stable, highly efficient, and relatively inexpensive photocatalyst [1]. The fabrication of TiO<sub>2</sub> with interesting morphologies and properties has recently attracted considerable attention. Various nanostructures of TiO<sub>2</sub> such as nanowire, nanoparticles, nanorods, nanosheets, nanotubes, and microspheres have been successfully synthesized [2–8].

Among these nanostructures, it is well known that ordered TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays with larger specific surface areas are a suitable structure in photocatalytic applications. However, the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub> is mainly limited by its large bandgap, the recombination of photogenerated electron–hole pairs, and their small lifetime [9, 10]. Recently, many efforts have been made, and different approaches have been developed to improve these limitations, such as doping of TiO<sub>2</sub> [11–13], coupling the TiO<sub>2</sub> with a semiconductor material with a narrow bandgap [14–17], decoration of TiO<sub>2</sub> with different noble metals [18], and surface photosensitization [19]. The doping process is the typical approach that has been widely applied to enhance the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub> [20]. A previous study revealed that doping with metal elements reduces the bandgap of TiO<sub>2</sub> to increase the number of photogenerated electron–hole pairs and the recombination rate of the photogenerated electron–hole pairs [21, 22]. Park et al. [23] doped TiO<sub>2</sub> by divalent metals (Co<sup>2+</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup>, Cu<sup>2+</sup>, and Zn<sup>2+</sup>) and showed that Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> and Zn-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> were highly interesting materials in the photodecomposition of methylene blue. Sangpour et al. [24] showed that

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doping with Ag, Au, and Cu metal increases the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> by improving the radical formation. They found that the photocatalytic efficiency increased from 40% for pure TiO<sub>2</sub> to 90%, 75%, and 50% for Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>, Au-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>, and Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. Only a few studies focused on the doping of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs during the anodizing process in the literature [25–29].

This study reports a simple approach to fabricating Cu and Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs by anodizing of pure titanium in glycerol electrolyte containing ammonium fluoride. The effects of incorporating ions into TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs on their photocatalytic efficiency were investigated. The morphology and structure were studied by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and Raman spectroscopy. The electrical properties were studied by Mott-Schottky measurement. The effect of Cu and Ag doping on the photocatalytic activity of doped samples was evaluated by methylene blue (MB) degradation under UV irradiation.

## Materials and method

### Materials

Titanium foil (99.99% pure, 1 mm thick), glycerol (99.8%, anhydrous), NH<sub>4</sub>F (98%), HNO<sub>3</sub> (99.98%), HF (40%), silver nitrate (AgNO<sub>3</sub>), copper (II) sulfate (CuSO<sub>4</sub>, 5H<sub>2</sub>O), benzoquinone (99.5%), isopropanol (99.0%), triethanolamine (98%), and methylene blue were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, USA).

### Fabrication of pure and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs

The titanium foils were first polished with different emery paper sizes (from #1000 to #5000 grade), rinsed with distilled water, and then chemically etched by immersion in a mixture of HF and HNO<sub>3</sub> acids for 10 s. The mix's HF/HNO<sub>3</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O ratio was 1:1:2 in volume [30]. The pure and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were synthesized by electrochemical anodization of titanium foils in a glycerol-based electrolyte solution containing NH<sub>4</sub>F and distilled water. The conditions of anodization are described in detail in our previous paper [31]. Briefly, the anodization was performed in a two-electrode electrochemical device with a platinum foil as the

cathode and pure titanium as the anode. The anodization was carried out under a constant voltage of 60 V for 60 min at a temperature of 25 ± 1 °C. The distance between anode and cathode was kept at 1 cm. The electrolyte bath composition used to elaborate the different samples is listed in Table 1. The electrolyte solution was magnetically stirred during the electrochemical reaction (250 tr/min). After anodization, the anodized samples were immediately washed in distilled water. To improve the crystallinity of the as-synthesized NTs, the as-formed samples were heat-treated in a muffle furnace at 600 °C for 2 h with a heating ramp of 10 °C/min [32].

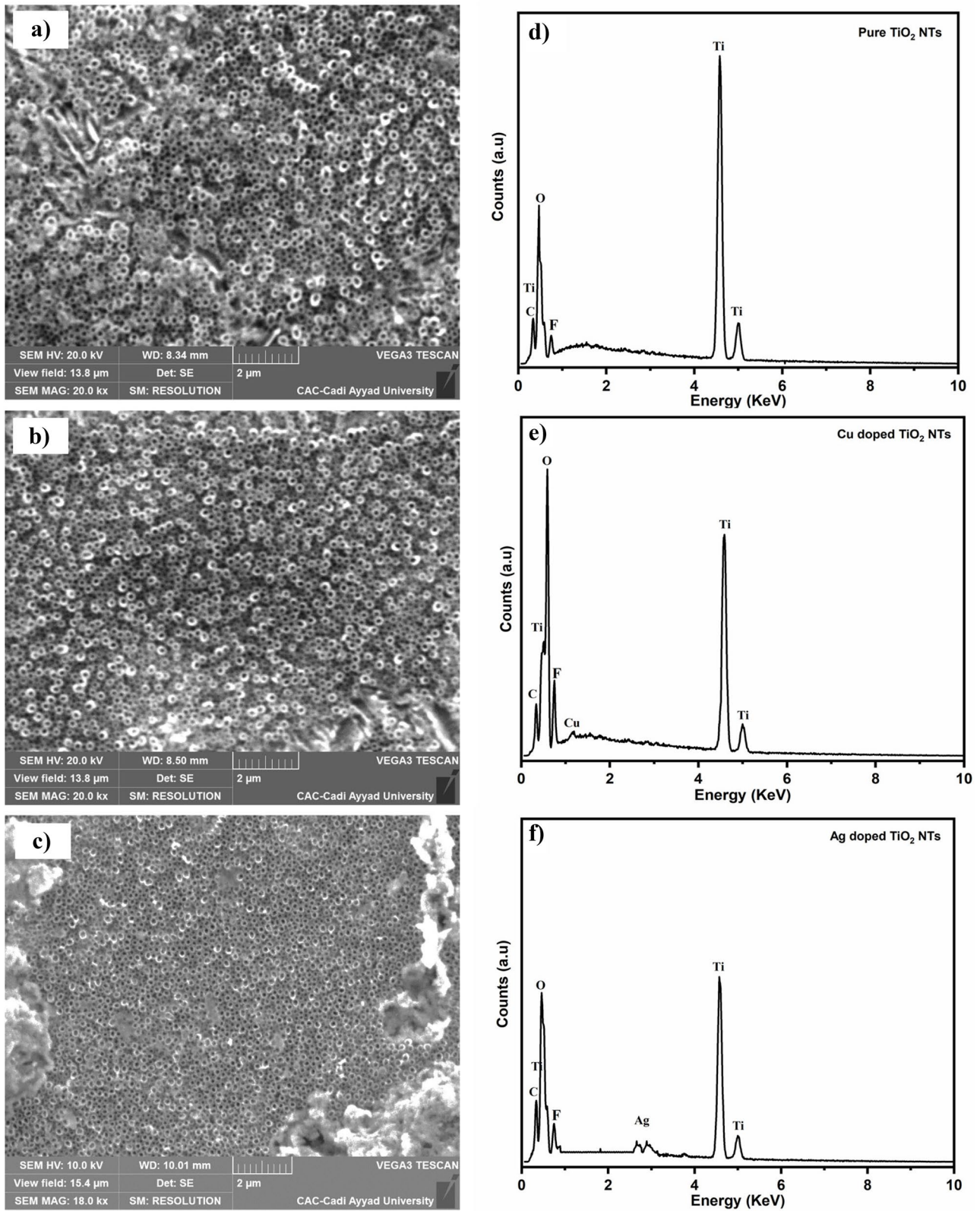
### Characterization

The morphology and composition of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and modified TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were characterized under a field emission scanning electron microscope (TESCAN VEGA3 SEM) coupled with an energy dispersive X-ray microanalysis system (EDAX, EDX) operated at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV and under a pressure of 1.3 × 10<sup>-4</sup> Pa. The samples' surface properties and oxidation states were analyzed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The XPS peaks are deconvoluted using CasaXPS software (version 2.3.23) with Lorentzian Asymmetric LA (1.53, 243) peak fitting. The TiO<sub>2</sub> crystalline structure was determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Rigaku, SmartLab SE, operated at 40 kV and 50 mA. The X-ray source consists of Cu K $\alpha$  radiation (1.54184 Å) selected with a Cu K $\beta$  filter. The data were collected between 10 and 70° with a scan speed of 5°/min. The Raman spectrum was recorded using a confocal Raman spectrometer (Confotec MR520 microscope) instrument with a laser ( $\lambda$  = 532 nm) and analyzed with 1200 lines/in the grating. The acquisition time of 30 s is used with 10 mW incident power. The functional groups and their modes of vibrations are analyzed by using a VERTEX 70 FT-IR Spectrometer with ATR attachment.

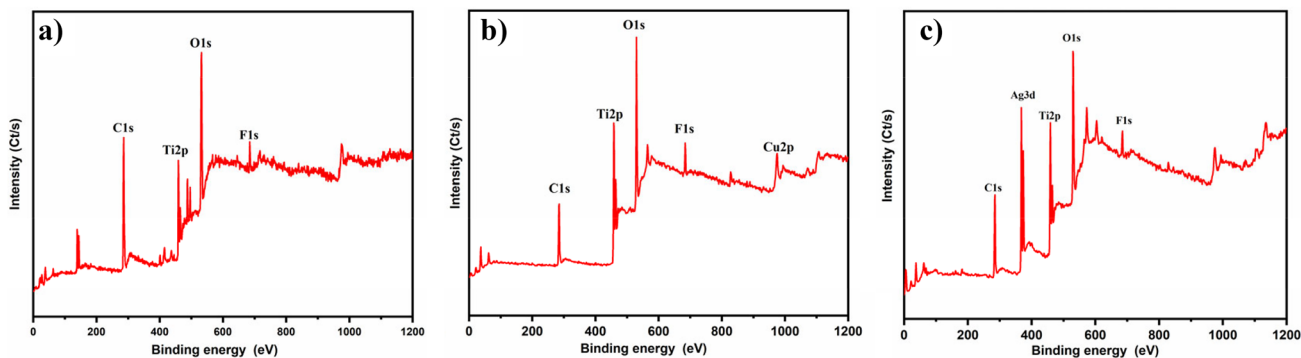
The Mott-Schottky measurements were performed using a conventional three-electrode cell in a 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution [33]. The anodized TiO<sub>2</sub> NT electrode (working area = 1 cm<sup>2</sup>), a saturated calomel electrode (SCE), and a platinum sheet (4 cm<sup>2</sup>) were used as the working, reference, and counter electrodes, respectively. The measurements were performed using a VoltaLab potentiostat (PGZ301) controlled by the VoltaMaster 4 software. The temperature was controlled in jacketed glass at 293 K using a bath

**Table 1** The electrolyte used for the preparation of the samples

Samples	Electrolyte
Pure TiO <sub>2</sub> (TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs)	Glycerol + H <sub>2</sub> O (8%) + NH <sub>4</sub> F (0.4 M)
Cu doped TiO <sub>2</sub> (Cu-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs)	Glycerol + H <sub>2</sub> O (8%) + NH <sub>4</sub> F (0.4 M) + CuSO <sub>4</sub> , 3H <sub>2</sub> O (0.2 M)
Ag doped TiO <sub>2</sub> (Ag-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs)	Glycerol + H <sub>2</sub> O (8%) + NH <sub>4</sub> F (0.4 M) + AgNO <sub>3</sub> (0.2 M)



**Fig. 1** SEM images and EDX spectra of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs **a, d**, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs **b, e**, and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs **c, f**



**Fig. 2** Full XPS spectrum of **a** pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs, **b** Cu doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs, and **c** Ag-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs

thermostat. The analysis was performed at a frequency of 1 kHz in a wide voltage range (from  $-1$  V to 1 V/SCE) [34].

### Photocatalytic study

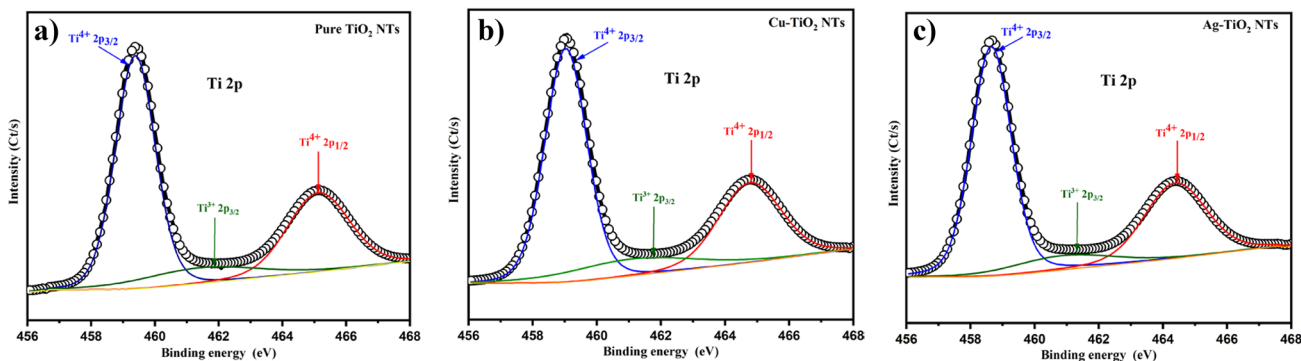
Photocatalytic activities of pure and doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples were evaluated by degradation of the MB dye in an aqueous solution under UV irradiation. The initial concentration of MB was 2.5 mg/L. Before illumination, the  $\text{TiO}_2$  NT photocatalyst was immersed in the reactor containing 50 mL of MB and magnetically stirred for 20 min in the dark to establish an adsorption–desorption equilibrium between the photocatalyst and MB. Then, the solution was irradiated under UV light using an Ultra-Vitalux lamp at 300 W with a high-pressure tungsten filament source for 4 h. The reactor temperature was kept at 25 °C by a water flow. At each 30-min interval, a volume of 3 mL of solution was sampled for analysis, and a UV–vis spectrophotometer measured the absorbance of MB at 664 nm. The reusability test was performed using the same protocol described above by reutilizing the used  $\text{TiO}_2$  NT photocatalyst for the next experiment.

## Results and discussion

### Morphology and composition characterizations

Figure 1 shows a representative SEM image and EDX spectra of the pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs (Fig. 1a, d), Cu- $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs (Fig. 1b, e), and Ag- $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs (Fig. 1c, f). From SEM images, it can be seen that the morphology of the doped TNs is similar to that of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs, indicating that these elements' doping does not influence the morphologies of the  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The highly ordered NT arrays with an inner diameter and wall thickness of about 127 and 52 nm, respectively, were produced on the titanium surface by anodization.

The EDX analysis was performed on the sample to verify the doping process and determine its surface's chemical composition. The EDX analysis indicates qualitatively the presence of the Ti, O, F, and C in all anodized samples. The peaks of copper (at 0.94 kV) and silver (at 2.98 kV) were also detected in the doped NTs, as revealed in Fig. 1e and f, respectively, indicating clearly that the doping has been carried out successfully.



**Fig. 3**  $\text{Ti}2p$  spectra: **a** pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs, **b** Cu-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs, and **c** Ag-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  NTs

**Table 2** Chemical composition of the Ag- and Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film surface

Samples	Position of peaks (eV)					Element (wt%)		Ratio O <sub>L</sub> /O <sub>H</sub>
	Ti <sup>4+</sup> 2p <sub>3/2</sub>	Ti <sup>4+</sup> 2p <sub>1/2</sub>	Ti <sup>3+</sup> 2p <sub>3/2</sub>	O <sub>L</sub>	O <sub>H</sub>	Ti <sup>3+</sup>	O <sub>L</sub>	
TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	459.38	465.11	460.10	530.67	532.41	15.31	26.65	0.36
Ag-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	458.65	464.38	460.87	530.70	532.30	9.31	55.82	1.26
Cu-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs	459.04	464.78	461.07	530.32	531.90	12.38	66.74	1.77

## XPS analysis

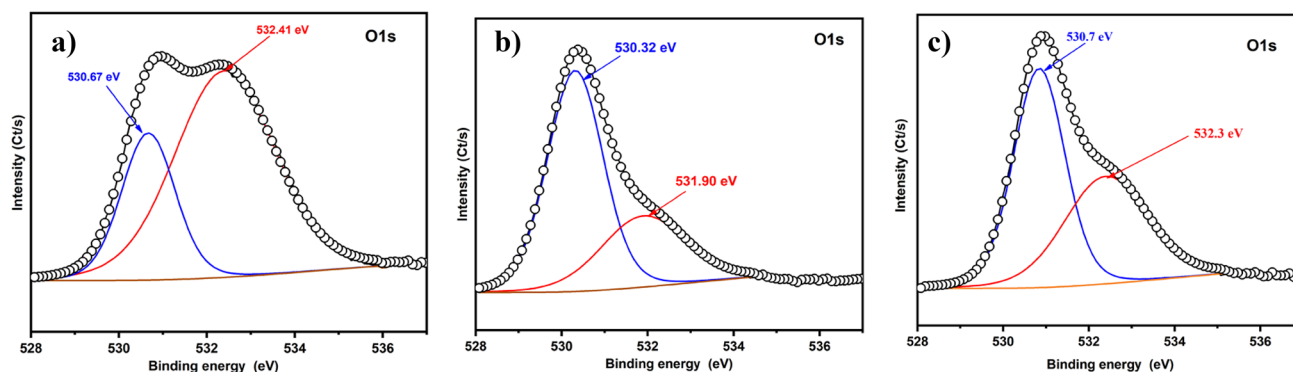
The XPS analysis was performed to determine the composition and chemical bonding states of all samples. Figure 2 shows the survey spectra for pure and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The photoelectron peaks for Ti, O, F, and C were clearly recorded for all three samples. The peaks of copper (Cu2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Cu2p<sub>1/2</sub>) and silver (Ag3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Ag3d<sub>5/2</sub>) were detected in the doped NTs, as shown in Fig. 2b and c, respectively, indicates clearly that Ag and Cu species are successfully incorporated into the oxide lattice during its growth.

Figure 3a shows high-resolution region scan spectra of the Ti2p for pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. This spectrum is fitted with three peaks corresponding to titanium dioxide (Ti<sup>4+</sup>) and titanium suboxide (Ti<sup>3+</sup>) in Ti2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Ti2p<sub>3/2</sub>, respectively. These peaks are fitted as Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub> at 459.38 eV, Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>1/2</sub> at 465.11 eV, and Ti<sup>3+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub> at 460.87 eV. The position and the FWHM (~1.5 eV) of the observed peak at 460.87 eV are consistent with Ti<sup>4+</sup> in the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice [34, 35]. The difference between the energy of Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub> is 5.73 eV, which is consistent with the standard binding energy of TiO<sub>2</sub> [34, 36, 37]. The Ti<sup>3+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub> is attributed to the formation of Ti<sup>3+</sup> and the presence of oxygen deficiency in TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs [22, 38]. After doping with Ag, the high-resolution XPS spectrum (Fig. 3b) shows a slight shift in the position along with a variation in the area of the peaks. The Ti2p spectrum is fitted with three peaks located at binding energies 458.65 eV (Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub>), 464.38 eV (Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>1/2</sub>), and 460.87 eV (Ti<sup>3+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub>), respectively. Figure 3c shows the high-resolution spectrum of

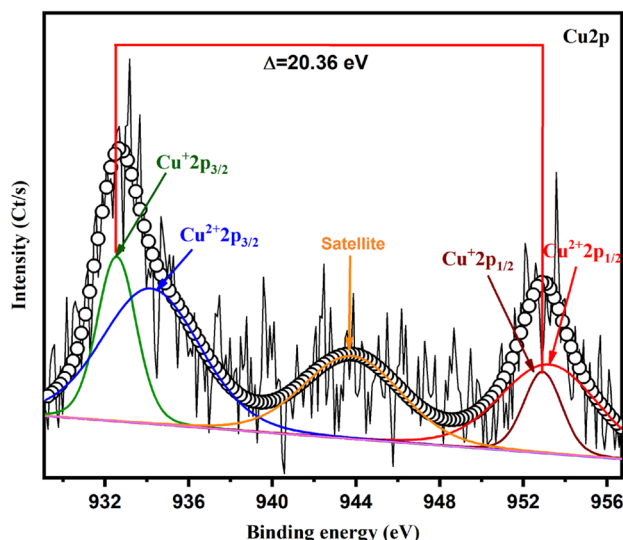
Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. Similar to Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the Ti2p spectrum is fitted with peaks at 459.04 eV (Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub>), 464.78 eV (Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>1/2</sub>), and 459.11 eV (Ti<sup>3+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub>), respectively. The shift of Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p peaks to lower binding energy for doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs is widely discussed in the literature. It has been explained by the formation of Ti<sup>3+</sup> species or substitution of Ti<sup>4+</sup> by Cu<sup>+</sup> and Ag<sup>+</sup> ions in Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT samples, respectively [39–42]. In comparison to the pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, the area of the Ti<sup>3+</sup> peak in Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT samples decreased, and that of the Ti<sup>4+</sup> peak increased (Table 2). The increase in the area of Ti<sup>4+</sup> peak after doping indicates that the doping improves the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub>. These can be explained by the interaction between oxygen vacancies in TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and the doped element.

The oxygen O1s peak of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs (Fig. 4a) is prominent and can be deconvoluted into two subpeaks, centered at 530.67 eV and 532.41 eV. The first peak is attributed to the oxygen engaged in a Ti–O bond in TiO<sub>2</sub> or Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> lattice (O<sub>L</sub>), while the second one is related to the H–O bond or the adsorbed oxygen type O<sub>2</sub> on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> (O<sub>H</sub>) [34, 43–45]. Similarly, for the doped sample, the O1s spectrum of Cu and Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs fitted with two peaks is shown in Fig. 4b and c, respectively. However, in this case, the first peak air is higher than that of the second one. The increase in the area of the original peak at 530.67 eV after doping indicates that the doping may improve the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub>.

Figure 5 shows the high-resolution XPS spectrum of Cu2p in Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. In this spectrum, the doublet Cu2p<sub>3/2</sub>



**Fig. 4** Typical O1s spectra: **a** pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, **b** Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and **c** Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs



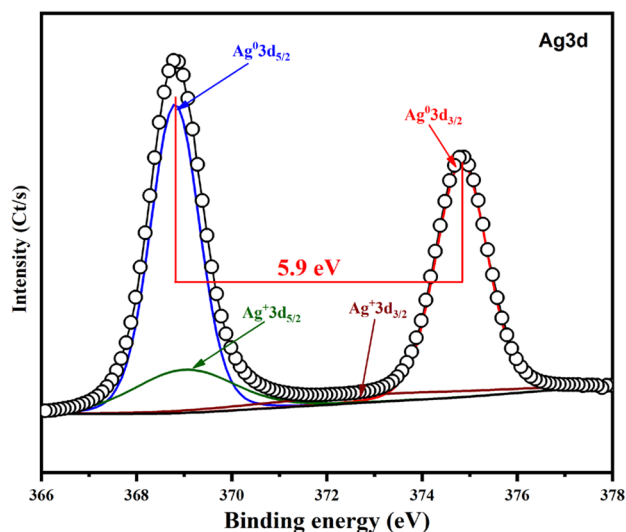
**Fig. 5** High-resolution XPS spectra of Cu2p region for Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs

at 932.56 eV and Cu2p<sub>1/2</sub> at 952.92 eV arises from spin orbit-splitting. These peaks are related to Cu<sup>+</sup> [46, 47]. Also, the shoulders Cu2p<sub>3/2</sub> at binding energy 934.20 eV and Cu2p<sub>1/2</sub> at 953.23 eV are corresponding to Cu<sup>2+</sup> [39, 46, 48]. The satellite peaks are also located at 943.93 eV [49]. This observation revealed that the doped Cu in the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice is in a mixture of Cu<sup>+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup> oxidation states. The Cu2p<sub>3/2</sub> peak transition is lower than the values reported in the literature (933.6 eV) [50]. The shift of binding energies of Cu2p<sub>3/2</sub> peaks to the lower energy indicates the substitutional incorporation of Cu ions in the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice rather than the formation of Cu<sub>2</sub>O or/and CuO at the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> [51–54].

For the Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT sample, the XPS diagram of high resolution for Ag3d (Fig. 6) has two peaks at 368.8 eV and 374.7 eV, belonging to the Ag<sup>0</sup>3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Ag<sup>0</sup>3d<sub>3/2</sub> orbits [55], respectively. The splitting of Ag3d doublet at about 5.9 eV confirms that the Ag element is present as metallic silver (Ag<sup>0</sup>) in the Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT sample [56, 57], while the weak peaks at 367.7 and 373.7 eV are attributed to Ag<sup>+</sup>3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Ag<sup>+</sup>3d<sub>3/2</sub> of silver ions (Ag<sup>+</sup>). These results further prove that Ag<sup>0</sup> and Ag<sup>+</sup> exist simultaneously on the surface of the Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT sample [58, 59]. The oxygen deficiency can explain the formation of Ag<sup>0</sup> at the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> [24, 60].

### X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern

Determination of crystal structure, phase composition, and crystallite size of the synthesized pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs is carried out using XRD, and the results are shown in Fig. 7. The X-ray diffraction spectra of all the samples showed well-defined peaks, which could be indexed to the anatase, rutile phases

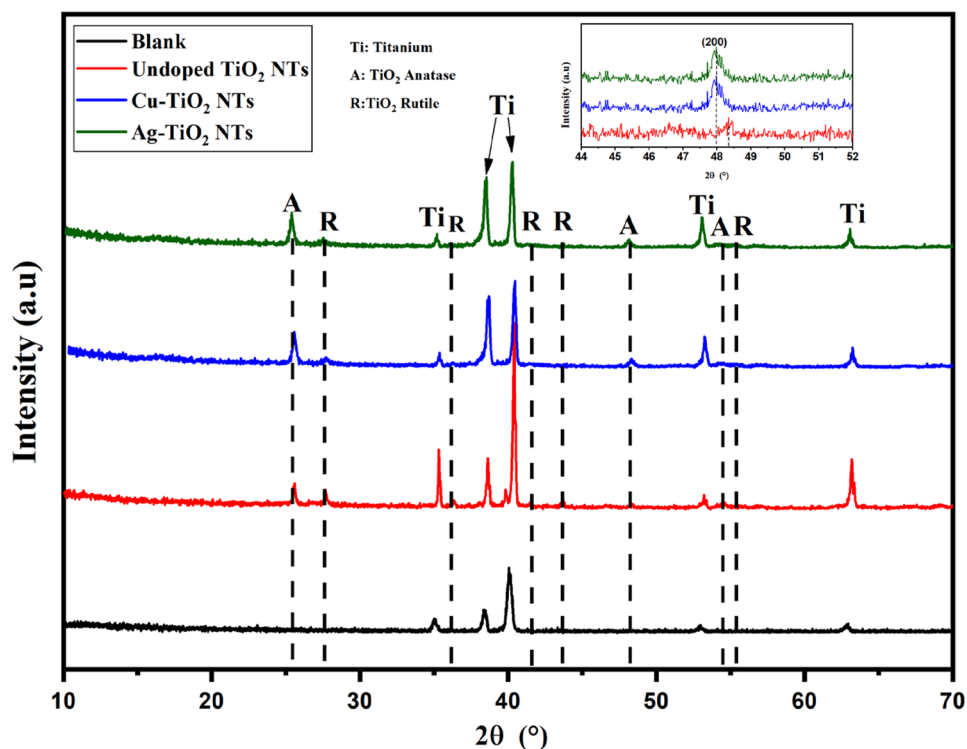


**Fig. 6** High-resolution XPS spectra of Ag3d region for Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs

of TiO<sub>2</sub>, and titanium according to JCPDS file numbers 21–1272, 21–1276, and 44–1296, respectively. The peaks in pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs are attributed to the reflection from (101), (200), and (105) planes of the anatase. In addition, the rutile phase is revealed by the apparition of peaks at 27.4°, 36.07°, 41°, 43.6°, and 56.9° corresponding to planes (110) (101), (111), (210), and (220), respectively. However, the Cu and Ag peaks are not visible in the XRD spectra of the doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. This is probably due to their low amount or their high dispersion in the samples with small dimensions below the detection limits of XRD. Xu et al. [61]. reported that the diffraction peaks of copper species disappeared when the copper component was highly dispersed in TiO<sub>2</sub>. Compared to pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the anatase diffraction peak (200) shifts slightly to lower 2θ values in the Ag- and Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs (inset in Fig. 7). In addition, the intensity of doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NT peaks is higher than that of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, which indicates that the doping enhances the crystallinity and improves the structural quality of TiO<sub>2</sub> (according to XPS results). On the other hand, the peak intensity of (100) anatase plan in doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs is higher than pure TiO<sub>2</sub> samples, while the peak intensity of rutile decreases.

It is well known that the grain size and phase composition of TiO<sub>2</sub> are the most significant for a TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst [32, 62–64]. From XRD data, the grain size was calculated using the Scherrer equation [65]. The crystallite sizes of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs ranged from 29.7 to 35.5 nm (pure TiO<sub>2</sub>: 35.5 nm; Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs: 29.71 nm, and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs: 29.71 nm). In addition, the relative anatase/rutile ratio was estimated at 56.25%/43.75%, 83%/17%, and 83%/17% in pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, respectively. These results

**Fig. 7** XRD spectra of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs



indicate that Ag and Cu inhibit the anatase–rutile phase transformation and stabilize the anatase phase significantly compared to the rutile phase [66].

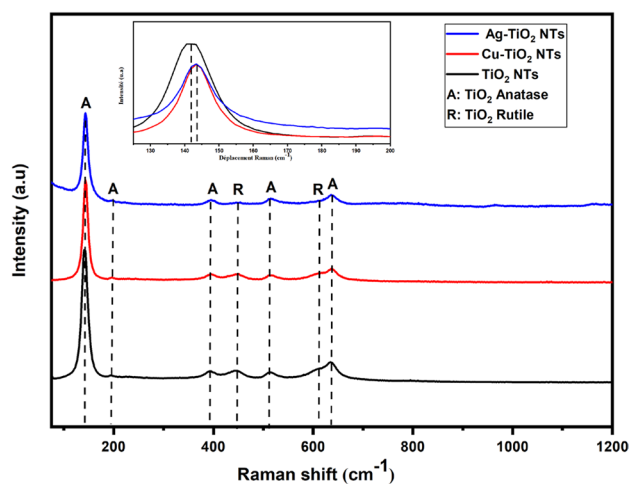
### Raman spectroscopy

The Raman spectra obtained for pure and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs are presented in Fig. 8. For all samples, the Raman spectra show six Raman-active modes ( $E_g$ ,  $E_g$ ,  $B_{1g}$ ,  $B_{1g} + A_{1g}$ , and  $E_g$ ), which indicates that the samples consist of a mixture of anatase and rutile phases [31, 35, 67]. The characteristic Raman peaks at around 144.56, 197.8, 396.1, 516, and 638 cm<sup>-1</sup> are indexed to  $E_g$  (1),  $E_g$  (2),  $B_{1g}$ ,  $A_{1g}$ , and  $E_g$  (3) of anatase, respectively [31, 68]. Furthermore, the characteristic peaks of the rutile phase are observed at around 452 and 615 cm<sup>-1</sup> [69]. The anatase band  $E_g$  (1) is shifted, from 143 cm<sup>-1</sup> (for pure TiO<sub>2</sub>) to 143.7 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the doped samples (inset in Fig. 8). The shift of the anatase band ( $E_g$  (1)) has been reported in previous studies and attributed to the formation of Ti<sup>3+</sup>, change of crystal size, and oxygen deficiencies in TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice [35, 70–74]. These results are consistent with those of XPS and XRD results.

### FTIR analysis

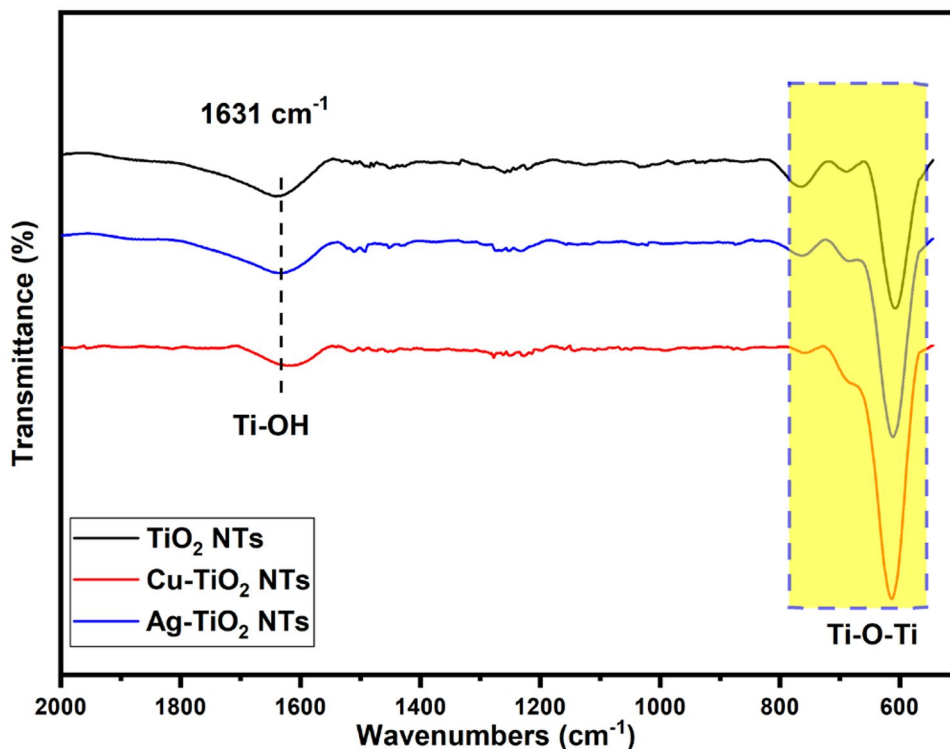
The FT-IR spectra of pure and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs calcined for 2 h at 600 °C are presented in Fig. 9. Compared with pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, there are no differences in the FT-IR spectra of doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The figure shows the presence of some

bands between 560 and 800 cm<sup>-1</sup> which are attributed to different vibrational modes of anatase and rutile phases of TiO<sub>2</sub> [19, 75]. Especially, the intense band observed below at 620 cm<sup>-1</sup> is due to Ti–O vibrations [19, 76, 77]. The band at around 1631 cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to the stretching vibrations of the O–H groups at the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface. On the other hand, a slight shift in the position and the change in the intensity of bands are observed. These shift may be due to the presence of the dopants in the interstitials of the lattices of the



**Fig. 8** Raman spectra of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs

**Fig. 9** FT-IR spectra of pure and doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs



doped samples [78]. These results are in agreement with those obtained by XRD and Raman analysis.

### Mott-Schottky (MS) analysis

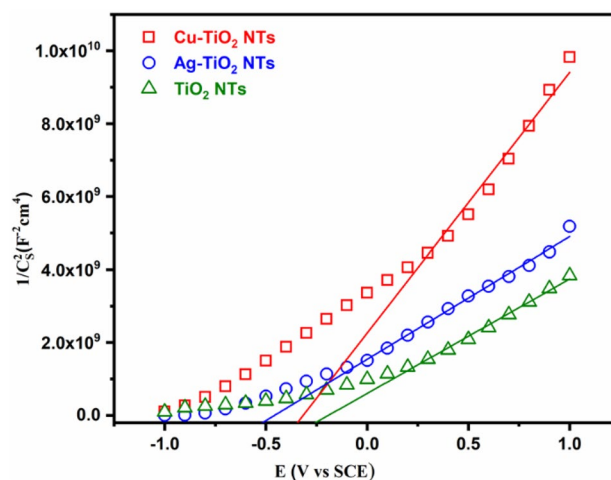
Determination of the semiconductor nature, the flat band positions ( $E_{\text{FB}}$ ), and the carrier density ( $N_{\text{D}}$ ) provide the first test that the material may be an effective photocatalyst. The most often used method for determining all these proprieties is based on measuring the potential dependence of the space charge region capacity ( $C_{\text{sc}}$ ). Figure 10 shows the variation of  $C_{\text{sc}}$  for all samples as a function of the applied voltage in Mott-Schottky representation. The slope of all lines is positive, indicating that all investigated samples are an n-type semiconductor. Using the slope and intercept of the linear region, the  $N_{\text{D}}$  and  $E_{\text{FB}}$  were calculated according to the following Mott-Schottky relation [34, 79, 80].

$$\frac{1}{C_{\text{S}}^2} = \frac{2}{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_{\text{S}} e N_{\text{D}}} \left( E - E_{\text{FB}} - \frac{kT}{e} \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $C_{\text{S}}$  is the space charge layer capacitance,  $e$  is the electron charge ( $1.60 \cdot 10^{-19}$  C),  $\epsilon_0$  is the permittivity of free space ( $8.85 \cdot 10^{-14}$  F cm<sup>-1</sup>),  $\epsilon_{\text{S}}$  is the dielectric constant of TiO<sub>2</sub>, which is assumed to be 100 F cm<sup>-1</sup> [81],  $E$  is the applied

potential,  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant ( $1.38 \cdot 10^{-23}$  J K<sup>-1</sup>), and  $T$  is the absolute temperature.

The potential of the flat band ( $E_{\text{FB}}$ ) shifts from  $-0.19$  V/SCE for pure TiO<sub>2</sub>NTs to  $-0.31$  and  $-0.46$  V/SCE for Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, respectively. On the other hand, the donor concentration  $N_{\text{D}}$  of about  $4.50 \cdot 10^{17}$ ,  $1.97 \cdot 10^{17}$ , and  $4.20 \cdot 10^{17}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, respectively.



**Fig. 10** MS plots of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs



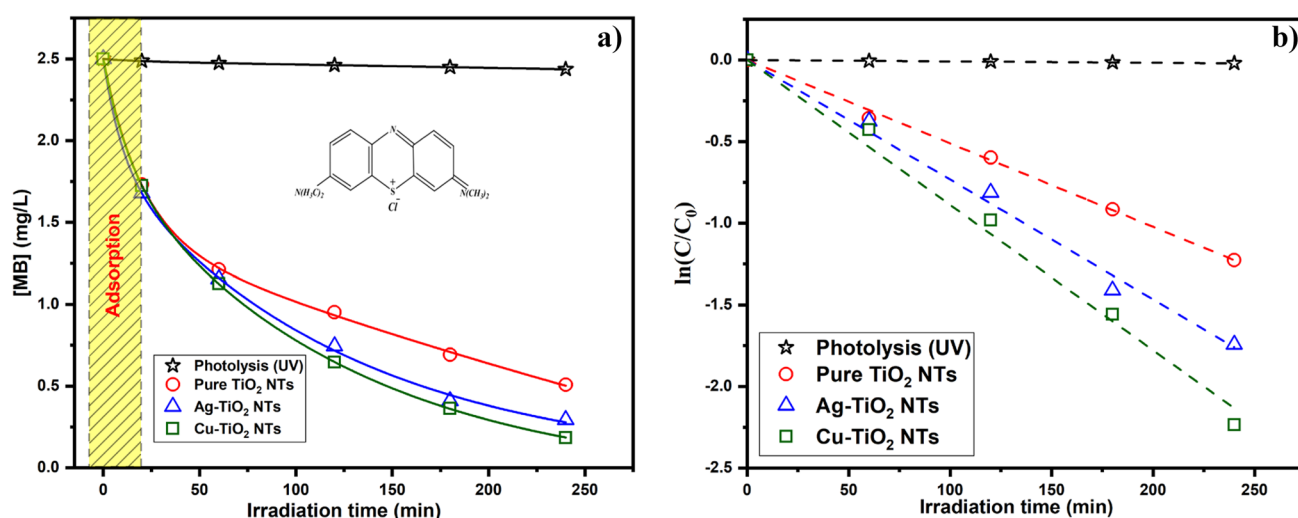


Fig. 11 Degradation of MB by photocatalysis on the pure TiO<sub>2</sub>NTs, Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT surface, [MB] = 2.5 mg/L, Xe lamp 300 W

### Photocatalytic activity

The photocatalytic capacity of all samples was evaluated by the photodegradation of MB under UV irradiation. Figure 11a shows the evolution of the methylene blue concentration ([MB]) versus the irradiation time in the presence of a different catalyst. Under UV irradiation and in the absence of TiO<sub>2</sub> (photolysis), the concentration of MB is kept constant, suggesting that the MB is stable under UV irradiation. However, in the simultaneous presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> and UV, the MB concentration decreases with the irradiation time, demonstrating it is degradation.

The experimental data of Fig. 11a were found to fit approximately a pseudo-first-order kinetic model by the linear transforms  $\ln(C/C_0) = f(t) = kt$  [82, 83], as shown in Fig. 11b. The values of the rate constant ( $k$ ), regression coefficient, and degradation efficiency (%) are listed in Table 3. The higher  $R^2$  reveals that the decomposition kinetics essentially follows first-order kinetics. The results demonstrated that the Cu- and Ag-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays exhibited a higher photocatalytic activity than the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> sample. From Table 3, only ~2.5% of MB is degraded by the photolysis process, about 79.6%, 88.23%, and 92.61% after 4 h of irradiation using pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>

Table 3 Photodegradation kinetics data of MB by TiO<sub>2</sub>

Samples	$k$ (min <sup>-1</sup> )	$R^2$	Degradation efficiency (%)
Photolysis	0.0001	0.98	2.5
Pure TiO <sub>2</sub> (TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs)	0.0051	0.99	79.69
Ag doped TiO <sub>2</sub> (Ag-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs)	0.0073	0.99	88.23
Cu doped TiO <sub>2</sub> (Cu-TiO <sub>2</sub> NTs)	0.0089	0.99	92.61

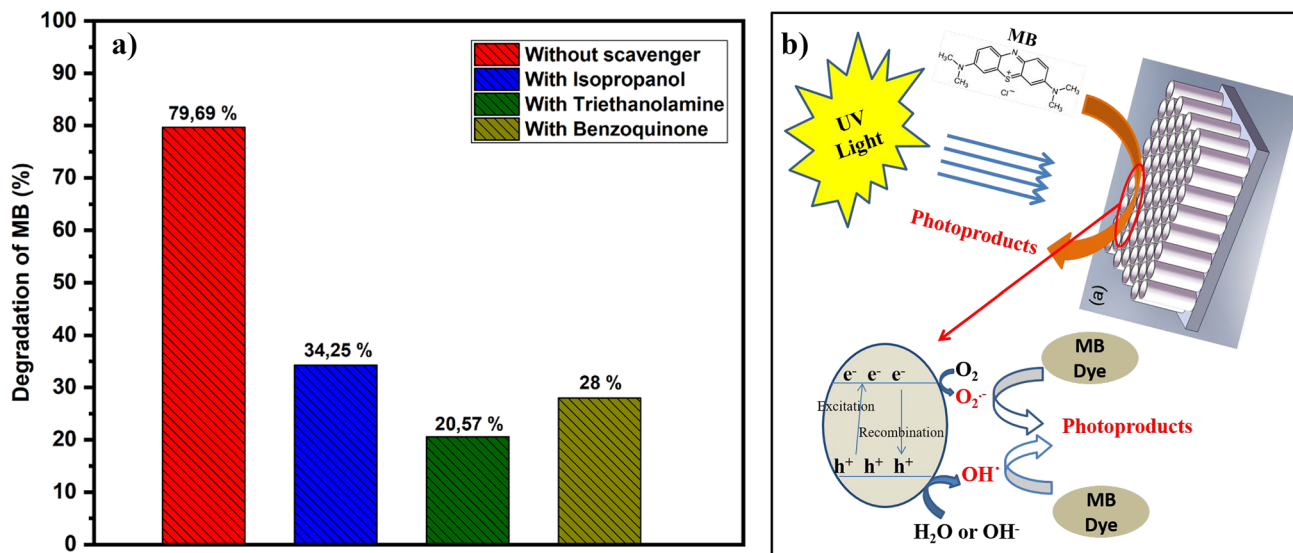
NTs, respectively. The higher efficiency of doped TiO<sub>2</sub> can be explained by the enhancement of charge separation of photogenerated electrons and holes on TiO<sub>2</sub> by doping.

A recent study showed that the inclusion of doped elements increased the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> under UV irradiation. For comparison, a summary list of very recent studies on photodegradation of MB by different based TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst is listed in Table 4. The degradation percentages obtained by doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs prepared in our conditions are very near to those reported in the literature for TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

Previous studies demonstrate that the photocatalytic reaction pathway is believed to involve the reaction of MB with the generated OH<sup>•</sup> radicals producing a range of intermediate products to reach complete mineralization with the formation of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O [82, 87–90]. To study the main active components in the degradation process of MB on the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface and to understand the degradation mechanism in more detail, trapping experiments were carried out. Isopropanol [91], triethanolamine [92], and benzoquinone [93, 94] are used as scavengers to capture hydroxyl radicals (OH<sup>•</sup>), photogenerated holes (h<sup>+</sup>), and superoxide anion radical (O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup>), respectively.

Table 4 Photocatalytic activity of recently studied TiO<sub>2</sub>-based photocatalysts for MB degradation under UV irradiation

Photocatalyst	Irradiation time (min)	Degradation efficiency (%)	Ref
Ag-doped TiO <sub>2</sub>	360	94	[84]
Cu-doped TiO <sub>2</sub>	300	93	[23]
Hg-doped TiO <sub>2</sub>	120	56.72	[85]
Au-doped TiO <sub>2</sub>	200	50	[24]
Zn-doped TiO <sub>2</sub>	300	99	[23]
V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> -doped TiO <sub>2</sub>	120	92	[86]



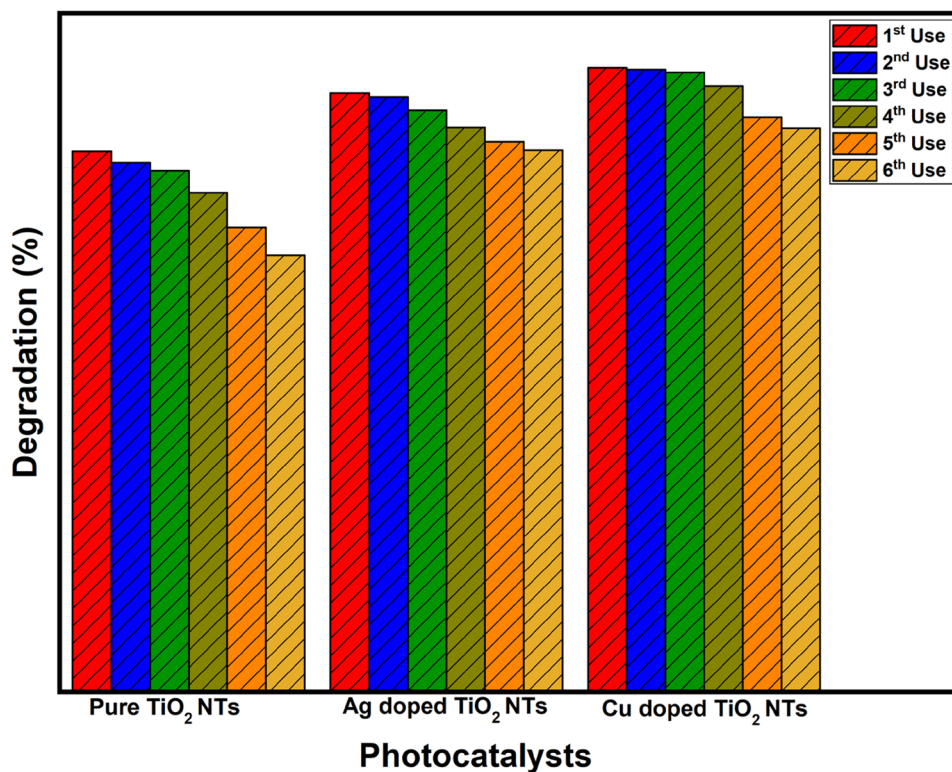
**Fig. 12** Effects of radical scavenger addition on the photodegradation of MB **a** and schematic diagram of the photocatalytic mechanism of TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst **b**

To demonstrate the involvement of these radicals, a mixture of MB and isopropanol (2% v/v) or triethanolamine (2% v/v) or benzoquinone (2% v/v) was irradiated under the same conditions. The results obtained are shown in Fig. 12. As can be observed in Fig. 12a, the addition of a radical scavenger inhibits the degradation of MB. These results indicate that holes are the primary active species in the degradation of MB, while

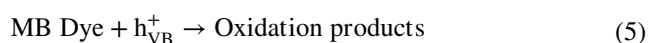
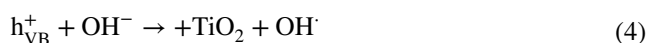
OH<sup>•</sup> and O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> radicals are likely of secondary importance in photodegradation.

Based on the above results and literature reports [95, 96], the possible photocatalytic mechanism of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NT photocatalyst was plotted as shown in Fig. 12b. The photodegradation process depends on the generation and separation of carriers; under light conditions, once the semiconductor absorbing

**Fig. 13** Photocatalytic reusability efficiency of all photocatalysts up to six uses



energy is higher than the energy of its energy band, electrons will be excited from the valence band to the conduction band. At the same time, holes remain on the former (Eq. 2). According to the following equations, the formed holes reacted directly with MB molecules, H<sub>2</sub>O, or OH<sup>-</sup> adsorbed in the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface to form the active species (OH<sup>•</sup>) [6, 97–103].



### Reusability efficiency

In addition to the photocatalytic efficiency of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs, the stability and the reusability of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NT photocatalyst are significant parameters to assess its practical application in wastewater treatment. Therefore, we carried out studies on the reutilization of the photocatalysts. After every use, the photocatalyst was washed with distilled water and ethanol and then dried for 30 min at 60 °C. The same procedure was repeated six times with the already used photocatalyst. The results obtained are represented in Fig. 13. The activity of all photocatalysts showed a gradual decrease. The degradation efficiencies of 64.35, 79.83, and 83.07% were achieved for pure TiO<sub>2</sub> NT, Ag-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT, and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> NT photocatalysts, respectively, after 6 reutilizations. These results indicate that the photocatalysts are globally stables and efficient for water treatment. This decrease in photocatalytic activity can be explained by poisoning of the active surface of the photocatalyst or the occupation of active sites by intermediates that adsorbed strongly on the surface of the photocatalyst [104, 105].

### Conclusion

A facile and novel one-step anodization process fabricated photocatalytic materials based on copper- and silver-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The obtained NTs have a diameter and wall thickness of 128 and 56 nm, respectively. The Cu-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NT composites have excellent photocatalytic performance. Copper doping improved the photocatalytic performance of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. These NTs are exciting candidates for photocatalytic reactions, such as MB oxidation. The new anodization process developed in this study is a simple and efficient method that can be easily scaled up, thereby pioneering the fabrication of high-performance metal-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> NT photocatalysts with promising environmental applications.

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