ORIGINAL PAPER

Recycling Molybdenum Oxides from Waste Molybdenum Disilicides: Oxidation Experimental Study and Photocatalytic Properties

 $\mathsf{G}\textup{e}\,\mathsf{K}\mathsf{ong}^1\cdot\mathsf{X}$ iaoping Cai $^1\cdot\mathsf{Pe}$ izhong Feng $^1\mathsf{O}\cdot\mathsf{X}$ iaohong Wang $^1\cdot\mathsf{O}$ **Farid Akhtar²**

Received: 29 December 2018 / Revised: 3 April 2019 / Published online: 16 April 2019 © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2019

Abstract

To recycle elemental molybdenum from waste molybdenum disilicide $(MoSi₂)$ heating elements, the MoSi₂ was first disintegrated to MoO₃ and SiO₂ powders in air at a pest oxidation temperature of 500 °C. X-ray difraction (XRD) patterns confrmed the completion of the pest oxidation reaction. The mixture of $MoO₃$ and $SiO₂$ powders were heated to 950 °C in a tube furnace to evaporate $MoO₃$, and the XRD patterns of the residue showed that only $SiO₂$ was left in the crucible, confirming that the MoO₃ was removed through thermal evaporation. The collected MoO₃ crystals had a striped morphology. Photocatalytic performance of $MoO₃$ showed superior activity in comparison with commercial $MoO₃$ and P25 for the degradation of methylene blue under visible light irradiation. The photocatalytic degradation activity of MoO₃ synthesized by thermal evaporation at 950 °C was 99.25% in 60 min.

Keywords Oxidation · Waste $MoSi₂ \cdot Recycling $MOO₃ \cdot$ Thermal evaporation$ Photocatalytic properties

Introduction

Molybdenum disilicide $(MoSi₂)$ is an intermetallic compound widely used in oxidizing environments at high temperature [\[1](#page-10-0)]. The most important commercial application of M_0Si_2 is its use as heating elements in industrial furnaces. M_0Si_2 heating elements can be used in air and protective gas atmospheres to heat furnaces to high temperatures [[2,](#page-10-1) [3\]](#page-10-2). Typically, the lifetime of the heating elements is 3–6 years,

 \boxtimes Peizhong Feng fengroad@163.com

¹ School of Materials Science and Engineering, China University of Mining and Technology, Xuzhou 221116, China

² Division of Materials Science, Luleå University of Technology, Luleå 97187, Sweden

depending on the furnace heating practices. With the rapid development of hightemperature process, $MoSi₂$ heating elements have been introduced into the glass industry, heat treatment, forging, ceramics and research and development industries $[4, 5]$ $[4, 5]$ $[4, 5]$. Although MoSi₂ heating elements exhibit excellent life, the replacement is required due to (1) the increase in resistance over the time of use because of thickening of the surface silicon oxide, (2) the damage of oxide layer as a result of longtime erosion, volatilization and formation of micro-cracks in thermal cycling, or exposure to reducing atmospheres $[6]$ $[6]$. A large amount of waste MoSi₂ has become available; however, to the best of our knowledge, the disposal of the waste $MoSi₂$ and/or its recycling has been reported rarely in the literature.

MoSi₂ is regarded as high-temperature structural material and generally used as heating elements. Nevertheless, $MoSi₂$ undergoes accelerated oxidation at 400–600 \degree C and is disintegrated into powder. The phenomenon is termed as pest oxidation, which was frst reported by Fitzer in 1955 [[7–](#page-10-6)[9\]](#page-10-7). In the past few decades, many researchers have studied the low-temperature oxidation behavior of $MoSi₂$ and M_0Si_2 -based composites [[10–](#page-10-8)[17\]](#page-10-9). Yanagihara et al. [\[18](#page-10-10)] found that M_0Si_2 underwent severe oxidation corrosion and was decomposed into Mo_{3} and SiO_{2} rapidly at 500 °C. Moreover, Chou et al. [[19\]](#page-10-11) reported that the pest oxidation products consisted of $SiO₂$ clusters and $MoO₃$ whiskers. Westbrook et al. [\[20](#page-11-0)] elucidated the mechanism of pest oxidation, and they reported that the preferential intergranular difusion of oxygen contributed to the embrittlement of grain boundary. However, in this work, the pest oxidation was applied for the chemical separation of Mo and Si elements from the waste $MoSi₂$ in forms of $MoO₃$ and $SiO₂$, respectively.

Molybdenum trioxide (M_0O_3) is a well-known n-type wide band gap (2.39–2.90 eV) semiconductor, which has found attractive prospects in photocatalysis [[21–](#page-11-1)[23\]](#page-11-2). Chithambararaj et al. [\[24](#page-11-3)] synthesized hexagonal molybdenum oxide $(h-MoO₃)$ nanocrystals with a flower-like hierarchical structure and studied the photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB) under irradiation of visible or UV light. Kumar et al. [[25\]](#page-11-4) synthesized thermodynamically stable α -MoO₃ nanoplates which exhibited strong photocatalytic degradation of MB and Rh-B up to 99% in the presence of sun light without using any oxidizing agents. A number of techniques have been reported for the deposition of $MoO₃$ including pulse laser deposition [\[26](#page-11-5)], thermal evaporation [\[27](#page-11-6)], sputtering [\[28](#page-11-7)], sol–gel [[29\]](#page-11-8), spray pyrolysis [[21\]](#page-11-1), chemical vapor deposition [\[30](#page-11-9), [31\]](#page-11-10) and electrodeposition [\[32](#page-11-11)]. Zhou et al. [\[27](#page-11-6)] prepared orthorhombic $MoO₃$ nanowires by thermal evaporation and oxidation without using any catalyst, and they found the stability of the emission current over time was within 10%, which indicated that $MoO₃$ nanowires could be used as a cold cathode. Rahmani et al. [\[22](#page-11-12)] investigated the structural and gas sensing properties of $MoO₃$ thin films which were prepared by thermal evaporation of $MoO₃$ on the gold interdigital fngers on quartz substrates. Thermal evaporation is an advantageous method for producing highly crystalline and stratifed structures [[22\]](#page-11-12) so that it was used to separate $MoO₃$ from SiO₂.

In the present work, a simple and low-cost method, pest oxidation followed by thermal evaporation, for recycling of $MoO₃$ from waste $MoSi₂$ was investigated. The $MoO₃$ was recovered effectively to realize the recycling of Mo from wasted MoSi₂ heating elements. The process is efective for resource, environment and economy, and the photocatalytic performance of $MoO₃$ for degradation of organic dyes in the water would be discussed.

Experimental Procedures

Preparation of MoO₃

Figure [1](#page-2-0) shows the illustration of recycling of $MoO₃$. The waste $MoSi₂$ heating element was broken in the jaw crusher and ground into powder in the roller ball mill for 24 h with a mean particle size of about 1.4 μ m. The waste MoSi₂ powder was weighed (m_0) before calcination, then calcined in tube furnace with a heating rate of 10 °C/min and held for 180 min in air at 450–550 °C. After calcination, the oxidized powders were cooled down to room temperature naturally and weighed as m_T (*T*=450 °C, 475 °C, 500 °C, 525 °C and 550 °C), and the mass gain (M) of powder was calculated using Eq. (1) (1) :

$$
M = (m_T - m_0)/m_0 \times 100\% \tag{1}
$$

Besides, the efect of holding time was explored under the similar conditions with oxidation of 500 $^{\circ}$ C for 30–210 min, the weight of powder after calcination was weighed as *mt* (*t*=30 min, 60 min, 90 min, 120 min, 150 min, 180 min and 210 min) and the mass gain (*M*) of powder was calculated by Eq. [\(2](#page-2-2)):

$$
M = (m_t - m_0) / m_0 \times 100\% \tag{2}
$$

The oxidation reaction of $MoSi₂$ powder calcined in the air is indicated by Eq. [\(3](#page-2-3)) [\[19,](#page-10-11) [20](#page-11-0)]:

$$
2MoSi2 + 7O2 = 2MoO3 + 4SiO2
$$
 (3)

Fig. 1 Illustration of recycling and resuing of $MoO₃$ from waste $MoSi₂$ heating element

Equation ([3\)](#page-2-3) shows that the oxidation results in formation of $MoO₃$ and $SiO₂$.

After calcination process, the oxidized powders were put in the crucible which was placed in the tube furnace, and the powder was heated to diferent temperatures (700–950 °C) at a heating rate of 8 °C/min and held for 2 h before furnace cooling. The $MoO₃$ was evaporated from the mixture of $MoO₃$ and $SiO₂$, transported with flowing argon in tube furnace and collected at the glass substrate placed where the temperature gradient was high, which was marked with red circle dash lines in Fig. [1.](#page-2-0) To figure out the effect of temperature on the amount of $MoO₃$ evaporated, the powder was weighed and the mass loss of powder was calculated after thermal evaporation cycle.

The quantitative elemental analysis of waste MoSi₂, recycled products and residue after thermal evaporation was performed using X-ray fuorite spectroscopy (XRF, S8 TIGER). The phase composition of recycled $MoO₃$ was determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) on a Bruker D8 Advance machine with Cu target. The microstructures were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, SU8220).

Photocatalytic Performance of MoO₃

Photocatalytic experiments were carried out to degrade methylene blue (MB) in a photocatalyst aqueous suspension system, which was exposed to visible light. The initial concentration of MB was 20 mg/L. The solution containing photocatalysts was stirred in the dark for 30 min to establish a relative adsorption–desorption equilibrium between photocatalyst powders and MB solution. The photocatalytic degradation was conducted in a 50-ml glass vessel, and a 150 W halogen tungsten lamp was located 20 cm above the surface of the liquid. During irradiation, 6 ml mixture solution was withdrawn at every 10-min intervals and then centrifuged to separate photocatalysts from the mixture solution. The photocatalytic performance experiments of commercial $MoO₃$ (10 µm, 99.9%, purity), nano-TiO₂ (P25) were conducted under the same conditions as a comparison.

Results and Discussion

Characterization of Waste MoSi2

The chemical composition of the waste $MOSi₂$ powder determined by XRF in Table [1](#page-3-0) shows that Mo and Si are the main components; O, W, and Al are present as major impurities. Feng et al. [[1](#page-10-0)] reported that Mo, W and Si powders were mixed at a molar ratio of 1:2 $[(Mo+W):Si]$ and 2.5 at.% and 5.5 at.% of Al were introduced into Mo–W–Si powders to improve the hardness, fexural strength and fracture toughness

Element	Mo	S ₁	\cup	W	Al	Rh.	Se	Fe	Mg		
$wt\%$	45.78	28.05	13.00 8.17 2.16 0.53				0.36	0.17	0.12		

Table 1 Composition of waste MoSi₂ from XRF (wt%)

of MoSi₂. The commercial Kanthal Super 1900 silicide contains tungsten, and Kanthal Super ER silicide comprises aluminum [\[33](#page-11-13)]. The addition of aluminum formed a thicker alumina scale at higher temperatures on Kanthal Super ER to protect the heating elements from corrosive reactions. Furthermore, during the shaping, silicide powders were mixed with clay binder to prepare $MOSi₂$ -base heating elements [\[33\]](#page-11-13). Thus, the presence of impurities, O, W, Al, largely depends on the processing of $MoSi₂$ heating elements.

Efects of Oxidation Temperature and Holding Time

The effect of calcination temperature on the mass gain of waste $MoSi₂$ powder in Fig. [2](#page-4-0) shows that $MoSi₂$ oxidizes rapidly at 450–550 °C [\[10](#page-10-8), [11\]](#page-10-12). The mass gain of powder reaches the maximum of 63.8% at 500 °C, which means that the MoSi₂ powder has undergone the most serious pest oxidation [\[11](#page-10-12)]. Above 500 $^{\circ}$ C, the mass gain decreases, which can be related to the formation of protective glass scale on the surface of material hindering the pest oxidation [\[6](#page-10-5), [8](#page-10-13)[–11](#page-10-12)].

Figure [3](#page-5-0) presents the XRD patterns of waste MoSi₂ powder calcined at 450 °C, 475 °C, 500 °C, 525 °C and 550 °C for 3 h. MoO₃ was identified as the major crystalline phase; besides, unreacted M_0Si_2 peaks were detected after calcination. As such, the waste $MoSi₂$ heating element powders can be used as a source of MO_{3} for recycling. Just as the efect of calcination temperature on mass gain is exhibited in Fig. [2](#page-4-0), MoSi₂ powder is suffered from the most accelerated oxidation at 500 $^{\circ}$ C which corresponded to the maximum mass gain. It is evident from Figs. [2](#page-4-0) and [3](#page-5-0) that the calcination temperature of 500 $^{\circ}$ C is sufficiently high to transform MoSi₂ to $MoO₃$ as proposed by Eq. ([3\)](#page-2-3) by pest oxidation process.

Figure [4](#page-5-1) shows the effect of holding time on the mass gain of waste $MoSi₂$ powder calcined at 500 $^{\circ}$ C. When the holding time is between 30 and 90 min, the mass gain of calcined powder increases quickly, reaching 62.1% from 50.6%;

Fig. 2 Effect of calcined temperature on mass gain of waste $MoSi₂$ powder

Fig. 3 XRD patterns of oxidation products of waste $MoSi₂$

Fig. 4 Effect of holding time on mass gain of waste $MoSi₂$

with the prolonged holding time, it increases to 63.7% when holding for 210 min, which indicates that the extended holding time promotes the transformation of $MoSi₂$ into $MoO₃$ and $SiO₂$. After calcination for 180 min, the oxidation reaction of $MoSi₂$ was completed and mass gain does not change with the increase in holding time.

Figure [5](#page-6-0) shows SEM micrograph of waste $MOSi₂$ powder and the oxidized products calcined at 500 °C for 30 min, 120 min and 180 min. The waste $MoSi₂$ powder consists of particles of 1–4 µm (Fig. [5a](#page-6-0)). It can be seen that when calcined at 500 °C for 30 min, the oxidized mixture is composed of needle-shaped $MoO₃$ with 20 μ m length and disintegrative SiO₂ particle clusters. With the holding time

Fig. 5 SEM photographs of **a** waste MoSi₂ powder and calcined at 500 °C for **b** 30 min, **c** 120 min and **d** 180 min

prolonged, the number of $MoO₃$ rods significantly increases and some rods stack together to form $MoO₃$ aggregates when calcined for 180 min, as can be seen in Fig. [5](#page-6-0)d.

Efect of Sublimation Temperature

Table [2](#page-6-1) exhibits the relationship between vapor pressure of $MoO₃$ and temperature [\[34\]](#page-11-14). The vapor pressure increases as temperature rises, which climbs rapidly from 0.008 to 0.2333 kPa and 1.3467 kPa, respectively at 720 °C, 750 °C and 800 °C. This suggests that the temperature higher than 750 \degree C can volatilize MoO₃ by evaporation from the $MoO₃-SiO₂$ powder mixture.

Figure [6](#page-7-0) presents the effect of holding temperature on the evaporated mass of $MoO₃$, which increases from 31.7 to 50.2% with the temperature range from 700 to 900 °C, respectively. As temperature increases to 900 °C, the evaporated mass increases. After 900 °C, the evaporated mass is stable and hits its maximum at 50.4% at 950 °C. Inset

$T({}^{\circ}C)$ 600 625										
			650	720	750	-800		850 900 950	1000	
		P (kPa) 0 0.0024 0.0067 0.008 0.2333 1.347 3.12 9.526 17.547 26.506								

Table 2 Relationship between vapor pressure of $MoO₃$ and temperature $[34]$ $[34]$

Fig. 6 Effect of temperature on the mass loss of pest oxidation products of waste MoSi₂ powder

image in Fig. [6](#page-7-0) presents the macrograph of recycled $MoO₃$ recovered at 950 °C, and the recycled $MoO₃$ shows transparent elongated strips of size of 2–10 mm.

Figure [7](#page-8-0) shows the XRD patterns of recycled products and the residue, and only single-phase $MoO₃$ is identified regardless of the heating temperature (Fig. [7](#page-8-0)a). No other difraction peaks are present. Figure [7b](#page-8-0) demonstrates the XRD patterns of residual products in the crucible after evaporation procedure. When heating at 700 °C and 800 °C, the crystalline phases are $SiO₂$ and MoO₃ in the crucible, suggesting that $MoO₃$ has not volatilized completely. With the increase in temperature to 900 °C, the SiO₂ peaks become the strongest, and single-phase SiO₂ is found after heating at 950 °C. The XRD in Fig. [7](#page-8-0) confirms the removal of $MoO₃$ from the mixture of $MoO₃$ and $SiO₂$ by thermal evaporation process.

Photocatalytic Performance

As shown in Fig. [8,](#page-9-0) the optical properties of recycled $MoO₃$ and commercial $MoO₃$ were characterized by UV–Vis difuse refectance spectroscopy (DRS). The optical absorption performance of semiconductors is evaluated on the basis of the band gap energy $(E_{\rm o})$ as calculated by Eq. ([4\)](#page-7-1) [\[35](#page-11-15)]:

$$
\alpha h v = A (h v - E_{\rm g})^{n/2} \tag{4}
$$

In Eq. [\(4](#page-7-1)), α , h , v , A and E_g represent the absorption coefficient near absorption edge, Planck constant (unit: eV), the light frequency, the absorption constant and the absorption band gap energy, respectively [[35\]](#page-11-15). The value of n is determined by the type of optical transition in the semiconductor $(n=1)$ for direct transition and $n=4$ for indirect transition). According to previous reports, MoO₃ pertains to direct transition and the value of n is set as 1 [[35\]](#page-11-15). The Tauc plot of the corresponding samples is shown in the inset of Fig. [8,](#page-9-0) and the band gap energies of recycled $MoO₃$

Fig. 7 XRD pattern of **a** recycled products and **b** residue after thermal evaporation at diferent temperatures

and commercial Mo_{3} are 2.95 eV and 3.10 eV, respectively. As is shown, the band gap energy of the recycled $MoO₃$ is narrower than that of commercial $MoO₃$, and the narrower band gap energy helps improve the photocatalytic property of $MoO₃$. Furthermore, some other characterization such as photoluminescence spectra (PL), surface area and defect will be used to deeply explore the photocatalysis mechanism in the following researches.

Figure [9](#page-9-1) exhibits the photocatalytic performance of nano-TiO₂ (P25), commercial MoO₃ (10 µm, 99.9%, purity) and recycled MoO₃ at 950 °C, which was evaluated by the degradation of methylene blue (MB) under visible light irradiation. The MB degradation efficiency $(\%)$ was calculated by Eq. [\(5](#page-9-2)) [[36\]](#page-11-16):

Fig. 8 UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of recycled $MoO₃$ and commercial $MoO₃$

Fig. 9 Comparative photocatalytic degradation properties of MB by P25, commercial MoO₃ and recycled $MoO₃$ under visible light irradiation

$$
D = (D_0 - D_T)/D_0 \times 100\% \tag{5}
$$

where *D* is the degradation efficiency and C_0 and C_t are initial and residual concentration of dyes at diferent times. As shown in Fig. [9](#page-9-1), the degradation of MB by the commercial $MoO₃$ and P25 is 5.52% and 11.18%, after irradiating for 60 min. The degradation activity of the recycled MoO₃ at 950 °C is 99.25% which is far superior to commercial $MoO₃$ and P25. Inset in Fig. [9](#page-9-1) shows the corresponding colors of MB with recycling MoO₃, among which -30 refers to the solution before dark reaction and 0 refers to the initiation of photocatalytic reaction. Finally, the blue color solution changed to colorless within the period of 60 min. The recycling $MoO₃$ in this work demonstrated a good photocatalytic activity for photodegradation of MB under visible light.

Concluding Remarks

 $MoO₃$ was recycled from waste $MoSi₂$ heating elements, and the recycling $MoO₃$ presented good functional properties. Specifically, when the waste MoSi₂ powder calcined at 500 \degree C and held for 180 min, that is to say, using the pest oxidation temperature, the waste MoSi₂ transformed into the mixture of MoO₃ and SiO₂ with the maximum transformation rate. Then, the pest oxidation products were heated to specific temperature to evaporate the $MoO₃$. The evaporated mass was stable above 900 °C, and MoO₃ was evaporated completely from MoO₃ and SiO₂ mixture. The recycling $MoO₃$ demonstrated stronger photocatalytic degradation of MB up to 99.25% in visible light, which was higher than commercial Mo_{3} and P25. This study proved that recycled $MoO₃$ with good photocatalytic degradation of MB could be effectively recovered from waste $MoSi₂$.

Acknowledgements This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (51574241 and 51874305), the Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research (SSF) for Infrastructure Fellowship (RIF14-0083).

Compliance with ethical standards

Confict of interest The authors declare no confict of interest.

References

- 1. P. Feng, X. Qu, A. Farid, et al., *Rare Metals* **25**, 225 (2006).
- 2. Y. Jiang, D. Feng, H. Ru, et al., *Surface and Coatings Technology* **339**, 91 (2018).
- 3. Y. Zhang, Y. Li, C. Bai, et al., *Ceramics International* **43**, 6250 (2017).
- 4. A. Makris, *Industrial Heating* **61**, 46 (1994).
- 5. V. Bizzarri, B. Linder and N. Lindskog, *American Ceramic Society Bulletin* **68**, 1834 (1989).
- 6. M. Samadzadeh, C. Oprea, H. Sharif, et al., *International Journal of Refractory Metals and Hard Materials* **66**, 11 (2017).
- 7. D. Berztiss, R. Cerchiara and E. Gulbransen, *Materials Science and Engineering: A* **155**, 165 (1992).
- 8. T. Chou and T. Nieh, *Scripta Metallurgica et Materialia* **26**, 1637 (1992).
- 9. Z. Zaki, N. Mostafa and Y. Ahmed, *International Journal of Refractory Metals and Hard Materials* **45**, 23 (2014).
- 10. Y. Liu, G. Shao and P. Tsakiropoulos, *Intermetallics* **9**, 125 (2001).
- 11. P. Feng, X. Wang, Y. He, et al., *Journal of Alloys and Compounds* **473**, 185 (2009).
- 12. F. Zhang, L. Zhang, A. Shan, et al., *Intermetallics* **14**, 406 (2006).
- 13. J. Chen, C. Li, Z. Fu, et al., *Materials Science and Engineering: A* **261**, 239 (1999).
- 14. S. Chevalier, F. Bernard, E. Gafet, et al., *Materials Science Forum* **461–464**, 439 (2004).
- 15. S. Knittel, S. Mathieu and M. Vilasi, *Intermetallics* **18**, 2267 (2010).
- 16. K. Kurokawa, H. Houzumi, I. Saeki, et al., *Materials Science and Engineering: A* **261**, 292 (1999).
- 17. C. McKamey, P. Tortorelli, J. DeVan, et al., *Journal of Materials Research* **7**, 2747 (1992).
- 18. K. Yanagihara, K. Przybylski and T. Maruyama, *Oxidation of Metals* **47**, 2 (1997).
- 19. T. Chou and T. Nieh, *Journal of Materials Science* **29**, 2963 (1994).
- 20. D. Pope and R. Darolia, *Materials Research Society Bulletin* **21**, 30 (1996).
- 21. A. Bouzidi, N. Benramdane, H. Tabet-Derraz, et al., *Materials Science and Engineering: B* **97**, 5 (2003).
- 22. M. Rahmania, S. Keshmiri, J. Yu, et al., *Sensor and Actuators B* **145**, 13 (2010).
- 23. I. Navas, R. Vinodkumar, K. Lethy, et al., *Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics* **42**, 175305 (2009).
- 24. A. Chithambararaj, N. Sanjini, A. Chandra Bose, et al., *Catalysis Science & Technology* **3**, 1405 (2013).
- 25. V. Kumar, K. Gayathri and S. Anthony, *Materials Research Bulletin* **76**, 147 (2016).
- 26. S. Sunu, E. Prabhu, V. Jayaraman, et al., *Sensor and Actuators B* **94**, 189 (2003).
- 27. J. Zhou, S. Deng, N. Xu, et al., *Applied Physics Letters* **83**, 2653 (2003).
- 28. A. Prasad, P. Gouma, D. Kubinski, et al., *Thin Solid Films* **436**, 46 (2003).
- 29. A. Prasad, D. Kubinski and P. Gouma, *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical* **93**, 25 (2003).
- 30. K. Gesheva and T. Ivanova, *Chemical Vapor Deposition* **12**, 231 (2006).
- 31. S. Ashraf, C. Blackman, G. Hyett, et al., *Journal of Materials Chemistry* **16**, 3575 (2006).
- 32. R. Patil, M. Uplane and P. Patil, *Applied Surface Science* **252**, 8050 (2006).
- 33. K. Hellström, P. Persson and E. Ström, *Journal of the European Ceramic Society* **35**, 513 (2015).
- 34. X. Liu, S. Wang, Q. Zhang, et al., *Chinese Journal of Materials Research* **24**, 17 (2010).
- 35. S. L. Prabavathi, P. S. Kumar, K. Saravanakumar, et al., *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology A* **356**, 642 (2018).
- 36. D. Zhou, Z. Chen, Q. Yang, et al., *Solar Energy Materials and Solar Cells* **157**, 399 (2016).

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.