

Synergetic catalysis enhancement between H₂O₂ and TiO₂ with single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy

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ABSTRACT

The TiO₂-H₂O₂ system possesses excellent oxidation activity even under dark conditions. However, the mechanism of this process is unclear and inconsistent. In this work, the binary component system containing TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) with single electron-trapped oxygen vacancy (SETOV, V_O·) and H₂O₂ exhibit excellent oxidative performance for tetracycline, RhB, and MO even without light irradiation. We systematically investigated the mechanism for the high activity of the TiO₂-H₂O₂ under dark condition. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) induced from H₂O₂ play a significant role in improving the catalytic degradation activities. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) results firstly confirm that H₂O₂ is primarily activated by SETOVs derived from the TiO₂ NPs through direct contribution of electrons, producing both ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH, which are responsible for the excellent reactivity of TiO₂-H₂O₂ system. This work not only provides a new perspective on the role of SETOVs playing in the H₂O₂ activation process, but also expands the application of TiO₂ in environmental conservation.

KEYWORDS

single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy, TiO₂ nanoparticle, H₂O₂, dark reaction, superoxide radicals, hydroxyl radical

1 Introduction

Photocatalytic oxidation is regarded as a promising strategy for pollutant removal in water [1–6]. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂), one of the best-known semiconductor photocatalysts, is identified as a promising pollutants removing material due to its evidently photocatalytic oxidation ability [1–13]. However, TiO₂ is a type of wide bandgap semiconductor (3.2 eV) and it only adsorbs ultraviolet light, which greatly limits its practical applications. Most recently, the addition of H₂O₂ has been proved to efficiently promote catalytic activity of TiO₂ even without any light irradiation, which may potentially overcome the limitation of light irradiation and therefore expand the application of TiO₂ in environmental conservation [14–19].

According to most recent findings, the enhanced oxidative behavior of TiO₂-H₂O₂ system has been ascribed to the H₂O₂ activation by TiO₂, which induces the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) including ·OH and ·O₂⁻/·OOH on the surface of catalyst [14–18]. As we all know, both ·OH and ·O₂⁻/·OOH exhibit strong oxidative ability that can degrade organic dye molecules in water. However, the mechanisms of H₂O₂ activation and the role of ROS in the enhanced oxidation ability of TiO₂-H₂O₂ system are still controversial. For example, Zhang et al. demonstrated that H₂O₂ accepted electrons from surface Ti³⁺ and was activated into ·OH and ·O₂⁻/·OOH. The ·OH was confirmed to respond for the improved performance of

TiO₂-H₂O₂ [17]. However, Wiedmer [18] put forward the viewpoint that only the ·O₂⁻/·OOH plays key role in enhancing performance of TiO₂-H₂O₂ rather than ·OH. Moreover, the mechanism of transferring H₂O₂ into ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH by TiO₂ NPs has not been studied. In order to provide more accurate information for constructing highly efficient TiO₂-H₂O₂ system, more work should be focused on the mechanism of H₂O₂ activation by TiO₂ as well as the role of ROS.

Single electron-trapped oxygen vacancy in TiO₂ bulk phase (SETOV, V_O·), a typical intrinsic defect, was demonstrated to affect TiO₂ photocatalytic performance via electronic interaction [20]. Thus, it is significant to study whether the H₂O₂ can be effectively activated by SETOV into ROS through electronic interaction and consequentially improve the oxidative ability of TiO₂-H₂O₂ in dark. However, SETOV in TiO₂ bulk has rarely been investigated for H₂O₂ activation in dark and the related catalytic mechanism for TiO₂-H₂O₂ remains unclear.

In our work, TiO₂ NPs with SETOVs in bulk were prepared and then mixed with H₂O₂ to form TiO₂-H₂O₂ system. The degradation ability of TiO₂-H₂O₂ for tetracycline, RhB, and MO in dark is greatly enhanced. The catalytic efficiencies are more than 2 and 1.5 times higher than the reported highest value for RhB and MO degradation, respectively. Here, we provide a fundamental mechanism of activating H₂O₂ into ROS by SETOVs, which can provide key information on H₂O₂ activation as well as promote practical application of TiO₂ greatly.

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2 Experimental

2.1 Synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles with different contents of SETOVs

Titanium tetrachloride (TiCl₄) was used as the precursor for the obtained TiO₂ NPs. A 0.02 mol/L TiCl₄ solution was firstly prepared by slowly adding TiCl₄ into ice water under stirring and then dropped into 50 mL 0.5 mol/L ammonia with 65 drops per minute under 200 rpm stirring at room temperature until the pH value of the solution reached ~ 8. A white precipitate was obtained and washed with distilled water by centrifugation until chloride ions were not detectable in the washed water (1.0 wt.% AgNO₃ solution). Different amounts of precipitation were dispersed in 50 mL anhydrous ethyl alcohol by ultrasonic treatment for 20 min in autoclave and kept at 150 °C for 3 h (shown in Table 1). The obtained products were dispersed by ultrasonic for 20 min directly to form a stable sol system. Three kinds of TiO₂ NPs and their related suspension after adding H₂O₂ were marked as A1, A2 and A3. 1.5 mL of H₂O₂ (30 wt.%) were added into different volumes of the obtained sol and stirred for 30 min (shown in Table 1). The color of the sol turned to pale yellow. In order to obtain suspension with 0.05 g/L TiO₂, ~ 450 mL deionized water was added. The final concentration of H₂O₂ in suspension is 29 mM. Three kinds of TiO₂ NPs after adding H₂O₂ were marked as S1, S2 and S3, respectively.

2.2 Catalysis experiment

The reactivity of TiO₂-H₂O₂ sample was evaluated by the degradation of RhB, methyl orange (MO) and tetracycline in cylindrical quartz flask. For degradation of RhB, reaction solutions were obtained by adding 0.5 mL 500 mg·L⁻¹ RhB solution into 100 mL of 0.05 g·L⁻¹ TiO₂ suspension containing 29 mM H₂O₂. For degradation of MO, reaction solutions were obtained by adding 1.0 mL 500 mg·L⁻¹ MO solution into 99 mL of 0.05 g·L⁻¹ TiO₂ suspension containing 29 mM H₂O₂. For degradation of tetracycline, reaction solution was obtained by adding 1 mg tetracycline into 99 mL of 0.05 g·L⁻¹ TiO₂ suspension containing 29 mM H₂O₂. At intervals, 3 mL of solution was taken out every 15 minutes for RhB, 30 min for MO, and 4 h for tetracycline. The solution was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 3 min to remove the solid catalysts. The ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) absorption spectra of the RhB, MO, and tetracycline were recorded from the absorbance at 553, 464, and 359 nm, respectively. For cyclic tests, H₂O₂ and RhB solution were added into the suspension after each run. The concentrations of H₂O₂ and RhB were 29 mM and 2.5 mg·L⁻¹ for each run. Fluorescence (FL) absorption spectra were using terephthalate (TANA) (5 × 10⁻³ M) which reacted with ·OH to produce highly fluorescent 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid (TAOH), TAOH emits fluorescence at around 425 nm upon excitation of its 312 nm absorption band. Tests were performed in 3.0 mL of solution at pH = 6 for 10 min; then centrifuged to remove catalyst and put the solution into quartz cell.

2.3 Characterization

The morphologies of the TiO₂ samples were determined by trans-

mission electron microscopy (TEM, Tecnai G2 F20 U-TWIN). For TEM observation, the samples were dispersed in ethanol by ultrasonic treatment for 5 min and dropped onto carbon-coated copper grids. The crystalline structures of the samples were analyzed using X-ray diffractometer on a Smartlab (9) with Cu Kα radiation, and the spectra were recorded in the 2θ range of 20°–80° at a rate of 8°·min⁻¹ and step size of 0.02°. The TiO₂ powders were pressed into a quartz cell. Raman spectrum analysis was conducted on a Renishaw Invia plus spectrometer operating at 633 nm. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Escalab 250Xi) was performed using Al Kα X-rays (*hν* = 1,486.6 eV), hybrid (magnetic/electrostatic) optics and a multi-channel plate and delay line detector. All XPS spectra were recorded using an aperture slot of 500 μm × 500 μm. High-resolution spectra were recorded with pass energy of 30 eV. The intensity of the XPS spectra has not been normalized. Au signal was used as a reference signal, and “shirly” model was employed to correct the XPS spectra. All the binding energies were calibrated by the C1s speak at 284.8 eV of the surface adventitious carbon. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were collected on a NOVA3200e (Quantachrome Instruments) at 77 K. Before measurement, the samples were degassed at 473 K for 5 h. The electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra were recorded on a Bruker E 500 spectrometer at ambient temperature in the dark. The weight of all TiO₂ samples used to measure SETOVs was 20 mg. The samples used to measure ROS were prepared as follows. 3 mL of undiluted stable sol was mixed with 150 μL H₂O₂ (30 wt.%) for 30 min. 50 μL of this suspension was taken and introduced to 400 mM 5,5'-dimethyl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide (DMPO) of the same volume. All the processes above are carried out in the absence of light. The evolved O₂ in the gas phase was examined by a Techcomp gas chromatography (GC-7900) with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD), 5 Å molecular sieve columns and Ar carrier. The suspension was purged with argon flow for 30 min to remove dissolved air, and then stand still in the dark for 1.5 h. The static fluorescence spectral measurements were carried out with an F-4600 (Hitachi) spectrofluorometer.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Morphology and structural of TiO₂ nanoparticles

The morphology and crystal structure of TiO₂ samples were investigated by TEM, as shown in Figs. 1(a)–1(c). Both A1 and A2 are composed of uniform nanoparticles with average diameter of 17.3 ± 3.2 and 18.9 ± 3.4 nm, respectively, and a small amount of amorphous TiO₂. While A3 is mainly composed of amorphous TiO₂, and few crystalline nanoparticles with average diameter of 13.9 ± 3.5 nm are observed. The

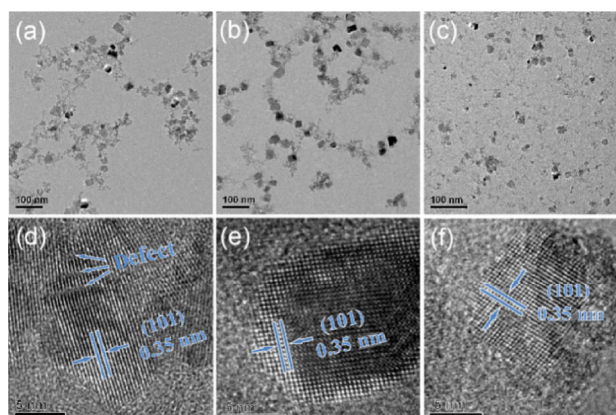


Figure 1 TEM images of TiO₂ samples: ((a) and (d)) A1, ((b) and (e)) A2, and ((c) and (f)) A3.

Table 1 Reaction conditions of A1, A2, A3 and S1, S2, S3

TiO ₂ sample	Suspension	Amounts of precipitation	Volume of sol (mL)	Volume of water (mL)
A1	S1	1/4	38	460.5
A2	S2	1/3	29	469.5
A3	S3	1/5	48	450.5

corresponding high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images are shown in Figs. 1(d)–1(f). For A1, the lattice spacing of 0.35 nm is assigned to (101) facet, which is the thermodynamically stable crystal facet of anatase TiO₂ (Fig. 1(d)). Additionally, different distances co-exist in adjacent lattice planes are clearly observed, as marked with arrows in Fig. 1(d), indicating the existence of intrinsic bulk defects [21, 22]. A2 and A3 show continuous and ordered lattice fringes with lattice spacings of 0.35 nm, which correspond to the *d*-spacing of (101) plane of anatase TiO₂ [23]. Moreover, both A2 and A3 exhibit a relatively flat and smooth surface, further demonstrating the nanoparticles are mostly generated with few defects.

Phase structures of the obtained samples were investigated by X-ray diffraction (XRD). As shown in Fig. 2(a), diffraction peaks of the three samples match well with the standard peaks of anatase phase (JCPDS No.21–1272) [24–26]. The XRD pattern of A3 not only shows larger broad baseline, but also exhibits significantly lower peaks than that of A1 and A2. The result indicates the existence of amorphous phase and poor crystallinity of A3 sample [27].

The Raman spectra of samples contain four peaks in the range of 100–800 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 2(b)). The most intense band at 146 cm⁻¹ (E_{g(1)} vibration mode) and three strong bands at 396 cm⁻¹ (B_{1g(1)}), 517 cm⁻¹ (A_{1g} + B_{1g(2)}) and 639 cm⁻¹ (E_{g(2)}) are assigned to the characteristic vibrations of anatase TiO₂ [28–30], which are consistent with the XRD results. Besides, it should be noticed that the peaks of A3 are weak and broad with no obvious peak shift compared with A1 and A2. It is widely accepted that the broadening of Raman peaks is induced by the changes of particle size and presence of amorphous phase [31, 32]. Because the three samples possess very similar crystallite sizes, it can be concluded that the broadening peaks of A3 are induced by the presence of amorphous phases, further indicating its low crystallinity. The results are also consistent well with the analysis of XRD and TEM.

3.2 Catalytic activity

A1, A2 and A3 were mixed with H₂O₂ to form stable dispersions and marked with S1, S2 and S3, respectively. In order to investigate the catalytic activities, S1, S2 and S3 were evaluated by monitoring the decomposition of RhB, MO and tetracycline, respectively. Surprisingly, all the three dispersions exhibit catalytic activities toward RhB, MO, and tetracycline degradation without light irradiation (Fig. 3). Up to 90% of RhB can be degraded by S1 in 90 min (Fig. 3(a)), and the rate was over 2 times higher than reported values for the RhB degradation [19]. In addition, a ~ 80% removal of MO was achieved within 150 min in the S1 system (Fig. 3(b)), which was 1.5 times faster than the reported highest values [17]. Up to 70% of tetracycline can be degraded by S2 in 24 h (Fig. 3(c)), and the rate was over 1.3 times higher than reported values under same conditions [33]. Here the activity of S1 and S2 is very similar. These results indicate the excellent non-light-driven catalytic activity of S1. By contrast, the degradation ratios for S2 and S3 are 50% and 20% for RhB

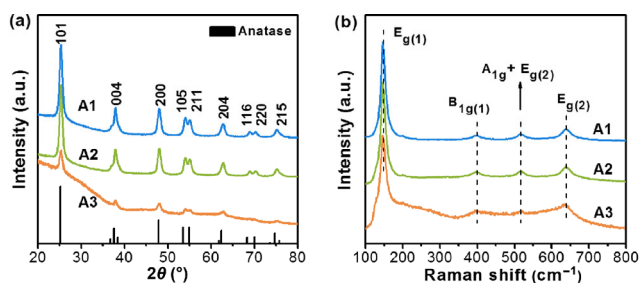


Figure 2 The XRD patterns (a) and Raman spectra (b) of TiO₂ samples.

degradation, 50% and 15% for MO degradation within 90 and 150 min, respectively. Control experiments indicate that H₂O₂ or A1 alone show no degradation activity under the same condition, which confirm the existence of synergetic effect between TiO₂ and H₂O₂ [14–19]. The reusability of S1 was tested and the results were shown in Fig. 3(d). The catalytic activities were well maintained during five cyclic tests, indicating that the S1 was very stable during the catalysis.

3.3 Mechanism discussion

In general, surface property of catalyst plays an important role in the catalytic performance. In order to explain the positive synergetic effect, XPS analysis is performed to study the surface properties of TiO₂ samples (Fig. 4). In Ti 2p spectra (Fig. 4(a)), two major peaks at 458.7 and 464.5 eV are attributed to Ti⁴⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Ti⁴⁺ 2p_{1/2}, respectively, indicating no Ti³⁺ species exist on the surface of the three samples. As shown in Figs. 4(b)–4(d), all samples exhibit a broad O 1s peak with a strong shoulder at a high binding energy, which can be deconvoluted into two peaks centered at 529.9 and 531.6 eV, which belong to the lattice oxygen (labeled as O_L) and surface oxygen forming Ti–OH (labeled as OH), respectively [34, 35]. The above results indicate that both Ti and oxygen species of all TiO₂ samples possess similar chemical nature. After adding H₂O₂, the Ti–OH can be translated to Ti–OOH. As shown in Fig. 4(e), another obvious peak at 532.9 eV belonging to Ti–OOH can be observed for A1 after adding H₂O₂ (S1). Besides, UV diffuse reflectance results demonstrate that the absorption band of A1 was at ~ 370 nm, while it extended to ~ 500 nm for S1 (Fig. 4(f)). It also can be observed by naked eyes and the color of the samples changed from white to yellow for Ti–OH and Ti–OOH, respectively [35]. Therefore, we can confirm that the –OOH groups of H₂O₂ would substitute for the –OH groups of Ti–OH, forming yellow Ti–OOH on the TiO₂ surface.

The XPS results also indicate that the obtained TiO₂ possesses abundant oxygen vacancy (the ratio of O_L/Ti is below 2), which provides active site for –OH adsorption (Fig. 4(g)). Generally, for the synthesis of TiO₂ with oxygen vacancy, the widely used methods are hydrogenation reduction [36], chemical reductant reduction [37] and high temperature oxygen deficient atmosphere reduction [38]. In our work, the TiO₂ with oxygen vacancy defects was synthesized by chemical reducing agent reduction method. Titanium chloride (TiCl₄) is used as Ti source and absolute ethanol as solvent, respectively. The ethanol provides a reductive environment to get TiO₂ with abundant oxygen

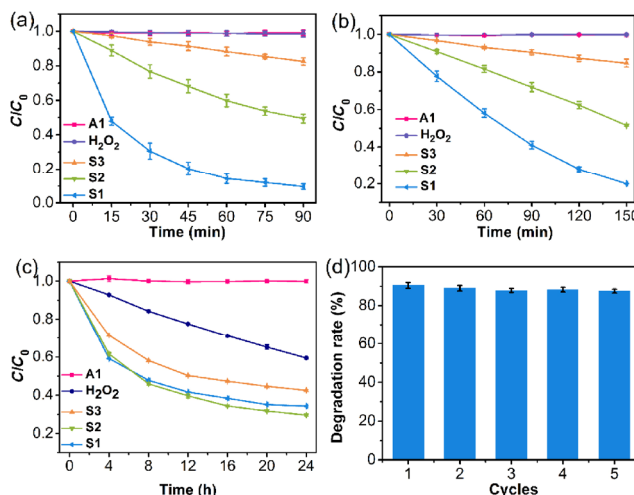


Figure 3 Degradation curves of (a) RhB, (b) MO, and (c) tetracycline solution without light irradiation using different TiO₂ suspensions. (d) Cyclic performance of S1 for degradation of RhB.

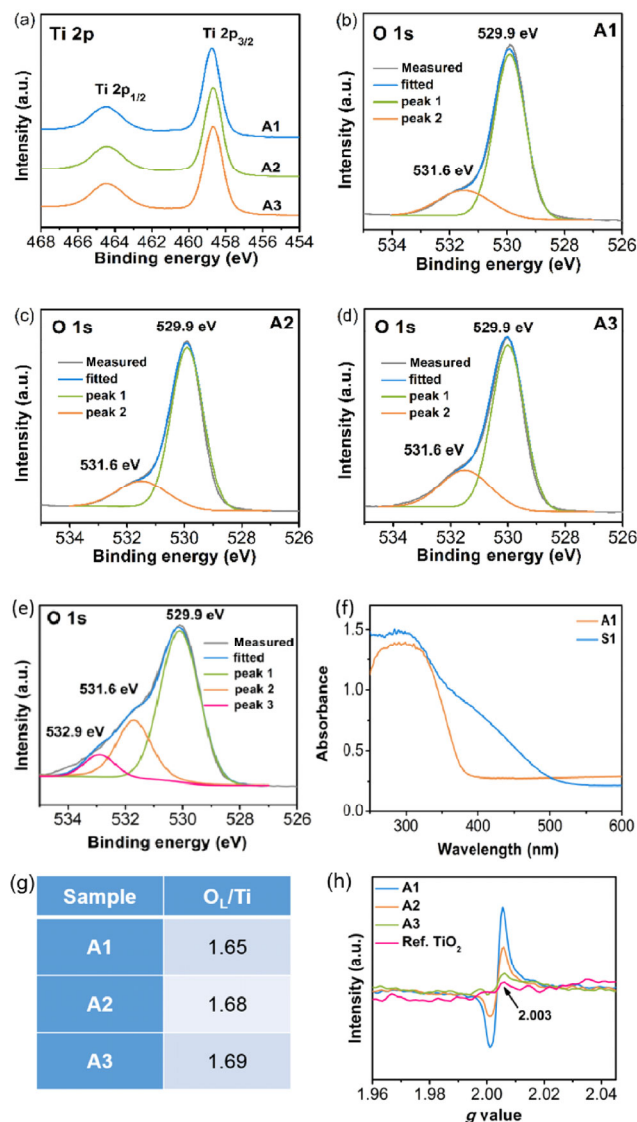


Figure 4 XPS spectra of the TiO₂ samples (A1–A3): (a) Ti 2p spectra, (b)–(d) O 1s spectra. (e) XPS O1s spectra of the TiO₂-H₂O₂ samples. (f) UV visible diffuse reflectance spectrum spectra of A1 and S1. (g) Surface O/Ti ratios for all samples from XPS spectra. O₁: O 1s core level peak at ca. 529.9 eV for TiO₂. (h) EPR spectra of the TiO₂ samples recorded at 293 K in dark.

vacancy defects.

To explore the effect of oxygen vacancies or Ti³⁺ on the catalytic efficiency, EPR experiments are conducted at room temperature in the dark. As shown in Fig. 4(h), the *g*-values at 2.003 are observed which correspond to unpaired electrons trapped by oxygen vacancies in bulk, named SETOVs [20, 39, 40]. Obviously, A1 demonstrates a higher content of SETOVs than A2 and A3, which may lead to the much high reactivity. It has been reported that surface defects of Ti³⁺ could activate H₂O₂ in the dark [17]. However, no Ti³⁺ (*g* ≈ 1.94) signal is observed in our sample. This result is consistent with the conclusion of XPS. Therefore, it can be reasoned that the SETOVs rather than Ti³⁺ plays a significant role in the catalytic process. BET results showed that A3 possesses the highest surface area (171.3 m²·g⁻¹), followed by A1 (128.1 m²·g⁻¹) and then A2 (123.9 m²·g⁻¹). However, A3 demonstrated the lowest efficiency, which implies that the surface area is dispensable for activation ability of TiO₂ NPs.

In order to study the active species in the TiO₂-H₂O₂ system, EPR measurements using DMPO as the spin-trap reagent in the dark are firstly conducted. As shown in Fig. 5(a), no

signals of active radicals for A1 and H₂O₂ are observed, explaining their non-catalytic ability in the dark. By contrast, six strong characteristic peaks ascribed to the DMPO spin adduct of ·O₂⁻/·OOH [18] are easily observed in the S1 without light irradiation. The result indicates the existence and essential role of ·O₂⁻/·OOH in degradation of organics. In addition, for the solid of S1 (Fig. 5(b)), the obvious signals located at *g* = 2.024, *g* = 2.008, and *g* = 2.002 are the typical signals for ·O₂⁻, further confirming the formation of Ti-OOH for A1 after adding H₂O₂ [14, 41, 42]. The signal intensity almost unchanged for A1-H₂O₂ after RhB degradation indicating the good stability. However, there is no obvious paramagnetic signal of ·OH detected in S1, which may be masked by the strong signal of ·O₂⁻/·OOH in the dark.

To verify the existence of ·OH in S1, we detect the ·OH in the dark reaction by the fluorescence probe of terephthalate (TANA). Under the condition of the existence of ·OH, TANA reacted with ·OH to form TAOH which emits strong fluorescence effect at 425 nm [43]. Figure 5(c) shows that when both TiO₂ and H₂O₂ exist, the intensity of fluorescence signal increases significantly than A1 or H₂O₂ alone. The results demonstrate that ·OH is another reactive intermediate during the reaction and control experiment results also indicate the ·OH is derived from the coexistence of both TiO₂ and H₂O₂. In addition, when isopropanol was introduced as the ·OH scavenger (Fig. 5(d)), the degradation rate of RhB was inhibited significantly from 90% to 78%. So, we can conclude that the ·OH is another reactive species in this system derived from TiO₂ and H₂O₂.

To further confirm the crucial role of SETOVs play during the catalytic process [44, 45], we introduced the control anatase sample with almost no oxygen vacancy (named ref

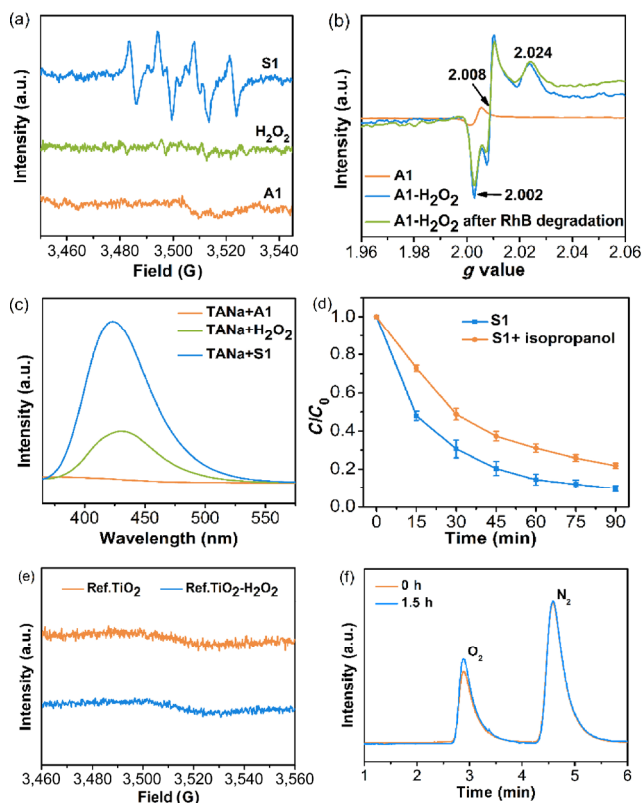
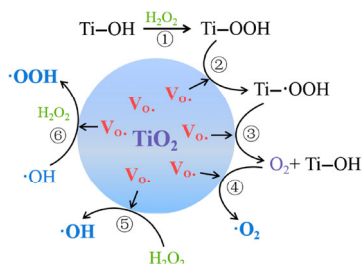


Figure 5 EPR spectra of (a) suspensions with different catalysts in dark after 60 s of reaction, and (b) A1 and A1-H₂O₂ before and after RhB degradation recorded at 293 K. (c) Degradation curves of RhB solution in S1 with and without isopropanol in dark. (d) FL spectrum of A1, H₂O₂ and S1 adding TANA; (e) EPR spectra of A1 and reference TiO₂ with no oxygen vacancy before and after adding H₂O₂. (f) GC curves of evolved O₂ in S1 after standing in the dark for 0 and 1.5 h.

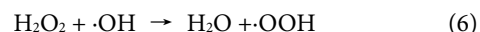
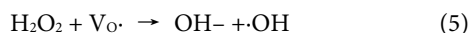
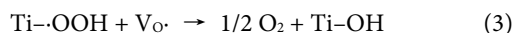
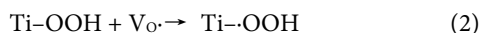
TiO₂) as the reference to test the EPR signal before and after adding H₂O₂ using DMPO as capturing agent at room temperature. It was found that for ref TiO₂, there was almost no characteristic signal before and after adding H₂O₂, indicating the essential role of SETOVs for the formation of active species (Fig. 5(e)).

Based on the above results, we propose that the formation mechanism of ROS (such as ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH) was induced by SETOVs in TiO₂ bulk under non-light irradiation (Scheme 1 and Eqs. (1)–(6)). In the presence of H₂O₂, the –OOH groups of H₂O₂ would substitute for the –OH groups of Ti–OH, forming yellow surface complexes (Ti–OOH) represented as Eq. (1) as confirmed by XPS (Fig. 4(e)) and ultraviolet diffuse reflection results (Fig. 4(f)). The Ti–OOH reacts with an electron from the SETOVs to form the excited state (Ti–OOH) which is highly active and tends to self-react to resume the original Ti–OH species in association with releasing O₂ [46], as described in Eqs. (2) and (3). The existence of Ti–OOH has been confirmed by EPR results (Figs. 5(a) and 5(b)) and through a careful gas chromatography (GC) test, O₂ was successfully detected in S1 after standing in the dark for 90 min (Fig. 5(f)). As the chemical adsorption energy of O₂ molecule was efficiently reduced by SETOVs, as reported in Zeng's work [17], resulting in the easy adsorption of O₂ molecule onto TiO₂ surface. Subsequently, the ·O₂⁻ radical is generated through the reduction of O₂ molecule by an electron from the SETOVs, as shown in Eq. (4), which have also been detected in EPR analysis (Figs. 5(a) and 5(b)). Meanwhile, the H₂O₂ in aqueous phase is activated by the electron from SETOVs, resulting in the production of ·OH radical (Eq. (5)) which is detected by fluorescence by using terephthalate (TANA) as probe (Fig. 5(c)) and isopropanol as trapping agent, respectively (Fig. 5(d)). Finally, H₂O₂ reacts with ·OH radical to form ·OOH radical [42, 47] (Eq. (6)), explaining the decreased rate of RhB degradation after adding the ·OH scavenger in S1. Both ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH possess strong oxidation ability and lead to the RhB and MO degradation in TiO₂-H₂O₂ system under non-light irradiation.



Scheme 1 Mechanism for the production of ROS in the dark. Vo·: the electron in SETOVs.

The above results confirmed that the ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH co-exist in non-irradiated TiO₂-H₂O₂ suspensions. It is the first time to demonstrate definitely that both ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH play essential role in the degradation of organics. Since the TiO₂ NPs are not irradiated and we can logically conclude that the e⁻_{CB}-h⁺_{VB} pair are not created. On the basis of EPR data, SETOVs in TiO₂ can trap single electron in the dark and the formation of ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH is the key factor.



V_O·: the electron in SETOVs.

4 Conclusions

In this work, we have clearly identified the cause of the activity of the TiO₂-H₂O₂ system under dark conditions for the first time. TiO₂ NPs with SETOVs were prepared successfully and dispersed in water to form stable dispersion. Compared to TiO₂ or H₂O₂ alone, the composite catalyst exhibited super high catalytic activity on organics degradation in the dark. And the results indicate that H₂O₂ is activated by SETOVs existed in TiO₂ bulk phase. The transferring process of H₂O₂ into ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH are confirmed. In addition, both ·O₂⁻/·OOH and ·OH were confirmed to indeed behave as effective active species for enhanced catalytic activity of TiO₂-H₂O₂ system. The present study provides new insight into the significant role of SETOVs in H₂O₂ activation in the dark. In comparison with most developed photocatalysis technologies, this strategy is much more energy-saving, and the application of TiO₂ in environmental protection could be widely broadened.

Acknowledgements

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