

TiO₂/SGNs as photocatalyst for degradation of water pollutants

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Received 11 September 2018; Accepted 18 February 2019

ABSTRACT

A novel photocatalyst, titanium dioxide/spherical graphene nodules (TiO₂/SGNs) composites were prepared successfully by hydrothermal synthesis. SGNs were synthesized by simple thermal pyrolysis of methane in a chemical vapor deposition (CVD) reactor over home-made MgO from dolomite. The structure of TiO₂/SGNs composites was investigated by scanning electron microscopy, X-ray powder diffraction, Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Raman spectroscopy and diffuse reflectance spectroscopy. The results showed that an anatase type TiO₂ was obtained, and TiO₂ and SGNs were successfully combined. FT-IR and XPS results lend support to the proposed mechanism of formation of TiO₂/SGNs composites through the bonding between oxygen vacancy sites in TiO₂ (Ti–O–Ti bonds) and in-plane oxygen functional (epoxy) groups in SGNs possibly via Ti–O–C bonds. The photocatalytic activity on methylene blue (MB) degradation proved that TiO₂/SGNs composites were more effective under UV light than pure TiO₂, SGNs and dark reaction. Kinetic studies indicated that MB degradation followed Langmuir–Hinshelwood model better, the increase of the initial concentration of MB, the apparent reaction rate constant decreased. The results indicated that the TiO₂/SGNs composites could be employed as an efficient photocatalyst for the removal of textile dyes from effluents.

Keywords: Spherical graphene nodules; CVD; TiO₂/SGNs composites; Methylene blue; Photocatalysis; Kinetics

1. Introduction

With the rapid development of dyestuff industry, dyestuff effluents become the main water pollution source, which is difficult to degrade. It has the characteristics of high concentration, high chroma and many refractory substances. Hence, it becomes difficult for the conventional treatment technology to treat the resulting wastewater effectively [1]. However, dye molecules can be thoroughly oxidized by photo-oxidizing agents in photocatalytic system, so they have attracted wide attention from domestic and foreign scholars [2].

It has been proved that photocatalytic oxidation technology has a broad application prospective in the degradation of various organic pollutants [3,4]. As a common environmental friendly photocatalytic material, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has become a research hot spot for its high visible

light transmittance, high refractive index, small particle size and strong ability to degrade pollutants [5]. In addition, the photocatalytic reaction conditions of TiO₂ are mild; the organic pollutants can be degraded at room temperature and atmospheric pressure.

The photocatalytic reaction can only occur in the presence of a photocatalyst. TiO₂ is a typical *n*-type semiconductor, which consists of the highest occupied orbital valence band and the lowest empty orbital conduction band. The gap band is between the conduction band and valence band [6]. When light with energy greater than or equal to 3.2 eV irradiated to the surface of TiO₂, photogenerated electrons (e⁻) transmit from valence band to conduction band, and photogenerated hole (h⁺) is produced in valence band [7]. The process is reversible, the electron–hole pair is easily recombined and heat is emitted, which results in reduced photocatalytic efficiency [8].

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Several strategies have been attempted to tailor the band gap of TiO₂ and to reduce the electron–hole recombination, namely doping TiO₂ with metallic [9], non-metallic [10], rare earth elements [7] and mixing TiO₂ with other nanomaterials [8]. One particularly promising approach lies on the mixing with carbon material [11]: TiO₂/graphene (GN), TiO₂/carbon nanotubes or C+N–TiO₂/HNTs [12], TiO₂/fullerenes, as these composite materials have been found to present improved electronic and optical properties for photocatalysis, increased adsorption of the pollutants onto the nanoparticles surface and increased separation of charge carriers, which effectively inhibits recombination [13].

In recent years, with the further study of photocatalytic mechanism of TiO₂/GN composite materials, it is widely believed that graphene itself can act as an electron trapping agent. The photogenerated electron–hole recombination [14] was inhibited, as the same time, the electron mobility increased greatly. The large specific surface area of graphene can also increase the active sites of photocatalytic reaction. Due to the large number of π – π conjugated double bonds on the surface of graphene, and a large number of adsorbed organic molecules can be enriched on the graphene plane. This provides a feasible path for hydroxyl radicals and photogenerated holes to degrade pollutants [15]. According to the reference reported, lower band gaps for the TiO₂/GN nanocomposites ranging from 2.94 to 2.35 eV than that of TiO₂ (3.08 eV) could be obtained [13].

TiO₂/GN nanocomposites have been produced by solvothermal [16], hydro-thermal [17,18], self-assembly [19] and in-situ synthesis [20]. These nanocomposites have been assessed for the degradation of pollutants. Methylene blue (MB) is a typical heterocyclic dyestuff. Because its aromatic structure is not easily destroyed, conventional methods are difficult to deal with it thoroughly. However, MB can be thoroughly oxidized by strong photocatalytic oxidation to non-toxic and harmless small molecular substances such as H₂O and CO₂ in the photocatalytic system. Therefore, MB dye is often used to test the photocatalytic performance of photocatalytic agents.

In the present study, spheroidal, lamellar and porous spherical graphene nodules (SGNs) were fabricated facilely on home-made MgO substrate by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method, with CH₄ as carbon source and Ar as carrier gas. Then the TiO₂/SGNs composites were prepared by the hydrothermal synthesis method. The composites TiO₂/SGNs were characterized by various physico-chemical techniques, such as scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray powder diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS). The present work comprises experimental investigation of the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/SGNs composites with different contents of graphene. These composites were used to degrade methylene blue (MB) under UV-light irradiation to evaluate its photocatalytic performance, repetitiveness and kinetics.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

The home-made MgO (98%) was derived from dolomite by calcium and magnesium separation technology. Methane

(99.99%, Xi'an Tenglong Chemical Co., Ltd.), argon (99.99%, Xi'an Tenglong Chem. Co., Ltd.), HCl, NaOH (AR), tetrabutyl titanate (CP), and MB (Ind) were purchased (Medicine Group Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd., China) and used directly without further purification.

2.2. Synthesis of TiO₂/SGNs composites

SGNs synthesis was carried out using CVD method with methane as the carbon precursor according to the reference reported [21,22]. The CVD setup (FURNACE 1,200°C, Tianjin Zhong Ring Experimental Electric Furnace Co., Ltd.) contains a horizontal tubular furnace and gas flow control unit. Typically, 2 g MgO as the catalyst was transferred to quartz substrate equipped in CVD system and purged in an argon gas at a flow rate of 0.5 L min⁻¹ for 80 min at 950°C, then methane (flow rate 0.9 L min⁻¹) was introduced and decomposed for 30 min. After that, the furnace was cooled to room temperature under argon atmosphere. The obtained material was treated with 2 mol L⁻¹ HCl to remove MgO. The precipitate was then filtered, washed with distilled water several times and dried at 60°C for 48 h in a vacuum oven.

The synthesis of the TiO₂/SGNs composites was based on a one-step hydrothermal method according to reference reported [17]. In short, the 5 g tetrabutyl titanate and appropriate amount of SGNs (depending on the wt.% of the composites required – namely 0%, 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.8%, 1%, 2% and 2.2%) were dispersed in a mixture of 100 mL of ethanol and ultrasonication for 30 min. After that, this suspension was placed in a Teflon lined autoclave, sealed and heated to 180°C for 10 h. The resulting composites were then washed with deionized water and freeze-dried to avoid the agglomeration of the particles.

2.3. Characterization of TiO₂/SGNs composites

The surface morphology and elemental composition of the samples were examined using a Quanta 200 SEM (FEI, Shanghai, China) operating at 20 kV. The phase structure was characterized using a D8 Advance X-ray diffraction unit (Bruker, Germany). Raman spectra were recorded at room temperature using an inVia Reflex Renishaw with λ (532 nm) in the range of 100–3,000 cm⁻¹. FT-IR spectra were obtained using an FT-IR spectrometer (Tensor 27, Bruker, Germany) with KBr pellets in the frequency range 4,000–400 cm⁻¹. XPS (AXIS ULTRA, Kratos Analytical Ltd., Japan) was recorded to verify the formation and the structure of SGNs and TiO₂. DRS (UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer, PerkinElmer Inc., America) was used to measure light absorption and band energy E_g of TiO₂/SGNs composites in the range of 200–800 nm. Semiconducting optical absorption of direct forbidden band energy E_d was calculated as Eq. (1) [23]; indirect forbidden band energy E_i was calculated as Eq. (2) [24].

$$A = \frac{c(h\nu - E_d)^{1/2}}{h\nu} \quad (1)$$

$$A = \frac{c(h\nu - E_i)^2}{h\nu} \quad (2)$$

$$v = \frac{c}{\lambda} \quad (3)$$

where c in Eq. (1) is the absorption constant, A is absorbance, h is Planck constant (6.626×10^{-34} J s), c in Eq. (3) is velocity of light (3×10^8 m s $^{-1}$).

2.4. Photocatalytic degradation of MB

The photocatalytic capacities of SGNs and TiO₂/SGNs composites were evaluated through the degradation of MB, under UV light. For this, 100 mg of the catalysts were added to 100 mL of solution and magnetically stirred in the dark for 30 min, to achieve the adsorption–desorption equilibrium. Afterward, the UV photocatalytic degradations were carried out using a homemade photoreactor equipped with 18 W ultraviolet lamp (WD-9403E), from Beijing Liuyi Biotechnology Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China), an excitation peak of 254 nm, placed above the solution with 1 cm, UV lamp exposure area was 8.7×10^{-3} m². Each experiment was done in parallel for three times, with the measured arithmetic average as the midpoint, a line segment drawn in the direction of the magnitude of the measured value, half of the length of the segment equal to uncertainty is error bar. The reaction rate and efficiency of the degradation were determined by monitoring the intensity of the main absorbance peaks of MB (664 nm), using a UV–Vis spectroscopy (UVT6, Beijing Purkinje General Instrument Co. Ltd., Beijing, China). The degradation rate was calculated by Eq. (4) [25]:

$$R\% = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

where C_0 and C_t (mg L $^{-1}$) represent the initial concentration and the concentration after time t irradiation.

In order to evaluate the stability of the prepared TiO₂/SGNs composites, after photocatalytic reaction of 60 min under ultraviolet light, the catalyst was recovered and reused directly. At the same time, after the reaction system reached the adsorption equilibrium in dark, the catalyst was recovered directly, then the catalyst was adsorbed again after dry treatment, and the adsorption process was repeated for four times, the stability of the prepared TiO₂/SGNs composites was characterized by Raman spectra.

2.5. Kinetics study

100 mg of the different samples were added to 100 mL MB solution with various initial concentrations and magnetically stirred in the dark for 30 min, then the ultraviolet lamp was turned on for the photocatalytic reaction, six groups of parallel experiments were conducted of each factor for different periods of time (10–60 min).

The kinetics of MB degradation was evaluated by photocatalyst followed Langmuir–Hinshelwood model, expressed by Eq. (5) [26] as follows:

$$\ln \frac{C_0}{C_t} = kt \quad (5)$$

where C_0 and C_t represent the initial concentration and the concentration after time t irradiation, respectively, and k is the degradation rate constant.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of SGNs percentage in TiO₂/SGNs on degradation of MB

It can be seen from Fig. 1 that the degradation rate of chromaticity increases with the increase of SGNs percentage in TiO₂/SGNs, and when the percentage of SGNs was higher than 2%, the degradation rate was no longer increased. In the process of hydrothermal reaction, TiO₂ nanoparticles were formed by the hydrolysis reaction of tetrabutyl titanate. With the increase of SGNs percentage, the large specific surface area of graphene and conjugations between methylene blue molecules and the aromatic rings of SGNs sheets, which could lead to the higher adsorptivity. At the same time, SGNs doped TiO₂ inhibited the combination of electron–hole pairs [27] and improved photocatalytic activity. Therefore, the % of SGNs in the composites is 2%.

A SGNs with loosened nucleus and compacted shell in porous lamellar (ca. 200 μm) structure, derived from thermal pyrolysis of CH₄ in a CVD reactor over at 950°C for 30 min, was obtained (Figs. 2a and b). TiO₂ consisted of aggregated spherical particles, originating clusters of TiO₂ particles (Figs. 2c and d) [28]. Regarding the composite, prepared by hydrothermal and sonication, it is expected that, during the hydrothermal treatment, the TiO₂ nanoparticles completely adhere to their surfaces. The EDX spectrum of TiO₂/SGNs confirms the presence of Ti, C and O elements, which can all be addressed to the successful formation of TiO₂/SGNs composites.

XRD was performed to assess the crystalline properties of TiO₂/SGNs composites (Fig. 3). The diffraction peaks observed at 25.3°, 37.8°, 48.0°, 53.9°, 55.0°, 62.8°, 68.8°, 70.3°, 75.1° and 76.1° correspond to the characteristic anatase TiO₂ crystal planes (JCPDS cards 21–1272) [29], formed by butyl titanate gel reaction during hydrothermal reaction. The characteristic peak of SGNs at $2\theta = 25.5^\circ$ (002) was observed, the corresponding d -spacing (3.43 Å) showed the two-dimensional ordering of SGNs [30]. There is no typical SGNs peaks (23°–26°) observed in the composite [31], maybe

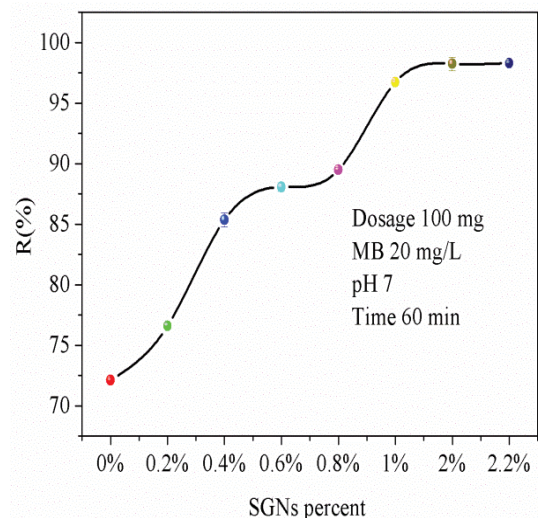


Fig. 1. Photocatalytic degradation of MB by TiO₂/SGNs with different SGNs percentage.

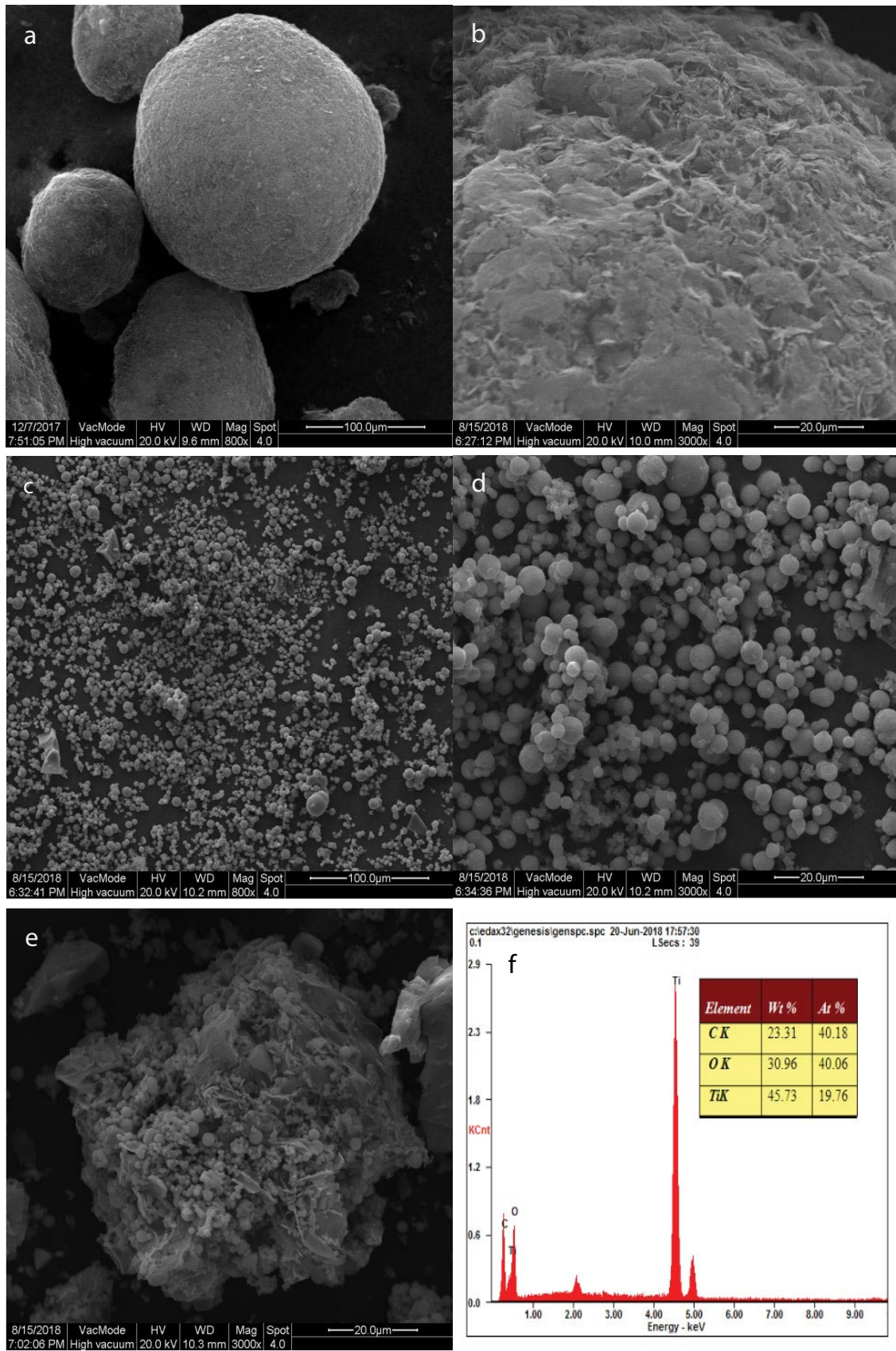


Fig. 2. SEM images of SGNs ((a) and (b)), TiO₂ ((c) and (d)) and TiO₂/SGNs composites (e) and its EDX (f).

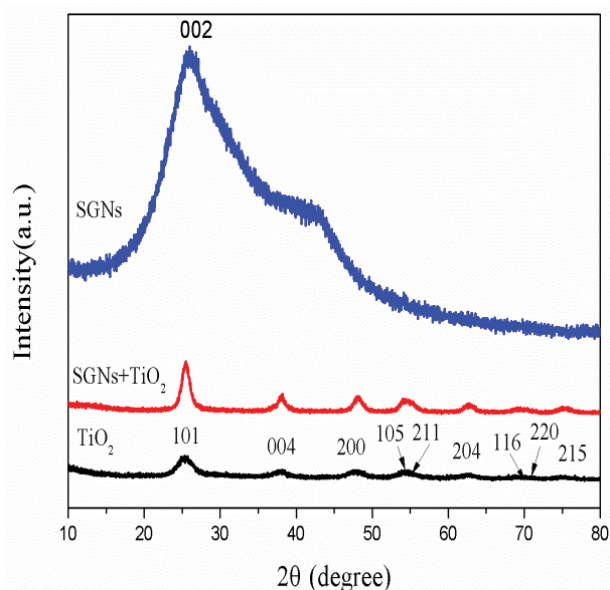


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of SGNs, TiO₂ and TiO₂/SGNs.

due to the lower percentage of SGNs in the composites, which overlap or screened by the (101) diffraction peak of TiO₂ [32].

In order to further confirm the crystalline quality and the formation of the chemical bonds in the TiO₂/SGNs composites, Raman spectrum was recorded in the range of 100–3,000 cm⁻¹. It showed that the characteristic absorption peaks of anatase type TiO₂ at $E_{1g} = 148$ cm⁻¹, $B_{1g} = 393$ cm⁻¹, $A_{1g} + B_{1g} = 513$ cm⁻¹, $E_{2g} = 635$ cm⁻¹, which were consistent with the results of XRD [33]. The spectra reveal the presence of *D* (1,350 cm⁻¹) and *G* (1,580 cm⁻¹) due to breathing modes of sp² carbon atoms in rings and bond stretching between pairs of sp² carbon atoms, respectively, with an intensity ratio I_D/I_G of 1.21, which is directly related to the average size of the sp² carbon [34]. The *G* band is the result of first-order scattering of the E_{2g} mode observed for sp² carbon domains, and the *2D* band is the most prominent feature of graphene [35]. The appearances of these bands confirm the formation of graphene structure and high degree of defect. The basic peak almost unchanged after photocatalytic degradation of MB, which indicated that the TiO₂/SGNs catalyst was stable.

FT-IR measurements were performed to assess the chemical interactions within the composites. The spectra obtained for the TiO₂, SGNs and TiO₂/SGNs samples are shown in Fig. 4. The broad band at around 3,433 cm⁻¹ attributed to –OH stretching vibrations of physically adsorbed water molecules, and the absorption band at around 2,362 cm⁻¹ attributed to C=O stretching vibrations of physically adsorbed carbon dioxide molecules. The absorption band at around 1,622 cm⁻¹ corresponds to C=C stretching vibrations, suggesting the formation of SGNs with sp² hybrid. Additionally, for the TiO₂/SGNs composites, it is also possible to identify the peaks corresponding to hydroxyl C–OH (1,380 cm⁻¹) and epoxy C–O (1,122 cm⁻¹) stretching modes. Ti–O–Ti broad band was observed at 500–900 cm⁻¹, which indicates the interaction between TiO₂ nanoparticles and SGNs [36]. Additionally, another band around 442 cm⁻¹ was observed, which

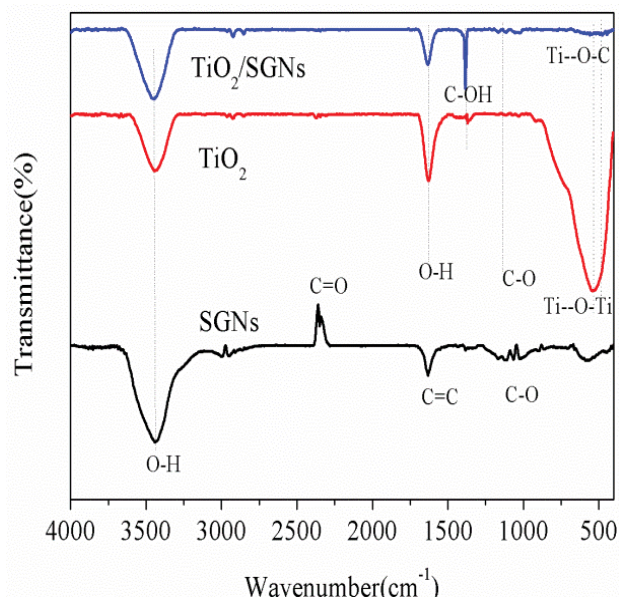


Fig. 4. FT-IR spectra of SGNs, TiO₂ and TiO₂/SGNs.

indicates the formation of Ti–O–C bond during the synthesis process [37].

In order to understand the chemical composition and bonding environment for TiO₂/SGNs composites, XPS was conducted. Figs. 5a and b represent the core level C 1s and O 1s spectra for TiO₂/SGNs composites. The C1s spectrum could further be deconvoluted into four chemically shifted components and assigned to sp² C=C bond (284.7 eV), sp³ C–C bond (285.2 eV), C–O single bond (286.7 eV) and C=O in O=C–O–C (288.9 eV), respectively [38]. The edge carbon atoms are bonded with C–O and C=O oxygen functional groups, among which the C=O is highly stable [39]. Some studies indicated the Ti–C bond formation in TiO₂ and carbon hybrid [40]. The Ti and C are bonded through the oxygen atom in order to form the possible C–O–Ti bonds. Further, the O 1s XPS spectra, as shown in Fig. 5b. The peak at 530.8 eV is due to the Ti–O–Ti, and the strong peak at 531.7 eV is believed to result from the Ti–O–C [41]. In the present case, the results indicate the hybrid formation in TiO₂/SGNs composites possibly through the Ti–O–C and Ti–O–Ti bonds. The core level Ti 2p XPS spectra of TiO₂/SGNs composites is provided in Fig. 5c. The peaks 458.1 eV and 463.9 eV are due to the Ti 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} orbital splitting of Ti 2p core level states in TiO₂ [41].

Fig. 6 shows DRS spectra of TiO₂, SGNs, TiO₂/SGNs composites, which are transformed into direct and indirect transition patterns. Fig. 6a indicates that the absorption edge of TiO₂/SGNs shift to the visible range in comparison with that of pure TiO₂, indicated that doped SGNs can make titanium dioxide respond to visible light [13]. The direct and indirect transition energy gaps were calculated from the absorption edges in Figs. 6b and c. The energy gap of anatase TiO₂ block was 3.2 eV, which was calculated by direct transition formula and in line with the actual value 3.2 eV. On the contrary, the band gap energy 2.70 eV of TiO₂ calculated by indirect transition is less than that of actual value from Fig. 6c. Moreover, the direct forbidden

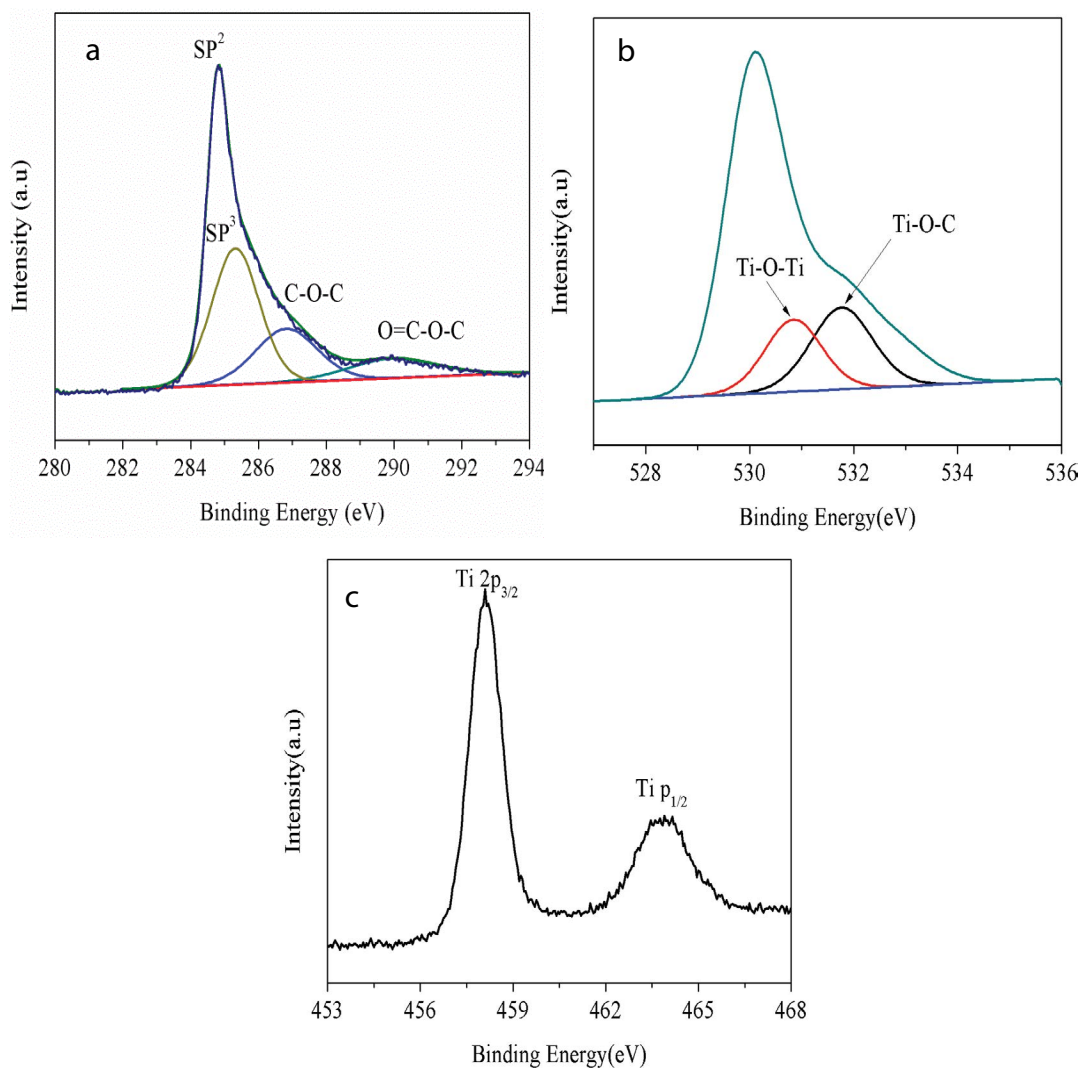


Fig. 5. Core level XPS spectra of TiO₂/SGNs composites (a) C1s spectra (b) O1s spectra and (c) Ti 2p, respectively.

band energy E_g for TiO₂/SGNs composites is 2.85 eV, lower than that of TiO₂ (3.2 eV). The results are consistent with that of Martins et al. [13] reported. The introduction of SGNs improved the adsorption of the pollutants onto the nanoparticles surface and increased separation of charge carriers, which effectively inhibited electron-hole pair and recombination, thus increased photocatalytic efficiency.

3.2. Photocatalytic degradation of MB

The degradation rate of MB increases with the increase of the amount of composite catalyst (Fig. 7a). When 100 mg TiO₂/SGNs was applied, the degradation rate of MB up to 97.07% was obtained; further increasing the dosage of TiO₂/SGNs to 140 mg, the degradation rate slightly decreased to 95.60%. It may be due to the light scattering of catalyst particles, which led to the decrease of light absorption ability, and the transmittance of light and the degradation rate [42]. Therefore, the optimum dosage of the composite of 100 mg was applied in the next studies.

Effect of pH on the degradation rate of MB by TiO₂/SGNs composites is shown in Fig. 7b. It was found that the alkaline environment is more favorable to the photocatalytic reaction than in acidic environment, and the highest degradation rate of (98.81%) was obtained at pH 11. The possible reason can be given that under acidic conditions, the surface of TiO₂/SGNs is positively charged, which is obviously not conducive to the catalysis of MB molecules by TiO₂. It is easier to degrade MB in alkaline conditions because the photocatalytic reactions were promoted mainly by the formation of the hydroxyl radicals (OH[•]). In addition, the surface of TiO₂/SGNs is negatively charged at the alkaline conditions, the photogenerated holes will also be transferred to the surface of the photocatalyst, increasing the active center and promoting photocatalytic degradation [43].

The effect of initial MB concentration and time is investigated in Fig. 7c. As shown, the degradation rate decreased with the increase of initial concentration of MB. The reason may be that with the increase of the concentration, the transmittance of the solution decreased and the photons showed

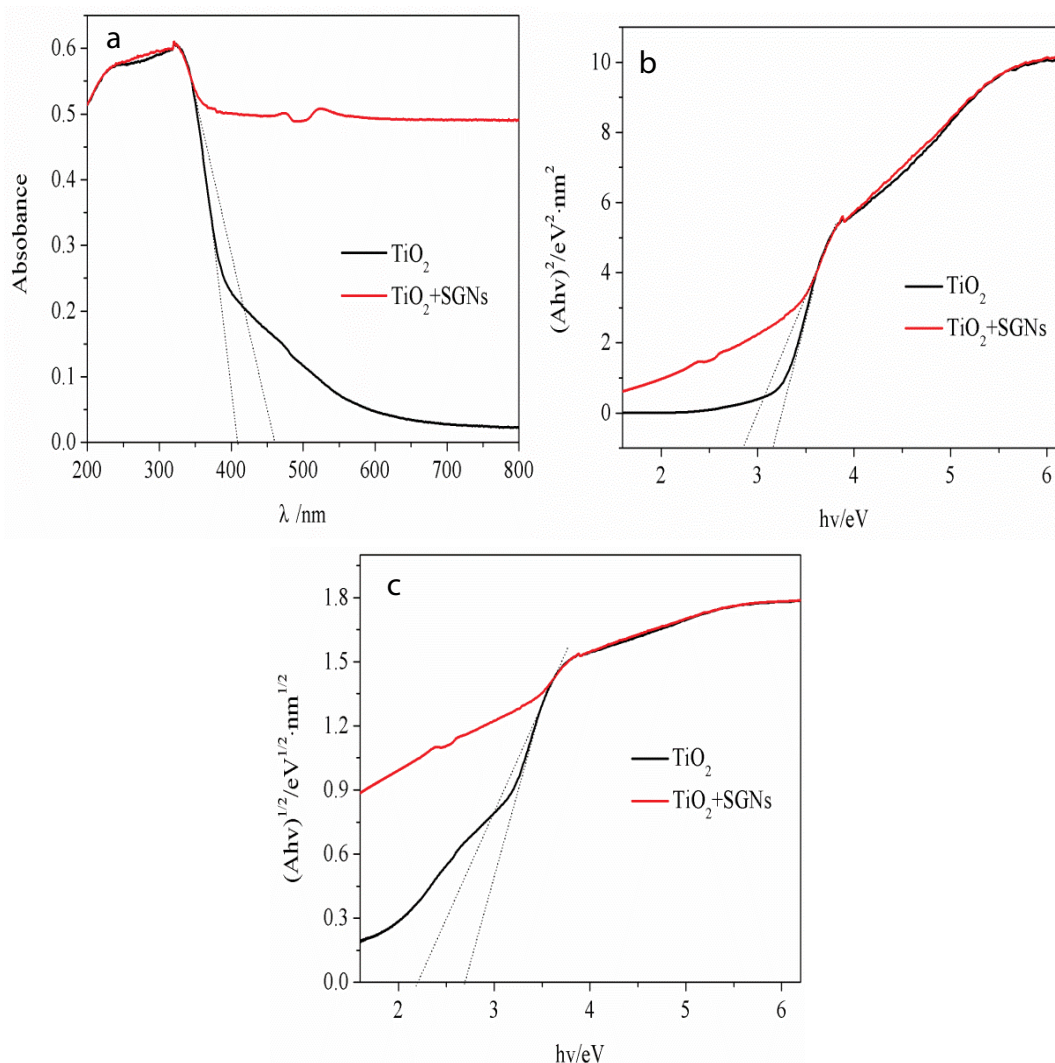


Fig. 6. DRS (a), direct gap (b) and indirect gap (c) transition patterns of TiO_2 , SGNs, TiO_2/SGNs composites.

less contact with the dye molecules [44]. Whatever, the degradation rate of MB was positively correlated with the reaction time, and the degradation rate of MB was no longer increased after the reaction of 60 min. In the process of chemical reaction, the positive reaction and the inverse reaction were carried out simultaneously. After the reaction of 60 min, the chrominance removal rate did not change obviously because the reaction reached the chemical equilibrium. Therefore, the optimum reaction time is 60 min, which was more rapid than that of reference reported (MB concentration 10 mg L^{-1} , time 120 min) [45].

Stability is an important factor in evaluating the practical application of TiO_2/SGNs composites. In order to evaluate the stability of the prepared catalyst, under optimal conditions (TiO_2/SGNs dosage 100 mg , $\text{pH} = 11$, irradiated by ultraviolet light 60 min), the TiO_2/SGNs catalyst was recovered and reused to degrade MB under the same conditions. 98.81% MB degradation rate was obtained by TiO_2/SGNs for the first time, and there was no significant decrease in photocatalytic activity after consecutive four

cycles of experiments. It suggested that TiO_2/SGNs has good stability and can be reused. Concerning the adsorption tests, large adsorption of MB dye onto the nanoparticles surface was observed within 60 min, for TiO_2/SGNs composites. For the TiO_2/SGNs sample, most of the dye was adsorbed onto the catalyst in the equilibration step which prevented the measurement of its photocatalytic activity. The enhanced removal of MB in photocatalysis is justified by the combination of photocatalysis of TiO_2 and adsorption of graphene. Raman spectrum TiO_2/SGNs after MB degradation is shown in Fig. 8. Overall, the high photocatalytic activity, excellent structural stability and good reproducibility make the synthesized photocatalyst as a qualified candidate for wastewater treatment.

3.3. Kinetics study

The kinetics for degradation of MB on dark reaction, SGNs, pure TiO_2 (MB concentration 20 mg L^{-1}) and TiO_2/SGNs composites (different initial concentration of MB

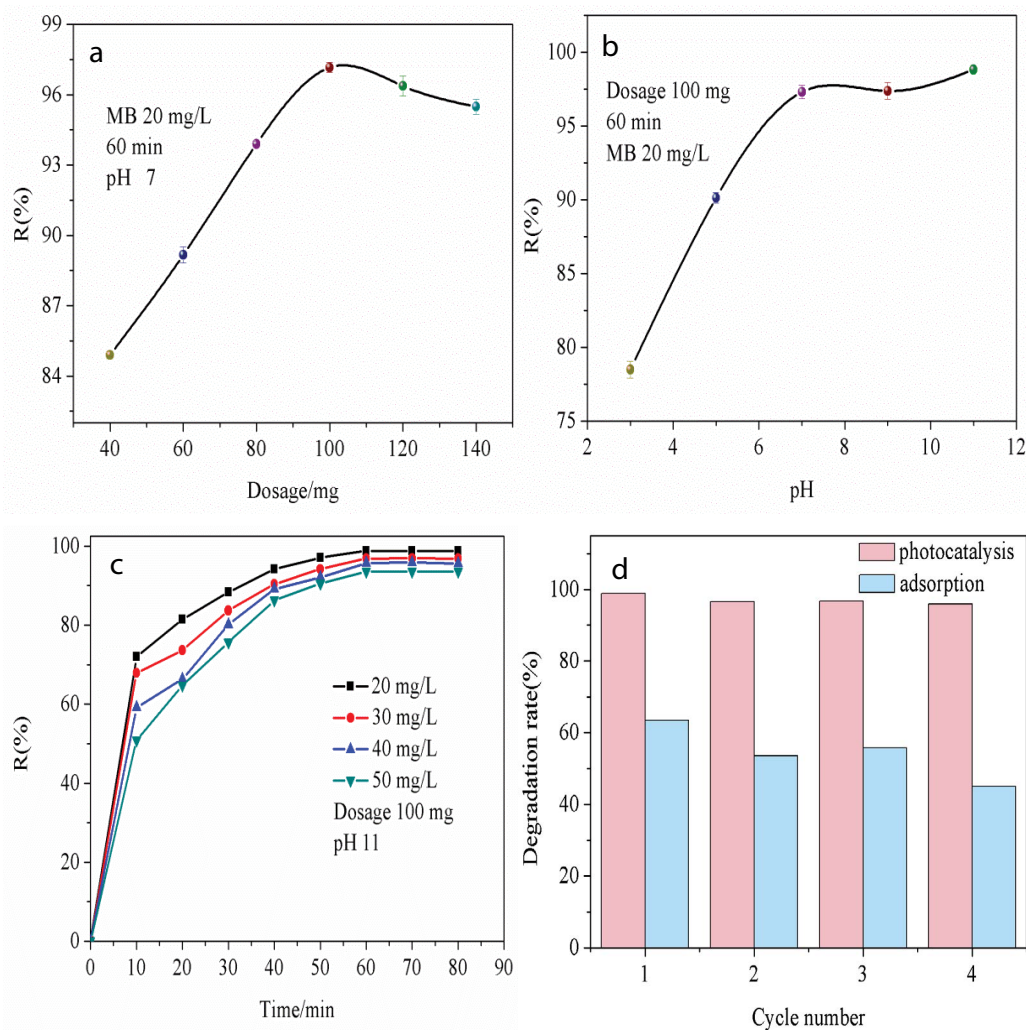


Fig. 7. Effect of parameters on the degradation rate of MB. (a) Dosage, (b) pH, (c) time, and (d) cyclic catalytic degradation rate of TiO_2/SGNs .

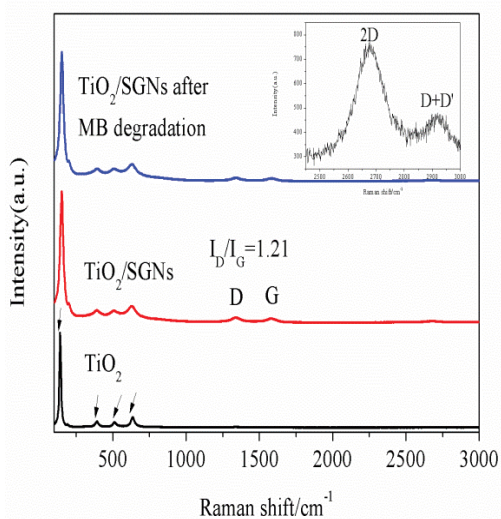


Fig. 8. Raman spectra of TiO_2 and TiO_2/SGNs before and after MB degradation.

20–50 mg L^{-1}) under UV irradiation is shown in Fig. 9. The apparent reaction rate (k), calculated from the slope of the exponential curve of the concentration plot in Fig. 9b. The results show that UV irradiation is more efficient than dark reaction, and TiO_2/SGNs composites are potentially more efficient than pure TiO_2 and SGNs (2 mg) with higher kinetics constant, indicating the combination of SGNs with TiO_2 enhanced greatly the photocatalytic activity of the TiO_2/SGNs composites.

With the increase of the initial concentration of MB, the apparent reaction rate constant decreases from 0.06292 to 0.04176 min^{-1} , indicating that the photocatalytic degradation rate is inversely proportional to the initial concentration of MB. At higher concentrations, the MB adsorption onto catalyst surface may reach saturation rapidly and slow down photocatalytic degradation [44], probably because electron transfer to the catalyst surface was intervened by adsorbed MB. Furthermore, MB and its intermediates could compete with each other for limited reactive sites on the catalyst surface, hence inhibiting the overall degradation of MB [46]. Compared with the literature reported [13,47,48], the

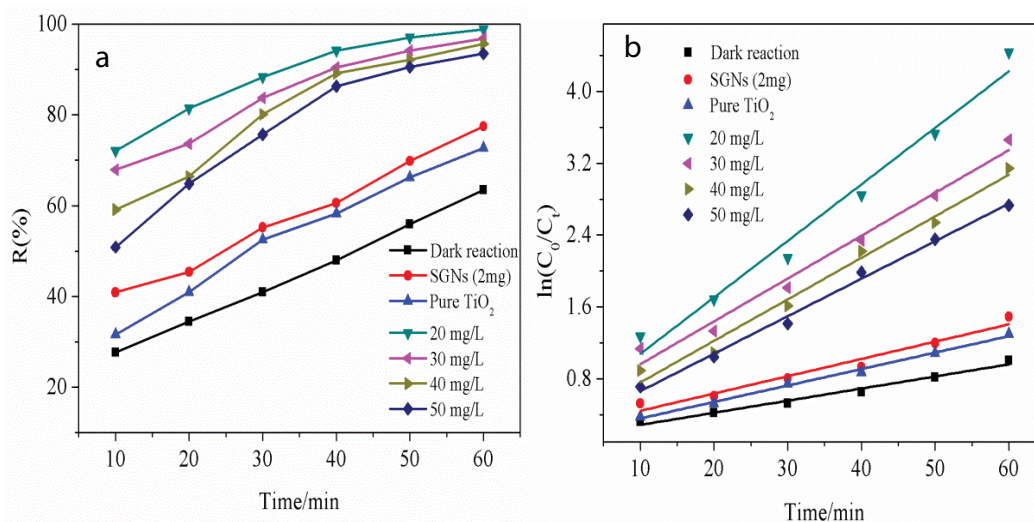


Fig. 9. (a) Degradation rate and (b) pseudo-first-order kinetics of MB under various conditions

moderate higher pseudo-first-order constants (k) were observed, indicating the excellent photocatalytic properties of the prepared TiO_2/SGNs composites catalyst.

4. Conclusion

A comprehensive work focused on TiO_2/SGNs prepared by hydrothermal method, and the experimental photocatalytic performance of these composites with different contents of SGNs was carried out. The results showed that TiO_2/SGNs composites are potentially more efficient than pure TiO_2 , due to a large number of π - π conjugated double bonds on the surface of graphene and a large number of organic molecules can be enriched on the graphene plane. XRD and Raman spectra confirmed that the prepared TiO_2 is anatase type. FT-IR and XPS spectra demonstrated that the hybrid formation in TiO_2/SGNs composites possibly through the Ti-O-C and Ti-O-Ti bonds. Additionally, the direct forbidden band energy E_g (2.85 eV) of TiO_2/SGNs composites is lower than that of TiO_2 (3.2 eV). Photocatalytic experiments show that the optimum reaction conditions are TiO_2/SGNs dosage 100 mg, pH 11, irradiated by UV light for 60 min. Kinetic study showed that TiO_2/SGNs photocatalytic degradation of MB fitted well with pseudo-first-order reaction, and the apparent reaction rate (k) decreases with increasing MB concentration. Thus, the photocatalytic experiments showed that the TiO_2/SGNs composites are efficient catalytic agents for the degradation of the MB.

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