



High-performance of Cu-TiO₂ for photocatalytic oxidation of formaldehyde under visible light and the mechanism study

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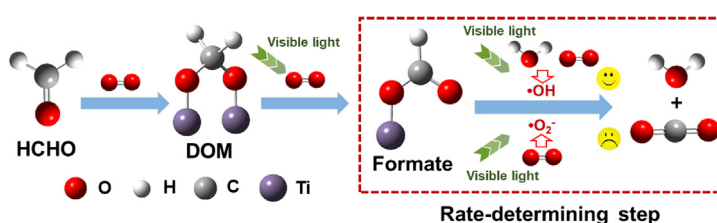
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Cu-TiO₂ has superior activity for photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO under visible light.
- The presence of H₂O greatly promote the activity for HCHO oxidation.
- CuO_x clusters on TiO₂ have the super reversibility between Cu (II) and Cu (I).
- [•]OH plays the crucial role in surface formate decomposition rather than the [•]O₂⁻.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Photocatalysis is regarded as a promising method for indoor formaldehyde (HCHO) removal, and there remains a strong demand for the development of highly efficient photocatalysts for HCHO oxidation under visible light. Herein, by grafting nano CuO_x clusters onto TiO₂, the higher performance is achieved over Cu-TiO₂ for the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO under visible light compared with the typical photocatalysts N-TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄. It is found that the presence of water greatly promotes the activity of HCHO oxidation on Cu-TiO₂. The characterization results indicate that the CuO_x clusters on TiO₂ exhibit high redox reversibility between Cu (II) and Cu (I) and greatly facilitate the migration of electrons. The mechanism of photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO was explored by using *in situ* DRIFTS measurements and DFT calculations. It is shown that HCHO is firstly oxidized to dioxymethylene (DOM), and then DOM is transformed into formate species under visible light irradiation. DFT calculations results indicate that the [•]OH species are responsible for surface formate decomposition, which is the rate-determining step, while [•]O₂⁻ radical is not active in formate decomposition. Our findings improve the understanding on the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO, and the Cu-TiO₂ catalyst is a promising candidate for practical application in indoor air purification.

1. Introduction

Formaldehyde (HCHO) is one of the most prevalent and noxious indoor gaseous pollutants, and its emission in dwellings mainly stems

from the use of inferior decorative materials [1,2]. HCHO is harmful to human health, and long-term exposure to excessive HCHO in the environment even causes cancer. To eliminate HCHO from indoor air, several techniques such as physical adsorption, plasma catalytic

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oxidation, and thermal catalytic oxidation have been intensively studied [3]. Adsorption materials usually have limited capacities. Plasma may generate harmful byproducts during the elimination of indoor gaseous pollutants. In thermal catalytic oxidation, supported noble metals, including Pt, Pd, and Au, have been reported as highly active catalysts for HCHO removal at ambient temperature [4–7]. However, the high price of noble metals greatly limits their wide application. Non-precious metal oxides, such as MnO₂, still show poor activity under ambient conditions, and thus are not suitable for indoor air HCHO elimination [8,9]. Therefore, it is highly desirable to develop low-cost catalytic materials and/or new methods with high efficiency for HCHO removal at room temperature.

Photocatalysis is currently regarded as an emerging and promising technology for degradation of indoor organic pollutants, such as toluene and acetone or other VOCs [10–17]. By applying an active photocatalyst under UV or visible irradiation, most indoor air pollutants can be well eliminated. TiO₂ is the benchmark photocatalyst and has many advantages, such as strong photocatalytic oxidation, room temperature activity, and photostability [18,19]. With its high energy band gap (ca. 3.0 eV for rutile and 3.2 eV for anatase), the application of TiO₂ is in need of ultraviolet light. Since UV light, especially UV-C light, is directly harmful to the human body, it is not suitable for the elimination of indoor air pollutants. Therefore, there remains a strong demand for the development of visible light responsive photocatalysts for indoor HCHO removal.

Immense efforts have been devoted to extending the photoactivity of TiO₂ into the visible range. Doping the TiO₂ lattice with anions (C, N, etc.) has been shown to introduce impurity states or to narrow the band gap for visible light absorption [20–25]. It was reported that HCHO was photo-degraded over N-doped or N/Ni-co-doped TiO₂ [23,26]. N-doped ZnO synthesized by a facile process was also employed to eliminate HCHO, as reported by Wu et al. [27]. Recently, Zhu et al. found that plasmonic Au/TiO₂ exhibited excellent HCHO oxidation activity under visible light, which originated from the cooperation of plasmonically excited photogenerated electrons on Au and surface-active oxygen species [28]. Song et al. showed that the novel material g-C₃N₄ has activity for the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO [29]. However, there is still a great need for the development of facile and efficient visible-light photocatalysts for application in indoor air purification.

Recently, the grafting of clusters of transition metals, such as Cu, Fe, Ni and Ag, onto TiO₂ was found to induce visible light absorption [30–34]. It was reported that the interfacial charge transfer (IFCT) process occurred under visible light when these metal clusters were grafted on TiO₂ [35–39]. Considering the excellent activity of transition metal-modified TiO₂ in the decomposition of dyes, it is worth exploring whether these catalysts are also highly efficient for the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO under visible light, and there is no related study to date. Furthermore, the mechanism of photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO has not been fully elucidated. Sun et al. found that $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ play dominant roles in the formation of formate, which is the main intermediate product [40], and Zhu et al. recently reported that moisture accelerates the oxidation of dioxymethylene (DOM) species to formate; however, the formate decomposition process was not considered [28]. Besides, the roles of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ in the photocatalytic oxidation of organic pollutants are the subject of debate. Some researchers hold that $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ plays the critical role, while others contend that $\cdot\text{OH}$ dominates in organic pollutant oxidation [41–45]. Thus, from the point of view of reactive intermediates and active species, it is crucially important to gain further insights into the mechanism of the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO.

In the present study, CuO_x clusters grafted onto TiO₂ catalysts were prepared and their performances in the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO under visible light were tested. The Cu-TiO₂ catalysts were next characterized by XRD, BET, XPS, EPR, etc., to investigate the structure-function relationship. Finally, the roles of O₂ and H₂O in the HCHO oxidation on Cu-TiO₂ were further investigated by using *in situ* DRIFTS

and DFT calculations.

2. Experiment

2.1. Synthesis of catalysts

TiO₂ was purchased from Aladdin, and Cu-TiO₂ was prepared by the impregnation method. 1.0 g TiO₂ was dispersed in a CuSO₄ aqueous solution (50 mL), in which the amount of Cu²⁺ relative to the amount of TiO₂ sample was 0.5 wt%. The resulting solution was placed into a water-bath kept at 90 °C for 1 h under stirring. The solid product was washed with deionized water several times and then dried in an oven at 70 °C for 24 h. Graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) was synthesized by heating melamine at 550 °C for 4 h. N-TiO₂ was prepared via a sol-gel method [46], wherein tetrabutyl titanate was mixed with a 0.1 M NH₄Cl solution, and the gels obtained subsequently dried at 373 K and finally calcined in air at 673 K for 4 h.

2.2. HCHO oxidation activity test

Activity tests for HCHO oxidation were performed at ambient temperature in a home-made flow reactor. The details of testing setup and the reactor are given in Figs. S1 and S2. 0.1 g of photocatalyst powder was first dispersed in 2 mL deionized water and then placed in a round stainless steel dish with diameter 80 mm, then dried naturally at room temperature, and finally was placed in the center of the reactor. A 500 W commercial Xe lamp (Beijing TrusTech Science and Technology Co., China) was used as the light source with an optical filter ($\lambda > 420$ nm). The light intensity was about 10.2 mW/cm². The concentrations of HCHO and CO₂ were measured by an FTIR spectrometer (Nicolet 380) equipped with a 2 m gas cell and a deuterated triglycine sulfate (DTGS) detector. The reactant gas was 250 ppm HCHO, 20 vol% O₂, RH 50% and N₂ balance. For the investigation of RH effect on HCHO conversion, the different RHs (5%, 30%, 60%, 80%) in mixed gases were controlled by changing the flow rate of N₂ bubbling through the water and the temperature of water bath. The volume of reactant gas was about 1.5 L. The gas was driven by a peristaltic pump and the flow rate was around 100 mL/min.

2.3. Characterization

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements of the catalysts were carried out on an X'Pert PRO MPD X-ray powder diffractometer (Japan) using Cu K α radiation operating at 40 kV and 40 mA. The patterns were measured over the 2 θ range from 10° to 90° with a scan step size of 0.02°. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the prepared samples were taken on a JEOL 2100F instrument operating at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The UV-vis diffuse reflection spectra (DRS) were obtained in air with Al₂O₃ as reference with a diffuse reflectance UV-vis Spectrophotometer (U-3310, Hitachi). The structure of the photocatalysts was investigated using X-band electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra, which were recorded at low temperature (90 K) using a Bruker E500 EPR spectrometer. The photoelectrochemical measurements were conducted on CHI 630B workstation; a slurry of the photocatalyst was spread onto fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass to prepare the working electrodes. Current-time curves were collected with a 0.1 V bias voltage. The working electrodes were immersed in NaSO₄ solution (0.1 M). A saturated Ag/AgCl electrode and a platinum wire were used as the reference electrode and the counter electrode, respectively. In situ DRIFTS spectra were recorded in an IS 50 FTIR equipped with a liquid N₂ cooled MCT detector. The sample (about 30 mg) was finely ground and placed in a ceramic crucible. The flow of feed gas mixture was controlled by mass flow meters. When H₂O was introduced, the RH was adjusted to 50%. All spectra were measured with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and accumulation of 100 scans. A background spectrum was subtracted from each

spectrum.

2.4. DFT computational details

The reaction process of HCOO^- and $\cdot\text{OH}/\text{O}_2$ was investigated by density functional theory (DFT) calculations using the Gaussian 09 program. The structures of neutral Ti_2O_4 clusters, $\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_4\text{-HCOO}^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}/^1\text{O}_2$ were optimized at the B3LYP/6-311 G (d, p) level. The H-abstraction of HCOO^- by $\cdot\text{OH}$ and $^1\text{O}_2$ was examined through relaxed potential energy surface (PES) scans using single internal coordinates. The selected local minima were used as starting equilibrium structures in the scans. For the PES scans in this work, the C–H chemical bond of HCOO^- being evaluated was elongated from the equilibrium bond length 1.1 Å in increments of 0.1 Å. At each step, the relevant bond length was fixed, while the remaining geometric parameters were optimized. The scan results were analyzed to reveal the reaction mechanisms. If there was a saddle point on the scan plot, the geometry corresponding to the saddle point was used for the initial guess structure for the transition state (TS) species optimization. Vibrational frequency calculations were also carried out to check that the IMs and TSs have zero and only one imaginary frequency, respectively. Intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) calculations were employed to check that a TS connects two appropriate local minima. The zero-point vibrational corrected energies (ΔH_0) are reported in this work.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Photocatalytic activity

The synthesized photocatalysts were tested in the photocatalytic oxidation of formaldehyde (PCO of HCHO). For comparison, N-doped TiO_2 and g- C_3N_4 photocatalysts, which are typical visible-light photocatalysts, were used as references. The reaction of HCHO oxidation was negligible when the control experiment was performed under visible irradiation in the absence of photocatalyst. Before the light was turned on, the adsorption of HCHO on the catalyst was allowed to reach equilibrium. Fig. 1a shows the concentration of HCHO versus illumination time over different catalysts under visible light. It is observed that Cu- TiO_2 has excellent activity for the PCO of HCHO, and 100% conversion of 250 ppm HCHO is reached after 140 min reaction under visible light. In contrast, the N- TiO_2 and g- C_3N_4 catalysts have very low activities for HCHO oxidation, and the HCHO conversion levels are 25% and 20%, respectively, after 140 min. The gas products of HCHO oxidation were also examined, and CO_2 was the only gaseous product. As shown in Fig. 1b, the concentration of CO_2 produced on the N- TiO_2 and

g- C_3N_4 samples correspond to the concentration of converted HCHO. As for Cu- TiO_2 , considering the carbon balance, 250 ppm gaseous HCHO and surface pre-adsorbed HCHO-related species are both oxidized to CO_2 , therefore the final detected CO_2 concentrations exceed 250 ppm. It can be deduced that the PCO of HCHO reaction takes place on the surface of Cu- TiO_2 , rather than a remote oxidation.

The influence of water vapor on the activity of Cu- TiO_2 was also investigated. Fig. 1c shows a comparison of HCHO conversion levels over Cu- TiO_2 for 140 min visible light illumination under different relative humidity levels. The performance of Cu- TiO_2 is very low when the RH was 5%, and the HCHO conversion is only 40%. With increasing RH from 5% RH to 80% RH, the HCHO conversion is enhanced to 100%. The effects of RH on the performances of N- TiO_2 and g- C_3N_4 were also investigated and the results are shown in Fig. S3. With increasing the RH, the activity of the N- TiO_2 is clearly enhanced, while the activity of the g- C_3N_4 first rise and then fall at 80% RH. It is known that there is usually an optimum RH for the PCO performance, and the rate of PCO reaction will firstly increase then decrease with increasing RH. The negative effect of water vapor on reaction at high RH is mainly attributed to the competitive adsorption of H_2O . However, we do not observe an optimum RH during the PCO of HCHO over Cu- TiO_2 , and the H_2O still greatly promotes the HCHO conversion even at 80% RH. Generally, HCHO binds with a Lewis acid site (Ti_{5c}) on metal oxides and then easily reacts with surface active oxygen species to form the dioxymethylene (DOM) species [28]. In contrast, the water adsorption involves a hydrogen bonding interaction with the surface hydroxyl groups of TiO_2 and/or other water molecules. Clearly, HCHO is more strongly adsorbed onto the TiO_2 surface than H_2O molecules. Therefore, the competitive adsorption of H_2O may not be the key factor influencing the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO, and there should be another key step determining the overall HCHO conversion rate.

3.2. Characterization

The crystallographic structures of the as-synthesized samples were confirmed by XRD measurements. As shown in Fig. 2, Cu- TiO_2 exhibits the standard rutile XRD pattern [JCPDS no. 21-1276, space group: P42/mnm]. No diffraction peaks of Cu or CuO_x appear, indicating that the Cu species are well dispersed on the surface of TiO_2 . The N- TiO_2 sample exhibits the standard anatase XRD pattern and g- C_3N_4 shows its typical diffraction peaks at 27.5° and 13.0° , which could be indexed to the (0 0 2) and (1 0 0) planes of graphite-like carbon nitride [45,47]. The BET surface areas of Cu- TiO_2 , N- TiO_2 and g- C_3N_4 are measured as about 50, 80 and $14 \text{ m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ respectively. According to the ICP-OES results, the content of Cu in Cu- TiO_2 is 0.45 wt%. HR-TEM image of the Cu- TiO_2

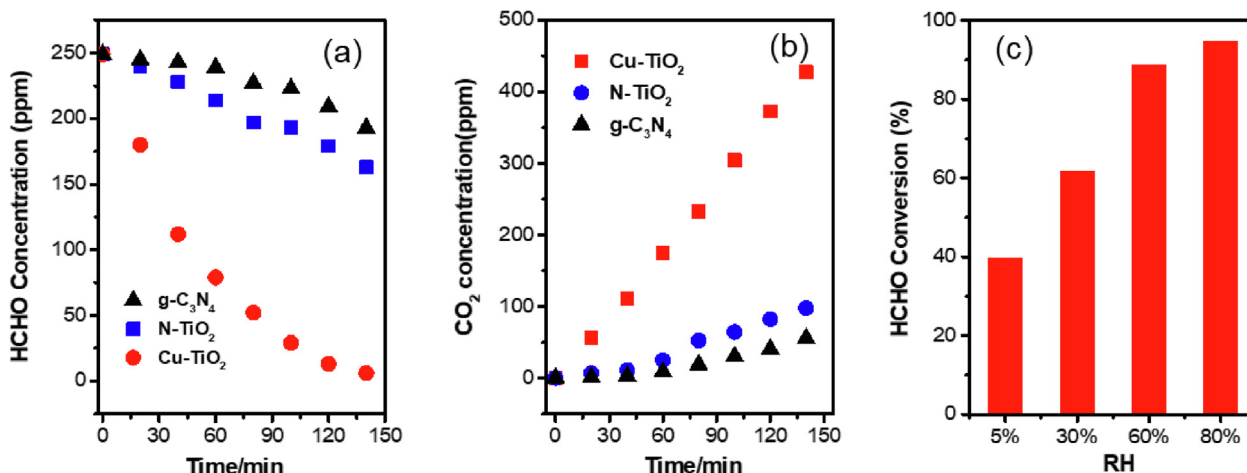


Fig. 1. Photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO: (a) HCHO concentration vs reaction time (b) CO_2 production over Cu- TiO_2 , N- TiO_2 , g- C_3N_4 , and (c) HCHO conversion at different RH over Cu- TiO_2 .

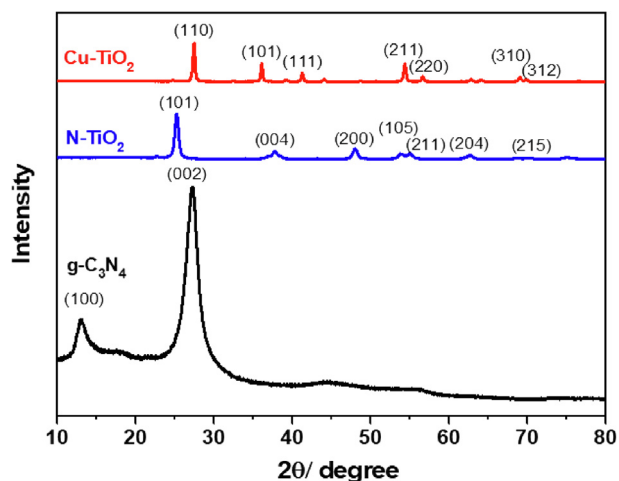


Fig. 2. X-ray diffraction patterns of synthesized samples.

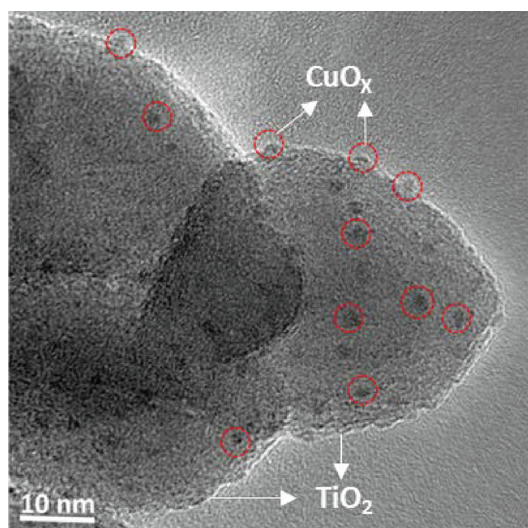


Fig. 3. HR-TEM image of Cu-TiO₂.

sample is presented in Fig. 3. The image shows that the CuO_x clusters are uniformly distributed on the surface of TiO₂, and the size of the CuO_x clusters is approximately 1–2 nm. Previous studies demonstrated that CuO_x clusters attach to the TiO₂ surface via binding of O atoms in the clusters with unsaturated 5c-Ti atoms [48].

XPS analysis was employed to further detect the chemical states of the surface CuO_x on Cu-TiO₂. As shown in Fig. 4a, Cu-TiO₂ exhibits two peaks of Cu 2p_{1/2} (952.9 eV) and Cu 2p_{3/2} (933.1 eV), respectively, which can be assigned to either Cu⁰ or Cu⁺ because the binding energies of both states are nearly the same and cannot be discerned by XPS [36,38,49]. Since Cu-TiO₂ was synthesized by a facile impregnation method with copper nitrate and no subsequent reduction, it is unlikely that the CuO_x contained copper in the Cu⁰ state. We further conducted an EPR experiment to explore the structure of CuO_x. As shown in Fig. 4b, no EPR signal is detected before grafting of CuO_x species on TiO₂. After CuO_x is loaded on TiO₂, an EPR signal with the g factor of 2.394 appears, and this signal is ascribed to Cu²⁺ species [50]. We also carried out FTIR measurements to investigate the states present in CuO_x by using CO adsorption as a probe, and the results are presented in Fig. S4. An IR band at 2104 cm⁻¹ appears after CO adsorption, which is attributed to linearly adsorbed CO species on Cu⁺ sites (Cu⁺-CO) [49]. These results indicate that Cu²⁺ and Cu⁺ species may coexist on the surface of Cu-TiO₂; furthermore, the surface Cu²⁺ are easily reduced to Cu⁺ by CO adsorption or by x-ray beam irradiation in

the high-vacuum chamber of the XPS instrument. Thus, it is suggested that the Cu species on the surface of Cu-TiO₂ have high redox reversibility between Cu (II) and Cu (I).

Visible light absorption is obviously a crucial precondition for a visible-light-sensitive photocatalyst. The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the samples were measured. As displayed in Fig. 5, the absorption intensity of TiO₂ starts to increase at ~410 nm, corresponding to the band gap of 3.0 eV. In case of Cu-TiO₂, the spectra show absorption in the ~700–800 nm region, which can be attributed to the Cu (II) d-d transition, and also a shoulder peak at ~450 nm, which might be due to direct interfacial charge transfer from the VB of TiO₂ to Cu²⁺ species, as reported by Hashimoto et al. [36]. N-TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ are typical visible-light-sensitive photocatalysts, and used as reference materials here. Fig. S5 shows that N-TiO₂ has a broad absorption in the visible region centered at about 450 nm, which is the characteristic absorption of N-doped TiO₂ [20,21]. The absorption edge of the g-C₃N₄ sample is about 460 nm, which corresponds well with the band gap of pristine g-C₃N₄ (2.7 eV) [47].

The separation of photoexcited charges is the crucial step that determines the photocatalytic efficiency of a photocatalyst. Transient photocurrent is often used to investigate the charge separation efficiency. Fig. 6 displays the photocurrent curves of the samples under visible light. Negligible photocurrent is detected for the pure TiO₂ electrodes owing to their wide band gaps. After grafting with CuO_x nanoclusters, the photocurrent of Cu-TiO₂ noticeably increases. In contrast, the prepared N-TiO₂ and g-C₃N₄ exhibits photocurrents that are clearly lower compared with Cu-TiO₂. Previous studies have reported that the interfacial charge transfer (IFCT) process between TiO₂ and metal oxides can greatly enhance the charge separation [33,37], thus the remarkably increased photocurrent on Cu-TiO₂ under visible light may stem from IFCT. High photocurrent indicates a low rate of recombination of electron-hole pairs, and the photocurrent results agree well with the results of the activity tests, in which Cu-TiO₂ exhibits the higher performance for HCHO oxidation than N-TiO₂ or g-C₃N₄.

The interfacial charge transfer behavior in Cu-TiO₂ was further characterized by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The capacitance arc of the EIS Nyquist plot reveals the conductivity of materials, as well as the charge migration kinetics during the photocatalytic process. As shown in Fig. 7. Cu-TiO₂ exhibits a smaller capacitance arc than that of TiO₂, suggesting that CuO_x clusters can be functional as an electron collector and transporter in Cu-TiO₂, thus facilitating the process of interfacial charge transfer. In combination with the results on the chemical states of CuO_x on Cu-TiO₂ (Fig. 4, Fig. S4), which suggest high redox reversibility between Cu (II) and Cu (I) on the Cu-TiO₂ surface, it is reasonable that the photoexcited electrons are inclined to be captured by Cu (II) and then produce Cu (I) under visible light, and Cu (I) is next rapidly oxidized by O₂ to recover to Cu (II), therefore greatly enhancing the migration of photoexcited electrons.

3.3. Mechanism of the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO

In order to identify the intermediates in the PCO of HCHO over Cu-TiO₂, a series of in situ DRIFTS experiments was conducted. DRIFTS spectra were measured in the range of 1800–1000 cm⁻¹ over Cu-TiO₂ with the introduction of the HCHO and O₂, and the results are shown in Fig. S6. Four peaks quickly appear at 1096, 1147, 1171, and 1407 cm⁻¹, which are all attributed to the dioxymethylene (DOM) species [51]. Meanwhile, formate species (1545, 1358 and 1377 cm⁻¹) for ν(COO⁻) are also formed [52,53], indicating that some DOM are converted into formate species. As shown in Fig. 8, the DOM species rapidly disappear when the visible light is introduced, which is revealed by the disappearance of the peaks at 1096, 1147, and 1171 cm⁻¹. At the same time, the peaks of formate at 1545, 1358 and 1377 cm⁻¹ continually increase, indicating that formate species are accumulated

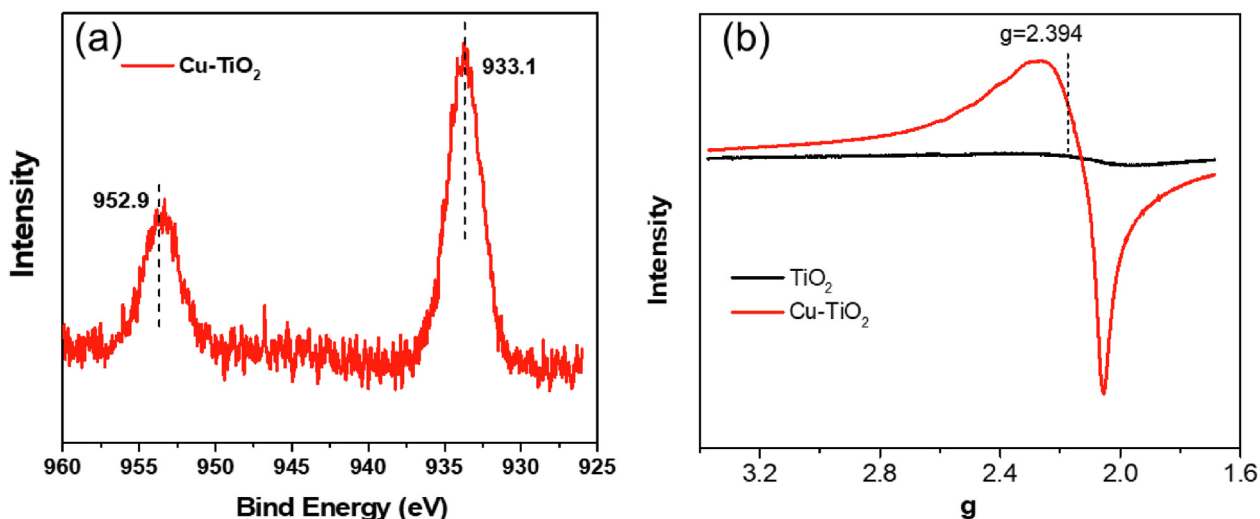


Fig. 4. High resolution Cu 2p XPS spectra (a) and EPR spectra (b) of Cu-TiO₂.

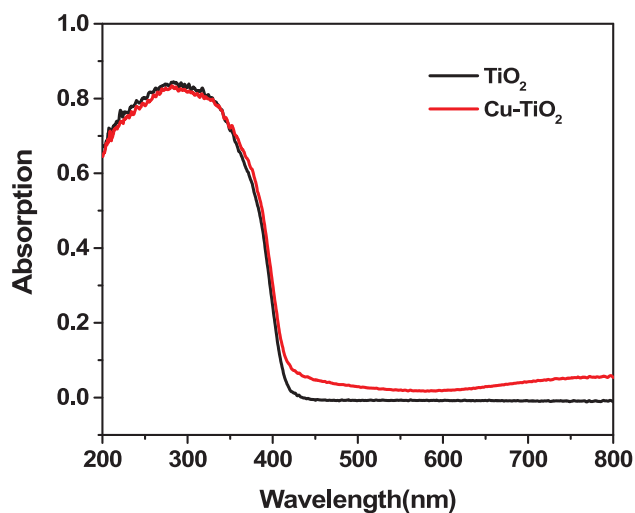


Fig. 5. UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of the samples.

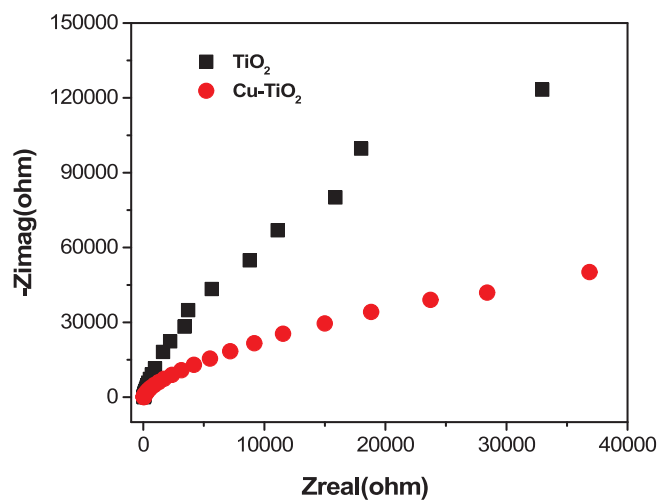


Fig. 7. EIS Nyquist plots of the prepared TiO₂ and Cu-TiO₂ electrodes under visible-light irradiation.

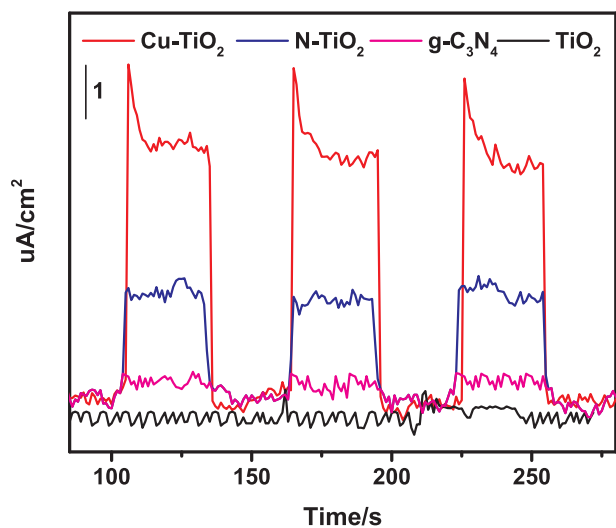


Fig. 6. Photocurrent curves vs time of the samples under visible light.

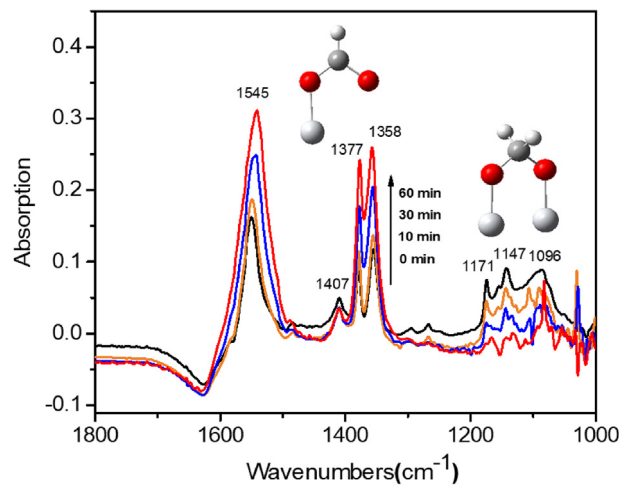


Fig. 8. In situ DRIFTS spectra over Cu-TiO₂ in a flow of He + HCHO + O₂ under visible light. Reaction conditions: 120 ppm of HCHO, 20% O₂, He balance, total flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹.

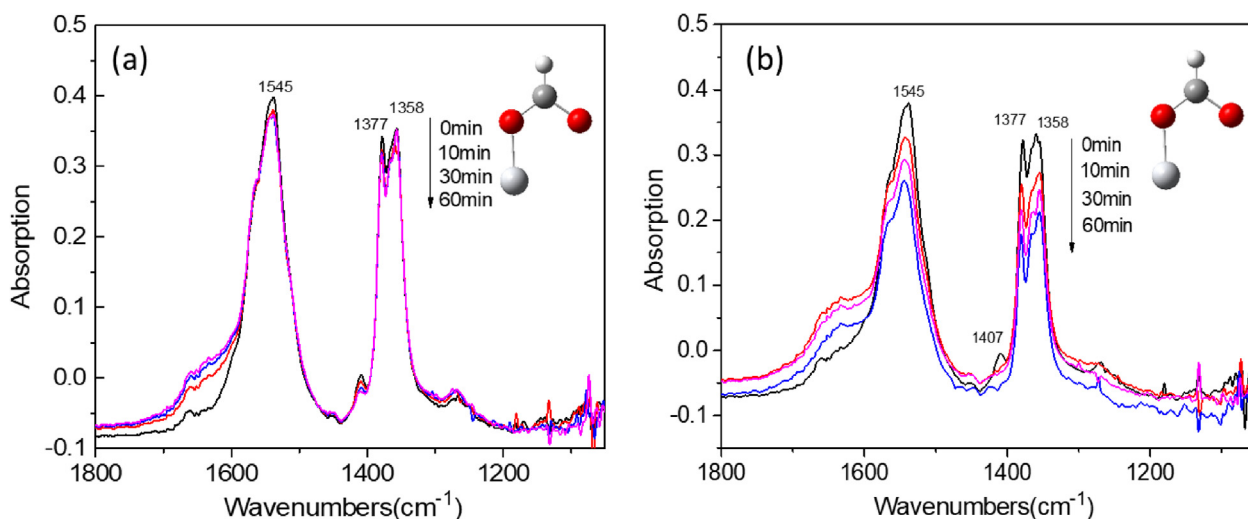


Fig. 9. Dynamic changes in situ DRIFTS spectra over Cu-TiO₂ after O₂ (a) and O₂ and H₂O (b) purging 20% O₂, 50% RH, He balance, total flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹.

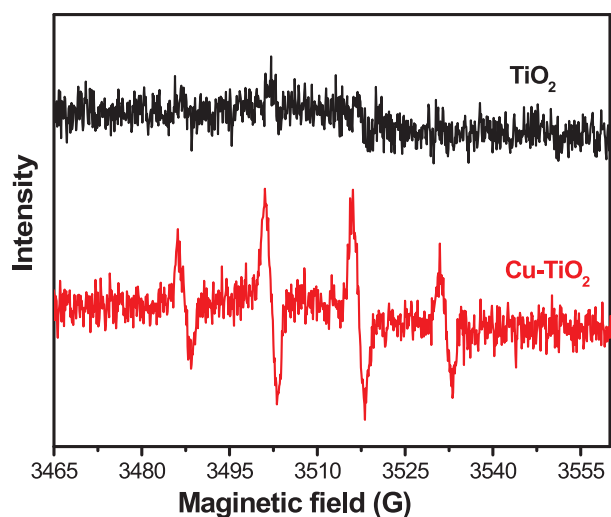


Fig. 10. DMPO spin-trapping EPR spectra after 5 min visible irradiation in aqueous solutions over different samples.

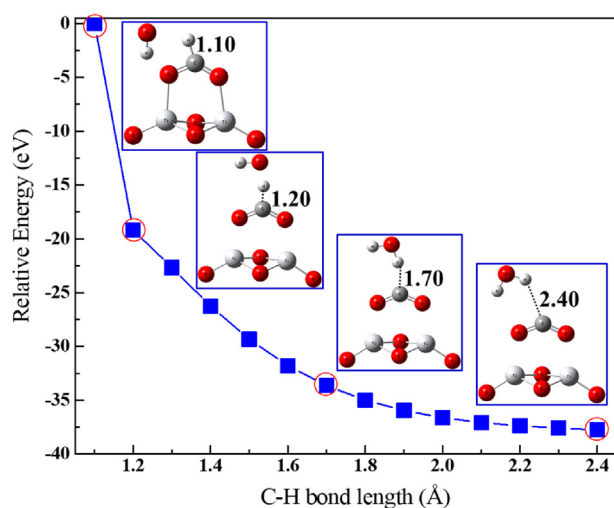


Fig. 11. Potential energy curve for the breaking process of HCOO⁻ at the B3LYP/6-311 G (d, p) level. The dotted line denotes the relative energy of Ti₂O₄-HCOO⁻ + ·OH.

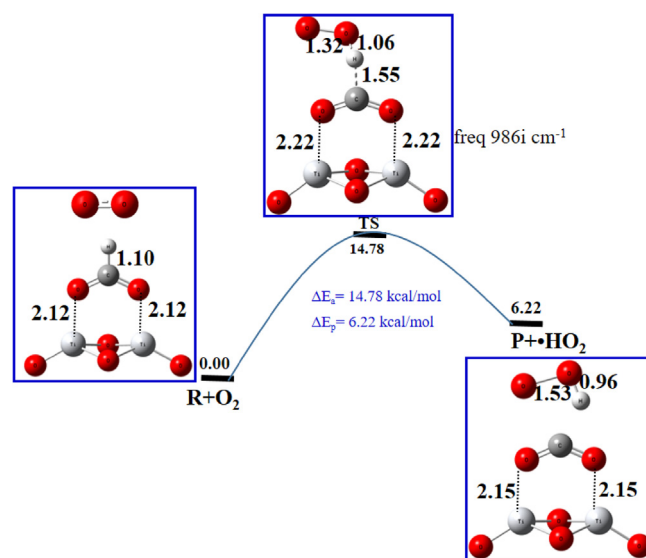


Fig. 12. Potential energy profile for HCOO⁻ oxidation by ¹O₂, the bond length and the relative energies are in units of Å and kcal/mol, respectively.

on the surface of Cu-TiO₂. It is suggested that DOM is oxidized to formate species in the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO. The flow of HCHO and O₂ are next switched to O₂ only. As shown in Fig. 9a, no obvious changes are observed in the spectra after 60 min exposure to O₂ under visible light, indicating that the adsorbed formate species remain very stable toward O₂ under visible light irradiation. H₂O is next introduced into the flow, as shown in Fig. 9b, a quick decrease in the bands related to formate species is observed in the DRIFTS spectra. Therefore, it is clear that H₂O promotes the process of formate decomposition.

Intermediate reactive oxygen species play a very important role in the photocatalytic oxidation process. In case of the Cu-TiO₂, many researchers have recently reported that holes and electrons are generated due to the interfacial charge transfer process under visible light irradiation [35,54]. When there is no water vapor, the dominant reactive species are the holes and ·O₂⁻ formed by the activation of O₂ by photoexcited electrons, which has been measured by MCLA chemiluminescence by Nosaka et al [54]. We conducted EPR experiments with DMPO as the trapping agent to explore the reactive oxygen species in Cu-TiO₂. As shown in Fig. 10, the characteristic peaks of DMPO·OH

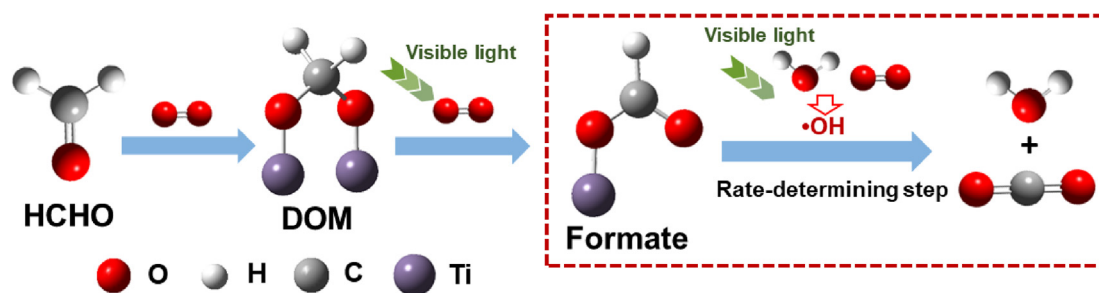
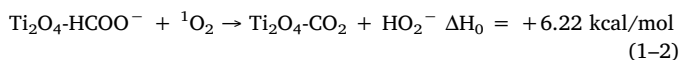
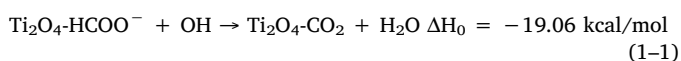


Fig. 13. Schematic illustration of the reaction process for the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO over Cu-TiO₂.

adducts appear under visible light in Cu-TiO₂, indicating the formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$. In contrast, no signals of DMPO- $\cdot\text{OH}$ adducts are observed in the case of TiO₂. Fig. S7 shows that Cu-TiO₂ can also produce $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ under visible light. These results suggest that when H₂O is available, Cu-TiO₂ produces $\cdot\text{OH}$ species under visible light, participating in the PCO of HCHO. Since the competitive adsorption of H₂O is not the key factor influencing the PCO of HCHO and the higher RH is favorable for the production of more $\cdot\text{OH}$ species, the increase of the RH greatly enhances the HCHO conversions even at a high RH of 80%.

To further understand the key active species in the process of formate decomposition in the photocatalytic oxidation of HCHO, a series of DFT calculations were conducted. When $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals attack the formate species on TiO₂, the PES scans are carried out to run for a C-H distance from 1.10 to 2.40 Å in 0.1 Å increments. The plot of the PES scan and corresponding structures are shown in Fig. 11. When the C-H distance is 1.10 Å, there is only weak interaction between HCOO⁻ and $\cdot\text{OH}$. The total energy of Ti₂O₄-C(OO)...H-OH decreased from -19.19 to -33.63 kcal/mol, as the C-H bond is elongated from 1.20 to 1.70 Å. The hydrogen of HCOO⁻ is abstracted by $\cdot\text{OH}$ when the C-H distance was 1.70 Å. There is no saddle point in the scan plot, which means that no transition state existed in the process of $\cdot\text{OH}$ attack the HCOO⁻. In other words, the abstraction of hydrogen from HCOO⁻ by $\cdot\text{OH}$ is exothermic ($\Delta H_0 = -19.06$ kcal/mol) and barrierless (Eq. (1-1)). The process of the excited O₂ attacking the formate has also been calculated (Fig. 12). This transfer of hydrogen from HCOO⁻ to ¹O₂ has to overcome a barrier of 14.78 kcal/mol, and absorb heat ($\Delta H_0 = +6.22$ kcal/mol) (Eq. (1-2)). These results clearly show that this process is thermodynamically and kinetically unfavorable. In fact, holes and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ are the main reactive oxygen species under dry conditions, and the HCHO oxidation activity is very poor. The DRIFTS result also shows that the formate species remain intact in the presence of O₂, showing that $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ is not the main active species in HCHO oxidation. When H₂O is introduced into the flow, the main reactive oxygen species are changed to holes, $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$, and the activity is greatly enhanced. Thus, the theoretical calculations strongly support and interpret the experimental observation that $\cdot\text{OH}$ plays an important role in promoting photocatalytic HCHO oxidation.



Based on the above results, we deduced that HCHO oxidation undergoes a series of sequential reaction steps. As shown in Fig. 13, HCHO is firstly adsorbed on the surface of Cu-TiO₂, and CH₂O₂ is quickly formed because the HCHO is easily oxidized by surface-active oxygen or hydroxyl. CH₂O₂ is not a stable intermediate species and is further transformed to the stable formate species. This process even takes place under dark conditions, and is greatly enhanced when visible light excites the Cu-TiO₂, in which the active holes and $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ play significant roles. Formate decomposition as the rate-determining step in the catalytic oxidation of HCHO has been extensively reported [52,55].

Formate is decomposed by reacting with surface hydroxyls activated by Pt or Pd metals, and directly converted to CO₂ and H₂O; this path is preferred over the decomposition of formate to CO followed by CO oxidation [52]. In our present studies, when the flow is H₂O-free, the formate species are hardly decomposed, resulting in overall poor HCHO activity. However, under moist conditions, the formate is gradually decomposed, therefore leading to an enhanced HCHO conversion. Previous studies have reported that $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ plays the critical role in the oxidation of many organic pollutants, in which the scission of C-C bonds is realized by inserting the oxygen of O₂ into the C-C bonds [56,57]. However, $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ is not the active species in the dehydrogenation process of formate species to form CO₂. It should be noted that even through $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ does not directly participate in the decomposition of formate, $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ is able to produce $\cdot\text{OH}$ by reacting with H₂O. Hence, it can be inferred that $\cdot\text{OH}$ dominates the dehydrogenation step in organic pollutant oxidation.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we constructed a Cu-TiO₂ catalyst with nano CuO_x clusters grafted onto TiO₂. The Cu-TiO₂ catalyst demonstrates much higher performance than N-TiO₂ or g-C₃N₄ for the PCO of HCHO, reaching 100% HCHO conversion to CO₂ within 140 min. The CuO_x clusters on TiO₂ exhibit high redox reversibility between Cu (II) and Cu (I) and greatly facilitate the separation of holes and electrons. The presence of H₂O greatly promotes the activity for HCHO oxidation, and *in situ* DRIFTS and DFT calculations results confirm that $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical plays the crucial role in surface formate decomposition, rather than $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$. These findings will deepen our understanding of the photocatalytic oxidation of organic contaminants.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2020.124481>.

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