

Supplementary material

**Chemical recycling of the wasted anodic electrolyte from TiO₂ nanotube
preparation process to synthesize facet-controlled TiO₂ single crystals as an
efficient photocatalyst**

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1 **1. Preparation of anodic electrolyte**

2 The anodization process was carried out in a voltage-regulated mode. A home-
3 made two-electrode configuration was adopted, and Ti foils were used for both anode
4 and cathode. Initially, a 0.30-mm Ti foil was burnished and immersed in the chemical
5 polishing solution (HF:HNO₃:H₂O = 1:1:2, in volume ratio) to remove oxide layer
6 and blot, and finally cleaned with soap, acetone and isopropanol before and after
7 chemical polishing. Later, anodization was conducted in 0.09 M NH₄F solution
8 (prepared using 8 ml de-ionized water and 72 ml ethylene glycol as the mixed solvent)
9 under continuous stirring. All electrolytes were prepared from reagent grade
10 chemicals. The electrochemical treatment was conducted by applying a potential
11 scanning from the open-circuit potential first to 80 V for 2 min, then to 70 V for 2 min,
12 60 V for 2 min and 50 V for 2 min, then repeated this voltage-regulated process and
13 finally to 40 V for 120 min at ambient temperature (20 ± 3 °C).

14 The voltage-regulated anodization produced a TNTs stratification layer of
15 approximately 7-8 μm and a milk-like wasted electrolyte (Fig. S1). The stratification
16 layer might be generated when stepping initially to a lower voltage and keeping for a
17 time period to sufficiently establish its diffusion and field conditions, and then
18 stepping back to the original high voltage,¹ and it usually possessed a high
19 photoactivity for various environmental applications.^{2,3}

20

21 **2. Preparation of TiO₂ nanocrystals**

22 *2.1. Effect of calcination temperature on TiO₂ nanocrystals*

23 Calcinating at relatively low temperature, such as 300, 400 and 450°C, the
24 obtained TiO₂ nanoparticles were covered by the residual carbon from anodic
25 ethylene glycol electrolyte due to the incomplete carbonization (Fig. S4C). Samples
26 prepared under these conditions were poorly dispersed and did not show any one
27 single nanocrystal as well as photoactivity. Organic removals on these photocatalysts
28 were attributed mainly to the physical adsorption by the residual carbon.

29 When the calcination temperature was too high, e.g., 700 and 800°C, the as-
30 prepared TiO₂ nanocrystals were not individually dispersed. Instead, they were easily
31 connected with each other along [001] direction to minimize the surface free energy,
32 resulting in the formation of mesopores.⁴⁻⁶ Certainly, the particles would shrink and
33 decreased the particle size from micronmeter (TiO₂ polycrystalline) to nanometer
34 scale (TiO₂ nanocrystalline) (Fig. S4D-H). This inevitably resulted in space between
35 nanocrystals to create the porous structure in the TiO₂ nanocrystals.

36

37 2.2. Effect of temperature ramping rate on TiO₂ nanocrystals

38 At relatively low temperature ramping rates, e.g., 1, 3 and 5 °C/min, the retention
39 times of the two function reactants (F and ethylene glycol) were sufficiently short to
40 accomplish “dissolution-recrystallization” reaction and enable the formation of TiO₂
41 nanocrystals (Fig. S5A-C). However, when the temperature ramping rate was
42 increased to a higher level, e.g., 10 and 20°C/min, the F and ethylene glycol were
43 evaporated out of muffle furnace too slowly and retained within the system too long
44 to retain “dissolution-recrystallization” reaction due to the chemical etching by

45 excessive F.⁷ Thus, the resultant TiO₂ samples showed no single crystal
46 characteristics (Fig. S5D and E).

47

48 2.3. Effect of calcination time on TiO₂ nanocrystals

49 When the sample was calcinated for 1 h, it was too short to accomplish
50 “dissolution-recrystallization” reaction as well as the successful formation of well-
51 dispersed TiO₂ single crystal (Fig. S6A). However, a very long calcination duration
52 would lead to the crystallographic fusion of TiO₂ nanocrystals, increased particle size
53 and pore size, and decreased specific surface area, although the morphology and
54 crystalline phase of TiO₂ remained unchanged (Fig. S6D). Only calcination for 3 and
55 5 h could cause shrink of TiO₂ particles and lead to a decrease in the particle size
56 from micrometer (TiO₂ polycrystalline) to nanometer scale (TiO₂ nanocrystalline)
57 (Fig. S6B and C).

58

59 3. XPS of TiO₂ nanocrystals

60 The XPS result (Fig. S12A) indicate that the TiO₂ nanocrystal was composed of
61 Ti, O, N, and F elements, and the corresponding photoelectron peaks appeared
62 respectively at binding energies of 458.8 (Ti2p), 529.7 (O1s), 399.5 eV (N1s) and
63 684.4 (F1s). Ti, O, and F elements should have come from surface fluorinated TiO₂
64 nanocrystals. N was originated from the self-incorporation into the TiO₂ nanocrystal
65 particles. The atomic ratio of Ti:O was approximately 1:2 (Fig. S12B and C).

66 The XPS spectrum of N1s core electrons in C-TiO_{2-x}N_x samples exhibited several

67 binding energies of 399.7, 400.7 and 407.1 eV (Fig. S12D), respectively. Specifically,
68 the N1s peak at 399.7 and 400.7 eV were attributed to the incorporated nitrogen in
69 titania as interstitial N or O-Ti-N, while the N1s peak at 407.1 eV should be
70 originated from surface-adsorbed or contaminated nitrogen species.^{8,9}

71 The XPS spectrums of F1s core electrons in TiO_{2-x}N_x and C-TiO_{2-x}N_x samples
72 both showed a binding energy at 684.6 eV (Fig. S12E), which is a typical value for
73 fluorated TiO₂ systems and could be ascribed to F⁻ ions physically adsorbed on the
74 TiO₂ surface (such as the surface Ti-F species formed by ligand exchange between F⁻
75 and surface hydroxyl groups, ≡Ti-OH + F⁻ → ≡Ti-F + OH⁻).¹⁰ No signal for F⁻ in the
76 lattice of TiO₂ (BE = 688.5 eV) was found. Thus, the atomic incorporation of F atoms
77 or their substitution for O atoms in the anatase TiO₂ crystal lattice (doping) can be
78 ruled out. Previous works have demonstrated that the formation of Ti-F bond can
79 significantly lower the surface free energy of the {001} facets and reversely make
80 them more stable than {101} facets, thus enabling the formation of anatase TiO₂
81 single crystals with a large percentage of reactive {001} facets.⁸

82 The XPS spectra of C 1s in C-TiO_{2-x}N_x samples showed several peaks at 284.65,
83 286.05 and ca. 288.5 eV (Fig. S12F), respectively. The C 1s peak at 284.65 eV is
84 usually assigned to adventitious elemental carbon because of the residual carbon from
85 the precursor solution and the hydrocarbon present in the XPS instrument itself, while
86 the peaks at 286.05 and ca. 288.5 eV suggest the existence of carbonate species.^{11,12}
87 However, the peak around 281 eV, intrinsically resulting from the Ti-C bond, was not
88 observed in the samples. Thus, all the C was adsorbed onto surface but not doped into

89 the TiO₂ nanocrystals in our study.

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91 **Notes and references**

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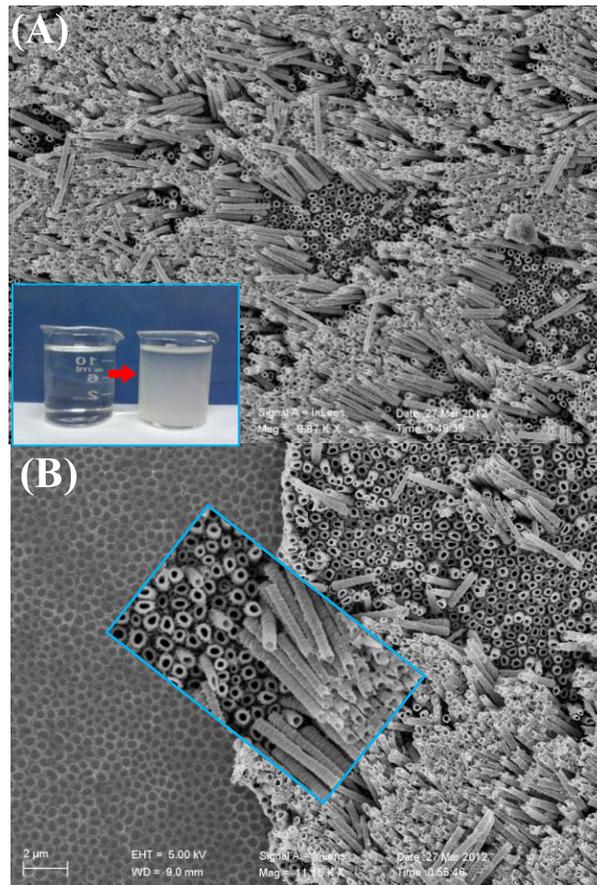


Fig. S1 SEM images of the hierarchical TNTs arrays and optical photo of the residual milk-like electrolyte (inset) from anodization process.

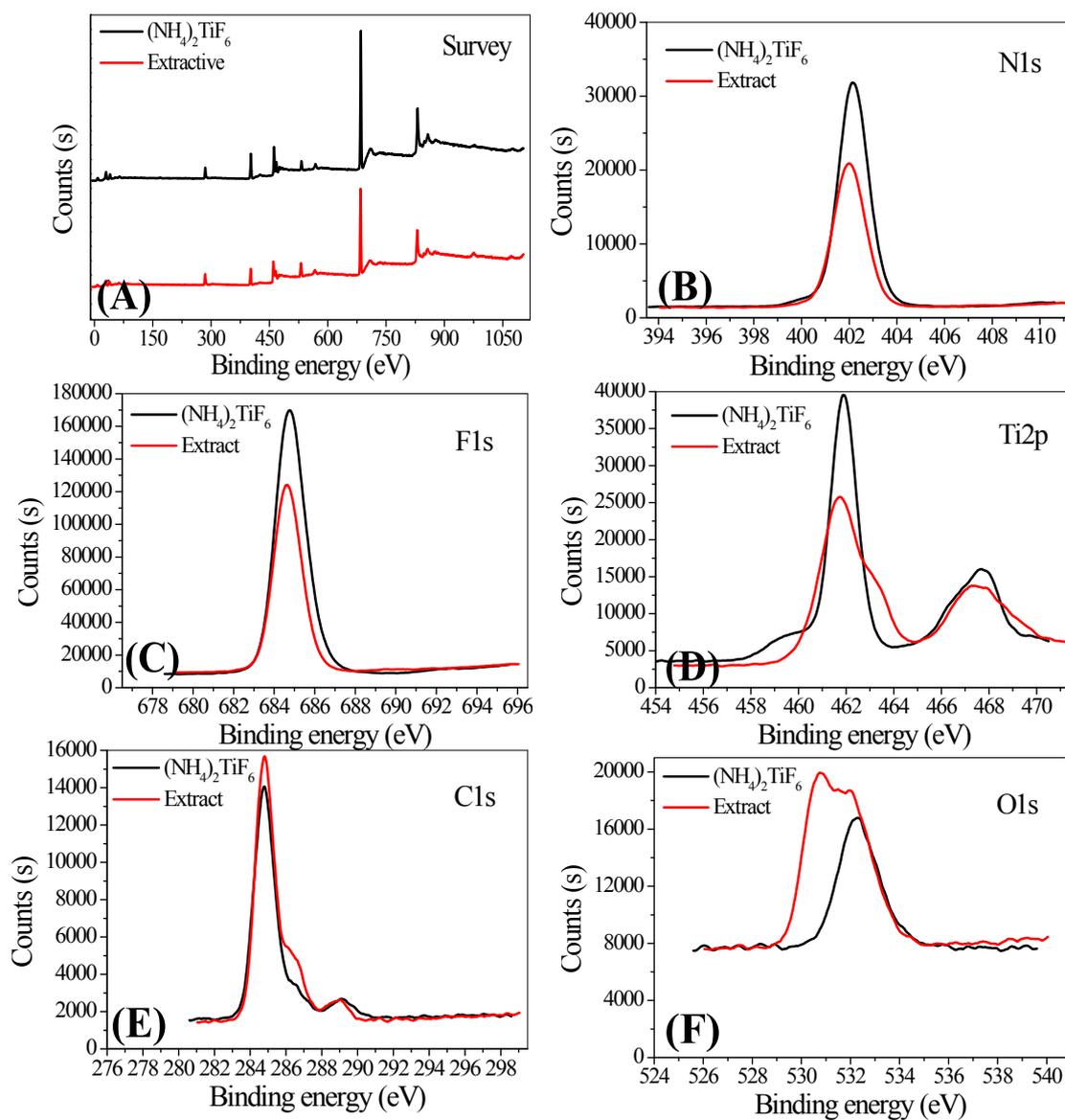


Fig. S2. XPS survey (A) and high-resolution spectras (B, C, D, E and F) for the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{TiF}_6$ and the extract from wasted anodic electrolyte used in this study.

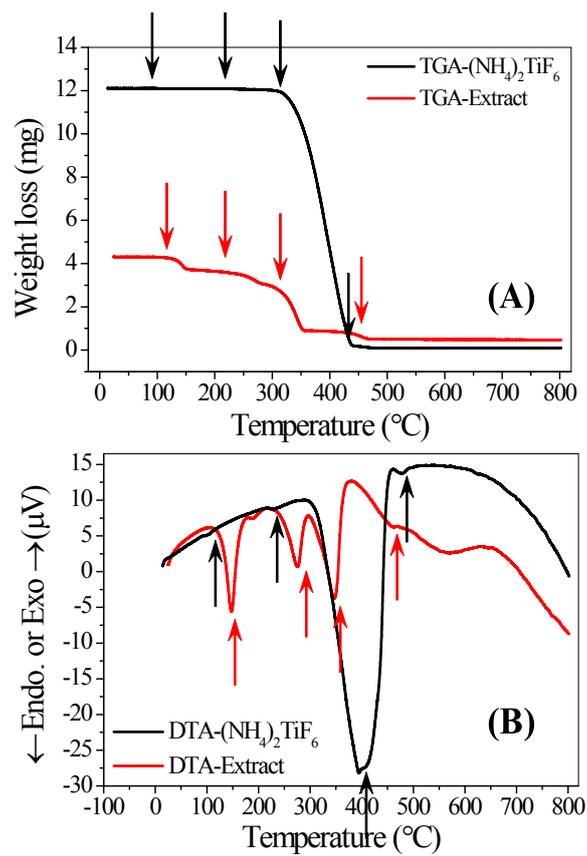


Fig. S3. TGA curves (A) and DTA curves (B) for the $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{TiF}_6$ and the extract from wasted anodic electrolyte used in this study.

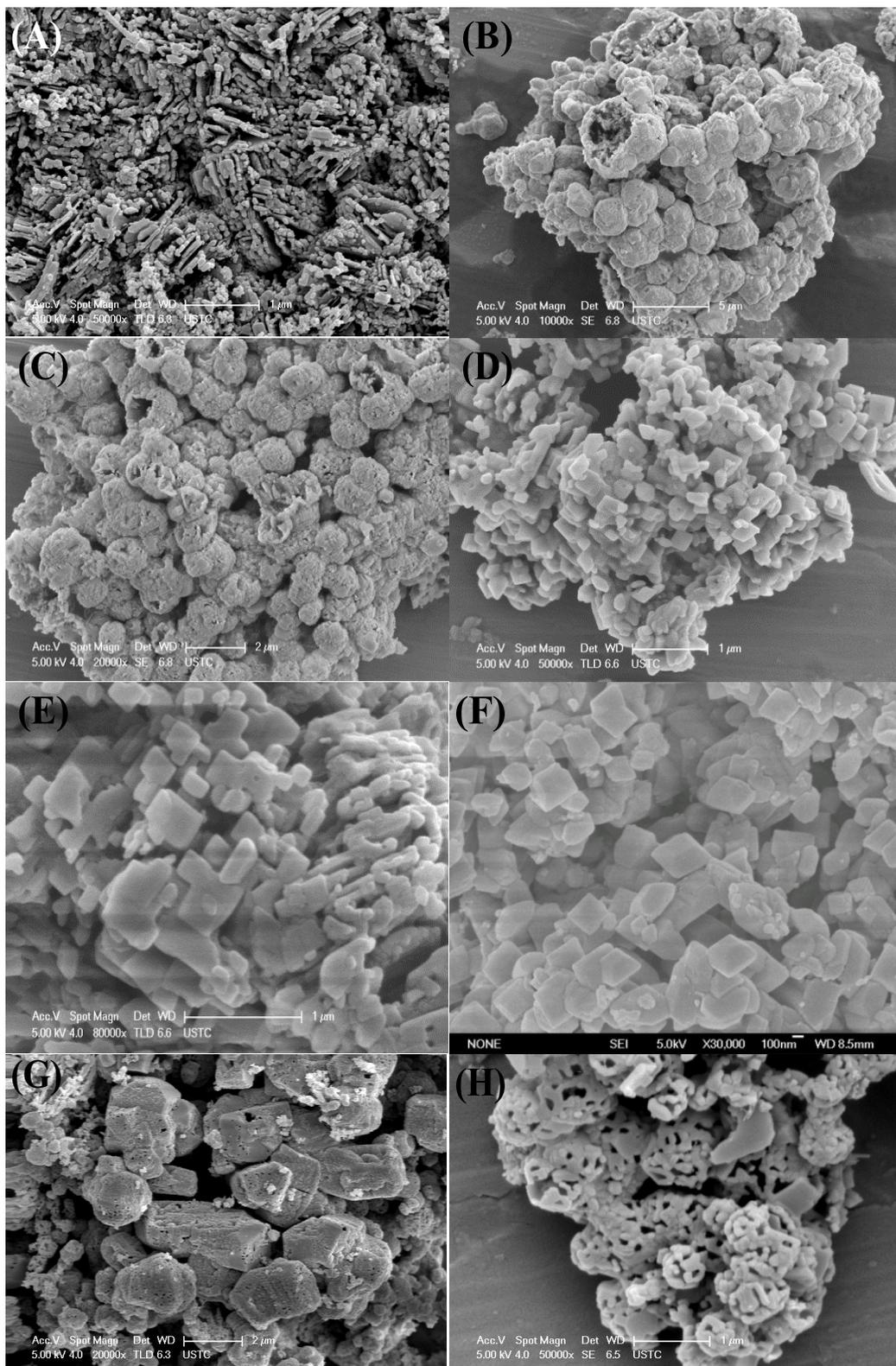


Fig. S4. Typical SEM images of the $\text{TiO}_{2-x}\text{N}_x$ particles calcinated at different temperatures for 3 h with $5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$: (A) 300°C; (B) 400°C; (C) 450°C; (D) 500°C; (E)

550°C; (F) 600°C; (G) 700°C; and (H) 800°C.

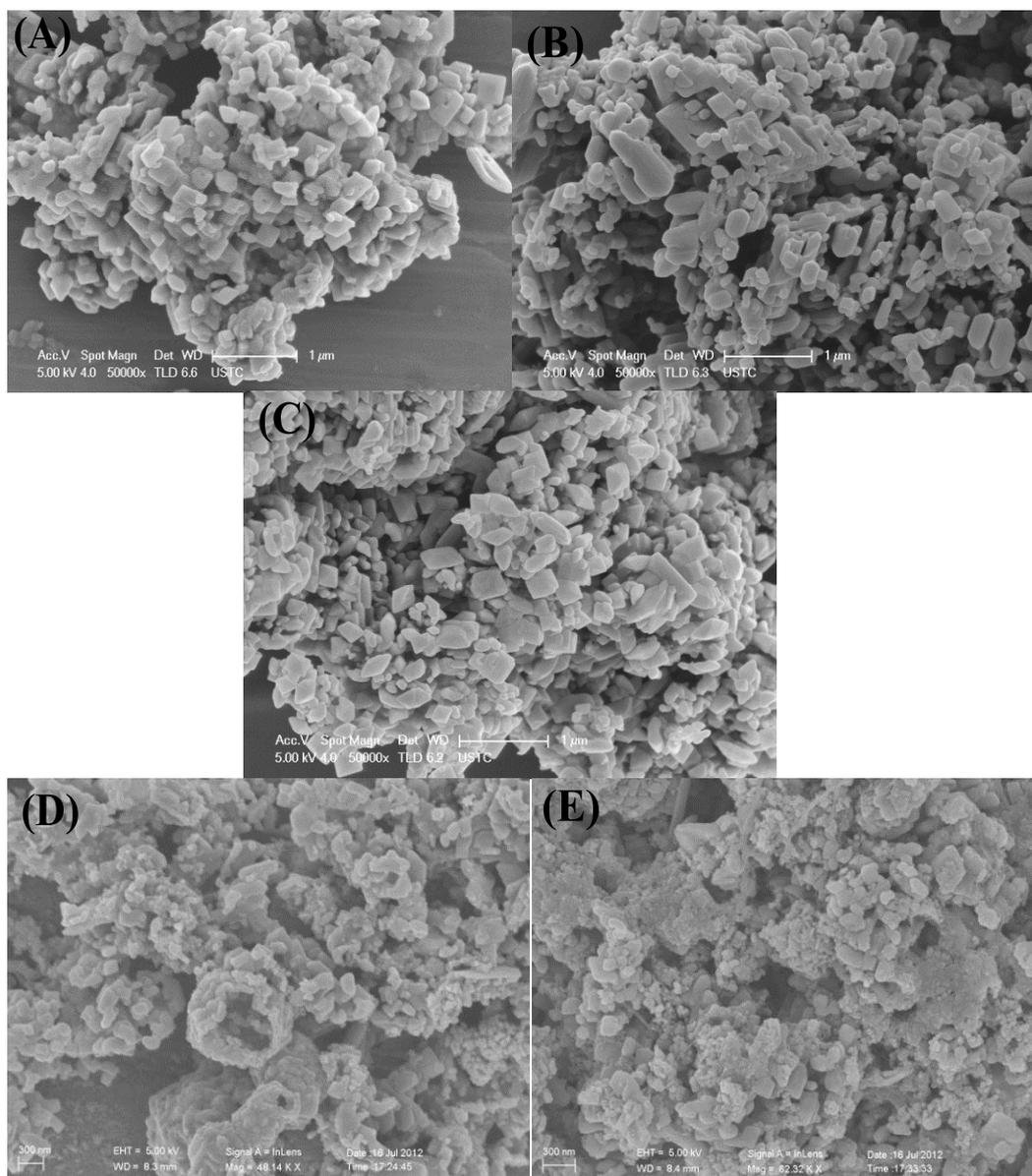


Fig. S5. Typical SEM images of the $\text{TiO}_{2-x}\text{N}_x$ particles calcinated at 500°C for 3 h with different ramping rates: (A) $1^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$; (B) $3^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$; (C) $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$; (D) $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$; and (E) $20^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$.

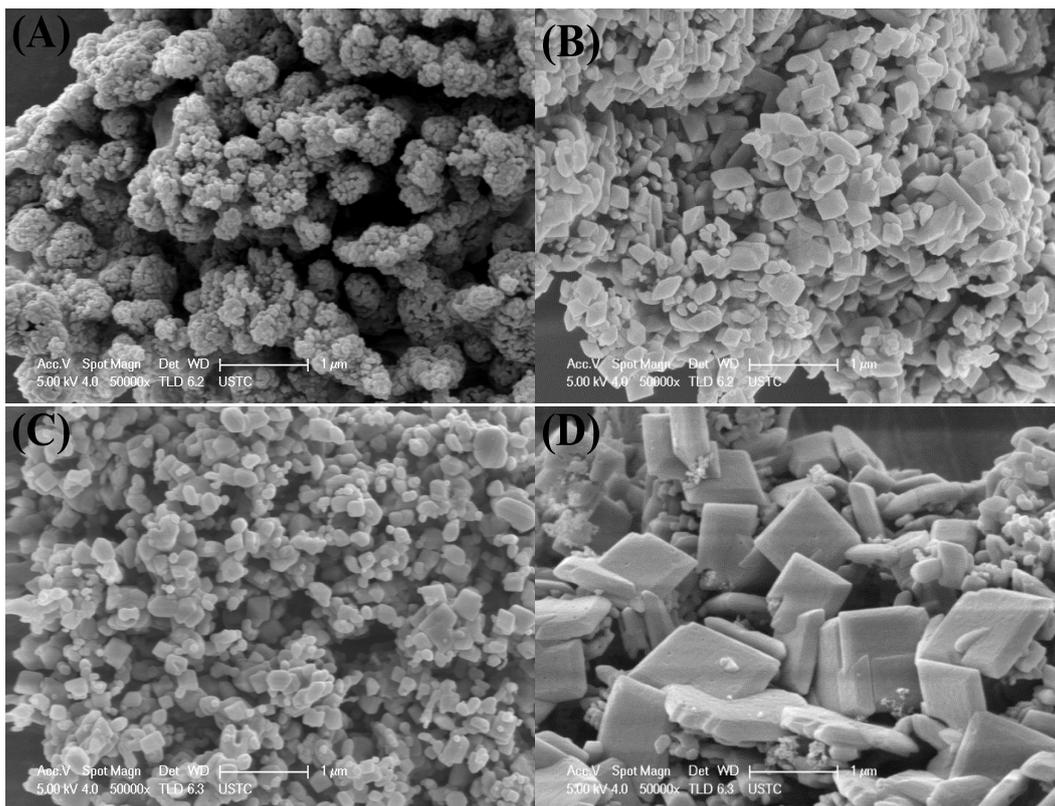


Fig. S6. Typical SEM images of the $\text{TiO}_{2-x}\text{N}_x$ particles calcinated at 500°C with 5 °C/min for different times: (A) 1 h; (B) 3 h; (C) 5 h; and (D) 8 h.

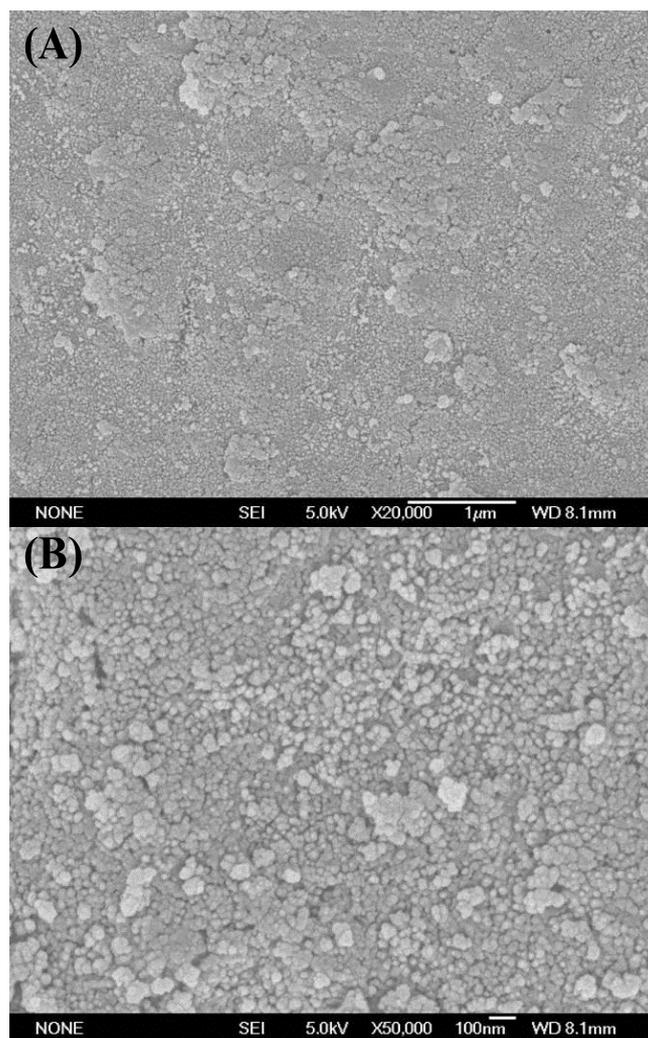


Fig. S7. Typical SEM images of the TiO_2 particles calcinated at 600°C with $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ from a lowly-concentrated transparent wasted anodic electrolyte (inset): (A) low magnification and (B) high magnification.

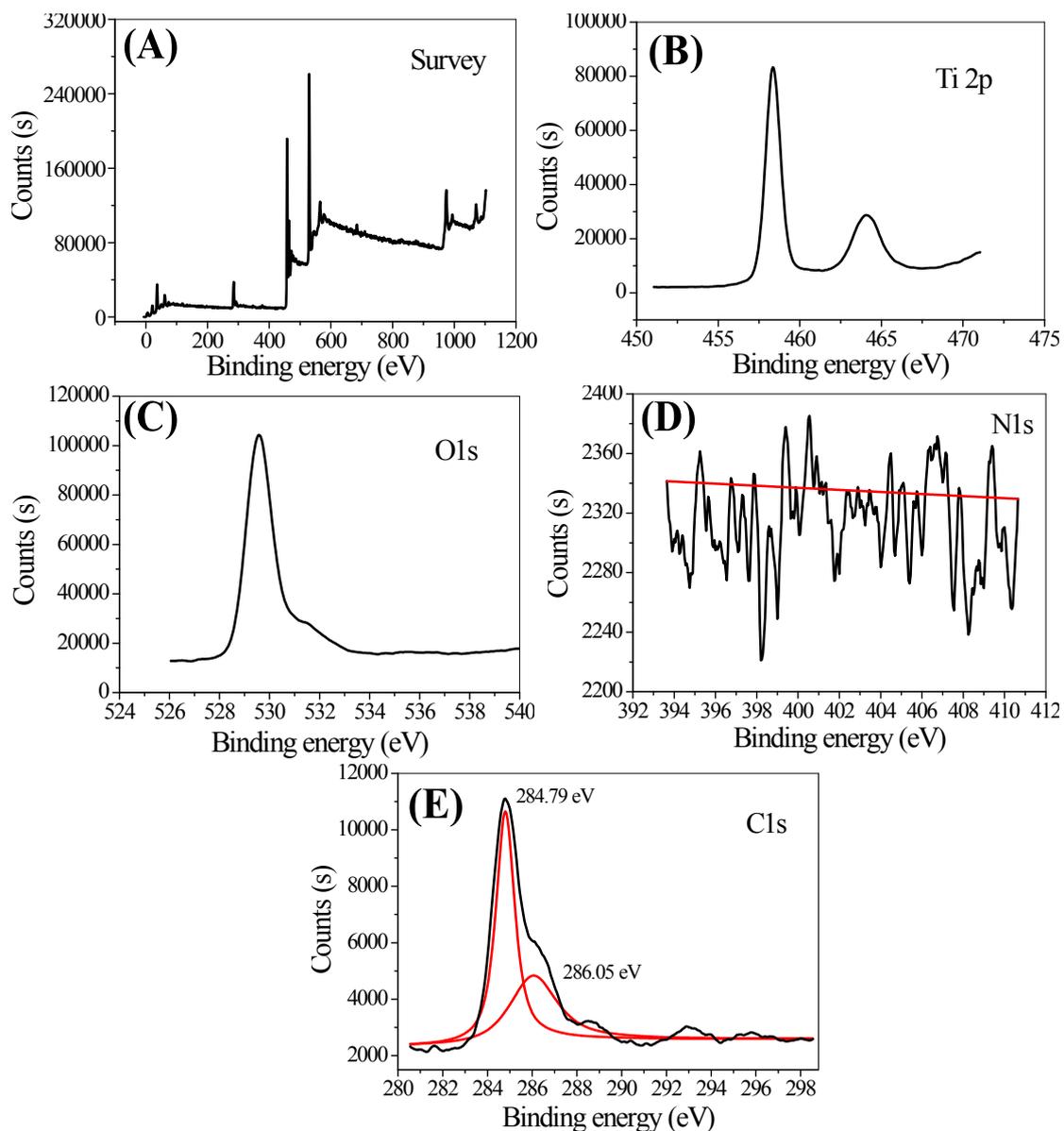


Fig. S8. XPS survey (A) and high-resolution spectra (B, C, D and E) for the TiO₂ nanocrystals prepared by calcinating electrolyte in air at 600 °C.

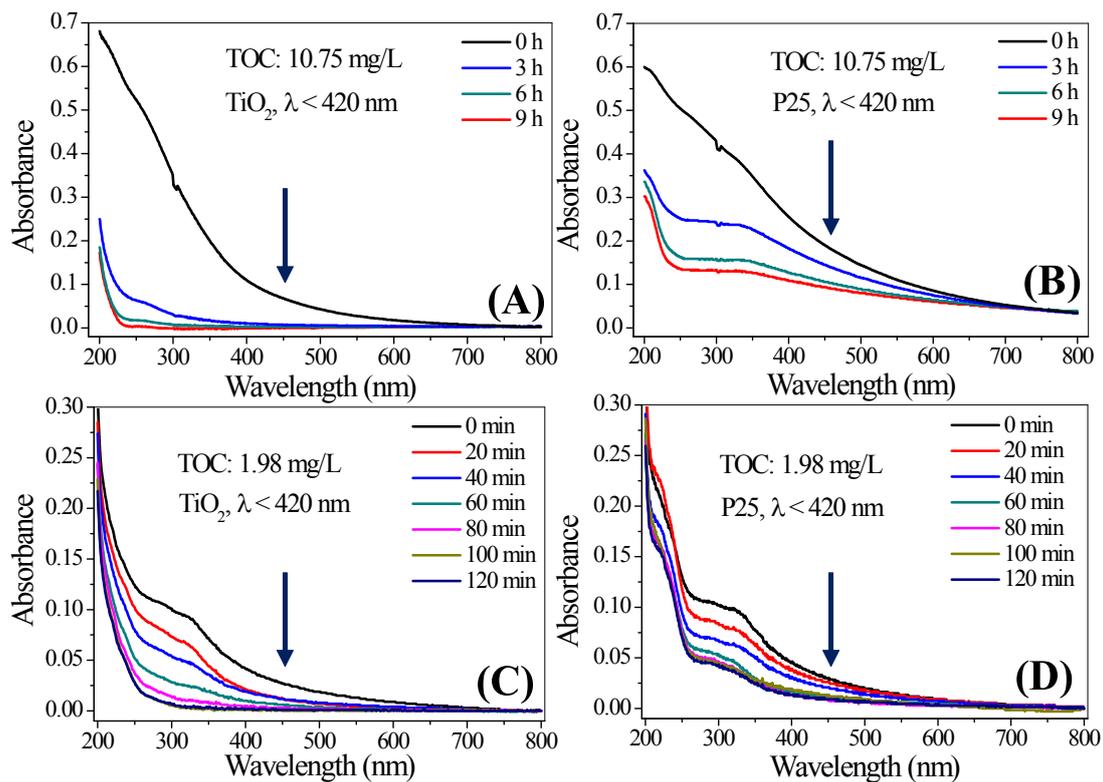


Fig. S9. HAs removal evolutions on the TiO₂ nanocrystals (A and C) and P25 (B and D) under UV irradiation ($\lambda < 420$ nm), with an initial TOC concentration of 10.75 and 1.98 mg/L.

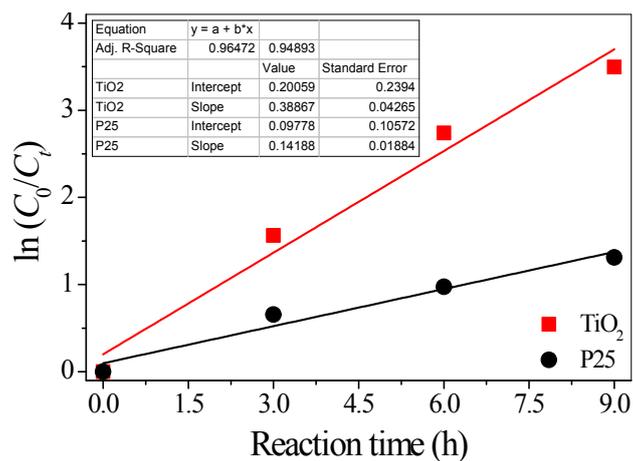


Fig. S10. L-H pseudo-first order HAs degradation kinetics on the TiO₂ nanocrystals and P25 under UV irradiation ($\lambda < 420$ nm), with an initial TOC concentration of 10.75 mg/L.

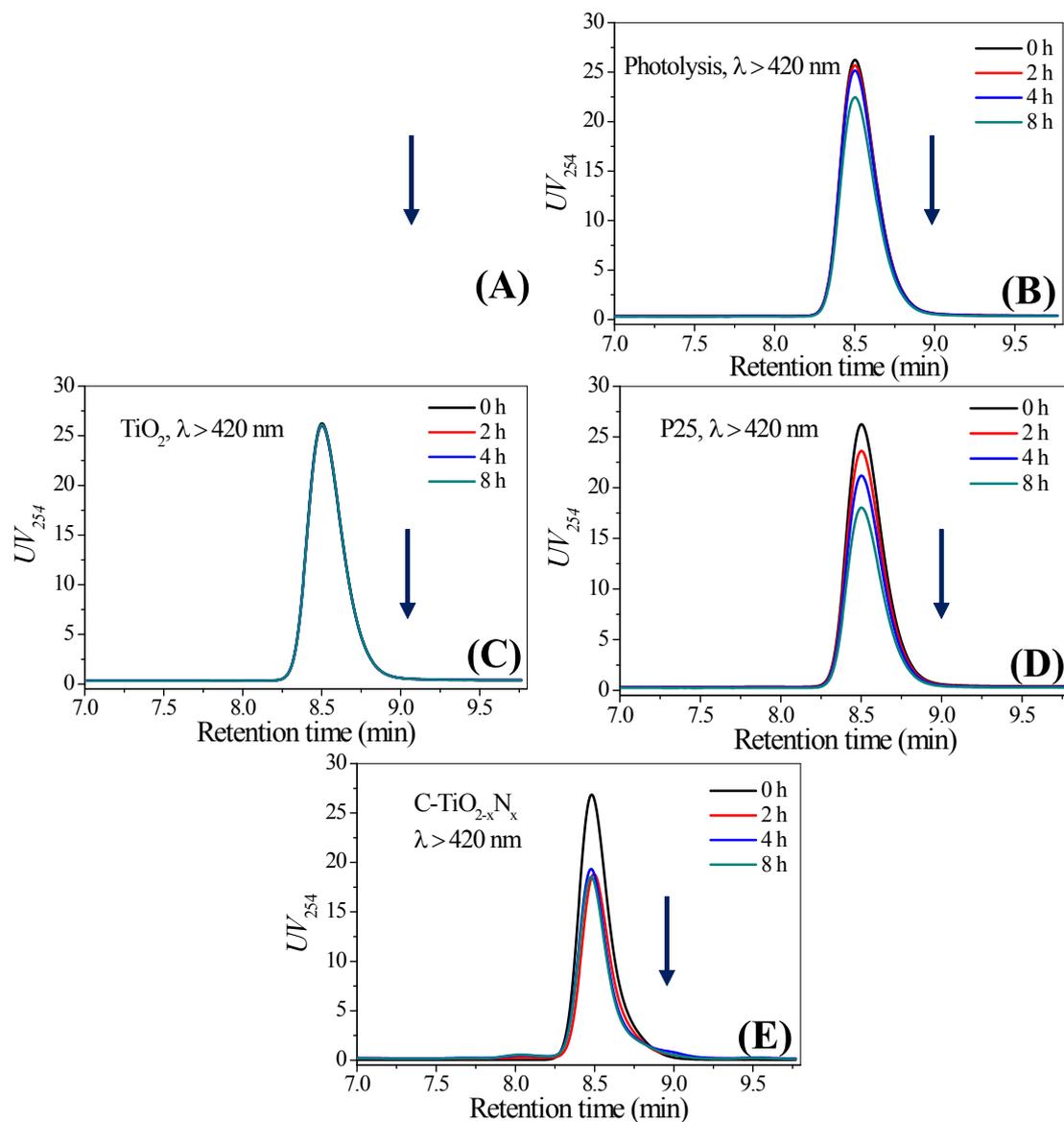


Fig. S11. Bentazone removal evolutions on $TiO_{2-x}N_x$ crystals (A), photolysis (B), TiO_2 crystals (C), P25 (D) and C- $TiO_{2-x}N_x$ crystals (E) under Vis irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm), with an initial bentazone concentration of 3.0 mg/L.

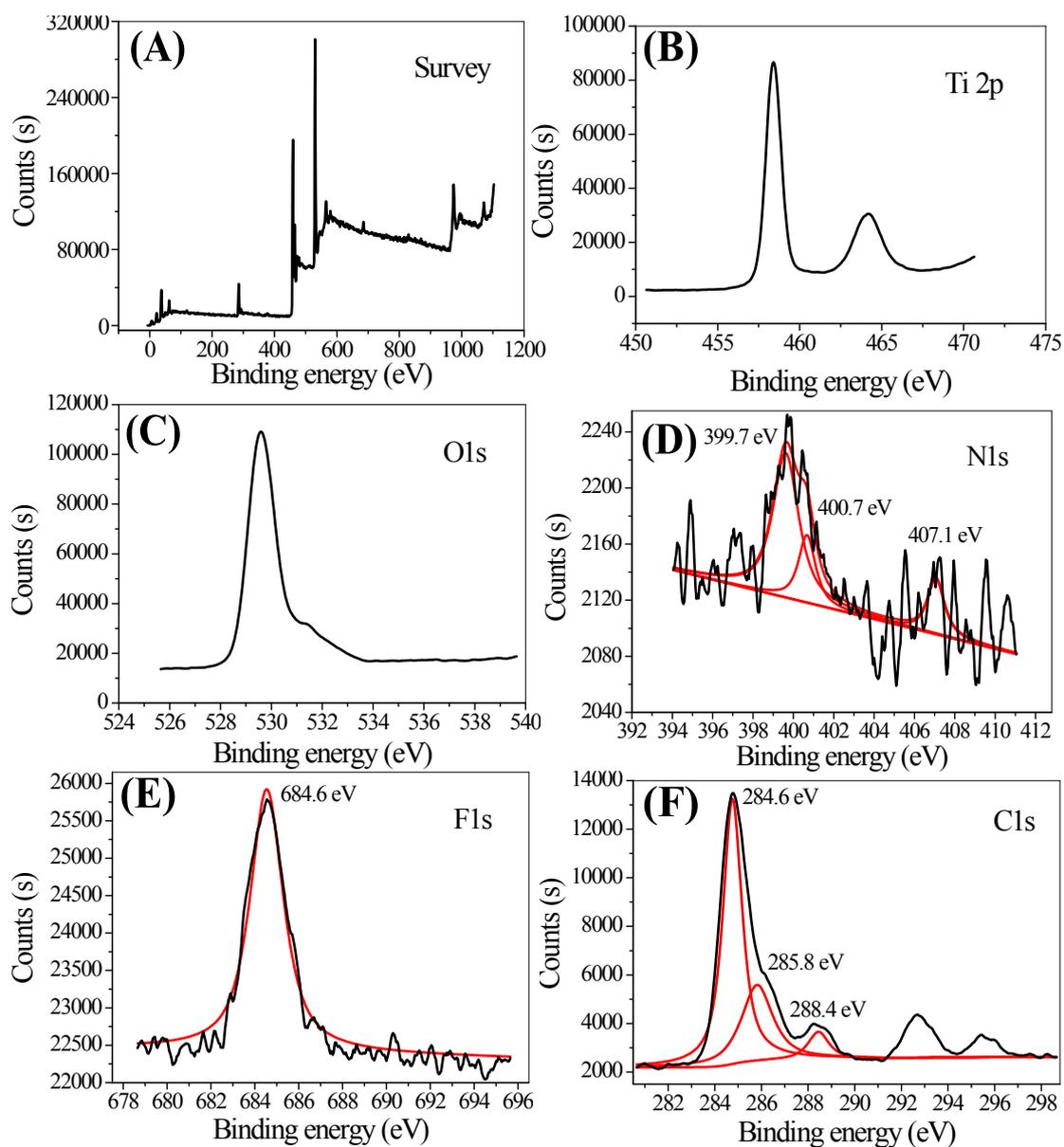


Fig. S12. XPS survey (A) and high-resolution spectra (B, C, D, E and F) for the C-TiO_{2-x}N_x nanocrystals prepared by calcinating electrolyte in air at 400 °C.

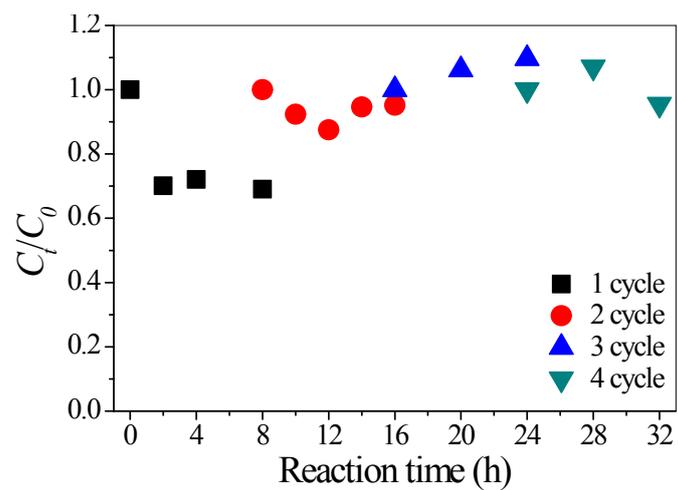


Fig. S13. Cyclic bentazone removal evolutions on C-TiO_{2-x}N_x nanocrystals under Vis irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm), with an initial bentazone concentration of 3.0 mg/L.