

## (N<sup>3-</sup>, M<sup>5+</sup>) Co-Doping Strategies for the Development of TiO<sub>2</sub>-Based Visible Light Catalysts

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### Abstract

(N<sup>3-</sup>, M<sup>5+</sup>) co-doping is an efficient strategy to activate the visible light catalytic behavior of TiO<sub>2</sub> for broad use in wastewater purification, air cleaning, hydrogen generation, and sterilization. Here, we briefly review the recent progress of (N<sup>3-</sup>, M<sup>5+</sup>) co-doping strategies for the development of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based visible light catalysts. The designed synthesis methods, the characterized material properties, the measured photocatalytic activity and the introduced local defect structures are summarized. It is expected that this mini review can build up a general framework for future/current research into (N<sup>3-</sup>, M<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> materials and provide a direction for the further development of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based visible light catalysts.

**Keywords:** Photocatalysis; Solar energy; Doping

### Introduction

The development of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based visible light catalysts (VLCs) is significant to enhance the utilization efficiency of clean/renewable solar energy, and to remedy the current state of environmental pollution by directly harnessing sunlight to drive a range of chemical reactions. These chemical reactions include generating hydrogen from water, removing organic/toxic compounds in wastewater or air, automatically decomposing plastic rubbish, and even sterilization. In principle, the light energy absorbed by TiO<sub>2</sub>-based VLC materials is used to generate electrons and holes. These photo-excited carriers subsequently migrate to the surfaces of VLC materials and chemically react with various targets. This simple photocatalytic process depends on three critical steps: (1) the light absorption ability of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based VLCs. It determines how much photo-energy can be efficiently utilized by VLCs; (2) the efficient separation of electron-hole pairs. This dictates the numbers of active reductants/oxidants available for final chemical reactions; and (3) the migration distance and the lifetime of photo-excited carriers. Longer distances and shorter lifetimes are obviously undesirable for achieving excellent photocatalytic efficiency.

To meet the above criteria, N<sup>3-</sup> and M<sup>5+</sup> (M=Nb, V, Ta) co-doping strategies were designed to develop TiO<sub>2</sub>-based VLCs. That is, N<sup>3-</sup> and M<sup>5+</sup> ions are simultaneously incorporated into TiO<sub>2</sub> crystal structures by substituting a proportion of the Ti<sup>4+</sup> and O<sup>2-</sup> host ions. The atomic orbitals of these extrinsic co-dopant ions will hybridize with that of Ti<sup>4+</sup>, O<sup>2-</sup> or each other to extend the light absorption of TiO<sub>2</sub> towards the visible light regime, to reduce the recombination of electron-hole pairs, and finally to enhance VLC efficiencies.

The cation-anion co-doping, in this case N<sup>3-</sup> and M<sup>5+</sup> co-doping, leads to the appearance of the third generation of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based

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photocatalysts. Prior to this, the first generation was designed based on intrinsic  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Through tuning the exposed crystal plane, particle size distribution, crystal structure, phase compositions, and surface chemistry, the photocatalytic properties of intrinsic  $\text{TiO}_2$  could be controlled technologically. However, since this generation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  only absorbs ultraviolet light, most of the solar energy spectrum is wasted and their applications are restricted. To increase the light absorption range, the second generation of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based VLCs was subsequently developed based on cationic or anionic mono-doping routes. Although most of the elements in the atomic periodic table have been tried, the photocatalytic effects of resultant products are still not good. On one hand, mono-doping cations is difficult to enhance visible light absorption and thus often results in unimproved or even worse visible light catalytic properties. On the other hand, mono-doping anions suffers a technical difficulty in their high doping levels. Furthermore, the generation of “trapping or recombination centers” would also worsen photocatalytic efficiency since they “kill” photo-excited electron and hole carriers. FIG. 1 summarizes the development process, advantages and disadvantages of different  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based photocatalysts.

This work briefly reviews the recent progress of ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doping strategies for the development of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based VLCs. We first explain why  $\text{N}^{3-}$  and  $\text{M}^{5+}$  are chosen as co-dopants for  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Then, we summarize the synthesis methods, material properties, VLC performances and local defect structures of prepared ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials according to the type of used  $\text{M}^{5+}$  ions. Finally, we point out the existing concerns from current investigations into ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials and prospects for the future development of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based VLCs.

### The Selection of $\text{M}^{5+}$ Cations for Co-Doping with $\text{N}^{3-}$ Anions

In ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials,  $\text{N}^{3-}$  anions are used to substitute  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ions while  $\text{M}^{5+}$  cations are used to replace  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  ions. The selected  $\text{M}^{5+}$  ions mainly include  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ,  $\text{Ta}^{5+}$  and  $\text{V}^{5+}$ . In the atomic periodic table, niobium (Nb) is the 41<sup>st</sup> element with an electronegativity of 1.6 Pauling units and has the electronic configuration of  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^4 5s^1$ . Nb ions normally have three chemical valences depending on the number(s) of electrons in 4d and 5s orbitals, i.e.,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  (the ionic radius,  $r_{\text{ion}}=0.078$  nm in six-coordinated octahedral),  $\text{Nb}^{4+}$  ( $r_{\text{ion}}=0.082$  nm) and  $\text{Nb}^{3+}$  ( $r_{\text{ion}}=0.086$  nm) [1]. Tantalum (Ta) is the 73<sup>rd</sup> element with an electronegativity of 1.5 Pauling units and has the electronic configuration of  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 4f^{14} 5s^2 5p^6 5d^3 6s^2$ .  $\text{Ta}^{5+}$ ,  $\text{Ta}^{4+}$  and  $\text{Ta}^{3+}$  are their three stable ions at normal conditions. The ionic radii of Ta ions are the same as that of Nb ions (i.e.,  $r_{\text{ion}}$  of  $\text{Ta}^{5+}=0.078$ ;  $\text{Ta}^{4+}=0.082$  nm;  $\text{Ta}^{3+}=0.086$  nm). Vanadium (V) is the 43<sup>rd</sup> element with an electronegativity of 1.63 Pauling units and has the electronic configuration of  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^3 4s^2$ . The ionic radii of V ions are smaller than that of Ta or Nb ions, and are 0.068 ( $\text{V}^{5+}$ ); 0.072 ( $\text{V}^{4+}$ ); and 0.078 nm ( $\text{V}^{3+}$ ), respectively. Since  $\text{Ta}^{5+}$  and  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  ions have almost the similar ionic radius as  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  ( $r_{\text{ion}}=0.0745$  nm) and their elements show the similar electronegativity to Ti (1.54), they are normally co-doped together with  $\text{N}^{3-}$  ions into host  $\text{TiO}_2$  without generating a large distortion in the local/average crystal structure. The smaller  $\text{V}^{5+}$  ions are also sometimes

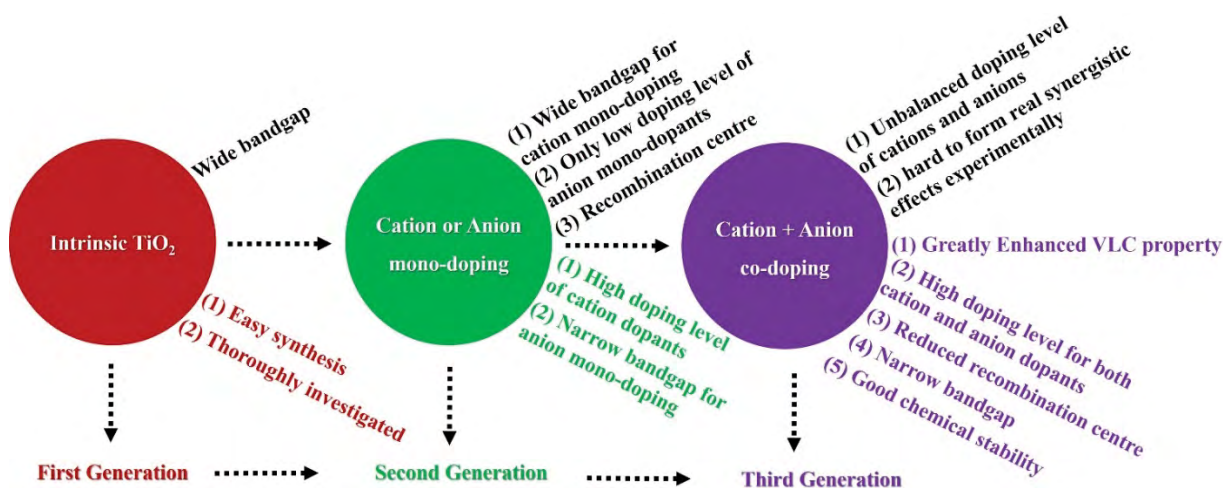


FIG. 1. The development process, advantages (bottom) and disadvantages (top) of different  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based photocatalysts.

chosen as co-dopants due to their easy substitution of  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  ions. It is more important that  $\text{M}^{5+}$  dopant ions lose one additional electron in contrast to the  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  host ions. This electron is well compensated by the co-doping of  $\text{N}^{3-}$  anions. The molar ratio of  $\text{M}^{5+}$  and  $\text{N}^{3-}$  co-dopants is thus expected to be 1:1 for the charge balance of the whole co-doped system. Any deviation of the stoichiometric ratio will generate extra  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  ions or additional oxygen vacancies. In these two scenarios, ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doping is actually accompanied by  $\text{N}^{3-}$  or  $\text{M}^{5+}$  mono-doping.

Two  $\text{TiO}_2$  crystal structures, anatase with space group symmetry  $I4_1/amd$  and rutile with space group symmetry  $P4_2/mnm$ , are normally chosen as the host matrices since their syntheses are easier in comparison with other polymorphs. The coupling of  $\text{N}^{3-}$  and  $\text{M}^{5+}$  ions in  $\text{TiO}_2$  host materials are considered to play three important roles in the enhancement of photocatalytic effects: [2] (1) activating the absorption of lower photon energies; (2) mutually compensating for the additional charges or defects generated by the introduction of dopants; and (3) facilitating a larger total dopant concentration (especially for  $\text{N}^{3-}$  anions) when  $\text{N}^{3-}$  and  $\text{M}^{5+}$  ions are bound together.

### Synthesis, Characterization, Photocatalytic Properties and Related Theoretical Calculations of ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ , $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) Co-Doped $\text{TiO}_2$

Various experimental routes have been tried to date to synthesize ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials. TABLE 1 lists the synthesis processes, characterized properties and VLC effects for ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  [3-10,12,13]. The sources of used N are categorized into three types: (1) the colorless liquid  $\text{HNO}_3$  (nitric acid),  $\text{C}_4\text{H}_{11}\text{N}$  (*n*-Butylamine),  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  (ammonia solution); (2) solid  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{N}_4$  (hexamethylenetetramine),  $\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (urea) or  $(\text{NH}_4)[\text{NbO}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})]\cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (ammonium niobium oxalate); and (3)  $\text{NH}_3$  (ammonia) gas. Meanwhile, the sources of Nb are mainly focused on  $\text{NbCl}_5$  (niobium pentachloride),  $\text{Ti}_{1-x}\text{Nb}_x$  alloys (titanium-niobium alloys),  $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{15}\text{O}_5\text{Nb}$  (niobium ethoxide) and  $(\text{NH}_4)[(\text{NbOF}_4)(\text{NbF}_7)_2]$  (ammonium uroniobate salt). As for the Ti sources,  $\text{TiCl}_4$  (titanium tetrachloride), Ti metal,  $\text{Ti}_{1-x}\text{Nb}_x$  alloys,  $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{36}\text{O}_4\text{Ti}$  (titanium *n*-Butoxide),  $\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{28}\text{O}_4\text{Ti}$  (titanium tetraisopropoxide) are normally used.

Different synthesis methods have been reported for the preparation of ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials depending on the selection of raw materials containing N, Nb and Ti elements. A simple approach has been recently demonstrated by Sun et al. [3]. They designed a novel solvothermal reaction route to directly synthesize ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) co-doped anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocrystals without any post-sintering treatment by using concentrated  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NbCl}_5$ ,  $\text{TiCl}_4$  and ethanol. Through this reaction route, it is easier to control the doping ratio of  $\text{N}^{3-}/\text{Nb}^{5+}$  and efficiently increase the doping concentration of difficult-dopant  $\text{N}^{3-}$  ions. This chemical reaction at the atomic level is also one of the most promising ways to guarantee the homogeneous distribution of co-dopants in  $\text{TiO}_2$  crystal structures. Experimental and theoretical investigations confirmed that  $\text{N}^{3-}$  and  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  co-dopants should locally form defect-pairs. FIG. 2 shows the TEM image of their synthesized (5.3 at%  $\text{N}^{3-}$ , 5.6 at%  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) co-doped anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocrystals, the resultant local defect-pair motif, and the decomposition curve of Rhodamine B under only visible light illumination using the defect-pairs modified  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based VLCs. The formation of local  $\text{N}^{3-}$ - $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  defect-pairs is critical to narrow the band gap to 2.2 eV from  $\sim 3.1$  eV and to significantly enhance VLC efficiency (20 mg/L Rhodamine B solution is almost completely decomposed by loading 1 g/L defect-pair modified  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based VLCs under visible light illumination).

In addition, a one-step microwave-assisted hydrothermal method was also designed to simultaneously introduce  $\text{N}^{3-}$  and  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  co-dopants into anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles [4,5]. Their bandgaps, however, are too broad (3.1 and 2.8 eV, respectively) for practical applications as VLCs. Another normal synthetic procedure is to firstly prepare Nb mono-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  by sol-gel or anodization treatment, and then to incorporate N dopants through high-temperature nitridation in  $\text{NH}_3$  gas [6-10]. The high-temperature nitridation process depends on the diffusion of N ions, leading to only surface co-doping [10] or a gradient distribution of chemical compositions [11]. Moreover, an excess of  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  dopants over  $\text{N}^{3-}$  would introduce a large number of  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  ions to balance the charges of the whole material. In fact, these additional dopant ions and associated defects may play a detrimental role on VLC properties when compared with uniform ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$ ) co-doping. Additionally, Chadwick et al. [13] designed an aerosol assisted chemical vapor deposition method to directly prepare ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  films by using *n*-butylamine and niobium ethoxide. The co-doping level of  $\text{N}^{3-}$  ions are proven to be too low (only 0.09 at. %) to strengthen the light absorption behaviors and visible light catalytic properties.

TABLE 1. The synthesis processes, characterized properties and VLC effects for ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  (NP: Nanoparticle; NTA: Nanotube Array; RhB: Rhodamine B; MB: Methylene Blue; 4-CP: 4-Chlorophenol).

Synthesis				Characterization					VLC properties				Ref.
N source	Nb source	Ti source	Method & Condition	N (at.%)	Nb (at.%)	Phase	Bandgap (eV)	Shape	Light source	Dye (mg/L)	VLCs (g/L)	C/C <sub>0</sub> (%)	
HNO <sub>3</sub>	NbCl <sub>5</sub>	TiCl <sub>4</sub>	Solvothermal (200 °C, 12 h)	5.3 (XPS, TGA, N-O determinator)	5.6 (XPS)	Anatase	2.2	NP (<10 nm)	Xe lamp (500W, > 400nm, 10 cm)	RhB (20)	1	0@20 min	3
NH <sub>4</sub> OH/CH <sub>4</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O	NbCl <sub>5</sub>	Ti(SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	Microwave-assisted hydrothermal	15 (nominal)	10 (XPS)	Anatase	3.1	NP (~9 nm)	halogen lamp (500W, > 400nm)	H <sub>2</sub> O	0.4	100 umol/h	4
C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>12</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	NbCl <sub>5</sub>	TiCl <sub>4</sub>	Microwave-assisted hydrothermal (190 °C, 0.5 h)	-	2 (EDX)	Anatase	2.8	NP	LED lamps	NO (2ppm)	-	31%	5
NH <sub>3</sub>	NbCl <sub>5</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>36</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Sol-gel & Post-sintering (500 °C, 5 h, NH <sub>3</sub> )	-	1-33.3 (nominal)	Anatase	2.0	NP (20 nm)	Xe lamp (150W, AM 1.5G filter)	MB (40)	-	7@120 min	6,7
NH <sub>3</sub>	NbCl <sub>5</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>36</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Sol-gel & Post-sintering (500 °C, 5 h, NH <sub>3</sub> )	0.2 (XPS)	25 (XPS)	Anatase	2.2	NP (20 nm)	xenon lamp (150W, AM 1.5G filter)	H <sub>2</sub> O	1	7umol/h	8
NH <sub>3</sub>	Ti <sub>1-x</sub> Nb <sub>x</sub>	Ti <sub>1-x</sub> Nb <sub>x</sub>	Anodization & Post-sintering (450 °C, 0.5 h, NH <sub>3</sub> )	8.2 (XPS)	10 (nominal)	Anatase	2.8	NTA	halogen lamp (3.0mW/cm <sup>2</sup> , > 400nm)	MB (2)	-	12@120min	9
NH <sub>3</sub>	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) [(NbOF <sub>4</sub> ) (NbF <sub>7</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ]	Ti foil	Anodization & Post-sintering (550 °C, 2 h, NH <sub>3</sub> )	6.9 (XPS)	4 (bulk)	Anatase	-	NTA	Oriel EmArc (200W)	-	-	-	10
NH <sub>4</sub> OH & HNO <sub>3</sub>	NbCl <sub>5</sub>	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>28</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Sol-gel & Post-sintering (400 °C, 3 h, air)	-	0.5	Anatase	2.98	NP	xenon lamp (300W, > 420nm)	4-CP	1	0@120 min	12
C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>11</sub> N	C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>15</sub> O <sub>5</sub> Nb	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>28</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Aerosol assisted chemical vapor deposition	0.06-0.09 (XPS)	2-10 (XPS)	Anatase	2.4-3.5	film	-	-	-	-	13

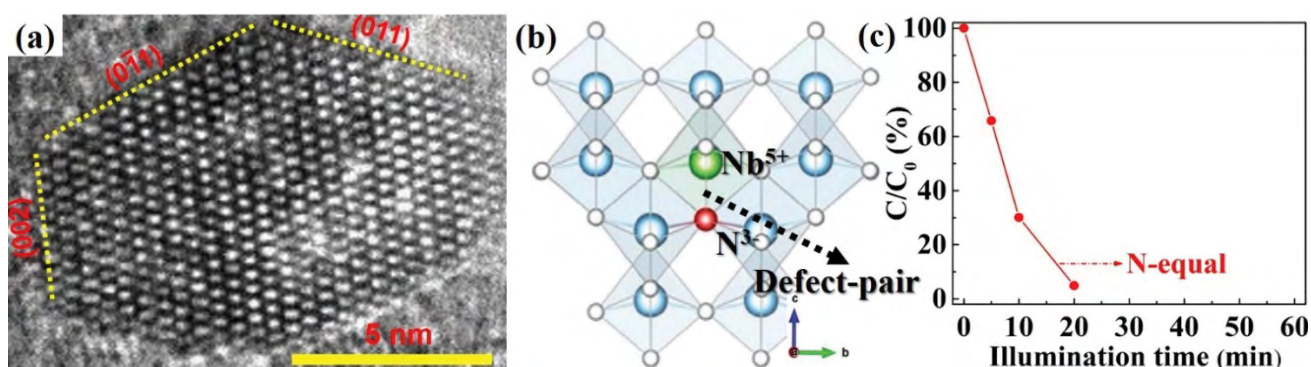


FIG. 2. (a) The TEM image of (5.3 at %  $N^{3-}$ , 5.6 at %  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped anatase  $TiO_2$  nanocrystals, (b) the resultant local defect-pair motif and (c) the decomposition curve of Rhodamine B under only visible light illumination using these defect-pairs modified VLCs. Copyright Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA. Reproduced with permission from reference 3.

It can be further seen from TABLE 1 that nearly all of the synthesized ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  materials have an anatase crystal structure. The reported morphologies refer to 0-D nanoparticles with different average particle sizes, 1-D nanotubes and 2-D films. The doping concentrations of  $N^{3-}$  and  $Nb^{5+}$  co-dopants are usually analyzed by XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy). Confusion has arisen on the correct XPS core levels of interstitial, substitutional or contaminated N in ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  materials. Moreover, XPS can only provide chemical information on sample surfaces. It is thus hard to quantitatively describe the doping levels of  $N^{3-}$  ions and further distinguish the “surface co-doping” or “bulk co-doping” by just relying on the XPS analysis. The combination of XPS with TGA-DSC (thermogravimetry and differential scanning calorimetry analysis) and N-O determinator measurements should give a more reasonable and more acceptable conclusion on the real  $N^{3-}$  doping concentration [3].

The decomposition of dyes like Rhodamine B (RhB), methylene blue (MB) and 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) under visible light was measured to present the VLC efficiency of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$ . Water splitting experiments were also conducted by some researchers. Due to the different experimental setup and operations such as the light sources, the dye concentrations and types, or the VLCs loading amounts, it is difficult to compare the VLC efficiency of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  achieved by different researchers. However, one commonly accepted fact is that ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doping is more efficient in the enhancement of VLC properties than  $N^{3-}$  or  $Nb^{5+}$  mono-doping.

### **Synthesis, Characterization, Photocatalytic Properties and Related Theoretical Calculations of ( $N^{3-}$ , $Ta^{5+}$ ) Co-Doped $TiO_2$**

In the synthesis of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  materials, the synthesis methods, experimental processes and utilized Ti/N sources are very similar to that of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$ , just with a replacement of the Nb sources with Ta sources. The selected Ta sources include  $TaCl_5$  (tantalum pentachloride), Ta metal,  $(Ta_2O_5)_{0.01}(TiO_2)_{0.99}$  ceramic pellets,  $C_{15}H_{35}O_5Ta$  (tantalum isopropoxide) and  $C_{10}H_{25}O_5Ta$  (tantalum ethoxide). TABLE 2 lists the synthesis processes, characterized properties and VLC effects for ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  [14-18]. It can be found that ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped rutile  $TiO_2$  was synthesized by a combination of solvothermal and post-sintering methods [17,18]. During the solvothermal reaction process, Ta mono-doped rutile  $TiO_2$  nanowires or nanorods were first prepared. The subsequent high-temperature nitridation treatment was used to introduce  $N^{3-}$  ions into the as-prepared Ta mono-doped rutile nanocrystals to form ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped rutile  $TiO_2$ . Comparing with the N mono-doped rutile  $TiO_2$ , the co-doping of  $N^{3-}$  and  $Ta^{5+}$  ions can prohibit the formation of amorphous layers on the nanowire surfaces and thus enhance the incident photon to current conversion efficiency [17]. However, the chemical composition, especially the doping levels of  $N^{3-}$  ions, is not discussed at all. It is thus difficult to compare their results with that of co-doped anatase  $TiO_2$  nanomaterials.

The measured bandgaps of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  materials range from 2.6 to 3.1 eV. It seems that the narrowed band gap can only be achieved at a higher  $N^{3-}$  and  $Ta^{5+}$  co-doping concentration [14-16]. This conclusion is consistent with the claims of Sun et al.<sup>3</sup> They point out that the higher and nearly equal doping concentrations of cation and anion co-dopants are key to tuning the light absorption behavior and are critical for significantly enhancing VLC properties. Using these synthesized ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$ , the degradation of MB and oleic acid was characterized under visible light illumination. For example, Zhao et al. [14] investigated the visible light degradation of MB (5 mg/L) under 1 g/L VLCs solution. They found that the  $C/C_0$  ( $C$  is the dye concentration at different illumination time and  $C_0$  represents the initial dye concentration) was 31.6% at the reaction period of 240 min. At the same time, Le et al. [15] also investigated the visible light degradation of MB with the same concentration (5 mg/L). The  $C/C_0$  was 7% at the reaction time of 180 min by increasing the loading amount of VLCs to 3 g/L. Due to their different light sources and different loading amounts of VLCs, it is not easy to judge whose VLCs are better for the visible light catalytic decomposition of MB.

Theoretical calculations were performed on ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  to disclose where  $N^{3-}$  and  $Ta^{5+}$  ions are located in the  $TiO_2$  crystal structure, how the synergistic effects between  $N^{3-}$  and  $Ta^{5+}$  co-dopants tune the bandgap and affect photocatalytic properties [14,16,19]. FIG. 3 shows a 108-atom super cell containing one substituted N and one replaced Ta. Among various co-doped configurations, N and Ta co-dopants prefer to directly bind together in one octahedron. The extension in the N-Ta distances will lead to higher total formation energy. Actually,  $N^{3-}$  and  $Ta^{5+}$  co-dopants locally form similar defect-pairs to the  $N^{3-}$  and  $Nb^{5+}$  co-doping system [3]. The hybridization of  $N2p$  and  $Ta5d$  states in N-Ta defect-pairs reduces recombination centers caused by impurity levels (FIG. 3b and 3c), narrows the bandgap, increases carrier mobility, and finally enhances the VLC properties. The calculated band



TABLE 2. The synthesis processes, characterized properties and VLC effects for ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  (NP: Nanoparticle; NW: Nanowire; NR: Nanorod; MB: Methylene Blue).

Synthesis				Characterization						VLC properties			Ref.
N source	Ta source	Ti source	Method & Condition	N (at.%)	Ta (at.%)	Phase	Bandgap (eV)	Shape	Light source	Dye (mg/L)	VLCs (g/L)	C/C <sub>0</sub> (%)	
$CH_4N_2O$	$TaCl_5$	$C_{16}H_{36}O_4Ti$	Sol-gel & Post-sintering (500 °C, 1 h, air)	13.4 (XPS)	12.8 (XPS)	Anatase	2.68	NP	Xe lamp (500W, > 420nm)	MB (5)	1	32@240min	14
$NH_4OH$	Ta	$C_{12}H_{28}O_4Ti$	Hydrothermal & Post-sintering (300 °C, 1 h, air)	1.7 (XPS)	0.29 (XPS)	Anatase	2.85	NP (20 nm)	Hg-Xe lamp (500W, > 420nm)	MB (5)	3	~7@180 min	15
$N_2$	$(Ta_2O_5)_{0.01}(TiO_2)_{0.99}$	Ti & $(Ta_2O_5)_{0.01}(TiO_2)_{0.99}$	Magnetron sputtering (400 °C)	0.5-0.6 (XPS)	2.3-1.3 (XPS)	Anatase	3.07-3.16	Film	Xe lamp (420-500nm)	Oleic acid	-	11@120 min	16
$NH_3$	$C_{15}H_{35}O_5Ta$	$TiCl_4$	Solvothelmal & Post-sintering (500 °C, 2 h, $NH_3$ )	-	0.29 (XPS)	Rutile	-	NW	Visible light (>420 nm)	-	-	-	17
$NH_3$	$C_{10}H_{25}O_5Ta$	$C_{12}H_{28}O_4Ti$	Microwave-assisted solvothelmal & Post-sintering (350 °C, 1 h, $NH_3$ )	-	-	Rutile	~2.6	NR	Xe lamp (500W, > 420nm)	$H_2O$	0.5	0.7 $\mu mol h^{-1}$	18

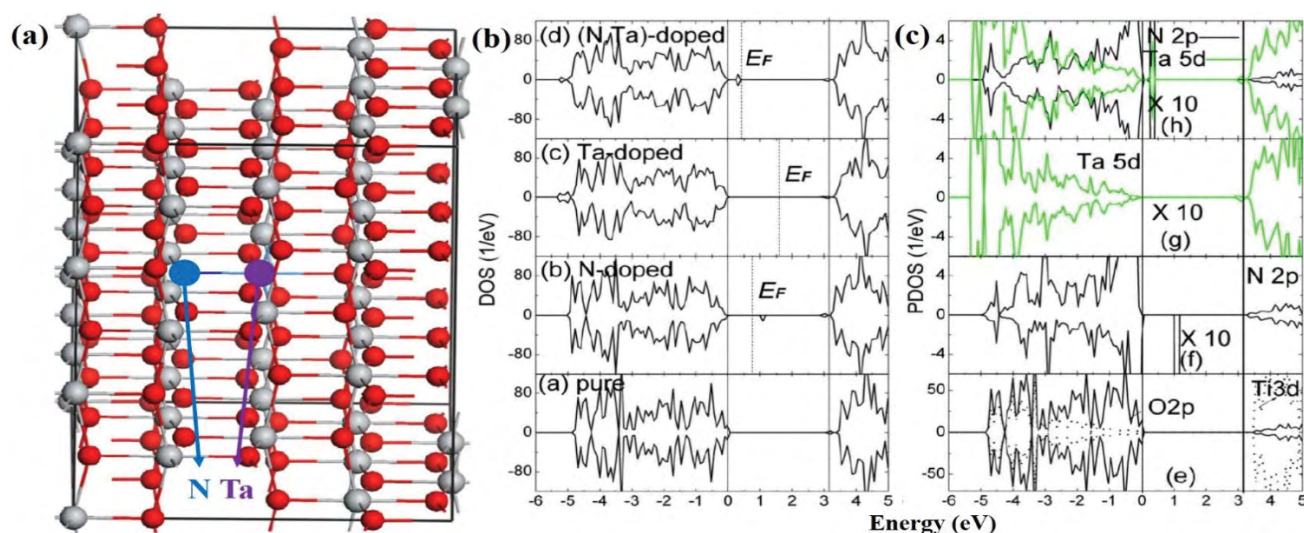


FIG. 3. (a) A 108-atom supercell containing substituted N and Ta co-dopants, (b) the calculated total DOS and (c) PDOS of un-doped, Ta mono-doped, N mono-doped and (N, Ta) co-doped anatase  $TiO_2$ . Reprinted with permission from reference 19.

gap of 2.7 eV is also consistent with the experimental results [14,18]. For ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Ta^{5+}$ ) co-doped rutile  $TiO_2$ , there are no associated theoretical calculations to date.

### Synthesis, Characterization, Photocatalytic Properties and Related Theoretical Calculations of ( $N^{3-}$ , $V^{5+}$ ) Co-Doped $TiO_2$

The synthesis methods used for the preparation of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $V^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  materials are the same as that of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) and ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $V^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$ . For example, the high-temperature nitradation in  $NH_3$  is also used to introduce  $N^{3-}$  ions into as-prepared V mono-doped  $TiO_2$ . TABLE 3 lists the synthesis processes, characterized properties and VLC effects for ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $V^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  [20-25].  $NH_4VO_3$  is predominantly used as a V source. In contrast to the synthesis of ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $Nb^{5+}$ ) and ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $V^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$ , the hydrothermal route is frequently used to synthesize ( $N^{3-}$ ,  $V^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $TiO_2$  [21-25]. It involves the incorporation of  $N^{3-}$  or  $V^{5+}$  dopant ions into the as-prepared V/N mono-doped  $TiO_2$  precursor in a hydrothermal reaction autoclave. This wet chemical reaction

**TABLE 3. The synthesis processes, characterized properties and VLC effects for (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> (NP: Nanoparticle; NTA: Nanotube Array; RhB: Rhodamine B; MB: Methylene Blue; MO: Methylene Orange; PCP-Na: Sodium Pentachlorophenate; CAP: Chloramphenicol).**

Synthesis				Characterization						VLC properties			Ref.
N source	V source	Ti source	Method and Condition	N (at.%)	V (at.%)	Phase	Bandgap (eV)	Shape	Light source	Dye (mg/L)	VLCs (g/L)	C/C <sub>0</sub> (%)	Ref.
C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>15</sub> N	NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>36</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Sol-gel & Post-sintering (450 °C, 2 h, air)	4 (nominal)	2 (nominal)	Anatase	2.3	NP (7nm)	Xe lamp (150W, 15cm)	RhB (95.8)	0.29	0@60min	20
C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>15</sub> N	NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub>	Ti(SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	Two-step hydrothermal (180 °C, 22h)	3.12 (XPS)	1.0 (ICP) & 0.5 (XPS)	Anatase	2.5	NP (13nm)	Xe lamp (400W, > 400nm)	PCP-Na (20)	0.4	~20@120 min	21
C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>15</sub> N	V <sup>4+</sup>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>36</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Two-step hydrothermal (180 °C, 22h)	-	-	Anatase	2.8	NP (5nm)	Xe lamp (400W, > 400nm, 25cm)	MB (1.6)	-	80@275 min	22
NH <sub>4</sub> VO/ NH <sub>3</sub> OH	NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub>	Hydrothermal (180 °C, 12 h)	2.97 (XPS)	20 (nominal)	Anatase	-	NP (11nm)	Xe lamp (300W, > 420nm)	MO (3.3)	-	54.3@300 min	23
NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub>	NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub>	N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	Hydrothermal (180 °C, 5 h)	3.4 (XPS)	4.2 (XPS)	Anatase	2.3	NTA	Hg lamp (300W, > 420nm)	CO <sub>2</sub>	-	64.5 ppm h <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-2</sup>	24
C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>15</sub> N	NH <sub>4</sub> VO <sub>3</sub>	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>36</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Ti	Sol-gel & Hydrothermal (180 °C, 20 h)	0.62 (XPS)	2 (nominal)	Anatase	2.5	NP	Halide lamp (400W, > 420nm)	CAP (25)	1	325x10 <sup>-4</sup> min <sup>-1</sup>	25

route avoids the traditional high-temperature nitridation treatment and reduces the agglomeration of nanoparticles. However, it is debatable whether the dopants can be efficiently diffused into TiO<sub>2</sub> crystal structures at such mild reaction conditions and whether the “surface co-doping” dominates the photocatalytic properties.

Most of the measured bandgaps are around 2.3 and 2.5 eV for (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>. This means that N<sup>3-</sup> and V<sup>5+</sup> co-doping can efficiently lower the bandgap and extend the light absorption to visible light regime. In almost all (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped samples prepared using NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub> as raw materials, V<sup>5+</sup> and V<sup>4+</sup> ions are found to co-exist. If NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub> is replaced by V<sup>4+</sup>-containing raw material, V<sup>4+</sup> and V<sup>3+</sup> will co-exist in the samples. The reasons for the easy reduction of V ions remain unclear to date. The VLC properties of (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> were characterized through decomposing MB, MO (methylene orange), RhB and 4-chlorophenol; or reducing CO<sub>2</sub> into CH<sub>4</sub>. In addition, Eswar et al. [25] used their synthesized (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> to treat antibiotics/bacteria and found that (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doping would strengthen VLC properties comparing with N<sup>3-</sup> or V<sup>5+</sup> mono-doping. The key roles of (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doping on the enhancement of VLC properties are also emphasized by other related researchers.

Theoretical calculations on (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> demonstrate that (N<sup>3-</sup>, V<sup>5+</sup>) co-doping can efficiently enhance VLC properties. FIG. 4 presents the co-doping positions of N and V in anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> and the calculated total DOS (density of states). Here, N<sup>3-</sup> and V<sup>5+</sup> chemically bind together to form defect-pairs, again. The formation of defect-pairs narrows the band gap by about 0.45 eV through providing an acceptor level of about 0.33 eV above the valence band and a donor level of about 0.12 eV below the conduction band

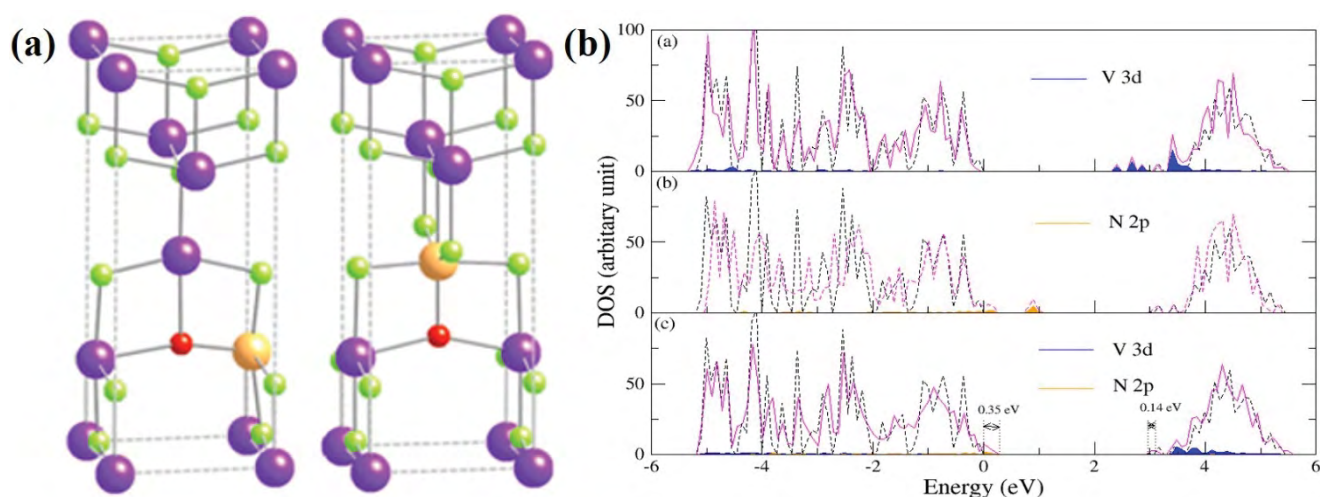


FIG. 4. (a) The schematic illustration of (N, V) defect-pair configurations in anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  and (b) the calculated total DOS. The orange and red balls represent the co-doped Ta and N, respectively. Reprinted with permission from reference 26.

[26]. Furthermore, the N-V defect-pairs have a large binding energy of about 0.77 eV, making them rather stable against separation. However, it is a technological challenge to experimentally control the chemical valences of  $\text{V}^{5+}$  dopants.

### Conclusions and Prospects

In ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) co-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials, the introduced  $\text{N}^{3-}$  and  $\text{M}^{5+}$  ions would chemically bind together to form local defect-pairs. These defect-pairs are critical to narrow the bandgap of host  $\text{TiO}_2$ , reduce the “trapping or recombination centers” of photo-generated carriers, increase the doping levels of difficult-dopant  $\text{N}^{3-}$  ions, and thus significantly enhance visible light catalytic properties. Since  $\text{Nb}^{5+}$  and  $\text{Ta}^{5+}$  ions are stable in contrast to  $\text{V}^{5+}$ , it is better to select them as the co-dopants of  $\text{N}^{3-}$  ions. Given the difficulty in comparing and analyzing the photocatalytic effects reported by different research groups,

- (1) A standard photocatalytic reaction setup and conditions should be developed and followed. It would include the used light source, the light illumination intensity, a fixed dye type and concentration, identical loading amounts of the catalysts, and identical reaction times;
- (2) At the very least, commercial Degussa P25 should be used as a reference and all experimental results should be quantitatively compared with it;
- (3) The chemical compositions of the synthesized samples should be carefully analyzed to easily unveil the intrinsic origin of observed photocatalytic activities.

Based on local defect structure design, it is expected that co-doping  $\text{TiO}_2$  with ( $\text{N}^{3-}$ ,  $\text{M}^{5+}$ ) will significantly enhance their VLC properties. The development of defect-pair modified  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based VLCs is thus beneficial for the highly efficient utilization of clean and renewable solar energy.

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