

Preparation, characterization and photocatalytic activity of TiO₂/polyaniline core-shell nanocomposite

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MS received 17 September 2011; revised 24 October 2011

Abstract. Polyaniline (PANI) as a promising conducting polymer has been used to prepare polyaniline/TiO₂ (PANI/TiO₂) nanocomposite with core-shell structure as photocatalyst. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles with an average crystal size of 21 nm were encapsulated by PANI via the *in situ* polymerization of aniline on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles. FT-IR, UV-Vis-NIR, XRD, SEM and TEM techniques were used to characterize the PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite. Photocatalytic activity of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite was investigated under both UV and visible light irradiations and compared with unmodified TiO₂ nanoparticles. Results indicated deposition of PANI on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles which improved the photocatalytic activity of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles.

Keywords. Photocatalyst; TiO₂ nanoparticle; polyaniline; conducting polymer; core-shell nanocomposite.

1. Introduction

In recent years, conducting polymer/inorganic hybrid materials have been extensively studied because of their synergetic effects and potential applications in chemistry, physics, electronic, optics and biotechnology (Wang and Zeng 2009a,b; Xiong *et al* 2010). The physical and chemical properties of final conducting polymer/inorganic composite can be tuned through proper selection of conducting polymer type and inorganic material for particular purposes. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) due to the advantages of high chemical stability, high photocatalytic activity, relatively low cost and nontoxicity, is one of the most important photoactive reagents which are widely used for degradation of air and water organic pollutants (Dey *et al* 2004; Wang *et al* 2010). TiO₂ acts as a photocatalyst in advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) by generation of reactive OH[•] radicals. The OH[•] radicals can oxidize a broad range of organic pollutants (Mishra and Srivastava 2008; Salem *et al* 2009; Polyakov *et al* 2010). However, TiO₂ due to its wide bandgap (3.2 eV), can only be photoactive under UV light ($\lambda < 366$ nm) which has carcinogenic effect and occupies small fraction (3–5%) of solar photons (Li *et al* 2008a,b; Narayana *et al* 2011). Also relatively high recombination rate of electron–hole pairs in excited TiO₂ restricts its photocatalytic activity (Min *et al* 2007). Various attempts have been made to extend the photoresponse region of TiO₂ towards visible light and increase its photocatalytic efficiency under UV and visible light irradiations (Zhu *et al* 2010). Doping of TiO₂ by metals (Sakthivel *et al* 2004), and non-metals (Lu *et al* 2007), deposition of noble metals on the surface of TiO₂ (Li and Li

2001), composition of TiO₂ with narrow bandgap semiconductors (Li *et al* 2009) and surface dye sensitization of TiO₂ (Sun and Xu 2009), are the most common methods which have been used to improve photocatalytic performance of TiO₂. Although, among these methods dye sensitization is a promising method to improve the photoactivity of TiO₂ under visible light region, but it suffers from dissolution and photocatalytic degradation of the dyes (Min *et al* 2007). Conducting polymers with extended π -conjugated electron system and good environmental stability act as stable photo-sensitizer to sensitize TiO₂ by the absorption of a broad spectrum of ultraviolet and visible light (190–800 nm) irradiations (Wang and Min 2007; Wang *et al* 2009). Among conducting polymers PANI is a good candidate due to its high stability, low cost, high charge (electron-hole) carrying efficiency and ease of synthesis (Wang and Min 2007; Olad and Rashidzadeh 2008; Olad and Naseri 2010). TiO₂ is a typical *n*-type semiconductor and PANI is usually considered as a *p*-type conducting polymer (Shi *et al* 2009; Zhu *et al* 2010). Thus their combination brings a good capacitive material with good conductivity and stability (Ganesan and Gedanken 2008). There are several reports on the preparation, investigation of properties (Somani *et al* 1999; Li *et al* 2004, 2006; Yavuz and Gok 2007) and applications of PANI/TiO₂ composite materials (Zhang *et al* 2006; Sathiyarayanan *et al* 2007; Lokesh *et al* 2008). Studies on the surface and interface properties of PANI/TiO₂ have indicated that a nanocomposite at the molecular level has been created (Somani *et al* 1999; Li *et al* 2003). Previous researchers have shown that properties of PANI/TiO₂ composites are quite different from pure PANI or TiO₂, which is due to the existence of strong interaction between two components (Nagaraja *et al* 2009; Kim *et al* 2009). The

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synthesis method has a great effect on the final properties of PANI/TiO₂ composite (Xu *et al* 2005; Shi *et al* 2009; Karim *et al* 2009). Various methods such as ultrasonic irradiation, *in situ* polymerization, self assembly method, graft polymerization and UV curable polymerization methods have been used to prepare PANI/TiO₂ composite systems (Li *et al* 2006; Kim *et al* 2009). *In situ* polymerization of aniline in the presence of TiO₂ nanoparticles has been used commonly for preparation of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposites (Xu *et al* 2005; Zhang *et al* 2005, 2006; Yavuz and Gok 2007). In addition to TiO₂ with established photocatalytic behaviour (Chen and Liu 2007), conjugated polymers were also used for photocatalysis (Muktha *et al* 2007). The photosensitizing effect of PANI on TiO₂ has been reported. The application of a conducting polymer such as PANI expands the photoactive region of TiO₂ toward visible light irradiation (Min *et al* 2007; Wang and Min 2007; Li *et al* 2008a,b). Many efforts have been made to improve photocatalytic activity of the PANI/TiO₂ system (Wang and Zeng 2009a,b; Liao *et al* 2011). The application of PANI/TiO₂ as a photocatalyst for the photodegradation of environmental pollutants has been investigated in literature (Li *et al* 2008a,b; Salem *et al* 2009). Liu and Guo (1991) used the hybrid of PANI and TiO₂ for photocatalytic removal of phenol from water. The synergetic effects of PANI and TiO₂ in photocatalytic degradation of colourful water contaminants under visible light irradiation have been demonstrated (Zhang *et al* 2008; Wang *et al* 2010; Liao *et al* 2011). In this study, the PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite was prepared using *in situ* polymerization method and then photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange (MeO) in the presence of low amount of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite as photocatalyst was investigated.

2. Experimental

2.1 Materials and reagents

Aniline monomer (Merck Company, Germany) was distilled two times under vacuum and stored below 4 °C prior to use. TiO₂ nanoparticles (Degussa P25, average crystal size, 21 nm) were used to prepare PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite. All other reagents including ammonium peroxodisulfate (APS, (NH₄)₂S₂O₈), hydrochloric acid (HCl) and methyl orange (MeO), were purchased from Merck Company as analytical grade and were used as received.

2.2 Preparation of PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite

PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite was prepared as follows: TiO₂ nanoparticles (1 g) were dispersed in 190 ml of HCl aqueous solution (1.21 M) containing 0.3 ml aniline under ultrasonic vibration to reduce the aggregation of TiO₂ nanoparticles. APS (0.863 g) was dissolved in 15 ml of HCl aqueous solution (1.21 M) and added drop wise into the solution containing aniline monomer under constant stirring.

The mixture was allowed to polymerize under stirring for 5 h at room temperature. Reaction mixture was filtered under vacuum and washed with ethanol and water and then dried at 60 °C for 24 h to obtain PANI emeraldine salt (ES) as a green powder.

2.3 Instruments

Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra of HCl-doped PANI and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite were obtained by using a Bruker Tensor 27 spectrometer. Morphology of samples was observed on a Cam scan MV 2300 scanning electron microscope (SEM) and a Philips-CM10 transmission electron microscope (TEM) with an accelerating voltage of 100 kV. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were taken on a Siemens D5000 X-ray diffractometer with a Cu K α X-ray radiation ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm). A Shimadzu UV-1700 Farma spectrophotometer was used to record the UV-Vis-near IR spectra of samples and degradation measurement of MeO solutions.

2.4 Evaluation of photocatalysis

The photocatalytic activity of pristine TiO₂ and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite was evaluated by determining the decolourization efficiency and rate constant of MeO photodegradation. The aqueous solutions of MeO were used as model pollutant for investigation of the photocatalytic activity of samples. 0.01 g of pristine TiO₂ or PANI/TiO₂ photocatalysts was added to 50 ml of MeO aqueous solution (10 mg·L⁻¹) under magnetic stirring. The solid concentration in final suspension was 200 mg·L⁻¹. The suspension was stirred in dark condition at room temperature (25 °C) for 30 min to achieve adsorption equilibrium for MeO. Afterward, the suspension was illuminated by a 50 W linear halogen lamp equipped with UVA absorbent filter ($\lambda > 400$ nm) for 120 min. Samples for monitoring of remaining MeO concentration in aqueous solution were drawn out by a syringe equipped with 2.5 μ m pore size filter at various time intervals of photocatalytic degradation reaction. Concentration of remaining MeO was obtained by measuring the absorbance of samples at $\lambda_{\max} = 464$ nm with a UV-Vis spectrophotometer. The determined absorption was converted to concentration through the standard calibration curve (figure 1). Also figure 2 shows UV-Vis absorption spectrum of MeO aqueous solution. In the next step, same experiments were repeated exactly with 30 W UV tube lamp (length, 41 cm, diameter, 2.5 cm). The photocatalytic degradation efficiency was calculated using (1).

$$R\% = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100, \quad (1)$$

where $R\%$ is degradation efficiency of MeO, C_0 the initial concentration of MeO in aqueous solution and C_t the concentration of MeO in aqueous solution at different reaction time, t (Min *et al* 2007; Zhu *et al* 2010).

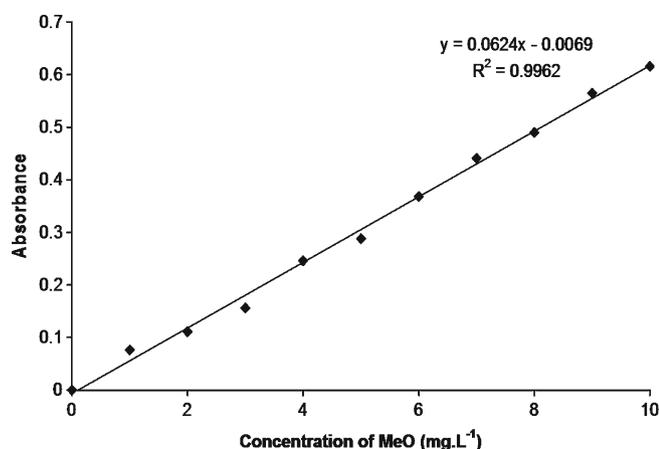


Figure 1. Calibration curve of MeO in $\lambda_{\max} = 464$ nm.

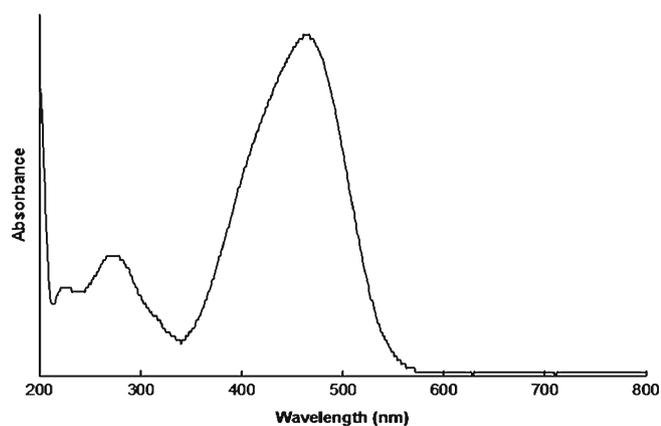


Figure 2. UV-Vis absorption spectrum of MeO aqueous solution (1 ppm).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 FT-IR spectra

Fourier transform–infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy was used to characterize the prepared PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite. Figure 3 shows FT-IR spectra of HCl-doped PANI (figure 3a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (figure 3b). According to figure 3a, the main characteristic peaks of HCl-doped PANI appeared at 3461, 1527, 1444, 1280, 1220 and 783 cm⁻¹. The peak at 3461 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the stretching mode of N–H band. C=N and C=C stretching modes of the quinoid and benzenoid units occur at 1527 cm⁻¹ and 1444 cm⁻¹, respectively, while the band at 1280 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the C–N stretching mode of the benzenoid unit. The band at 1087 cm⁻¹ is due to quinoid unit of HCl-doped PANI and the peak at 783 cm⁻¹ is associated with the C–C and C–H bands of benzenoid unit (Kim *et al* 2009). Figure 3b reveals main characteristic peaks of HCl-doped PANI appearing in the FT-IR spectrum of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite, which are 3400, 1610, 1537, 1456, 1288, 1226 and 790 cm⁻¹, respectively. Also, the characteristic peak of TiO₂ (638 cm⁻¹)

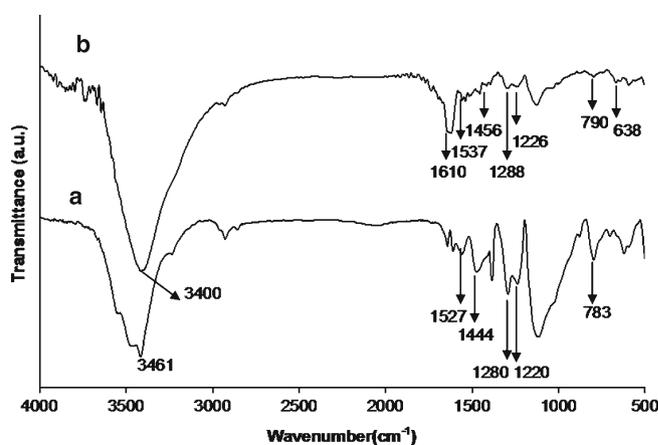


Figure 3. FT-IR spectra of HCl-doped PANI (a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (b).

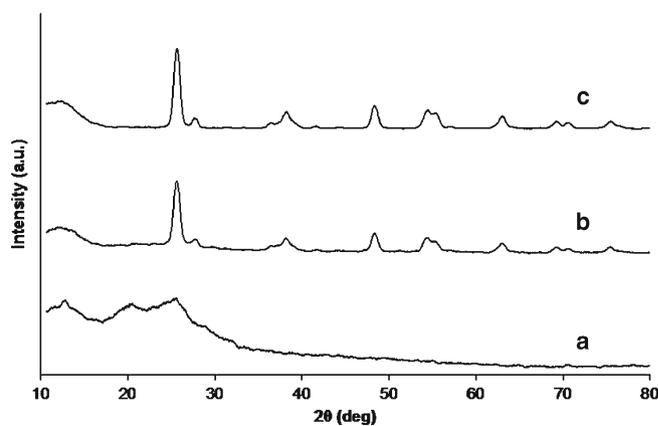


Figure 4. XRD patterns of pure HCl-doped PANI (a), PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (b) and pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles (c).

appeared at the FT-IR spectrum of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite. The shift of the PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite characteristic peaks toward higher values and appearance of a new peak (1610 cm⁻¹) in the FT-IR spectrum of PANI/TiO₂, indicate a strong interaction that was created at the interface of PANI and TiO₂ in the PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite. When APS as oxidant is added to the reaction system, PANI formation proceeds initially on the surface of TiO₂ and a shell of PANI is formed on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles. It leads to the high adhesion of PANI chains to the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles (Min *et al* 2007). Also titanium as a transition metal element has intense tendency to form coordination compounds with nitrogen atom in PANI molecules. Simultaneously, hydrogen bonding can occur between PANI and TiO₂ nanoparticles (Li *et al* 2008b). Therefore, a nanocomposite at molecular level was formed.

3.2 X-ray diffraction patterns

Figure 4 shows X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles, HCl-doped PANI and PANI/TiO₂

nanocomposite. Figure 4a reveals that PANI also has some degree of crystallinity. A broad peak around $2\theta = 25^\circ$ in XRD pattern of HCl-doped PANI may be attributed to the scattering from PANI chains at interplanar spacing (Li *et al* 2004). Figure 4b shows appearance of peaks in XRD pattern of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles which can be indexed as the anatase polymorph of TiO₂ (Dong *et al* 2010). Also figures 4b and c show that there is no difference between XRD pattern of PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite and XRD pattern of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles, which reveals deposition of PANI on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles which has no effect on the crystallinity of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Therefore, the polymorph of TiO₂ in the PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite is still anatase. However, PANI peaks in the PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite are not detected. This result suggested that the crystallization of PANI molecular chain has been hampered in PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (Lai *et al* 2011). This is because when PANI chains are adsorbed on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles, due to the restrictive effect of TiO₂ nanoparticles crystallinity of PANI is compromised (Xia and Wang 2002). The crystallite size of pure TiO₂ nanoparticles and core-shell PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite was calculated to be 21.2 nm and 25.7 nm, respectively according to the Debye–Scherrer formula (2):

$$D = \frac{0.89\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}, \quad (2)$$

where D is the average crystallite size (Å), λ the wavelength of X-ray radiation (Cu K α), β the full width at half maximum (FWHM) intensity of the peak and θ the Bragg diffraction angle (Pourata *et al* 2009). Calculated crystallite sizes of pure TiO₂ nanoparticles and PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite indicate that the thickness of PANI shell on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles in PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite is ~ 5 nm, which is consistent with TEM results.

3.3 Morphological studies

The surface morphology and surface area are very effective parameters in photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ nanoparticles. TiO₂ nanoparticles due to the high surface energy tend to be aggregated. This agglomeration deteriorates the photocatalytic activity through the reduction of effective surface area of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Therefore, investigation of the surface area and morphology of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite as photocatalyst is vital. Figure 5 shows scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of pristine TiO₂ (figure 5a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (figure 5b). Results show more agglomeration of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles while TiO₂ nanoparticles modified by PANI (PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite) are in more separated state. This could be due to the formation of PANI shell on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles which causes repulsion forces between nanoparticles and prevents their agglomeration (Li *et al* 2008b). According to the UV-Vis

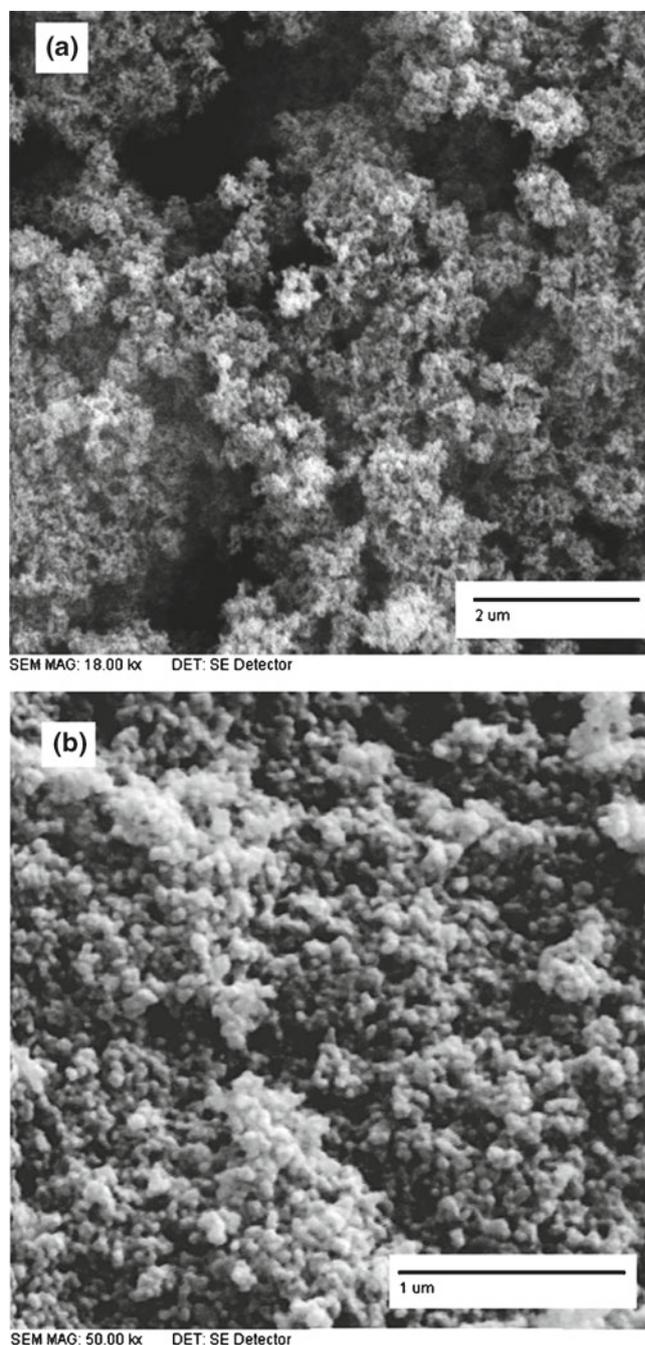


Figure 5. SEM micrographs of (a) pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles and (b) PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite.

spectroscopy results which will be noted in § 3.5, PANI in ES form which encapsulates TiO₂ nanoparticles is positively charged, resulting in repulsion hence minimizing agglomeration of TiO₂ nanoparticles (Kim *et al* 2009). Figure 6 shows transmission electron micrographs (TEM) of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles (figure 6a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (figure 6b). Figure 6 reveals pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles are highly agglomerated while this agglomeration in PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite decreased considerably. Figure 6b presents

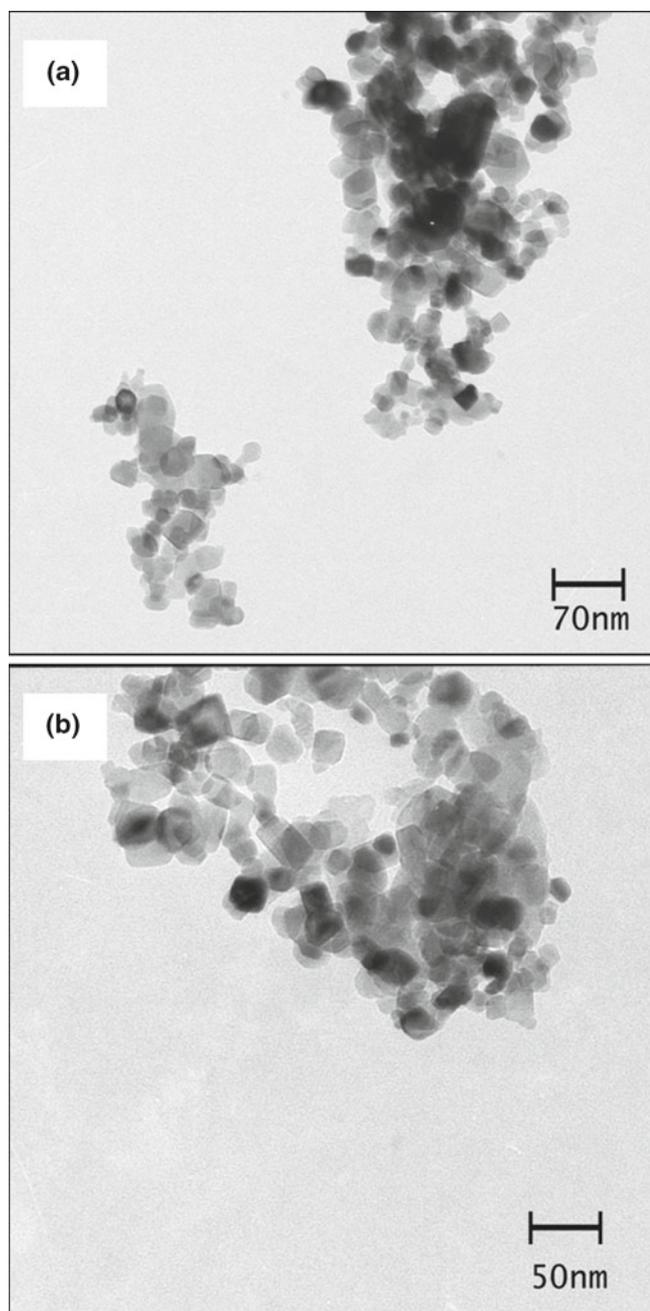


Figure 6. TEM images of (a) pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles and (b) PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite.

that PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite possesses a core-shell structure. Therefore, a core-shell structure has been formed by the *in situ* polymerization of aniline on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

3.4 Formation mechanism of core-shell PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite

It has been well known that TiO₂ nanoparticles have zero charge point at pH=6. Therefore, they are positively

charged in acidic solution required for the *in situ* polymerization of aniline as indicated by (3) (Kosmulski 2002; Chen and Cao 2006; Salem *et al* 2009).



Figure 7 illustrates the formation mechanism of core-shell PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite. Chloride anions are adsorbed on the positively charged surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles to neutralize the created positive charge on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Aniline monomer in acidic solution (HCl) is transformed to the anilinium cation. Therefore, electrostatic interaction occurred between chloride anions adsorbed on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles and anilinium monomers, which are available in reaction media. Polymerization of anilinium cations, causes formation of PANI shell around the TiO₂ nanoparticles. This mechanism suggests the formation of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite with core-shell structure which is highly probable by the modification of TiO₂ nanoparticles via the *in situ* polymerization of aniline. Results obtained by SEM and TEM micrographs are in good agreement with the proposed mechanism (Li *et al* 2008b).

3.5 Light absorption characteristics of photocatalysts

The absorption of light energy is the basis of TiO₂ photocatalytic activity. To understand the effect of PANI on the light absorption characteristics of TiO₂ nanoparticles, UV-Vis-NIR spectra of samples were recorded (figure 8). UV-Vis-NIR spectrum of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite shows the absorption peaks at 228, 332, 460 and 790 nm. The peak at 228 nm was attributed to TiO₂ comprising the core of PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite. The peak observed at 332 nm is corresponding to $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition or exciton transition. Two broad absorption peaks at 460 and 790 nm should be assigned to the polaron- π^* and π -polaron transition from the charged cationic species in the PANI ES state (Kim *et al* 2009). As shown in figure 8, the PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite exhibits different optical behaviour from that observed for pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles. PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite not only absorbs the UV light but also significantly absorb the visible and near-IR (figure 8b). Whereas pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles absorb only the UV region and a small part of visible light (figure 8a). These results indicate that PANI is a good sensitizer for TiO₂ nanoparticles and increases the photoactive region of TiO₂ nanoparticles through the absorption of visible and near-IR lights (Wang and Min 2007).

3.6 Photocatalytic activities of pristine and modified TiO₂ nanoparticles

The photocatalytic activity of pristine TiO₂ and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite was evaluated under UV and visible light irradiations. The photocatalytic degradation efficiency of

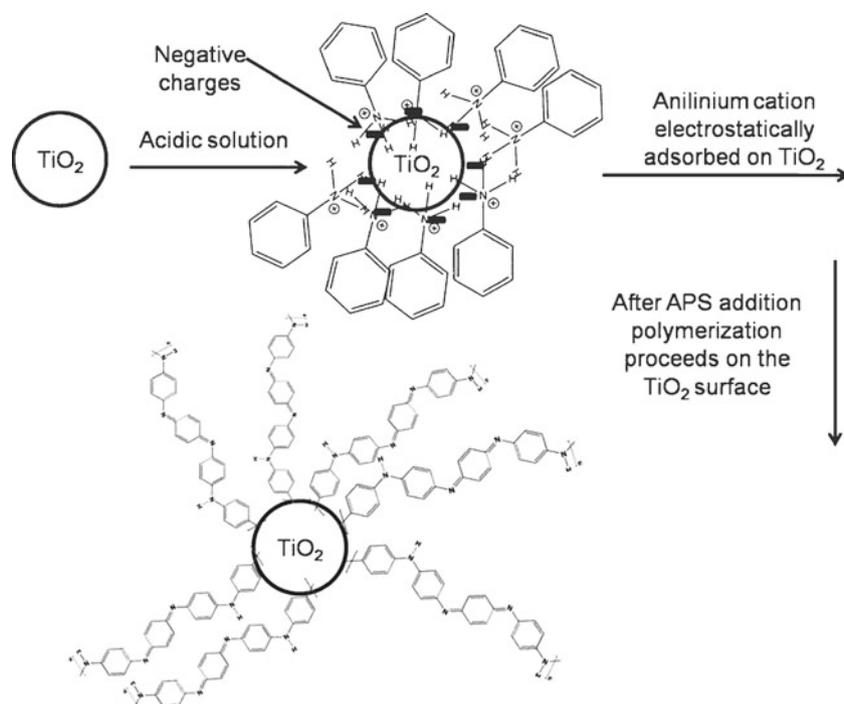


Figure 7. Formation scheme of PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite.

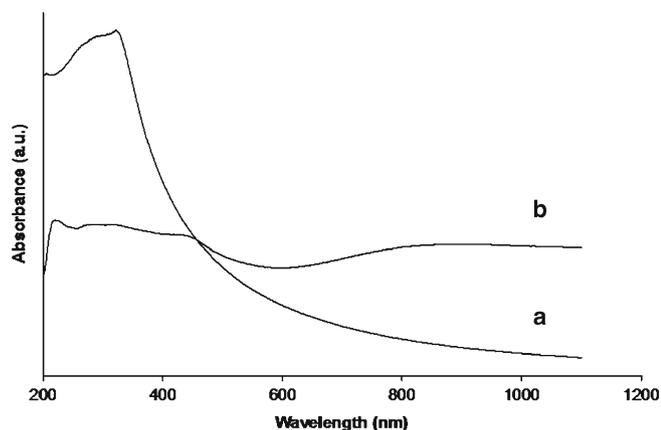


Figure 8. UV-Vis-NIR spectra of pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles (a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (b).

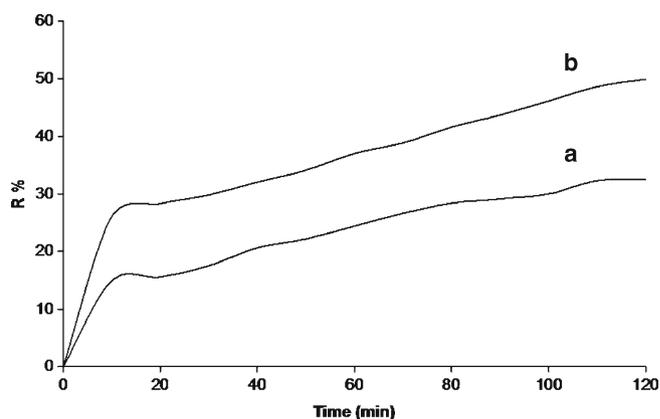


Figure 9. Degradation efficiency of MeO during 120 min illumination under visible light using pristine TiO₂ (a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (b) as photocatalyst.

MeO in the presence of pristine TiO₂ and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite was obtained according to the procedure described § 2. Figure 9 shows photodegradation efficiency of MeO in the presence of TiO₂ and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite photocatalysts under visible light irradiation against contact time. Figure 9 indicates photodegradation efficiency of MeO in the presence of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite as photocatalyst is significantly higher than pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles. The kinetic plots for MeO degradation with pristine TiO₂ and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite photocatalysts under visible light illumination are shown by pseudo-first order reaction (Li *et al* 2008a,b; Wang and Zeng 2009a; Wang

et al 2010; Liao *et al* 2010) in figure 10. This model is described by (4).

$$-\ln(C_t/C_0) = k_{app}t, \quad (4)$$

where k_{app} is the apparent rate constant, C_0 the initial concentration of MeO and C_t the concentration of MeO at various contact times, t .

Half time of MeO photodegradation was calculated using (5) which was derived from (4) by replacing C_t with $C_0/2$ (Dong *et al* 2010):

$$t_{1/2} = \ln 2/k = 0.6931/k_{app}, \quad (5)$$

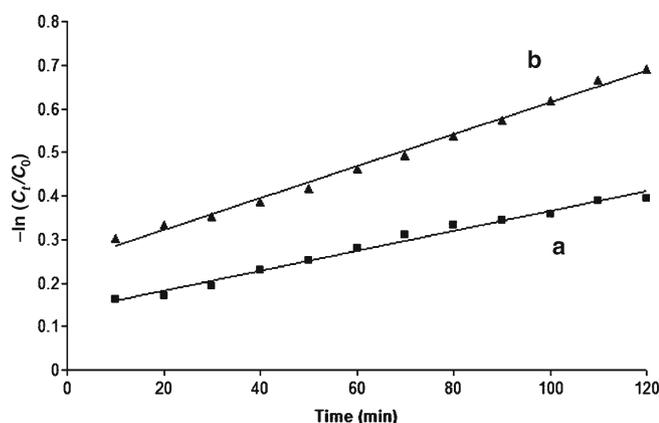


Figure 10. Kinetics plots for linear fitting of data obtained from pseudo-first-order reaction model for MeO degradation under visible light irradiation using pristine TiO₂ (a) and PANI/TiO₂ (b) as photocatalyst.

Table 1. Apparent rate constants (k_{app}), linear regression coefficients, half time of MeO photodegradation from a plot of $-\ln(C_t/C_0) = k_{app}t$ and degradation efficiency (%) of MeO after 120 min illumination under visible light.

Photocatalyst	Degradation efficiency (%)	R^2	k_{app} (min ⁻¹)	$t_{1/2}$ (min)
Neat TiO ₂	32.5	0.993	0.0023	301.35
PANI/TiO ₂	49.9	0.985	0.0037	187.32

The determined pseudo-first-order rate constants (k_{app}), linear regression coefficients (R^2), degradation efficiency and half time of MeO photodegradation after 120 min illumination are presented in table 1. From table 1, it can be seen that the deposition of PANI shell on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles improves apparent rate constant and half time of MeO degradation compared to pristine nano-TiO₂ photocatalyst. Figure 11 shows photodegradation efficiency of MeO against contact time with TiO₂ and PANI/TiO₂ photocatalysts under UV irradiation. Figure 11 indicates degradation efficiency of MeO in the presence of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite which is higher than pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles. The kinetic plots of MeO degradation with PANI/TiO₂ and pristine TiO₂ photocatalysts under UV light illumination are shown in figure 12. Also apparent rate constants, regression coefficients, degradation efficiency and half time of MeO photodegradation under UV illumination are tabulated in table 2. One of the possible reasons for the improvement of PANI/TiO₂ photocatalytic activity under both UV and visible light illuminations is the reduced aggregation state of TiO₂ nanoparticles in PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite. This leads to the higher specific surface area and higher interaction between PANI/TiO₂ photocatalyst and dye aqueous solution compared to pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles (Li *et al* 2008a,b). Therefore, adsorption of dye molecules on the nanocomposite is higher than pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles.

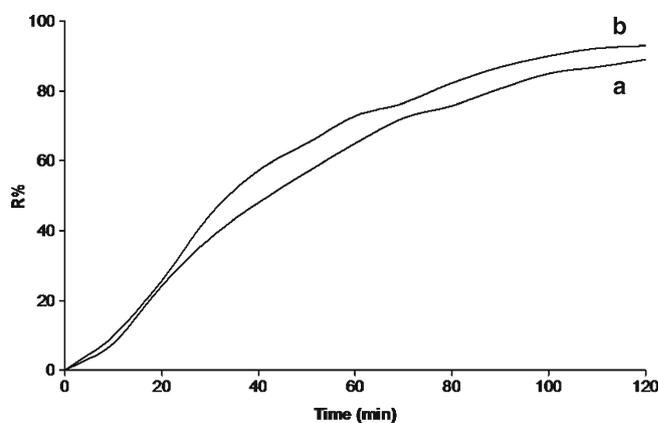


Figure 11. Degradation efficiency of MeO during 120 min illumination under UV light using pristine TiO₂ (a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (b) as photocatalyst.

Both PANI and TiO₂ nanoparticles absorb photons at their interface under irradiation. Since the CB of TiO₂ and lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of PANI are well matched for the charge transfer, the electrons generated by PANI $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition under visible light illumination can be injected into the CB of TiO₂ and the electrons in the VB of TiO₂ are delivered to PANI layer (Wang and Min 2007). While under UV light illumination photogenerated holes in the VB of TiO₂ can be transferred directly to highest unoccupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of PANI, as the VB of TiO₂ matches well with the HOMO of PANI (Zhang *et al* 2008). Subsequently the photogenerated electron-hole pairs in the PANI/TiO₂ photocatalyst interface can be transferred to the surface, which reacts directly with adsorbed MeO molecules on the surface of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite or indirectly decompose MeO through the production of OH[•] radicals (Salem *et al* 2009). Therefore, charge separation enhancement in PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite interface causes improvement of photocatalytic activity of PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite under both UV and visible light illuminations. Enhancement of charge separation in the PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite is achieved, because PANI is an efficient electron donor and good hole transporter. These features of PANI lead to the effective separation of photogenerated electron-holes at the interface of PANI and TiO₂ in the nanocomposite (Zhang *et al* 2008; Wang *et al* 2010). Although in this particular molar ratio of TiO₂/PANI (3-79) which was used to prepare PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite, improvement of PANI/TiO₂ photocatalytic activity under UV light illumination is negligible compared to pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles while, photocatalytic activity of the same composition of PANI/TiO₂ under visible light irradiation is considerably higher than pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles. Also, the obtained regression coefficients suggest the kinetics equation of MeO photodegradation under both UV and visible light illuminations well concisely follow the pseudo-first order reaction kinetics.

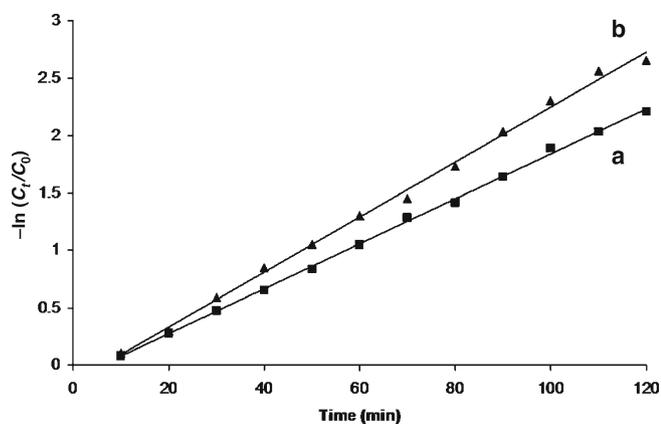


Figure 12. Kinetics plots for linear fitting of data obtained from pseudo-first-order reaction model for MeO degradation under UV light irradiation using pristine TiO₂ (a) and PANI/TiO₂ nanocomposite (b) as photocatalyst.

Table 2. Apparent rate constants (k_{app}), linear regression coefficients, half time of MeO photodegradation from a plot of $-\ln(C_t/C_0) = k_{app}t$ and degradation efficiency (%) of MeO after 120 min illumination under UV light.

Photocatalyst	Degradation efficiency (%)	R^2	k_{app} (min ⁻¹)	$t_{1/2}$
Neat TiO ₂	89.0	0.998	0.0192	36.09
PANI/TiO ₂	92.9	0.996	0.0235	29.49

4. Conclusions

TiO₂ nanoparticles were successfully encapsulated by PANI via *in situ* chemical oxidative polymerization method. Deposition of PANI on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles and formation of a core-shell nanocomposite at molecular level were confirmed by FT-IR, UV-Vis-NIR, XRD, SEM and TEM techniques. Results show PANI is a promising material for increasing the photoactivity of TiO₂ nanoparticles under both UV and visible light irradiations. Therefore, surface modification of TiO₂ nanoparticles by PANI via the *in situ* polymerization is a facile method for increasing of the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ nanoparticles. The PANI/TiO₂ core-shell nanocomposite showed better photocatalytic activity for MeO photodegradation in aqueous solution compared to the pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles under both UV and visible light illuminations.

Acknowledgement

The financial support of this research by the University of Tabriz is gratefully acknowledged.

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