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Comparing the photocatalytic activity of suspended and floating Ag-decorated TiO₂ for dye removal

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ABSTRACT

We proposed a two-step synthesis process to fabricate floating TiO2 and Ag-decorated TiO2 (Ag/TiO2) photocatalysts. In the first step, an ultrasound-assisted sol-gel method followed by spray drying was adopted to synthesize powder photocatalysts. Next, the powder samples were immobilized onto a floating polyurethane foam (PUF) support with an ultrasound-assisted impregnation method. The photocatalytic activity of TiO2 and Ag/ TiO2 was evaluated to remove methyl orange (MO) as a dye pollutant in two suspended and floating photocatalytic systems. Ag decoration on TiO2 improved the optical and textural properties by narrowing the bandgap energy to 2.9 eV and increasing the surface area from 10 m²/g to 30 m²/g. Ag/TiO₂ exhibited higher photocatalytic activity compared to TiO2 for MO removal, which was 98 % for suspended and 95 % for floating catalysts under simulated sunlight irradiation. In addition, floating photocatalysts exhibited higher photocatalytic activity over five cycles of reuse. Floating Ag/TiO $_2$ @PUF maintained 89 % of its initial photoactivity, while suspended Ag/TiO2 lost 50 % after the five cycles. Moreover, we investigated the effect of operating conditions on the photocatalytic performance of floating Ag/TiO2@PUF. Optimal conditions for the complete removal of MO below detection limits were obtained as follows: Ag/TiO2@PUF loading = 0.4:200 g/mL, initial MO concentration = 5 mg/L, time = 90 min, and pH = 4 under simulated sunlight irradiation. This study highlights the potential of floating photocatalyst systems as a sustainable, reusable, and scalable approach for wastewater treatment, addressing challenges in catalyst recovery and efficiency under real-world conditions.

1. Introduction

 TiO_2 as an n-type semiconductor photocatalyst has been investigated for wastewater treatment owing to its super-hydrophilicity, chemical and thermal stability, optical properties, and photocatalytic activity [1–4]. However, the wide bandgap of TiO_2 (3.0–3.2 eV) confines its photoactivity to the UV region ($\lambda \leq 400$ nm). The fast recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs in TiO_2 also reduces its photocatalytic efficiency [5–8].

To cope with the restrictions mentioned above, TiO_2 can be modified by metals, non-metals, and secondary semiconductors [9]. The incorporation of metals into TiO_2 can narrow its bandgap energy and prevent the recombination of electron-hole pairs, thereby improving the

photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 for wastewater treatment applications [10]. This modification involves a variety of metals, including transition metals (e.g., Cr, Cu, Ni, Fe, V, W, Mn, Zn, and Ru), noble metals (e.g., Ag, Au, Pt, and Pd), and rare earth metals (e.g., Nd, Tb, Ce, Er, La, and Eu) [11]. Among these, composite Ag/ TiO_2 photocatalysts have drawn research interest in wastewater treatment [12,13]. The presence of Ag in TiO_2 enhances its photocatalytic activity by reducing the recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and improving visible light absorption [14–16].

Immobilizing photocatalysts on supports affects the stability and reusability of photoactive materials [10]. Porous polyurethane foam (PUF) is one of the floating supports, which has a low density ($<1000~kg/m^3$) [17,18]. PUF improves the adsorption of pollutants due to its

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open-pore structure, which increases porosity and surface area [19]. In addition, photocatalysts deposited onto floating PUF tackle shortcomings such as the recovery and reusability of suspended photocatalysts, which hinder practical applications [19]. Moreover, the floating catalytic foam under sunlight irradiation benefits from access to the water-air interface [20]. This floating system causes a temperature gradient at the water-air interface, called the photothermal effect [21–23]. This attains the temperature-induced pumping effect and speeds up the mass transfer for photocatalysis [21]. The photothermal effect in the floating catalyst photoreactor also improves the absorption of oxygen from the air, enhancing photocatalytic reactions with increasing reactive oxygen species in the submerged part of floating photocatalysts in water [22].

Floating TiO2-based photocatalysts have been explored for wastewater treatment. According to the literature, Zhang et al. [24] synthesized mesoporous SiO2-TiO2 photocatalysts supported on a floating polyurethane foam. Phenol and 2,4,5-trichlorophenol were completely removed by floating SiO2-TiO2/PUF after 3h and 6h under UV irradiation, respectively. TiO2-ZnO photocatalysts immobilized on a floating light-expanded clay aggregate support (TiO₂–ZnO/LECA) were prepared by Mohammadi et al. [25], achieving 95.2 % of ammonia removal under UV light within 3h. Mohamad Idris et al. [26] fabricated floating photocatalysts, which were TiO2 nanoparticles immobilized on cork as a floating substrate. This resulted in 98.4 % of methylene blue degradation after 2h of visible light. Cai et al. [27] described immobilizing co-doped magnetic N-TiO_{2-x}/rGO photocatalysts on floating cellulose nanofibrous. The floating N-TiO_{2-x}/rGO@cellulose degraded 96.2 % of Bisphenol A after 60 min under visible light. In another study, carbon and nitrogen co-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles supported on floating alginate beads were designed to remove diazinon [28]. The floating C, N-TiO₂/alginate bead removed 80.6 % of diazinon after 8h of exposure to solar light.

In the synthesis process of photocatalysts, ultrasonication assists in providing a uniform particle size distribution in photocatalysts through acoustic cavitation and macro shear rates [29,30]. This phenomenon consists of the fast formation, expansion, and intense collapse of bubbles in the liquid, leading to a high temperature (up to 5000 K) and pressure (20 MPa) and quick cooling rate [31–33]. In addition, the ultrasound-assisted impregnation method leads to the uniform distribution of photocatalysts onto their supports [34,35]. Besides ultrasonication, spray drying during the photocatalyst synthesis process provides a swift, continuous approach whereby lengthy drying steps are avoided. This technique is also advantageous when scaling up during the commercialization process [36,37]. Therefore, by applying ultrasonication and spray drying in subsequent steps during the synthesis of photoactive materials, we expect to enhance photocatalytic activity.

To the best of our knowledge, no study has been reported for the treatment of dye-containing wastewater using floating Ag/TiO₂ photocatalyst immobilized on porous PUF (Ag/TiO₂@PUF). We proposed a new synthesis process, i.e., an ultrasound-assisted sol-gel method followed by spray drying to manufacture a floating photocatalytic device. We compared the photocatalytic activity of suspended TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂ with floating TiO₂@PUF and Ag/TiO₂@PUF to remove methyl orange (MO) as a model organic dye pollutant under simulated sunlight irradiation. In addition, we investigated the effects of operating parameters, including photocatalyst amount, MO concentration, and pH, on MO removal efficiency and kinetics study. Moreover, we examined the possible mechanism of MO removal by Ag/TiO₂@PUF and the main reactive species involved in the photocatalytic reaction under optimal conditions.

We hypothesized that floating TiO_2 @PUF and Ag/TiO_2 @PUF photocatalysts, inspired by photosynthesis, offer key advantages such as enhanced sunlight and oxygen harnessing over conventional suspended systems to remove MO at lower cost.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Ti(IV)-butoxide ($C_{16}H_{36}O_4Ti$, 97 %) and methyl orange ($C_{14}H_{14}N_3NaO_3S$, 85 %) were analytical grade reagents purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ethanol (C_2H_6O , 95 %) was provided by Commercial Alcohols, and silver nitrate solution (AgNO₃, 0.1 N) was supplied by Merck. A commercial polyurethane foam (PUF, Porosity: Medium, 20 PPI) was obtained from Amtra (Italy). All solutions were prepared with deionized water, and the reagents were used as they were received without further purification.

2.2. Synthesis of photocatalysts

We synthesized pure TiO2 and 2 wt% Ag-decorated TiO2 by an ultrasound-assisted sol-gel method followed by spray drying. An ultrasonic processor (VCX500, Sonics and Materials) equipped with a solid probe with a diameter of 13 mm was employed (measured power: 40 W; duty cycle: 2 s on, 2 s off for 1 h; processing volume: 120 mL). The ultrasound power was calibrated through calorimetry [38]. The operating parameters of the spray dryer (TP-S15, TOPTION) included a feeding slurry concentration of 20 %, peristaltic pump feed rate of 30 rpm, temperature of 180 °C, and needle of 6 s. For the synthesis of Ag/TiO₂, we added AgNO₃ solution (5 mL) dropwise in deionized water (10 mL) to the mixture of C₁₆H₃₆O₄Ti (25 mL) and ethanol (80 mL) under continuous ultrasonication [9,39]. After that, the resulting sol was fed to the spray dryer. The powder sample obtained from the spray dryer was then calcined in a furnace at 600 °C for 2 h at a temperature rate of 2 °C/min under static air, yielding Ag/TiO₂. TiO₂ was prepared using the same procedure without adding AgNO₃ solution.

The next step of the synthesis was to immobilize TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 onto a floating PUF by an ultrasound-assisted impregnation method. First, different amounts of TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 (0.5 g, 1 g, and 1.5 g) in deionized water were added to the PUF under continuous ultrasonication (40 W, 20 min). After that, ethanol (15 mL) was added to the solution, and the PUF was then immersed in the solution of deionized water and ethanol. Finally, the resulting solutions were dried at 80 °C for 24 h in the oven to obtain floating TiO_2 @PUF and Ag/TiO_2 @PUF.

2.3. Characterization

The crystalline phase of the synthesized photocatalysts was analyzed by a powder X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 advance, Bruker). Weight fractions of anatase and rutile phases were calculated by the Spurr Equation (Equation (1)), where I_R and I_A are the intensity of the strongest reflections for rutile and anatase phases [40].

$$f_A \% = \frac{1}{\left(1 + 1.26 \frac{\langle I_R \rangle}{\langle I_A \rangle}\right)}$$
 (1)

The crystallite size of the photocatalysts was calculated using the Scherrer Equation [41].

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \tag{2}$$

In Equation (2), D is the crystallite size (nm), K is a constant (shape factor = 0.94), λ is the wavelength of the X-ray radiation source (Cu-K α = 0.15406 nm), β is the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the peak (in radian), and θ is half of the Bragg angle (in degrees).

The lattice parameters of the synthesized photocatalysts were determined with Bragg's law by the following equations [42] using XRD diffraction peaks of tetragonal TiO_2 .

$$d_{(hkl)} = \frac{\lambda}{2\sin\theta} \tag{3}$$

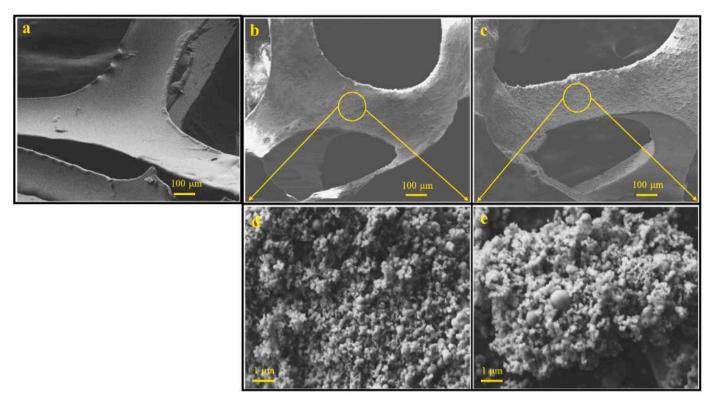


Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) PUF, (b) TiO2@PUF, (c) Ag/TiO2@PUF, (d) TiO2, and (e) Ag/TiO2.

$$\frac{1}{\left(d_{(hkl)}\right)^{2}} = \frac{h^{2}}{a^{2}} + \frac{k^{2}}{b^{2}} + \frac{l^{2}}{c^{2}} \tag{4}$$

In Equations 3-4, h, k, l are the indices of crystal planes, $d_{(hkl)}$ is the distance between the crystal planes of (hkl), θ is the diffraction angle of the crystal planes of (hkl), and a, b, c are lattice parameters of the photocatalysts $(a = b \neq c)$.

Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) analysis was performed by a UV–Vis spectrophotometer (EvolutionTM 220, Thermo Fisher Scientific) to study the optical properties of the synthesized photocatalysts. The bandgap energy of the photocatalysts was calculated by plotting $[F(R) \times hv]^{0.5}$ vs. hv based on Equation (5) [41,43].

$$F(R) = \frac{(1-R)^2}{2R} \tag{5}$$

where F(R) is the Kubelka Munk function, and R is the reflectance.

The infrared photothermal images of floating samples were taken by forward looking infrared camera (FLIR-T621xx). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) was employed to investigate the morphology and elemental compositions of the photocatalysts (JSM-7600TFE, JEOL). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (JEM-2100F, JEOL) was operated to further study their morphology. Also, the size of the synthesized samples was measured using Digimizer version 5.3.5 software. For the chemical compositions and valence states of the photoactive materials, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed by an X-ray photoelectron spectrometer microprobe (VG ESCALAB 250Xi, Thermo Scientific). Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms using the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method measured the specific surface area, total pore volume, and pore size of the photocatalysts by an Autosorb-1 device (Quantachrome Instruments).

2.4. Photocatalytic system

We evaluated the photocatalytic activity of the synthesized materials

to remove MO in a batch photoreactor under simulated sunlight irradiation. In addition, the stability of TiO2, Ag/TiO2, TiO2@PUF, and Ag/TiO2@PUF was assessed for five consecutive cycles. After each cycle, we removed the photocatalysts from the system, washed them with deionized water, and then dried them in the oven at 80 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ before reusing them for the next cycle. Each cycle had the same conditions.

We investigated the effect of operating parameters on MO removal with floating Ag/TiO2@PUF under simulated sunlight irradiation as follows: Ag/TiO2@PUF amount (0.2:200 g/mL, 0.4:200 g/mL, 0.8:200 g/mL), MO concentration (5 mg/L, 10 mg/L, 20 mg/L), and pH (4, 5.7, 10). The total irradiation time was 180 min, and the initial MO volume was 200 mL. Note that the values expressed for the photocatalysts as 0.2:200 g/mL, 0.4:200 g/mL, and 0.8:200 g/mL indicate the mass coated on PUF in the 200 mL of MO solution. The pH of MO solutions was adjusted by HCl (0.1 M) and NaOH (0.1 M), and the natural pH of the MO solution was measured at 5.7. In addition, the light source was a 300 W commercial solar lamp (Ultra-Vitalux, Osram) with an intensity of 35 W/m², located 20 cm above the reactor. Before being exposed to irradiation, each sample was kept in the dark for 60 min to reach absorption-desorption equilibrium. We repeated photocatalytic experiments three times under simulated sunlight irradiation, and error bars show the standard deviation of these repetitions. MO concentration was monitored by a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Evolution™ 220, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at $\lambda_{max} = 464$ nm. The photocatalytic efficiency of MO removal (η) was calculated according to Equation (6):

$$\eta = \left(1 - \frac{C}{C_0}\right) \times 100\% \tag{6}$$

where C_0 is the initial concentration of MO and C is the concentration of MO at time t.

We identified intermediates generated during the photocatalytic degradation of MO with floating Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF under optimal conditions using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS). LC-UV-MS analyses were performed on an LC-TOF 6224 instrument from Agilent technologies with negative electrospray ionization.

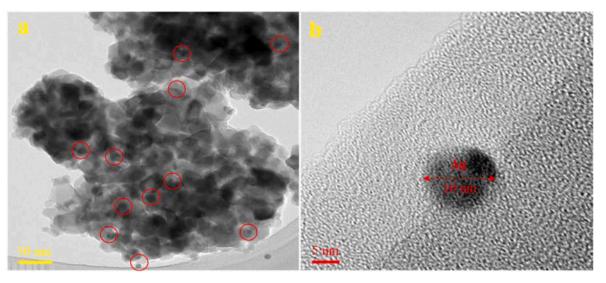


Fig. 2. TEM images of (a) Ag/TiO_2 and (b) Ag.

We quantified the concentration of Ti and Ag elements leaching from Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF using inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES, Agilent, 5110-SVDV).

2.5. Photocatalytic kinetic study

The impact of operating parameters mentioned in section 2.4 was

also examined on the kinetic of MO photocatalysis with floating Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF under simulated sunlight irradiation. We followed the Langmuir-Hinshelwood kinetics model, as shown in Equation (7) [44].

$$r = \frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{kKC}{1 + KC} \tag{7}$$

r is the rate of MO removal (mg/L.min), C is MO concentration (mg/

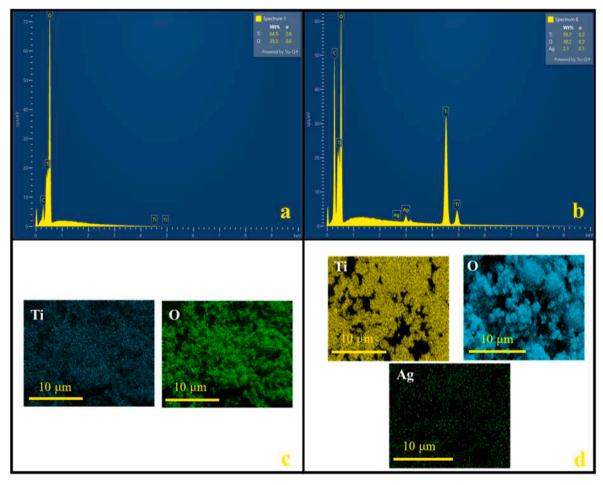


Fig. 3. EDS spectra of (a) TiO₂ and (b) Ag/TiO₂; EDS mappings of (c) TiO₂ and (d) Ag/TiO₂.

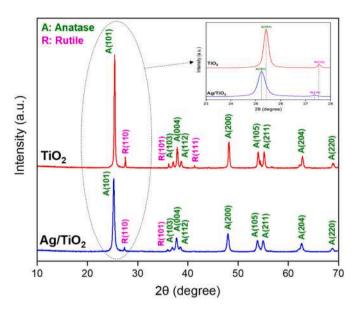


Fig. 4. XRD of TiO2 and Ag/TiO2.

L), t is irradiation time (min), k is reaction rate constant (mg/L.min), and K is MO adsorption constant (L/mg).

For low concentrations of MO, Equation (7) can be simplified to Equation (8), representing a first-order kinetics.

$$ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right) = kKt = k_{app}t\tag{8}$$

In Equation (8), k_{app} is the apparent first-order rate constant (min⁻¹).

2.6. Scavenging experiments

We investigated the main reactive species involved in MO photocatalysis by floating Ag/TiO₂@PUF by adding the scavengers Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), isopropyl alcohol (IPA), and p-benzoquinone (BQ) for photogenerated holes (h⁺), hydroxyl radicals (${}^{\bullet}$ OH), and superoxide anions (${}^{\bullet}$ O $_{2}^{-}$), respectively. We added 1 mM of each scavenger to the floating catalyst photoreactor under simulated sunlight irradiation. We performed scavenging experiments for the optimized conditions of the photocatalysts in MO removal.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Morphology and elemental compositions of TiO2@PUF and Ag/TiO2@PUF

Fig. 1a presents the smooth surface of the pristine PUF before immobilizing the photocatalysts. Fig. 1b and c shows the SEM images of $TiO_2@PUF$ and $Ag/TiO_2@PUF$ after the deposition of the photocatalysts, confirming that TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 were uniformly immobilized onto the PUF. This is due to ultrasonication in the impregnation synthesis method [35,45]. In addition, the synthesized TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 had spherical morphology, as depicted in Fig. 1d and e.

Table 1 Crystalline parameters of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂.

Lattice parameters (Å) Cell volume (Å3) Photocatalyst Crystalline phase Crystalline phase percentage Crystallite size (nm) a = bTiO₂ 3.7917 9.6672 138.98 Anatase 88 32.8 Ag/TiO₂ 92 26.5 3.7746 9.2756 132.16 Rutile TiO₂ 12 74.4 4.6113 2.9712 63.18 Ag/TiO₂ 8 26.6 4.5695 2.9528 61.65

Fig. 2a shows the TEM image of Ag/TiO_2 . Ag was uniformly loaded onto TiO_2 , marked by highlighted circles. The size of spherical Ag was 10 nm, as shown in Fig. 2b.

EDS detected Ti (64.5 %) and O (35.5 %) in TiO₂ (Fig. 3a). Also, the presence of 2.1 % Ag in Ag/TiO₂ was confirmed, along with 59.7 % of Ti and 38.2 % of O in the photocatalyst (Fig. 3b). Fig. 3c and d shows that the elements were evenly dispersed onto the synthesized photocatalysts.

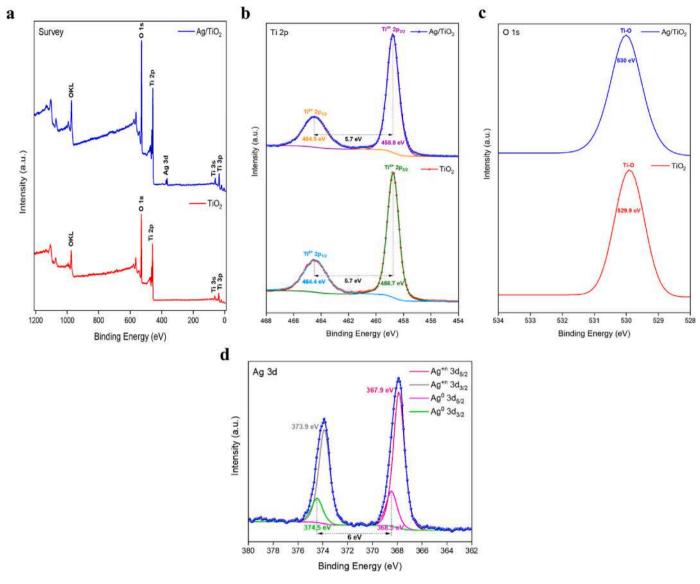
3.2. Crystalline phase of TiO2 and Ag/TiO2

Fig. 4 shows the XRD patterns of TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 . The lattice planes of the anatase phase (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (211), (204), and (220) were confirmed at 2θ values of 25.47° , 37.15° , 37.97° , 38.78° , 48.21° , 54.04° , 55.22° , 62.87° , and 69.01° , respectively (JCPDS Card Number: 01-071-1166). Moreover, peaks at 2θ values of 27.60° , 36.22° , and 41.44° equivalent to the Miller indexes of (110), (101), and (111) were characteristic of the rutile phase in the synthesized photocatalysts (JCPDS Card Number: 00-001-1292). TiO_2 -based photocatalysts having mixed phases (anatase/rutile) present higher photocatalytic activity compared to single-phase TiO_2 [46,47].

As shown in Fig. 4, the peak associated with Ag was not detected due to either the highly fine dispersion on TiO2 or, more likely, the low concentration of Ag in Ag/TiO₂ [9]. However, for Ag/TiO₂, the position of TiO₂ peaks shifted to a lower angle side, and the intensity of peaks decreased, indicating that Ag was decorated on TiO₂ [48]. We calculated the crystalline phase, crystallite size, lattice parameters, and cell volume of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂ for both the anatase phase at A (101) and the rutile phase at R (110) (Table 1). Based on the Spurr Equation, TiO2 had 88 % of the anatase phase compared to 92 % for Ag/TiO2. According to the Scherrer Equation, the average crystallite size of anatase in TiO₂ was 32.8 nm and 26.5 nm for Ag/TiO₂. On the other hand, for the rutile phase, the crystallite size of TiO2 and Ag/TiO2 was 74.4 nm and 26.6 nm, respectively. The crystallite size of Ag/TiO₂ was smaller than that of pure TiO₂ due to the higher ionic radius of Ag⁺ (126 Å) compared to Ti⁴⁺ (68 Å). This hinders the growth of TiO₂ crystallites [49]. As reported in Table 1, the lattice parameters of Ag/TiO₂ were smaller than those of TiO₂ in both anatase and rutile phases. Also, the anatase cell volume of Ag/TiO₂ was 132.16 Å^3 compared to 138.98 Å^3 for TiO₂. The reduction in lattice parameters and cell volume originates from Ag decoration on TiO₂ [48,50].

3.3. Chemical compositions and valence states of TiO2 and Ag/TiO2

Fig. 5a depicts the XPS survey spectra of TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 , which indicates the presence of Ti and O in TiO_2 and Ti, O, and Ag elements for Ag/TiO_2 . Ag/TiO_2 exhibited two peaks at binding energies of 458.8 eV for Ti $2p_{3/2}$ and 464.5 eV for Ti $2p_{1/2}$, indicating the existence of Ti^{4+} in Ag/TiO_2 based on the peak separation of 5.7 eV (Fig. 5b) [51–53]. In addition, there was about 0.1 eV shift in the Ti 2p spectrum of Ag/TiO_2 towards higher binding energy compared with TiO_2 , which can result from the improved interaction between Ti and Ag [54]. Fig. 5c shows a peak at 530 eV attributed to the lattice oxygen in Ag/TiO_2 (Ti-O) [55, 56]. In Fig. 5d, Ag 3d peaks were present at binding energies of 368.5 eV and 374.5 eV for Ag $3d_{5/2}$ and Ag $3d_{3/2}$, respectively. The binding energy difference between the two spin-orbit components was 6 eV, confirming the presence of metallic silver (Ag^0) in Ag/TiO_2 [51,53,57,58].



 $\textbf{Fig. 5.} \ \ \textbf{XPS} \ \ \textbf{spectra} \ \ \textbf{of} \ \ \textbf{TiO}_2 \ \ \textbf{and} \ \ \textbf{Ag/TiO}_2 \ \ \textbf{(a)} \ \ \textbf{Full} \ \ \textbf{spectrum, (b-d)} \ \ \textbf{High-resolution} \ \ \textbf{spectra} \ \ \textbf{of} \ \ \textbf{Ti} \ \ \textbf{2p, O} \ \ \textbf{1s, and Ag} \ \ \textbf{3d, respectively.}$

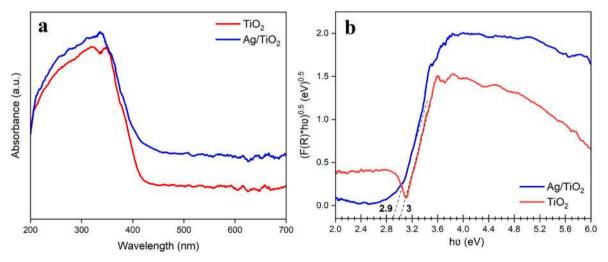


Fig. 6. DRS (a) absorption spectra and (b) Tauc plots of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂.

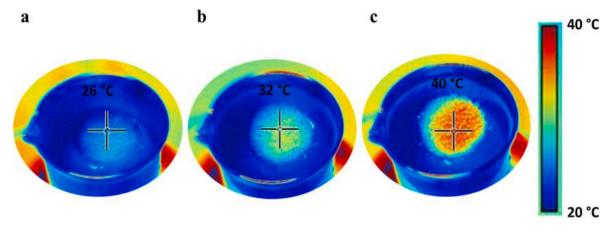


Fig. 7. Top-view infrared photothermal images of (a) PUF, (b) TiO₂@PUF, and (c) Ag/TiO₂@PUF in water under simulated sunlight irradiation.

Table 2BET of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂.

Photocatalyst	BET surface area (m ² /g)	Pore volume (cm ³ /g)	Pore size (nm)	
TiO ₂	10	0.03	12	
Ag/TiO ₂	30	0.12	10	

Additional binding energy peaks were observed at 367.9 eV for Ag $3d_{5/2}$ and 373.9 eV for Ag $3d_{3/2}$, suggesting the presence of oxidized silver, either as Ag₂O or AgO (Ag⁺¹ or Ag⁺²) in the surface of TiO₂ [29,53,55,57,59,60]. The presence of oxidized silver is likely due to the oxidation of Ag during the calcination of Ag/TiO₂ [29]. Our results confirmed that Ag existed in Ag/TiO₂ as a mixture of metallic and oxidized silver.

3.4. Optical features and photothermal performance of TiO2 and Ag/TiO2

Fig. 6a presents the absorption spectra of TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 . Pure TiO_2 exhibited an intense absorption peak in the UV region below 400 nm, which belongs to the electron excitation from the 2p of O^{2-} to the 3d orbital of Ti^{4+} [42]. According to Fig. 6a, a redshift towards 470 nm was observed in the spectrum of Ag/TiO_2 compared to bare TiO_2 . This redshift can be due to the effect of Ag decoration on TiO_2 , which improves the visible light absorption of TiO_2 [14,61].

Fig. 6b shows Tauc plots of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂. The bandgap energy of pure TiO₂ was determined as 3 eV. Ag decreased the bandgap energy

of TiO_2 to 2.9 eV owing to decorating Ag on TiO_2 [15]. A new energy level can be formed between the conduction band of TiO_2 and the conduction band of Ag that decreases the bandgap energy of TiO_2 , reducing the recombination rate of photogenerated charge carriers and thus enhancing the photocatalytic activity of Ag/TiO_2 [29,50].

Fig. 7 shows the infrared photothermal images of floating samples. The system reached the highest temperature at 26 °C, 32 °C and 40 °C for PUF, TiO_2 @PUF and Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF, respectively, after 5 min of simulated sunlight irradiation. Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF exhibited the highest temperature of all samples (40 °C), which can be due to the local surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) effect of Ag [23,61]. Ag can generate high-energy hot electrons, resulting in local heating around the particles under light irradiation [62].

3.5. Textural properties of TiO2 and Ag/TiO2

Table 2 presents BET results of TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 . BET surface area of Ag/TiO_2 (30 m²/g) was three times higher than that of TiO_2 (10 m²/g). In addition, Ag/TiO_2 had a total pore volume of 0.12 cm³/g, four times greater than TiO_2 (0.03 cm³/g).

Fig. 8a and b shows N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms of TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂, respectively. Based on the IUPAC classification [63], TiO₂ presented a type IV(a) isotherm with an H3 hysteresis loop, indicating its mesoporous geometry with a mean pore size of 12 nm (see Table 2). In addition, Ag/TiO₂ had a type IV(a) isotherm with an H1 hysteresis loop, suggesting a narrow range of uniform mesopores in Ag/TiO₂ and a mean

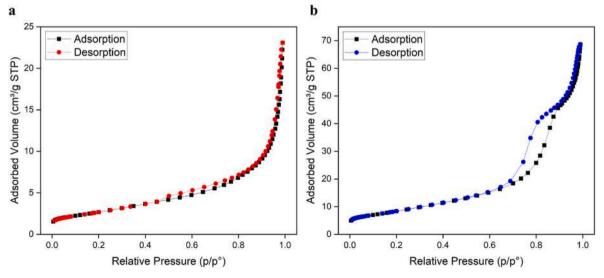


Fig. 8. N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of (a) TiO₂ and (b) Ag/TiO₂.

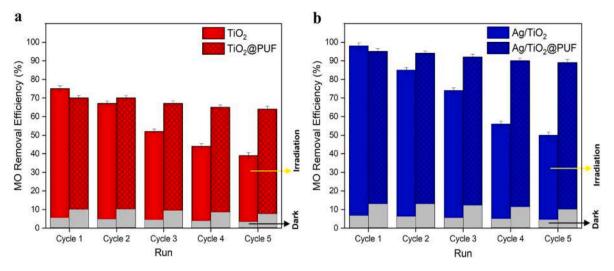


Fig. 9. MO removal efficiency with (a) TiO2 and TiO2@PUF, (b) Ag/TiO2 and Ag/TiO2@PUF after 180 min of irradiation time.

pore size of 10 nm.

3.6. Photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2 in suspended and floating systems for MO removal

We investigated suspended and floating devices based on TiO2 and Ag/TiO2 to remove MO under simulated sunlight irradiation for five consecutive cycles. The experimental conditions for MO photocatalysis were 10 mg/L of MO concentration, 0.4 g of photocatalysts, and pH = 5.7 for 180 min irradiation time. In the first cycle, the MO removal was 75 % and 70 % for TiO₂ and TiO₂@PUF, respectively (Fig. 9a). This slightly higher efficiency by suspended TiO₂ (5 %) can be attributed to the larger surface in contact with the MO solution, which is typical of suspensions, improving the mass transfer rate between the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles and pollutant species [64–66]. On the other hand, in the second cycle, floating TiO2@PUF maintained 70 % of MO removal, while it decreased to 67 % for suspended ${\rm TiO_2}.$ This reduction can be due to the loss of TiO2 in the suspended form during its reuse [64]. In addition, floating TiO2@PUF showed higher photocatalytic activity than suspended TiO₂ in the fifth cycle, achieving 64 % MO removal compared to 39 %. Immobilizing powder photocatalysts onto floating supports not only addresses the challenges of reuse of suspended photocatalysts but also enhances solar light harnessing through access to the water-air

interface [67,68].

Fig. 9b presents the MO removal with Ag/TiO₂ and Ag/TiO₂@PUF in suspension and floating systems, respectively. Fig. 9b followed the same trend as observed in Fig. 9a. In the first cycle, suspended Ag/TiO2 removed 98 % of MO, while Ag/TiO2@PUF achieved 95 %. In the following cycles, floating Ag/TiO2@PUF exhibited higher photocatalytic activity than suspended Ag/TiO2. The MO removal was 89 % with floating Ag/TiO2@PUF and 50 % for suspended Ag/TiO2 in the final cycle. Comparing Fig. 9b with Fig. 9a, Ag in both suspended and floating photocatalysts increased the MO removal with respect to the pure photocatalysts. Our results indicated that floating Ag/TiO2@PUF was the most effective photocatalyst, with a MO removal efficiency of 89 % after five consecutive cycles. Based on the results from Ag/ TiO2@PUF characterizations, Ag decoration on TiO2 decreased the bandgap energy to 2.9 eV and caused an increase in the visible light absorption of bare TiO2 [14,23]. Also, the surface area of Ag/TiO2 increased to 30 m²/g, three times higher than that of TiO₂, providing more active sites for the decomposition of MO. In addition, the mixed phase found for Ag/TiO2 exhibited higher photocatalytic activity than the single-phase one [46,47].

Floating photocatalysts ($TiO_2@PUF$ and $Ag/TiO_2@PUF$) were 5–7% more effective than suspended ones (TiO_2 and Ag/TiO_2) in adsorbing MO in dark conditions. This is because the floating photocatalytic

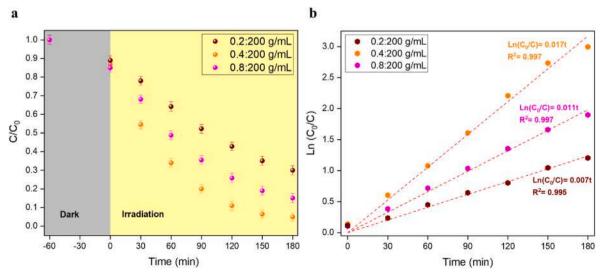


Fig. 10. Effect of Ag/TiO2@PUF amount (0.2:200 g/mL, 0.4:200 g/mL, 0.8:200 g/mL) on (a) MO removal efficiency and (b) apparent rate constant.

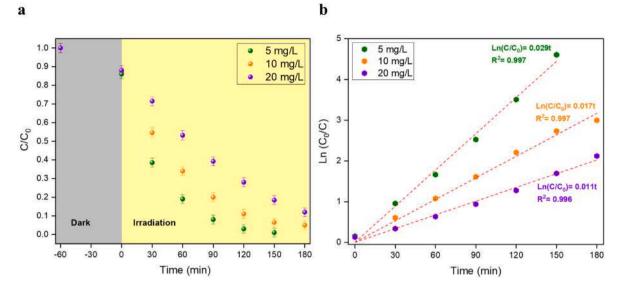


Fig. 11. Effect of MO concentration (5 mg/L, 10 mg/L, 20 mg/L) on (a) MO removal efficiency and (b) apparent rate constant.

systems benefit from the photothermal effect [21–23,61] that enhances the diffusion and adsorption of MO molecules on the surface of floating photocatalysts during the photocatalytic process.

3.7. Effects of operating parameters on MO removal by floating Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF

The effect of Ag/TiO2@PUF amount on MO removal efficiency under simulated sunlight irradiation was investigated by varying it to 0.2:200 g/mL, 0.4:200 g/mL, and 0.8:200 g/mL. The rest of the experimental conditions were maintained constant (pH = 5.7, 10 mg/L MO, and 180 min irradiation time). Fig. 10a shows that when the photocatalyst amount increased from 0.2:200 g/mL to 0.4:200 g/mL, the MO removal rose from 70 % to 95 %. This increase is because more active photocatalytic sites inside the PUF can be available to harness light irradiation and participate in the photocatalytic reaction [18]. On the other hand, the MO removal decreased by 10 % with increasing amount of the photocatalyst from 0.4:200 g/mL to 0.8:200 g/mL due to the agglomeration of Ag/TiO2 and blockage of PUF pores that hinder light penetration [18,69–71]. Our results suggested that the optimal amount of Ag/TiO2@PUF for MO photocatalysis was 0.4:200 g/mL, achieving 95 %

removal after 180 min.

Fig. 10b presents the effect of Ag/TiO₂@PUF amount on the apparent rate constant. The correlation coefficients (R²) were higher than 0.98, confirming that the MO photocatalytic removal by Ag/TiO₂@PUF followed first-order kinetics. As shown in Fig. 10b, by increasing the amount of Ag/TiO₂@PUF from 0.2:200 g/mL to 0.4:200 g/mL, the apparent first-order rate constant (k_{app}) increased from 0.007 min⁻¹ to 0.017 min⁻¹. However, as the amount of Ag/TiO₂@PUF further raised to 0.8:200 g/mL, k_{app} diminished to 0.011 min⁻¹.

The effect of MO concentration (5 mg/L, 10 mg/L, and 20 mg/L) on the MO removal was examined with 0.4:200 g/mL Ag/TiO₂@PUF at pH = 5.7. For Mo concentration of 5 mg/L, we observed a complete removal after 150 min of irradiation time (Fig. 11a). However, increasing the MO concentration to 10 mg/L decreased the efficiency to 95 % after 180 min, and it was 93 % for 150 min. In addition, a further increase in MO concentration to 20 mg/L resulted in a 7 % reduction in the MO removal (see Fig. 11a). The results showed that the photocatalytic performance of Ag/TiO₂@PUF decreased by increasing the MO concentration. This can be owing to the large adsorption of MO on the photocatalyst surface, decreasing the photodecomposition efficiency [72,73]. The MO photocatalytic removal was affected by the initial pollutant concentration in

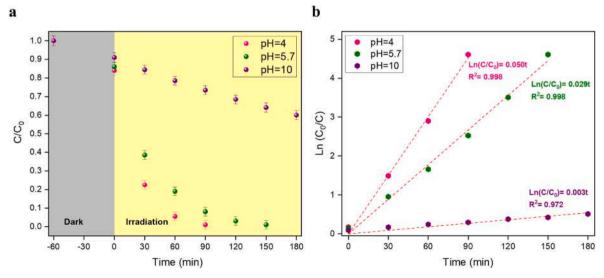


Fig. 12. Effect of pH (4, 5.7, 10) on (a) MO removal efficiency and (b) apparent rate constant.

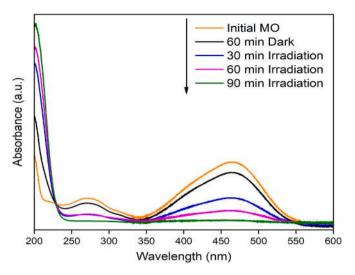


Fig. 13. UV–Vis absorption spectra of MO removal under the optimal conditions (MO concentration = 5 mg/L, $Ag/TiO_2@PUF$ amount = 0.4:200 g/mL, pH = 4, and irradiation time = 90 min).

which complete elimination was achieved for 5 mg/L MO after 150 min. Fig. 11b shows how the concentration of MO impacts the apparent rate constant in the MO photocatalytic process. When applying Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF for MO removal, the system obeyed first-order kinetics, with R^2 exceeding 0.99. Also, rising MO concentration from 5 mg/L to 20 mg/L lowered k_{app} from 0.029 min $^{-1}$ to 0.011 min $^{-1}$.

The effect of pH on MO removal was also evaluated. We tested the pH of MO solution (4, 5.7, and 10) using 5 mg/L MO and 0.4:200 g/mL Ag/ $\rm TiO_2@PUF$. Fig. 12a shows that as the pH of the MO solution decreases, the removal efficiency increases. The lowest MO removal rate happened at pH = 10 (40 % after 180 min), which can be explained by the surface charge properties of Ag/ $\rm TiO_2@PUF$. The point of zero charge for $\rm TiO_2$ is

6 (pH_{PZC} = 6) [15,44,74]. Thus, the surface of TiO_2 in Ag/ TiO_2 @PUF is negatively charged at pH = 10, as presented in Equation (9).

$$TiOH + OH^{-} \leftrightarrow TiO^{-} + H_2O \tag{9}$$

On the other hand, MO is an anionic dye with a pka of 3.4 [44], which is negatively charged at pH =10. Consequently, electrostatic repulsion between the negatively charged MO and the negatively charged surface of Ag/TiO2@PUF [15,44] inhibits the adsorption of MO onto the photocatalyst, decreasing the photocatalytic efficiency. In addition, at pH = 5.7, the surface of TiO2 in Ag/TiO2@PUF is positively charged according to Equation (10), while MO is negatively charged [15,44].

$$TiOH + H^+ \leftrightarrow TiOH_2^+$$
 (10)

Therefore, there is an electrostatic attraction between the negatively charged pollutant and the positively charged surface of the photocatalyst [15,44] that favours the adsorption of MO onto the photocatalyst and thus increases MO removal. MO was completely removed at pH = 5.7 after 150 min of irradiation time. Moreover, MO removal was predominant at pH = 4, achieving complete removal after 90 min of light irradiation (see Fig. 12a). The improved photocatalytic activity of Ag/TiO_2 @PUF at pH = 4 compared to pH = 5.7 can be attributed to the pH_{PZC} of TiO_2 ($pH_{PZC} = 6$). At pH = 4, the surface of TiO_2 in Ag/TiO₂@PUF is strongly positively charged with a zeta potential value of around +30 mV [75,76], while it is about +5 mV at pH = 5.7 [75,76]. Consequently, the surface of Ag/ $TiO_2@PUF$ at pH = 4 is more positively charged to adsorb negatively charged MO and increases the removal efficiency. Our findings indicated that MO (5 mg/L) at pH = 4 was completely removed by Ag/TiO₂@PUF (0.4:200 g/mL) under simulated sunlight irradiation (90 min).

Fig. 12b shows the effect of pH on the apparent rate constant, suggesting that MO removal by Ag/TiO₂@PUF followed a first-order kinetics. At pH = 4, k_{app} was 0.050 min⁻¹, which was the highest value obtained for this system.

The faster removal rate for MO occurred at the beginning of the photocatalytic reaction due to the high initial concentration of MO.

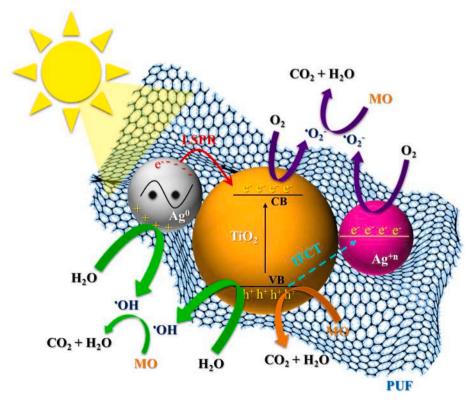


Fig. 14. Schematic of the possible mechanism for MO removal with Ag/TiO2@PUF under simulated sunlight irradiation.

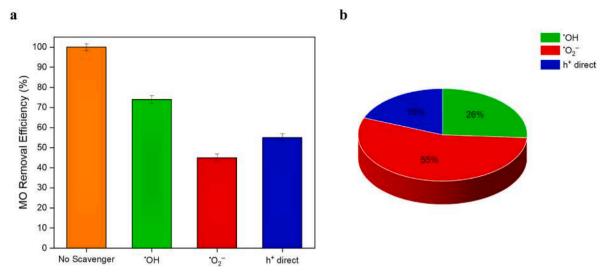


Fig. 15. (a) Free radical scavenging experiments and (b) reactive species contribution on MO removal using Ag/TiO2@PUF under optimal conditions.

Based on the Langmuir-Hinshelwood kinetics model ($-r_A = k_{app}C_A$), the reaction rate was directly proportional to the concentration of MO. Therefore, at the start of the photocatalytic reaction, MO has its maximum concentration, resulting in a higher reaction rate. As the reaction proceeds, MO concentration decreases over time, which reduces the reaction rate.

Fig. 13 shows the UV–Vis absorption spectra of MO removal under the optimal conditions: MO concentration $=5\,$ mg/L, Ag/TiO2@PUF amount $=0.4{:}200\,$ g/mL, pH =4, and irradiation time $=90\,$ min. The maximum absorption peak of MO was observed at 464 nm, which decreased to nearly zero during 90 min irradiation time. This suggests the potential cleavage of the azo group (–N=N–) in the MO structure [77], resulting in the complete removal of MO after 90 min. In addition, we investigated ICP-OES analysis for the leaching of Ti and Ag elements from Ag/TiO2@PUF during MO removal under optimal conditions. According to the results, Ti and Ag were not observed (limit of detection of 0.000028 ppm for Ti and 0.0007 ppm for Ag) in the solution, suggesting that the metals were not released from the photocatalyst.

3.8. Possible mechanism of MO removal by Ag/TiO2@PUF

We proposed the possible mechanism of photocatalytic MO removal using Ag/TiO₂@PUF under simulated sunlight irradiation (Fig. 14). According to Equation (11), electrons in the valence band (VB) of TiO₂ were excited by simulated solar light and then migrated to the conduction band (CB) of TiO2, creating positively charged holes in the VB and negatively charged electrons in the CB of TiO₂. From the XPS results, Ag existed on the surface of TiO₂ as Ag⁰. At the same time, the metallic silver absorbed sunlight irradiation and created hot electrons by means of the LSPR effect (Equation (12)) [14,78,79]. The creation of hot electrons corresponded to forming Ag+, which participated in an oxidation reaction to produce OH (Equation (13)). The hot electrons of Ag^0 had more negative energy than the CB of TiO_2 (-0.5 V vs. NHE [80]), so they migrated to the CB of TiO2 and reacted with oxygen to form ${}^{\bullet}O_2^-$ (Equation (14)). In addition, oxidized silver (Ag₂O or AgO) was present in the photocatalyst surface, which can contribute to removing MO. Ag + n (Ag+1 or Ag+2) had more positive band energy (0.8 V vs. NHE [81]) than TiO2. Under sunlight irradiation, excited electrons from the VB of TiO_2 moved to Ag $^+$ n by interfacial charge transfer (IFCT) [54,79]. The IFCT improves the separation of electron-hole pairs and contributes to MO removal by generating reactive oxygen species [54]. The existing electrons in the CB of TiO2 and Ag $^+$ n participated in the reduction reaction and converted O_2 to $^{ullet}O_2^-$ (Equation (14)). Consequently, the presence of Ag in TiO2 not only

improves the photoinduced charge generation but also suppresses the electron-hole pairs recombination [15,16,79]. Simultaneously, the photoinduced holes on the VB of TiO_2 participated in an oxidation reaction and converted H_2O into ${}^{\bullet}OH$ (Equation (15)). Eventually, the generated reactive species (i.e., ${}^{\bullet}O_2^-$ and ${}^{\bullet}OH$) can react with MO and convert it into CO_2 and H_2O (Equations (16) and (17)). Moreover, as shown in Equation (18), the photoinduced holes on the VB of TiO_2 can convert MO into CO_2 and H_2O directly.

$$TiO_2 + h\nu \rightarrow h_{VR}^+ + e_{CR}^- \tag{11}$$

$$Ag^0 + h\nu \rightarrow Ag^+ + e^- \tag{12}$$

$$Ag^{+} + H_2O \rightarrow {}^{\bullet}OH + H^{+} \tag{13}$$

$$e_{CB}^{-} + O_2 \rightarrow {}^{\bullet}O_2^{-} \tag{14}$$

$$h_{VB}^{+} + H_2O \rightarrow {}^{\bullet}OH + H^{+}$$
 (15)

$$^{\bullet}O_2^- + MO \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O \tag{16}$$

$$^{\bullet}OH + MO \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O \tag{17}$$

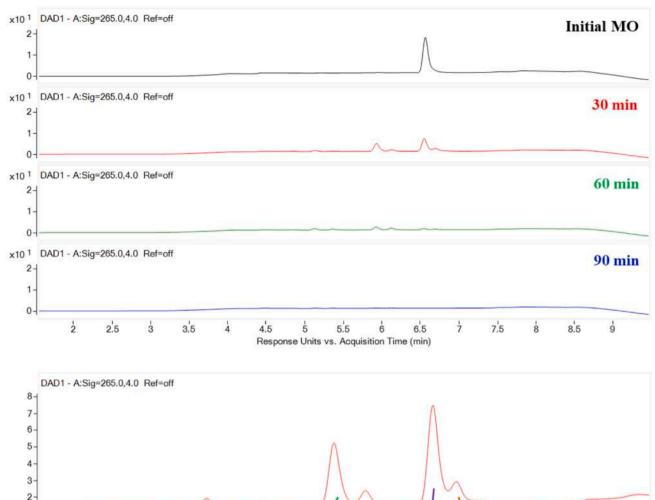
$$h_{VB}^{+} + MO \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O \tag{18}$$

Fig. 15a shows free radical scavenging experiments performed under optimal conditions to evaluate the contribution of each reactive species to the photocatalytic MO removal. Fig. 15a shows that adding BQ as a $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$ scavenger decreased MO removal from 100 % to 45 %, indicating a 55 % reduction in the removal efficiency by $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$. In addition, 55 % of MO was removed in the presence of EDTA as a h^+ scavenger. To determine the direct and indirect contributions of h^+ , IPA as a $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$ scavenger was added to the floating system, causing a 26 % reduction in the MO removal. Thus, h^+ had a 19 % contribution to remove MO directly and the contribution of $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$ was 26 %. Also, $^{\bullet}\text{O}_2^-$ was the main reactive species in MO removal with a 55 % contribution, as depicted in Fig. 15b.

Fig. 16a shows the LC-MS chromatograms for the photocatalytic degradation of MO under optimal conditions (MO concentration = 5 mg/L, Ag/TiO₂@PUF amount = 0.4:200 g/mL, pH = 4, and irradiation time = 90 min). Initially, a strong peak was observed at m/z = 304, which belongs to MO. After 30 min of degradation, the MO peak decreased, while some new peaks appeared, which were attributed to the degradation products of MO. After 60 min, all the peaks gradually decreased and finally disappeared at 90 min. Fig. 16b depicts

a

b



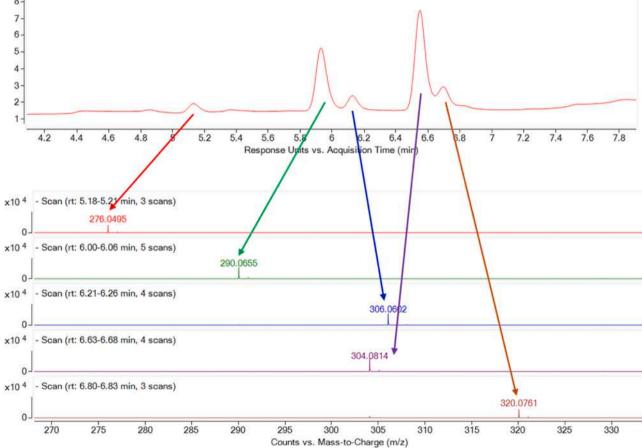


Fig. 16. (a) LC-MS chromatograms of MO degradation for 0 min, 30 min, 60 min, and 90 min under optimal conditions and (b) identified intermediates from MO degradation after 30 min.

Table 3Recent literature review on the photocatalytic removal of MO.

Photocatalytic system	Photocatalyst	Synthesis method	Pollutant	Reaction time	Removal efficiency	Kinetics	Ref.
Floating	g-C ₃ N ₄ on PUF (30 mg/L)	Thermal decomposition and dip coating	MO (5 mg/ L)	240 min (LED lamp)	75.1 %	Pseudo first-order $(k = 0.0032 \text{ min}^{-1})$	[72]
Suspension	Fe ₃ O ₄ /GO (0.150 g/40 mL)	Co-precipitation, modified Hummers, and ultrasonication	MO (10 mg/ L)	240 min (UV light)	99 %	NA	[88]
Suspension	g-C ₃ N ₄ /ZnO (2 g/ L)	Thermal polycondensation	MO (NA)	120 min (Solar light)	98 %	NA	[89]
Suspension	TiO ₂ /biochar (6 g/ L)	High-temperature pyrolysis, sol-gel, and ultrasonic-assisted vacuum impregnation	MO (50 mg/ L)	270 min (Xenon lamp)	97.9 %	Pseudo first-order $(k = 0.00769 \text{ min}^{-1})$	[87]
Suspension	Sn-doped TiO_2 (0.5 g/L)	Microwave-assisted sol-gel	$MO (1 \times 10^{-5} M)$	180 min (UV light)	94 %	NA	[90]
Floating	Ag/TiO ₂ @PUF (0.4:200 g/mL)	Ultrasound-assisted sol-gel followed by spray drying and ultrasound-assisted impregnation	MO (5 mg/ L)	90 min (Simulated sunlight)	100 %	First-order ($k = 0.050 \text{ min}^{-1}$)	Present work

intermediates generated after 30 min of MO degradation, with identified peaks at m/z=320, 306, 290 and 276. The intermediate compounds of m/z=320 and m/z=306 are related to the monohydroxylated product of MO and the oxidation in the aromatic ring of MO, respectively [82]. Also, the detected compounds with m/z=290 and m/z=276 correspond to demethylated products of MO [83,84]. According to the literature, further photocatalytic degradation of MO can lead to the mineralization of these intermediates, forming CO₂ and H₂O [83–86].

3.9. Comparison of floating Ag/TiO $_2$ @PUF for MO removal with previous work

Table 3 reports a comparison of the present work with other recent studies for the photocatalytic removal of MO. Based on Table 3, only one study utilized a floating photocatalytic system for MO removal. Swathi et al. [72] synthesized floating g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts supported on PUF, removing 75.1 % of MO after 240 min of irradiation. In another study [87], the removal efficiency of MO was 97.9 % by suspended TiO₂/-biochar photocatalysts after 270 min based on pseudo first-order kinetics. In this work, our floating Ag/TiO₂@PUF photocatalyst was efficient in eliminating MO after 90 min of simulated sunlight irradiation.

4. Conclusion

We fabricated suspended and floating TiO2 and Ag/TiO2 photocatalysts using an ultrasound-assisted sol-gel method, followed by spray drying to remove MO. The results showed the uniform deposition of the photocatalysts onto the floating PUF due to the ultrasonication in the impregnation synthesis method. The decoration of Ag on TiO2 extends its absorption into the visible-light range. Ag/TiO2 had a mixed-phase, and its BET surface area increased to 30 m²/g, which was three times higher than TiO2. The existence of Ag in TiO2 for both suspended and floating systems increased MO removal efficiency. Floating Ag/TiO2@-PUF had more photocatalytic activity than suspended Ag/TiO2, removing 89 % of MO after five consecutive cycles. In addition, MO was completely removed with Ag/TiO2@PUF under optimal conditions as MO concentration = 5 mg/L, photocatalyst amount = 0.4:200 g/mL, pH = 4, and irradiation time = 90 min (300 W commercial solar lamp with an intensity of 35 W/m²). Moreover, MO removal by Ag/TiO₂@PUF followed first-order kinetics ($k_{app,\;Maximum}\,{=}\,0.050\;min^{-1}$), and the main reactive species involved in MO removal was *O2 (55 %). Our results suggest that Ag/TiO2@PUF constitutes a promising approach to removing coloured organic pollutants from wastewater. Due to the photocatalytic properties of Ag/TiO2@PUF, we suggest applying this floating photocatalyst to treat other aqueous organic pollutants. Future work can focus on either modifying the elemental composition of the photocatalyst or adding oxidants like H2O2 to decrease the activation

energy for the MO removal and consequently decrease the degradation process time.

Editorial disclosure statement

Daria C. Boffito is an editorial board member and had no involvement in the peer-review of this article and has no access to information regarding its peer-review. Full responsibility for the editorial process for this article was delegated to Editor, Giovanni Poli.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Nila Davari: Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. Ermelinda Falletta: Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation. Claudia L. Bianchi: Writing – review & editing, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Data curation. Viviane Yargeau: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation. Cristina Rodriguez-Seco: Writing – review & editing. Daria C. Boffito: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Data curation.

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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Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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