

Ag-doped TiO₂ with Tuneable Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ for Enhanced Photocatalytic Degradation of RR4 Dye

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This study proposed to enhance the photocatalytic performance of Ag-TiO₂ by manipulating Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ formation on TiO₂ through controlled dissolved oxygen (DO) levels by photo-deposition of Ag (1-5 wt.%) to TiO₂ under N₂ gas purging (0-60 min; denoted as DO⁰-DO⁶⁰). The photocatalytic performance of the immobilised Ag-TiO₂ was determined under the photodegradation of Reactive Red 4 (RR4) dye. XRD and FTIR revealed the existence of Ag⁺ and Ag⁰, corresponding to Ag₂O and Ag-TiO₂, respectively. The HRTEM images showed a spheroid shape of Ag-TiO₂ with 0.20 and 0.24 nm of d-spacing, representing Ag metal and Ag₂O, respectively. The lower PL intensity of Ag-TiO₂ suggested a reduced e⁻/h⁺ recombination rate, while UV-Vis/DRS analysis indicated strong visible light absorption due to the surface plasmonic resonance (SPR) effect. This study proves that Ag₂O can increase photocatalytic performance as an electron injector to Ag-TiO₂, however, excess formation of Ag₂O can retard the photocatalytic activity. Optimal 3 wt.% Ag doping at 30 min N₂ purging (3AT-DO³⁰) achieved complete 30 mg L⁻¹ RR4 dye degradation in 1 hour, surpassing unmodified TiO₂ by 63.1%. The photocatalytic performance order was TiO₂ < 3AT-DO⁶⁰ < 3AT-DO⁰ < 3AT-DO¹⁰ < 3AT-DO³⁰, with all samples maintaining stability over 10 cycles.

Keywords: Dissolved oxygen; RR4 dye; silver; titanium dioxide; wastewater

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Wastewater management has become a concern these days due to the inability to treat effluents properly. Wastewater may contain hazardous materials such as toxic chemicals, heavy metals, dyes, and organic compounds [1]. Industries such as printing factories and textile manufacturers heavily use dye in their production. This event will lead to the accumulation of dye in water bodies. Nearly 10,000 different synthetic dyes can be found in the market, and over 700,000 tons are produced annually worldwide. Almost 200,000 tons of synthetic dyes are released into the mainstream because of the ineffective dyeing method used in textile industries [2]. Reactive Red 4 (RR4) is one of the anionic dyes commonly used in the printing and textile industry [3]. This monochlorotriazin dye has a high molecular weight and contains four sulfonate groups [4]. RR4 dye also contains a hydrophobic molecule that is soluble in aqueous media, although some anionic dyes are toxic and carcinogenic to living things [5].

Several technologies have been proposed for wastewater treatment such as adsorption, photo-Fenton process, ozonation, and electrochemical filtration. Advanced oxidation process (AOP), such as photocatalysis is one of the techniques that shows strong potential for the effective removal of dye pollutants in wastewater [6]. This process involves semiconductors

and production of hydroxyl radicals as the main oxidant to oxidise model pollutants [7]. Photocatalysis produces no secondary wastes and is readily available and easily accessible, despite it only needing a low cost to operate [8]. These advantages have received extensive attention from researchers.

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is a good semiconductor due to its non-toxicity, stability, availability, photo-chemically active, and low cost [9, 10]. However, TiO₂ can only be activated by irradiation of UV light (5% of sunlight) due to its relatively large band gap energy, which is 3.2 eV [11]. The fast electron-hole (e⁻/h⁺) recombination of TiO₂ also becomes a drawback in photocatalytic performance [12]. To overcome these problems, researchers have modified TiO₂ by doping with noble metals such as platinum (Pt) [13], silver (Ag) [14], and gold (Au) [15]. Doping with noble metals will reduce the band gap energy and extend the absorption of TiO₂ into the visible light spectrum [16].

Silver (Ag) has been extensively used to enhance the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ due to the surface plasmonic resonance (SPR) effect. When light strikes the semiconductor, Ag will create traps to capture the photogenerated electrons, leading to the formation of metallic silver, Ag⁰ on the surface of TiO₂ [14]. This phenomenon will reduce the electron-

hole (e^-/h^+) recombination rate and enhance the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂. Modification of TiO₂ with Ag has been an effective solution to overcome the limitations of TiO₂ semiconductors due to its non-toxicity, relatively low cost compared with other metals such as Pt, and its special behaviour of oxygen adsorption [17]. Jinhui *et al.* prepared immobilised Ag/TiO₂ with cellulose-derived carbon beads as the carrier via the One-Pot method to remove ceftriaxone sodium; an antibiotic pollutant in waste-water [18]. Grieken *et al.* reported that immobilised Ag/TiO₂ in a catalytic wall reactor showed better degradation of *Escherichia coli* compared to a fixed-bed reactor [19]. Besides, Ag/TiO₂ immobilised on rotating vanes prepared by Pariya *et al.* showed outstanding performance for leachate post-treatment where it removed 62% COD and 55% TOC after 4 h irradiation [20]. Zunaira *et al.* evaluated the growth of *Bacillus subtilis* and *Escherichia coli* with immobilised Ag-TiO₂ coated onto a polyamide nanofiltration membrane. The results showed approximately 75% and 73% of reduced bacterial growth for *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis*, respectively [21].

However, the preparation of Ag-TiO₂ commonly results in the generation of Ag and Ag₂O in the composite, which is unfavourable for the photocatalytic reaction, thus reducing photocatalytic performance [22]. This phenomenon is associated with the presence of dissolved oxygen (DO) in water that can easily re-oxidise the reduced metal [23]. The presence of DO in the photocatalytic reduction system will limit the reduction of metal on TiO₂ as metal needs to compete with oxygen for photo-yielded electrons, e^- [24]. Wang *et al.* have proved that reduction of U(VI) on TiO₂ semiconductors would not happen in the presence of oxygen. Nevertheless, with the use of 2-propanol as a sacrificial agent, the efficiency of the deposition of U(VI) on TiO₂ remained high even in the presence of oxygen, but still lower than in the N₂ condition [25]. In addition, the ability of sacrificial agents to affect the oxidation state and the dispersion of the metal deposited has been claimed by Vaelma and Selin [26]. They claim that a lower concentration of a sacrificial agent will produce a metal with a higher oxidation state, such as Pt^{II} or Pt^{IV}, while a higher sacrificial agent concentration can produce metallic Pt⁰. Moreover, the sacrificial agent also will scavenge the holes from the photocatalyst by donating electrons to the TiO₂ lattice. When a smaller number of holes are present, the photogenerated electrons can easily participate in metal-reducing reactions because they are less likely to recombine. Therefore, a sacrificial reagent is used in the photocatalytic system to facilitate the reduction of AgNO₃ (Ag⁺) into metallic Ag (Ag⁰).

To the best of our knowledge, there is no previous study that has been conducted in the modification of immobilised TiO₂ with Ag with the control of Ag₂O formation during the preparation steps. Thus, in this study, the preparation of Ag-TiO₂

with the elimination of DO was conducted by bubbling with N₂ gas for 0, 10, 30, and 60 min, with isopropyl alcohol (IPA) as a sacrificial reagent. The photocatalytic degradation ability of water-based preparation of immobilised Ag-TiO₂ was tested under the photodegradation of RR4 dye.

EXPERIMENTAL

Chemicals and Materials

All the reagents were of analytical grade and used as received without further purification. TiO₂ used is a commercially available Degussa P25 (ca. 80% anatase, 20% rutile, BET surface area of 50 m² g⁻¹ and average particle size of 25 nm). Silver nitrate (AgNO₃) as an Ag precursor, isopropyl alcohol (IPA) as a sacrificial agent, and polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) as a polymer binder were all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Reactive Red 4 (RR4) dye (also known as Cibacron Brilliant Red, purity: 50% dye content, λ max: 517) was used as a model pollutant and purchased from Aldrich Chemical. Double-sided adhesive tape (DSAT) was purchased from the local store. Laboratory distilled water was used throughout this experiment.

Preparation of Ag-TiO₂ with Controlled DO

Silver nitrate was used as an Ag precursor to enhance the photocatalytic activity of commercially available TiO₂. The preparation of the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst was according to the method by Bhardwaj *et al.* with slight modifications [14]. For this method, 0.0478 g of AgNO₃ (corresponding to 1 wt.% Ag-TiO₂) was dissolved in 40 mL of 50% IPA solution. For 3 and 5 wt.% Ag-TiO₂, the amount of AgNO₃ used was 0.1461 g and 0.2487 g, respectively. Then, 3 g of TiO₂ was added to the solution and magnetically stirred until homogenised. The mixture was soaked for 5 h before undergoing the photodeposition process. After soaking time, the mixture of Ag-TiO₂ was transferred into a Schlenk tube and sealed properly. Nitrogen gas was purged into the Schlenk tube to remove any excess oxygen. For the dissolved oxygen (DO) study, the DO of the optimum percentage of Ag-TiO₂ was manipulated by N₂ gas purging with a long needle into the mixture to remove DO at a controlled time (denoted as DO^x, x = 0, 10, 30, and 60 min). A portable multi-meter (HACH HQ4300, United States) was used to measure the amount of dissolved oxygen in the mixture. The photodeposition of Ag-TiO₂ took place by irradiating the mixture with a 250 W metal halide lamp (LIKO, Malaysia) for an hour. After irradiation time, the mixture was filtered using vacuum filtration and washed 3 times with distilled water. The obtained Ag-TiO₂ was dried for 15 h at room temperature. The dried sample was ground and stored in an amber vial until further usage.

For the control study, Ag₂O was prepared to compare its effect on the photodegradation of RR4

dye. To produce Ag₂O, an aliquot of 20 mL of AgNO₃ and 20 mL of NaOH was mixed in a test tube. A brown precipitate formed as the chemicals mixed, indicating a successful formation of Ag₂O. After the dull brown clump of Ag₂O settled at the bottom of the test tube, the liquid NaNO₃ was removed. The Ag₂O was dried with a low flame to remove any remaining moisture.

Immobilisation of Ag-TiO₂

Ag-TiO₂ was immobilised by a DSAT method using a brush coating technique as was introduced by Wan Ismail *et al.* [5]. 0.5 g of powdered Ag-TiO₂ plus 1 mL of 8% PVA were mixed with 10 mL of distilled water and sonicated with an ultrasonicator (Crest Ultrasonics, New Jersey, model: 4HT-1014-6, amps: 6) until homogenised. Ag-TiO₂ was applied to the glass plate taped with DSAT (area of 4.6 cm x 3 cm) via brush coating and was dried using a hot air blower. The photocatalyst was applied layer by layer until the optimum weight of the coating was reached [27]. The excess coating and impurities on the finished Ag-TiO₂ plate were removed with a washing process with distilled water for 30 min.

Photocatalytic Degradation of RR4 Dye

The photocatalytic activity of the prepared Ag-TiO₂ was determined by the photodegradation of RR4 dye. For the suspension mode, an aliquot of 20 mL of RR4 dye (30 mg L⁻¹) and 0.025 g of Ag-TiO₂ were mixed by sonication, before being placed in a glass cell (L × W × H: 5 × 10 × 8 cm). Before the 55 W fluorescence lamp was turned on for the photodegradation process, the suspension was aerated in dark conditions to achieve a complete adsorption/desorption equilibrium. An aliquot of 3 ml was taken from the suspension using a syringe and filtered using a membrane filter before the absorbance reading was taken. The photodegradation took place for 20 min and the absorbance reading was taken at every 5 min interval at a

wavelength of 517 nm with a spectrophotometer (HACH DR1900, United States). The procedure of photodegradation of RR4 dye by immobilised Ag-TiO₂ was the same as the suspension mode except without a separation process. An aliquot of 7 mL of the RR4 dye was poured into a glass cell before placing the immobilised Ag-TiO₂. A different time interval of 15 min for absorbance reading was applied. After measuring the absorbance, the treated dye was dispensed back into the glass cell to continue the photodegradation process. Figure 1 illustrates the photocatalysis setup utilised for the immobilised mode. The degradation rate of RR4 dye was calculated using the Langmuir-Hinshelwood model formula as in Equation (1) [28].

$$\ln \frac{C}{C_0} = -k_{app} t \quad (1)$$

Where *C* is the current concentration, *C*₀ represents the initial concentration, and *t* is time.

Characterisation

The characterisation performed included Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR, PerkinElmer Frontier, USA) with ACD/Spectrum Processor 2020.2.0 software to analyse various functional groups contained in the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst in the range of 400-4000 cm⁻¹. X-ray diffraction (XRD, D5000 Bruker, Germany) with X-ray energy Cu-Kα (1.54 Å) at 45 kV in diffraction range, 2θ of 20–80° was used to detect the crystallographic characteristics of the modified Ag-TiO₂. High-Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HRTEM, JEM- 2100F JEOL, Japan) was used to study the lattice fringes of the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst. Photoluminescence spectroscopy (PL, HR-800 HORIBA, Japan) was used to detect the reduction of electron-hole recombination of the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst. UV-Vis Diffuse Reflectance Spectroscopy (DRS, Perkin Elmer Lambda 35, USA) with a range of 200-800 nm

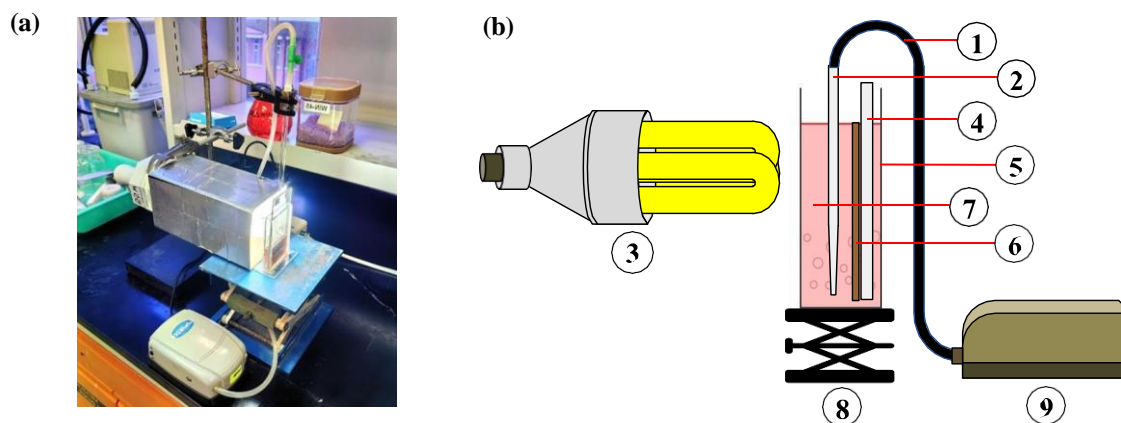


Figure 1. (a) Real and (b) illustrated photocatalysis setup for the photodegradation of RR4 dye. Labels represent: (1) aeration tube; (2) pasteur pipette; (3) lamp; (4) glass plate; (5) glass cell; (6) Ag-TiO₂ coating; (7) RR4 dye; (8) scissor jack; and (9) pump.

was used to determine the band gap of the Ag-TiO₂ samples. The colour changes of the prepared samples were determined by physical observation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characterisation of Ag-TiO₂

The summary of the prepared unmodified TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples is allocated in Table 1, which the first order rate constant indicates the photocatalyst performance for the degradation of RR4 dye. The colour variations of the unmodified TiO₂, Ag-TiO₂, and Ag₂O are shown in Figure 2. The difference in the colour of the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalysts (Figures 2(b-e)) indicates the successful incorporation of Ag metal into the TiO₂ lattice. While Ag₂O (Figure 2(f)) appeared dark brown [29], Ag-TiO₂ looked more toned down in different shades of purple. A parallel observation was

reported by Albiter *et al.* on the preparation of Ag-TiO₂, which highlighted that the AgNO₃ precursor can produce a photocatalyst with a certain shade of purple [30]. This can be explained through the specific charge transfer transition (T_{2g} → E_g) between Ag and TiO₂. The colour changes from white to different shades of purple with decreasing DO, indicating that there were notable reactions that happen by altering the amount of DO in the mixture prior to photodeposition. This phenomenon might happen due to less formation of Ag₂O with decreasing DO content. From 3AT-DO⁰ (Figure 2(b)) to 3AT-DO⁶⁰ (Figure 2(e)), the colour intensity of the photocatalyst decreased. Compared to pure Ag₂O in Figure 2(f) which has a dark brown colour, the appearance of 3AT-DO⁶⁰ can be attributed to the reduced or lack of formation of Ag₂O between the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst. Thus, successful doping of silver into TiO₂ could be observed through the colour changes of the samples.

Table 1. Experimental conditions and first-order rate constant of Ag-TiO₂ samples in suspension and immobilised modes.

Sample	Loading of Ag (wt.%)	N ₂ gas purging time (min)	DO conc. (mg/L)	1 st order rate constant (min ⁻¹)	
				Suspension	Immobilised
TiO ₂	-	0	9.63	0.079	0.041
1AT	1.0	0	9.62	0.080	0.049
3AT	3.0	0	9.60	0.109	0.058
5AT	5.0	0	9.61	0.091	0.051
3AT-DO ¹⁰	3.0	10	5.08	0.123	0.085
3AT-DO ³⁰	3.0	30	1.52	0.156	0.112
3AT-DO ⁶⁰	3.0	60	0.96	0.071	0.048

*3AT is equal to 3AT-DO⁰

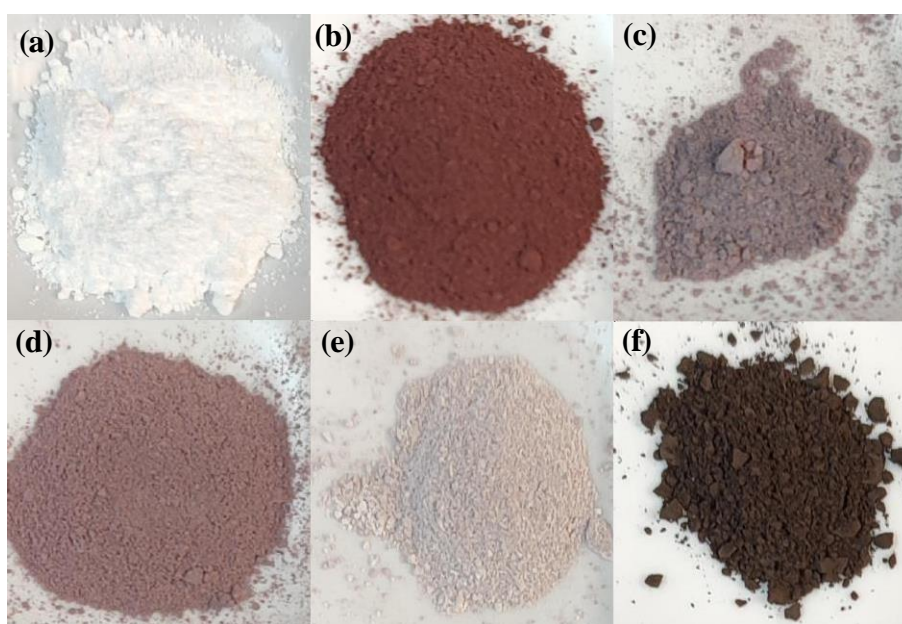


Figure 2. Colour intensity of (a) unmodified TiO₂, (b-e) 3AT-DO⁰ to 3AT-DO⁶⁰, and (f) Ag₂O.

Table 2. FTIR peaks and corresponding functional groups

FTIR peak (cm ⁻¹)	Functional group assigned
3428, 1627	stretching and bending vibration of hydroxyl group (OH)
537	stretching vibration of Ag-O
655, 1400	lattice vibration of unmodified TiO ₂ (Ti-O-Ti stretching)
1384	lattice vibration of Ag-TiO ₂ (Ti-O-Ag stretching)

The FTIR spectra of Ag₂O, unmodified TiO₂, and 3AT-DO⁰ to 3AT-DO⁶⁰ samples are illustrated in Figure 3(a). Broad peaks present at 3428 cm⁻¹ and 1627 cm⁻¹ represent the stretching and bending vibration of the hydroxyl group (OH) due to the water molecule absorbed on the catalyst surface [31]. Kunnamareddy *et al.* stated that OH⁻ absorbed performs an important role in photocatalysis as it captures photoinduced charge carriers to generate reactive OH radicals, which then degrade organic pollutants [32]. The stretching vibration of Ag-O is assigned to the peak near 537 cm⁻¹ [33]. The peaks observed in the unmodified TiO₂ sample at 655 cm⁻¹ and near 1400 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the lattice vibration of TiO₂ (Ti-O-Ti stretching) [34]. With the addition of 3 wt.% Ag, the peak for TiO₂ lattice vibration was observed to shift from 1400 cm⁻¹ to 1384 cm⁻¹, which suggests the formation of Ag-TiO₂ bonding. Table 2 exhibits the peaks obtained from the FTIR analysis and the equivalent functional groups.

The crystal structures of unmodified TiO₂, 3AT-DO⁰ until 3AT-DO⁶⁰, and Ag₂O were investigated using XRD analysis in the range of 2θ = 20-80°, as shown in Figure 3(b). All the diffraction peaks of the samples can be indexed to the anatase phase of TiO₂ (JCPDS Card: 01- 078-2486). Several peaks of Ag-TiO₂ were observed at 2θ = 25.307°, 37.792°, 48.043°, 53.886°, 55.068°, 62.689°, and 68.756°, and indexed as (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204), and (116), respectively. A previous study by You *et al.* had shown peaks for Ag metal (Ag⁰) observed at 2θ = 37.8° (004) and 44.3° (200), which could also be seen in our sample [35]. This proves that Ag particles were successfully incorporated into the TiO₂ lattice. For 3AT-DO⁰ until 3AT-DO⁶⁰ samples, a clear peak could be observed at 32.468° (111), which is assigned to Ag₂O particles. As the bubbling time increased from 0 min to 60 min, the intensity of the peak became weaker due to the less amount of dissolved oxygen in the sample that will react with Ag⁰ to form Ag₂O particles.

The band gap energy of the unmodified and Ag-modified TiO₂ was investigated via UV/vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, as shown in Figures 3(c) and (d). The calculated Kubelka-Munk function is shown

in Equation (2) [29].

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

Where $F(R)$ is the Kubelka-Munk function and R is reflectance.

Unmodified TiO₂ with a white colour, exhibited an absorption band at λ = 380 nm, which is consistent with the intrinsic band gap of anatase TiO₂ of 3.2 eV calculated from the formula λ = 1240 / E_{bg}; where λ is the incident wavelength in nm, 1240 is the Planck's constant, and E_{bg} is the obtained band gap energy [36]. Compared to the unmodified TiO₂, the Ag-TiO₂ samples presented a strong visible light absorption. This is due to their intense colour which exhibited absorption owing to surface plasmon oscillations of the Ag metal [37].

The band gap energies of 1AT, 3AT, and 5AT determined from the intercepts were 2.5, 2.2, and 2.85 eV, respectively. The narrow band gaps could be attributed to the Schottky barrier formed at the interface of Ag metal and TiO₂. This barrier that forms at metal-semiconductor junctions can trap electrons, causing the accumulation of electrons at Ag nanoparticles. Thus, the band gap energy of Ag-TiO₂ will be decreased as the Fermi level becomes closer to the conduction band of TiO₂ [38]. 3AT depicted the lowest band gap among the modified photocatalysts, suggesting its easier photoexcitation by incident light of lower energy and its capability of photocatalytic enhancement under visible irradiation.

For Ag₂O, the dark brown sample showed an absorption of more than 380 nm, corresponding to the p-type semiconductor with a band gap of 1.2 eV [39]. Although Ag₂O has a low band gap and was reported to be applicable as a strong decolouring agent in the photocatalytic activity over organic pollutants [40], it is unstable under experimental conditions [36], thus making it not efficient as a photocatalyst. Another study mentioned that silver oxidation in the hetero-structure changes the metal-semiconductor interface and causes plasmonic enhancement suppression [41].

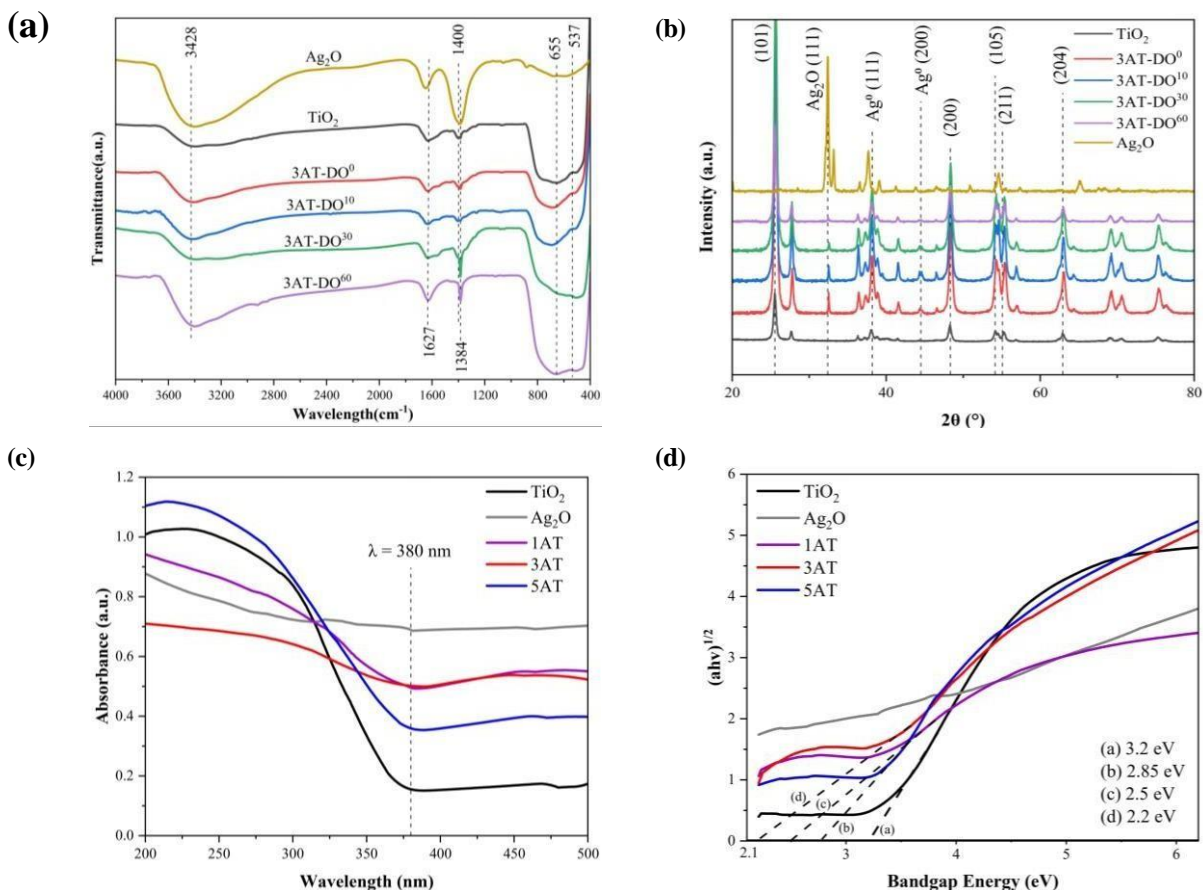


Figure 3. (a) FTIR spectra and (b) XRD analysis of Ag₂O, unmodified TiO₂ and 3AT-DO⁰ to 3AT-DO⁶⁰; and (c) UV/vis spectra and (d) band gaps of unmodified TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ with various Ag contents.

The movement and separation of e⁻/h⁺ pairs are essential in determining the photocatalytic performance of a photocatalyst. According to Komaraiah *et al.*, luminescence emission is considered a surface phenomenon that might be caused by the de-excitation of electrons from their excitation state to the ground state with decreasing light energy [42]. Since photoluminescence (PL) emission is attributed to the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers, this analysis is often used to verify the separation efficacy of e⁻/h⁺ pairs in a photocatalyst [17]. In Figure 4, the PL spectra of Ag-modified TiO₂ are presented, both for the percentage of Ag loading (Figure 4(a)) and the effect of dissolved oxygen (Figure 4(b)).

From Figure 4(a), it can be observed that 3AT had the lowest PL signal intensity compared to 1AT and 5AT, with the highest peak detected at 548 nm. This suggests that 3AT has a better separation of photogenerated charge carriers among other loadings of Ag, thus 3AT was selected as an optimum sample for the DO study. In Figure 4(b), it is illustrated that the DO-manipulated 3AT photocatalysts had lower emissions compared to the unmodified TiO₂. Both phenomena in Figures 4(a) and (b) indicate that the deposition of Ag successfully minimised the

recombination rate of e⁻/h⁺ under UV and visible light exposure [38]. Several excitation peaks were observed at 392, 472, 504, 508, and 520 nm for TiO₂. Notably, the intense peak at 392 nm is attributed to both direct and indirect transitions in the titania phase (anatase and rutile) of TiO₂. Whereas the peaks at 472, 504, 508, and 520 nm reflect the recombination by surface traps due to oxygen and hydroxyl defects [43].

For Ag-modified samples, it is worth mentioning that 3AT-DO⁰ and 3AT-DO⁶⁰ had quite similar emission peaks, whilst there were sudden decrements for 3AT-DO¹⁰ and 3AT-DO³⁰. As the amount of DO reflects on the Ag₂O production, it is safe to state that 3AT-DO⁰ had the highest amount of Ag₂O, whereas 3AT-DO⁶⁰ was the lowest or none. From the PL peak, it is suggested that the Ag₂O within the Ag-TiO₂ samples (as verified by XRD) can act as an electron scavenger, thereby more charge separation. However, the amount of Ag₂O in the samples needs to be optimal, as too much or too little can result in e⁻/h⁺ separation inefficiency. For 3AT-DO³⁰, the Ag presented in metallic form was much higher compared to the others, which means that more oxide forms of Ag have been converted to zero states (Ag⁰), resulting in better charge separation and thus low PL intensity.

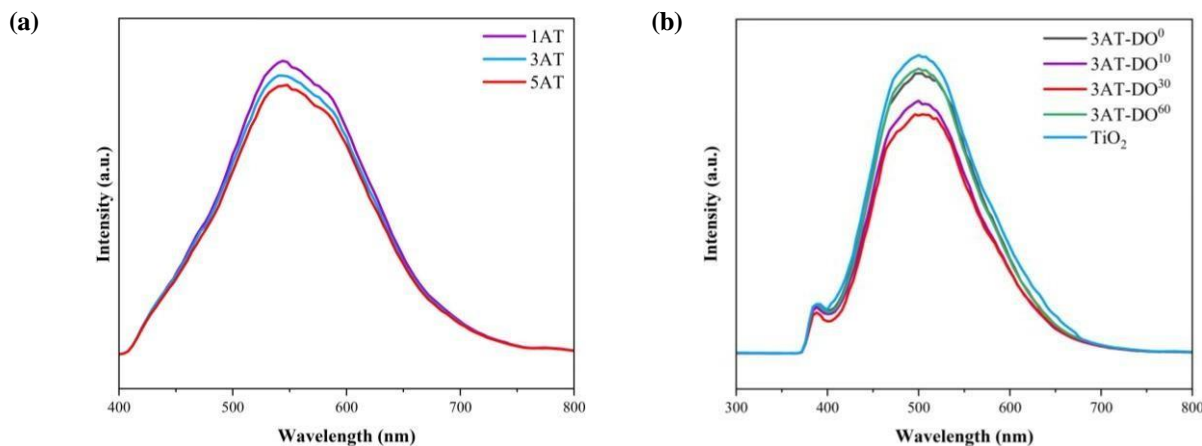


Figure 4. PL spectra for (a) 1AT, 3AT and 5AT, and (b) TiO₂ and 3AT-DO⁰ to 3AT-DO⁶⁰ of Ag-TiO₂.

Figure 5 shows the HRTEM images of the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst, exhibiting a population of Ag nanoparticles (dark particles) on the TiO₂ surface. In Figure 5(a), the HRTEM images confirm that Ag-TiO₂ are in spheroid shape and Ag nanoparticles have high distribution on the surface of TiO₂. In Figure 5(b), the images reveal the presence of the anatase phase indexed as (101), identified by spacing $d = 0.3659$ nm [30]. Figure 5(c) displays the deposit of Ag⁰ on TiO₂ detected by spacing $d = 0.2034$ nm and indexed as (200). In Figure 5(d), the HRTEM micrographs exhibit the composite material formed by Ag₂O, indexed as (002) with spacing $d = 0.24$ nm. From the HRTEM images, it is confirmed that there was the formation of both Ag₂O and Ag⁰ in the Ag-TiO₂, which can affect the photocatalytic efficiency of the photocatalyst under anionic RR4 dye degradation.

Photocatalytic Performance

The photocatalytic efficiency of the Ag-TiO₂ samples was evaluated under photodegradation of 30 mg/L RR4 dye under visible light irradiation. From the results obtained, it is revealed that the photocatalytic activity in the suspension mode exceeded the immobilised mode, as shown in Figures 6(a) and (b). Nevertheless, the photocatalytic reaction in the immobilised mode was comparable to the suspension mode, as mentioned by Wan Ismail *et al.* [5]. From Figure 6(c), it can be seen that all k -values of the modified TiO₂ surpassed the pure TiO₂, except for 3AT-DO⁶⁰. Based on Table 1, less amount of dissolved oxygen was present in 3AT-DO⁶⁰, thus we can claim that there was less formation of Ag₂O in the sample. Although the presence of Ag₂O in the sample could retard the photocatalytic performance, the absence of

Ag₂O could also reduce its efficiency as Ag₂O can act as an e⁻ injector in assisting the photodegradation of the dye.

The increment trend of the photocatalytic reaction could be observed from 3AT-DO⁰ until 3AT-DO³⁰ with the k -value 0.1087 to 0.1562 for the suspension mode, while for the immobilised mode, the k -value increased from 0.0584 to 0.1116. The k -value of the photocatalyst represents the % degradation of the dye. The higher the k -value, the higher the percentage degradation. The highest photocatalytic efficiency could be seen in 3AT-DO³⁰, which could be attributed to the efficient e⁻/h⁺ pair separation and low band gap energy. The higher the wt.% loading of Ag, the better the photocatalytic performance until an optimum is reached. For the dissolved oxygen study, lower dissolved oxygen will produce a higher photodegradation rate until a maximum is attained. As for the difference between suspension and immobilised modes, the suspension mode surpasses the immobilised mode due to the higher surface-to-volume ratio. Nevertheless, our immobilised mode results show comparable photocatalytic activity against the suspension mode.

Most metal oxides such as TiO₂ are amphoteric and can react as both acid and base [44].

The reaction equation can be described as follows (Equations (3) and (4)):



Where M represents the solid surface of metal oxide.

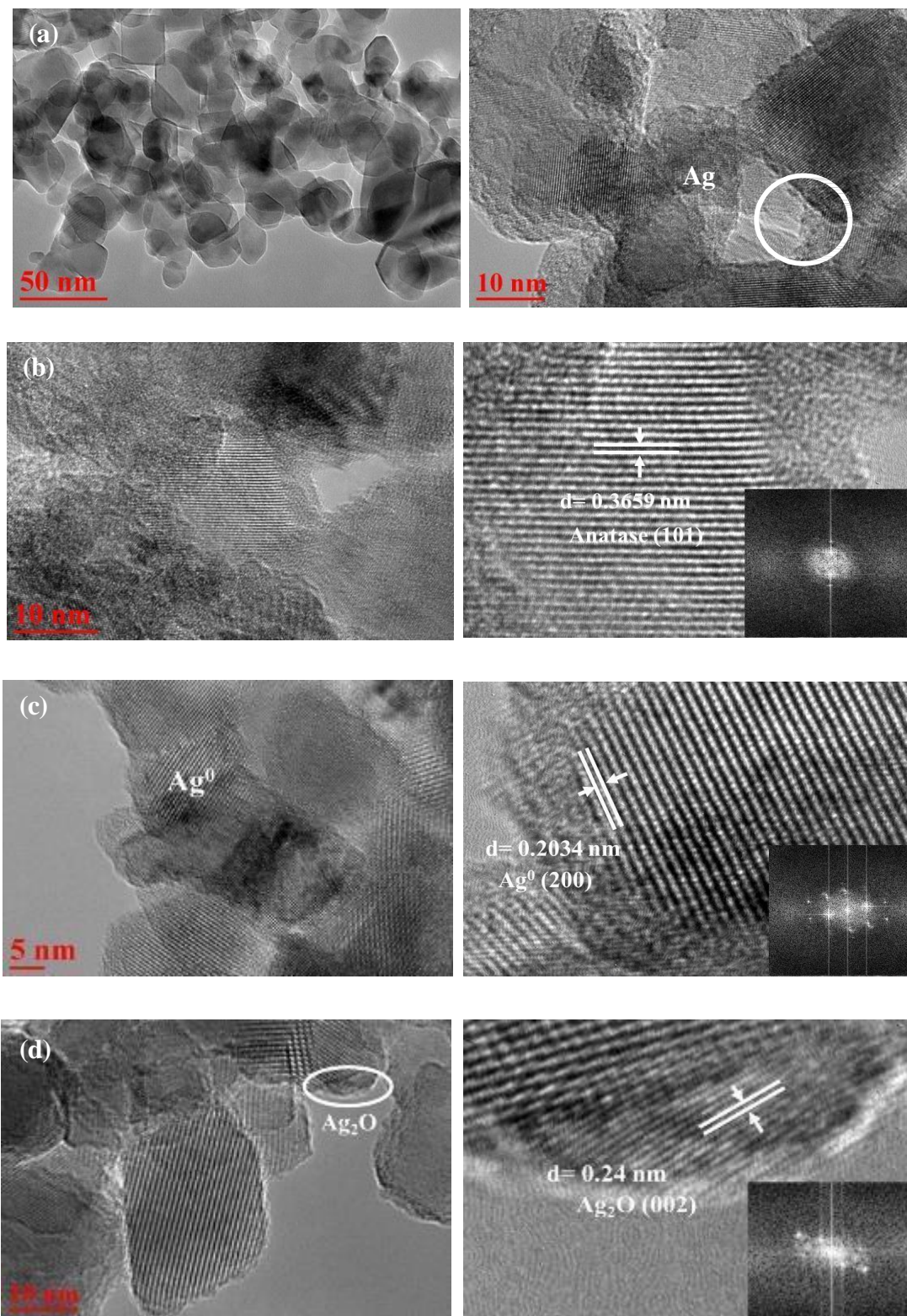
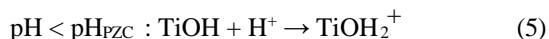


Figure 5. HRTEM images of (a) Ag-TiO₂ nanocrystals showing a population of metallic silver (Ag⁰) and Ag₂O on the TiO₂ support, (b) anatase TiO₂, (c) metallic silver (Ag⁰), and (d) Ag₂O.

The adsorption efficiency of dye molecules to the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst which can facilitate the photodegradation can be determined by the point of zero charges (PZC) of the photocatalyst. PZC is the pH of the suspension where the net charge on the

surface of the photocatalyst is zero [45]. Based on Figure 6(d), it can be seen that the point of zero charges of the photocatalyst was at pH 6.3. In an acidic environment, a TiO₂-based photocatalyst will be protonated, since pH < pHPZC; while in an

alkaline environment, $pH > pHPZC$, causes TiO₂ to be deprotonated. Considering RR4 dye as an anionic dye, the absorption of the dye on TiO₂ is easier in an acidic environment due to a powerful electrostatic attraction between the negatively charged dye molecule and the positively charged surface of Ag-TiO₂ [46]. The mechanisms of the reaction can be described as follows (Equations (5) and (6)):



From the perspective of Ag₂O formation in the samples, it can be assumed that the formation of Ag₂O did reduce the photocatalytic reaction, however insufficient or zero amount of Ag₂O would result in a decreased reaction. As stated by Albiter *et al.*, Ag₂O can act as a light harvester which can transfer electrons from their conduction band mainly to surface silver nanoparticles and avoid charge recombination, thus producing higher photocatalytic

activity [30]. Table 2 summarises the corresponding first-order rate constant that highlights the superiority of the 3AT-DO³⁰ sample, which exhibited excellent photocatalytic degradation among all samples.

To evaluate the stability and reusability of the Ag-TiO₂ samples, the photodegradation of RR4 dye was repeated for 10 consecutive cycles. Figure 7 depicts the performance of the Ag-TiO₂ samples, where all the samples tested exhibit stable photocatalytic activity and reusability without catalyst leaching. The highest photocatalytic activity was displayed by 3AT-DO³⁰ at the 3rd cycle, which gradually decreased by the 10th cycle. The great sustainability of the Ag-TiO₂ samples was due to the strong attachment of the photocatalyst to the glass support material facilitated by the DSAT binder. It also can be assumed that the sustained photocatalytic performance of the photocatalysts is ascribed to the solid intermolecular attraction between Ag and TiO₂, where they cannot be easily separated [47]. In summary, Ag-TiO₂ is feasible for reusability, with high photo-degradation up to 10 cycles.

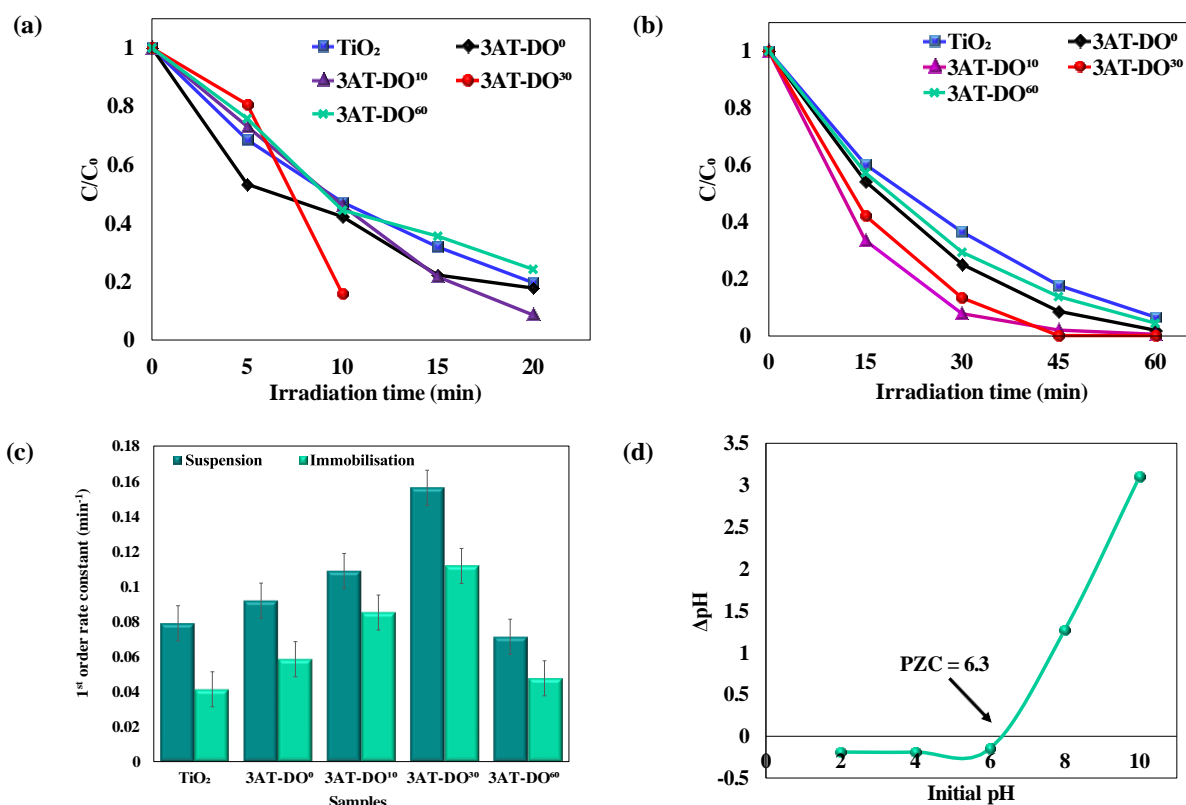


Figure 6. (a-b) Photodegradation of RR4 dye in suspension and immobilised modes shown as C/C_0 , (c) first-order rate constant (k) values of TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples, and (d) point of zero charges for 3AT-DO³⁰ photocatalyst.

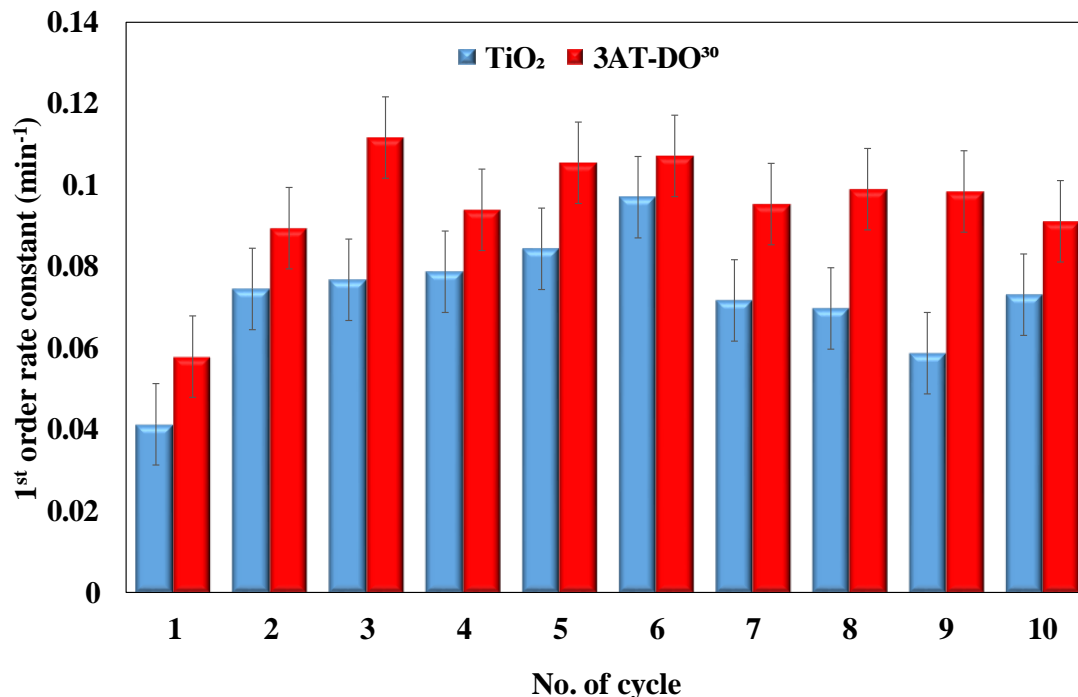
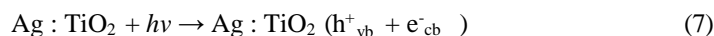


Figure 7. Photocatalytic performance of Ag-TiO₂ samples under 1 h visible light irradiation upon 10 continuous cycles.

Proposed Mechanism of Modified TiO₂

Figure 8 shows the photocatalytic mechanism pathway of Ag-TiO₂ for the photodegradation of RR4 dye under visible light illumination based on several characterisations such as UV-vis/DRS, PL, and XRD analyses. When the TiO₂ semiconductor is exposed to light irradiation, thus having equivalent energy or more than the band gap energy of TiO₂, electrons in the valence band become excited and move to the conduction band, leaving behind holes in the valence band (Eq. (7)). The photogenerated electrons and holes (e⁻/h⁺) produced play an important role in the photodegradation process. Doping TiO₂ with Ag has been proved through PL analysis to reduce the recombination rate of (e⁻/h⁺) pairs. This is due to the Schottky barrier effect, in which Ag particles become attached to the TiO₂ semiconductor to obtain Fermi-level equilibration that leads to the generation of monovalent Ag [48]. Metallic Ag (Ag⁰) formed, that was observed through XRD analysis, helps to reduce the band gap energy through interactions between TiO₂-Ag phases by trapping the photo-generated electrons to the Ag clusters, where it will

reduce the chances for (e⁻/h⁺) recombination, thus enhancing the photocatalytic performance [49]. In the presence of N₂ gas (Figure 8(a)), e⁻/h⁺ generated will react with oxygen and water-producing superoxide anion (O₂^{-•}) and hydroxyl radicals (OH[•]) respectively (Equations (8) and (9)). However, without N₂ gas purging (Figure 8(b)), Ag particles may react with dissolved oxygen in water and generate Ag₂O, which gives a lower catalytic performance (Equation (11)). This is due to oxygen molecules poisoning Ag by occupying the active sites of Ag particles. The concentration of oxygen leads to the same degree of poisoning, which means that a higher amount of dissolved oxygen will give a higher rate of catalyst poisoning, thus lower photocatalytic efficiency [50]. In addition, DO also acts as an electron scavenger, which is a competition reaction with the reduction of Ag⁺ that affects the photocatalytic rate [27]. Therefore, the presence of N₂ gas is crucial to inhibit the formation of Ag₂O which leads to catalyst poisoning. The reactive oxygen species (ROS) formed such as O₂^{-•} and OH[•] will degrade RR4 dye into harmless products, which are CO₂ and H₂O. The mechanisms of the reaction can be described as follows:



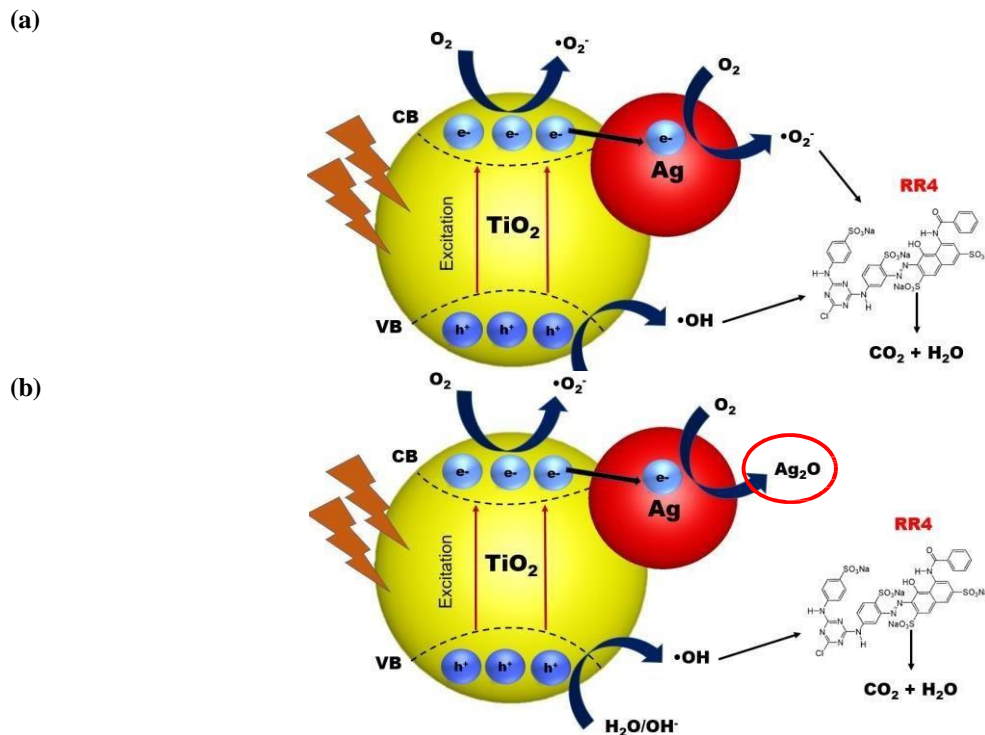


Figure 8. Schematic diagrams of the proposed mechanism of Ag-TiO₂ (a) in the presence of N₂ gas and (b) without N₂ gas purging.

Abbreviation list

AOP	Advanced oxidation process
BET	Brunauer-Emmett Teller
ca.	<i>circa</i> (about; around)
COD	Chemical oxygen demand
DO	Dissolved oxygen
DSAT	Double-sided adhesive tape
e ⁻ /h ⁺	Electron-hole
eV	Electron volt
FTIR	Fourier transformer infrared
HRTEM	High-resolution transmission electron microscopy
IPA	Isopropyl alcohol
PL	Photoluminescence
PVA	Polyvinyl alcohol
PZC	Point zero charge
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RR4	Reactive Red 4
SPR	Surface plasmonic resonance
TOC	Total organic carbon
UV-Vis/DRS	Ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy
W	Watt
XRD	X-ray diffraction

CONCLUSION

In summary, the formation of Ag₂O on the Ag-TiO₂ photocatalyst was successfully controlled by manipulating the amount of DO in the mixture during preparation prior to photodeposition. Significantly, the presence of Ag₂O in the photocatalyst reflects the photocatalytic performance of Ag-TiO₂ in the photodegradation of the anionic RR4 dye. The formation of Ag⁰ and Ag₂O needs to be in sufficient amounts, as too much or too little may result in low photocatalytic performance. The results confirm that the deposition of Ag on TiO₂ extends the absorption into the visible light spectrum and reduces the e⁻/h⁺ recombination rate. The high dispersion of Ag nanoparticles onto the TiO₂ surface without agglomeration ensures a balanced photocatalytic reaction. The descending order of photocatalytic performance of Ag-TiO₂ was as follows: 3AT-DO³⁰ > 3AT-DO¹⁰ > 3AT-DO⁰ > 3AT-DO⁶⁰ > TiO₂, and all samples exhibited stable photocatalytic performance upon 10 cycles. This work investigated the effect of Ag₂O on the photocatalytic performance of Ag-TiO₂, providing excellent insights into producing a powerful photo-catalyst for the degradation of organic contaminants.

DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTERESTS

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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