

Fabrication of TiO₂ Monolithic Photocatalyst and Evaluation of its Antibacterial Activity under Simulated Solar Irradiation

Diep N. Pham, Minh-Vien Le*, Hoang Anh Hoang, Xuan T.T. Tran, Tuan-Anh Nguyen

Faculty of Chemical Engineering, Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology, VNU-HCM, Ho Chi Minh City 700000, Vietnam
 lmvien@hcmut.edu.vn

In this study, the TiO₂ nanoparticles were coated on the monolithic surface by a dip-coating technique. Characterization of synthesized samples was determined by X-ray diffraction. Antibacterial application of the samples was investigated under simulated solar irradiation on *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) bacteria. A 5.7 log CFU mL⁻¹ decrease of *E. coli* was observed with TiO₂ nanoparticles after 3 h irradiation, whereas the number of surviving *E. coli* cells decreased by 2.7 log CFU mL⁻¹ with monolithic TiO₂ at the same irradiating condition. Despite the reduction of photocatalytic antibacterial effect, the results confirmed the photocatalytic antibacterial activity of monolithic TiO₂ under simulated sunlight irradiation as well as revealed its potential in practical water treatment applications.

1. Introduction

The rapidly accelerating urbanization-industrialization process in the 21st Century has helped the economy of some countries develop notably. On the other hand, its parallel serious consequences are climate change as well as emerging issues such as degradation and pollution of environment (Liu and Bae, 2018). Water polluting agents includes harmful microorganisms, heavy metals, organic and inorganic chemicals (Zeliger, 2008). The harmful microorganisms cause really dangerous human infections and inflammations in blood, skin, eyes; gastrointestinal tract, brain, etc. (Baldursson and Karanis, 2011). The clean water shortage for over 2 billion people on the world leads to at least half a million deaths from diarrhoeal each year (Pichel et al., 2019). As a result, more difficulty in approaching clean water sources has received more concerns, especially in developing countries. That is why the topic of polluted water treatment, especially drinking water disinfection always is cared for and researched urgently.

Current water disinfection methods are limited in worldwide applications and scale-up due to some obstructions. For instance, disinfection using antiseptics (Hrudey, 2009) and ozonation (Yang et al., 2012) damages human health due to toxic by-product. Reverse osmosis and nano-filtration membranes remove not only whole microorganisms and contaminants but also minerals which are important essential for human health (Ismail et al., 2019). Disinfection using UV light (Lui et al., 2016) and a thermal treatment process (Feng et al., 2004) always requires high energy as well as accommodates re-infecting risks. Alternative methods have been developed constantly to overcome these obstructions. Photocatalysis techniques were applied for an advanced oxidation technology which disinfects with free radicals and reactive oxygen species (Lee and Park, 2013). The most important benefits of photocatalysts are operability at low concentration, reusability for a long time and non-existence of toxic by-products. If the photocatalysis is activated by solar light as a renewable source, it will obviously become a green solution in water treatment.

TiO₂ nanomaterial is known as a popular photocatalyst because of its efficiency in degradation of organic chemicals (Gaya and Abdullah, 2008) and antibacterial. In particular, the photocatalytic antibacterial activity of TiO₂ is effective on many types of microorganism such as algae, viruses, fungi, and bacteria (Laxma Reddy et al., 2017). A pure anatase TiO₂ nanomaterial with particle size of 5.3 nm shown its antibacterial activity noticeably after 12 h visible irradiation due to a 1 log CFU mL⁻¹ decrease of *E. coli* (Cao et al., 2013). Another single-phase anatase TiO₂ prepared by a sol-gel method decreased by approximately 3.4 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *E. coli* after 1 h UVC irradiation (Moongraksathum and Chen, 2018). As evidence, the commercial Degussa P25

TiO₂ was confirmed to cause a 4 log CFU mL⁻¹ reduction of *E. coli* after 1 h simulated solar irradiation (Gumy et al., 2006). In addition, TiO₂ nanomaterials also indicate more dominance, for example, non-toxicity (Nguyen et al., 2019), lower cost than other photo-catalysts (Makhdoomi et al., 2015), inert nature (Gaya and Abdullah, 2008) and high biological stability (Lee and Park, 2013). All the advantages show that TiO₂ is capable of disinfection treatment for drinking water.

In contrast, nano-size of TiO₂ cause limitation in practical applications on account of separating nanoparticles out of water and reuse. Reusing TiO₂ nanoparticles, which requires lots of complex recovery equipment, leads to high cost of antibacterial process. To improve TiO₂ reusability, TiO₂ nanopowders have been gradually replaced by nanosized TiO₂ coated on inert substrates. TiO₂ was deposited on cotton fiber to obtain cotton/TiO₂ composites which indicated antibacterial activity against *E. coli* bacteria under short UV irradiation after 5 washing cycles (Galkina et al., 2014). A sol-gel method combined with a dip-coating technique was used to fabricate TiO₂ thin films (Sasani Ghamsari and Bahramian, 2008). TiO₂ coated on glass was also prepared with the corresponding way (Hakki et al., 2018). These types of substrate are seemingly ill-suited to take a key role in drinking water treatment equipment. Another prefer substrate towards water treatment applications is a monolith. Ceramic monoliths are lighter than metallic monoliths and variable in size as well as morphology such as spherical, cubic or cylindrical shape. Cylindrical honeycomb monoliths with lots of channels on the inside lead to larger surface area (Heck et al., 2001) which enhances contacts between TiO₂ and bacteria. The purpose of this study is surveying influence factors to find a good condition for fabricating a photocatalytic-antibacterial material which is able to withdraw and reuse as well as evaluating initially antibacterial activity of this material.

In this study, single-phase anatase TiO₂ was coated on channel surface of honeycomb monoliths. The synthesized TiO₂ was characterized by using X-ray diffraction (XRD) and its photocatalytic antibacterial activity was evaluated on *E. coli* bacteria by spread plate method. Monolith photo-reactor design in this study was referred from a previous study in gas treatment application (Tahir, 2018). These results are initial investigation for monolithic TiO₂ application in further water treatment studies.

2. Experimental

2.1 Materials and reagents

All materials and reagents were used without purification. Titanium n-butoxide (TNB, 99%) as titania precursor was obtained from Across Organics. Tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS, 99 %) as a silicon source was purchased from Merck Chemical Company. Acetylacetone (AcAc, 99%), polyethylene glycol (PEG, MW = 20,000), sodium chloride (99%), poly peptone, bacto yeast extract, and agar were all supplied by Merck Chemical Company. Nitric acid (HNO₃, 65%) was purchased from Scharlab in Spain. Deionized water was used in all experiments. Commercial honeycomb monoliths (Ø4 x 10 cm) including 177 channels per 2 mm x 2 mm were supplied by Chauger Honeycomb Ceramics Company in Taiwan.

2.2 Preparation of nano-material

2.2.1 Synthesis of TiO₂ nanopowders

TiO₂ nanopowders were synthesized according to a sol-gel method from solutions A and B as follow. EtOH, AcAc, and PEG were added sequentially to TNB with the TNB : EtOH : AcAc molar ratio of 1 : 10 : 1 and the PEG : TiO₂ weight ratio of 1 : 2, then this mixture was dissolved at 40 °C for 30 min to obtain the solution A. H₂O was added to EtOH with the H₂O : EtOH molar ratios of 2 : 10, 4 : 10 or 6 : 10 to obtain the solution B. pH value of the solution B was adjusted to 2 by using HNO₃. The solution B was added dropwise to the solution A for 2.5 h at room temperature. This mixture was heated at 80 °C for 2 h afterwards to get a TiO₂ solution. In the next step, the TiO₂ solution was dried at 120 °C for 2.5 h before calcination at 500 °C or 550 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 1 °C/min to obtain TiO₂ powder samples. These powder samples were named according to the TNB : water molar ratios of 1 : 2, 1 : 4, 1 : 6 and the calcined temperature at 500 °C, 550 °C followed by P1:2-500, P1:4-500, P1:4-550, and P1:6-500.

2.2.2 Fabrication of nano TiO₂/monoliths

Fabrication of monolithic TiO₂ by a sol-gel dip-coating technique was performed with commercial honeycomb monoliths, SiO₂ and TiO₂ solutions. The commercial monoliths had been cleaned by an ultrasonic bath in acetone media for 30 min before being dried at 100 °C for 24 h to obtain cleaned monolith. The TiO₂ solutions in monolith fabrication and nanopowder synthesis were identical. The SiO₂ solution was prepared by adding dropwise an EtOH/H₂O solution with EtOH : H₂O molar ratio of 1 : 1 to a EtOH/TEOS solution with EtOH : TEOS molar ratio of 1 : 2. This mixture was adjusted pH value to 3 by using HNO₃ before stirred constantly for

12 h. PEG was added to the mixture with PEG : SiO₂ weight ratio of 1 : 2 afterwards. Stirring the mixture lasted another 6 h to acquire SiO₂ solution.

Monolithic TiO₂ samples were prepared by repeating a following dip-coating cycle. This cycle consisted of steps as follows. To begin dip-coating, the cleaned monoliths were immersed in the SiO₂ solution at a constant rate of 0.5 mm / s, then they were soaked in SiO₂ solution for 30 min and withdrawn at the same rate of immersion. The first cycle of SiO₂ coating was dried at 180 °C for 1 h before the monoliths were dip-coated with the SiO₂ solution one more time. The second cycle of SiO₂ coating was dried at 180 °C for 1 h before the monoliths were calcined at 600 °C or 800 °C for 3 h with a heating rate of 1 °C / min to obtain SiO₂ coated monolithic samples named SiO₂/M600 or SiO₂/M800. The SiO₂/M600 and SiO₂/M800 were performed sequentially dip-coating cycles into the SiO₂ solution two more times and into the TiO₂ solution two more times with the same speed as the previous SiO₂ coating cycles. The monolithic samples were dried at 180 °C after each cycle of SiO₂ coating and were dried at 120 °C after each cycle of TiO₂ coating. The TiO₂ coated monolithic samples were calcined at 500 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 1 °C/min to complete the fabrication of monolithic samples named TiO₂/SiO₂/M600 and TiO₂/SiO₂/M800.

2.3 Characterization

Crystal phase of powder samples was determined by XRD using a D2 Phaser (Bruker) with Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda=0.15418$ nm) at 0.02° step size and 0.2 s step time from 20° to 80°. Crystalline size was calculated by the Scherrer's equation (Eq(1)) at (101) peak, where β is the full width at half-maximum of the diffraction peak (FWHM, radian), $k = 0.9$ is a shape constant, D is the crystalline size and θ is the Bragg angle.

$$D = \frac{k \cdot \lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos\varphi} \quad (1)$$

2.4 Antibacterial activity tests

A bacterial strain used in antibacterial tests was *Escherichia coli* K12. The bacterial culture in Luria-Bertani (LB) Broth was shaken with a shaking rate of 150 rpm at 30 °C for 18 h. The culture was centrifuged at 10,000 \times g at 4 °C for 5 min to obtain a pellet. The pellet was suspended in the same volume of sterilized NaCl 0.8 % solution. The centrifugation and suspension were repeated to discard all residual LB Broth. The final pellet was suspended and serially diluted in sterilized NaCl 0.8 % solution to obtain a bacterial concentration of $\sim 10^6$ CFU mL⁻¹. The bacteria suspension containing $\sim 10^6$ CFU mL⁻¹ was used in antibacterial activity tests for both the powder samples and the monolithic samples.

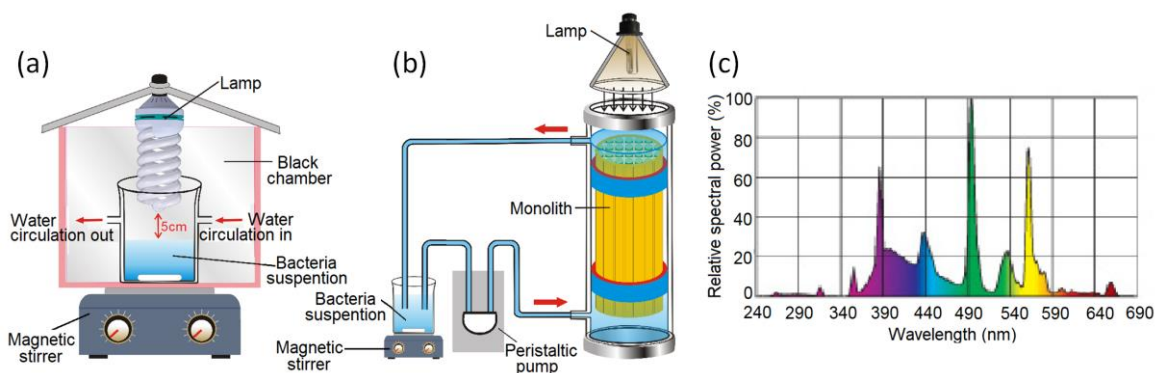


Figure 1: Illustration of photo-reactor used in the antibacterial activity test of (a) powder and (b) monolith samples and (c) the simulated solar light spectra of the lamp in the photo-reactor

In the case of the powder samples, the antibacterial activity test was performed in a photo-reactor illustrated in Figure 1a with a lamp as a simulated solar light source. The powder sample was added to the bacteria suspension to obtain a concentration of 1,000 ppm. Distance from the lamp to the suspension surface is 5 cm. The bacteria suspension was stirred constantly and its temperature was maintained at 30 ± 2 °C. A photolytic antibacterial test with simulated solar irradiation but without TiO₂ was performed to evaluate effect of the light source on bacteria.

In the case of the monolith samples, the antibacterial activity test was performed in a photo-reactor which contains a monolith and a simulated solar lamp (Figure 1b). The bacteria suspension was pumped circularly into the reactor at a flow rate of 70 mL / min by a peristaltic pump. The bacteria suspension was stirred

constantly and its temperature was maintained at 30 ± 2 °C. A “control” sample containing only bacteria suspension without TiO₂ and irradiation was always conducted simultaneously for each test in antibacterial activity of TiO₂. Conditions of the control test were the same as those of samples with presence of TiO₂. In all cases, the irradiation was maintained for 3 h and samples were taken every 30 min. They were serially diluted with 10, 100 or 1000-fold dilution and spread onto LB Agar plates. Bacteria concentration was estimated based on the number of colonies in the plates and the respective dilution levels.

3. Result and Discussion

Powder X-ray diffraction patterns of the powder samples are shown in Figure 2. It can be seen that all peaks of the powder samples calcined at 500 °C at 2θ diffraction angles of 25.2° (101), 36.9° (004), 48.24° (200), 54.86° (211) and 63.01° (204) are well-indexed with the JCPDS card No 21-1272. No diffraction peaks representing rutile phase as well as an impurity are detected in any samples calcined at 500 °C. It revealed that all of the samples including P1:2-500, P1:4-500 and P1:6-500 are pure anatase structures. According to the XRD results, crystalline size of the samples was calculated and displayed in Table 1. Among samples calcined at 500 °C, the crystalline size increased significantly from 13.2 nm to 18.4 nm according to decreasing of the TNB : water molar ratio. The TNB : H₂O molar ratio of 1 : 2 corresponding to the low amount of water not only causes a low rate of both hydrolysis and gelation (Bessekhouad et al., 2003) but also leads to producing small crystalline size. Because of lack of water, the probability of condensation progress in the oxolation manner is higher than the deoxolation one. Increasing the amount of water which supports formation of anatase structures also increases the hydrolysis rate. As a result, excess water promotes the deoxolation to create a large quantity of Ti–OH. They make primary particles be loosely packed lead to incomplete development of three-dimensional polymeric bonds (Bessekhouad et al., 2003). This explains the decrease of crystallization according to the rise of TNB : H₂O molar ratio from 1 : 4 to 1 : 6.

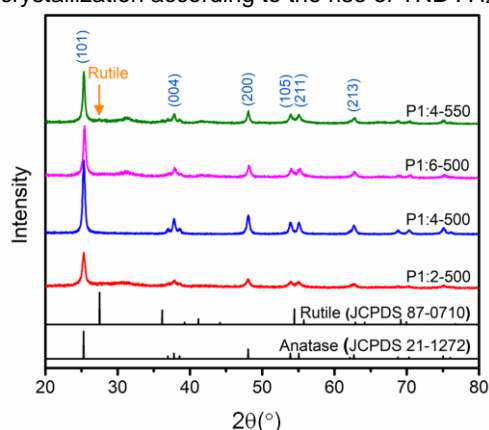


Figure 2: XRD patterns of powder TiO₂ samples: P1:2-500, P1:4-500, P1:6-500, and P1:4-550

Table 1: Crystalline size of powder samples

Sample	P1:2-500	P1:4-500	P1:6-500	P1:4-550
Average crystalline size (nm)	13.2	18.4	16.2	19.0

The P1:4-550 sample also indicated the peak at 2θ diffraction angles which are well-indexed with the JCPDS card No 21-1272. It disclosed that the anatase structure is still preserved according to the increment of calcined temperature from 500 °C to 550 °C. A less intense peak of rutile structure at a diffraction angle of 27.49° seen in the XRD result of P1:4-550 signed a transformation from anatase to rutile of TiO₂ which reduces crystallization of the anatase structure. Increasing the calcined temperature is accompanied by an increase of crystalline size clearly (Allen et al., 2018). This revealed that the calcined temperature is also an important factor which affects the crystal structure of TiO₂.

Antibacterial efficiency of the powder samples was displayed in Figure 3a. In the photolytic antibacterial with the lamp but without TiO₂ nanopowders, bacterial concentration was slightly decreased during 3 h, indicating simulated solar light source had almost no effect on the bacteria. In contrast, the bacterial concentration dramatically decreased by at least 3 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *E. coli* after 3 h due to the presence of the TiO₂ nanopowder under irradiation. The ascending order of antibacterial activity is P1:6-500, P1:4-550, P1:2-500, P1:4-500, especially, P1:2-500 and P1:4-500. P1:4-500 demonstrated the highest antibacterial activity with a

3.2 log CFU mL⁻¹ decrease of *E. coli* after only 1 h irradiation. In general, antibacterial activities depend on the crystallization of the anatase structure. The higher the crystallization of the anatase structure is, the higher the antibacterial activity of TiO₂ nanomaterial is. In contrast to this trend, the P1:2-500 sample is an exception. In spite of lower crystallization, its antibacterial activity was still higher than that of P1:6-500 or P1:4-550 sample. This result was probably caused by much smaller crystalline size, which increases the contact between TiO₂ nanoparticles and bacteria. Hence, crystalline size is also an important factor influencing the antibacterial activity of TiO₂ nanoparticles. The TiO₂ nanopowder sample synthesized with TNB : H₂O molar ratio of 1 : 4 and calcined temperature at 500 °C (P1:4-500) showed the highest antibacterial activity.

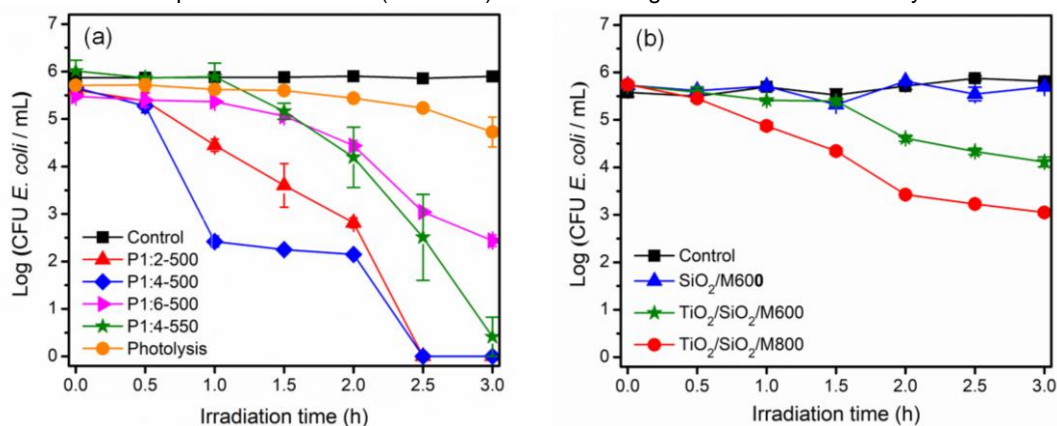


Figure 3: Antibacterial activity of (a) powder samples and (b) TiO₂-coated monolith samples according to irradiation time

The conditions to prepare the P1:4-500 sample were applied to the TiO₂ solution preparation that used for monolith coating. Optical fibers which support light transmission from the lamp to the narrow channels inside of monoliths are always required in monolithic photo-reactors to activate monolithic photocatalysts (Yu et al., 2011). Figure 3b described antibacterial activity of monolithic samples as a function of irradiation time. No antibacterial activity was shown in the SiO₂/M600 sample (without TiO₂). After 3 h irradiation, a 1.6 log CFU mL⁻¹ decrease of *E. coli* at the TiO₂/SiO₂/M600 was shown, while the greater decrease of 2.7 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *E. coli* was shown at the TiO₂/SiO₂/M800. It demonstrated that the nanoparticles were coated successfully on the channel monolith surface. The difference in the antibacterial activity of TiO₂/SiO₂/M600 and TiO₂/SiO₂/M800 was caused by SiO₂ background layer with various calcined temperature. SiO₂ in the background layer leads to improving smoothness of the inner monolithic surface and increases adhesion of the following TiO₂ layers. The higher calcined temperature (800 °C) caused the more adhesion between SiO₂ material and the monolith surface. It results in mechanical strengthen between TiO₂, SiO₂, and monolith that lead to elevate the photocatalytic activity of the sample.

4. Conclusions

The TiO₂ crystal structure was controlled by molar ratio of TNB: H₂O and calcined temperature. The TiO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized in single anatase phase. It was coated successfully on surface of monolith substrate by sol-gel method combined with dip-coating technique and using SiO₂ as a background layer which elevates adhesion of TiO₂. TiO₂/SiO₂/M800 sample reduced by 2.7 log CFU mL⁻¹ of *E. coli* while TiO₂/SiO₂/M600 sample shown a 1.6 log CFU mL⁻¹ decrease of *E. coli* after 3 h simulated solar irradiation. This study revealed that TiO₂/SiO₂/monolith is a potential photocatalyst in drinking water treatment under sunlight irradiation. The antibacterial activity of this material needs further enhancing in future studies.

Acknowledgments

This research is funded by Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology, VNU-HCM, under grant number BK-SDH-2020-1770444.

References

Allen N.S., Mahdjoub N., Vishnyakov V., Kelly P.J., Kriek R.J., 2018, The effect of crystalline phase (anatase, brookite and rutile) and size on the photocatalytic activity of calcined polymorphic titanium dioxide (TiO₂), *Polymer Degradation and Stability*, 150, 31–36.

- Baldursson S., Karanis P., 2011, Waterborne transmission of protozoan parasites: Review of worldwide outbreaks – An update 2004–2010, *Water Research*, 45(20), 6603-6614.
- Bessekhouad Y., Robert D., Weber J.V., 2003, Synthesis of photocatalytic TiO₂ nanoparticles: optimization of the preparation conditions, *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology A: Chemistry*, 157(1), 47–53.
- Cao B., Cao S., Dong P., Gao J., Wang J., 2013, High antibacterial activity of ultrafine TiO₂/graphene sheets nanocomposites under visible light irradiation, *Materials Letters*, 93, 349–352.
- Feng C., Suzuki K., Zhao S., Sugiura N., Shimada S., Maekawa T., 2004, Water disinfection by electrochemical treatment, *Bioresource Technology*, 94(1), 21–25.
- Galkina O.L., Sycheva A., Blagodatskiy A., Kaptay G., Katanaev V.L., Seisenbaeva G.A., Kessler V.G., Agafonov A.V., 2014, The sol–gel synthesis of cotton/TiO₂ composites and their antibacterial properties, *Surface and Coatings Technology*, 253, 171–179.
- Gaya U.I., Abdullah A.H., 2008, Heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of organic contaminants over titanium dioxide: A review of fundamentals, progress and problems, *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology C: Photochemistry Review*, 9(1), 1–12.
- Gumy D., Morais C., Bowen P., Pulgarin C., Giraldo S., Hajdu R., Kiwi J., 2006, Catalytic activity of commercial TiO₂ powders for the abatement of the bacteria (*E. coli*) under solar simulated light: Influence of the isoelectric point, *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental*, 63(1–2), 76–84.
- Hakki H.K., Allahyari S., Rahemi N., Tasbihi M., 2018, The role of thermal annealing in controlling morphology, crystal structure and adherence of dip coated TiO₂ film on glass and its photocatalytic activity, *Materials Science in Semiconductor Processing*, 85, 24–32.
- Heck R.M., Gulati S., Farrauto R.J., 2001, The application of monoliths for gas phase catalytic reactions, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 82(1–3), 149–156.
- Hrudey S.E., 2009, Chlorination disinfection by-products, public health risk tradeoffs and me, *Water Research*, 43(8), 2057–2092.
- Ismail A.F., Khulbe K.C., Matsuura T., 2019, RO Applications, Chapter In: Ismail A.F., Khulbe K. C., Matsuura T. (Eds.), *Reverse osmosis*, Elsevier, 221–248.
- Laxma Reddy P.V., Kavitha B., Kumar Reddy P.A., Kim K.-H., 2017, TiO₂-based photocatalytic disinfection of microbes in aqueous media: A review, *Environmental Research*, 154, 296–303.
- Lee S.-Y., Park S.-J., 2013, TiO₂ photocatalyst for water treatment applications, *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry*, 19(6), 1761–1769.
- Liu X., Bae J., 2018, Urbanization and industrialization impact of CO₂ emissions in China, *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 172, 178–186.
- Lui G.Y., Roser D., Corkish R., Ashbolt N.J., Stuetz R., 2016, Point-of-use water disinfection using ultraviolet and visible light-emitting diodes, *Science of The Total Environment*, 553, 626–635.
- Makhdoomi H., Moghadam H.M., Zabihi O., 2015, Effect of different conditions on the size and quality of titanium dioxide nanoparticles synthesized by a reflux process, *Research on Chemical Intermediates*, 41(3), 1777–1788.
- Moongraksathum B., Chen Y.W., 2018, Anatase TiO₂ co-doped with silver and ceria for antibacterial application, *Catalysis Today*, 310, 68–74.
- Nguyen D.T., Ho T.N.S., Le M.V., 2019, Removal of β -naphthol in water via photocatalytic degradation over N-TiO₂/SiO₂ nanocomposite under simulated solar light irradiation, *Chemical Engineering Transactions*, 72, 1–6.
- Pichel N., Vivar M., Fuentes M., 2019, The problem of drinking water access: A review of disinfection technologies with an emphasis on solar treatment methods, *Chemosphere*, 218, 1014–1030.
- Sasani Ghamsari M., Bahramian A.R., 2008, High transparent sol–gel derived nanostructured TiO₂ thin film, *Materials Letters*, 62(3), 361–364.
- Tahir M., 2018, Photocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction to fuels in continuous flow monolith photoreactor using montmorillonite dispersed Fe/TiO₂ nanocatalyst, *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 170, 242-250.
- Yang X., Peng J., Chen B., Guo W., Liang Y., Liu W., Liu L., 2012, Effects of ozone and ozone/peroxide pretreatments on disinfection byproduct formation during subsequent chlorination and chloramination, *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 239-240, 348–354.
- Yu Y.H., Pan Y.T., Wu Y.T., Lasek J., Wu J.C.S., 2011, Photocatalytic NO reduction with C₃H₈ using a monolith photoreactor, *Catalysis Today*, 174(1), 141–147.
- Zeliger H.I., 2011, *Water Pollution*, Chapter In: Zeliger H.I. (Ed.), *Human toxicology of chemical mixtures*, 2nd Ed, William Andrew Publishing, Oxford, UK, 65–95.