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Changing the Product State Distribution and Kinetics in Photocatalytic Surface Reactions Using Pulsed Laser Irradiation

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Heterogeneous semiconductor photocatalysis has shown promise for the degradation of a number of volatile organic species that pose significant environmental concerns. 1-5 Photocatalytic methods can provide significant advantages over existing hazardous waste treatments such as incineration,⁶ physical processes such as adsorption,⁷ and bioremediation.^{8,9} Studies have shown that complete mineralization is often possible, even for chlorinated species, while capital, fuel, and energy costs for photocatalytic processes can be significantly lower than for comparable thermal treatments.¹⁰ The initial steps involved in photocatalysis that include the excitation of electrons to the conduction band and migration of these electrons and holes to the surface are wellknown, although a number of issues pertaining to the complex surface chemistry are not fully understood.

One question we raise is the effect of using different irradiation methods to initiate the surface chemistry. Nearly all of the heterogeneous photocatalytic experiments to date have employed continuous UV lamps, with few exceptions. 11-13 For example, in the case of dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂) photocatalytic degradation using UV lamps, complete mineralization to HCl, CO₂, and Cl⁻ occurs in the liquid phase, ^{14–16} while in the gas phase, the undesirable intermediate phosgene (CCl₂O) is also observed.¹⁷ In this paper, we report our initial results on the photodegradation of CH₂Cl₂ over a TiO₂ photocatalyst, in which we observe dramatic changes in the product distribution that depend on the UV irradiation source. In experiments using a continuous xenon arc lamp, we observe the formation of CCl₂O, HCl, and CO₂ in agreement with previous studies. However, when we use a pulsed 351-nm excimer laser, CCl₂O and HCl are no longer produced, and the kinetics of the CH₂Cl₂ degradation are altered.

Experiments were conducted using a glass reaction cell that provided an orthogonal, crossed beam arrangement for UV

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excitation and in situ FTIR detection. A catalyst consisting of a 1-cm² tungsten mesh coated with 25-nm TiO₂ particles (Degussa P25) was prepared to provide a clean, dry surface on which the photocatalytic degradations could occur. Samples were prepared following methods originally developed by Yates and co-workers in their investigation of chloromethane and trichloroethylene (TCE) photooxidation. 18-20 Briefly, the catalyst was prepared by first spraying a 90% acetone/10% water suspension of TiO2 particles (100 g/L) onto a tungsten mesh, which was heated electrically to 340-370 K, allowing the liquid to evaporate. The TiO₂-coated sample was calcined in the presence of O₂ at 773 K for 5 h and then mounted into the reaction chamber where it was purged with N₂ gas for 1 h. Finally, the sample was heated electrically at 473 K for 2 h under high vacuum. Pressures in the reaction chamber were maintained at 10⁻⁵ Torr prior to photodegradation experiments. CH₂Cl₂ (Fisher Scientific Co.) was purified by filtration through an alumina column²⁰ and by subsequent vapor pressure distillation. Approximately 12 µmol of the reactant and 35 µmol of O₂ were introduced into the IR cell. Either broad band UV, produced by a high-pressure Xe-Hg lamp (Oriel) operating at 350 W with a water cell for IR absorption, or 351-nm light from a Xe-F excimer laser (Lambda Physik Compex) operating at 20 Hz with ca. 26- to 100-mJ, 10ns pulses, was used to initiate the reactions. FTIR scans were typically obtained every 15 min during the lamp experiments and every 30 min during the laser experiments. Reference FTIR spectra were acquired immediately before introducing reagents into the reaction cell. Additionally, GC/MS analysis of the gasphase species was performed using an online Varian Saturn 2 ion trap system.

In Figure 1, IR spectra are shown, indicating the progress of the photocatalytic oxidation of CH₂Cl₂ in the presence of O₂ using lamp irradiation. Initial FTIR scans 1A and 1D show the characteristic peaks for CH₂Cl₂; 2990, 1276, and twin peaks at 764 and 749 cm⁻¹. Spectra 1B and 1E, collected after 60 min of irradiation, indicate a decrease in the CH₂Cl₂ absorption at 2990 cm⁻¹ and an intensity shift within the twin peak structure. Characteristic chloroform (CHCl₃) absorption bands were observed at 1219 and 771 cm⁻¹. Additionally, CO₂ and CO bands centered around 2345 and 2166 cm⁻¹, respectively, were observed. Spectra 1C and 1F, taken after 135 min, show the appearance of three new species, CCl₄ at 795 cm⁻¹, CCl₂O with two peaks at 1831 and 849 cm⁻¹, and HCl by a series of peaks 3031 to 2679 cm⁻¹. The observed absorption bands were assigned by comparison with IR standards²¹ and literature data for the case of phosgene. 22 Approximately 0.12 μ mol of CCl₂O was produced, representing 1% of the total carbon species within the system. GC/MS scans confirmed the presence of all of the above species in runs taken at various times during the experiment.

Figure 2 contains spectra collected during a photocatalytic experiment using the pulsed UV laser source. Spectra 2A and 2D again show the characteristic frequencies of CH₂Cl₂ prior to irradiation. After 270 min of laser irradiation, spectra 2B and 2E follow the trends established by the lamp experiment, with CH₂Cl₂ absorption diminishing as the chloroform, CO₂, and CO bands increase in intensity. However, spectra 2C and 2F, taken after 540 min of irradiation, show marked differences compared to the results obtained with lamp irradiation. Although CCl₄ is observed, no HCl or CCl₂O is apparent in these two spectra. GC/

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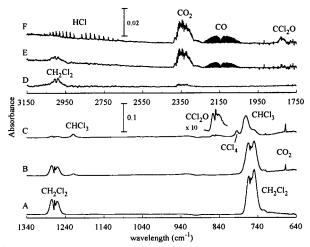


Figure 1. FTIR spectra taken during a typical lamp irradiation experiment. Spectra A-C: 1320 to 650 cm⁻¹; spectra D-F: 3100 to 1750 cm⁻¹. Spectra A and D show the characteristic CH₂Cl₂ absorption peaks before UV irradiation. B and E were collected after 60 min of UV irradiation, C and F after 135 min.

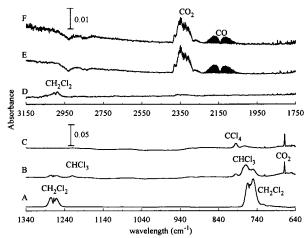


Figure 2. FTIR spectra taken during a laser irradiation experiment. Spectra A-C: 1320 to 650 cm⁻¹; spectra D-F: 3100 to 1750 cm⁻¹ Spectra A and D were collected before irradiation, B and E after 270 min of laser irradiation, C and F after 540 min.

MS scans taken during and after the long irradiation periods confirmed the FTIR observations that no phosgene was produced, to the detection limit of our experiments (roughly 0.2 nmol). There was also no GC/MS evidence for formation of larger C species.

A series of long exposure laser experiments (up to 14 h) was conducted to examine whether the laser would require longer reaction times for CCl₂O production. Again, no CCl₂O was produced according to the FTIR and GC/MS data acquired during the runs, even after these spectra showed the complete degradation of CH₂Cl₂. In separate experiments, a sample of CCl₂O could only be partially degraded after laser exposure for 2 h in the presence of TiO₂ and O₂. These experiments suggest that CCl₂O is not a degradation intermediate or product when 351-nm pulsed laser light is used.

In Figure 3 kinetic plots comparing the laser and lamp irradiation experiments provide further evidence that the nature of the excitation can affect the surface chemistry. In Figure 3, a kinetic plot of CH₂Cl₂ photodegradation using the UV lamp is shown, indicating a constant rate of degradation of CH₂Cl₂. In a previous study, Yates observed similar linear kinetics for the photocatalytic oxidation of TCE,²⁰ which has been ascribed to a rate-determining step of electron transfer from TiO2 to adsorbed O₂.²³ However, when using the 351-nm pulsed laser, the time dependence of the degradation is exponential, indicating firstorder kinetic behavior. These results suggest that alternative mechanisms may be responsible for the degradation.

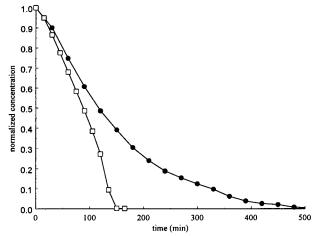


Figure 3. Kinetic plots showing the time dependence of the CH₂Cl₂ degradation during lamp and laser experiments. Lamp data (open squares) follow a linear dependence while the laser data (filled circles) indicate an exponential time dependence.

Additional experiments were carried out to determine the effect of O2 and laser power on the degradation. In agreement with previous studies, 19,20,24-26 O2 was required as a coreagent to observe CH₂Cl₂ degradation during lamp irradiation. However, the product distribution resulting from laser irradiation was no different whether O₂ was present or absent in the reaction cell. Control experiments did show, however, that the TiO₂ surface was necessary for degradation to proceed, suggesting that the photons provided by the laser may create a new pathway for the degradation of the CH₂Cl₂ at the surface which does not require O₂. We have ruled out the possibility of laser photodamage in experiments involving laser exposure followed by lamp degradation. The resulting products and kinetics were unchanged in comparison to those of experiments using the lamp only. Varying the laser power did affect the relative concentrations of CO and CHCl₃ produced, with CO being favored over CHCl₃ at the higher laser powers; however, phosgene and HCl were never observed in any of the laser experiments.

Bandwidth-limited experiments using the lamp were conducted and showed that the phosgene production could be significantly reduced (by a factor of 3) using a 350-nm long-pass filter and even eliminated by further limiting the shorter wavelengths of light. These results indicate a wavelength dependence in the product distribution. However, the photodegradation of methylene chloride still required the presence of O₂, indicating that the initial mechanism for methylene chloride degradation was unchanged.

We believe these experiments provide evidence for selective photocatalytic degradation on TiO₂ semiconductor surfaces. Further work is underway to ascertain the origin of the aforementioned observations, including, for example, the possibility of 2-e reduction.^{27,28} In this case carbene formation (CCl₂) in the laser experiments seems unlikely at this time due to their propensity to form phosgene by reaction with OH²⁹ or multicarbon species, which were not observed. The ability to provide selective degradation may be important for developing new methodologies for destroying hazardous volatile organic compounds.

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