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ZnO nanostructures and nanocomposites as promising photocatalysts for the remediation of wastewater pollution

Satinder Pal Kaur Malhotra

ICFAI Tech School, ICFAI University Dehradun,
Rajawala Road, Selaqui, 248197, Uttarakhand, India

ABSTRACT

Recently, hierarchical 3D nanostructures have attracted attention due to their multiple advantages, such as large surface area, porous structures, as well as enhanced light harvesting ability. Zinc oxide is a promising photocatalyst alternative to TiO_2 used for environmental remediation of wastewater pollutants due to its high photosensitivity, non-toxic nature, low cost, and environmental friendliness. ZnO can be crystallized in three forms under different conditions i.e., wurtzite, zinc-blende, and rock-salt structures. ZnO exhibits a higher quantum efficiency and has a similar bandgap as TiO_2 as it has a larger number of inherent active defect sites on the surface, which makes it capable of absorbing a larger fraction of the solar spectrum. Various approaches have been used to efficiently utilize the solar radiation and to enhance the efficiency of zinc oxide photocatalyst. These techniques enhance the photocatalytic performance ZnO under visible light by shifting the bandgap energy, suppressing the recombination rate of electron-hole pairs, increasing charge separation efficiency. In future there is a need of developing green, scalable, low-cost and highly efficient hierarchically ZnO nanostructures and nanocomposites photocatalyst for remediation of wastewater pollution. In this chapter the emphasis has been on the advantages, fabrication methods, and photocatalytic applications of hierarchical ZnO nanostructures for the degradation of organic contaminants present in wastewater.

KEYWORDS

Fabrication, Hierarchical nanostructure, Photocatalysis, Zinc oxide

Introduction

Over the past few decades, industrial effluents discharged into rivers and oceans have been the major sources of water pollution. Conventional methods used to treat organic effluents such as physical, biological or chemical are ineffective as they are non-destructive, since they just transfer organic compound from water to another phase, thus causing secondary pollution and requiring further treatment (Janotti and Van de Walle, 2009; Malhotra *et al.*, 2019; Kumar *et al.*, 2019). Heterogeneous photocatalysis is a promising technique to control environmental pollution harnessing cheap solar energy whereby toxic organic compounds can be effectively degraded into completely into green by-products i.e., H₂O, CO₂, and mineral acids without bringing secondary pollution, through a process called photocatalysis using semiconducting nanostructures. In recent years, various semiconductors with hierarchical nanostructures have been fabricated to achieve efficient photocatalysts owing to their multiple advantages, such as high surface area, porous structures, as well as enhanced light harvesting. (Li *et al.*, 2016). Zinc oxide is a promising photocatalyst alternative to TiO₂ used for environmental remediation of wastewater pollutants due to its high photosensitivity, non-toxic nature, low cost, and environmental friendliness (Chen *et al.*, 1998; Reynolds *et al.*, 1999).

ZnO as a photocatalyst

In the field of photocatalysis, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is undoubtedly the material most extensively studied (Huang *et al.*, 2008; Mahendra *et al.*, 2008). Due to the high price and rareness in existence of TiO₂ its large-scale application in industrial wastewater treatment operations is very non-economic (Daneshvar *et al.*, 2004). Zinc oxide is a promising photocatalyst used for environmental remediation of wastewater pollutants than TiO₂ due to its high photosensitivity, non-toxic nature, low cost, and environmental friendliness. ZnO exhibits a higher quantum efficiency and has a similar bandgap as TiO₂ as it has a larger number of inherent active defect sites on the surface, which makes it capable of absorbing a larger fraction of the solar spectrum (Qiu *et al.*, 2008; Chen *et al.*, 2009; Yogendra *et al.*, 2011).

Crystal structure of ZnO

ZnO can be crystallized in three forms under different conditions i.e., wurtzite, zinc-blende, and rock-salt structures (Ozgur *et al.*, 2005; Moezzi *et al.*, 2012). ZnO hexagonal wurtzite is thermodynamically the most stable at ambient conditions and hence most common among the three structures. Cubic zincblende, however, can be stabilized by growing ZnO on cubic substrates.

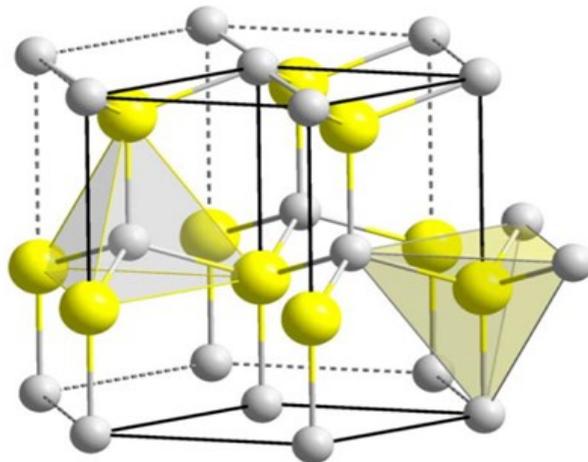


Figure 1. Wurtzite of ZnO.

ZnO will exist in the rock salt structure only at relatively high pressures (Ozgur *et al.*, 2005). The hexagonal wurtzite structure possesses lattice spacing $a = 0.325$ nm and $c = 0.521$ nm, the ratio $c/a * 1.6$ that is very close to the ideal value for hexagonal cell $c/a = 1.633$. Each tetrahedral Zn atom is surrounded by four oxygen atoms and vice versa (George *et al.*, 2009). ZnO is generally an intrinsically n-type semiconductor with the presence of intrinsic defects such as oxygen vacancies (V_O), zinc interstitials (Zn_i), and zinc vacancies (V_{Zn}), which will affect its optical properties and electrical behavior (Boukos *et al.*, 2012). It has been noted that a greater V_O can provide more electron charge carriers (Figure 1).

Classification of ZnO nanostructures

In the past decade, many different strategies have been employed to synthesize ZnO nano-materials rich in morphologies due to the availability of cheap and versatile routes of fabrication of zinc oxide nanostructures. From the point of dimensionality, zero-dimensional (0D) ZnO includes quantum dots, one-dimensional (1D) which includes nanorods, nanofibers, nanowires, nanotubes, and nanoneedles, while two-dimensional (2D) and three-dimensional (3D) nano-materials include nanosheets and nanoflowers, respectively. Processes leading to three dimensional (3D) hierarchical ordered structures are still not perfectly understood and therefore attract attention from the research community. As the photocatalytic activity of semiconductors generally depends on crystal size, surface area, morphology and native defects, the abundance in morphologies makes ZnO representative material in the research field of photocatalysis.

Synthesis of 3D ZnO hierarchical nanostructures

Different synthesis methods have been used to obtain 3D ZnO hierarchical nanostructures which include physical, chemical and biological methods (Banerjee *et al.*, 2012). Among the various methods used to synthesize ZnO nanostructures, solution phase synthesis is widely used for the synthesis of 3D ZnO hierarchical nanostructures as it is the simple and less energy consuming. Through this synthesis route, the morphology of the nanostructures can be easily controlled by manipulating the experimental factors such as type of solvents, starting materials and reaction conditions (Banerjee *et al.*, 2012). Solution-based methods used to synthesize ZnO nanostructures include hydrothermal, sol-gel, precipitation, microemulsion, solvothermal, electrochemical deposition process, microwave, polyol, wet chemical method, flux methods and electrospinning. Solution phase synthesis has attracted increasing interest for the synthesis of 3D ZnO hierarchical nanostructures due to their advantages, such as low cost, low temperature (<200°C) required for synthesis, scalability, and ease of handling.

Advantages of hierarchical ZnO nanostructures and nanocomposites

High surface area and porous structures

The photocatalytic activity of semiconductor is affected by its specific surface area (Yuan *et al.*, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2005; Zhang *et al.*, 2007). Hierarchical nanostructures with a high surface area (Yu *et al.*, 2009; Cai *et al.*, 2010; Cheng *et al.*, 2011) showed better photocatalytic properties than low dimensional ZnO nanostructures, such as nanoparticles, nanorods, nanosheets, nanotetrapods, etc. (Guo *et al.*, 2011). High surface areas offered by hierarchical ZnO nanostructures make them a popular choice in solar photocatalysis, as more pollutant could be easily adsorbed and a higher rate of degradation can be achieved, enhancing the photocatalytic activity (Mukhopadhyay *et al.*, 2015).

Enhanced Light scattering of photocatalyst

Hierarchical porous and hollow nanostructures increase the light-harvesting ability of photocatalysts. The interconnected pores in their structures increase the number of light traveling paths and thereby facilitate their light-harvesting ability (Wang *et al.*, 2005). The mesoporosity structures not only act as distribution channels increasing absorption of visible light but also create an ideal environment for mass transportation of electrons. Due to these facts 2D ZnO nanoflowers and porous 3D hierarchical ZnO nanostructures possess better light scattering properties when compared to 1D nanorods. Sinha *et al.* (2010) showed hierarchical ZnO hollow spheroids exhibited enhanced photocatalytic in dye degradation due to efficient utilization of

light through the multiple reflections of light in their hollow structures.

Synergistic nano-building blocks and multi-components

Hierarchical nanostructures are composed of 3D self-assembly of primary structure e.g., nanoparticle, nanorod, nanotube or nanosheets in nanoscale. 3D hierarchical structures inherit the excellent properties of the single nano-sized building blocks and also possess superior photocatalytic performance due to charge transfer and separation among the well-organized nanoscale building blocks (Han *et al.*, 2015; Ko *et al.*, 2011).

Problems associated with photocatalytic applications of ZnO

First, the recombination of photogenerated electron-holes pairs which deteriorates the charge transport leading to low reaction efficiency at the ZnO photocatalyst surface. Another problem associated with ZnO photocatalyst is its limited light harvesting efficiency. ZnO has a large bandgap (3.37 eV) which restricts its light absorption only in ultraviolet region and thus, limits the practical applications of ZnO photocatalysts for solar light harvesting. Therefore, intense efforts have been made to improve the photocatalytic activity of ZnO under solar illumination by minimizing the bandgap energy and inhibiting the recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs.

Fabrication of hierarchical ZnO nanostructures and nanocomposites

The development of visible-light active zinc oxide photocatalyst is one of the key challenges in the field of semiconductor photocatalysis. Various techniques have been used to improve the photocatalytic efficiency of ZnO such as coupling of ZnO with either wide band or narrow band semiconductors, surface modification of ZnO with noble metals, metals/non-metal doping of ZnO, etc., which are discussed below:

Coupling ZnO with other semiconductors

Coupling ZnO-based composites with either wide band or narrow band semiconductors serve as an attractive alternative for enhancing the photoactivity. Chiang and Lin (2012) have shown that the increased charge separation was due to an extended lifetime of charge carriers by inter-particle electron transfer between the conduction bands of nanocomposites leading to a larger number of electrons involved in a photo-degradation reaction. Nur *et al.* (2007), showed that highly active photocatalysts can be obtained by coupling two semiconductors having different band gaps. Coupling of different semiconductor oxides can reduce the band gap,

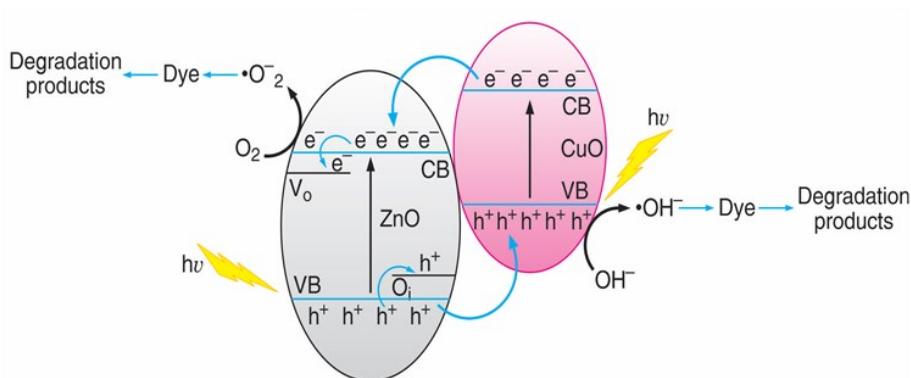


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the ZnO-CuO nanocomposite showing the charge transfer process.

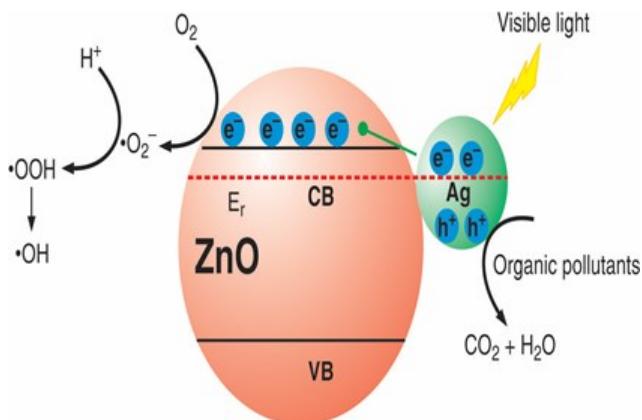


Figure 3. Schematic diagram of the Ag-ZnO nanocomposite showing charge transfer process

extending the absorbance range to visible region leading to electron-hole pair separation under irradiation due to photoinduced electrons that are transferred away from the photocatalyst. When ZnO-CuO nanocomposite is irradiated by photons, electrons flow to the conduction band of ZnO while the holes flow to the valence band of CuO and efficient charge separation is maintained (Li *et al.*, 2010). For example, Xiao *et al.* (2014) prepared branched hierarchical ZnO nanorod-TiO₂ nanotube array heterostructures via a two-step assembly method. Various combinations of wide band semiconductors, such as a TiO₂ nanobelt/ZnO nanorod hierarchical nanostructure (Pan *et al.*, 2013), branched hierarchical TiO₂/ZnO hierarchical nanostructures (Athauda *et al.*, 2012), ZnO-SnO₂ hollow spheres (Wang *et al.*, 2007) were developed, which showed an enhanced photocatalytic property (Figure 2).

Noble metal loading

Plasmonic photocatalyst is usually prepared by incorporating noble metal nanoparticles such as Au, Ag, Pt, etc., onto the ZnO semiconductor to improve its photocatalytic performance under both UV and visible light illuminations. Fermi levels of these noble metals are lower than that of ZnO, which results in the effective transfer of the photogenerated electrons from the conduction band of ZnO to metal particles, which serves as a passive sink for electrons and therefore it hinders the recombination of electron-hole pairs. The enhanced photoactivity of plasmonic photocatalysis is due to Schottky contact and localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). The Schottky contact formed at the interface between noble metal and the semiconductor enhances the migration of photogenerated electrons and holes in opposite directions. The electron-hole recombination is reduced and the charge transfer would be facilitated by the noble metal anchored at the surface. LSPR improves the photocatalytic activity by extending light absorption of semiconductor to longer wavelengths, increasing the scattering of visible-light. Since LSPR takes place at the surface of the anchored noble metal and the size of the noble metal nanoparticles is very small, it enables the fast electrons or holes transfer to the surface. Ahmad *et al.* (2011) synthesized hierarchical flower-like ZnO-Au nanostructures via an electrochemical method. Nanoplate-built ZnO hollow microspheres decorated with Au nanoparticles were produced by Xia *et al.* (2015) through solvothermal route. The enhanced photocatalytic activity of Ag-ZnO indicates that the Ag NPs anchored at the surface of p-ZnO behave like an electron sink, which could increase the separation of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs and inhibit their recombination (Figure 3).

Non-metal doping

Recent studies (Figure 4) have demonstrated that non-metal dopants such as nitrogen, carbon, sulfur and fluorine can shift the bandgap of ZnO upwards and narrow the bandgap energy to the ultraviolet-visible region and thus, enhance solar energy utilization of ZnO photocatalyst (Liu *et al.*, 2011). Due to their smaller band gaps, ZnO hierarchical photocatalysts doped N and C have been found to exhibit better absorption of light in both visible and ultraviolet regions (Yu *et al.*, 2016). Liu *et al.* (2011) reported better photocatalytic decomposition of the RhB dye by hierarchical flower-like C-doped ZnO superstructures in aqueous solutions than ZnO due to their enhanced solar light absorption.

Coupling of nanocarbon component to ZnO

ZnO hierarchical structures have been synthesized (Figure 5) by combining it with reduced graphene oxide (r-GO) and carbon nanotube (CNT) due to their good conductivity and large surface area. The heterojunction of ZnO with carbon nanotubes (CNTs) can enhance the performance of nano-composites by acting as electron scavenging agents (Fan *et al.*, 2012) while

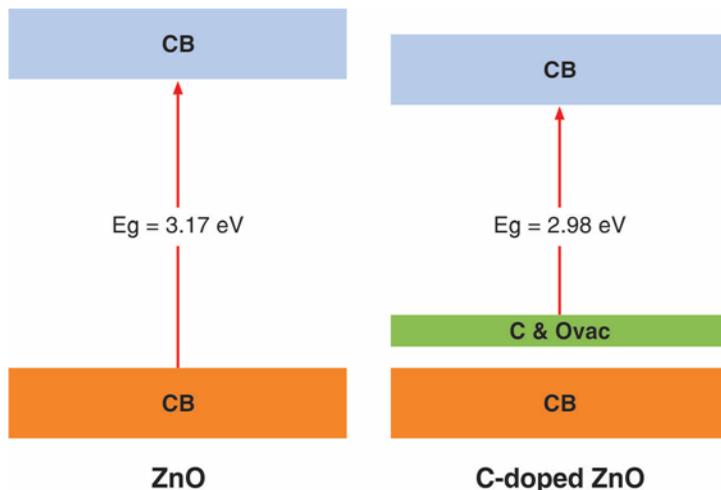


Figure 4. Schematic band structures of ZnO and C-doped ZnO crystals. (Adapted from Ahmad et al., 2015).

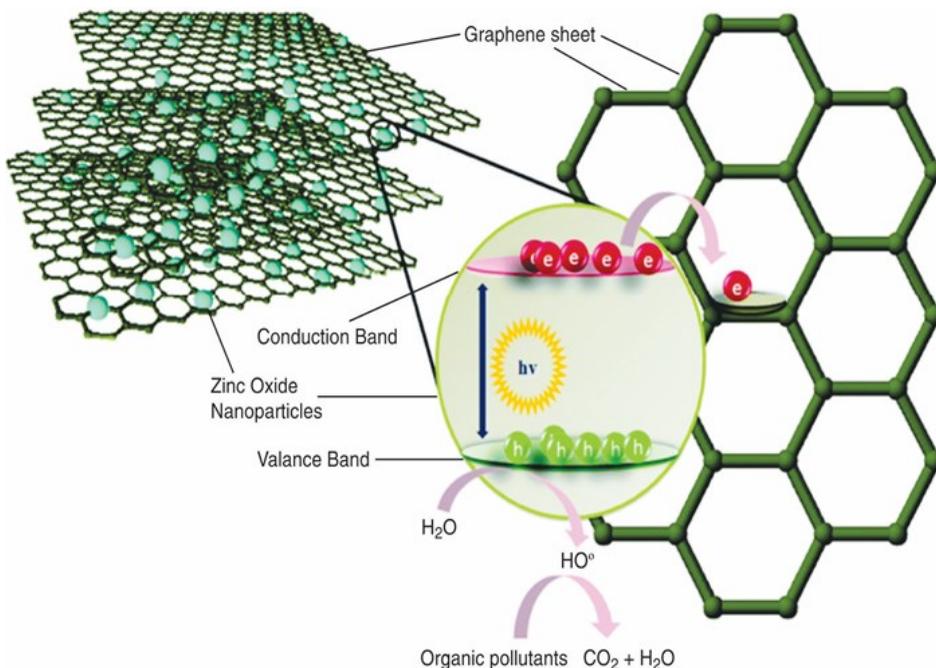


Figure 5. Mechanism of electron transfer from conduction band of zinc oxide to graphene sheets

heterostructure of ZnO/GO has greater carrier transport efficiency due to the graphene encapsulation, specific surface area and electrical transport properties (Li *et al.*, 2012) Luo *et al.* (2012) prepared rGO-hierarchical ZnO hollow sphere composites via ultrasonic method to enhance the photocurrent and photocatalytic activity due to the conjunction between rGO and ZnO could be attributed to electronic interaction between the components. Zhang *et al.* (2006) prepared a ZnO-CNT heterostructure via hydrothermal method in which ZnO nanowires were grown on carbon nanotube (CNT) arrays serve as the nucleation sites for the growth of the ZnO nanowires.

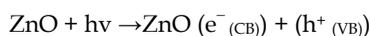
Metal doping

Recently, metals like transition metals, rare earth metals and other metals have shown advantages in tuning the morphology of ZnO in photocatalytic applications. Metal doping of ZnO can improve the photoactivity of catalyst by increasing the trapping site of the photo-induced charge carriers and thus decreasing the recombination rate of photoinduced electron-hole pairs (Rezaei *et al.*, 2013). In order to decrease the bandgap energy of photocatalysts, metal dopants such as Ce, Nd, Cu and Al have been used in dye degradation.

Photocatalytic degradation of organic contaminants

When the ZnO semiconductor is excited by solar light greater than its bandgap energy, an electron is excited from the filled valence band (VB) to an empty conduction band (CB), creating an electron-hole pair (e^-/h^+). The electron-hole pairs move to the ZnO photocatalyst surface and take part in redox reactions (Figure 6). The H^+ reacts with water and OH^- ions to produce hydroxyl radicals while e^- reacts with oxygen to produce superoxide radical anions then hydrogen peroxide which further reacts with superoxide radicals to form hydroxyl radicals. The resulting hydroxyl radicals, which are powerful oxidizing agents, attack the pollutants adsorbed on the surface of ZnO to rapidly produce intermediate compounds that get mineralized to green products such as CO_2 , H_2O and mineral acids.

The photoexcitation of ZnO semiconductor by UV light irradiation, followed by the formation of electron-hole pairs can be expressed below (Rauf *et al.*, 2009; Rajamanickam *et al.*, 2016):



The photogenerated holes are involved in oxidation reaction and electrons are involved in reduction reaction, as illustrated by the following reactions:

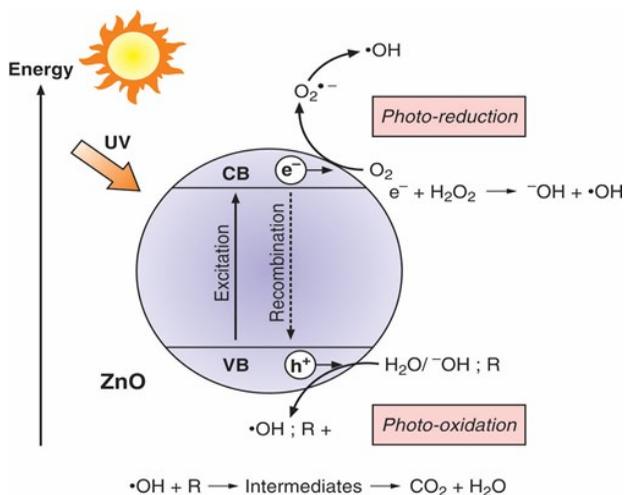
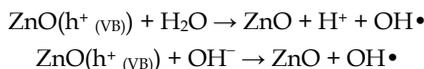
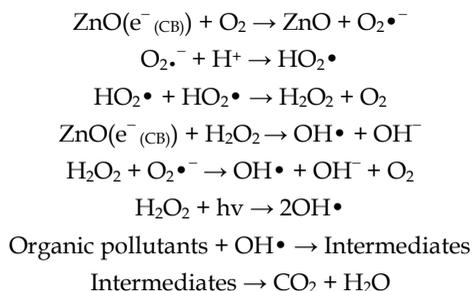


Figure 6. A schematic diagram illustrating the principle of photocatalysis

Photooxidation reactions:



Photoreduction reactions:



During the photocatalytic process, free electrons/holes, and reactive oxidizing species (ROS) such as $\text{HO}_2\bullet$, $\text{HO}\bullet$ and $\text{O}_2\bullet^-$ react with the surface adsorbed impurities including inorganic, organic compounds, and biological species (bacteria, virus *etc.*) leading to their decomposition. Recombination of the separated electron and hole can occur in the volume of the semiconductor particle or at the surface within nanoseconds after the generation of electrons and holes by photon illumination and the energy is usually dissipated as heat. The electrons on the surface semiconductors can react with oxygen to form superoxide anion and prevents the recombination of electron-hole pairs.

Conclusions

ZnO nanostructures have been shown to be a promising photocatalyst for visible light photodegradation process of organic pollutants due to its low production cost, non-toxic and ability to absorb larger fraction of solar spectrum. Hierarchical ZnO nanostructures have been fabricated to achieve efficient photocatalysts due to their multiple advantages, such as large surface area, porous structures, as well as enhanced light harvesting ability. Various methods that have been attempted to enhance photoresponse of ZnO nanostructures such as coupling of two semiconductors, surface modification of ZnO with noble metals, and doping with metals/non-metals. These techniques enhance the photocatalytic performance ZnO under visible light by shifting the bandgap energy, suppressing the recombination rate of electron-hole pairs, increasing charge separation efficiency. In future there is a need of developing green, scalable, low-cost and highly efficient hierarchically ZnO nanostructures and nanocomposites photocatalyst for remediation of wastewater pollution.

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