

Major non-volatile intermediate products of photo-catalytic decomposition of ethylene

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¹ Major non-volatile intermediate products of

² photo-catalytic decomposition of ethylene

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13 Abstract

14	A complex kinetics of the photocatalytic decomposition of gaseous ethylene on nanoparticulate Fe(III)
15	doped anatase TiO ₂ was analyzed in a continuous-flow fixed-bed reactor. The analysis evidenced the
16	production of non-volatile intermediate reaction products, which cover the photocatalyst surface and
17	delay the time of attaining the stationary reactor performance. As a result, the reaction yield slowly
18	increases during the long-lasted (~3 hours) intermediate stage. Based on Raman, FTIR and thermal
19	post-treatment analyses, we assigned the major non-volatile reaction product to polymeric oxidized
20	hydrocarbons: furan and furfural oligomers. A theoretical model is proposed explaining the observed
21	kinetics.
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23	
24	
25	Key words: Photocatalysis, process kinetics, Fe-doped TiO ₂ nanoparticles, ethylene, non-volatile
26	products, polyfuran, polyfurfural
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30 I. Introduction

31 Photocatalysis in the gas phase has attracted much attention during recent years because of its 32 wide potential for air purification. The most commonly used photocatalyst is titanium dioxide (TiO_2) 33 known for its photocorrosion resistance and low cost. The photocatalytic activity of this material is 34 due to the generation of the electron-hole pair under UV light illumination. However, the major 35 problem that restraints its industrial implementation is related to low quantum yield of the 36 photooxidation reactions [1]. Cationic and anionic doping of TiO_2 is one of the typical approaches to 37 enhance photocatalytic efficiency under UV light illumination. Researchers have investigated the 38 effects of transition metal such as iron [2-4], which is much cheaper than noble metal such as Ag [5] 39 and Au [6] on reducing band gaps, decreasing electron and hole recombination rate, and using visible 40 light.

41 The heterogeneous photocatalysis generally involves intermediate reaction products, which 42 desorption and reactivity affect the overall process efficiency. Their knowledge is of particular 43 importance for the process optimization and rigorous comparison of the material activities. Between 44 different pollutants, ethylene is often considered as the model one because of its seemingly simple 45 decomposition scheme involving few intermediate reaction products. In the same time, the ethylene 46 abatement remains one of important environmental tasks. The photocatalytic oxidation of ethylene has 47 been largely reported in literature [7-11]. Several studies have addressed intermediate products of the 48 ethylene photodegradation. Bhattacharyya et al. [12] have observed formic acid as the main by-49 product, while Wang et al. [13] have reported on the formation of aldehydes and alcohols. Einaga and 50 Teraoka [14] have analyzed the ethylene photooxidation TiO_2 doped with platinum. In the absence 51 of water vapor, absorption bands in the range of 1200-1800cm⁻¹ have been observed and attributed to 52 oxygenated compounds containing C-O, COO⁻ and C=O groups. The concentration of these 53 intermediate species decreases with the irradiation time in presence of water vapors, leading to their 54 complete mineralization into CO₂. Several studies [15–17] have reported on the formation of ethane 55 C₂H₆, while oxygenated hydrocarbons CH₃CHO, CH₃COCH₃ and CH₃COC₂H₅ were present in a small 56 quantity. In the same time, non-volatile reaction products, capable remaining on the catalyst surface and affecting the process kinetics and reaction yield, have not been investigated in previous studies,probably because of their not easy detection.

Previously, we have reported on the effective ethylene decomposition using nanoparticulate TiO_2 coatings homogeneously doped with Fe(III) [18,19]. A net difference in the photocatalytic kinetics between the first and subsequent reactor runs has been observed on the initial process stage, which could be related to a participation of unknown reaction products. In the present communication we report on the kinetics analysis of gaseous ethylene photocatalytic decomposition on nanoparticulate Fe(III) doped anatase titania. We assign major non-volatile reaction products and provide a theoretical model explaining their influence on the reaction kinetics.

66

67 II. Experimental methods

68 2.1 Sample preparation

69 The Fe(III)-doped TiO₂ anatase photocatalyst with the optimal composition was used in this work 70 because of its higher reaction efficiency compared with a pure titania. The preparation procedure has been described in our previous works [18,19]. In short, the material was obtained in the two-stage 71 72 process including (1) fabrication, doping and immobilization on a glass support of titanium-oxo-73 alkoxy (TOA) nanoparticles, followed by (2) thermal treatment of the nanoparticulate coating. The doping of TOA nanoparticles with Fe³⁺ ions was achieved at the nucleation stage. The homogeneity of 74 75 the coating doping has been evidenced in the previous studies. The colloids have been prepared using 76 hydrolysis ratio H= 2.0, which corresponds to one of the stability domains of the TOA sol-gel process 77 and enables metastable chemically active monodispersed nanoparticles of size 2R=5.2 nm. The 78 concentration of iron in TiO_2 was fixed to 0.005 mol%, which corresponds to the best photocatalytic 79 activity of the coating [19]. The reactive colloid has been set in a short contact with the supporting 80 material, preliminary treated with 95 mol% sulfuric acid at 70 °C for 4 hours and washed in ultrasound 81 bath. The beads with the deposited photocatalyst were heat treated at 500 °C for 4 hours to obtain 82 anatase crystalline phase.

For the synthesis, analytical grade reagents and distilled water were used. Iron (III)
acetylacetonate of 99.9% purity was supplied by Sigma–Aldrich. Titanium tetraisoproxide (TTIP) and
2-propanol with respectively 98% and 99.5% purity were purchased from Acros Organics.

86

87 2.2 Sample characterization

88 The Fe(III)-doped TiO₂ anatase photocatalyst preparation was previously reported by our group 89 [18,19]. The characterization of catalyst was summarized in supporting information. From Fig. S1, it 90 is observed that the surface with mean roughness of ~0.5 nm and composed of agglomerates formed 91 by particles of average size $\sim 6 \pm 3$ nm which was also evidenced by TEM image (Fig. S1). The XRD 92 (Fig. S3) indicates that Fe(III)-TiO₂ powder well crystallizes in the anatase phase in the considered 93 temperature range. Fig.S4 displays XPS spectra of the doped samples in two relevant energy ranges of 94 450-470eVand530-540eV. In agreement with studies of pure TiO₂, photoemission bands appearing at 464.5 ± 0.2 eV and 458.7 ± 0.2 eV can be attributed to Ti $2p^{1/2}$ and Ti $2p^{3/2}$ states of Ti⁴⁺ and the signal 95 associated with singlet oxygen was also observed at 530.0 ± 0.4 eV with a shoulder at 531.5 ± 0.3 eV. 96 97 Fig.S5 shows typical XPS spectrum of our Fe(III)-TiO₂ coatings in the energy range 700-98 745eV.Because of the low Fe concentration, two weak signals were observed at 709.9 eV and 723.5 99 eV as well as the satellites of a very low intensity.

100

101 2.3. Photocatalytic experiments

- 102 The experimental conditions are listed in Table 1.
- 103

Table 1: Experimental conditions of photocatalytic experiments

Gas mixture flow rate	90 ml/min
Reactor length	30 cm
Photocatalyst mass	6,6 mg
Ethylene concentration	34 ppm
Relative humidity R _H	13 %
Pollutant residence time in the reactor tube	1,4 s

104

105 The photocatalytic experiments were performed with a laboratory gas-phase continuous flow106 fixed-bed reactor depicted in Fig.1. In short, air gas flow containing pollutant and water vapour passes

107 through the reactor tube made of transparent glass in the UVA spectral region of $\lambda \ge 320$ nm. The 108 reactor tube of 6 mm diameter is surrounded by six 8-W lamps emitting at 362 nm ($\Delta\lambda_{hwfm}=22$ nm). 109 Ethylene concentrations before (C_{in}) and after (C_{out}) the reactor tube were analysed by a gas 110 chromatography device (Varian CP 3800) equipped with two injection loops allowing measurements 111 in a continuous sampling mode. The temperature of the photocatalytic bed was continuously 112 monitored. The pollutant conversion (or reactor yield) is calculated according to $\eta(\%)=100 \cdot (1-$ 113 C_{out}/C_{in}).



115 Figure 1. (a) Cut section and (b) cross section of the photocatalytic reactor and (c) Emission
116 spectrum of the UV light.

117

114

118 III. Results and discussion

119 3.1 Intermediate reaction products

120 The ethylene conversion kinetics over the freshly prepared photocatalyst shows three main stages 121 as depicted in Fig. 2a. (1) On the first stage $0 \le t \le t_1$ (t=0 corresponds to illumination of the reactor 122 lamps), the ethylene conversion increases rapidly, which corresponds to the temperature increase 123 (curve b in Fig. 2) that may thermally activate photocatalytic reactions. (2) The second stage taking 124 significantly long time $t_1 \le t \le t_2$ consists in a slow increase of the ethylene conversion, which is 125 apparently controlled by the surface chemistry and reactive interface modification. (3) At the end of 126 the second stage, the stationary regime is attained. This maximum stationary activity of the 127 photocatalyst keeps over week without any signs of deactivation.



128

129 130

Figure 2. Ethylene conversion η (a) and temperature (b) of a fixed-bed continuous-flow photocatalytic reactor.

131 The slow intermediate stage 2 was only observed with the freshly prepared photocatalyst. This 132 stage was absent with the reused material where the pollutant conversion rapidly attained the 133 maximum level. The strong increase (almost twice) of the process efficiency during stage 2 suggests 134 significant modification of the reactive interface that can be related to the accumulation of reaction 135 products. Apparently, the known acetaldehyde [20] or CO₂-CO [21] cannot be candidates since do not 136 accelerate the decomposition kinetics and may only slow it down by closing the active surface sites. In 137 the same time, the gas chromatography analysis at the reactor exit did not evidence any significant 138 traces of new products except for ethylene, CO/CO_2 and water. It is assumed therefore that the major 139 kinetics modification at this stage is due to an unknown non-volatile product accumulated at the 140 photocatalyst surface.

141 In order to confirm the presence of non-volatile intermediate products, accumulated during the 142 transitory stage 2, photocatalyst already used in the process (which don't manifest the transitory stage 143 and rapidly attains stationary performance) was exposed to a secondary thermal treatment. Such heat 144 treatment under ambient air is expected to sublimate or burn the deposited species that converts the 145 reactive interface to its original state. The photocatalytic test was performed after the secondary heat 146 treatment in order to check if the reaction kinetics recovers. The results are shown in Fig. 3 the 147 photocatalysts heat treated at temperatures (a) 60 °C for 3 hours under UV illumination (this reference 148 series reproduces the reactor conditions), (b) 100 °C for 3 hours, (c) 200 °C for 3 hours and (d) 300 °C 149 for 1 hour. One can see that the used photocatalysts exposed to temperatures T≤200 °C (Fig. 3a,b,c) do 150 not regain the original kinetics, while that exposed to T=300 °C (Fig. 3d) restores kinetics of the 151 freshly prepared material. These results indicate that the intermediates product involved in the 152 photocatalytic process of ethylene decomposition has relatively high stability against desorption at the 153 photocatalyst surface. Previous DSC-TGA measurements have evidenced the departure of the 154 adsorbed alcohol and water at temperatures ~80 °C [22], which indicates that, the surface species are 155 much heavier in our case. Consequently, it was suggested that the intermediate reaction products of 156 the ethylene decomposition are strongly bound to the surface. Commonly, the temperature range 200 157 $^{\circ}C < T \le 300 \ ^{\circ}C$ corresponds to the burning of surface organics [23]. It is concluded therefore that 158 photocatalytic decomposition of ethylene includes as an intermediate step the formation of stable non-159 volatile products at the photocatalyst surface.





161 Figure 3. Ethylene conversion of used Fe(III)-TiO₂ photocatalyst subsequently heat treated in a
162 dry air flow: (a) at 60°C during 3hours under UVA illumination, (b) at 100°C during 3
163 hours,(c) at 200°C during 3 hours and d) at 300°C during 1 hour. (Each photocatalyst
164 has been studied in two repeated cycles).

165 In order to clarify the nature of these intermediate species, the FTIR analysis of the photocatalyst 166 was performed after utilisation in the reactor. Fig. 4 displays IR spectra in frequency ranges of 1000-167 2000 cm⁻¹ and 2400-4000 cm⁻¹ of the freshly prepared catalyst (a) and that kept in the reactor under the 168 pollutant flow during 10 hours with the UVA lamps off (b) and on (c). The presence of the adsorbed 169 species at the catalyst surface was evidenced the appearance of absorption bands at 1070, 1150, 1360, 170 1480, and 2980 cm⁻¹ in spectrum (c), in contrast to those of freshly prepared photocatalyst (a) and that 171 exposed to the pollutant without UVA illumination (b) which look similar. Complimentary, FTIR 172 spectra was measured with the used photocatalyst submitted to the secondary thermal treatment, as in 173 the process kinetics measurements previously discussed in Fig. 3. The results are presented in Fig. 5. 174 In agreement with the previous conclusion, the absorption bands of the adsorbed species at 1070, 175 1150, 1360, 1480, and 2980 cm⁻¹ (a-b) begun to change after heating at 200 °C (c) and completely 176 disappear after being exposed to the temperature of 300 °C (d). This observation is consistent with the 177 burning of organics chemically bound to the photocatalyst surface. The following assignment for the 178 observed IR bands can be proposed. The large band around 3300 cm⁻¹ belongs to O-H stretching mode 179 of physisorbed water, surface hydroxyl groups and/or hydroxyl groups of by-product and the band at 180 1630 cm⁻¹ is associated with O-H deformation mode. The weak band at about 2980 cm⁻¹ is due to stretching vibration v(CH) and the band at 1480 cm⁻¹ is due to deformation vibration δ (CH₂). The band 181 182 located around 1360 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the deformation vibration modes $\delta(OH) + \delta(CH_2)$ [24]. 183 The relatively weak bands appearing at 1150 and 1070 cm⁻¹ were tentatively assigned to the 184 deformation vibration $\delta(CH_2)$ and antisymmetric stretching v(C-O) [25] of alcohols. As mentioned 185 above, several authors have reported the presence of carbonyl intermediates such as CH₃CHO, 186 CH₃COCH₃ or CH₃COC₂H₅ [24,26,27]. In this work, the absence of the absorption band at 1700cm⁻¹ 187 allows to reject the presence of carbonyl derivatives as intermediates.



188

189 Figure 4. FTIR spectra of Fe(III)-TiO₂ photocatalyst (a) freshly prepared, (b) freshly prepared
190 after being exposed to gaseous ethylene flow in dark for 3 hours and(c) after UVA
191 illumination in presence of pollutant for 3 hours.



192 193

194 Figure 5. FTIR spectra of Fe(III)-TiO₂ photocatalyst: freshly prepared (a) and used after
195 secondary thermal treatment for 1 hour at 100°C (b), 200 °C (c) and 300°C (d).

196 Several studies have been reported in the past on organic photopolymerization in presence of 197 semiconducting solids. Popovićet al. [28] have observed polymerization of methacrylic acid on CdS, 198 CdS/HgS and CdS/TiO₂ triggered by free holes photogenerated in valence band. Damm et al. [29] 199 have compared UV photopolymerization of methyl tri-acrylate with P25-TiO₂ and anatase TiO₂ 200 prepared by spray-hydrolysis. Strandwitz et al. [30] have examined the polymerization of pyrrole 201 impregnated into mesoporous TiO_2 with the goal to obtain organic-inorganic hybrids. Li et al. [31] 202 have analyzed photopolymerization of diacetylene in the presence of TiO_2 thin films. Ni et al. [32] and 203 Dong and Ni [33] have performed the UVA assisted polymerization of methyl methacrylate in the 204 presence of anatase TiO_2 and P25 TiO_2 particles dispersed in the aqueous monomer solutions. As these 205 studies show, intermediates with high-molecular weight can be formed in photocatalytic experiments. 206 The formation of high molar weight intermediates, as non-volatile polymeric hydrocarbons, apparently 207 took place under UVA illumination of ethylene as in our experiments.

208



209

Figure 6. Raman spectra of the black (a) and white (b,c) solid products collected after the photocatalytic process followed by the photocatalyst heating at 400 °C.

212 The direct analysis of the non-volatile reaction product was complicated by its small surface mass 213 density. In order to collect this product from the large photocatalyst surface, the heat treatment at 214 temperature ~400 °C under dry air flow was used. As a result, two kinds of compact solid products 215 were collected in the reactor output area: black particles and white semi-transparent filaments, which 216 masses ~0.1-1 mg were sufficient for the Raman analysis. Raman spectra of these products are shown 217 in Fig. 6. The black product (Fig. 6a) was identified with glassy carbon, which Raman spectrum shows 218 two characteristic resolved disorder-induced D and first-order allowed G (E_{2g}) bands [34]. The Raman 219 spectrum of the white product in Fig. 6b shows a complex structure containing multiple vibrational 220 bands; its assignment is less straightforward. Our analysis of available Raman spectra of ethylene and 221 its oxidized and polymerized derivatives brought us to a conclusion about the formation of furan 222 derivatives in the photocatalytic process [35]. In particular, the six observed bands between 900 and 223 1600 cm⁻¹ shown in Fig. 6b fit the calculated Raman spectra of oligomers composed of 6 and 8 furan 224 molecules [36]. Moreover, the band at 1730 cm⁻¹ identified with the C=O vibration can be observed in 225 polyfurane [37] and indicates the presence of the oxidized derivatives, the best candidate of which is 226 furfural [35]. Because of this, we tentatively assign the deposited product to the furan and/or furfural 227 oligomers (Ol_N). More evidence to the polyfurfural assignment can provide Raman analysis of the C-H 228 vibration mode in the frequency range of ~3000 cm⁻¹ presented in Fig. 6c. The observed spectral band 229 has partially resolved structure, which belongs to CH groups of the molecule in different geometric 230 positions. Given the structure of the furfural molecule shown in inset of Fig. 6c and tendencies of the 231 frequency evolution [35], the subbands at 2875 cm⁻¹, 2915 cm⁻¹, 2937 cm⁻¹ and 2970 cm⁻¹ can be 232 respectively assigned to the aldehyde CH stretching (4), antisymmetric and symmetric β -CH stretching 233 (2/3) and α -CH symmetric stretching (1) modes. Somewhat lower frequencies of the bands compared 234 to those of the single furfural molecule can be attributed to a partial polymerization leading to the 235 formation of furfural oligomers.

As observed in our experiments, the deposited solid products can be removed from the photocatalyst surface by a heat treatment at temperatures ~ 300 °C, as show the experimental results of Fig. 2 and Fig. 3. The photocatalyst regeneration could be explained by the oligomers desorption and/or thermal decomposition. In the same time, polyfuran is known to resist temperatures up to 400 °C [37,38], which may explain the successful collection of a small part of this product. Apart of these bands, we observed several narrow peaks at 1041, 1580, 1600 and 1614 cm⁻¹ which may be related to C-C vibrations of minor carbonaceous species.

According to the above assignment, the photocatalytic oxidation of ethylene results in the formation of short polymeric chains of furan and furfural molecules on the photocatalyst surface. An increase of temperature results in the desorption of larger oligomers and thermal decomposition of smaller ones. The glassy carbon is formed as results of the thermal decomposition. In contrast, the larger polyfurans and polyfurfurals are stable and survive after the thermal desorption. Although we were not optimised the desorption temperature permitting analysis of a full scope of non-damaged surface products, the collected oligomers Ol_N (N=6÷8) evidences their formation at the photocatalyst surface as one of major non-volatile products. Since the small Fe(III) doping 0.005 mol% does not provide any significant modification of the titania band gap energy, surface area, etc. and only improves the electron-hole separation efficiency [19], we expect the discussed mechanism of the ethylene decomposition is the general feature of TiO₂-based photocatalysts.

254

255 3.2 Modeling

In this chapter, a kinetic model is proposed in order to suppose partial polymerisation of ethylene

and formation of oligomers, which do not desorb from the photocatalyst surface. The physical

- significations of all introduced parameters were summarized in table 2:
- 259

Table 2: The physical signification	on of all introduced parameters
-------------------------------------	---------------------------------

Symbol	Physical signification
Eg/Eads	Gaseous/adsorbed ethylene
pЕ	Polymeric products
р	Gaseous reaction products (CO ₂)
k	Reaction rate constant
n ₀	Density per unitary volume of the active TiO ₂ surface sites available for adsorption
n	Density per unitary volume of the active TiO ₂ surface sites available for ethylene adsorption
m	Density per unitary volume of the active TiO ₂ surface sites available for polymeric side products adsorption
У	Ratio between m et n_0
v	Pollutant flow rate through the reactor bed
L	Reactor length (30 cm)
Ea	activation energy

260

261 This process can be triggered by the photogenerated hole transfer to C=C double bonds. Both

(1)

adsorbed monomers and oligomers contribute to this process. The relevant reactions are:

 $263 E_g \xleftarrow{k_{eq}} E_{ads}$

264

$$E_{ads} + E_{g} + hv \xrightarrow{k_{1}^{"}} pE$$

$$pE + E_{g} + hv \xrightarrow{k_{1}^{"}} pE$$

$$E_{ads} + hv \xrightarrow{k_{2}} p$$
(2)

$$pE + hv \xrightarrow{k_3} p \tag{3}$$

Where E_g/E_{ads} , pE and p stand for gaseous/adsorbed ethylene, adsorbed polymeric products and gaseous reaction products (CO₂), which are correspondingly defined as N/n, m and p in the following equations. The reaction order is 1. It is supposed that the adsorption/desorption process (1) is in equilibrium while photodecomposition reactions (2) and (3) are not.

The ethylene is known to be weakly adsorbed at the TiO₂ surface (E_a~3 kCal/mol or ~5kT at room temperature), while the heavy ethylene oligomers are totally adsorbed. Therefore, $n_0 >> n$ (here n₀ represents the density per unitary volume of the active TiO₂ surface sites available for adsorption). However, m slowly increases until $m_{t\to\infty} = n_0$. From (1) it can be obtained:

274
$$n = (n_0 - m) \frac{k_{eq} N}{1 + k_{eq} N}$$
 (4)

275 The kinetic equation describing (2)-(3) are:

276
$$\frac{dm}{dt} = k_1 nN + k_1 (1 - m/n_0)mN - k_3 m$$
(5)

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = k_2 n + k_3 m \tag{6}$$

278 The second term of above Eq. (5) is completed by a factor $(1-m/n_0)$, which takes into account the 279 catalyst surface coverage by polymeric products. The equations (4)-(5) can be reduced to

280
$$\frac{dm}{dt} = k_1 n_0 \gamma N + (k_1 N - k_1 \gamma N - k_3) m - k_1 N \frac{m^2}{n_0}$$
(7)

281 where $\gamma = \frac{k_{eq}N}{1+k_{eq}N}$.

265

Eq. (7) is solved in approximation of a small coverage of TiO₂ by both monomers and oligomers: $n_0 \gg n, m$ (we remark that this corresponds to $\gamma <<1$). For the sake of simplicity, it is supposed that the associations "monomer-monomer" and "polymer-monomer" propagate with the same constants $k'_1 = k''_1 \equiv k_1$. Moreover in order to explain the long-lasted accumulation of new species, it is assumed that the polymerisation reaction dominate over the decomposition products formation: $k_1 N >> k_3$. Then Eq. (7) can be reduced to:

288
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = k_1 N (\gamma + y - y^2) = k_1 N (y - y_1) (y - y_2)$$
(8)

289 where $y = m/n_0$ ($y \in [0,1)$) and $y_{1,2} = (1 \pm \sqrt{1+4\gamma})/2$. Because $\gamma <<1$, Eq. (8) can be rewritten as:

290
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = k_1 N(y-1)(y+\gamma)$$
(9)

291 The solution of Eq. (9) is

292
$$m = n_0 \frac{1 - e^{-k_1 N t}}{1 + e^{-k_1 N t} / \gamma}$$
(9)

In order to obtain the output ethylene concentration, it should consider the pollutants propagation through the reactor bed. Then the reduction of N(z) is related to the surface sites liberation due to the decomposition of both ethylene molecules and polymerised chains and it is relate to the rate of the products exit:

297
$$\frac{dN}{dz} = -\left(\frac{1}{2}\frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{dm}{dt}\right)\frac{dt}{dz} \approx -\frac{1}{2v}\frac{dp}{dt}$$
(10)

where v is the pollutant flow rate through the reactor bed. It is assumed here that dm/dt is a slow function of time (characteristic time of the polymerisation is \sim 1 hour) while dp/dt is a quick function of time (characteristic residence time of gas molecules in the reactor bed is \sim 1 s). One can rewrite Eq. (10) as

302
$$\frac{dN}{dz} = -\frac{1}{2\nu} (k_2 n + k_3 m) = -\frac{n_0}{2\nu} [k_2 \gamma + (k_3 - k_2 \gamma)m]$$
(11)

303 or

304
$$\frac{dN}{dz} = -\alpha N + (\beta - \alpha N) \frac{1 - e^{-k_1 N t}}{1 + e^{-k_1 N t} / k_{eq} N}$$
(12)

where $\alpha = k_2 k_{eq} n_0 / 2v$ and $\beta = k_3 n_0 / 2v$ ($0 \le z \le L = 30$ cm). Eq. (12) is numerically solved in order to fit the experimental data with four free parameters α , β , k_1 and k_{eq} . The best fit with $\alpha = 0.023$, $\beta = 0.9$, $k_1 = 0.00055$ and $k_{eq} = 0.012$ is shown in Fig. 7 by dotted line.





309 Figure 7. Ethylene concentration at the photocatalytic reactor exit versus time (experiment and 310 modelling).

The agreement between the model and experiment is good except of the early reaction times.
Since the lamp attains a stationary luminosity within three minutes, the transient period t≤50 min is
attributed to the activation of photocatalytic reactions. Indeed as the measurements show (Fig. 2), the
reactor temperature increases at this stage.

Since the ethylene polymerisation progresses slowly, it is assumed that the ethylene decomposition is affected by the temperature increase: $k_2 = k_{20} \cdot \exp(E_a / kT)$. The complete least squared fit of the experimental kinetics with Eq. (12) including $k_2(T)$ with $E_a=19\pm 2kJ/mol$ is shown in Fig. 7 by solid line.

The validity of the model assumptions was check in the following section. From the fit, the equilibrium constant is small indeed. The fit also results in the reaction constants ratio $k_2/k_3 = \alpha/\beta k_{eq} \approx 2.1$, which signifies that the photocatalytic decomposition of ethylene is easier than that of oligomers. One can see that the assumption k_1 N k₃ holds, because k_1 N = 0.0121 and $k_3 = 0.9 \cdot 2 \cdot v/n_0 = 580/n_0 \approx 7 \cdot 10^{-4}$ (gas speed: v=30cm/5.7s=5.3 cm/s=318 cm/min, 324 $n_0 = m_{TiO_2} S_{BET} / S_{molec} \approx 10^{-2} \cdot 200/10^{-19} = 8 \cdot 10^5$ ppm if $m_{TiO_2} = 10^{-2}$ g is used on 30 cm long reactor 325 bed and $S_{molec} = 0.1 \text{ nm}^2$). The photocatalytic process is generally found not very sensitive to 326 temperature with activation energies in the range between 5 and 16 kJ/mol [39]. The apparent 327 activation energy of ethylene degradation over TiO₂ of 13.9-16.0 kJ/mol has been reported by 328 Yamazaki et al.[39]. Our value of E_a fits the upper limit of the earlier reported values. It is concluded 329 that the proposed theoretical model is quite satisfactory.

The proposed theoretical model successfully explained the experiment, suggesting polymerisation of ethylene initiated by UVA photons at the photocatalyst surface. In agreement with our previous studies of light-induced processes at the organic-TiO₂ interface, the photogenerated hole can efficiently escape the inorganic solids into surrounding organics[40,41]. Its localisation on a C=C double bond of ethylene molecule will provoke its opening that initiates polymerisation process.

335

336 IV. Conclusion

In this work the decomposition kinetics of gaseous ethylene onto the optimized Fe(III)-TiO₂ anatase photocatalyst with Fe/Ti ratio of 0.005 mol% was studied in a continuous-flow fixed-bed reactor. Based on FTIR, Raman and thermal post-treatment analyses, it was concluded about the formation of a major non-volatile intermediate reaction product in course of the ethylene decomposition, assigned to the oxidized polymeric hydrocarbons: furan and furfural oligomers Ol_N with N=6÷8. The analysis of the photocatalytic process kinetics showed that this product covers the photocatalyst surface and delays the stationary reaction kinetics.

A theoretical model is proposed explaining the process kinetics. The overall photo-assisted process therefore includes two main stages: (i) on the first one, the high-molecular mass product is synthetized enhancing contact with the photocatalyst surface (in contrast to weakly adsorbing ethylene molecules) and (ii) on the second one, the heterogeneous decomposition of the non-volatile species takes place. A weaker rate constant of the oligomers decomposition (as compared with ethylene gas) is compensated by their much stronger adsorption, which enhances the overall reactor yield. The oligomers decomposition can be thermally activated with $E_a=19\pm 2$ kJ/mol.

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