Influence of ruthenium doping on UV- and visible-light photoelectrocatalytic color removal from dye solutions using a TiO₂ nanotube array photoanode

4 Patricia García-Ramírez ^a, Erik Ramírez-Morales ^b, Juan Carlos Solis Cortazar ^c,

5 Ignasi Sirés ^{d,*}, Susana Silva-Martínez ^{e,**}

6 ^a Posgrado de Doctorado en Ingeniería y Ciencias Aplicadas, Centro de Investigación en

7 Ingeniería y Ciencias Aplicadas, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de Morelos. Av.

8 Universidad 1001, Col. Chamilpa, Cuernavaca, Morelos C.P. 62209, Mexico

9 ^b División Académica de Ingeniería y Arquitectura, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco,

10 Av. Universidad S/N, Col. Magisterial, C.P. 86040, Villahermosa, Tabasco, Mexico

11 ^c Posgrado en Ciencias en Ingeniería, Universidad Juárez Autónoma de Tabasco, Av.

12 Universidad S/N, Col. Magisterial, C.P. 86040, Villahermosa, Tabasco, Mexico

13 ^d Laboratori d'Electroquímica dels Materials i del Medi Ambient, Departament de Química

14 Física, Facultat de Química, Universitat de Barcelona, Martí i Franquès 1-11, 08028
15 Barcelona, Spain

16 ^e Centro de Investigación en Ingeniería y Ciencias Aplicadas, Universidad Autónoma del

17 Estado de Morelos. Av. Universidad 1001, Col. Chamilpa, C.P. 62209, Cuernavaca, Morelos,
18 Mexico

19 *Corresponding author's e-mail address: i.sires@ub.edu (I. Sirés)

20 **Corresponding author's e-mail address: ssilva@uaem.mx (S. Silva-Martínez)

21 Abstract

The photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ anodes was enhanced by synthesizing Ru-doped Ti/TiO₂ 22 23 nanotube arrays. Such photoanodes were fabricated via Ti anodization followed by Ru 24 impregnation and annealing. The X-ray diffractograms revealed that anatase was the main TiO₂ 25 phase, while rutile was slightly present in all samples. Scanning electron microscopy evidenced 26 a uniform morphology in all samples, with nanotube diameter ranging from 60 to 120 nm. The 27 bias potential for the photoelectrochemical (PEC) treatment was selected from the 28 electrochemical characterization of each electrode, made via linear sweep voltammetry. All the 29 Ru-doped TiO_2 nanotube array photoanodes showed a peak photocurrent (PP) and a saturation 30 photocurrent (SP) upon their illumination with UV or visible light. In contrast, the undoped 31 TiO₂ nanotubes only showed the SP, which was higher than that reached with the Ru-doped 32 photoanodes using UV light. An exception was the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂, whose SP was 33 comparable under visible light. Using that anodes, the activity enhancement during the PEC 34 treatment of a Terasil Blue dye solution at $E_{\text{bias}}(PP)$ was much higher than that attained at 35 $E_{\text{bias}}(\text{SP})$. The percentage of color removal at 120 min with the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ was 98% and 55% in PEC with UV and visible light, respectively, being much greater than 82% 36 37 and 28% achieved in photocatalysis. The moderate visible-light photoactivity of the Ru-doped 38 TiO₂ nanotube arrays suggests their convenience to work under solar PEC conditions, aiming 39 at using of a large portion of the solar spectrum.

40 *Keywords:* Bias potential; Doped TiO₂; Hydroxyl radical; Organic pollutant;
41 Photoelectrocatalysis; Water treatment

42 **1. Introduction**

43 The occurrence of organic pollutants in the aquatic ecosystems, even at low concentrations, 44 has derived in emerging environmental concerns on a global scale, owing to their high toxicity 45 and usual persistence (Choo et al., 2020). The advanced oxidation processes (AOPs) have 46 progressed as a diverse group of technologies whose most characteristic feature is the ability to 47 generate powerful oxidant species like hydroxyl radical (•OH) (Brillas et al., 2009). A high 48 mineralization degree, i.e., transformation of the organic molecules into inorganic ions, CO_2 49 and H₂O is feasible, which ensures the gradual detoxification of the polluted effluents (Oturan 50 and Aaron, 2014). Note that, among the different families of organic pollutants in water, dyes 51 are particularly troublesome because they cause high aesthetic impact even at trace 52 concentrations. Furthermore, dyes and their N-derivatives formed upon hydrolysis and natural 53 photo or biotransformation have been linked to carcinogenic and mutagenic effects. There exist 54 more than 100,000 commercially available dyes, and about 280,000 tons of textile dyestuff are 55 discharged into aqueous streams every year because of their massive use in many industrial processes (Brillas and Martínez-Huitle, 2015). The electrochemical advanced oxidation 56 57 processes have shown great effectiveness for water decolorization, in particular electro-58 oxidation (EO) (Clematis et al., 2017), electro-Fenton (Thiam et al., 2015; Vasconcelos et al., 59 2016) and photoelectrocatalysis (PEC) (Espinola-Portilla et al., 2017; Oriol et al., 2019).

The great effectiveness of AOPs like heterogeneous photocatalysis (PC) and EO, as well as Fenton-, ozone- and ultrasound-based processes and their combinations for the degradation of organic contaminants in water and wastewater has been demonstrated (Martínez-Huitle et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2019; Anandan et al., 2020; Cornejo et al., 2020; Kanan et al., 2020). Among such processes, PC with TiO₂ powder as photoactive material has been widely investigated for water treatment, since the procedure is simple and this photocatalyst exhibits high photochemical stability and photoactivity, low cost and non-toxicity (Kanan et al. 2020). Upon irradiation with UV photons (λ < 387 nm), whose energy is greater than the TiO₂ bandgap ($E_{gap} = 3.2$ eV for anatase structure) (Yan et al., 2013), the electrons jump out from the valence band (VB) of the semiconductor to its conduction band (CB). This results in the generation of a hole (h⁺_{VB}) and an electron (e⁻_{CB}) as charge carriers, according to reaction (1). Water can then be oxidized by the h⁺_{VB} to form adsorbed •OH at the TiO₂ surface via reaction (2).

72
$$\operatorname{TiO}_2 + h\nu \rightarrow e^-_{CB} + h^+_{VB}$$
 (1)

73
$$\operatorname{TiO}_2 + h^+_{VB} + H_2O \rightarrow \operatorname{TiO}_2(^{\bullet}OH) + H^+$$
 (2)

However, PC with raw TiO₂ powder shows three main drawbacks: (i) the poor 74 75 photoactivity under visible light, (ii) the high recombination rate of the photoinduced e^{-}_{CB}/h^{+}_{VB} 76 pairs, and (iii) the additional cost required to recover the suspended TiO₂ particles at the end of 77 the treatment (Zhang et al., 2012; Basavarajappa et al., 2020). To overcome these limitations, modified TiO₂ has been developed and supported on different substrates. The surface 78 79 modification aims to achieve a narrower bandgap, thus promoting the absorption of visible light 80 and decreasing the recombination rate of carriers (Hernández et al., 2018; Basavarajappa et al., 81 2020; Chen et al., 2020). Among the dopant species with proven effectiveness, ruthenium can 82 reduce the E_{gap} of TiO₂ to allow the visible-light-driven PC, and it also acts as electron 83 donor/acceptor, which efficiently minimizes the recombination because the electron transfer is 84 accelerated (Nguyen-Phan et al., 2016; Ismael, 2019). Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotubes have been 85 used for the oxidation of organic pollutants by PC under UV or visible light (Wang et al., 2016; 86 González et al., 2019). Other applications include visible-light water splitting (Ohno et al., 87 1999) hydrogen production (Nguyen-Phan et al., 2016), sensors (Viswanathamurthi et al., 88 2004) and dye-sensitized solar cells (So et al., 2012).

Alternatively, the reduction of the e_{CB}/h_{VB}^+ recombination can become more significant in the PEC process. It consists in the application of a rather small bias (i.e., anodic) potential 91 (E_{bias} or E_{an}) to the illuminated photoanode, which is fabricated with raw or modified TiO₂ 92 nanostructures over a conductive substrate. This favors the spatial separation of both charge 93 carriers, since the e⁻_{CB} are immediately transported to the cathode of the cell (Daghrir et al., 94 2012; Bessegato et al., 2015; Peleyeju and Arotiba, 2018; Oriol et al., 2019). A greater 95 decontamination efficiency can thus be attained because of the larger amount of TiO₂(•OH) 96 production from reaction (2), which adds to its simultaneous generation via direct water 97 oxidation reaction (3) on the TiO₂ surface (Changanaqui et al., 2020).

98
$$\operatorname{TiO}_2 + \operatorname{H}_2O \rightarrow \operatorname{TiO}_2(^{\bullet}OH) + H^+ + e^-$$
 (3)

99 Therefore, the combination of TiO_2 modification with E_{bias} application in PEC may lead to 100 a larger accumulation of hydroxyl radicals and holes under visible light as compared to PC, 101 thereby upgrading the oxidation of the organic contaminants (Daghrir et al., 2012; Peleyeju and 102 Arotiba, 2018). In this work, undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube array photoanodes have 103 been synthesized for water treatment. To our knowledge, this doped material has never been 104 tested as photoanode for this purpose; only the binary oxide anodes (TiO₂-RuO₂) have been 105 investigated (Shin et al., 2013). Here, the characteristics and photoactivity of the photoanodes 106 have been assessed, analyzing the effect of UV and visible light. A Terasil Blue dye solution 107 (0.011 mM) was electrolyzed under PEC conditions to study the influence of key parameters 108 like the annealing temperature for Ru doping, the applied E_{bias} and the pH of the dye solution 109 on the color removal efficiency.

110

111 **2. Materials and methods**

112 2.1. Chemicals and materials

Ethylene glycol (98%), ammonium fluoride, sodium sulfate, sodium hydroxide,
ammonium hydroxide, sulfuric acid, ruthenium(III) chloride hydrate, ethanol, acetone and other

chemicals employed for analysis, all of them of analytical grade, were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. A local textile company provided Terasil Blue 3RL (1,5-Diaminobromo-4,8-dihydroxyanthraquinone, Color Index Disperse Blue 56, $C_{14}H_9BrN_2O_4$, CAS No. 31810-89-6; $M_w = 349.13$ g/mol, 150% depth shade). Titanium foil (99.6% purity, 0.2 mm thickness) and Pt mesh were acquired from Sigma Aldrich. All the analytical solutions were prepared with ultrapure water.

121 2.2. Synthesis of undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays

122 The Ti foil substrates $(2 \text{ cm} \times 1 \text{ cm}, 0.2 \text{ mm} \text{ thick})$ were mirror polished with abrasive sand 123 paper of different grain sizes, washed with soapy distilled water in an ultrasonic bath 124 (Ultrasonic Power Corporation, model 5300) for 15 min and then successively rinsed with 125 ethanol and acetone. The Ti/TiO₂ nanotube arrays were synthetized by means of the Ti 126 anodization method in an aqueous organic electrolyte. The process was carried out in a two-127 electrode polycarbonate electrochemical cell that contained 40 mL of 0.5 wt,% NH₄F + 10 wt.% 128 ultrapure water in ethylene glycol. A cell voltage (E_{cell}) of 50 V was applied with a Matrix MPs-129 6005L-1 DC power supply between the pretreated Ti anode and a Pt mesh for 60 min. The resulting Ti/TiO₂ nanotubes, with a geometric active area of 1.0 cm², were rinsed with distilled 130 131 water and soaked in a 0.1 M NaOH solution for 30 min. The pieces were subsequently washed 132 with water, dried at room temperature and finally annealed at 600 °C for 120 min.

To synthesize the Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays, a concentrated Ru(III) solution in 0.1 M HCl was prepared and stirred for 180 min, filtered to remove the precipitated solid, dried at 100 °C for 60 min and cooled down to room temperature in a dissector until constant weight was attained. This procedure allowed assessing the mass of Ru(III) dissolved in the acidic medium. The solutions for Ru doping contained 0.005, 0.02, 0.04, 0.08, 0.10 and 0.15 wt.% Ru. The previously heated Ti/TiO₂ nanotube arrays were doped according to the following impregnation method: 400 μ L of each impregnation solution were placed onto a Ti/TiO₂ 140 sample, followed by drying at room temperature for 48 h; then, the samples were immersed in 141 a 0.1 M NH₄OH solution for 5 min, followed by rinsing with distilled water, drying at room 142 temperature and annealing at 200 °C for 2 h. This temperature was lower than that causing the 143 phase transformation of TiO₂ anatase and thus, the TiO₂ nanotubes structure was kept unaltered. 144 Another set of Ru-doped TiO₂ samples was prepared using the optimum Ru content (i.e., 0.15 145 wt.%) and using different annealing temperatures (200, 450 and 600 °C) to observe the 146 influence of this parameter on the photocatalytic activity.

147 2.3. Photoanode characterization

148 The morphology of the undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays was analyzed by 149 scanning electron microscopy employing a JEOL JSM-6010LA microscope. The crystal 150 structures were assessed on an X-ray diffractometer (Bruker D2 PHASER, second generation), 151 obtaining the spectra within the 2θ range of 20-70° with a grazing incidence angle of 0.5°. The 152 Raman spectroscopy analysis was made with an XploRA Plus confocal Raman microscope (λ 153 = 532 nm) from Horiba Scientific. The optical bandgap energies of the nanotube arrays were 154 obtained by diffuse reflectance UV/Vis spectroscopy, employing a Shimadzu UV2600 155 spectrophotometer. The electrochemical/photoelectrochemical characterization of the undoped 156 and Ru-doped TiO₂ was carried out by means of linear sweep voltammetry. For this, a three-157 electrode quartz electrochemical cell (6 cm high, 3 cm in diameter) that contained a 0.050 M 158 Na₂SO₄ solution at different pH values (1.0, 7.0 or 9.0) was employed. The anode or photoanode 159 (working electrode), a Pt mesh (counter electrode) and Ag|AgCl (3 M KCl) as reference 160 electrode were connected to a BASi Epsilon model E2 potentiostat interfaced with a computer 161 to record the current (i.e., with the anode in the dark) or photocurrent (i.e., under illumination 162 of the photoanode with UV or visible light) as a function of the applied potential (positive scan 163 from -0.3 or -0.5 V up to 1.0 V vs the reference electrode, at a scan rate of 10 mV/s). The UV-164 C irradiation ($\lambda = 254$ nm) came from a quartz-jacketed mercury Pen-Ray lamp (model 11SC-

1) from Analytik Jena that was submerged 4.5 cm into the solution. The visible light came from
sources placed outside the solution: (i) two Ultra Plus PL-3U-25W LED lamps, or (ii) a 50 W
halogen MR16 LED smart bulb. All experiments were carried out inside a black wooden box
to prevent light interference from surroundings.

169 2.4. Photocatalytic and photoelectrocatalytic degradation trials

The degradation and photodegradation ability of the undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays was evaluated by treating 20 mL of 0.011 mM Terasil Blue dye solution in 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ for 120 min under PC and PEC conditions. The experiments were performed in the same 3-electrode cell described in the previous subsection. The PC trials were made simply by turning on the lamp (see UV and visible-light lamps mentioned above), keeping the potentiostat turned off. The PEC assays were executed in a similar manner, but an E_{bias} selected from the electrochemical characterization data was simultaneously applied to the anode.

177 The decolorization of the dye solution was monitored from the decay of the initial solution 178 absorbance (A_0) down to decreasing absorbance values as the treatment time progressed (A_t), 179 which was measured spectrophotometrically at the peak wavelength ($\lambda_{max} = 552$ nm). The 180 samples were conveniently diluted before analysis to fulfill the Lambert Beer's law. From these 181 data, the percentage of color removal was determined as follows (Thiam et al., 2015):

182 % Color removal =
$$\frac{A_0 - A_1}{A_0}$$
 100 (4)

183 **3. Results and discussion**

184 3.1. Characterization of the undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays

Fig. 1 shows the SEM micrographs of the undoped $Ti|TiO_2$ (Fig. 1a) nanotube arrays obtained upon calcination at 600 °C, as well as those of the Ru-doped $Ti|TiO_2$ (Fig. 1b-g for Ru content increasing from 0.05 to 0.15 wt.%) annealed at 200 °C. The anodization procedure ensured the formation of well-defined and uniformly distributed nanotubes, whose internal diameter ranged from 60 to 120 nm. It is worth noting that the average diameter became slightly smaller as the Ru content in the impregnation solution was increased. The average nanotube length was \sim 3.42 µm. Ru atoms were uniformly distributed on the surface, without modifying the morphology of the nanotube arrays.

193 Fig. 2 shows the XRD patterns of the doped and Ru-doped Ti/TiO₂ nanotube arrays. In all 194 cases, the as-prepared TiO₂ was calcined at 600 °C, whereas the Ru impregnation was always 195 followed by an annealing step at 200 °C. Characteristic Ti and TiO₂ diffraction peaks can be 196 identified in all samples, whereas no peak associated to metallic Ru or RuO₂ was found. The 197 presence of Ti is expected from the insufficient anodization of some minor spot on the substrate 198 employed. The absence of ruthenium species can be attributed to the low Ru content in the 199 impregnation solution and hence, on the nanotube arrays surface (Senthilnanthan et al., 2010; 200 Ismael, 2019). Note that the absence of the dopants in the XRD patterns of modified oxides is 201 quite typical (Chahmana et al., 2009). As evidenced in Fig. 2, the predominant crystal structure 202 of the TiO₂ nanotube arrays was anatase, being the rutile phase rather undetected in all samples. 203 This finding agrees with the reported literature that suggests the prevalence of the anatase phase 204 over rutile as the undoped and doped TiO₂ nanostructures are annealed at 550 °C (Wang et al., 205 2016). An important finding is, therefore, that Ru doping did not interfere in the formation of 206 the specific TiO₂ crystal structures expected at the heating temperatures employed, in 207 agreement with other authors (Senthilnanthan et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016).

The absence of a clear rutile diffraction peak is also in agreement with the Raman spectra of the undoped and Ru-doped (annealed at 200 °C) TiO_2 photoanode arrays depicted in Fig. 3. In all cases, a peak with a very small intensity at a Raman shift of 234.3 cm⁻¹ corresponding to rutile phase formed upon calcination at 600 °C can be identified. Secundino-Sánchez et al. (2019) observed the same Raman shift at 234.3 cm⁻¹, which was attributed to a multi-phonon process in the rutile phase obtained at 600 °C. A close Raman shift, at 235.5 cm⁻¹, has also been
assigned to rutile phase (Ma et al., 2007).

215 In the Raman spectra of Fig. 3, the characteristic peaks of TiO₂ anatase at vibrational frequencies of 140.0, 196.6, 394.0, 518.5 and 638.7 cm⁻¹ can be distinguished, in full agreement 216 217 with values reported elsewhere (Arsov et al., 1991; Ma et al., 2007; Secundino-Sánchez et al., 218 2019). These authors have also reported five characteristic peaks assigned to rutile phase, at 219 Raman shifts of 141.0, 235.2, 444.5, 610.5 and 825.8 cm⁻¹ (i.e., average values calculated from 220 the latter references). As commented above, in Fig. 3 only a single peak at 234.3 cm⁻¹ could be 221 attributed to rutile, the rest of its typical Raman shifts being missing because of its low content 222 on the surface. Note that the Raman spectra for the Ru-doped TiO₂ samples exhibited exactly 223 the same peaks found for the undoped TiO₂. Therefore, there was no influence of the Ru 224 presence or content on the peak position of the vibrational modes.

225 The UV/Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy was used to determine the bandgap energies 226 of all the synthesized materials (Fig. S1). From the reflectance spectra illustrated in the inset of Fig. S1, the $[F(R)*hv]^{1/2}$ vs energy profiles for the undoped and Ru-doped (from 0.005 to 0.15) 227 228 wt.% Ru in the impregnation solution) TiO₂ nanotube arrays were obtained. According to the Kubelka-Munk method (López and Gómez, 2012; Nair et al., 2017), the E_g value was then 229 230 estimated in each case from the intercept of the tangent with the x-axis of that main plot of Fig. S1. The undoped TiO₂ showed the highest E_g value (i.e., the lowest λ), corroborating the idea 231 232 that the photocatalyst modification is necessary to shift its absorption wavelength toward the visible range. The general trend was that the E_g decreased as the Ru content was increased, 233 234 which means that the absorption band edge of all Ru-doped TiO₂ samples underwent a certain 235 red-shift as compared to the undoped TiO₂ (see also the arrow accounting for that shift in the 236 inset of Fig. S1). This behavior confirms the photocatalytic activity enhancement in terms of 237 ability to absorb the visible light. The decrease in E_g did not follow a progressive decay pattern, which may be attributed to oxygen vacancies appearing on the surface of the Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotubes. Their irregular presence in the TiO₂ network affected the formation of the energy levels above the VB of TiO₂ and hence, the continuous rise in Ru concentration did not ensure an ever-decreasing E_g (within the ranged under study) (Nair et al., 2017). In fact, the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ sample showed the highest E_g among all the doped materials. Nonetheless, even this sample was more active to visible light than the undoped TiO₂.

244 The photoelectrochemical characterization of the undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube 245 arrays was carried out, since it is a very useful technique to know if charge separation can be 246 promoted upon the application of E_{bias} to the illuminated semiconductor. If this is demonstrated, 247 the degradation ability of PC may be upgraded by working under PEC conditions. The PEC 248 process involves electron transfer across the semiconductor/electrolyte interface, a redox 249 reaction and transient photocurrent flow. Transient photocurrent responses of all the 250 photoanodes were recorded by linear sweep voltammetry in 0.050 M NaSO₄ at pH 1.0 under 251 UV (Fig. 4a) and visible light (Fig. 4b) irradiation. As depicted, the photoanode potential was 252 scanned from -0.3 V to +1.0 V, at a scan rate of 10 mV/s. A test carried out in the dark showed 253 a low transient current flow between -0.3 V and +0.9 V, but it increased at E > +0.9 V as a 254 result of water oxidation to oxygen. Upon illumination either with UV or visible light, an anodic 255 photocurrent transient (I_{ph}) was observed, owing to the generation of photoinduced e^{-}_{CB}/h^{+}_{VB} pairs via reaction (1). As a result, the production of $TiO_2(^{\bullet}OH)$ stimulated by h^+_{VB} from reaction 256 257 (2) was feasible (Georgieva et al., 2012).

A saturation transient photocurrent (SP) at potentials > +0.5 V is observed for the undoped TiO₂ photoanode illuminated with UV light (Fig. 4a). Conversely, an almost null photocurrent resulted within the whole potential range using visible light (Fig. 4b). Such behavior was expected due to the poor photoactivity of raw TiO₂ attributed under visible light. The Ru-doped TiO₂ photoanodes behaved differently, yielding a peak photocurrent (PP) at potentials around 263 -0.19 V and an SP at E > +0.5 V upon irradiation with both light sources. With UV light, the 264 magnitude of the SP for all the Ru-TiO₂ photoanodes was lower than that of the undoped TiO₂ 265 (Fig. 4a). Based on this, it is expected that using UV the photoelectrocatalytic activity of the 266 pure TiO₂ photoanode at E_{bias} corresponding to the SP domain will be higher than that achieved 267 by the $Ru-TiO_2$ photoanodes. The opposite was observed in trials with visible light. The 268 transient current values for all the Ru-TiO₂ samples were higher than that of the undoped TiO₂ (Fig. 4b). This is in agreement with the aforementioned red-shift found for the E_g upon Ru 269 270 doping (i.e., decrease from 3.06 eV to 2.84-3.00 eV, Fig. S1).

271 Fig. 4a also reveals that, under irradiation with UV light, the PP value became greater as 272 the Ru content in the impregnation solution was increased up to 0.10 wt.%, thereby decreasing 273 for the photoanode with 0.15 wt.% Ru. This latter negative effect on the photocurrent transient 274 can be attributed to the interfacial interaction between mixed oxides, since the electronic effects 275 expected for TiO₂ can be partially isolated underneath excessively thick RuO₂ overlayers (Li et 276 al., 2018). Moreover, the voltammograms became broader as the Ru content reached 0.08, 0.10 277 and 0.15 wt.%, leading to a greater transient photocurrent at potentials before the one 278 corresponding to the SP for the undoped TiO₂. Accordingly, a higher photoelectrocatalytic 279 activity of these Ru-TiO₂ photoanodes can be hypothesized at an anode potential within the 280 range -0.234 V $< E_{\text{bias}} < +0.550$ V using UV light. Worth reminding, this applied E_{bias} minimizes 281 the recombination of the photogenerated e^{-}_{CB}/h^{+}_{VB} pairs (Jiang et al., 2003). This is also valid 282 under irradiation with visible light, although the transient photocurrents were narrower (Fig. 283 4b). The trends with that lamp were analogous to those of Fig. 4a, showing a PP increase with 284 Ru content rising from 0.005 to 0.10 wt.%. As mentioned above, this trend agrees with the red-285 shift observed for the Eg upon Ru doping (Fig. S1). For the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂, the PP 286 value decreased and became similar to that of the Ru(0.04 wt.%)- and Ru(0.08 wt.%)-doped 287 TiO₂. Therefore, it is expected that all the Ru-TiO₂ photoanodes will show a higher 288 photoelectrocatalytic activity as compared to the undoped TiO₂ anode using visible light within 289 the selected potential range. Similarly, the applied E_{bias} will minimize the recombination of the 290 photogenerated e^-_{CB}/h^+_{VB} pairs, thereby upgrading the performance of PEC as compared to PC 291 (Elsalamony and Mahmoud, 2017; Ismael, 2019).

292 *3.2. Photoelectrocatalytic decolorization of the dye solution: effect of Ru doping*

293 The performance of PC and PEC processes with the undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube 294 array photoanodes was studied from the color removal of 0.011 mM Terasil Blue dye solution 295 containing 0.050 M NaSO₄ at pH 1.0, using UV or visible light to irradiate the anode. Based on 296 the transient photocurrents described in the previous subsection, a positive effect of Ru doping in terms of photocatalytic degradation ability might be expected in PEC at E_{bias} matching with 297 298 the PP potential (= -0.2 V) under UV or visible light, or at E_{bias} matching with the SP potential 299 (=+0.6 V) under visible light. Therefore, these were the anodic potential values tested in PEC, 300 whereas no potential was applied in PC, as depicted in Fig. 5.

301 Fig. 5a shows the performance of the PC process (no applied E_{bias}) with UV light, evaluated 302 from the percentage of color removal determined via Eq. (4). The photocatalyst with the lowest 303 Ru doping (0.005 wt.%) yielded a greater final decolorization than the undoped TiO_2 (92% vs 304 90% at 120 min), being the color removal especially faster during the first 60 min. In fact, this 305 Ru content was almost revealed as the optimum one to decolorize the Terasil Blue solutions, 306 considering both the color removal rate and the decolorization percentage finally attained. The 307 slowest and poorest (72% at 120 min) color disappearance was observed with 0.02 wt.% Ru. 308 The photocatalysts doped with 0.04-0.10 wt.% Ru behaved similarly to the undoped TiO₂, 309 although a slightly higher color removal was achieved at 120 min with 0.08 wt.% Ru. Then, a 310 clearly worse performance was found using the Ru(0.15wt.%)-doped TiO₂. Ruthenium atoms 311 doped on TiO₂ are expected to act as active sites that reduce the recombination rate of the 312 photoinduced e_{CB}^{-}/h_{VB}^{+} pairs during the photocatalytic reaction, with the subsequent higher 313 production of $TiO_2({}^{\circ}OH)$ that enhances the Terasil Blue degradation (Choi et al., 1994; Gaya 314 and Abdullah, 2008). This is evident at 0.005 wt.% Ru. However, it seems that larger Ru 315 contents became excessive and turned out to be detrimental in PC. This is explained by the 316 probable role of Ru as a recombination center, as well as the partial hindrance to UV photons 317 that cannot reach the TiO₂ semiconductor (Choi et al., 1994; Nguyen-Phan et al., 2016).

318 The PC treatment of the dye solution was much less effective using visible light, as depicted 319 in Fig. 5b, with all the photocatalysts leading to a slower decolorization rate and yielding a poor 320 final color removal lower than 32%. In this system, all the Ru contents higher than 0.005 wt.% 321 were beneficial as compared to the undoped TiO₂, in contrast to that observed in Fig. 5a. This 322 confirms the positive effect of Ru doping to promote the visible-light photoactivity, ending in 323 a greater production of TiO₂(•OH). The optimum PC treatment with visible light was reached 324 with the Ru(0.08 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ photocatalyst. Again, an excessively high amount of Ru 325 was detrimental due to its role as a recombination center (Gaya and Abdullah, 2008; 326 Elsalamony and Mahmoud, 2017; Ismael, 2019).

327 The PEC activity of the same photocatalysts with UV light was then compared by using 328 them as photoanodes, at $E_{\text{bias}} = +0.6 \text{ V}$ (Fig. 5c and 5d, respectively) and $E_{\text{bias}} = -0.2 \text{ V}$ (Fig. 5e 329 and 5f, respectively). At +0.6 V, a negative influence of Ru doping was observed (Fig. 5c), 330 since the greatest decolorization percentage was attained with the undoped TiO₂ photoanode 331 (91% at 120 min). Among the profiles found with the Ru-doped photoanodes, no substantial 332 differences were observed, always reaching a lower color removal of 78-82%. The Ru(0.15 333 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ photoanode was an exception because the final color loss was analogous to 334 that attained with the undoped TiO₂, although at much slower decolorization rate. These PEC 335 results are in good agreement with the higher SP value associated to the undoped TiO₂ as 336 compared to all the Ru-doped photoanodes, except the one with 0.15 wt.% (see Fig. 4a). Worth noting, in the case of the highest Ru doping, the possibility of •OH formation from the anodic
oxidation reaction (5) if RuO₂ is present cannot be discarded:

339
$$\operatorname{RuO}_2 + \operatorname{H}_2O \rightarrow \operatorname{RuO}_2(^{\bullet}OH) + H^+ + e^-$$
 (5)

where $RuO_2(^{\circ}OH)$ denotes a physisorbed hydroxyl radical, analogous to that formed at the TiO₂ sites via reaction (3) but with greater oxidation ability (Panizza and Cerisola, 2009). The high oxidation power of this type of radical formed on the surface of dimensionally stable anodes has been confirmed by several authors (Panizza and Cerisola, 2009; Lanzalaco et al., 2018).

From the previous paragraph, it can be concluded that PEC at $E_{\text{bias}} = +0.6$ V was less 344 345 effective than PC when UV light was employed. A similar negative effect of Ru doping was 346 verified using the same lamp but applying an $E_{\text{bias}} = -0.2 \text{ V}$ (Fig. 5e). The undoped TiO₂ 347 exhibited the highest decolorization power up to 60 min. However, at longer reaction time, the 348 photoanodes doped with 0.10 and 0.15 wt.% Ru outperformed the undoped one, attaining a 349 96% and 98% color removal at 120 min, respectively, vs 90% reached with raw TiO₂. 350 Therefore, working at $E_{\text{bias}} = E(PP)$ was favorable when more than 0.10 wt.% Ru was employed, 351 being the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ the optimum photoanode. Otherwise, using the UV lamp, 352 the PC treatment with the undoped TiO₂ photocatalyst was the best option to decolorize the dye 353 solution.

354 The influence of Ru doping was opposite in PEC with visible light, as shown in Fig. 5d 355 and 5f applying an E_{bias} of +0.6 or -0.2 V, respectively. In both cases, the undoped TiO₂ 356 photoanode exhibited the lowest photoactivity, in agreement with its limited absorption in the 357 visible range. The general trend was that an increase in the Ru content led to a larger 358 decolorization, with the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO_2 photoanode attaining the greatest 359 percentage of color removal at 120 min (i.e., 28% and 36% at +0.6 or -0.2 V, respectively), 360 although some composition did not agreed perfectly (see for example the 0.10 wt.% Ru content 361 in Fig. 5f). As occurred in PEC with UV light, the photoanode synthesized with 0.15 wt.% Ru was proven to be the optimum one. A comparison of the three systems with visible light (Fig. 5b, 5d and 5f) also allows concluding that PEC with 0.15 wt.% Ru at E(PP) as the applied potential was the most convenient treatment to decolorize the dye solution. Clearly, PEC was more effective than PC when Ru-doped TiO₂ photoanodes were employed under visible light, which corroborates that the applied potential is crucial to minimize the capture of e^-_{CB} by photoholes (Jiang et al., 2003). As a result, a greater production of TiO₂(•OH) was achieved, accounting for a more significant decolorization (Choi et al., 1994; Gaya and Abdullah, 2008).

369 3.3. Photoelectrocatalytic decolorization of dye solution: effect of thermal treatment and pH

370 Fig. S2 shows the transient photocurrent responses recorded by linear sweep voltammetry 371 within the potential range between -0.5 and +1.0 V using the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ 372 photoanode as working electrode, annealed at different temperatures after doping. The analyses 373 were made in 0.050 M NaSO₄ solutions at different pH, using UV or visible light. The curve 374 obtained from a comparative trial in the dark is also exemplified (similar results were obtained 375 in all the dark experiments). Clearly, pH values higher than 1.0 and annealing temperatures 376 higher than 200 °C led to a significant decrease of the magnitude of the current values, as 377 compared to trials at pH 1.0 and 200 °C that showed a PP and SP regardless of the type of light. 378 The decrease in the photocurrent magnitude as the annealing temperature was increased can be 379 attributed to the varying presence of residual chloride or protons on the TiO₂ substrate (Siviglia 380 et al., 1983). Also, a greater residual hydration (which is related to the presence of chemically 381 bound water in the bulk) of the Ru-TiO₂ lattice can be associated with the lower annealing 382 temperatures, thereby affecting the point of zero charge (pzc) of the surface oxide because it 383 has influence on the behavior of the whole phase and affects its acid-base properties (Parks and 384 de Bruyn, 1962; Siviglia et al., 1983; Ardizzone et al., 1989). According to Siviglia et al. (1983), 385 the pzc value decreases as the synthesis temperature decreases. The variation of the pzc value 386 with the temperature of preparation was interpreted in terms of change in the cation-anion 387 spacing in the lattice due to residual chloride, which was dependent on the temperature of 388 decomposition of RuCl₃. Thus, it is evident that the nature of the anode surface sites depends 389 to a large extent on the method of preparation and annealing temperature treatment (Siviglia et 390 al., 1983). The solution pH has also a close relationship with the pzc. The anode presents surface 391 adsorption sites that become positively charged upon proton adsorption (at pH < pzc), or 392 negatively charged upon proton desorption (pH > pzc). The anode surface has no net charge at 393 pH = pzc (Parks and de Bruyn, 1962). According to Fig. S2, the photocurrent response was 394 highly enhanced at pH 1.0 when the anode was prepared at 200 °C, which means that the surface 395 was positively charged. This is deduced from the fact that the anode surface was probably a 396 mixture of $TiO_2 + RuO_2$, where the former oxide (with pzc = 6) was predominant (Subramanian 397 et al., 1989; Sugimoto and Zhou, 2002). In contrast, the negatively charged surface appearing 398 at pH 7.0 and pH 9.0 was less favorable to photocurrent flow in the Ru-doped TiO_2 anode.

399 The same optimized TiO₂ photocatalyst, i.e. that with 0.15 wt.% Ru, was employed to 400 decolorize the 0.011 mM dye solution by PC. The highest color removal was obtained at 401 annealing temperature of 200 °C and pH 9.0 (close to pH 1.0), either with UV (Fig. 6a) or 402 visible (Fig. 6b) light. Using the photocatalyst annealed at that temperature, the effect of pH on 403 the decolorization performance was as follows: pH $9.0 > pH 1.0 \ge pH 7.0$. This means that in 404 PC the adsorption of the dye molecules was enhanced as the photocatalyst surface became more 405 negatively charged. When the solution pH was fixed to 1.0, a negative influence of rising 406 annealing temperature was found because the decolorization decayed in the order: 200 $^{\circ}C$ > 407 450 °C \geq 600 °C. The use of 600 °C was highly detrimental regardless of the light source, which 408 confirms the high relevance of the surface hydration to explain the photocatalytic activity.

409 As can be seen in Fig. 7, the PEC treatments presented a greater effectiveness as compared 410 to the corresponding PC assays of Fig. 6, ending in a larger decolorization at 120 min due to 411 the minimized destruction of charge carriers (Jiang et al., 2003). Also, the effect of pH and 412 annealing temperature was different to that commented for PC. The best conditions for 413 decolorization, both with UV (Fig. 7a) and visible light (Fig. 7b), were 200 °C and pH 1.0, 414 applying an $E_{\text{bias}} = E(PP) = -0.2$ V. Note that in the trials with visible light, a more powerful 415 lamp was employed as compared to the assays discussed in Fig. 5f, which led to a greater final 416 decolorization (55% instead of 36%). The results with both lamps agreed perfectly with the 417 profiles described in Fig. S2, with the maxima appearing under those conditions (i.e., PP 418 potential). The use of $E_{\text{bias}} = E(\text{SP}) = +0.6 \text{ V}$ affected negatively to the oxidation power, but 419 still led to the second strongest PEC treatment, either with UV or visible light. This means that 420 the annealing temperature and pH certainly were the most influential parameters. When the E_{bias} 421 was fixed at E(SP), the following trends were observed: (i) with UV light and the samples made 422 at 200°C, a much lower and close percentage of color removal was attained as pH 1.0 and pH 423 9.0; and (ii) with visible light at pH 1.0, the worse performance was clearly found at 600 and 424 450 °C. These results evidence that the annealing temperature after the Ru impregnation and 425 the pH of the dye solution played an important role in the photocatalytic activity of the Ru-426 doped TiO₂ photoanodes.

427 The stability and reusability have been tested by recording transient photocurrent responses 428 using the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ nanotube array photoanode under UV illumination in a 429 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ solution at pH 1.0, as shown in Fig. S3. The photocurrent values were recorded 430 at 0 h (fresh electrode) and at different times of use from 0 to 28 h (considering PEC trials with 431 a duration of 2 h each). The main change is observed in the peak photocurrent value, which 432 decreased as the photoanode was successively re-used in PEC. Since the percentage of color 433 removal at 120 min employing $E_{\text{bias}} = -0.2$ V decreased from 98% after a single use (i.e., 2 h) 434 to ~80% after fourteen uses (i.e., 28 h), it was concluded that the photoanode should be 435 discarded after five cycles of 120 min.

436 **4. Conclusions**

437 It has been shown that Terasil Blue dye can be gradually oxidized by PC and PEC with 438 Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays as photoanodes upon irraditation with UV or visible light. The 439 effect of the Ru content (0.005-0.15 wt.%) and annealing temperature (200-650 °C) employed 440 to synthesize the photocatalysts, as well as of the solution pH (1.0-9.0) and E_{bias} fixed in PEC 441 on the color removal was investigated in detail. The optimum decolorization was achieved in 442 PEC treatment with the Ru(0.15 wt.%, 200 °C)-doped TiO₂ photoanode at $E_{\text{bias}} = -0.2$ V using 443 UV light, attaining a 98% color removal at 120 min for a 0.011 mM dye solution at pH 1.0. 444 This is accounted for by the positive influence of the applied E_{bias} , which reduced the 445 recombination rate of the photoinduced e^{-}_{CB}/h^{+}_{VB} pairs, eventually yielding a larger amount of 446 adsorbed [•]OH as compared to PC process. The surface analyses of the synthetized photoanodes 447 revealed the predominance of the anatase phase, with a minor presence of rutile. A smaller 448 nanotube diameter was observed as the Ru content was increased. The Ru doping caused a red-449 shift, with the E_{gap} decreasing from 3.06 to less than 3.0 eV depending on the Ru content. The 450 visible-light photoactivity promoted upon Ru doping opens the door to the use of the 451 synthesized photoanodes in solar PEC, since sunlight acts as a source of combined UV/Vis 452 radiation.

453 Acknowledgements

P. García-Ramírez is grateful to the National Council for Science and Technology
(CONACYT, Mexico) for the PhD scholarship granted. The authors also thank the funding
from projects CTQ2016-78616-R (AEI/FEDER, EU) and PID2019-109291RB-I00 (AEI,
Spain).

458 **References**

- Anandan, S., Ponnusamy, V.K., Ashokkumar, M., 2020. A review on hybrid techniques for the
 degradation of organic pollutants in aqueous environment. Ultrason. Sonochem. 67,
 105130.
- 462 Ardizzone, S., Daghetti, A., Franceschi, L., Trasatti, S. 1989. The point of zero charge of
 463 hydrous RuO₂. Coll. Surfaces 35, 85-96.
- 464 Arsov, L.D., Kormann, C., Plieth, W., 1991. Electrochemical synthesis and *in situ* Raman
 465 spectroscopy of thin films of titanium dioxide. J. Raman Spectrosc. 22, 573-575.

466 Basavarajappa, P.S., Patil, S.B., Ganganagappa, N., Reddy, K.R., Raghu, A.V., Reddy, Ch.V.,

- 467 2020. Recent progress in metal-doped TiO₂, non-metal doped/codoped TiO₂ and TiO₂
 468 nanostructured hybrids for enhanced photocatalysis. Int. J. Hydrogen Energy 45, 7764469 7778.
- 470 Bessegato, G.G., Guaraldo, T.T., de Brito, J.F., Brugnera, M.F., Zanoni, M.V.B., 2015.
 471 Achievements and trends in photoelectrocatalysis: from environmental to energy
 472 applications. Electrocatalysis 6, 415-441.
- 473 Brillas, E., Martínez-Huitle, C.A., 2015. Decontamination of wastewaters containing synthetic
- 474 organic dyes by electrochemical methods. An updated review. Appl. Catal. B: Environ.
 475 166-167, 603-643.
- Brillas, E., Sirés, I., Oturan, M.A., 2009. Electro-Fenton process and related electrochemical
 technologies based on Fenton's reaction chemistry. Chem. Rev. 109, 6570-6631.
- 478 Chahmana, N., Matrakova, M., Zerroual, L., Pavlov, D., 2009. Influence of some metal ions on
 479 the structure and properties of doped β-PbO₂. J. Power Sources 191, 51-57.
- 480 Changanaqui, K., Brillas, E., Alarcón, H., Sirés, I., 2020. ZnO/TiO₂/Ag₂Se nanostructures as
- 481 photoelectrocatalysts for the degradation of oxytetracycline in water. Electrochim. Acta482 331, 135194.

- 483 Chen, D., Cheng, Y., Zhou, N., Chen, P., Wang, Y., Li, K., Huo, S., Cheng, P., Peng, P., Zhang,
- 484 R., Wang, L., Liu, H., Liu, Y., Ruan, R., 2020. Photocatalytic degradation of organic
 485 pollutants using TiO₂-based photocatalysts: A review. J. Clean. Prod. 268, 121725.
- 486 Choi, W., Termin, A., Hoffmann, M.R., 1994. The role of metal ion dopants in quantum-sized
- 487 TiO₂: Correlation between photoreactivity and charge carrier recombination dynamics. J.
 488 Phys. Chem. 98, 13669-13679.
- Choo, G., Wang, W., Cho, H.-S., Kim, K., Park, K., Oh, J.-E., 2020. Legacy and emerging
 persistent organic pollutants in the freshwater system: Relative distribution,
 contamination trends, and bioaccumulation. Environ. Int. 135, 105377.
- 492 Clematis, D., Cerisola, G., Panizza, M., 2017. Electrochemical oxidation of a synthetic dye
 493 using a BDD anode with a solid polymer electrolyte. Electrochem. Commun. 75, 21-24.
- 494 Cornejo, O., Murrieta, M.F., Castañeda, L.F., Nava, J.L., 2020. Characterization of the reaction
 495 environment in flow reactors fitted with BDD electrodes for use in electrochemical
 496 advanced oxidation processes: A critical review. Electrochim. Acta 331, 135373.
- 497 Daghrir, R., Drogui, P., Robert, D., 2012. Photoelectrocatalytic technologies for environmental
 498 applications. J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem. 238, 41-52.
- Elsalamony, R.A., Mahmoud, S.A., 2017. Preparation of nanostructured ruthenium doped
 titania for the photocatalytic degradation of 2-chlorophenol under visible light. Arab. J.
 Chem. 10, 194-205.
- 502 Espinola-Portilla, F., Navarro-Mendoza, R., Gutiérrez-Granados, S., Morales-Muñoz, U.,
 503 Brillas-Coso, E., Peralta-Hernández, J.M., 2017. A simple process for the deposition of
- 504 TiO_2 onto BDD by electrophoresis and its application to the photoelectrocatalysis of Acid
- 505 Blue 80 dye. J. Electroanal. Chem. 802, 57-63.

- Gaya, U.I., Abdullah, A.H., 2008. Heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of organic
 contaminants over titanium dioxide: A review of fundamentals, progress and problems.
 J. Photochem. Photobiol. C: Photochem. Rev. 9, 1-12.
- 509 Georgieva, J., Valova, E., Armyanov, S., Philippidis, N., Poulios, I., Sotiropoulos, S., 2012. Bi-
- 510 component semiconductor oxide photoanodes for the photoelectrocatalytic oxidation of
- 511 organic solutes and vapours: A short review with emphasis to TiO₂-WO₃ photoanodes. J.

512 Hazard. Mater. 211-212, 30-46.

- 513 González, A.S., Solis-Cortazar, J.C., Pineda-Arellano, C.A., Ramírez-Morales, E., de los
- Monteros, A.E., Silva-Martínez, S., 2019. Synthesis of ruthenium-doped TiO₂ nanotube
 arrays for the photocatalytic degradation of Terasil Blue dye. J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.
 19, 5211-5219.
- 517 Hernández, R., Olvera-Rodríguez, I., Guzmán, C., Medel, A., Escobar-Alarcón, L., Brillas, E.,
 518 Sirés, I., Esquivel, K., 2018. Microwave-assisted sol-gel synthesis of an Au-TiO₂
 519 photoanode for the advanced oxidation of paracetamol as model pharmaceutical
 520 pollutant. Electrochem. Commun. 96, 42-46.
- Ismael, M., 2019. Highly effective ruthenium-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles photocatalyst for
 visible-light-driven photocatalytic hydrogen production. New J. Chem. 43, 9596-9605.
- 523 Jiang, D., Zhao, H., Zhang, S., John, R., 2003. Characterization of photoelectrocatalytic
- processes at nanoporous TiO₂ film electrodes: Photocatalytic oxidation of glucose. J.
 Phys. Chem. B 107, 12774-12780.
- 526 Kanan, S., Moyet, M.A., Arthur, R.B., Patterson, H.H., 2020. Recent advances on TiO₂-based
- 527 photocatalysts toward the degradation of pesticides and major organic pollutants from 528 water bodies. Catal. Rev. Sci. Eng. 62, 1-65.

- Lanzalaco, S., Sirés, I., Galia, A., Sabatino, M.A., Dispenza, C., Scialdone, O., 2018. Facile
 crosslinking of poly(vinylpyrrolidone) by electro-oxidation with IrO₂-based anode under
 potentiostatic conditions. J. Appl. Electrochem. 48, 1343-1352.
- 532 Li, H., Zha, S., Zhao, Z.-J., Tian, H., Chen, S., Gong, Z., Cai, W., Wang, Y., Cui, Y., Zeng, L.,
- Mu, R., Gong, J., 2018. The nature of loading-dependent reaction barriers over mixed
 RuO₂/TiO₂ catalysts. ACS Catal. 8, 5526-5532.
- López, R., Gómez, R., 2012. Band-gap energy estimation from diffuse reflectance
 measurements on sol-gel and commercial TiO₂: A comparative study. J. Sol Gel Sci.
 Technol. 61, 1-7.
- Ma, H.L., Yang, J.Y., Dai, Y., Zhang, Y.B., Lu, B., Ma, G.H., 2007. Raman study of phase
 transformation of TiO₂ rutile single crystal irradiated by infrared femtosecond laser. Appl.
 Surf. Sci. 253, 7497-7500.
- Martínez-Huitle, C.A., Rodrigo, M.A., Sirés, I., Scialdone, O., 2015. Single and coupled
 electrochemical processes and reactors for the abatement of organic water pollutants: A
 critical review. Chem. Rev. 115, 13362-13407.
- Nair, R.G., Mazumdar, S., Modak, B., Bapat, R., Ayyub, P., Bhattacharyya, K., 2017. The role
 of surface O-vacancies in the photocatalytic oxidation of Methylene Blue by Zn-doped
 TiO₂: A Mechanistic approach. J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem. 345, 36-53.
- 547 Nguyen-Phan, T.D., Luo, S., Vovchok, D., Llorca, J., Sallis, S., Kattel, S., Xu, W., Piper, L.F.J.,
- Polyansky, D.E., Senanayake, S.D., Stacchiola, D.J., Rodríguez, J.A., 2016. Threedimensional ruthenium-doped TiO₂ sea urchins for enhanced visible-light-responsive H₂
 production. Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 18, 15972-15979.
- 551 Oriol. R.. Sirés. I.. Brillas, Е., De Andrade, A.R.. 2019. А hybrid 552 photoelectrocatalytic/photoelectro-Fenton treatment of Indigo Carmine in acidic aqueous 553 solution using TiO₂ nanotube arrays as photoanode. J. Electroanal. Chem. 847, 113088.

- Ohno, T., Tanigawa, F., Fujihara, K., Izumi, S., Matsumura, M., 1999. Photocatalytic oxidation
 of water by visible light using ruthenium-doped titanium dioxide powder. J. Photochem.
 Photobiol. A: Chem. 127, 107-110.
- Oturan, M.A., Aaron, J.J., 2014. Advanced oxidation processes in water/wastewater treatment:
 principles and applications. A review. Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol. 44, 2577-2641.
- 559 Panizza, M., Cerisola, G., 2009. Direct and mediated anodic oxidation of organic pollutants.
 560 Chem. Rev. 109, 6541-6569.
- Parks, G.A., de Bruyn, P.L., 1962. The zero point of charge of oxides. J. Phys. Chem. 66, 967973.
- Peleyeju, M.G., Arotiba, O.A., 2018. Recent trend in visible-light photoelectrocatalytic systems
 for degradation of organic contaminants in water/wastewater. Environ. Sci. Water Res.
 Technol. 4, 1389-1411.
- Secundino-Sánchez, O., Díaz-Reyes, J., Sánchez-Ramírez, J.F., Martínez-Juárez, J., 2019.
 Stimulation of the photoluminescent properties of electrospinning TiO₂ nanofibres
 induced by structural modifications resulting from annealing at high temperatures. J
 Lumin. 215, 116700.
- Senthilnanthan, M., Ho, D.P., Vigneswaran, S., Ngo, H.H., Shon, H.K., 2010. Visible light
 responsive ruthenium-doped titanium dioxide for the removal of metsulfuron-methyl
 herbcide in aqueous phase. Sep. Purif. Technol. 75, 415-419.
- Shin, S., Kim, K., Choi, J., 2013. Fabrication of ruthenium-doped TiO₂ electrodes by one-step
 anodization for electrolysis applications. Electrochem. Commun. 36, 88-91.
- 575 Siviglia, P., Daghetti, A., Trasatti, S., 1983. Influence of the preparation temperature of 576 ruthenium dioxide on its point of zero charge. Coll. Surfaces 7, 15-27.
- 577 So, S., Lee, K., Schmuki, P., 2012. Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotubes: Improved performance in dye-
- 578 sensitized solar cells. Phys. Status Solidi Rapid Res Lett. 6,169-171.

579	Subramanian, S., Schwarz, J.A., Hejase, Z., 1989. The temperature dependence of the point of
580	zero charge of γ -Al ₂ O ₃ , TiO ₂ , and physical mixtures. J. Catal. 117, 512-518.

Sugimoto, T., Zhou, X., 2002. Synthesis of uniform anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles by the gel-sol

- 582 method: 2. Adsorption of OH^- ions to $Ti(OH)_4$ gel and TiO_2 particles. J. Coll. Interface 583 Sci. 252, 347-353.
- Thiam, A., Sirés, I., Garrido, J.A., Rodríguez, R.M., Brillas, 2015. Effect of anions on
 electrochemical degradation of azo dye Carmoisine (Acid Red 14) using a BDD anode
 and air-diffusion cathode. Sep. Purif. Technol. 140, 43-52.
- Vasconcelos, V.M., Ponce-de-León, C., Nava, J.L., Lanza, M.R.V., 2016. Electrochemical
 degradation of RB-5 dye by anodic oxidation, electro-Fenton and by combining anodic
 oxidation–electro-Fenton in a filter-press flow cell. J. Electroanal. Chem. 765, 179-187.
- Viswanathamurthi, P., Bhattarai, N., Kim, C.K., Kim, H.Y., Lee, D.R., 2004. Ruthenium doped
 TiO₂ fibers by electrospinning. Inorg. Chem. Commun. 7, 679-682.
- Wang, Z., Liu, B., Xie, Z., Li, Y., Shen, Z.-Y., 2016. Preparation and photocatalytic properties
 of RuO₂/TiO₂ composite nanotube arrays. Ceram. Int. 42, 13664-13669.
- Yan, H., Wang, X., Yao, M., Yao, X., 2013. Band structure design of semiconductors for
 enhanced photocatalytic activity: The case of TiO₂. Progress Natural Sci.: Mater. Intern.
 23, 402-407.
- Zhang, Y., Xiong, X., Han, Y., Zhang, X., Shen, F., Deng, S., Xiao, H., Yang, X., Yang, G.,
 Peng, H., 2012. Photoelectrocatalytic degradation of recalcitrant organic pollutants using
 TiO₂ film electrodes: An overview. Chemosphere 88, 145-154.
- Zhu, Y., Zhu, R., Xi, Y., Zhu, J., Zhu, G., He, H., 2019. Strategies for enhancing the
 heterogeneous Fenton catalytic reactivity: A review. Appl. Catal. B: Environ. 255,
 117739.
- 603

581

604 **Figure captions**

Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) undoped and (b-g) Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube array photoanodes. The
solutions for Ru impregnation contained: (b) 0.005, (c) 0.02, (d) 0.04, (e) 0.08, (f) 0.10 and (g)
0.15 wt.% Ru. The annealing of the Ru-impregnated TiO₂ samples was made at 200 °C.

Fig. 2. X-ray diffractograms of undoped (curve *a*) and Ru-doped (curves b-g) TiO₂ nanotube array photoanodes. The Ru content in each impregnation solution and the annealing temperature are those mentioned in Fig. 1. Titanium (Ti), anatase (A) and rutile (R) peaks are assigned.

611 **Fig. 3.** Raman spectra of undoped (curve *a*) and Ru-doped (curves b-g) TiO₂ nanotube array 612 photoanodes. The Ru content in each impregnation solution and the annealing temperature are 613 those mentioned in Fig. 1.

Fig. 4. Linear sweep voltammograms of undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube array anodes in a 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ solution at pH 1.0, at a scan rate of 10 mV/s. The anode was illuminated with: (a) UV light (11SC-1 Pen-Ray lamp) and (b) visible light (two 25W LED lamps), although the current with the undoped anode in the dark is shown for comparison. The annealing of the Ru-impregnated TiO₂ samples was made at 200 °C. The potentials are referred to the Ag|AgCl (3 M KCl) reference electrode.

Fig. 5. Time course of color removal during the treatment of the solution containing 0.011 mM Terasil Blue dye and 0.050 M Na₂SO₄ at pH 1.0, using the undoped and Ru-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays. Process: (a,b) PC, (c,d) PEC at $E_{\text{bias}} = +0.6$ V and (e,f) PEC at $E_{\text{bias}} = -0.2$ V. The annealing of the Ru-impregnated TiO₂ samples was made at 200 °C. In plots (c-f), the potentials are referred to the Ag|AgCl (3 M KCl) reference electrode. The nanotubes were illuminated with: (a,c,e) UV light (11SC-1 Pen-Ray lamp) and (b,d,f) visible light (two 25W LED lamps). Fig. 6. Influence of solution pH and annealing temperature on the evolution of color removal
with time during the PC treatment of the solution containing 0.011 mM Terasil Blue dye and
0.050 M Na₂SO₄, using the Ru(0.15 wt.%)-doped TiO₂ nanotube arrays illuminated with: (a)
UV light (11SC-1 Pen-Ray lamp) and (b) visible light (50 W halogen MR16 LED lamp).

Fig. 7. (a) Influence of solution pH and annealing temperature on the evolution of color removal

632 with time during the PEC treatment of the dye solution like that of Fig. 6. The Ru(0.15 wt.%)-

633 doped photoanodes were illuminated with UV light, at $E_{\text{bias}} = -0.2 \text{ or } +0.6 \text{ V}$. (b) Influence of

the annealing temperature for similar trials, at pH 1.0 using visible light (50 W halogen MR16

LED lamp). All the potentials are referred to the Ag|AgCl (3 M KCl) reference electrode.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3





Figure 4



Figure 5



Figure 6



Figure 7