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1 **Tuning the selectivity of visible light-driven hydroxylation of benzene to phenol**
2 **by using Cu, Fe and V oxides supported on N-doped TiO₂**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Cu, Fe and V oxides supported on N-TiO₂ (Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂, and V/N-TiO₂) were
22 synthesized by incipient wet impregnation method. The prepared photocatalysts were analyzed by
23 N₂ adsorption at -196°C to measure the specific surface area (S_{BET}) values, scanning electron
24 microscopy (SEM), wide-angle X-ray diffraction (WAXD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
25 (XPS), Raman, photoluminescence and ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance (UV-vis DRS)

26 spectroscopies. The prepared photocatalysts were tested in the hydroxylation of benzene to phenol
27 under visible light irradiation in the presence of H₂O₂ as the oxidant. After 360 min of irradiation,
28 Cu/N-TiO₂ achieves a phenol yield equal to 25%, significantly higher than that observed with Fe/N-
29 TiO₂ (2%) and V/N-TiO₂ (2.5%). Moreover, Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst exhibited a phenol yield
30 higher than that reported in the literature dealing with TiO₂ based photocatalysts for photocatalytic
31 benzene hydroxylation. The better photoactivity of Cu/N-TiO₂ in phenol production was justified
32 by considering both electronic and surface photocatalyst features. In detail, a significant optical
33 absorption in the visible region has been highlighted, due to the intense electronic interactions
34 between CuO and N-TiO₂. Moreover, the surface of the copper oxide component shows low affinity
35 with phenol molecules. Therefore, once photocatalytically generated, phenol easily desorbs from
36 the Cu/N-TiO₂ surface thus limiting parasitic overoxidation reactions. In fact, after 180 min of
37 visible light irradiation, only 30% of phenol was degraded by Cu/N-TiO₂, while 100% and 81% of
38 it was degraded by Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂, respectively. From the comparison of phenol
39 production kinetic constants, obtained by fitting the experimental data with the least-squares
40 methods, showed that the highest rate of phenol formation ($k=1.41 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$) was obtained by
41 using the Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst. Cu/N-TiO₂ has been recovered from the aqueous solution after
42 a photocatalytic run and reused four times with no reduction in benzene conversion and phenol
43 yield, thus confirming the high stability of the catalytic system.

44

45 **Keywords:** CuO; N-TiO₂; visible light photocatalysis; hydroxylation; phenol; benzene.

46

47

48 1. Introduction

49 Phenol is currently produced through the 3-steps cumene process, which starts from benzene, and
50 suffers drawbacks such as high energy consumption, low yields (ca. 5%), dangerous intermediates,
51 such as cumene hydroperoxide, and the generation of acetone as a by-product, which strongly limits
52 the market price ¹⁻³. Therefore, the direct hydroxylation of benzene would be a greener alternative
53 to produce phenol, not only to reduce the hazardous nature of the cumene process, but also in terms
54 of mass economy ⁴. Heterogeneous photocatalysis is recognized as an innovative and green
55 technology because it can be carried out under mild operating conditions, and in the presence of
56 cheap and non-toxic semiconductors acting as photocatalysts activable by solar or artificial light
57 with low-energy consumption ⁵. The majority of photocatalytic processes, both for the degradation
58 of organic compounds and for the synthesis of organic products, are based on photoinduced charge
59 transfer, which occurs at the interface of the semiconductor, being the photogenerated electrons and
60 holes, respectively, primary reducing and oxidizing agents ⁶⁻⁸. Photocatalytic reactions are
61 commonly performed under UV light ⁹, but suitable photocatalytic systems can also be activated by
62 low-energy visible light, making available a powerful and sustainable route for organic synthesis
63 and the production of valuable chemical compounds ¹⁰. However, photocatalysis also presents some
64 drawbacks, such as the low selectivity towards the partial oxidation products, especially by using
65 water as the solvent ^{5, 11}. In the field of chemical reactions, it is certainly of research interest to find
66 strategies to perform organic syntheses in a single step, and to control the reaction path in order to
67 improve the selectivity towards the desired product, assuring its separation and recovery. The
68 photocatalytic hydroxylation of benzene to phenol is an interesting example of green organic
69 synthesis. Phenol is a chemical widely used as a disinfectant and as a precursor for the production

70 of resins and pharmaceutical products. However, the application of photocatalytic benzene
71 hydroxylation at an industrial level is limited by its fast kinetics, which makes the process highly
72 non-selective.

73 This problem has been successfully faced by coupling photocatalysis with a membrane separation
74 unit ¹². In general, this combined approach is useful for many other photocatalytic organic syntheses
75 of high-added value compounds ¹³ as it allows to separate the target compound from the reacting
76 mixture. However, the optimization of the intrinsic photocatalyst features remains a necessary step,
77 in order to design effective processes capable of competing with existing industrial processes. In
78 detail, the modification of the physical and chemical properties of the photocatalysts, for example
79 by coupling together different semiconductors, could be a possible strategy to improve the
80 efficiency and selectivity of the photocatalytic oxidation of benzene ⁵. Each photocatalyst must be
81 optimized and selected for specific organic synthesis reactions since the selectivity control depends
82 on the molecular structure and properties of the organic substrate and its specific interaction with
83 the photocatalyst. In-depth studies are required to unveil the relationship between the surface
84 properties of the catalyst and substrate molecules and to be able to control the typical overoxidation
85 that occurs during photohydroxylation of aromatic compounds, such as benzene. In detail, Park and
86 Choi studied the photocatalytic conversion of benzene into phenol and showed the possibility of
87 increasing the phenol yield and selectivity by adding Fe^{3+} or/and H_2O_2 to the TiO_2 suspension or by
88 modifying the surface of the catalyst by deposition of Pt nanoparticles ¹⁴. Ide et al. formulated a
89 layered titanate photocatalyst decorated with gold nanoparticles, which catalyzed the oxidation of
90 aqueous benzene to phenol under visible light irradiation. Moreover, it was found that the reaction
91 efficiency was improved when the oxidation was performed with the addition of phenol into the

92 starting mixture, by leading to an appreciable increase in yield and selectivity ¹⁵. Devaraji et al.
93 demonstrated that the introduction of vanadium into the TiO₂ lattice, and the photodeposition of
94 gold on the photocatalytic surface increased the benzene conversion and selectivity to phenol ¹⁶.
95 The liquid-phase hydroxylation of benzene to phenol was also investigated by Tanarungsun et al. in
96 the presence of transition metals (copper, vanadium, iron) impregnated on a TiO₂ support,
97 demonstrating a higher phenol yield obtained with the impregnated TiO₂ systems under UV light
98 compared to bare TiO₂ ¹⁷. Based on the results reported in the literature and considering our
99 preliminary results on N-doped TiO₂ photocatalyst ¹⁸, in this work transition metal oxides (iron,
100 vanadium and copper oxide) were supported on N-TiO₂ and tested in the hydroxylation of benzene
101 to phenol under visible light.

102

103 **2. Materials and methods**

104 **2.1 Chemicals and reagents**

105 Benzene (purity>99.7%) and cyclohexane (purity>99%) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich.
106 Distilled water and acetonitrile (purity>99.9%) were acquired from Carlo Erba. Hydrogen peroxide
107 solution used as oxidant was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (30 wt%). Titanium(IV) isopropoxide
108 (purity>97%), copper nitrate trihydrate, iron nitrate nonahydrate and ammonium metavanadate
109 were provided by Sigma Aldrich.

110

111 **2.2 N-doped TiO₂ preparation**

112 N-doped TiO₂ (N-TiO₂) photocatalyst was synthesized by sol-gel method using ammonia solution
113 (30 wt%), as nitrogen source, and titanium isopropoxide. The preparation was carried out according

114 to the procedure reported by Sacco et al. ¹⁹. Briefly, the synthesis of N-TiO₂ was carried out at 0 °C
115 until the formation of a precipitate, which washed using distilled water and finally calcined at
116 450°C for 30 min. The N/Ti nominal molar ratio used in the photocatalyst preparation was equal to
117 18.6 ¹⁹.

118

119 **2.3 Preparation of transition metal oxides loaded on N-TiO₂ photocatalyst**

120 Cu, Fe and V oxides loaded on N-TiO₂ (named Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂, and V/N-TiO₂) were
121 prepared by the incipient wet impregnation method ²⁰. 1 g of N-TiO₂ powder was suspended in 100
122 mL of aqueous solutions containing the appropriate amount of trihydrate copper nitrate (0.23 g),
123 nonahydrate iron nitrate (0.38 g) or ammonium metavanadate (0.11 g) in order to obtain
124 photocatalysts with a loading of each metal equal to 5 wt%, as considered in literature ¹⁷. The
125 suspensions were dried at 120°C for 12 h and the obtained powders were finally calcined in a
126 muffle oven at 450°C for 30 min.

127

128 **2.4 Photocatalyst characterization techniques**

129 Wide-angle X-ray diffraction (WAXD) patterns were obtained with an automatic Bruker D8
130 Advance diffractometer (VANTEC-1 detector) using reflection geometry and nickel filtered Cu-K α
131 radiation. The average crystallite size of the synthesized powders was calculated using the Scherrer
132 equation ²¹. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of the samples was measured from
133 dynamic N₂ adsorption measurement at -196 °C, performed by a Costech Sorptometer 1042 after a
134 pre-treatment for 30 min in He flow at 150 °C.

135 Laser Raman spectra were attained at room temperature with a Dispersive MicroRaman (Invia,
136 Renishaw), equipped with 514 nm laser, in the range 100 - 2000 cm^{-1} Raman shift.

137 The ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectra (UV-Vis DRS) of the samples were obtained
138 using a Perkin Elmer spectrometer Lambda 35 spectrophotometer equipped with a RSA-PE-20
139 reflectance spectroscopy accessory (Labsphere Inc., North Sutton, NH). The indirect band gap
140 values of samples were obtained through the corresponding Kubelka–Munk function ($F(R_{\infty})$) and by
141 plotting $[F(R_{\infty}) \cdot h\nu]^{1/2}$ vs $h\nu$ (eV) ^{22, 23}.

142 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) characterization of the catalysts' surface was performed on
143 a PHI Versaprobe II spectrometer using monochromatized Al-K α source (47.6 W) at constant
144 charge neutralization with a 200 μm spot size. Spectra were acquired on at least three points of the
145 samples and processed with ULVAC-PHI MultiPak® (v. 9.9.3) software. The Binding Energy (BE)
146 scale was calibrated setting the aliphatic component of C1s at 284.8 eV. Energy pass was set at
147 46.95 eV for high-resolution (HR) spectra.

148 Fluorescence spectra of the powders were recorded by suspending them in cyclohexane and by
149 using a Jasco FP-6300 spectrofluorimeter (Jasco, Tokyo, Japan) with $\lambda = 325$ nm as the excitation
150 wavelength. Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) analysis was carried out by
151 means of FE-SEM, Supra 40/40VP equipped with an EDAX probe (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany),
152 operating at a voltage of 20 kV on specimens where a 6 nm thin layer of Pt/Pd had been deposited
153 under Ar atmosphere.

154

155

156

157 2.5 Photocatalytic activity tests

158 The benzene hydroxylation reaction was performed in 200 mL aqueous solution containing benzene
159 (initial concentration: 25.6 mmol/L) and acetonitrile (2.3 mL) as a co-solvent with 0.15 g/L of
160 Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂, and V/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst under continuous stirring in a cylindrical Pyrex
161 photoreactor. 2.8 mL of H₂O₂ (30 wt% in H₂O) were added to the reaction mixture (H₂O₂
162 concentration: 136 mmol/L).

163 The system was first kept under dark for 60 min at room temperature, to reach the adsorption-
164 desorption equilibrium of benzene. Then, the reactor was irradiated for 600 min by a LEDs strip
165 emitting visible light (emission range: 400–800 nm; irradiance: 16 W/m²) placed around and in
166 contact to the external surface of the Pyrex reactor. A fan cooled down the reactor during irradiation
167 time. Solution aliquots were withdrawn from the reactor at different times by a 1 mL syringe,
168 filtered through a 0.22 μm CA filter (SIMPLEPURE) to remove solid particles, and immediately
169 analyzed quantitatively by an Agilent gas chromatograph (model 7820 A) equipped with a flame
170 ionization detector (FID) to evaluate the benzene and phenol concentration. Some photocatalytic
171 tests were carried out using 100 mL of phenol (initial concentration: 0.53 mmol/L) aqueous
172 solution, 0.15 g/L of photocatalyst and H₂O₂ concentration equal to 136 mmol/L. GC separation
173 was achieved with a DB Heavy Wax fused-silica capillary column (30m x 0.35mm i.d. x 0.25μm
174 stationary phase thickness) under the following conditions: column temperature 40-300°C (40°C
175 held 2 min, rate 5°C/min to 90°C, rate 20°C/min to 250°C, held 10 min); helium at a constant flow
176 rate of 1 mL/min; injection port operated at 10:1 split mode; the temperature of injector and detector
177 at 180°C and 300°C, respectively. Hydroquinone, resorcinol, p-benzoquinone and catechol were
178 determined quantitatively by HPLC, using a Dionex UltiMate 3000 Thermo Scientific system

179 equipped with DAD detector, column thermostat and automatic sample injector with 100 μ L loop.
 180 Separations were carried out on a Phenomenex Luna C-18 column (150 x 4.6 mm i.d.; 5 μ m) eluted
 181 with a mixture of water (solvent A) and acetonitrile (solvent B) according to the program: 0-14 min,
 182 15% B (isocratic); 14-23 min, 60-100% B (linear gradient); 23-30 min, 15% B (isocratic). The
 183 chromatographic conditions were: oven temperature 35 $^{\circ}$ C; flow rate 0.8 mL/min; injection volume
 184 50 μ L and UV detector at 270 nm. Benzene conversion (BZ_{conv}), yield (Y_P) and selectivity (S_P)
 185 towards phenol and by-products were evaluated according to Eqs. 1-3.

$$186 \text{ benzene conversion } (BZ_{conv}) = \left(1 - \frac{C}{C_0}\right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$187 \text{ yield to } P (Y_P) = \left(\frac{S}{Q_0}\right) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

$$188 \text{ selectivity to } P (S_P) = \left(\frac{S \text{ (or } Deg)}{S_{TOT} + Deg}\right) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

189 Where:

190 C_0 = benzene concentration after the dark period (mmol/L);

191 C = benzene concentration at the generic irradiation time (mmol/L);

192 Q_0 = moles of benzene in solution after the dark period (mmol);

193 P = reaction product (phenol or hydroquinone or catechol or resorcinol or p-benzoquinone);

194 S_{TOT} = total moles of the reaction products in liquid phase detected by HPLC (mmol);

195 S = moles of phenol or hydroquinone or catechol or resorcinol or p-benzoquinone in liquid phase
 196 (mmol);

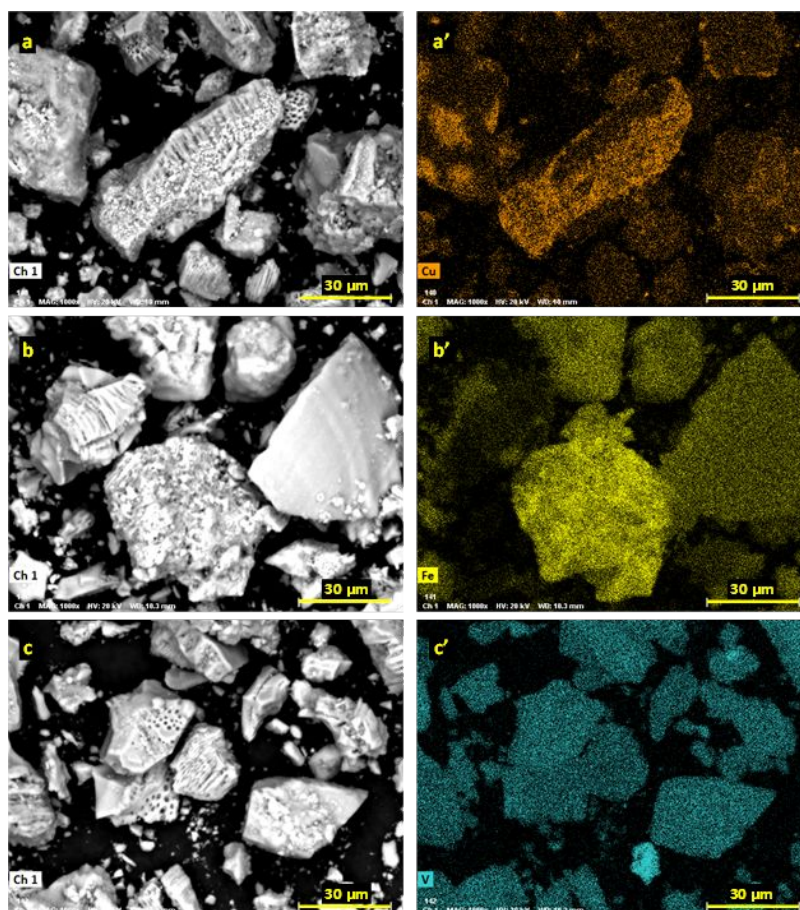
197 D_{eg} = ring-opened products and CO_2 = (benzene reacted - S_{TOT})²⁴.

198

199

200 **3. Results and discussion**201 **3.1 Photocatalysts characterization results**

202 FE-SEM images of the Cu, Fe and V oxides supported on N-TiO₂ samples are shown in Figure 1,
203 along with Cu, Fe and V atoms EDX maps.



204

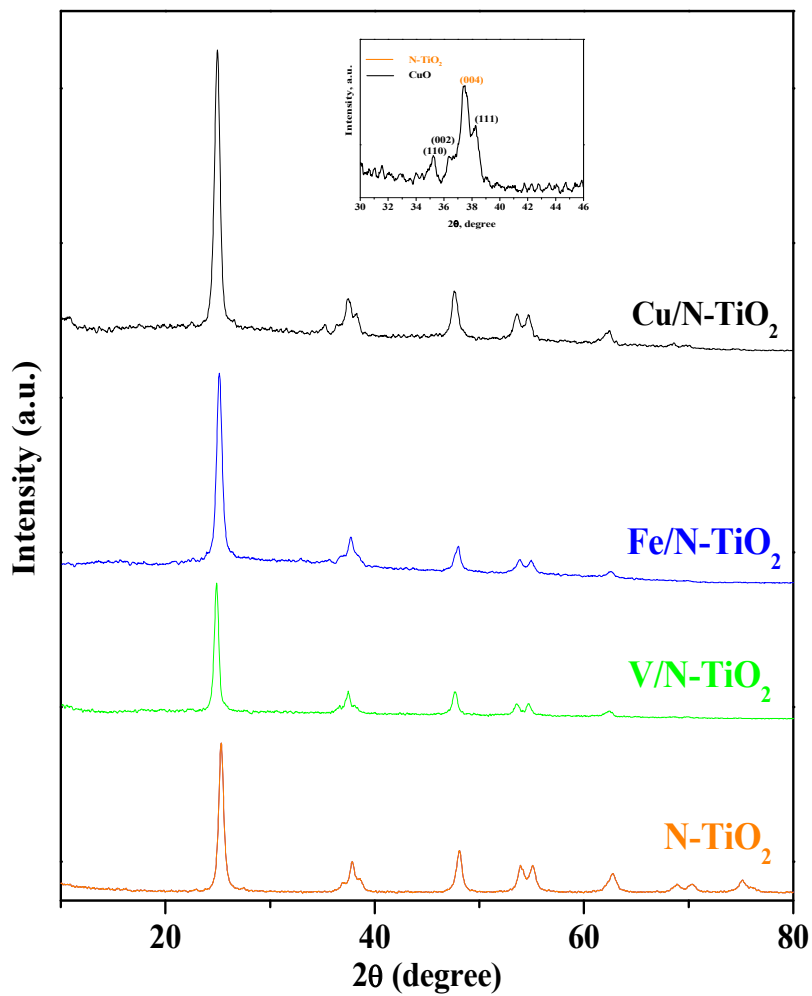
205 **Figure 1.** SEM images of Cu/N-TiO₂ (a), Fe/N-TiO₂ (b), and V/N-TiO₂ (c) samples along with the correspondent Cu
206 (a'), Fe (b'), and V (c') atoms maps.

207

208 The three mixed oxide catalytic systems show a similar micrometric aggregate morphology. Cu, Fe
209 and V atoms are homogeneously distributed throughout the samples and their normalized atomic
210 weight percent is 5.9, 5.5 and 3.3%, respectively.

211 The crystalline phase structure of all the samples was identified by wide-angle X-ray diffraction
212 (WAXD) (Figure 2). The WAXD patterns of all the synthesized samples showed the typical signals
213 of TiO₂ anatase crystalline phase ²⁵. The peaks were located at the 2θ values of 25.3, 37.8, 48.1,
214 53.9, 55.1, 63.1 and 69.2° and they correspond to (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204) and (116)
215 anatase lattice planes ²⁶. However, the diffraction pattern of the N-TiO₂ sample evidenced a weak
216 diffraction peak at 27° that could be attributed to the presence of TiO₂ in the rutile crystalline phase
217 ²⁷. The peak at 38° related to Fe₂O₃ is not revealed for Fe/N-TiO₂ as also reported in the literature
218 for similar systems ¹⁷, probably because the loading of Fe (nominally 5% wt) is below the detection
219 limit of the instrument. A similar result was obtained for V/N-TiO₂. Also in this case, the absence of
220 further peaks belonging to the V₂O₅ orthorhombic phase is probably due to the low vanadium
221 loading. Conversely, the presence of peaks at 2θ = 35.2, 36.2 and 38.3°, corresponding to (110),
222 (002) and (111) CuO lattice planes (inset in Figure 2) ^{28,29}, is detected for the Cu/N-TiO₂ sample.

223

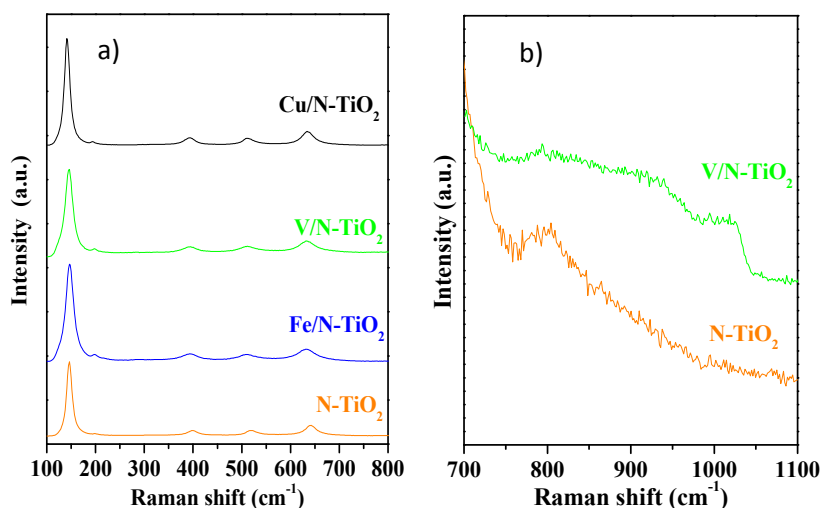


224

225 **Figure 2.** Wide angle X-ray diffraction (WAXD) patterns of N-TiO₂, Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂
226 samples.

227

228 The Raman spectra of N-TiO₂, Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ samples are shown in Figure
229 3.



230

231 **Figure 3.** Raman spectra of N-TiO₂, Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ (a). Raman spectra of N-TiO₂ and
 232 V/N-TiO₂ in narrow Raman shift range 700-1100 cm⁻¹(b).

233

234 N-TiO₂ sample showed bands at 144, 397, 516 and 638 cm⁻¹ and a weak shoulder at 195 cm⁻¹, due
 235 to the Raman-active fundamental modes of anatase³⁰. Raman bands associated with CuO and Cu₂O,
 236 reported in literature at 279 and 216 cm⁻¹, respectively, were not observed^{28, 31}.

237 The Raman spectrum for the Fe/N-TiO₂ sample did not evidence bands related to iron oxides, such
 238 as Fe₃O₄³². Conversely, Raman spectrum of V/N-TiO₂ in the narrow range 700-1100 cm⁻¹ (Figure
 239 2b) displayed a wide and not very intense band at about 940 cm⁻¹, assigned to the V-O-V
 240 functionality, indicating the presence of polyvanadate species. Furthermore, a Raman contribution
 241 to about 1016 cm⁻¹ was observed for V/N-TiO₂ due to V-O-Ti functionality still assigned to
 242 polyvanadate dispersed on N-TiO₂ surface³³.

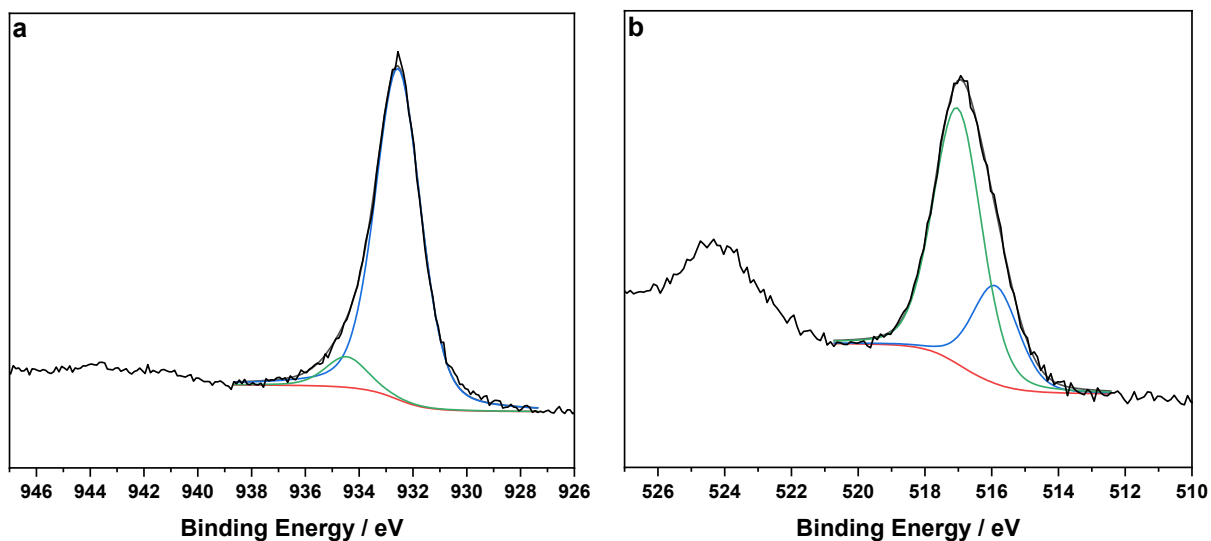
243 XPS analysis provided the surface chemical composition of N-TiO₂ and Cu, Fe and V oxides
 244 supported on N-TiO₂, as reported in Table 1. N-doping level in all mixed oxide catalytic systems
 245 was not affected by the surface deposition process being similar to the value obtained on pristine N-
 246 TiO₂ sample.

247 **Table 1.** Typical surface chemical composition in terms of atomic % of the as-prepared samples. Values are
 248 expressed as the mean \pm 1SD on three analysis points. M is the corresponding metal of Cu, Fe and V oxides.

Catalyst	C%	O%	Ti%	N%	M%
N-TiO ₂	16.9 \pm 1.2	58.2 \pm 1.4	24.3 \pm 1.5	0.6 \pm 0.2	/
Cu/N-TiO ₂	19.0 \pm 1.3	53.8 \pm 1.1	21.0 \pm 0.8	0.8 \pm 0.3	5.4 \pm 0.7
Fe/N-TiO ₂	17.3 \pm 1.5	56.0 \pm 1.5	20.2 \pm 0.7	0.6 \pm 0.2	5.9 \pm 1.1
V/N-TiO ₂	21.3 \pm 1.4	54.7 \pm 1.3	19.3 \pm 1.1	0.7 \pm 0.2	4.0 \pm 0.5

249

250 Peak position for Ti2p_{3/2} was found at 458.7 \pm 0.1 eV, compatible with TiO₂³⁴ (Figure S1 in
 251 Supplementary Material). In general, oxide surface deposition processes seemed successful
 252 considering the metal percentage on the surface. Analysis of Cu2p_{3/2} HR region has shown that
 253 copper is mainly present as Cu(I) (BE = 932.6 \pm 0.2 eV) and only 0.5% is ascribable to Cu(II) (BE =
 254 934.5 \pm 0.2 eV) (Figure 4a)³⁴. V2p_{3/2} component in V2p region (Figure 4b) was fitted with a minor
 255 peak at BE = 515.9 \pm 0.2 eV, typical of V³⁺/V⁴⁺, and the main at BE = 517.0 \pm 0.2 eV attributed to
 256 V₂O₅ indicating the possible presence of polyvanadates³⁵. Fe speciation by XPS analysis is more
 257 difficult though Fe2p_{3/2} position at about 710.7 eV is compatible with Fe(III) species (such as Fe₂O₃
 258 or FeOOH), similar to other reported photocatalysts^{36, 37}, but the presence of Fe(II) cannot be
 259 excluded (Figure S2 in Supplementary Material).

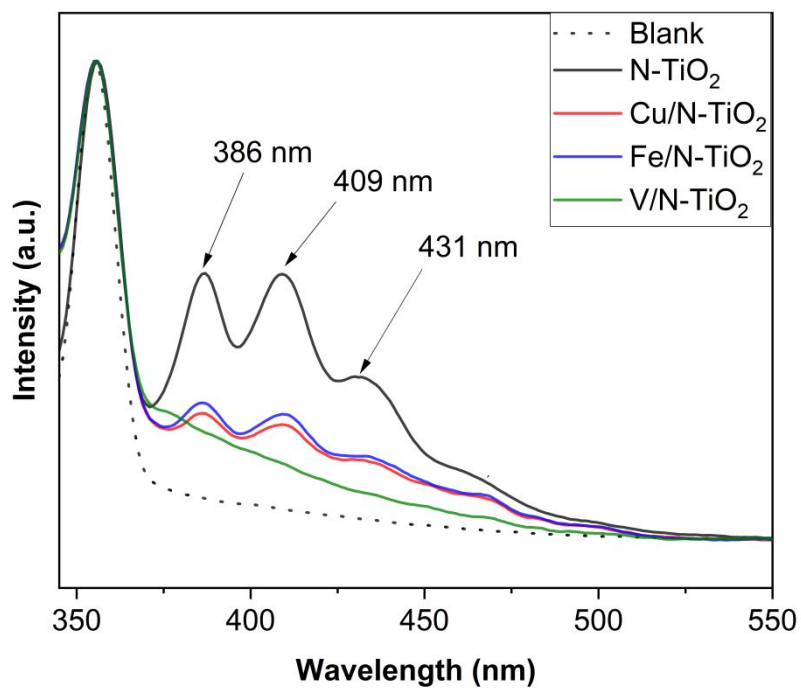


260

261 **Figure 4.** Typical $\text{Cu}2p_{3/2}$ spectrum relevant to $\text{Cu}/\text{N-TiO}_2$ samples (a); $\text{V}2p$ region relevant to $\text{V}/\text{N-TiO}_2$
 262 powders (b).

263

264 The fluorescence spectra of all the photocatalysts are reported in Figure 5.



265

266 **Figure 5.** Fluorescence spectra of N-TiO₂ (black line), Cu/N-TiO₂ (red line), Fe/N-TiO₂ (blue line), and
267 V/N-TiO₂ (green line) samples dispersed in cyclohexane. The dashed spectrum is the signal acquired in the
268 presence of neat cyclohexane. All of the spectra have been normalized with respect to this signal. Excitation
269 wavelength: 325 nm.
270

271 N-TiO₂ sample shows a broad emission band with well-resolved emission features centered at 386,
272 409, and 431 nm. The signal at 386 nm has been assigned to band-to-band recombination of TiO₂
273 anatase phase^{38, 39}. Peaks at 409 and 431 nm can be assigned to emission originating from intra-
274 band gap energy states related to oxygen vacancies or nitrogen sites, according to the relevant
275 literature⁴⁰⁻⁴². Notably, the signal at 409 nm is also consistent with band-to-band emission of TiO₂
276 rutile phase⁴³, which is present in traces according to WAXD analysis. All of the mixed oxide
277 catalytic systems show lower emission with respect to N-TiO₂ sample, thus indicating lower charge
278 recombination possibly due to interfacial electron transfer between the component oxides, resulting
279 in improved spatial charge separation and longer lifetime of the photogenerated charges⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶.

280 The BET specific surface area (S_{BET}) and the anatase average crystallite size of the samples
281 (calculated by using the Scherrer equation) are reported in Table 2. Cu/N-TiO₂ and Fe/N-TiO₂
282 showed an S_{BET} lower than that of the N-TiO₂ sample. This result is in agreement with the higher
283 crystallite size of these two samples with respect to the value observed for the N-TiO₂
284 photocatalyst.

285 The optical properties of the photocatalysts have been investigated by evaluating their band gap
286 energy according to the Kubelka-Munk theory, assuming that they are indirect semiconductors. In
287 order to highlight the extent of the electronic interaction between the component oxides, the same
288 analysis has been carried out on mechanical mixtures of the oxides by using the same weight
289 percent of the synthesized powders. Results are reported in Figure 6.

290 Firstly, it is worth mentioning that the N-TiO₂ sample exhibits improved optical properties in the
291 visible region (Figure 6) with a reduction of band-gap value (E_{bg}) from 3.20 eV (the typical band-
292 gap of undoped TiO₂)⁴⁷ to 2.25 eV (Table 2). The narrow band-gap value of N-TiO₂ is attributed to
293 the presence of nitrogen in the TiO₂ lattice¹⁹. The synthesized mixed oxide catalytic systems show
294 E_{bg} values lower than N-TiO₂ (Table 2) due to the contribution of the transition metal oxides (both
295 band-to-band and d-d transitions occurring in the visible light range) loaded onto the N-TiO₂
296 sample. By comparing the Tauc plots of the synthesized mixed oxide samples with those of the
297 mechanical mixtures, it is possible to observe a red shift of the absorption edge for all of the
298 synthesized mixed oxide samples, which is particularly relevant for the Cu/N-TiO₂ one.

299 This behavior has been already reported in the relevant literature for strongly interacting electronic
300 systems, in which an extended alteration of the electronic structure of the mixed phase with respect
301 to the components can be observed. This is reported for instance in vanadium, chromium, iron or
302 nickel-doped TiO₂ prepared by ion implantation⁴⁸, for GaN–ZnO solid solutions⁴⁹, and for mixed
303 ZnO–Fe₂O₃ photocatalysts⁵⁰.

304 The red shift observed in the synthesized mixed oxide samples with respect to the mechanical
305 mixtures may due to a strong interaction between N-TiO₂ and the oxides dispersed on its surface. In
306 particular, for TiO₂–Fe₂O₃ systems the effective mixing between the surface Fe³⁺ and O2p levels,
307 due to the Ti–O–Fe interfacial bond yielding surface sub-bands, has been reported⁵¹. A similar
308 mechanism can be inferred in the case of V/N-TiO₂ and Cu/N-TiO₂ samples. However, in the Cu/N-
309 TiO₂ case the red shift of the absorption edge is ca. three times higher with respect to the other
310 samples, thus indicating a stronger electronic interaction between the component oxides, and an
311 improved visible light absorption capability.

312

313

Table 2. Crystallite size, specific surface area (S_{BET}), and band gap (E_{bg}) of all of the prepared samples.

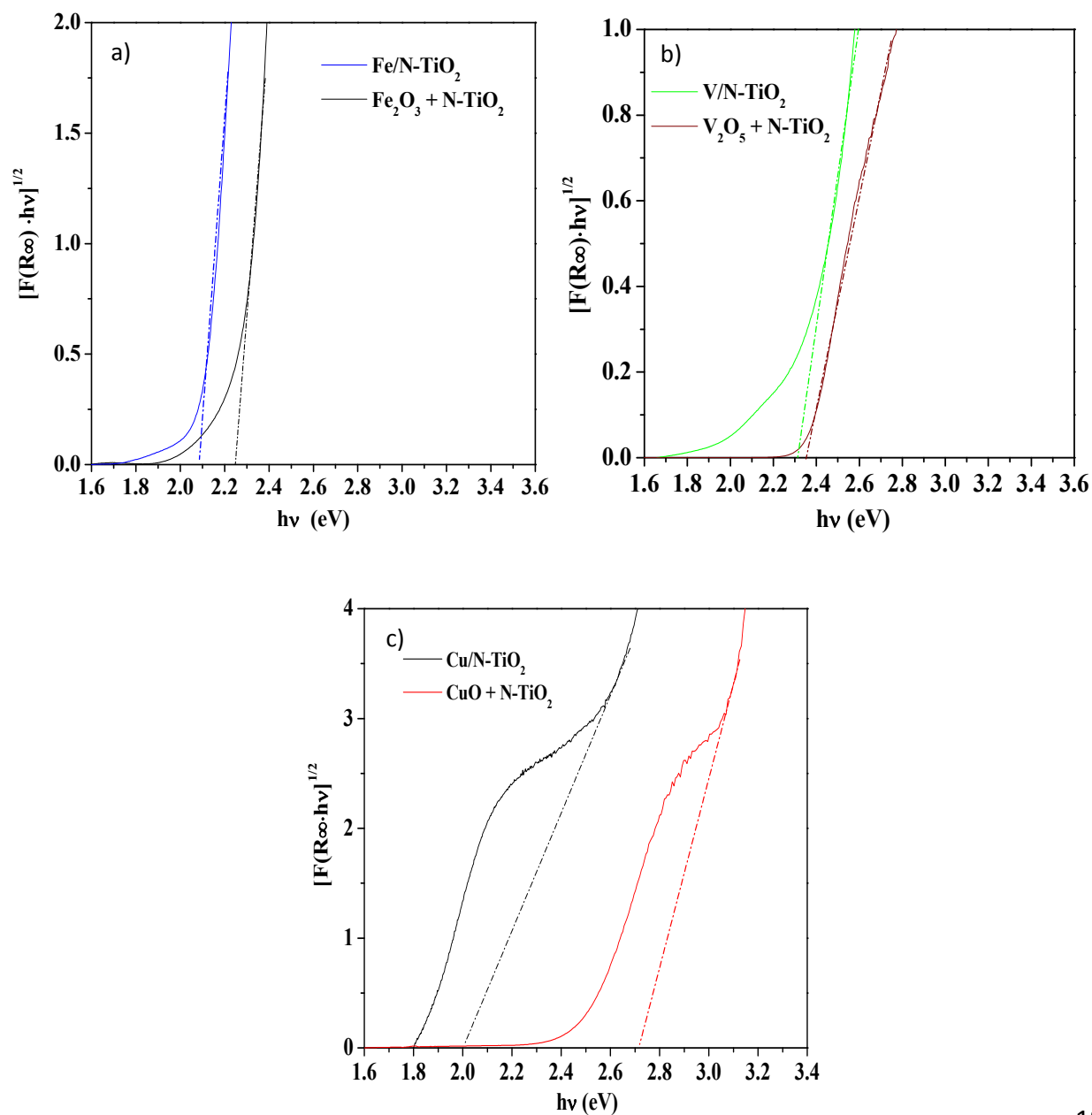
Catalyst	Crystallite size (nm)	E_{bg} (eV)indirect	S_{BET} (m ² /g)
N-TiO ₂	16	2.25*	30
Cu/N-TiO ₂	9	2.00	34
Fe/N-TiO ₂	10	2.10	42
V/N-TiO ₂	10	2.30	30

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328 **Figure 6.** Tauc plots of Fe/N-TiO₂ (blue line), mechanical mixture Fe₂O₃ + N-TiO₂ (grey line) (a), V/N-TiO₂
329 (green line), mechanical mixture V₂O₅ + N-TiO₂ (brown line) (b), Cu/N-TiO₂ (black line) mechanical
330 mixture CuO + N-TiO₂ (red line) (c).

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333 **3.2 Photocatalytic activity results**

334 **3.2.1 Visible light-driven benzene hydroxylation with Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂** 335 **photocatalysts**

336 It is worth pointing out that N-TiO₂ photocatalyst showed a high benzene conversion (62%) without
337 phenol formation, as already reported in previous studies¹⁸. Therefore, the visible light-driven
338 benzene oxidation was performed using Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ photocatalysts in
339 order to test the possibility of providing higher selectivity towards phenol. The benzene relative
340 concentration and phenol yield as a function of run time with Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂
341 photocatalysts are reported in Figure 7.

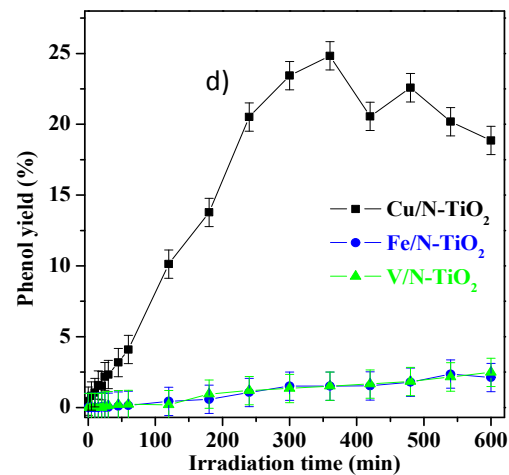
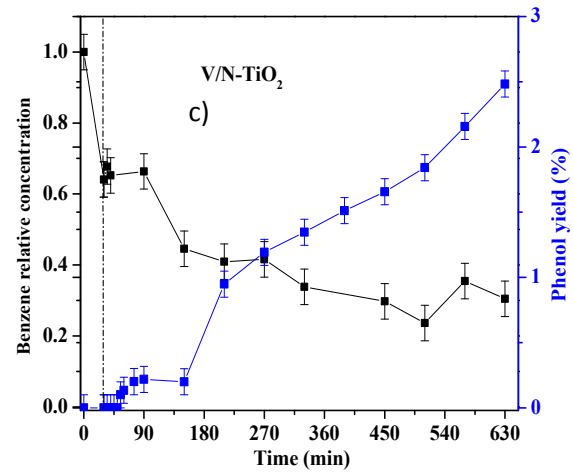
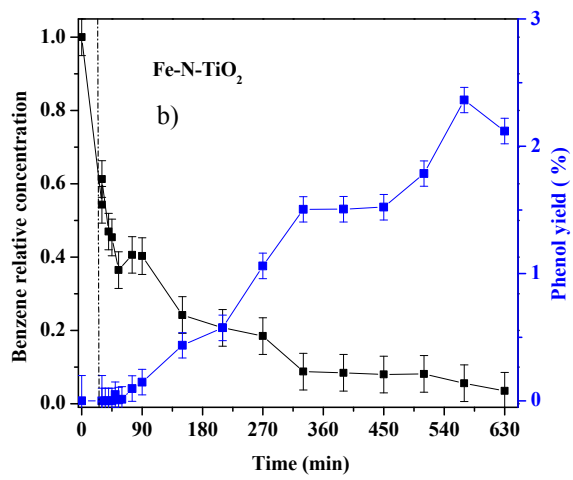
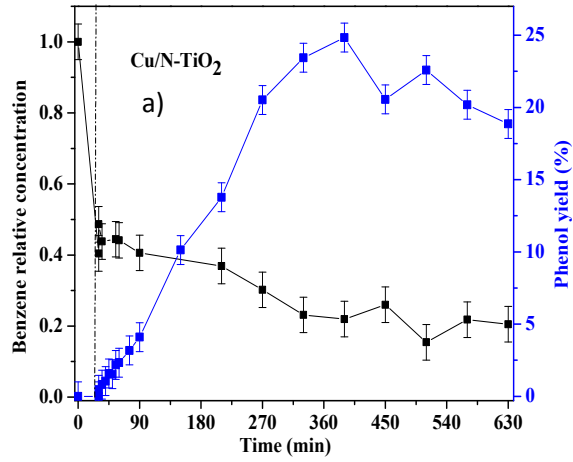
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353 **Figure 7.** Benzene relative concentration and phenol yield as a function of run time, in dark (up to the dotted
354 line) and under visible light, using Cu/N-TiO₂ (a), Fe/N-TiO₂ (b) and V/N-TiO₂ (c) photocatalysts. Phenol
355 yield as a function of visible irradiation using Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ photocatalysts (d).
356

357 In the absence of visible light (dark condition), benzene is adsorbed on Cu/N-TiO₂ surface for
358 almost 50% in 30 min (Figure 7a). Despite the presence of H₂O₂ as oxidant, phenol was not
359 produced under dark conditions, indicating that no direct H₂O₂-mediated oxidation occurred. When
360 visible LEDs were switched on, benzene was converted and, consequently, its relative concentration
361 decreased with irradiation time (Figure 7a). Phenol yield gradually increased during irradiation
362 time, reaching a maximum value of 25% after 360 min of irradiation, and then it decreased up to a
363 value of 19% at the end of the test (600 min of visible light). Fe/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst adsorbed
364 benzene for about 46% after 30 min in dark condition (Figure 7b). As the reactor was irradiated
365 with visible LEDs, the reaction has begun, the benzene was converted and the phenol yield was 2%
366 at the end of the test (600 min of visible irradiation). Similarly, V/N-TiO₂ adsorbed benzene in the
367 dark up to 36% (Figure 7c) and, when the photoreaction started, a progressive decrease of benzene
368 relative concentration could be observed providing a phenol yield of about 2.5% after 600 min of
369 irradiation time. For the sake of comparison, Figure 7d shows the phenol yield as a function of
370 irradiation time obtained with Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ samples. It is evident that the
371 maximum yield obtained in the presence of the Cu/N-TiO₂ sample (25%) was remarkably higher
372 than that obtained in the presence of the Fe/N-TiO₂ (2%) and V/N-TiO₂ (2.5%) samples.

373 Table 3 summarizes the values of benzene conversion, and yield and selectivity towards phenol and
374 other oxidation products in the presence of N-TiO₂ alone and coupled with the three considered
375 oxides.

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Table 3. Benzene conversion, selectivity to phenol and CO₂ and other ring-opened compounds, yield to phenol, hydroquinone, catechol and resorcinol obtained using N-TiO₂, Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ V/N-TiO₂ powder after 600 min of visible light irradiation.

<i>Catalyst</i>	<i>B_zconv</i>	<i>Y_{phenol}</i>	<i>Y_{hydroquinone}</i>	<i>Y_{catechol}</i>	<i>Y_{resorcinol}</i>	<i>Y_{p-benzoquinone}</i>	<i>S_{phenol}</i>	<i>S_{Deg}</i>
N-TiO ₂	62%	n.d	<1%	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	>98%
Cu/N-TiO ₂	82%	19%	2%	11%	<1%	5%	23%	63%
Fe/N-TiO ₂	94%	2%	<1%	n.d	n.d	<1%	2%	97.4%
V/N-TiO ₂	71%	2.5%	<1%	<1%	n.d	<1%	3.5%	96.3%

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383 The conversion values obtained in the presence of the three mixed oxides catalytic systems are
384 roughly similar, ranging between 71 and 94%. This agrees with the results of photoluminescence,
385 which show similar suppression of fluorescence for all of the samples, suggesting an efficient
386 spatial charge separation taking place at the interface between the component oxides, as reported in
387 the relevant literature for similar systems⁵². However, phenol selectivity and yield using Cu/N-TiO₂
388 are higher than those obtained with Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ under visible light. The phenol yield
389 achieved with Cu/N-TiO₂ was higher than that observed with TiO₂-based photocatalysts reported in
390 the literature (Table 4). Indeed, under UV light, in most cases the phenol yield was in the range
391 0.76-16%, lower than that of Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst (25% after 360 min of visible light
392 irradiation). A phenol yield equal to 25.2% was observed on TiO₂ modified with iron and chromium
393 but after 12 h of reaction time and with a benzene conversion (28%)⁵³ lower than that achieved with
394 Cu/N-TiO₂ (82 % after 600 min of visible light irradiation). It is worth noting to underline that the
395 literature about the visible-light driven hydroxylation of benzene to phenol in presence of TiO₂
396 based photocatalysts is still scarce.

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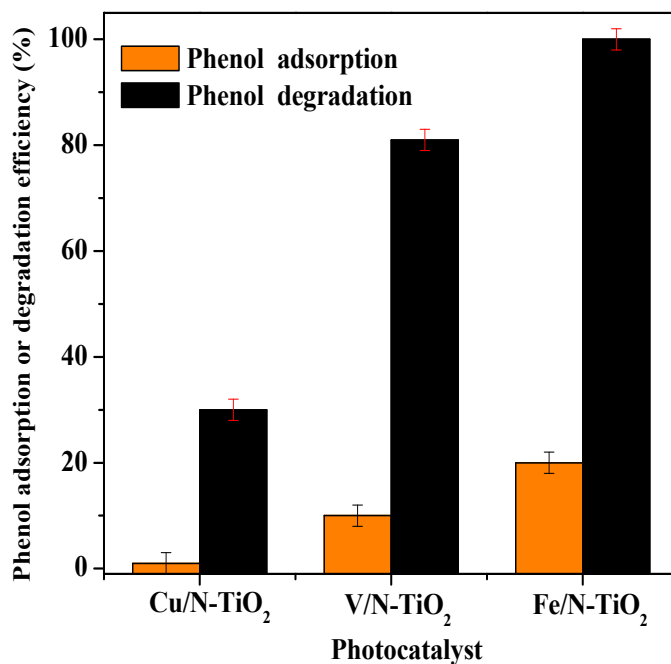
398 **Table.4** Comparison with literature papers dealing with different photocatalysts for benzene
 399 hydroxylation.

Catalyst	Light source	Time of exposure (h)	Photocatalyst dosage (g/L)	Photocatalyst reusability	Benzene conversion (%)	Phenol yield (%)	Ref
Au/Ti _{0.98} V _{0.02} O ₂	UV	18	6	Not reported	18	15.9	¹⁶
Au/Ti _{0.98} V _{0.02} O ₂	visible	18	6	Not reported	-	2	¹⁶
Fe/TiO ₂	UV	4	2.5	Not reported	1.2	1.08	¹⁷
V/TiO ₂	UV	4	2.5	Not reported	0.9	0.76	¹⁷
Cu/TiO ₂	UV	4	2.5	Not reported	1	0.88	¹⁷
Fe/TiO ₂	UV	1-2	10	Not reported	-	9-15	⁵⁴
TiO ₂	UV	4	1	Not reported	-	2.6	¹⁴
Pt/TiO ₂	UV	4	1	Not reported	-	2.2	¹⁴
Pd/TiO ₂	UV	4	1	Not reported	-	3.3	¹⁴
F/TiO ₂	UV	4	1	Not reported	-	3.3	¹⁴
Fe-Cr/TiO ₂	UV	12	6	Stable after three reuse cycles	28	25.2	⁵³
Fe-V-Cu/TiO ₂	UV	4	2.5	Not reported	14.3	9.7	⁵⁵
Cu/N-TiO ₂	visible	6	0.15	Stable after four reuse cycles	56	25	This work

400

401 To explain the higher phenol selectivity and yield achieved with the copper-based photocatalyst, the
 402 activity of Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ photocatalysts was tested for phenol degradation
 403 under visible light as described in the experimental part. Results are reported in Figure 8 along with
 404 the adsorption percentage of phenol under dark conditions, for each photocatalytic sample. Notably,

405 as reported in the literature, under the same experimental conditions, N-TiO₂ leads to 77% phenol
406 degradation after 180 min visible light irradiation ⁵⁶. However, Figure 8 shows that Fe/N-TiO₂ was
407 the photocatalyst capable of completely degrading phenol. On the contrary, Cu/N-TiO₂ was the less
408 active photocatalyst in the phenol degradation, achieving a very low degradation efficiency of
409 phenol equal to 30% after 180 min of visible light irradiation. A similar trend is apparent as far as
410 the dark adsorption results are concerned. In fact, phenol adsorption under dark conditions is
411 negligible in the presence of Cu/N-TiO₂, while it reaches values of 10 and 20% for V/N-TiO₂ and
412 Fe/N-TiO₂, respectively. By summarizing, while all the three mixed oxides catalytic systems show a
413 similar benzene conversion (Figure 7a, b and c), marked differences among them arise as far as the
414 phenol degradation and dark adsorption are concerned, which follows the order Fe/N-TiO₂ > V/N-
415 TiO₂ > Cu/N-TiO₂ (Figure 8). An opposite trend is observed when considering the selectivity
416 towards phenol, which is, instead, the highest for the Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst. These results can be
417 justified by considering the almost negligible interaction between phenol and the surface of Cu/N-
418 TiO₂ in agreement with the dark adsorption results. Once photocatalytically generated, therefore, the
419 overoxidation of phenol is limited by its favored desorption from the surface of the photocatalyst,
420 thus resulting in its accumulation in the reaction medium. Notably, as often reported for similar
421 photocatalytic systems, also in the case of phenol degradation an inverse relationship between
422 oxidizing capability and selectivity can be observed ⁵⁷, as a result of the peculiar interaction
423 between a target compound and the surface of the photocatalyst. Therefore, also for the present
424 photocatalytic system, surface phenomena play a key role in determining the selectivity of a
425 photocatalytic reaction ⁵⁸.



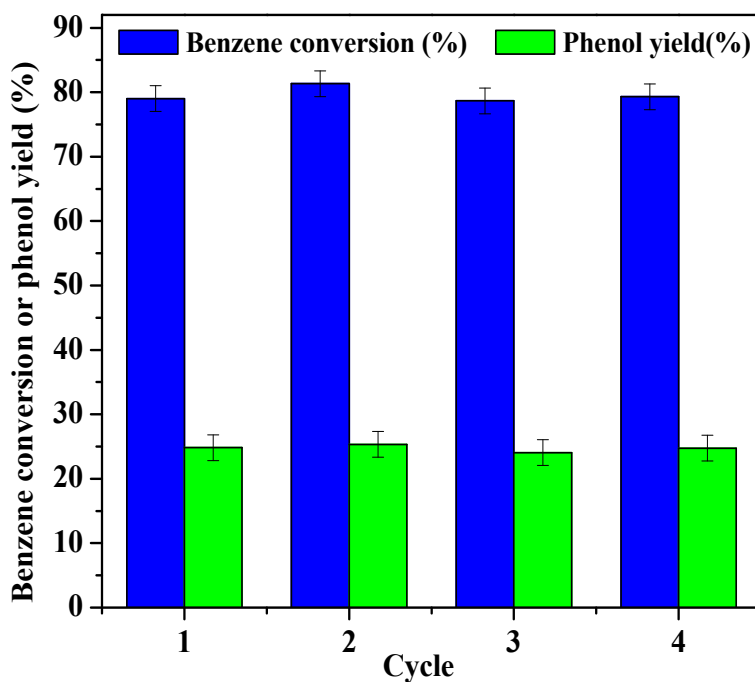
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427 **Figure 8.** Phenol degradation efficiency after 180 min of visible light irradiation using Cu/N-TiO₂, V/N-TiO₂
428 and Fe/N-TiO₂ photocatalysts.

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430 The stability trend of Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst was confirmed by performing a series of consecutive
431 photocatalytic oxidation tests in which, after each run, the material was recovered by centrifugation,
432 dried at room temperature for 24 hours and reused in a new catalytic cycle. Based on this procedure,
433 four reuse cycles were carried out under visible LEDs irradiation using the photocatalyst optimized
434 in this work. As shown in Figure 9, no significant decrease in both benzene conversion and phenol

435 yield was observed in all the reuse cycles, proving the stability of the Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst.



436

437 **Figure 9.** Benzene conversion and phenol yield after 360 min of visible light irradiation for different reuse
438 cycles using Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst.

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440 The WAXD analysis was performed on the Cu/N-TiO₂ recovered from the photoreactor after four
441 reuse cycles (Figure 10).

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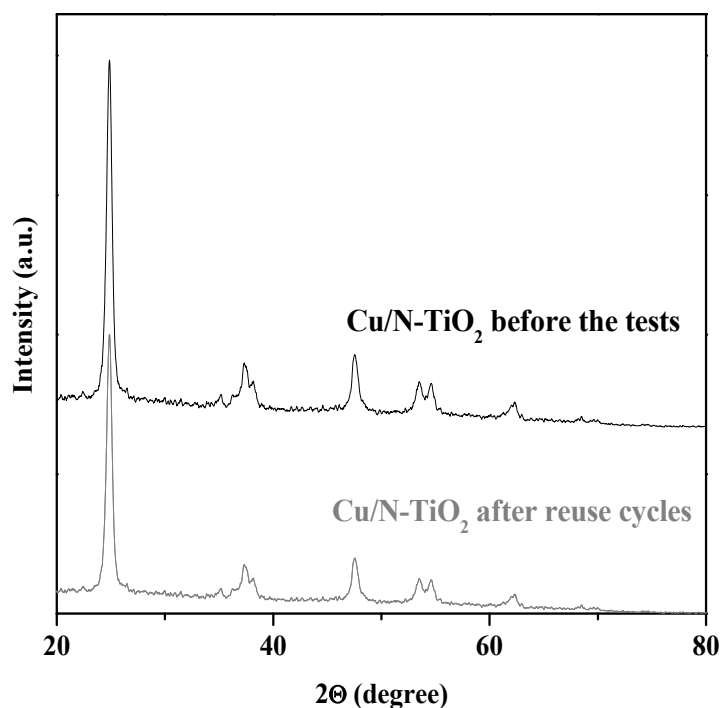


Figure 10. Wide angle X-ray diffraction (WAXD) patterns of Cu/N-TiO₂ before the photocatalytic tests and after four reuse cycles.

No substantial difference with respect to the WAXD spectrum of the catalyst before its use was observed, confirming the stability of Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst in the hydroxylation of benzene.

3.2.3 Kinetic modelling of benzene hydroxylation using Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ photocatalysts

The experimental data together with the concentration of by-products detected by HPLC analysis (Figure S3 in Supplementary Material) were used for the kinetic modeling of the three mixed oxide photocatalysts in order to calculate the phenol production kinetic constant for each photocatalytic system.

477 The main problem of the benzene (BZ) hydroxylation to phenol (PhOH) is related to the
478 consecutive reactions, which lead to by-products such as hydroquinone (HQ), benzoquinone (BQ),
479 catechol (CT), resorcinol (RS) and other ring opening products and eventually CO₂. The identified
480 reaction paths are shown in **Figure 11**. When the benzene photocatalytic hydroxylation occurs using
481 Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst, the production of all by-products can be observed according to the
482 reaction mechanism shown in Figure 11a. On the other hand, Fe/N-TiO₂ does not provide detectable
483 production of catechol (CT) and resorcinol (RS), suggesting that the route of addition of hydroxyl
484 groups to benzene takes place preferentially in the para position (**Figure 11b**). Instead, V/N-TiO₂
485 photocatalyst leads to the production of phenol and the other by-products, except resorcinol (**Figure**
486 **11c**).

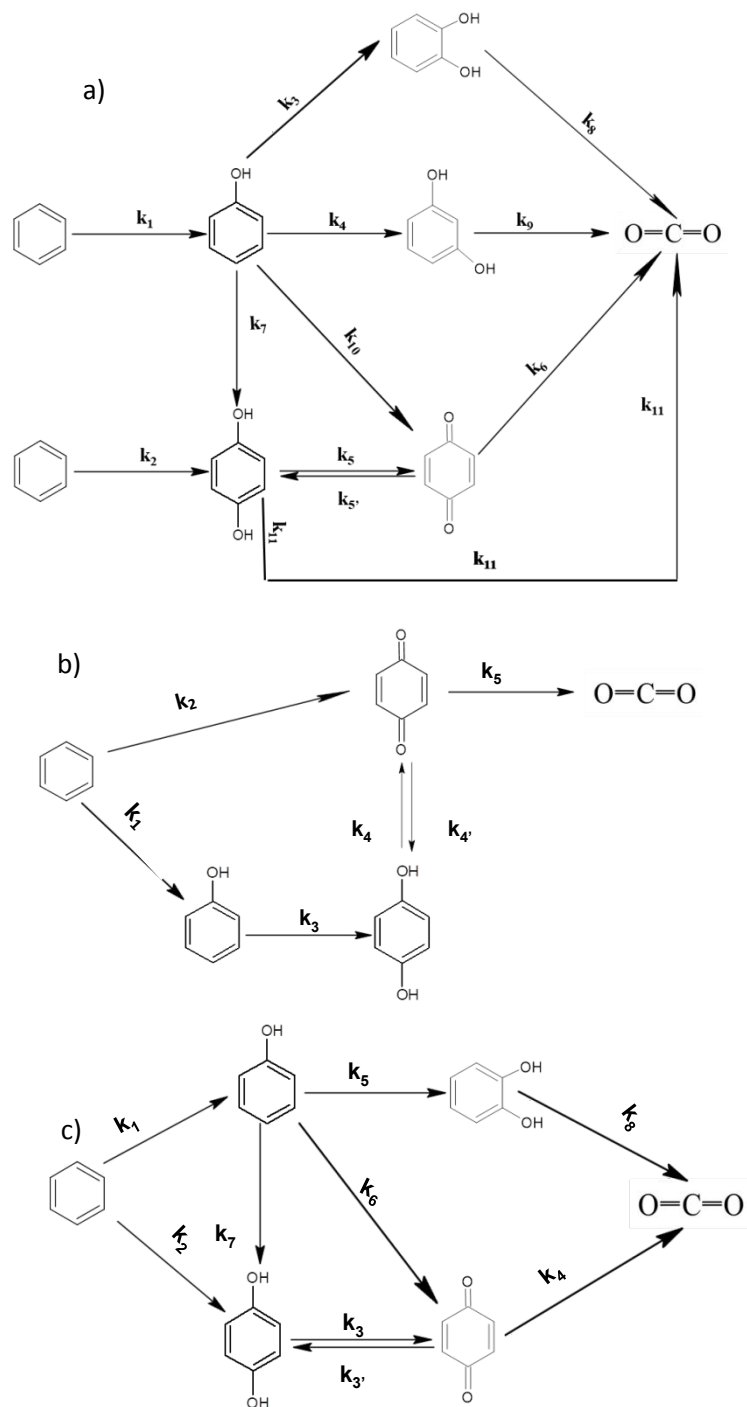
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Figure 11. Reaction paths hypothesized for the photocatalytic conversion of benzene with Cu/N-TiO₂ (a), Fe/N-TiO₂ (b) and V/N-TiO₂ (c).

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510 More in detail, under visible light irradiation and in the presence of Cu/N-TiO₂, benzene is directly
511 hydroxylated to phenol and HQ. The oxidative conditions of the system lead to the conversion of
512 HQ to BQ, but the equilibrium reaction between these two species in the aqueous system cannot be
513 excluded, as reported in some literature papers ⁵⁹. On the other hand, the production of BQ may
514 occur from phenol, since the •OH radical is highly reactive ⁵⁹⁻⁶¹. The concentration of BQ and CA
515 reached appreciable values with respect to the HQ and RS concentration only with the Cu/N-TiO₂
516 photocatalyst. Therefore, it is hypothesized that CA and RS are produced by phenol hydroxylation
517 (Figure 11a).

518 Phenol and BQ can be produced by benzene in the presence of irradiated Fe/N-TiO₂, as shown from
519 HPLC analysis (see Supplementary Materials) and consistently with the literature dealing with the
520 oxidation of benzene in presence of copper-based catalysts ^{62, 63}. HQ can be formed from phenol.
521 Then, HQ is further oxidized to BQ. Also, in this case, the equilibrium reaction between HQ and
522 BQ cannot be excluded (Figure 11b). In the same reaction conditions with V/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst,
523 benzene is directly converted to phenol and HQ that can be further oxidized to BQ. HQ can be
524 produced from benzene and phenol. Consequently, phenol can give CA, HQ and can be directly
525 oxidized to BQ (Figure 11c).

526 Considering the reaction schemes proposed in Figure 11, a kinetic model for the photocatalytic
527 hydroxylation of benzene is developed, considering first-order kinetics for all the reactions involved
528 in the system ⁵⁹ [. The mass balance equations for Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst are given below:

$$529 \frac{dC_{Bz}}{dt} = -k_1C_{Bz} - k_2C_{Bz} \quad (4)$$

530

$$531 \quad \frac{dC_{PhOH}}{dt} = k_1C_{Bz} - k_4C_{PhOH} - k_7C_{PhOH} - k_3C_{PhOH} - k_{10}C_{PhOH} \quad (5)$$

$$532 \quad \frac{dC_{HQ}}{dt} = -k_5C_{HQ} + k_2C_{Bz} + k_7C_{PhOH} + k'_5C_{BQ} - k_{11}C_{HQ} \quad (6)$$

$$534 \quad \frac{dC_{CT}}{dt} = k_3C_{PhOH} - k_8C_{CT} \quad (7)$$

$$535 \quad \frac{dC_{RS}}{dt} = k_4C_{PhOH} - k_9C_{RS} \quad (8)$$

$$536 \quad \frac{dC_{BQ}}{dt} = k_5C_{HQ} - k_6C_{Bz} - k'_5C_{Bz} + k_{10}C_{PhOH} \quad (9)$$

$$537 \quad \frac{dC_{CO_2}}{dt} = 6 * k_6C_{BQ} + 6 * k_8C_{CT} + 6 * k_9C_{RS} + 6 * k_{11}C_{HQ} \quad (10)$$

543

544 The mass balance equations for Fe/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst are reported below:

$$545 \quad \frac{dC_{Bz}}{dt} = -k_1C_{Bz} - k_2C_{Bz} \quad (11)$$

$$546 \quad \frac{dC_{PhOH}}{dt} = k_1C_{Bz} - k_3C_{PhOH} \quad (12)$$

$$547 \quad \frac{dC_{HQ}}{dt} = k_3C_{PhOH} - k_4C_{HQ} + k'_4C_{BQ} \quad (13)$$

$$548 \quad \frac{dC_{BQ}}{dt} = k_2C_{Bz} - k_5C_{BQ} + k_4C_{HQ} - k'_4C_{BQ} \quad (14)$$

$$549 \quad \frac{dC_{CO_2}}{dt} = 6 * k_5C_{BQ} \quad (15)$$

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556 For V/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst, the mass balance equations are the following:

$$557 \quad \frac{dC_{Bz}}{dt} = -k_1C_{Bz} - k_2C_{Bz} \quad (16)$$

$$558 \quad \frac{dC_{PhOH}}{dt} = k_1C_{Bz} - k_5C_{PhOH} - k_7C_{PhOH} - k_8C_{PhOH} \quad (17)$$

$$560 \quad \frac{dC_{HQ}}{dt} = -k_3C_{HQ} + k_2C_{Bz} + k_7C_{PhOH} + k'_3C_{BQ} \quad (18)$$

$$562 \quad \frac{dC_{CT}}{dt} = k_5C_{PhOH} - k_6C_{CT} \quad (19)$$

$$564 \quad \frac{dC_{BQ}}{dt} = k_3C_{HQ} - k_4C_{BQ} - k'_3C_{Bz} + k_8C_{PhOH} \quad (20)$$

$$566 \quad \frac{dC_{CO_2}}{dt} = 6 * k_4C_{BQ} + 6 * k_6C_{CT} \quad (21)$$

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570 The differential equations for each photocatalyst are solved considering the initial condition:

$$571 \quad t=0 \quad C_{Bz}=C_{Bz_0}$$

$$572 \quad t=0 \quad C_{phOH}=C_{HQ}=C_{BQ}=C_{CT}=C_{CO_2}=0$$

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574 The system of differential equations was solved by a numerical procedure using the Euler method.

575 It is the most basic explicit method for the numerical integration of ordinary differential equations

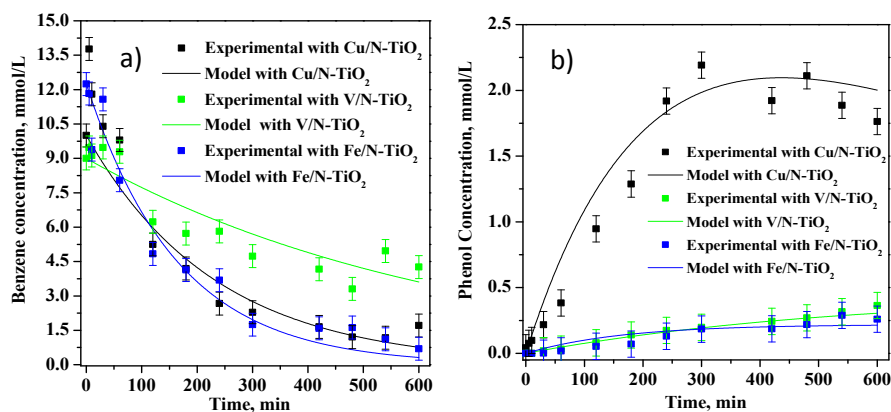
576 (ODEs) with a given initial value. The values of the apparent kinetic constant for each reaction were

577 attained by using the least-squares approach, minimizing the sum of squared residuals between the

578 experimental data acquired at different irradiation times and the values provided by the model. The

579 comparison between the model and experimental results is reported in **Figure 12**.

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Figure 12. Comparison between model calculation and experimental data to find the model oxidation constant k for benzene concentration (mmol/L) (a); phenol concentration (mmol/L) as a function of time obtained with Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ under visible light (b).

587 **Table 5** shows the kinetic constants for phenol production (k_1).

588

589 **Table 5.** Phenol production kinetic constants (k_1) derived from the proposed mechanism for photocatalytic hydroxylation of benzene considering Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂ samples.

591

Photocatalyst	k_1 (min ⁻¹)
Cu/N-TiO ₂	$1.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$
Fe/N-TiO ₂	$1.09 \cdot 10^{-4}$
V/N-TiO ₂	$9.21 \cdot 10^{-5}$

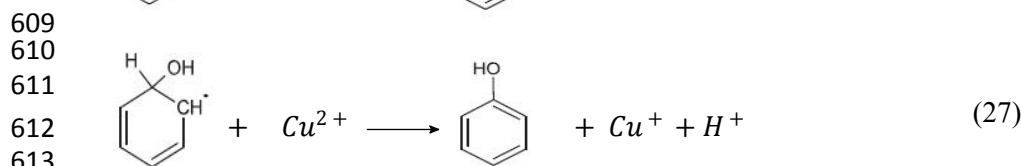
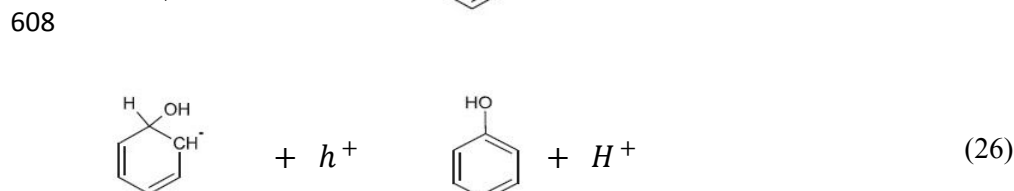
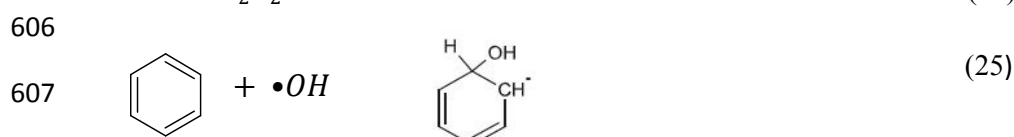
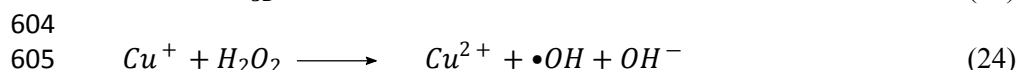
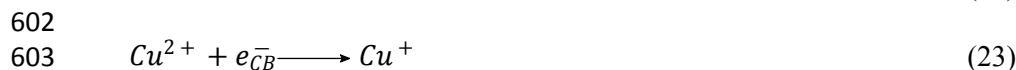
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593 The values of the phenol production kinetic constants evidenced that the Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst
594 showed the highest rate of phenol formation with respect to the other formulated photocatalysts.

595 Ultimately, Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst is more effective as it produces phenol faster than the other
596 formulated photocatalysts and it allows achieving the highest phenol yield (19%) and selectivity to
597 phenol (23%) after 600 min of visible light irradiation.

598 Considering the mechanisms reported in the available literature^{53, 64-66}, it is possible to argue that
599 the oxidation of benzene to phenol on Cu/N-TiO₂ may occur through the following reactions:

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616 The hole-electron pairs are produced from the activation of the transition metal oxides or N-TiO₂
617 (Eq. 22) under irradiation. Cupric ions could react with the photogenerated electrons, producing
618 cuprous ions (Eq. 23). Therefore, Cu⁺ ions could be re-oxidized to Cu²⁺ by H₂O₂, generating •OH
619 (Eq. 24). The hydroxyl radical reacts with benzene to generate hydroxylated benzene radical (Eq.
620 25), which is then oxidized by a positive hole (Eq. 25) or by Cu²⁺ (Eq. 26) on the photocatalyst
621 surface and deprotonated, eventually producing phenol.

622

623 4. Conclusions

624 Transition metal oxides supported on N-TiO₂ (Cu/N-TiO₂, Fe/N-TiO₂, and V/N-TiO₂) were
625 synthesized by incipient wet impregnation and their physico-chemical properties were studied by
626 means of different characterization techniques. Wide-angle X-ray diffraction patterns and Raman
627 spectra showed the presence of signals typical of the anatase crystalline phase for all of the

628 synthesized samples. In the diffraction pattern of Cu/N-TiO₂ additional peak related to CuO phase
629 was observed. Additionally, from Raman analysis of V/N-TiO₂ sample, bands assigned to the
630 presence of polyvanadates dispersed on the surface were detected. Fluorescence spectra indicated
631 an efficient suppression of the charge recombination for all of the mixed oxide catalytic systems.
632 However, UV-vis spectra evidenced significant electronic interactions between N-TiO₂ and the
633 copper oxide, resulting in a remarkable red shift of the absorption edge for the Cu/N-TiO₂ with
634 respect to the Fe/N-TiO₂, and V/N-TiO₂ samples. The obtained mixed oxide photocatalytic systems
635 were employed for the benzene to phenol conversion reaction in presence of H₂O₂ and under visible
636 light. N-TiO₂ showed high benzene conversion (62%) without phenol formation under visible light.
637 A maximum yield towards phenol of ca. 25% was achieved in the presence of Cu/N-TiO₂,
638 significantly higher than that observed with Fe/N-TiO₂ (2%) and V/N-TiO₂ (2.5%). Cu/N-TiO₂
639 photocatalyst is more effective as it produces phenol faster than the other formulated photocatalysts
640 and it allows achieving phenol in a selective way (after 600 min, selectivity of 23% with high
641 benzene conversion of 82%). The superior performance of the Cu/N-TiO₂ sample can be ascribed
642 partially to the better optical absorption but especially to the low affinity of phenol with the copper
643 oxide component. Indeed, the photocatalytic degradation of phenol was the slowest in the presence
644 of Cu/N-TiO₂ photocatalyst, which, on the other hand, showed the highest performance in the
645 hydroxylation of benzene to phenol compared to Fe/N-TiO₂ and V/N-TiO₂. Finally, Cu/N-TiO₂
646 proved to be a very stable catalytic material as any significant decrease both in the conversion of
647 benzene and in the phenol yield after four cycles of reuse was evidenced. **Based on the results**
648 **achieved in this work, for the possible industrialization of a catalytic reactor devoted to the**
649 **hydroxylation of benzene to phenol in the liquid phase, it is necessary to develop a fixed-bed**

650 photoreactor in which a structured catalyst, realized through the immobilization of Cu/N-TiO₂
651 photocatalyst on a macroscopic support, is placed. This could prevent a further separation step of
652 the catalytic powders from the liquid medium at the end of the oxidation phase. Moreover, it could
653 be affordable to design efficient and low-cost systems for separating and recovering phenol from
654 the liquid phase, as reported for similar partial oxidation reactions⁶⁷.

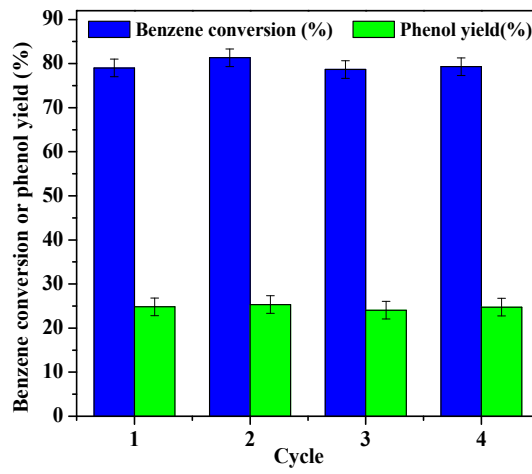
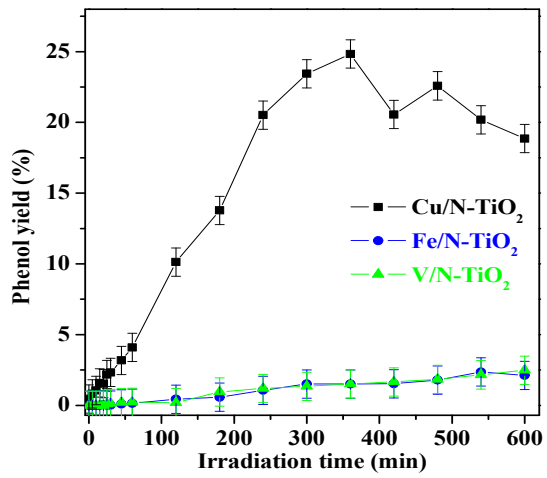
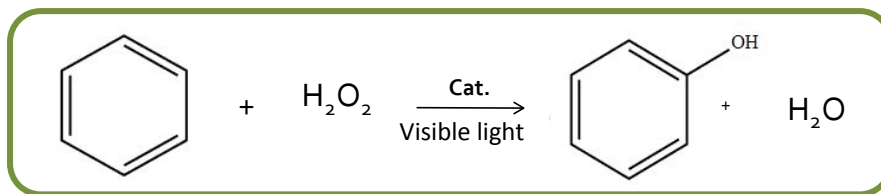
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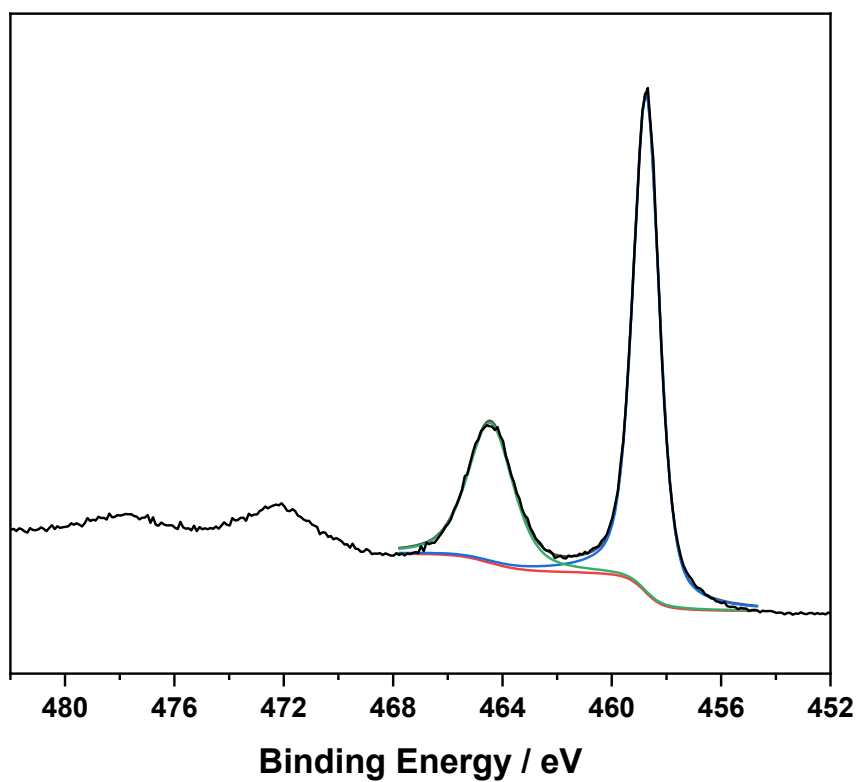


Figure S1. Ti2p region for N-TiO₂ samples.

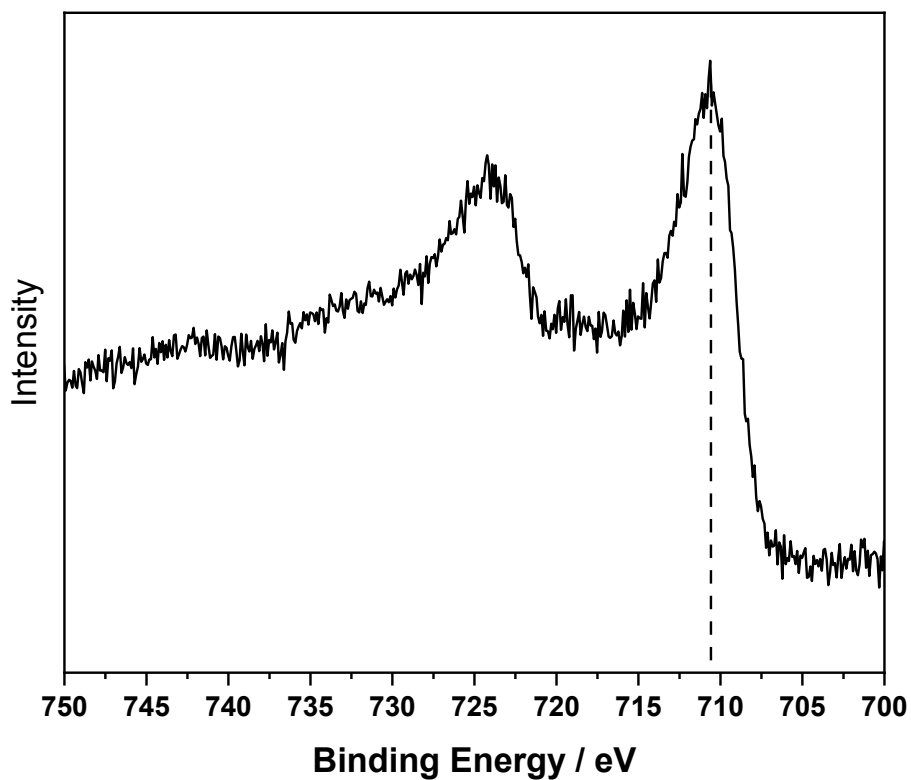
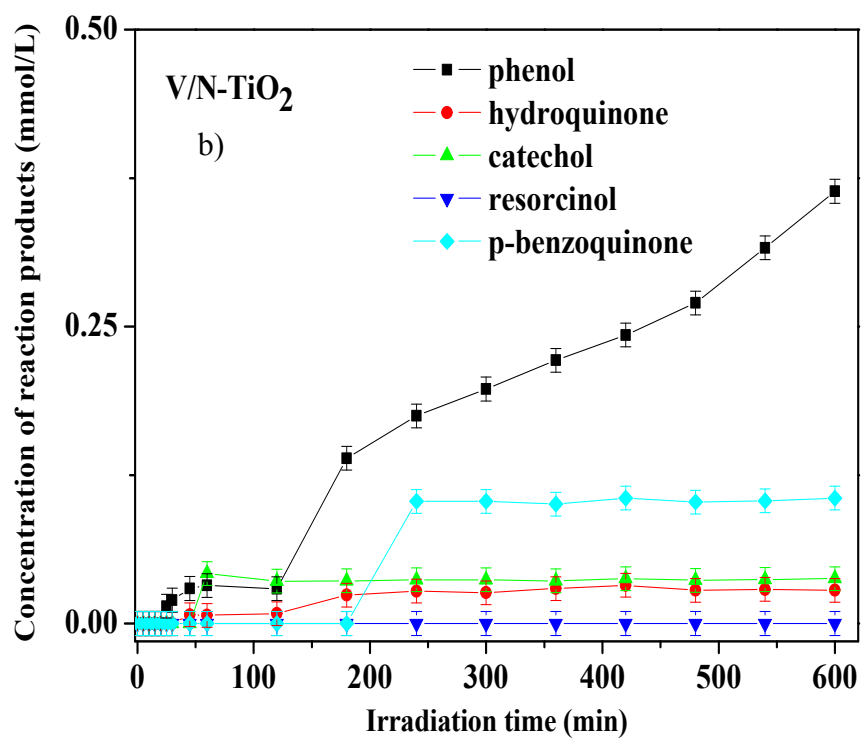
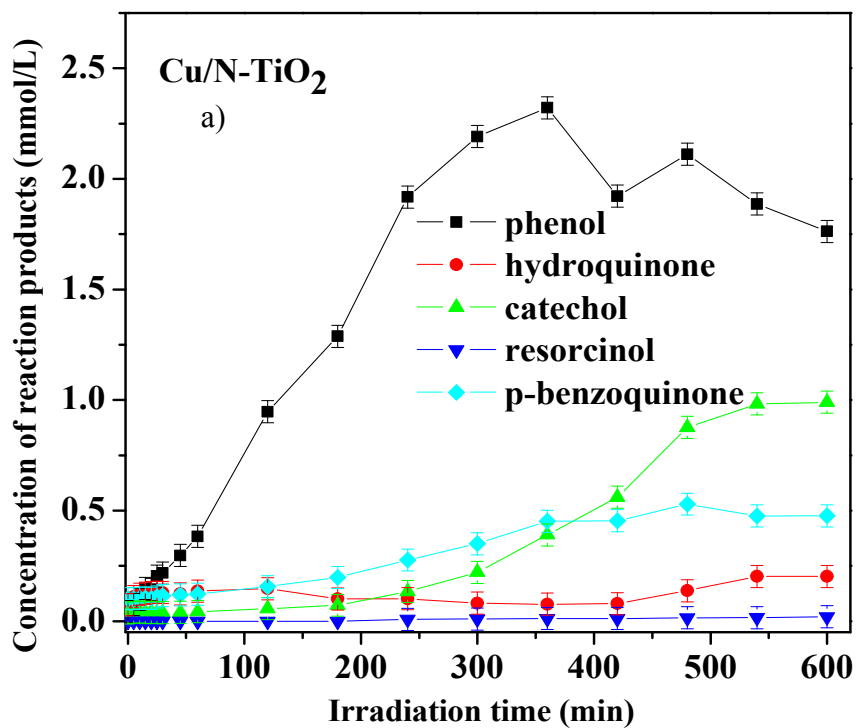


Figure S2. Fe2p region for Fe/N-TiO₂ samples. Average maximum position for Fe2p_{3/2} is indicated by a dashed line.



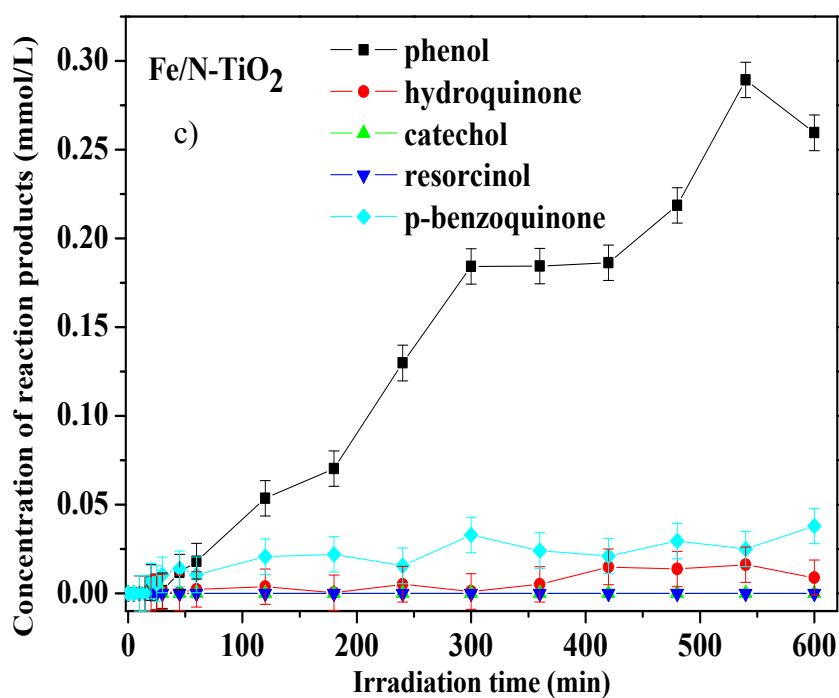


Figure S3. a) Reaction products concentration (mmol/L) as function of irradiation time (min) with Cu/ N-TiO₂ photocatalyst under visible light irradiation; b) Reaction products concentration (mmol/L) as function of irradiation time (min) with V/ N-TiO₂ photocatalyst under visible light irradiation c) Reaction products concentration (mmol/L) as function of irradiation time (min) with Fe/ N-TiO₂ photocatalyst under visible light irradiation.