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Electro-oxidation of phenol over electrodeposited MnOx nanostructures and the role of a TiO2 nanotubes interlayer / Massa, Andrea; HERNANDEZ RIBULLEN, SIMELYS PRIS; Lamberti, Andrea; Galletti, Camilla; Russo, Nunzio; Fino, Debora. - In: APPLIED CATALYSIS. B, ENVIRONMENTAL. - ISSN 0926-3373. - STAMPA. - 203:(2017), pp. 270-281. [10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.10.025]

*Availability:*

This version is available at: 11583/2658730 since: 2018-03-18T15:04:03Z

*Publisher:*

ELSEVIER

*Published*

DOI:10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.10.025

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# Electro-oxidation of phenol over electrodeposited $\text{MnO}_x$ nanostructures and the role of a $\text{TiO}_2$ nanotubes interlayer

Andrea Massa, Simelys Hernández\*, Andrea Lamberti, Camilla Galletti, Nunzio Russo, Debora Fino

Department of Applied Science and Technology (DISAT), Politecnico di Torino, Corso Duca degli Abruzzi 24, 10129 Torino, Italy



## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 27 May 2016

Received in revised form

15 September 2016

Accepted 8 October 2016

Available online 11 October 2016

### Keywords:

Manganese oxides

Electrodeposition

$\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes

Phenol degradation

Electro-oxidation

## ABSTRACT

More and more attention has recently been paid to the electrochemical treatment of wastewater for the degradation of refractory organics, such as phenol and its derivatives. The electrodeposition of different types of manganese oxides ( $\text{MnO}_x$ ) over two substrates, namely metallic titanium and titania nanotubes ( $\text{TiO}_2$ -NTs), is reported herein. X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) and X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) analyses have confirmed the formation of different oxidation states of the manganese, while Field Emission Scanning Electronic Microscopy (FESEM) analysis has helped to point out the evolutions in the morphology of the samples, which depends on the electrodeposition parameters and calcination conditions. Moreover, cross section FESEM images have demonstrated the penetration of manganese oxides inside the NTs for anodically deposited samples. The electrochemical properties of the electrodes have been investigated by means of cyclic voltammetry (CV) and linear sweep voltammetry (LSV), both of which have shown that both calcination and electrodeposition over  $\text{TiO}_2$ -NTs lead to more stable electrodes that exhibited a marked increase in the current density. The activity of the proposed nanostructured samples toward phenol degradation has been investigated. The cathodically electrodeposited manganese oxides ( $\alpha$ - $\text{MnO}_2$ ) have been found to be the most active phase, with a phenol conversion of 26.8%. The anodically electrodeposited manganese oxides ( $\alpha$ - $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ ), instead, have shown higher stability, with a final working potential of 2.9 V vs. RHE. The  $\text{TiO}_2$ -NTs interlayer has contributed, in all cases, to a decrease of about 1–1.5 V in the final (reached) potential, after a reaction time of 5 h. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and accelerated life time tests have confirmed the beneficial effect of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -NTs, which contributes by improving both the charge transfer properties (kinetics of reaction) and the adhesion of  $\text{MnO}_x$  films.

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## 1. Introduction

The biological treatment of wastewater is one of the most common processes throughout the world for the abatement of a large variety of compounds. However, some organic pollutants, such as aromatic compounds, are refractory and toxic to traditional biological methods. Benzene, phenol and its derivatives (chloro-phenols and nitro-phenols), anilines, benzoquinone and hydroquinone are some of the most common pollutants contained in industrial wastewater [1,2].

**Abbreviations:**  $\text{MnO}_x$ , manganese oxides; Ti, titanium;  $\text{TiO}_2$ -NTs, titania nanotubes; CV, cyclic voltammetries; LSV, linear sweep voltammetries; RHE, reversible hydrogen electrode.

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [simelys.hernandez@polito.it](mailto:simelys.hernandez@polito.it) (S. Hernández).

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.10.025>

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Phenol, in particular, is one of the most studied molecules in the sector of the removal of recalcitrant organic compounds from water, due to its high refractoriness and stability, and to its extensive presence in several industrial plants, such as petroleum refineries, and plastics, pesticides and pharmaceutical factories. Advanced oxidation processes (AOPs), such as Fenton and photo-Fenton reactions [3], ozonation [4], wet air oxidation (WAO) [5], catalytic wet hydrogen peroxide oxidation (CWHPO) [6] and catalytic wet air oxidation (CWAQ) [7] are all effective methods that can be used to treat this substance. However, electrochemical degradation is another attractive procedure that is being considered to remove recalcitrant organics from water, especially in low-volume applications, due to its intrinsic high efficiency [8,9].

According to the above mentioned classification, electro-oxidation is considered to belong to the AOP family, since  $\text{OH}^\bullet$  radicals, some one of the most powerful oxidizing agents, are produced on the surface of the electrocatalytic materials. Many

catalysts have been developed for this particular application throughout the years: Pt [10,11], IrO<sub>2</sub> [12,13], RuO<sub>2</sub> [14,15], PbO<sub>2</sub> [11,16], SnO<sub>2</sub> [17,18] and Boron Doped Diamond (BDD) [19,20].

However, only a limited amount of literature has reported the use of manganese oxides (MnO<sub>x</sub>) as catalysts for the electro-oxidation of refractory organics [21–26]. Furthermore, in many of these works, the role of manganese oxides has not been investigated in depth because the MnO<sub>x</sub> coating had either been deposited onto highly active intermediate substrates, such as Sb-SnO<sub>2</sub> [21] or RuO<sub>2</sub> [22,23], or it had been doped with ions (Fe<sup>2+</sup>), which can influence the performance of the electrode [24]. MnO<sub>x</sub> have been employed extensively in electrochemistry as cathodes in alkaline batteries, in lithium-ion batteries [27] and as pseudo-capacitive electrodes into supercapacitors [28,29], or as photo-anodes for the water splitting reaction [30,31]. The main advantages of manganese oxides is their low cost, if compared to Pt, IrO<sub>2</sub>, RuO<sub>2</sub> and BDD, and lower toxicity than Sb-SnO<sub>2</sub> and PbO<sub>2</sub>.

This work describes the fabrication and characterization of electrochemically-deposited manganese oxides over a titanium support for the electrochemical oxidation of phenol molecules in wastewater. The electrodeposition parameters, such as current density, deposition time and precursors, were tuned in order to investigate their effect on the activity. Moreover, the effect of the temperature treatment on the electrodeposited MnO<sub>x</sub> was investigated by means of calcination in air. Additionally, the role of an interlayer between the MnO<sub>x</sub> nanostructures and the Ti substrate was considered, in order to evaluate its effectiveness in preventing the passivation of the Ti substrate and possibly increasing the electrode surface area [32–36]. For these reasons, the optimized parameters described above were used for deposition over a TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes (TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs) array, grown directly on Ti foil by means of the anodic oxidation method.

TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs obtained from anodization have attracted considerable interest in the last few decades, since their unique properties make them useful as active elements for several applications, ranging from energy production (dye-sensitized solar cells, [37,38] water splitting, [39,40]) and storage (Li-ions batteries, [41,42] supercapacitors [43]) to sensing devices, such as gas sensing, [44] and molecular sensors [45]. The main advantages of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs concern their quasi one-dimensional arrangement, which leads to a good compromise between the exposed surface area (about 40 m<sup>2</sup>/g) and superior electron transport properties, and results in a performance enhancement in all the different fields of application [46]. Moreover, compared to other synthesis approaches, electrochemical anodization is a simple, convenient and “green” technique to fabricate uniform layers of vertically self-oriented nanostructures, which, furthermore, is easy to be scale up for large-scale industrial productions.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Ti substrate preparation

Several 1 × 2 cm<sup>2</sup> titanium (Ti) foils (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.7%, 0.25 mm thick) were mechanically polished with 320-grit sandpaper to obtain a mirror finish, and were then ultrasonically washed in 2-propanol. After rinsing with DI water, the foils were degreased in a 40% NaOH solution at 50 °C for 20 min, and were then rinsed again and left to dry in air.

Shortly, before the electrochemical process, the titanium was etched in an HF (Carlo Erba, 40% w/w) aqueous solution 1.2% w/w, at room temperature for 1 min, in order to obtain a fresh metal surface for NTs growth.

Titania nanotubes were synthesized on the pretreated Ti foils, by dipping 1 × 1 cm<sup>2</sup> into a solution of ethylene glycol, NH<sub>4</sub>F (0.5%

w/w) and DI water (2.5% w/w). The Ti was used as an anode, while Pt foil was used as both a cathode and a reference electrode. A constant voltage of 60 V was applied to the cell for 10 min and, the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs were calcined at 450 °C for 30 min after a long rinsing in water. Further details on the NTs growth and characterizations can be found elsewhere [47].

### 2.2. MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodeposition

To the best of the authors' knowledge, no literature reports are available on the direct electrodeposition of manganese oxides onto Ti. In this work, a base-case electrode was anodically deposited by immersing 1 × 1 cm<sup>2</sup> of the Ti foil or the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs onto Ti, in an unstirred and undivided cell containing 15 ml of a 0.1 M Mn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub> and 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution, by applying a current density of 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for 10 min (i.e. sample 0.25\_MnO<sub>x</sub>).

The electrodeposition parameters, such as current density, time and Mn-precursor concentration were then varied to investigate their effects on the performances, as shown in Table 1. The samples were named: *ic*\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and *ic*\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, where *i* is the electrodeposition current density and *c* indicates the calcined samples.

As the current density was found to be the factor with most influence on the morphology and electrochemical behaviour, further syntheses were conducted at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, with a deposition time of 10 min and an Mn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub> concentration of 0.1 M (i.e. sample 2.5\_MnO<sub>x</sub>).

In order to investigate the effects of different electrodeposition techniques, the type of precursor was also changed, once the most suitable current density and deposition time had been tuned. Therefore, cathodic depositions of the manganese oxide over Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs were then carried out by dipping 1 × 1 cm<sup>2</sup> of Ti foil into an unstirred and undivided cell containing 15 ml of a 0.01 M KMnO<sub>4</sub> and 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution, applying a current density of −2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (i.e. sample −2.5\_MnO<sub>x</sub>). Fig. 1 presents a schematic view of all the syntheses carried out in this work. Some of the electrodes were calcined at 500 °C for 1 h in air to obtain different manganese oxidation states, and the temperature ramp was also varied to investigate its effect on the possible passivation of the Ti substrate: 2 °C/min (slow) and 20 °C/min (fast).

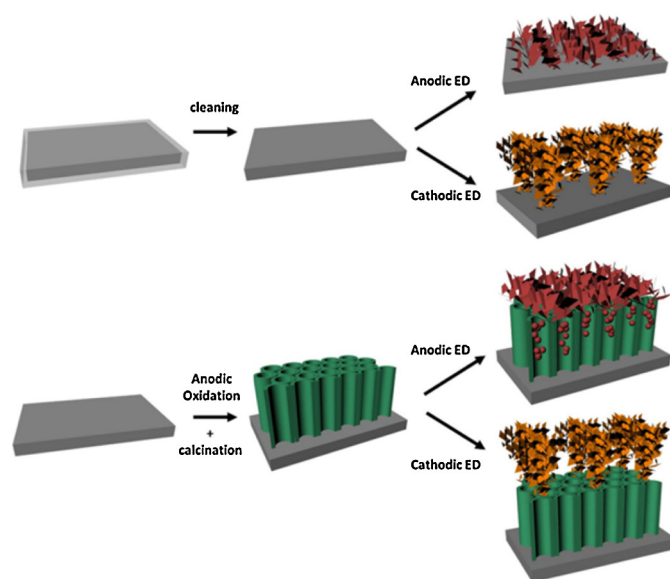


Fig. 1. 3D scheme representing the manganese oxide electrodeposition processes over the Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs substrates.

**Table 1**  
Manganese oxides electrodes, synthesized by means of electrodeposition over Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs.

Sample name	ED current (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	ED time (min)	C <sub>Mn</sub> (M)	T <sub>calc</sub> (°C)	Ramp (°C/min)	Precursor	Substrate
0.25_MnO <sub>x</sub> /Ti	0.25	5–10	0.01–0.1 M	–	–	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	Ti
0.25_MnO <sub>x</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs	0.25	10	0.1 M	–	–	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs
0.25c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /Ti(s)	0.25	10	0.1 M	500 °C	2	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	Ti
0.25c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /Ti	0.25	5–10	0.01–0.1 M	500 °C	20	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	Ti
0.25c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs	0.25	10	0.1 M	500 °C	20	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs
2.5_MnO <sub>x</sub> /Ti	2.5	10	0.1 M	–	–	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	Ti
2.5_MnO <sub>x</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs	2.5	10	0.1 M	–	–	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs
2.5c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /Ti	2.5	10	0.1 M	500 °C	20	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	Ti
2.5c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs	2.5	10	0.1 M	500 °C	20	Mn(CH <sub>3</sub> COO) <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs
–2.5c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /Ti	–2.5	10	0.01 M	500 °C	20	KMnO <sub>4</sub>	Ti
–2.5c_MnO <sub>x</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs	–2.5	10	0.01 M	500 °C	20	KMnO <sub>4</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub> -NTs

A BIOLOGIC VMP-300 potentiostat was used for the electrodepositions. Ti was set as the anode, Pt wire was used as the cathode and Ag/AgCl 3 M KCl (+0.209 V vs NHE) was used as the reference electrode.

All the potentials reported in this work should be intended vs. RHE ( $E_{\text{RHE}}$  in V vs. RHE), and calculated according to Nernst's equation (Eq.(1)):

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.209V + 0.059 \cdot pH \quad (1)$$

### 2.3. Characterization

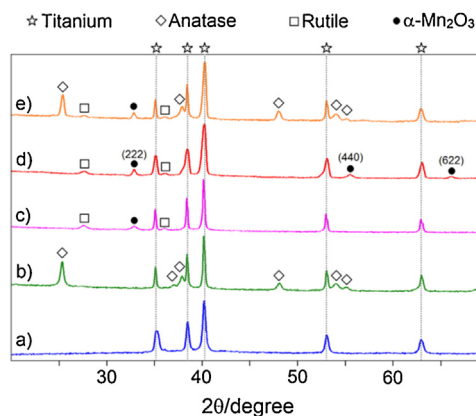
The morphology, structure and physic-chemical parameters of the electrodes were evaluated by means of X-Ray Diffraction (XRD, X'Pert PRO diffractometer, Cu K $\alpha$  radiation  $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$ ), X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS, PHI5000 VersaProbe) and Field Emission Scanning Electronic Microscopy (FESEM, Zeiss Merlin). The semi-quantitative surface composition was estimated by means of Electron Energy-Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX, Oxford X-Act).

### 2.4. Electrochemical characterization

Cyclic Voltammetries (CV) and Linear Sweep Voltammetries (LSV) were carried out in an unstirred and undivided 3-electrode cell system, containing 15 ml of a 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution. The scan limits were fixed between 0.5 and 2 V (vs. Ag/AgCl) and the scan rates were 20 mV/s for the CV and 5 mV/s for the LSV, respectively. The electrode active area was  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ ; a Pt wire was employed as the counter electrode and an Ag/AgCl 3 M KCl (+0.209 V vs. NHE) was used as the reference electrode.

### 2.5. Electro-oxidation tests

Electro-oxidation tests were carried out in an unstirred and undivided glass cell containing 15 ml of phenol ( $C_0 = 100 \text{ mg/l}$ ) and 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as the supporting electrolyte. The prepared samples (active area of  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ ) were used as the anode, while Pt wire was set as the cathode and Ag/AgCl, 3 M KCl (+0.209 V vs NHE) as the reference electrode. Constant currents were chosen in order to keep the working potential of the electrode under the limit of the instrument (10 V) over a reaction time of 5 h, i.e. 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for electrodes synthesized at low current densities and 0.75 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for samples deposited at higher current densities. The solution was then analyzed by High Performance Liquid Chromatography (Shimadzu Prominence HPLC) with a Diode Array Detector (DAD) set at 269 nm. The column was a Rezex ROA (300  $\times$  7.8 mm). The mobile phase was 5 mM H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and the flow rate was 0.5 ml/min. Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) analyses were carried out by means of UV spectroscopy, using a HACH LANGE COD cuvette test (LCI 400) and a HACH LANGE DR5000 spectrophotometer.



**Fig. 2.** XRD patterns of MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodeposited at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, 10 min, 0.1 M Mn<sup>2+</sup>: a) 0.25\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; b) 0.25\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs; c) 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti (s); d) 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; e) 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs.

### 2.6. Accelerated lifetime tests

In order to assess the durability of the synthesized electrodes, accelerated lifetime tests were carried out in an unstirred and undivided glass cell containing 15 ml of a 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution. Pt wire was used as the cathode and Ag/AgCl, 3 M KCl (+0.209 V vs NHE) as the reference electrode. A current density of 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> was applied to the cell. The electrode was considered deactivated when the measured potential reached 10 V.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. XRD analysis

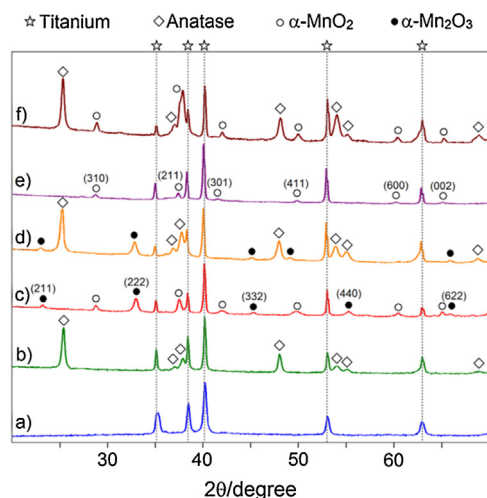
Fig. 2 shows the XRD pattern of the manganese oxides electrodeposited at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for 10 min with a 0.1 M of an Mn<sup>2+</sup> ion concentration, in order to obtain a thicker film and to allow easy detection of the MnO<sub>x</sub> peaks.

As expected, non-calcined 0.25\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti showed no peaks that could be attributed to any crystalline phase of MnO<sub>x</sub> (Fig. 2a), thus demonstrating that electrodeposition alone resulted in a non-crystalline material; only Ti peaks were visible [40,48–50].

The 0.25\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs sample (Fig. 2b) showed similar results: the non-calcined manganese oxides did not show any crystalline phase, while TiO<sub>2</sub> peaks were clearly visible and attributable to a tetragonal anatase phase (JCPDS 21-1272,  $a = b = 0.379 \text{ nm}$ ,  $c = 0.951 \text{ nm}$ ), as expected, due to the calcination of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs at 450 °C.

Instead, the MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodes calcined at 500 °C in air for 1 h, for both the slow (Fig. 2c) and fast ramps (Fig. 2d), showed the particular peaks of a cubic bixbyite crystalline phase,  $\alpha$ -Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS





**Fig. 3.** XRD patterns of  $\text{MnO}_x$  electrodeposited at  $2.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ , 10 min,  $0.1 \text{ M Mn}^{2+}$  (or  $0.01 \text{ M Mn}^{7+}$ ): a)  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ ; b)  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ ; c)  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ ; d)  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ ; e)  $-2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ ; f)  $-2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ .

$41\text{-}1442$ ,  $1a\text{-}3$ ,  $a=0.941 \text{ nm}$ ). The same oxide was obtained over  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  (Fig. 2e).

Moreover, it can be noticed that two peaks appeared, at  $27.6^\circ$  and  $36.2^\circ$ , on the  $\text{MnO}_x$  calcined samples, on both Ti and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ . These peaks corresponded to the formation of a  $\text{TiO}_2$  rutile phase, whose transition from anatase can start to occur at about  $500^\circ\text{C}$  in air [51–55]. This observation confirmed the hypothesis of the formation of a titanium oxide layer between the Ti substrate and  $\text{MnO}_x$  coating during the heat treatment.

The XRD patterns of the manganese oxides electrodeposited at  $2.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  and  $-2.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  are reported in Fig. 3. Such anodically deposited samples, as prepared (i.e.  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  and  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ ), showed only Ti (Fig. 3a) and  $\text{TiO}_2$  anatase (Fig. 3b) XRD patterns, respectively, thus confirming once again that the implemented anodic electrodeposition led to a non-crystalline  $\text{MnO}_x$  material. Instead, after annealing, the XRD pattern of the  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  sample (Fig. 3c) showed a noticeable difference, compared to the electrode deposited at  $0.25 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ . In this case, particular peaks of two  $\text{MnO}_x$  crystalline phases were detected in the spectrum: a cubic bixbyite  $\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  phase and a tetragonal manganese dioxide  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  phase (JCPDS 41-1442,  $1a\text{-}3$ ,  $a=0.941 \text{ nm}$ ; JCPDS 044-014,  $14/m$ ,  $a=b=9.7847$ ,  $c=2.8630$ ). This result is in contrast with the ones obtained for the same sample obtained at  $0.25 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ , and it could be possibly due to the different potentials reached during electrodeposition, because of the higher currents provided to the electrode. In fact, a change in either the potential or pH at a constant temperature can have an important effect on the equilibrium of the deposition, and can thus modify the structure of the deposited oxide [56].

In the  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  sample (Fig. 3d), an intense peak was observed at  $32.9^\circ$ , thus confirming the presence of a  $\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  bixbyite phase in the catalyst film, while  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  phase peaks were absent.

The XRD pattern of the tetragonal  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  (JCPDS 044-014,  $14/m$ ,  $a=b=9.7847$ ,  $c=2.8630$ ) can be observed for the cathodically deposited electrodes (Fig. 3e and f), while no other peaks, apart from those of the substrates, were detected.

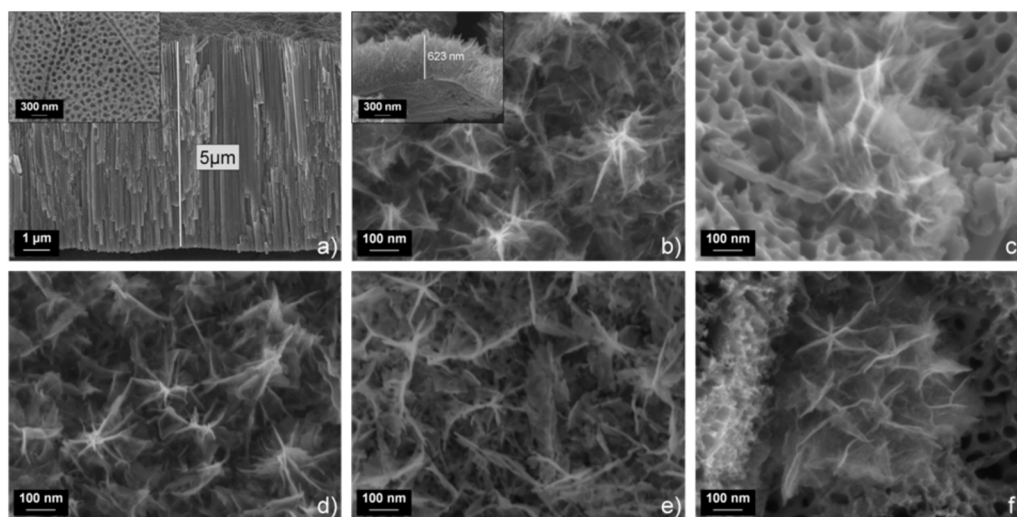
In general, the  $\text{MnO}_x$  electrodes prepared at higher electrodeposition current densities did not show any formation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  rutile, as in the case of the ones prepared at lower current density values. This could be due to the higher amount of  $\text{MnO}_x$ , which covered and protected the Ti substrate and  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  surface from further oxidation.

In order to investigate the surface composition of the electrodeposited  $\text{MnO}_x$  and to support the XRD analysis outcomes, XPS analysis was carried out on some of the prepared samples: i.e.  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ ,  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  and  $-2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ . The results of the Mn 3s XPS spectra, with the estimation of the Average Oxidation State (AOS) [57] of the surface of the films are reported in the Supplementary information (SI, Fig. S1 in Supplementary material). It is easy to see that the cathodic sample showed the highest AOS value (i.e. 3.56), which was close to the  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ , identified by the XRD. Instead, the AOS value for the  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  was 3.11, which is also in agreement with the presence of a mix of Mn oxides with oxidation states of  $\text{Mn}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ , as revealed by the XRD measurement. Finally, the non-calcined  $\text{MnO}_x$ , whose oxidation state could not be identified by means of XRD, gave an intermediate AOS value (i.e. 3.25), which probably means that also a mixed oxide  $\text{Mn}^{3+}/\text{Mn}^{4+}$  could have been formed after the electrodeposition, but with a slightly higher presence of  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  than the anodically deposited calcined sample.

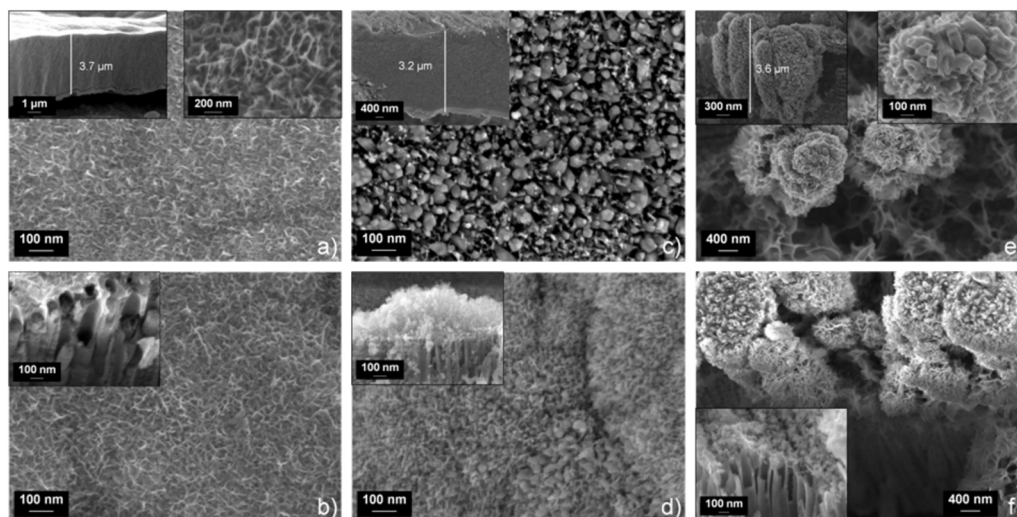
### 3.2. FESEM and EDX analyses

Fig. 4 reports the FESEM images of the manganese oxides electrodeposited at  $0.25 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ . The FESEM cross-section images of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes, after the anodization process, are shown in Fig. 4a. The NTs were  $5 \mu\text{m}$  long and vertically aligned with respect to the Ti foil. The ordered distribution of the pores can be appreciated in the top FESEM image reported as an inset in Fig. 4a: the inner holes had an average dimension of about  $70 \text{ nm}$  and a wall thickness of around  $20 \text{ nm}$ . After the  $\text{MnO}_x$  electrodeposition, the typical formations of nanoflake structures, which have also been observed in other works [40,50,58], were formed for all the different types of electrodes. The thickness of the manganese oxide layer ( $\sim 623 \text{ nm}$ ) was quite uniform, as can be seen in the inset in Fig. 4b. A slight change in the morphology can be noticed when  $0.25\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  (Fig. 4b) is compared with  $0.25c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ , which was calcined with the fast ramp at  $20^\circ\text{C/min}$  (Fig. 4e), however still maintaining the overall nanoflake disposition. The electrode calcined with a slow ramp, that is,  $0.25c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}(s)$  (Fig. 4d), instead, presented an almost unchanged nanoflakes structure with respect to  $0.25\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ . Both samples grown on NTs, that is, the not calcined  $0.25\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  (Fig. 4c), and the calcined  $0.25c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  samples (Fig. 4f), showed nanoflake on the top of the nanotube layer. The deposition of nanoflakes on the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  substrate was less homogeneous than the deposition on metallic titanium, showing some uncovered areas, probably due to preferential pathways of the electrodeposition currents, where the electric resistance was lower.

Fig. 5 shows the FESEM images of the manganese oxide electrodeposited at  $2.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  and  $-2.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ . The non calcined anodically deposited samples, i.e.  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  (Fig. 5a) and  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  (Fig. 5b), still showed a similar nanoflake structure to the one seen for the sample synthesized at lower current densities. However, the nanoflakes were smaller for both electrodes, due to the higher electrodeposition current density. In fact, the nucleation rate is higher and the critical nucleation radius is decreased, as the potential and current density are increased, thus the formation and refinement of the initial grain are improved [56]. The inset in Fig. 5a allows the thickness of the  $\text{MnO}_x$  film on the  $2.5\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  sample ( $\sim 3.7 \mu\text{m}$ ), which was six times higher than the one on the samples obtained with  $0.25 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ , to be appreciated. The calcined  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  (Fig. 5c) and  $2.5c\text{-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  samples (Fig. 5d), instead, showed very fine nanoflakes, that coexisted with another type of larger crystalline nanoparticles, which were present in a greater amount on the sample grown on the titanium substrate. Such a difference in morphology can be explained by considering the larger amount of the  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  phase in the elec-



**Fig. 4.** FESEM images of the samples electrodeposited at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>: a) TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs; b) 0.25 MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; c) 0.25 MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs; d) 0.25c MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti (s); e) 0.25c MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; f) 0.25c MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs.



**Fig. 5.** FESEM images of the samples electrodeposited at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>: a) 2.5 MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; b) 2.5 MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs; c) 2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; d) 2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs; e) -2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti; f) -2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NT.

trode grown on Ti, as observed in the XRD analysis, which more likely composes the larger nanoparticles.

Unlike the samples electrodeposited at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, the cross-sectional view of the 2.5 MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs and 2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs samples exhibited evidence of the penetration of the manganese inside the nanotubes structure, as shown in the inset of Fig. 5b and d, similarly to the penetration of the electrodeposited Sb-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> films into TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs [32]. This phenomenon was probably due to the high electrodeposition current densities which led to smaller nanoflakes that were able to grow inside the nanotubes.

The FESEM images of the MnO<sub>x</sub> samples, that is, -2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti (Fig. 5e) and -2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs (Fig. 5f), prepared by cathodic deposition, pointed out a totally different morphology from the anodically deposited MnO<sub>x</sub>. The nanoflakes formed a layer directly over the nanotubes, from which polycrystalline rod-like structures of a noticeable thickness (~3.6 μm) grew. In this case, the cross-section of the -2.5c MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs sample, shown as an inset in Fig. 5f, did not report a deep penetration of manganese oxide inside the nanotubes. This could be due to either a different wettability of the nanotubes by the KMnO<sub>4</sub> solution from the Mn(CH<sub>3</sub>COO)<sub>2</sub>

used in the anodic deposition, or a different electric field induced inside and on the top of the nanotubes.

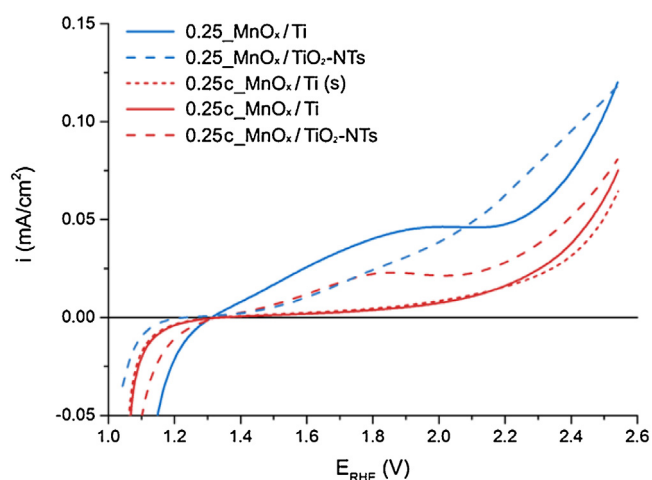
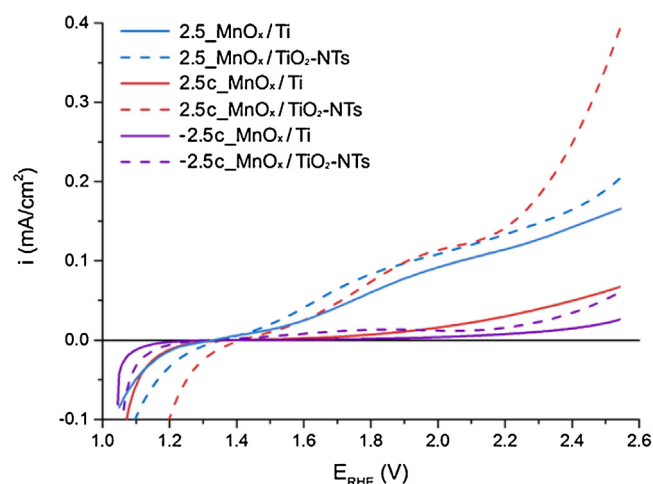
Tables 2 and 3 show some of the data from the EDX surface composition analyses of all the manganese oxides over Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs. As can be noticed, for all the samples synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, the atomic ratio (Mn/Ti) is comparable, with a slightly higher manganese content for the non-calcined electrode grown on nanotubes (i.e. 0.25 MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs). For samples synthesized at 2.5 or -2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, the atomic ratio, Mn/Ti, is up to 10 or even 100 times higher than the one reported for the electrodes synthesized at lower current densities, as a greater amount of manganese oxide was deposited on these samples. Moreover, the Mn/Ti values measured for the films grown on Ti, were considerably higher than the ones registered for those grown on the nanotubes, and this could be due to the higher electric resistance of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs than the metallic Ti, which limited the total amount of manganese oxide deposited. However, because of the higher surface area of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, it is more likely that the lower Mn/Ti ratios observed in the NTs than on Ti were due to the better distribution of MnO<sub>x</sub> on

**Table 2**Electrooxidation results for 0.25  $\text{MnO}_x$  electrodes. EI-Ox current density 0.25  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .

Electrode	$\text{MnO}_x$ phase <sup>a</sup>	Mn/Ti ratio <sup>b</sup>	Faradaic efficiency (%)	TON ( $\text{mol}_{\text{Phenol}}/\text{mol}_{\text{Mn}}$ )	Relative conversion ( $\text{mol}_{\text{Phenol}}/\text{mol}_{\text{Mn}} \cdot \text{W} \cdot \text{h}$ )
0.25 $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$	Non-crystalline	0.12	7.8	0.25	37.2
0.25 $\text{MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$	Non-crystalline	0.16	33.2	2.36	469.0
0.25c $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$	$\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$	0.11	10.7	0.86	212.6
0.25c $\text{MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$	$\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$	0.11	37.1	1.15	314.8
Ti	–	–	0.0	–	–
$\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$	–	–	22.4	–	–

<sup>a</sup> From XRD patterns.<sup>b</sup> Calculated from EDX.**Table 3**Electrooxidation results for 2.5  $\text{MnO}_x$  electrodes. EI-Ox current density 0.75  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .

Electrode	$\text{MnO}_x$ phase <sup>a</sup>	Mn/Ti ratio <sup>b</sup>	Faradaic efficiency (%)	TON ( $\text{mol}_{\text{Phenol}}/\text{mol}_{\text{Mn}}$ )	Relative conversion ( $\text{mol}_{\text{Phenol}}/\text{mol}_{\text{Mn}} \cdot \text{W} \cdot \text{h}$ )
2.5 $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$	Non-crystalline	15.2	43.3	0.51	17.1
2.5 $\text{MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$	Non-crystalline	2.11	42	0.48	20.1
2.5c $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$	$\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$	18.15	45.9	0.35	25.1
2.5c $\text{MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$	$\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$	1.59	26.7	0.26	25.7
-2.5c $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$	$\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$	13.4	44.6	0.82	43.7
-2.5c $\text{MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$	$\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$	7.44	45.3	0.75	46.7

<sup>a</sup> From XRD patterns.<sup>b</sup> Calculated from EDX.**Fig. 6.** LSV in 0.1 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  of the samples electrodeposited at 0.25  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .**Fig. 7.** LSV in 0.1 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  of the samples electrodeposited at 2.5 and  $-2.5 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .

the top of the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ , as well as inside the NTs pores (Fig. 5b and d).

### 3.3. Electrochemical behaviour

Figs. 6 and 7 show the LSV of all the manganese oxide samples electrodeposited at 0.25  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  and 2.5  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ , respectively, at a scan rate of 5  $\text{mV}/\text{s}$ . The as-prepared (non-calcined) cathodic samples are not shown because they demonstrated very poor current densities and became detached from the substrate after just few cycles. In both graphs, the non-calcined  $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  (Figs. 6a, 7a) and all the samples anodically grown on the NTs (dashed lines in Figs. 6b and e, 7b and d) showed pseudo-capacitive behaviour, which is characteristic of crystalline  $\text{MnO}_2$ , or non-crystalline  $\text{MnO}_x$  phases [39] and which could also be due to titania nanotubes [39,41,42]. The pseudo-capacitance in the  $\text{MnO}_x$  phase was caused by the electron transfer at the Mn surface sites, the charge transfer being balanced by either the chemisorption/desorption of the electrolyte cations or by the insertion/desinsertion of the protons [39,59]. In the case of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , due to its semiconducting properties, electrons

are accumulated in the material when it behave like a cathode (i.e. presence of negative current values), and are then released when the electrode polarity is inverted and acts as an anode [39]. The CVs of the non-calcined manganese oxides, for the depositions at both 0.25  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  and 2.5  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$  (see SI, Figs. S2–S7 in Supplementary material), also confirmed the high capacitance characteristic, which was more evidently reported for the electrodes grown on the nanotubes. In addition, although the current densities were similar, the manganese oxides grown on nanotubes showed a slight increment in stability after 5 CV cycles.

Instead, the LSVs of the calcined  $\text{MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  samples (Figs. 6c, d and 7c) showed a diminuation of the capacitive properties of the film, due to the change in the crystalline phase, from non-crystalline or  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  to  $\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  [40], or because of the variations in the morphology (growth in the particle sizes) of the deposited film after the thermal treatment [60]. On the other hand, the calcined  $\text{MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  sample containing  $\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$ , still showed a capacitive trend, probably because of the residual capacitance of the nanotubes in the interlayer [39].



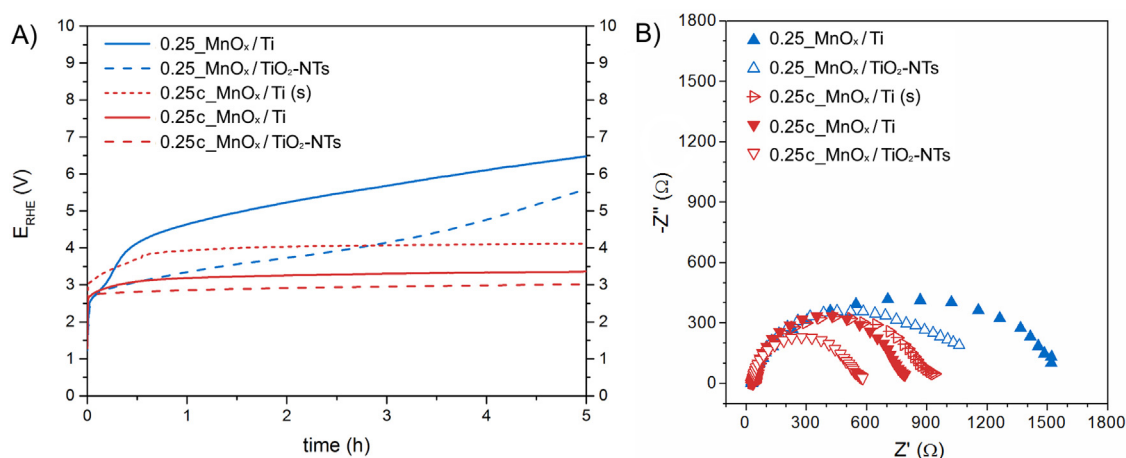


Fig. 8. (A) Electro-oxidation curves at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and (B) Nyquist plots of the EIS measurements at 3.3 V vs. RHE, of samples synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

As far as the MnO<sub>x</sub> cathodically deposited on both Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs is concerned (Fig. 7e and f), although the prevalent phase formed after their thermal treatment was α-MnO<sub>2</sub>, they showed a flat LSV and low current densities (<0.05 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 2.5 V vs. RHE) towards the water oxidation reaction. Such phenomena could be explained by considering the different rod-like morphologies of these MnO<sub>x</sub> samples, which have less exposed surface area than the nanoflakes, and this could lead to a lower capacitive effect. It has been reported that differences in MnO<sub>2</sub> morphology under different electrodeposition conditions and the post-thermal treatments could contribute to the differences in the capacitive behaviours [61,62]. Indeed, a lower capacitance effect has been observed for a smaller nanosheets spacing and more compactness of the structure, which make ion diffusion within the structure difficult [61]. Moreover, the interaction with the substrate seems to play a crucial role in the capacitive behaviour of manganese oxide films, and also leads to different morphologies, which in turn affects the electrochemical characteristics of the electrode [63,64].

In general, the CVs (see SI, Figs. S2 to S7 in Supplementary material) showed an improved stability for the calcined MnO<sub>x</sub> samples, as well as for all the samples deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, possibly because the passivating TiO<sub>2</sub> layer that usually formed on the Ti surface under oxidative conditions [33,36], was prevented from forming by the presence of either well crystallized manganese oxides structures (formed after calcination) or crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs.

The LSVs of the as-prepared and calcined electrodes synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> with different electrodeposition times (10 vs. 5 min) and precursor concentrations (0.1 vs. 0.01 M Mn<sup>2+</sup>) are reported in the SI (Figs. S8 and S9 in Supplementary material, respectively). As can be noticed, both the shape of the curves and the current density values were similar, and it is therefore possible to state that these two parameters did not affect the electrochemical behaviour of the samples to any great extent. For this reason, 10 min and 0.1 M Mn<sup>2+</sup> were selected as the optimum conditions for the electrodepositions at higher current densities (i.e. 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>).

The 2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs sample produced the highest final current density (~0.4 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 2.5 V vs. RHE, see Fig. 7d), which was one order of magnitude higher than the similar MnO<sub>x</sub> film deposited on Ti (2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti), and than the cathodically deposited films (-2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and -2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs). Moreover, it was two times higher than the current densities obtained for the respective non calcined samples, on both Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs. This trend was in agreement with the predominance of the α-Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> phase revealed by the XRD analysis on the calcined electrodes containing TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, which is capable of higher oxygen evolution rates than α-MnO<sub>2</sub> [23,30,50], thus justifying the improved behaviour for the

water oxidation reaction. On the contrary, the presence of α-MnO<sub>2</sub> detected on the sample grown on Ti, as well as in the cathodically deposited MnO<sub>x</sub>, led to a decrease in the water oxidation activity [65,66], which instead should be beneficial for the degradation of organic molecules (e.g. phenol) with a higher Nernst potential than water oxidation.

### 3.4. Phenol electro-oxidation and EIS analysis

Figs. 8A and 9A show the chrono-potentiometric curves obtained during the phenol electro-oxidation (EI-Ox) reaction with all the electrodes synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and 2.5 or -2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Electro-oxidation was performed for a total time of 5 h, fixing a current density of 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> for the 0.25\_MnO<sub>x</sub> samples, while the 2.5\_MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodes were tested at 0.75 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, in order to start the EI-Ox at about 3 ± 0.5 V<sub>RHE</sub> and to keep the final working potential below 10 V. In addition, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), a well-known technique that is often employed to characterize electrochemical systems with the aim of comparing their charge transfer and transport properties [37,39,67], was also performed on the phenol solution. An applied DC potential of 3.3 V<sub>RHE</sub>, which was the average initial potential achieved during the EI-Ox process for all the samples, was employed for the EIS analyses. The results are reported in Figs. 8B and 9B (Nyquist plots) and in Figs. S10 and S11 (Bode plots: phase and modulus of impedance |Z| vs. frequency).

The most stable electrodes that were able to sustain the constant potential (i.e. for which the total increase of potential over time was lower than 0.5 V) were found to be the calcined anodically deposited MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodes over both the Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs substrates (see Figs. 8A-c,d,e and 9A-c,d), which can be attributed to the presence of highly stable α-Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> crystalline phase. Accordingly, the Nyquist plots of the same samples in Figs. 8B and 9B show that they evidenced lower impedance values for these electrodes than for the other electrodes, which in turn indicated an increase in the number of electrons transferred through the electrode/electrolyte interface on those materials. In fact, a reduction in the semicircles diameter in the Nyquist plots indicated a lower resistance to the charge transfer because of an enhancement of the reaction kinetics, which, in this case, depends on the surface properties of the MnO<sub>x</sub>-based electrode materials [40]. Nevertheless it is not possible to identify which is the prevalent reaction between water oxidation and phenol degradation from these electrochemical measurements, and, the phenol and COD conversion were therefore chemically determined and are reported in Section 3.5.



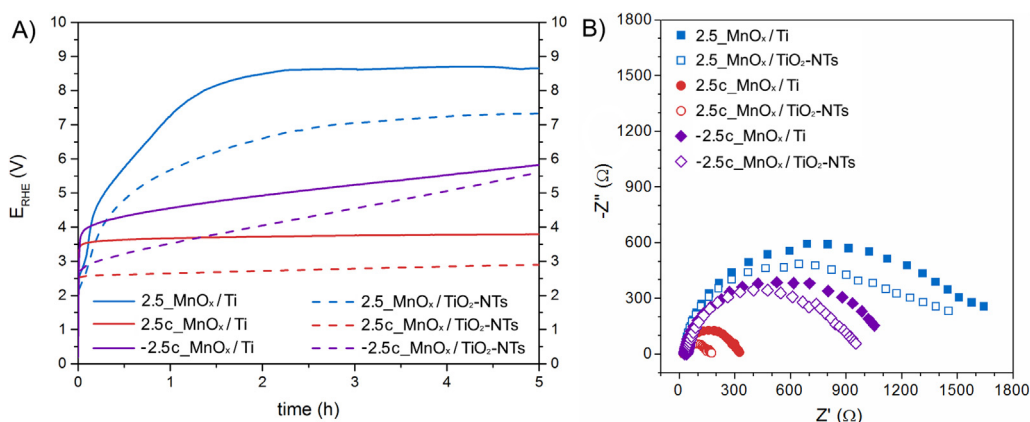


Fig. 9. (A) Electro-oxidation curves at 0.75 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and (B) Nyquist plots of the EIS measurements at 3.3 V vs. RHE of samples synthesized at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

Instead, all the as-prepared MnO<sub>x</sub> samples (Figs. 8a, b, 9a, b) reached very high potentials, of up to 8.6 V. An intermediate behaviour was observed for the thermal-treated cathodically deposited MnO<sub>x</sub> samples, which were constituted by rod-like α-MnO<sub>2</sub>, and steadily increased the potential up to 6 V.

Interestingly, in all the samples, TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs contributed to reduce the applied potential for phenol EI-Ox (from 0.5 to 1.5 V) with respect to the Ti substrate. In particular, the 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and 2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti samples settled at a higher potential (of about 0.4 V and 1 V, respectively) than the similar materials deposited on the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs substrates. This trend can be attributed to the presence of a certain amount of α-MnO<sub>2</sub> for the 2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti sample, but not for the other material.

Besides, the difference between the EI-Ox potential of the MnO<sub>x</sub> on the Ti, for the non-crystalline MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodes (Figs 8A and 9A), with respect to that on the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs substrate increased during the time-course of the reaction. On the other hand, TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs interlayer in cathodically deposited electrodes (Fig. 9A), did not decrease the potential with respect to the sample on Ti in the same extent as the anodically deposited MnO<sub>x</sub>, but a certain improvement was also achieved in this case. A possible explanation for such behaviour could be the lower tendency of the cathodically deposited manganese oxide to enter the nanotube pores, as already observed in the FESEM cross-sections (Fig. 5f), and, to a certain extent, could also be due to a loss of adhesion of the MnO<sub>2</sub> to the substrate.

In short, the positive influence of the NTs substrate on the behaviour of the electrodes was evident as it increased the reaction kinetics and led to a lowering of the necessary potential, which was also demonstrated by the lower impedance of the MnO<sub>x</sub> samples deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs than their counterparts supported on the Ti foils, as can be seen in Figs 8B and 9B and in the modulus of impedance  $|Z|$  at 1 Hz reported in Figs. S10 and S11 in the SI.

Since the charge transport differences in the samples were not so evident in the Nyquist plots in Figs 8B and 9B, the EIS measurements were also plotted in the form of Bode diagrams (Figs. S10 and S11 in the SI). Bode plots are usually useful to separate charge transfer and charge transport processes in electrochemical systems because the latter is characterized by faster time constants [30,67]. The phase spectra in Figs. S10 and S11 show a clearly distinguishable peak for all the electrodes in the range between 100 and 1000 Hz (aprox. centered at about 200 Hz for most of the samples), which can be attributed to the charge transport process in such electrodes [39,40]. Instead, the charge transfer process at the electrode/electrolyte interface can be analyzed from the  $|Z|$  at frequencies lower than 100 Hz, in the same way as for previous works [39,40]. For comparison purposes, the  $|Z|$  values at 200 Hz and at 1 Hz could be ascribed to a measure of the charge transport and

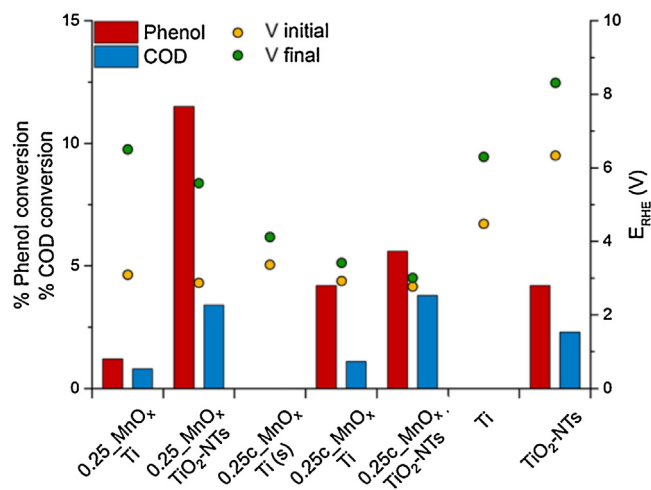
charge transfer resistances, respectively, of the different electrodes. As expected, the values of  $|Z|$  at 1 Hz followed an equivalent trend to the diameter of the Nyquist plots semicircles, and the same conclusions as before can therefore be drawn.

In the thin samples (see the FESEM images in Fig. 4) deposited at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, the highest conductivity of the Ti substrate is confirmed by the low  $|Z|$  values (e.g. 58 Ω at 200 Hz) of the non-calcined MnO<sub>x</sub> sample supported on Ti foil (i.e. 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti). Obviously, such resistance values also accounted for the resistivity of the non-crystalline MnO<sub>x</sub> film towards the electrons flow and, consequently, it could not be null. As a consequence, the charge transport resistance was higher for the sample deposited on the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, with a  $|Z|$  value of 118 Ω at 200 Hz, which can be attributed to the lower conductivity of TiO<sub>2</sub> than the metallic Ti.

However, after the thermal treatment, the charge transport was similar, with a higher value of  $|Z|$  for all the samples. The sample calcined with the slow ramp, 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti (s), showed the highest impedance (i.e. 257 Ω at 200 Hz), while the fast heating ramp decreased the impedance to 172 and 198 Ω in the 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs samples, respectively. Considering that all these calcined samples contained α-Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, their charge transfer properties can be attributed to the formation of the TiO<sub>2</sub> passivation layer on the surface of the Ti foil (as observed from the XRD), which caused a considerable drop in the metallic behaviour of this substrate, especially for the slow heating ramp, which exposed the sample to high temperatures for longer times.

The electric conduction properties of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays are mainly related to defects produced during the electrochemical growing process (anodization), which lead to the well-known n-type semiconducting behaviour. Oxygen vacancies and Ti<sup>3+</sup> states in TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes, which dominate optical and electrical properties of the material to a great extent [46] are particularly important. In comparison to a compact oxide layers, such as the thermal oxide formed under the MnO<sub>x</sub> (on Ti) after annealing, the doping level obtainable inside the crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes is generally very high (10<sup>20</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>, as calculated by Mott-Schottky analysis in a previous work [42]). This can explain the different behaviour observed for the 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and 0.25c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti samples in comparison with their counterparts in TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs. The metallic behaviour of titanium in the non-crystallized sample leads to a higher charge transport from the MnO<sub>x</sub> to the current collector, while the rutile layer without defects that is formed on the top of the metal substrate after calcination at 500 °C becomes less effective than the self-doped nanotubular carpet, despite their different thicknesses.

On the other hand, when the MnO<sub>x</sub> amount and the film thickness is increased, after an increase in the electrodeposition current to 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, both of the non-calcined samples on Ti foil and



**Fig. 10.** Phenol and COD reduction, initial and final potentials for the electrooxidation test of the samples synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and for Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs substrates.

TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs reported similar  $|Z|$  values (*i.e.* 100  $\Omega$  at 200 Hz). After the thermal treatment, their charge transport resistance increased slightly, showing  $|Z|$  values of 133 and 115  $\Omega$ , respectively, at 200 Hz, which once again is probably due to the formation of a passivating layer after the calcination. Moreover, the impedance modulus was higher for the 2.5c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti sample, which contained  $\alpha$ -Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, unlike the sample on the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs which only contained  $\alpha$ -Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, as observed from the XRD analyses.

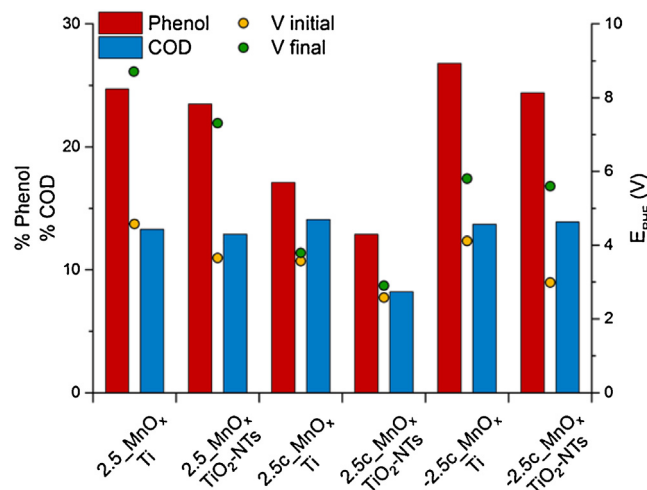
In the case of the calcined cathodically deposited samples, although both were constituted by  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, the one on the Ti substrate reported a lower charge transport resistance than the similar sample on TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, which had a  $|Z|$  value at 200 Hz of about 59  $\Omega$  and 200  $\Omega$ , respectively. In this case, the poor charge transport could be due to the limited contact area between the  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> film and the nanotubes, as shown by the cross section of the FESEM images.

### 3.5. Phenol and COD conversion

Fig. 10 and Table 2 report the phenol degradation results obtained for the electrodes synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> on both Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs. The results obtained for the two substrates, without any catalyst, are also reported for comparison purposes. Phenol and COD conversion, together with the potential values, shown in Fig. 10, are listed in Table S1 (SI) in Supplementary material. The effects of the electrodeposition time and concentration of the Mn<sup>2+</sup> precursor are shown in Fig. S8B for the non-calcined electrodes, and in Fig. S9B for the calcined samples. As can be observed, neither of these parameters influence the efficiency or the stability to any great extent.

Although the conversions were rather low for most of the electrodes, an interesting trend can be observed: the nanotubes interlayer seems to have a beneficial effect on both the degradation and the maximum potential reached after 5 h of reaction. In particular, the non-calcined 0.25c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs sample reported the highest phenol conversion, that is, of about 12%.

It is also worth noticing that the blank test with the TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs substrate showed a slight conversion of phenol (about 4%), unlike the Ti foil, which was totally unactive. The nanotubes resulted in a comparable conversion to that of the calcined electrodes, which indicates a higher selectivity of the non-crystalline MnO<sub>x</sub> than of the sample containing  $\alpha$ -Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> for this reaction; however, the reduction of the potential (more than 3 V) necessary to perform the reaction in the presence of the manganese oxide catalysts on the



**Fig. 11.** Phenol and COD reduction, initial and final potentials for electrooxidation test of samples synthesized at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, is clear, which confirmed the effectiveness of these materials for phenol degradation. As discussed in Section 3.4, the role of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs is related to a decrease in the charge transfer resistance (*i.e.* kinetics of reaction), which is probably induced by the good distribution and penetration of the manganese oxide on the high surface area and by the porosity provided by this 3D nanostructure, which enhance the diffusion of the electrolyte to the active material [32,33,62,68].

As far as the effect of the temperature ramp during calcination is concerned, the electrode calcined at the slow ramp of 2 °C/min (0.25c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti (s)) did not lead to any conversion and resulted in a higher final potential than the similar sample calcined with a fast heating ramp (20 °C/min, sample 0.25c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti). Therefore, the latter condition was implemented for the subsequent studies. Under such a condition, calcination improved the stability of all the samples and acted positively on the phenol conversion in the case of the sample on the Ti substrate (0.25c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti).

Fig. 11 and Table 3 show the performances obtained for the samples deposited at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. The phenol and COD abatement values, as well as the initial and final measured potentials, are shown in detail in Table S2 (SI) in Supplementary material. It was not possible to carry out the tests for Ti and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs under the El-Ox current density of 0.75 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, as the two substrates reached the limit potential of the instrument (10 V) after just a few minutes.

In this case, the as-prepared electrodes containing non-crystalline manganese oxides reported similar phenol conversion efficiencies, probably because of the higher thickness of the MnO<sub>x</sub> on the top of the NTs substrate, whose activity prevailed over that of the material within the pores. Nonetheless, the role of NTs played in reducing the final reaction potential was again confirmed.

The highest conversion was obtained for the 2.5c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti electrode, while the lowest one was reached for 2.5c.MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs. Interestingly, as revealed by XRD, the higher the presence of  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, the higher the conversion, while the higher the presence of  $\alpha$ -Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the lower is the degradation efficiency. The lower effectiveness of the latter type of electrodes could be due to the higher production of molecular oxygen, as Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Mn<sup>3+</sup>) is considered the most active phase for water splitting [40,50,65,66], and it leads to the indirect oxidation of phenol through a reaction with O<sub>2</sub>. MnO<sub>2</sub> (Mn<sup>4+</sup>) is instead more active for phenol oxidation [24,25] or in heterogeneous catalysis [69,70], due to its ability to degrade organic molecules by producing hydroxyl radicals (OH<sup>•</sup>). This has also been confirmed from the XPS analysis, which showed they were the samples with the highest AOS values (*i.e.* closer to the oxidation state

of  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ ). In addition, as for most of the samples, some intermediates of phenol decomposition were found in the solution treated with the  $-2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  electrode, through an HPLC analysis (Fig. S12 in the SI), such as benzoquinone and hydroquinone, both of which are aromatic compounds. As reported in Fig. S12, maleic and fumaric acids, which are usually the first types of dicarboxylic acids obtained after ring opening, together with tartaric and oxalic acids, were determined as the most recurrent compounds. However, in some cases, malic, malonic, succinic, formic and acetic acids were also found in the treated solution. These by-products have also been identified in other works [71,72], thus confirming that the oxidation pathway for phenol is similar also for  $\text{MnO}_x$  electrodes: in the first step, phenol is oxidized to benzoquinone, which is in redox equilibrium with hydroquinone. The aromatic ring is opened and maleic and fumaric acids, which are *cis-trans* isomers, are formed. The oxidation then proceeds towards lower-weight acids, such as oxalic acid and, eventually, to mineralization.

Although the presence of nanotubes in the calcined material, induced a small reduction in the activity ( $\sim 5\%$ ), the final potential was about 1 V lower in the  $2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  sample than for the  $2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  sample. This can be explained by considering the induced formation of both the  $\alpha\text{-Mn}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  phases on the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  substrate. The LSV of the  $2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  sample resulted in the highest current densities in 0.1 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  (Fig. 7), which showed a higher tendency of this electrode towards the water splitting reaction. This feature, *i.e.* greater stability and oxygen evolution activity, is worth exploiting using this type of electrode in mild Catalytic Wet Air Oxidation (CWAO) conditions (Temperature,  $T < 200^\circ\text{C}$ ; Pressure,  $P < 30\text{ bar}$ ), in order to be able to exploit the  $\text{O}_2$  produced to degrade phenol in a high  $T$  – high  $P$  electrochemical multifunctional reactor.

The Faradaic efficiency (FE) was calculated from the COD conversion, using Eq. (3):

$$FE = \frac{\text{COD} - \text{COD}_0}{8I\Delta t} \cdot F_V \quad (2)$$

where  $\text{COD}_0$  and  $\text{COD}$  are the chemical oxygen demand before and after the test,  $F$  is Faraday's constant ( $96487\text{ C/mol}$ ),  $V$  is the reaction volume (l),  $I$  is the applied current (A) and  $\Delta t$  is the reaction time (s).

The Faradaic efficiency of the electrodes synthesized at  $0.25\text{ mA/cm}^2$  was higher for the samples grown on the nanotubes (see Table 2), because of the good performances obtained in terms of COD conversion.

The Faradaic efficiency was generally higher for the electrodes deposited at  $2.5\text{ mA/cm}^2$  (see Table 3), than for the ones observed for the samples synthesized at lower current densities, due to the fact that the conversion of both phenol and COD was much improved. In this case, with the exception of the  $2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  electrode, the FE was similar for all the electrodes, even for those sample that showed a lower phenol conversion. This implies that phenol can be readily converted into more oxidized molecules, such as benzoquinone or maleic acid (see Fig. S12), but any further degradation is more difficult, thus a difference between the phenol and COD conversions have been observed.

Even though the complete removal of phenol was not achieved, the specific activities of the  $\text{MnO}_x$ -based electrodes were quite high, as shown in Tables 2 and 3. The theoretical amount of Mn that was deposited on the electrode surfaces during the electrodeposition experiments can be calculated according to Faraday's law as:

$$I \cdot \Delta t = z \cdot \frac{m}{MW_i} \cdot F \quad (3)$$

where  $I$  is the electrodeposition current (A),  $\Delta t$  is the electrodeposition time,  $z$  is the number of electrons involved (2 for anodic

deposition, 3 for cathodic deposition),  $m$  is the mass deposited (g),  $MW_i$  is the molecular weight of the ionic species (g/mol) and  $F$  is Faraday's constant ( $96487\text{ C/mol}$ ). Hence, the theoretical amount of Mn in the electrodes deposited at  $0.25$ ,  $2.5$  or  $-2.5\text{ mA/cm}^2$  for 10 min were  $0.043$ ,  $0.427$  and  $0.285\text{ mg}_{\text{Mn}}/\text{cm}^2$ , respectively.

The Turn Over Number (TON) referred to the Mn (active sites) was then calculated as mols of phenol degraded by mols of Mn in the electrodes (see Tables 2 and 3). In the same manner, a conversion efficiency related to the energy consumption was calculated by dividing the TON by the total applied energy (in Wh) provided to the electrode during the 5 h of the degradation test and the results are also reported in the last column of Tables 2 and 3.

The TON for the electrodes deposited at  $0.25\text{ mA/cm}^2$  was lower for the samples grown on Ti than the one obtained for the films synthesized over the nanotubes, especially for the non calcined samples. The energy relative conversion followed the same trend, with the best performances being observed for samples on the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ .

The electrodes deposited at  $2.5\text{ mA/cm}^2$ , in general, led to lower TONs than the electrodes synthesized at  $0.25\text{ mA/cm}^2$ , probably due to the elevated thickness of the films, which did not allow all the deposited manganese oxide to be exploited. As for the phenol degradation, the anodically deposited and calcined films and the samples grown on nanotubes were slightly less performing than the samples over titanium. However, the energy related conversion, had an inverse trend, with better results for the abovementioned electrodes. This was due to the improved stability and, thus, to the lower potential reached during the electrooxidation process.

The cathodic manganese oxides proved to be the best performing synthesized electrodes, for all the analyzed parameters (phenol degradation, COD reduction, TON and energy relative conversion).

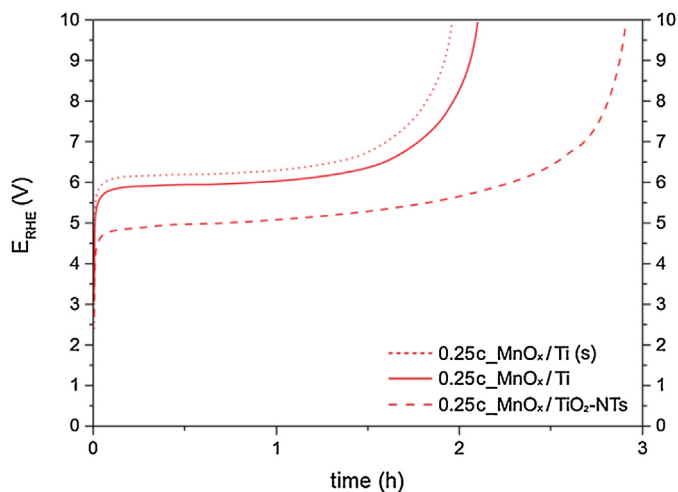
A comparison was made with one of the most effective  $\text{SnO}_2\text{-Sb}$  sample on the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  electrode [33], that converted 90% of phenol in 1.7 h, at a current density of  $10\text{ mA/cm}^2$ , which corresponds to a working potential of about  $2.85\text{ V}$  vs RHE. For this type of electrode the deposited mass was  $2.50\text{ mg/cm}^2$  and the TON was  $0.88\text{ mol}_{\text{phenol}}/\text{mol}_{\text{SnSb}}$ , which is similar to the one obtained for  $-2.5\text{c-MnO}_x$  and lower than the electrodes grown at  $0.25\text{ mA/cm}^2$  on the  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$ . When the energy given to the electrode for 1.7 h was considered, the conversion related to the energy consumption was of  $18.2\text{ mol}_{\text{phenol}}/(\text{mol}_{\text{SnSb}}\cdot\text{Wh})$ , that is, 58% less than our best electrode ( $-2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$ ) which achieved  $43.7\text{ mol}_{\text{phenol}}/(\text{mol}_{\text{SnSb}}\cdot\text{Wh})$ .

### 3.6 Accelerated lifetime tests

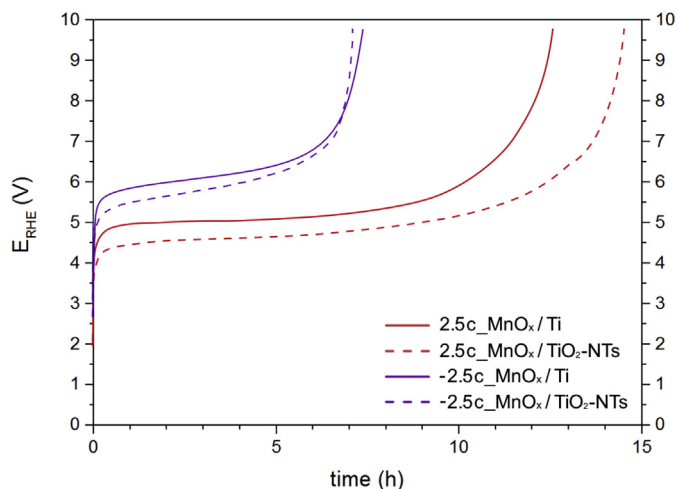
It was not possible to perform durability tests on the non-calcined electrodes, deposited at  $0.25\text{ mA/cm}^2$  or at  $2.5\text{ mA/cm}^2$ , as those electrodes immediately reached  $10\text{ V}$ . As a consequence, it is possible to state that calcination was essential to reach a resistant film that could withstand high current densities, without being damaged or reaching too high working potentials.

Fig. 12 shows the tests that were carried out on the calcined electrodes electrodeposited at  $0.25\text{ mA/cm}^2$  and it can be observed that films grown on  $\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  were able to resist up to 3 h, while the samples on Ti had a lifetime of about 2 h, with a slight increase in durability when the calcination occurred at a fast ramp (Fig. 12d).

Fig. 13 reports the results of the durability tests on the calcined electrodes electrodeposited at  $2.5\text{ mA/cm}^2$ , among which the  $2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  sample reached about 15 h of accelerated lifetime, while the same film deposited on metallic titanium stopped at 12 h. Both the  $-2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{Ti}$  and  $-2.5\text{c-MnO}_x/\text{TiO}_2\text{-NTs}$  cathodic electrodes resisted for about 7 h, thus confirming that the calcined anodic samples were the most durable electrodes. If compared to previous literature works, the results obtained on the most stable sample were comparable in order of magnitude to the durability tests carried out for similar electrodes based on  $\text{SnO}_2\text{-Sb}$  synthe-



**Fig. 12.** Accelerated lifetime test at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> of samples synthesized at 0.25 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.



**Fig. 13.** Accelerated lifetime test at 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> in 1 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> of samples synthesized at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>.

sized *via* electrodeposition over TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs, which had durabilities of about 36 h [35].

#### 4. Conclusions

In conclusion, MnO<sub>x</sub> electrodeposited on titanium and titania nanotubes were synthesized, fully characterized and tested. Various techniques, which led to different morphologies and phases of manganese oxides, were employed, as reported by means of the FESEM, XRD and XPS investigations. In particular, α-MnO<sub>2</sub> on titanium demonstrated the highest activity for the electro-degradation of phenol, while α-Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> on titania nanotubes provided the highest stability during the reaction.

Synthesis on TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs allowed the manganese oxide to penetrate inside the nanotube array when anodic deposition was carried out, while cathodic deposition did not show any relevant growth of manganese oxide inside the nanotube structure. MnO<sub>x</sub> deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs resulted in lower working potentials (about 1–1.5 V) during the electro-oxidation of phenol, than the same electrodes grown on Ti metal. This result was investigated through an EIS analysis, which confirmed the fundamental role of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs in enhancing the charge transfer properties and improving the conduction from the metal substrate to the MnO<sub>x</sub> film, especially in

calcined electrodes, as the formation of a passivating layer of rutile on the metallic Ti was avoided. Thus, excellent performances were obtained on the optimized substrates, even though total phenol and COD conversions were not reached in this work. However, it is important to underline that the electro-oxidations were carried out at very low current densities with respect to those adopted in most of the literature. Furthermore, these results should be considered in relation to the amount of deposited material, which was lower than for the other reported syntheses, due to the fast electrodeposition times.

Moreover, the durability tests proved that the electrodes anodically deposited at high current densities had the longest lifetime, which was further increased by the presence of the nanotubes layer (up to 15 h), thanks to the better adhesion obtained from the penetration of the MnO<sub>x</sub> film inside the nanotubes. More studies are required in order to better understand the deactivation causes, in order to be able to further improve the lifetime of these materials.

The easiness of the procedure and the thermal energy saving obtained with the proposed synthesis method should be considered as positive points, since there is no need for long layer by layer preparations, such as the one used to deposit alternate layers of Sb and Sn from their respective precursors solutions and for which the calcination times are higher. Hence, further improvements should be made to increase both the performance and stability of such electrodes, in order to find an interesting alternative to the commonly used, and more expensive (e.g. IrO<sub>2</sub>, RuO<sub>2</sub>) or more toxic electrodes (e.g. PbO<sub>2</sub>) for the treatment of organics in wastewater. Moreover, the here presented results open interesting perspectives for additional phenol degradation studies, even under intensified process conditions. In fact, studies on electrodes containing α-Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (e.g. 2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/Ti and 2.5c\_MnO<sub>x</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>-NTs), which is active for the water oxidation, are currently in progress in our laboratories, in order to exploit in-situ O<sub>2</sub> evolution, with the aim of boosting phenol conversion at high temperatures and high pressures and of analyzing the feasibility of process intensification of this technology.

#### Acknowledgments

This work has been funded by the EU Framework Program Horizon 2020: Project TERRA, Grant agreement number 677471 and Project CELBICON, Grant agreement number 679050). The authors would like also to thank Mauro Raimondo for conducting the FESEM analysis and Micaela Castellino for the XPS analysis.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.10.025>.

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