

Facile synthesis of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts with enhanced interaction level and high light absorption efficiency

Zhenting Bo¹ · Rulin Dong¹ · Changchun Jin¹ · Zhidong Chen¹

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Abstract SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts with TiO₂ crystallite core and porous amorphous SiO₂/TiO₂ shell were synthesized as photocatalyst by one-pot hydrothermal process using tetrabutyl titanate (TBOT) complex and ethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) as Ti and Si sources, respectively. The synthesized SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts were characterized by transmission electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction pattern, UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectrum and N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherm. The interaction between TiO₂ and SiO₂, which is associated with photocatalytically active centers, is significantly improved through an enlargement in the interfacial area and the optimization of SiO₂ fraction. The SiO₂ modification does not lower the light absorption efficiency of TiO₂ crystallite core owing to the low reflectivity of porous SiO₂/TiO₂ shell but endows the photocatalyst with easy separation behavior from aqueous solution. Furthermore, the reciprocal inhibition in volume shrinkage of TBOT complex- and TEOS-derived gel networks, as a consequence of mineralization asynchronism, increases the specific surface area and pore volume of the formed SiO₂/TiO₂ shell. The enhanced photocatalytic activity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts by SiO₂ modification is mainly ascribed to an increase in the interaction level, the high light absorption efficiency of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts and an enlargement in specific surface area of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell.

Keywords Hydrothermal process · TiO₂ crystallite · SiO₂ · Light absorption · Adsorption kinetics · Photocatalysis

Introduction

Semiconductor TiO₂ has been extensively studied as photocatalyst for the degradation of organic pollutant in water or air due to its chemical and physical stability, superior photocatalytic oxidation ability, easy availability, low cost and nontoxicity [1–3]. The mechanism of TiO₂-based photocatalytic reaction [4, 5] can be described as follows: Electrons in the valence band of TiO₂ absorb photon energy and get excited to the conduction band with the formation of positive holes in the valence band. The excited electrons can react with adsorbed O₂ to form superoxide radical anions ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$), while the holes in valence band react with adsorbed OH⁻ or H₂O to form highly reactive hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) that has strongly oxidizing power for the degradation of recalcitrant organic compounds but has short lifetime (usually 10⁻⁹ s). Photo-induced hydroxyl radical is regarded as the major oxidative species in photocatalytic degradation reaction and exists in two forms, i.e., free $\cdot\text{OH}$ and surface-bonded $\cdot\text{OH}$. Xiang et al. [4] measured the hydroxyl radical yield of various photocatalysts by photoluminescence technique and proposed a concept of hydroxyl radical index for evaluating the activity of photocatalyst. However, some critical drawbacks obstruct the practical application of TiO₂ in the degradation of organic pollutant in water and air. The ineffective charge carrier separation as a consequence of shorter carrier lifetime is the ultimate crisis for TiO₂ photocatalyst. Besides, light-induced charge carrier pair recombination also occurs in parallel during photocatalytic process. Moreover, TiO₂ absorbs UV light that is the tiny

✉ Rulin Dong
dongrl@cczu.edu.cn

¹ Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Advanced Catalytic Materials and Technology, Changzhou University, Changzhou 213164, People's Republic of China

portion of solar spectrum but has meager response to visible light due to a wide band gap of TiO_2 [6, 7]. Fortunately, many novel approaches like doping with impurities [8–10], noble metal deposition [11, 12], sensitizing with narrow band gap absorption materials [13, 14] and hydrogenation process [15, 16] have been found to be effective in enabling visible light absorption, while several inventive techniques such as heterostructuring with other semiconductors [17, 18], integrating with carbon nanostructures [19, 20], designing with exposed reactive facets [12, 21] and hierarchical morphologies [22, 23] have been developed to improve structural stability and charge carrier separation kinetics.

Porous amorphous SiO_2 nanomaterials are normally employed as a carrier for TiO_2 nanoparticles (NPs) due to their compatibility for TiO_2 deposition, and their high specific surface area that endows TiO_2 with an ability of enriching pollutant molecules in aqueous medium and gaseous phase onto catalyst surface. For instance, Wu et al. [5] synthesized core-shell structural $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ NPs using monodispersed teardrop-shaped silica NPs as carrier by sol-gel method. Liu [24] prepared mesoporous SiO_2 aerogel/ W_xTiO_2 nanocomposites by a hydrothermal deposition method using SiO_2 aerogel as a carrier. Besides the increase in specific surface area, the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 can also be improved by the SiO_2 modification as the interaction between the counterparts increases the concentration of photocatalytically active centers [5, 25]. In order to increase the interfacial area between TiO_2 and SiO_2 , Resende et al. [26] introduced SiO_2 colloidal particle into mesoporous TiO_2 microspheres by an ultrasonic treatment of TiO_2 microspheres in SiO_2 sol and a subsequent heat treatment of the microspheres. In consideration of the absorption and scattering effect of carrier to the incident light, TiO_2 NPs are normally deposited on the surface of SiO_2 carrier so that TiO_2 NPs can be adequately irradiated. However, only a small portion of the surface of TiO_2 NPs in such carrier-supported TiO_2 is utilized in forming the interface with SiO_2 , and excessive deposition may easily lead to the formation of agglomeration of TiO_2 crystallite on the carrier. This provides a potential challenge in further improving the heterostructure to increase the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 . Moreover, because most of the approaches for the synthesis of SiO_2 -supported TiO_2 photocatalysts need at least two steps including the preparation of SiO_2 carrier and the deposition of TiO_2 NPs, a simple one-pot approach would be desired for the synthesis of $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ photocatalyst.

In the present work, $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts with TiO_2 crystallite core and porous $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell were synthesized by one-pot hydrothermal route using tetrabutyl titanate (TBOT) and ethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) as the precursors of TiO_2 and SiO_2 , respectively. In a quest

to achieve a comparable hydrolysis reaction rate of TBOT with that of TEOS, TBOT was allowed to react with acetylacetone (ACAC), and the resultant TBOT complex with a moderate hydrolysis rate was used in the subsequent hydrothermal reaction. The synthesized $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts have large interfacial area between the counterparts because the catalytically active TiO_2 crystallites are wrapped with porous amorphous $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell. The results indicate that the porous $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell not only does not hinder the light absorption of TiO_2 crystallite but also maintains superior light absorption property of the $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts even in the presence of agglomeration due to its low reflectivity. The adsorption capacity and photocatalytic activity of the $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts were measured and compared with those of pure TiO_2 nanoparticles through the degradation of methylene blue in aqueous solution under UV light irradiation.

Materials and methods

Materials

Tetrabutyltitanate ($\text{Ti}(\text{OBU}^n)_4$, TBOT), tetraethoxysilane ($\text{Si}(\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5)_4$, TEOS), methylene blue (MB), cyclohexane and ethanol were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., LTD. Acetylacetone (ACAC) was purchased from Jiangsu Qiangsheng Chemical Engineering Co., LTD. All the chemicals were of analytical grade and used without further purification.

Preparation of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite

TBOT complex prepared by mixing 5 mL of TBOT with 2 mL of ACAC was dispersed in a mixed solvent containing 40 mL of ethanol and 2 mL of cyclohexane under magnetic stirring. Then, 40 mL of distilled water was slowly added into the solution and the stirring was maintained for 30 min. Thereafter, a certain amount of TEOS was added into the solution according to the desired molar fraction ($n_{\text{Si}}/(n_{\text{Ti}} + n_{\text{Si}}) = x\%$) of the final $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts. After being stirred for 30 min, the solution was equally transferred into four Teflon-lined autoclaves with a volume capacity of 25 mL. The autoclaves containing reactant solutions were sealed, heated at 150 °C for 10 h, and left to cool naturally to ambient temperature. The synthesized $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts were washed with distilled water and ethanol in sequence, and finally dried at 100 °C for 2 h in a drying oven. Pure TiO_2 NPs were also prepared as a reference by the similar procedure without adding TEOS in the solution. The obtained $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite

photocatalysts were assigned as TS x , where T and S represent TiO₂, SiO₂, respectively, and x represents the molar fraction of SiO₂.

Characterization of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite

The morphology and microstructure of the pure TiO₂ and SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts were characterized by a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM-2100, JEOL, Japan). Disk-shaped specimens (diameter: 10 mm) of TS30, prepared under a pressure of 20 MPa, were used to measure the SiO₂ fraction on an energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrometer attached to a scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JSM-6360LA, JEOL, Japan). X-ray diffraction analysis was carried out by a X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D/Max2500 Rigaku, Japan) with Cu K radiation ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm) at a scan rate of 0.1° s^{-1} to determine the crystalline phase in SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts and the crystalline particle size of TiO₂. The accelerating voltage and applied current were 40 kV and 100 mA, respectively. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms at 77 K were recorded on an ASAP2010C Micromeritics volumetric adsorption analyzer and were used to analyze the texture of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the pure TiO₂ and SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts were recorded in the wavelength range of 200–800 nm by a UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectrometer (UV-3600 Shimadzu, Japan) using barium sulfate as reference. Fifty milligrams of the SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts was calcined at 500 °C for 30 min to remove the possible organic residuals in samples and then used in the measurement.

Photocatalytic activity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite

Adsorption of MB

Ten milligrams of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts was added into a beaker containing 40 mL of MB solution with a concentration of 10 mg L⁻¹. The solution was monitored by measuring the absorption spectrum of MB solution at a certain time interval using the 756S UV–Vis spectrophotometer during the adsorption process. The adsorption capacity (q_t , mg g⁻¹) is determined as follows:

$$q_t = 1000 \times (1 - A_t/A_0) \times C_0 \times V/m_p \quad (1)$$

where C_0 and A_0 are the concentration and absorbance of initial MB solution, respectively, C_t and A_t are the concentration and absorbance of MB solution, and q_t the adsorption capacity of photocatalyst after t h adsorption, respectively, and V and m_p are the volume of solution and the mass of photocatalyst, respectively.

Photocatalytic degradation of MB

After the adsorption process described in “Adsorption of MB” section is finished, the beaker containing photocatalyst and MB solution was exposed to UV light emitted by a 30-W quartz UV modulator tube. The vertical distance between tube and the surface of solution is set at 10 cm. The absorption spectrum of MB solution was recorded during the irradiation at a certain time interval, and the measured data were fitted with first-order reaction kinetic equations. Reaction rate based on the slope of fitted regression line was used to evaluate the photocatalytic activity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts.

Results and discussion

Microstructure of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite

Figure 1 displays the TEM images of TS0, TS20 and TS40. The TS0 particles appear a tetragonal bipyramidal morphology, and the particle size is estimated to be 10 nm as shown in Fig. 1a. In general condition, anatase TiO₂ crystallite grows with the preferential exposure of {101} facet with a lower surface energy, which leads to the formation of tetragonal bipyramidal TiO₂ nanocrystals. It was reported that fluorine-containing species can favor the preferential exposure of {001} facet of anatase and thus the formation of TiO₂ nanoplate [6, 12, 21]. TS20 and TS40 without regular TiO₂ crystal shape show mullein-like morphology as shown in Fig. 1b, c. This indicates the SiO₂ modification on TiO₂ crystallites and implies that the interaction between SiO₂ and TiO₂ crystallite probably weakens the preferential growth of lattice plane. The interplanar spacing of the lattice plane shown in Fig. 1d is measured to be 0.350 nm, corresponding to the (101) crystallographic plane of anatase TiO₂. Also, Fig. 1d clearly shows an amorphous covering on an exposed crystallographic plane of TiO₂ crystallite, which confirms the formation of core–shell microstructure. N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts described latter suggest that the formed amorphous covering on TiO₂ crystalline particle is not pure SiO₂ but porous SiO₂/TiO₂ shell.

The XRD patterns of TS0–TS50 shown in Fig. 2a are similar to one another. All the diffraction peaks in the patterns were identified to be anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS, No. 21-1272) and no other diffraction peak was detected, which indicates that the formed SiO₂ phase is amorphous and that no other TiO₂ crystallographic phase exists in the products. As an evidence of SiO₂ modification, an amorphous SiO₂-induced bump arises at $2\theta = 25.3^\circ$ for the patterns of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts and its intensity

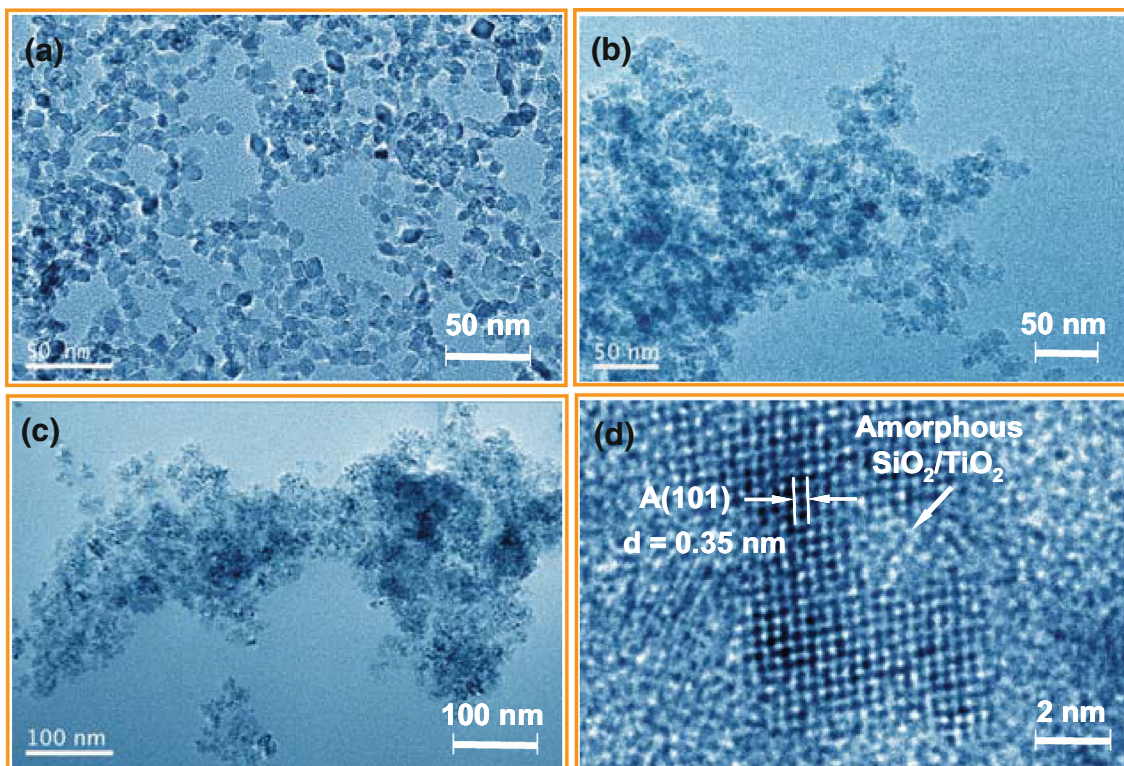
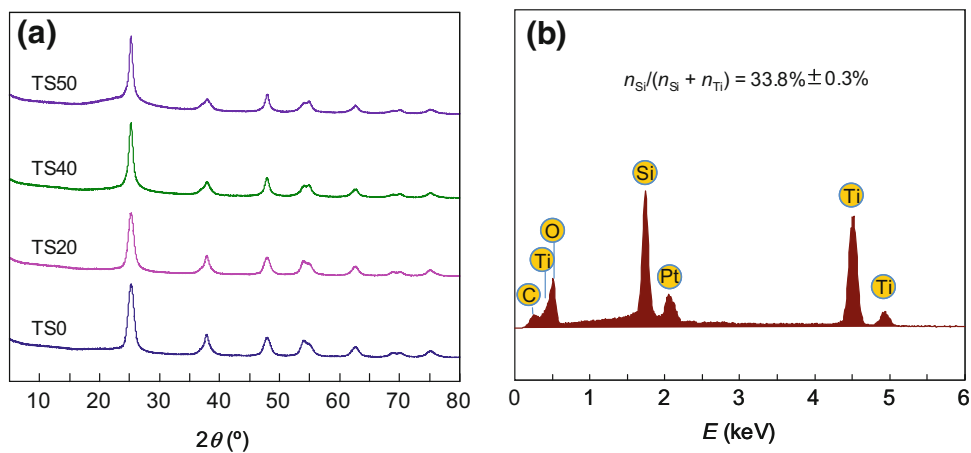


Fig. 1 TEM images of TS0 (a), TS20 (b) and TS40 (c) and high-resolution TEM image of TS40 (d)

Fig. 2 XRD patterns of TS0–TS50 (a) and EDX spectra measured from TS30 disk specimen (b)



increases with the increase of SiO_2 fraction. The crystalline particle size for TS0, TS10, TS20, TS30, TS40 and TS50 was calculated to be 9.20, 9.54, 11.00, 12.24, 13.38 and 13.45 nm, respectively, based on Scherrer formula [27] (Eq. 2) and the (101) peaks of anatase TiO_2 .

$$D_{(hkl)} = K\lambda / (b \cos \theta) \quad (2)$$

where, $D_{(hkl)}$ is the estimated crystalline particle size, λ is the wavelength of incident X-ray ($\text{Cu K}\alpha$, 0.154056 nm), θ and β are the diffraction angle and full width at half maximum (FWHM) of (hkl) characteristic peak of TiO_2 , respectively, and K is Scherrer constant (0.89). Figure 2b

depicts the EDX spectrum of TS30. The spectrum shows element response signals of Ti, Si, O, Pt and C. The Pt response signal is caused by Pt film coated on the surface of specimen before measurement. C response signal may be originated from the small amount of residual organic group. The Si atom fraction of $n_{\text{Si}}/(n_{\text{Ti}} + n_{\text{Si}})$ is measured to be $33.8\% \pm 0.3\%$. Because the characteristic X-ray signal of element comes from a very thin surface layer of sample and weakens with the increase of depth, the measured Si atom fraction is slightly high than the theoretical value of 30%, which in turn confirms the formation of $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ modification layer on TiO_2 crystalline particles.

Figure 3a shows the UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of TS0–TS50. Because amorphous SiO₂/TiO₂ shell in the composites has no absorption in the wavelength range of 200–800 nm, the strong absorption band located around $\lambda = 300$ nm is originated from the excitation of electrons from the valence band to conduction band of TiO₂. The absorbance of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts in the wavelength 200–400 nm increases with the increase of SiO₂ fraction from 0 to 40% even the absolute amount of TiO₂ crystallite in sample decreases. This indicates a low reflectivity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite powder compact as compared with that of pure TiO₂ powder compact because the high light transmittance of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell benefits the light absorption of TiO₂ crystallites under the surface of powder compact. Actually, SiO₂/TiO₂ composite film has been extensively studied as anti-reflection surface material in solar devices due to its high light transmittance [28, 29]. The above result means that our SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts have superior light absorption property even in the presence of agglomeration. The band gap energy can be estimated from UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectrum according to the equation of $(\alpha hv) = A(hv - E_g)^2$ [30], where hv is photon energy, α is molar absorption coefficient and can be calculated with reflectance (R) as follows [31]:

$$\alpha = (1 - R)^2 / (2R) \quad (3)$$

Figure 3b shows the plot of $(\alpha hv)^{0.5}$ versus hv for TS0–TS50 photocatalysts. The estimated band gap energies for TS0, TS10, TS20, TS30, TS40 and TS50 are 3.176, 3.202, 3.226, 3.267, 3.275 and 3.275 eV, respectively. That is, the band gap energy of TiO₂ increases with the increase of SiO₂ fraction and reaches a constant value at 40% SiO₂, which reveals the formation of Ti–O–Si bond and that the amount of Ti–O–Si bond increases with the increase of SiO₂ fraction. In our previous research [32], the formation of TiO₂/SiO₂ shell as well as Ti–O–Si bond in TiO₂/SiO₂ microspheres derived from the same precursors was discussed in detail based on thermogravimetric analysis for the intermediates and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

analysis for the microspheres. In this regard, the increase in TiO₂ band gap energy can be used as an index of interaction level for TiO₂/SiO₂ composite.

Figure 4 illustrates the formation mechanisms of pure TiO₂ and SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. An increase in temperature of the solution during the hydrothermal process decreases the compatibility of TBOT complex with the solvent and leads to the formation of dispersed colloidal droplets of TBOT complex. Meanwhile, the hydrolysis and condensation reactions of free-TBOT complex as well as TEOS molecules in the solvent result in the formation of polymeric gel anchored on the surface of colloidal droplets. The colloidal droplet and polymeric gel layer undergo mineralization and finally transform into TiO₂ crystallite core and amorphous SiO₂/TiO₂ shell, respectively, as shown in Fig. 4b. As the growth of TiO₂ crystallite is localized within the colloidal droplets, it would not be inhibited by SiO₂. Moreover, the grafted TEOS induces a decrease in the stability of colloidal droplet and thus an increase in the colloidal droplet size. As a consequence, the higher the TEOS concentration, the larger TiO₂ crystallite is formed. In the case without TEOS in the solution, the dispersed colloidal droplets crystallize into pure anatase TiO₂ crystalline particles as shown in Fig. 4a.

Figure 5 shows the N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of typical products. The adsorption isotherms shown in Fig. 5 were identified to be IV type according to IUPAC classification, indicating a typical mesoporous material. The adsorption volume at the same N₂ pressure increases with the increase of SiO₂ fraction, especially for TS30 and TS40. The textural parameters measured by N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherm are summarized in Table 1. The specific surface area of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts significantly increases with the increase of SiO₂ fraction because the hydrothermally produced amorphous SiO₂ possesses a high surface area. It is interesting to note that the pore volume and pore size increase, reach a maximum value at 30%SiO₂ and then decrease with the

Fig. 3 UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of TS0–TS50 (a) and plot of $(\alpha hv)^{0.5}$ versus hv (b)

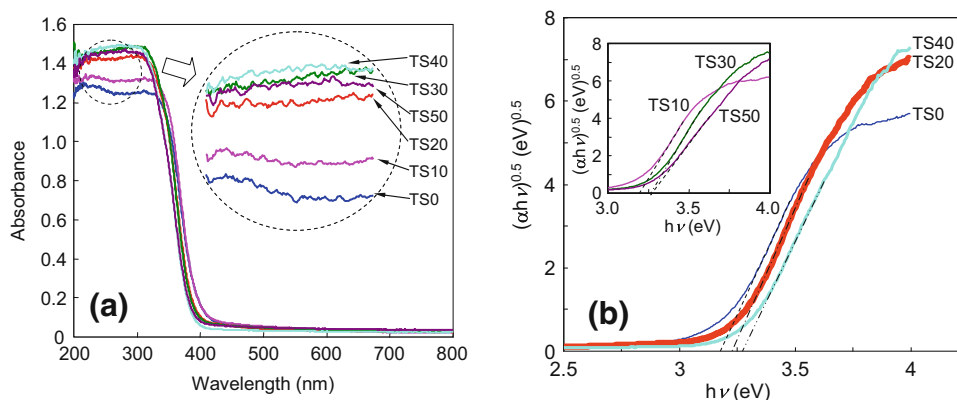


Fig. 4 Schematic illustration for the formation of pure TiO_2 crystallite (a) and $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite (b)

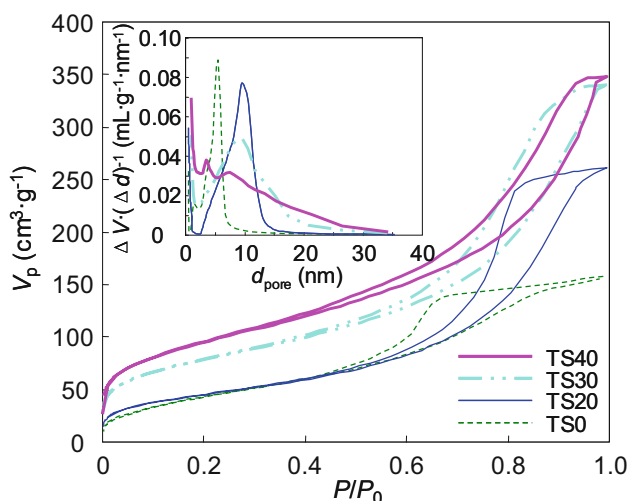
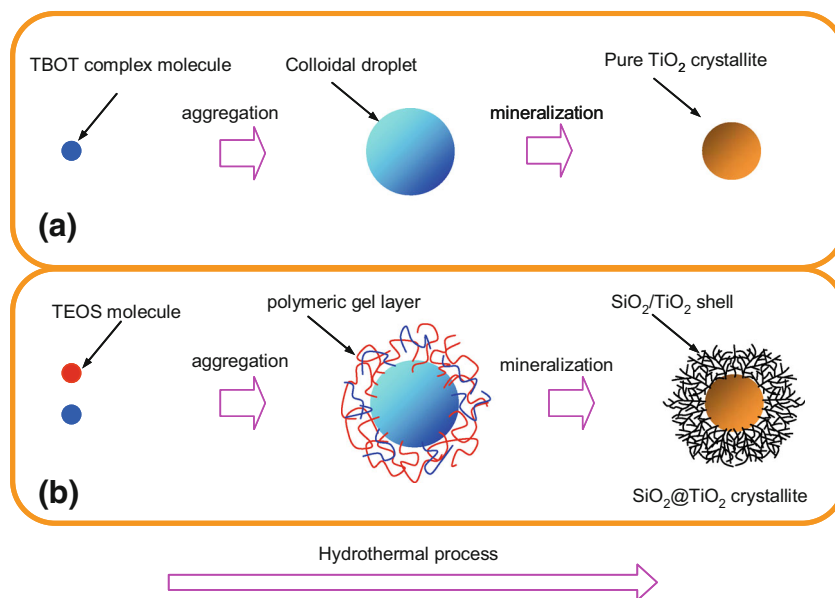


Fig. 5 N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and pore size distributions (inset) of typical products

Table 1 Textural parameters of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ measured by N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherm

Sample	S_{BET} ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$)	V_{pore} ($\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$)	d_{pore} (nm)
TS0	169.86	0.224	4.86
TS20	164.53	0.391	7.39
TS30	280.18	0.486	7.80
TS40	338.11	0.477	7.32

further increase of SiO_2 fraction. The enlarged specific surface area, pore volume and pore size, indicating a looser $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell on the surface of TiO_2 crystalline particles, are resulted from a reciprocal inhibition effect in volume shrinkage of TBOT complex- and TEOS-derived gel

networks. The reciprocal inhibition effect can be described as follows: Due to the further hydrolysis and condensation reactions, the TBOT complex- and TEOS-derived polymeric gel shell is gradually mineralized with volume shrinkage during the hydrothermal process. On the one hand, the volume shrinkage of TBOT complex gel network first occurs, but a further shrinkage is hindered by TEOS gel network because of the higher hydrolysis activity of TBOT complex compared with that of TEOS. On the other hand, the subsequent volume shrinkage of TEOS gel network is in turn suppressed by the mineralized TBOT complex gel. As a result, large surface area and pore volume are formed in the $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell due to the reciprocal inhibition effect that originated from mineralization asynchronism between TBOT complex and TEOS. It is no doubt that strong reciprocal inhibition effect can be achieved at an appropriate ratio of TBOT complex to TEOS in the polymeric gel layer. Accordingly, the pore volume and pore size of $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts have a maximum value at 30% SiO_2 . Suppose that the shell is a pure SiO_2 , the pore volume would continuously increase with the increase of SiO_2 fraction. In fact, a decrease in the pore volume of $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ crystallite photocatalysts is observed at an excessively high SiO_2 fraction of 40%. This also confirms the concept of the formation of $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell. As compared with that of TS0, a broadened pore size distribution of TS20–TS40 shown in inset of Fig. 5 also indicates the reciprocal inhibition effect and the formation of loose $\text{SiO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ shell on TiO_2 crystalline particles. Furthermore, the enlarged specific surface area and pore volume mean the formation of large number of microchannels through which the reactants and resultants can successfully migrate.

Photocatalysis of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite

Adsorption kinetics

Figure 6a, b shows the temporal changes in the absorption spectra of MB solutions with representative TS0 and TS40 during adsorption process. MB exhibits a strong absorption band at 664 nm due to heteropolyaromatic linkage, with a shoulder locating at 292 nm due to benzene ring [20]. As seen in Fig. 6a, no obvious decrease in absorption intensity of MB solution is observed for TS0 during adsorption process. However, the absorption intensity of MB solution distinctly decreases for TS10–TS50 as the adsorption time interval increases. This indicates that the SiO₂ modification leads to a change in the microstructure and an enhancement in the adsorption capacity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. In order to well understand the adsorption kinetics, we matched the adsorption data with pseudo-first-order (Eq. 4), pseudo-second-order (Eq. 5) and intraparticle diffusion (Eq. 6) adsorption kinetic equations [33],

respectively. The fitted parameters and regression coefficients (R^2) are summarized in Table 2.

(1) Pseudo-first-order adsorption kinetic equation:

$$\ln(q_e - q_t) = \ln q_e - k_1 t \tag{4}$$

where k_1 is the pseudo-first-order adsorption rate constant, and q_t and q_e are the adsorption capacity of photocatalyst at adsorption time t and at adsorption equilibrium, respectively.

(2) Pseudo-second-order adsorption kinetic equation:

$$t/q_t = 1/(k_2 q_e^2) + t/q_e \tag{5}$$

where k_2 is the pseudo-second-order adsorption rate constant.

(3) Intraparticle diffusion adsorption kinetic equation:

$$q_t = k_p q_e^{0.5} + C \tag{6}$$

where k_p is the intraparticle diffusion rate constant, and C is a constant related to the boundary layer thickness.

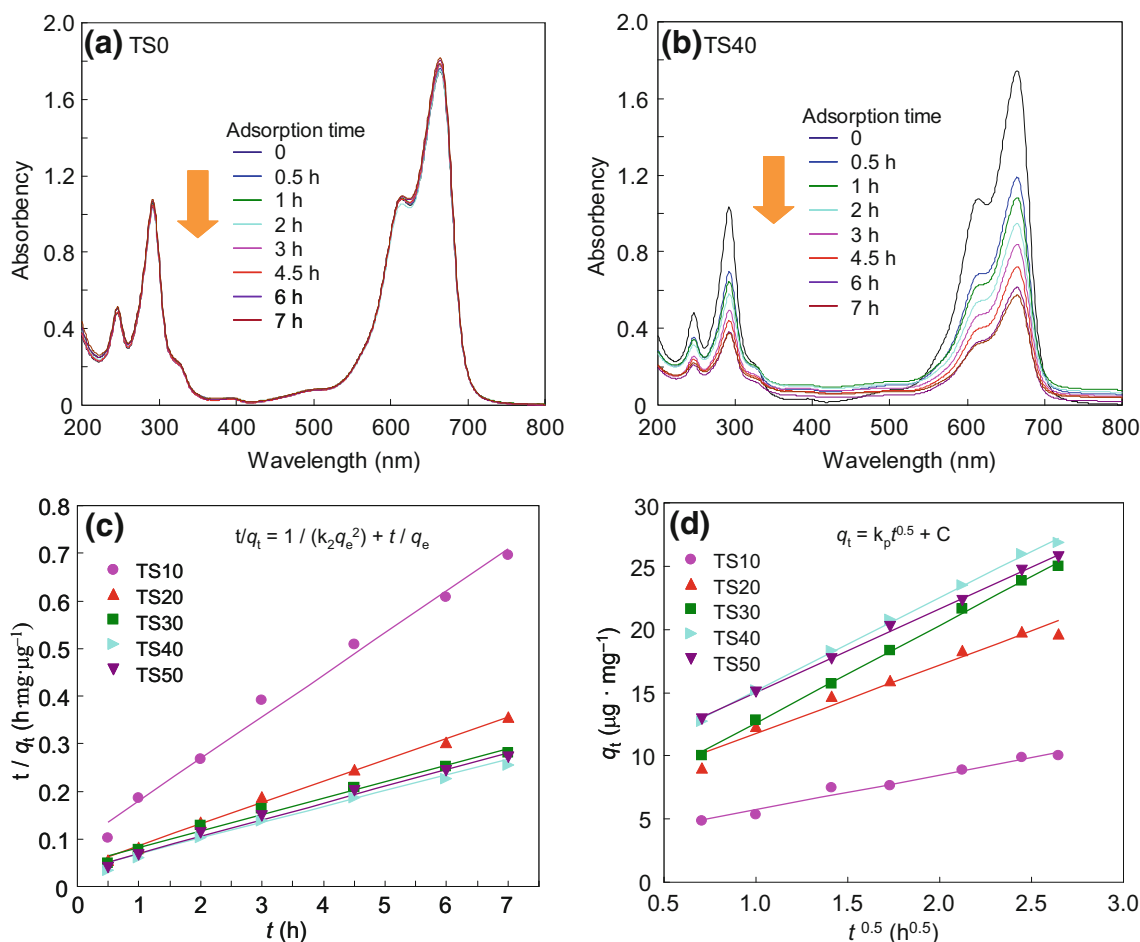


Fig. 6 Temporal changes in the absorption spectra of MB solutions with TS0 (a) and TS40 (b) during adsorption process and the plots of pseudo-second-order (c) and intraparticle diffusion (d) adsorption kinetic equations

Table 2 Fitted parameters by the adsorption kinetic equations for MB adsorption on TS10–TS50

Sample	Pseudo-first order			Pseudo-second order			Intraparticle diffusion	
	$\ln(q_e - q_t) = \ln q_e - k_1 t$			$t/q_t = 1/(k_2 q_e^2) + t/q_e$			$q_t = k_p t^{0.5} + C$	
	R^2	q_e (mg g ⁻¹)	k_1 (h ⁻¹)	R^2	q_e (mg g ⁻¹)	k_2 (g mg ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	R^2	k_p (mg g ⁻¹ h ^{-0.5})
TS10	0.9198	9.160	0.5711	0.9891	11.31	0.08541	0.9786	2.773
TS20	0.9641	15.61	0.5407	0.9957	22.17	0.05034	0.9641	5.413
TS30	0.9730	22.37	0.4615	0.9855	29.07	0.02497	0.9980	7.750
TS40	0.9594	22.46	0.4875	0.9897	30.03	0.03177	0.9983	7.341
TS50	0.9794	14.13	0.5353	0.9898	28.33	0.03687	0.9982	6.618

The adsorption capacity is closely related to the microstructure of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. As the SiO₂ fraction increases, the MB adsorption capacity increases due to an increase in the specific surface area and pore volume of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. When SiO₂ fraction is higher than 40%, the surface area and pore volume of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell, however, decrease due to the weakened reciprocal inhibition effect of volume shrinkage, thereby resulting in a decreasing tendency in MB adsorption capacity of TS50. As compared with those for Eq. (4), the higher R^2 values for Eqs. (5) and (6) suggest that pseudo-second-order and intraparticle diffusion adsorption kinetic equations are more suitable for describing the adsorption behavior of MB on SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. The plot of Eqs. (5) and (6) is shown in Fig. 6c, d. The MB adsorption on SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts includes the diffusion of MB molecules from bulk solution to photocatalyst surface, intraparticle diffusion and surface adsorption. Because the pore size distribution is narrow and the tiny pores are extremely limited in the SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts with lower SiO₂ fraction (10–20%), intraparticle diffusion is not rate-determining step for TS10 and TS20. However, the photocatalysts with higher SiO₂ fraction (30–50%) has a large number of tiny pores that make the intraparticle diffusion a dominating rate-determining step in adsorption process. Accordingly, the R^2 values obtained by intraparticle diffusion equation are relatively low and high for SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts with lower and higher SiO₂ fraction, respectively, as compared with those obtained by pseudo-second-order equation.

Photocatalytic activity

Figure 7a, b shows the temporal changes in absorption spectra of MB solutions with representative TS0 and TS40 during UV light irradiation. With the increase of irradiation time, the absorbance of the MB solution catalyzed by TS0 gradually decreases, while that of those catalyzed by SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts rapidly decreases.

This means that the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ is remarkably improved by the SiO₂ modification. The DRS analysis described above suggests that the light absorption efficiency of pure TiO₂ NPs decreases with the formation of agglomeration of TiO₂ crystalline particle. As a result, the lower photocatalytic activity of TS0 is mainly due to the serious agglomeration as well as lower MB adsorption capacity of TiO₂ NPs. Photocatalytic reaction by TiO₂ can usually be described using first-order reaction kinetic equation (Eq. 7) [34, 35].

$$\ln(C_t/C_0) = -k_1 t \quad (7)$$

where k_1 is apparent rate constant for first-order reaction, respectively.

Figure 7c, d shows the plots of C_t/C_0 and $\ln(C_t/C_0)$ against t , respectively. A good linear relationship as shown in Fig. 7d suggests that the photocatalytic degradation reaction of MB by the SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts matches first-order reaction kinetics. As described above, the interaction level between SiO₂ and TiO₂, which is characterized by the change in band gap energy, is an important indicator that affects the photocatalytic activity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. Figure 8 shows the photocatalytic reaction rate constant (k_1), band gap energy (E_g) and absorbance (A) at $\lambda = 300$ nm as a function of the SiO₂ fraction, respectively, for SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. Both k_1 and E_g increase with the increase of SiO₂ fraction and reach their maximum values at 40% SiO₂. The surface modification of TiO₂ crystallite with SiO₂ greatly increases the interfacial area that promotes the interaction level between the counterparts. Moreover, the interaction level is further increased through the optimization of SiO₂ fraction. The enhanced interaction level characterized by the increase in band gap energy leads to the formation of more photocatalytically active centers that generate more hydroxyl radicals, thereby increasing the photocatalytic reaction rate constant (k_1). Although TS50 has the similar interaction level, it shows a relatively low activity compared with TS40 due to an excessively low fraction of TiO₂ and a decrease in

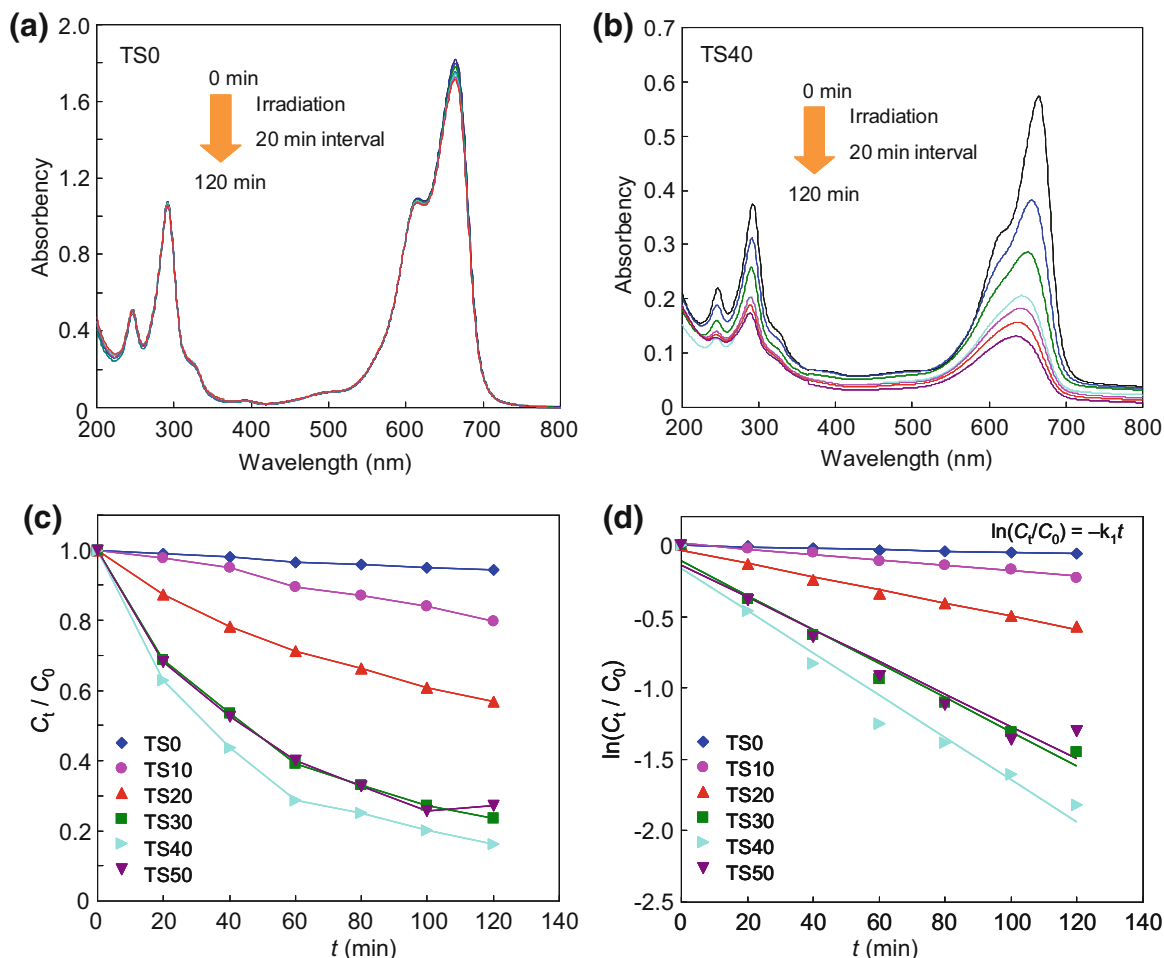


Fig. 7 Temporal changes in the absorption spectra of MB solutions with TS0 (a) and TS40 (b) during photocatalytic process and the plots of C_t/C_0 (c) and $\ln(C_t/C_0)$ (d) against t

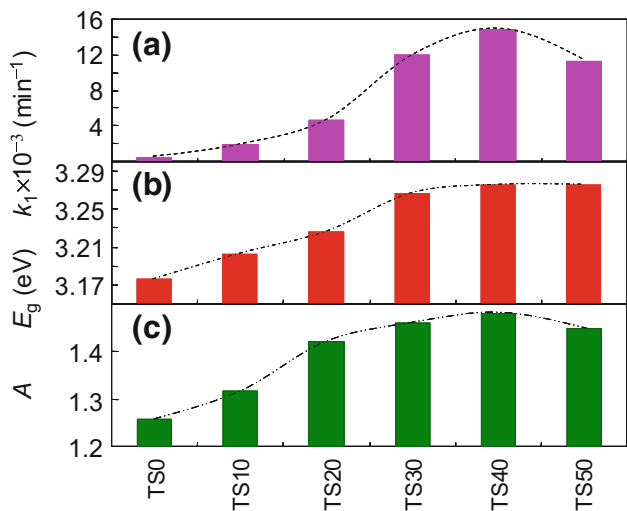


Fig. 8 Photocatalytic reaction rate constant (a), band gap energy (b) and absorbance (c) at $\lambda = 300 \text{ nm}$ measured from the corresponding DRS spectra as a function of SiO₂ fraction, respectively, for SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts

adsorption capacity. Similar to k_1 and E_g , the absorbance (A) also increases with the increase of SiO₂ fraction and reaches its maximum value at 40% SiO₂. The low reflectivity of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell gives SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts the merit of high utilization efficiency of incident light. In other words, the TiO₂ crystallites in SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts can be regarded as the bare crystallites individually dispersed in MB solution and can thus efficiently absorb incident light even though the agglomeration of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts exists. Furthermore, SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts can be easily separated from the solution by sedimentation after photocatalytic process due to the modification of SiO₂. During the adsorption process, the MB molecules in the bulk solution are adsorbed on the surface of microchannel in SiO₂/TiO₂ shell through diffusion, and then, an adsorption–desorption equilibrium of MB is established. In the subsequent photocatalytic process, the reaction of the adsorbed MB molecules with the photo-induced free as well as surface-bonded hydroxyl radicals

decreases the MB concentration at the core–shell interface and facilitates the further migration of MB molecules through the microchannels from the bulk solution toward the core–shell interface. The enrichment of MB molecules at the core–shell interface increases the capture efficiency of short-life hydroxyl radicals and thus increases the photocatalytic efficiency of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts. Consequently, the higher photocatalytic activity of TS40 is attributed to the synergistic effect of the enlarged interfacial area, enhanced interaction level, superior light absorption property as well as enlarged specific surface area of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell.

Conclusions

SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts consisting of TiO₂ crystallite core and porous amorphous SiO₂/TiO₂ shell were successfully synthesized by one-pot hydrothermal process. The modification of porous amorphous SiO₂/TiO₂ on the surface of TiO₂ crystallite significantly increases the interaction level associated with the photocatalytically active center concentration and gives SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts with merits of easy separation and high light absorption efficiency. The specific surface area and pore volume of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell are enlarged due to the mineralization asynchronism between the two corresponding precursors of TiO₂ and SiO₂, and thus, it promotes organic pollutant enrichment from solvent onto the surface of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts during photocatalysis process. The photocatalytic activity of SiO₂@TiO₂ crystallite photocatalysts for the degradation of methylene blue increases with the increase of SiO₂ molar fractions and reaches its maximum value at 40%SiO₂. The enhanced photocatalytic activity by SiO₂ modification is mainly attributed to the enlarged interfacial area, enhanced interaction level, superior light absorption property as well as enlarged specific surface area of SiO₂/TiO₂ shell.

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