



Preparation and photocatalytic property of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we prepared mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers via the electrospinning technique using zinc acetate (Zn(OAc)₂) and stannic chloride pentahydrate (SnCl₄·5H₂O) as precursors, cellulose acetate (CA) as the fiber template, and N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF)/acetone (1:1, v/v) as the co-solvent. The structure and morphology of composite nanofibers were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) and nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherm analysis. TEM images showed that the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers were composed of grain-like nanoparticles. The nanoparticles size increased with the increasing of the calcination temperature from 500 to 900 °C. Moreover, the crystal phases, grain sizes, and band gap energy of the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers were influenced by the molar ratio of Zn:Sn and the calcination temperatures. The photocatalytic activity of the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers toward the decomposition of Rhodamine B (RhB) was investigated. It was found that the photocatalytic activity of the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers was dependant on their surface areas, light utilization efficiency, and the separation of photogenerated electron/hole pairs. The maximum photocatalytic activity was shown for composite nanofibers with the molar ratio of Zn:Sn=2:1 and calcination at 500 °C for 5 h, more or less Zn:Sn ratios lowered the photocatalytic efficiency. A mechanism of the charge separation and photocatalytic reaction for the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers was also presented.

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1. Introduction

Environmental pollutions caused by detergents, dyes, and pesticides in water have provided the impetus for sustained fundamental and applied research interest in the area of environmental remediation [1,2]. Photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants by nanostructured semiconductors offers great potentials for the complete elimination of toxic chemicals. The wide-band gap semiconductor metal oxides such as TiO₂ and ZnO have been the subject of great research interest due to their size-tunable physicochemical properties, high activities, and non-selective degradability toward various organic pollutants under UV irradiation [3–5].

Most of the current semiconductor photocatalysts are in the form of particles. However, the particles readily agglomerate during aging, and they may repollute the treated water due to difficult

recovery. Such difficulty becomes more serious for the recovery of particles with size down to nanometer [6,7]. In order to overcome this shortcoming, semiconductor photocatalysts were immobilized onto inorganic porous carriers such as silica, zeolite, stainless steel, and organic polymers [8–10]. The immobilization prevents particles from agglomeration and makes them to be reclaimed easily from reaction mixtures at high yields [11,12]. However, immobilized photocatalysts usually suffer a significant loss in surface areas, and therefore lower their photocatalytic efficiency [6]. Moreover, the immobilization process is too complicated to show any practical privileges [13]. Therefore, the development of new types of nanostructured photocatalyst with efficient electron/hole utilization, high surface areas, favorable recycling characteristics and simple preparation is very important for practical applications.

Due to the very large specific surface areas and length to diameter ratio of a fiber, photocatalysts in the fiber morphology is superior to the particle form as far as the recycling and aggregation are concerned [14,15]. Amongst many methods such as hydrothermal and vapor-phase transport used for the preparation of nanofibers, electrospinning is the only method able to yield

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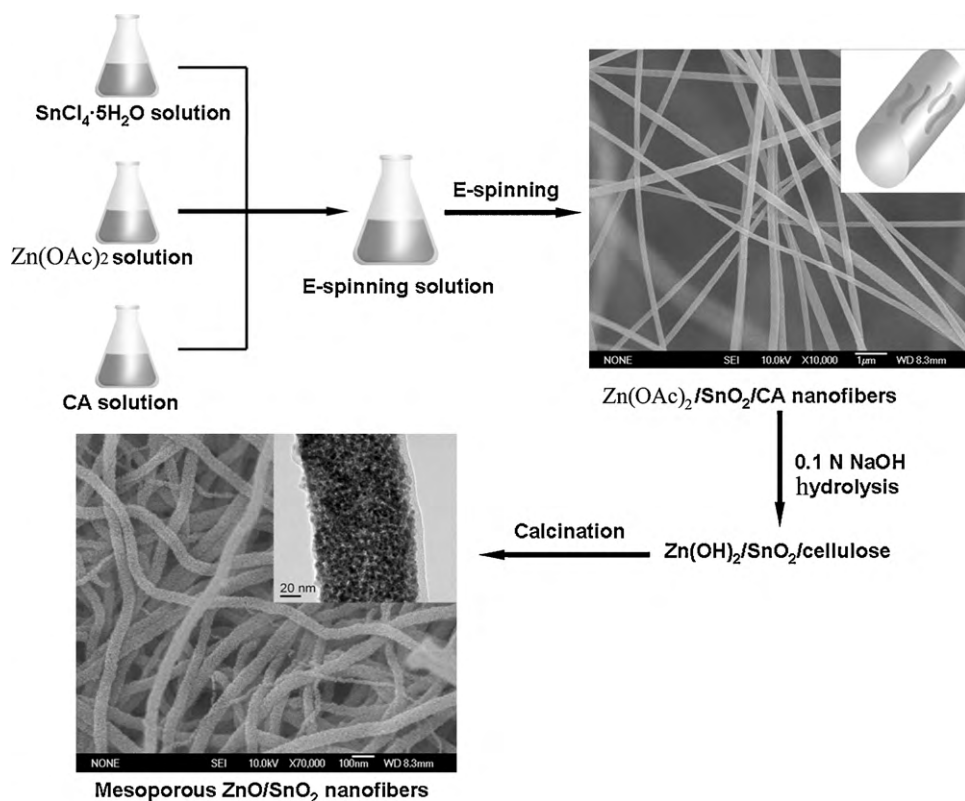


Fig. 1. The preparation procedure of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofiber through electrospinning

abundant quantities of continuous nanofibers with diameter down to tens of nanometers and length up to several centimeters [16–19].

Several important semiconductor metal oxides such as TiO₂ [20], ZnO [21], NiO [22], ZnS [23], and Bi₂O₃ [24] nanofibers were fabricated by electrospinning. They not only show photocatalytic efficiency toward the degradation of methylene blue, Rhodamine B and phenol, but also good reclaiming ability. In order to enhance the photocatalytic activity of single component nanofibers, composite nanofibers with two components such as TiO₂/ZnO [25], TiO₂/SnO₂ [26], TiO₂/CdO [27] and TiO₂/SiO₂ [28] composite nanofibers were also prepared.

Although SnO₂ itself has little photocatalytic efficiency, it has been reported that the incorporation of low content of SnO₂ in TiO₂ nanofibers greatly enhances the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ [29,30]. Additionally, electrospun SnO₂ [31] and ZnO/SnO₂ [32,33] composite nanofibers were applied as highly efficient gas sensors for the detection of ethanol, toluene, O₂ and NO₂. However, the photocatalytic activity of ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers has not been studied so far.

The objective of this work is to enhance the photocatalytic activity of ZnO nanofibers by coupling with SnO₂. SnO₂ nanofibers have often been prepared by using organotin as the precursor, ethanol/water soluble polymer polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) as the fiber template. It's well known that the organotin is toxic and has a bad odor, so it is better to use inorganic salt stannic chloride pentahydrate (SnCl₄) as the precursor. Cellulose acetate (CA) is easily soluble in many common solvents, and it is a good fiber-forming polymer through electrospinning [21]. In this paper, we prepare mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers through electrospinning Zn(OAc)₂ and SnCl₄·5H₂O as precursors and cellulose acetate (CA) as the fiber template in mixed solvent N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF)/acetone (1:1, v/v). Then the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers are prepared by calcination of Zn(OH)₂/SnO₂/cellulose composite nanofibers, which is obtained

from the hydrolysis of Zn(OAc)₂/SnO₂/CA composite nanofibers in a base solution. Their morphology, crystal structure, and light absorption behavior are characterized by SEM, TEM, XRD, DRS and N₂ adsorption and desorption isotherm. Their photocatalytic efficiency is studied as a function of molar ratio of Zn:Sn, calcination temperature, and the crystal structure of the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers. A photocatalytic mechanism is provided according to the data obtained in this study.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Stannic chloride pentahydrate (SnCl₄·5H₂O) and zinc acetate dihydrate (Zn(OAc)₂·2H₂O) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagents Co., China. Zinc acetate was recrystallized before use. Cellulose acetate (CA) with degree of substitution (DS) of 2.45 and an *M_w* of 3.0 × 10⁴ was obtained from Eastman, USA. All other chemicals were used as received.

2.2. Preparation of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers

Transparent spinning solutions containing 2 wt.% Zn(OAc)₂ and SnCl₄·5H₂O were prepared by adding Zn(OAc)₂ and SnCl₄·5H₂O in the molar ratio of 3:1, 2:1 and 1:1 (labeled as Z₃S, Z₂S and ZS) into 18 wt.% CA in N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF)/acetone (1:1, v/v) solvent mixture, followed by magnetic stirring at ambient temperature. 5 mL of spinning solution was loaded into a plastic syringe equipped with a 18-gauge stainless steel needle. The feeding rate was 10 μL/min monitored by a syringe pump (TS2-60, Longer Precision Pump Co. Ltd., Baoding, China). An electrode was clamped on the needle and connected to a power supply (DW-P303-IAC, Tianjin Dongwen High Voltage Plant, China). A grounded counter electrode was connected to a collector aluminum foil, which was placed 12 cm away from the orifice. The electric field was kept at 10 kV. Such obtained composite nanofibrous mats on the grounded collector were kept in air for 12 h to allow the fully hydrolysis into Zn(OAc)₂/SnO₂/CA, and then dried in a vacuum oven at 90 °C for 5 h.

One part of Zn(OAc)₂/SnO₂/CA composite nanofibrous mats was calcined at 500 °C in air for 5 h. The other part of mats was hydrolyzed in 0.1 mol/L NaOH solution for 24 h at 25 °C to convert Zn(OAc)₂/SnO₂/CA composite nanofibers into Zn(OH)₂/SnO₂/cellulose composite nanofibers, then washed with distilled water completely. The hydrolyzed mats were vacuum dried at 50 °C for 5 h. Subsequently it was calcined at 500, 700 and 900 °C in air for 5 h, respectively. Accordingly, the

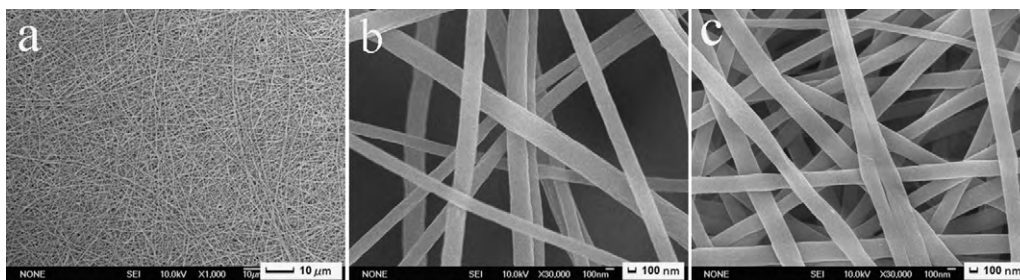


Fig. 2. Typical SEM images of (a) $\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2/\text{SnO}_2/\text{CA}$ composite nanofibers, (b) magnified image of (a), (c) $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2/\text{SnO}_2/\text{cellulose}$ composite nanofibers obtained from hydrolysis of (b) in aq. NaOH solution. a, b and c samples were from precursor solution containing $\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2$ and $\text{SnCl}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in the molar ratio of 2:1.

resultant products were coded as $\text{Z}_3\text{S}-5$, $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-7$, $\text{ZS}-9$, $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-5$, $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-7$, $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-9$, $\text{ZS}-5$, $\text{ZS}-7$ and $\text{ZS}-9$ (the last number designates the calcination temperature). For comparison, pure ZnO (Z) and SnO_2 (S) nanofibers were prepared using the same procedure as mentioned above, and they were labeled as Z-5, Z-7, Z-9, S-5, S-7 and S-9. A schematic preparation procedure of mesoporous ZnO/ SnO_2 composite nanofibers through electrospinning was illustrated in Fig. 1.

2.3. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on X'pert MPD Pro (Philips, Netherlands) with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.542 \text{ \AA}$), over the 2θ range of $10\text{--}60^\circ$. An accelerating voltage of 40 kV, emission current of 30 mA and the scanning speed of 8° min^{-1} were used. The diameter and morphology of mesoporous ZnO/ SnO_2 composite nanofibers were observed on SEM (JSM-7500LV, JEOL), and TEM (JEM2010, JEOL). Specimens were sputter coated with platinum before SEM observation. For TEM measurement, the fibers were dispersed ultrasonically in ethanol and were transferred onto Formvar-coated copper grids before observation. The porosity and specific surface areas were characterized by nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherm analysis (Micromeritics ASAP2020 apparatus at 77 K). DRS spectra were recorded in air at 25°C in the wavelength of 200–700 nm using a Hitachi U-3010 spectrophotometer with an integrating sphere. The pure powdered BaSO_4 was used as a reference.

2.4. Photocatalytic experiments

Photocatalytic experiments were conducted using ZnO/ SnO_2 composite nanofibers to degrade Rhodamine B (RhB) in water solution. A photochemical reactor was set up according to our previous work [21,25]. The photocatalytic degradation reactions were carried out under atmospheric condition using a 500 W high pressure mercury lamp (Philips 365 nm) as the irradiation source at ambient temperature. The irradiation distance between the lamp and the sample was 10 cm. Five milligrams of nanofibers was added into a cylindrical glass vessel containing 10 g of 8 ppm RhB aqueous solution. The aqueous system was magnetically stirred in dark for 30 min to reach adsorption equilibrium of RhB on the nanofibers, and then exposed to UV light. At certain time interval, the degradation reaction was ceased and the solution was centrifuged. The RhB concentration in the supernatant was measured on a UV–vis spectrometer (Lambda850, PerkinElmer). Parallel degradation reactions under same conditions were conducted for varied time intervals.

3. Result and discussion

Fig. 2a shows the SEM images of $\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2/\text{SnO}_2/\text{CA}$ composite nanofibers. The fresh prepared composite fibers prepared from electrospinning were kept in air for 12 h to allow fully con-

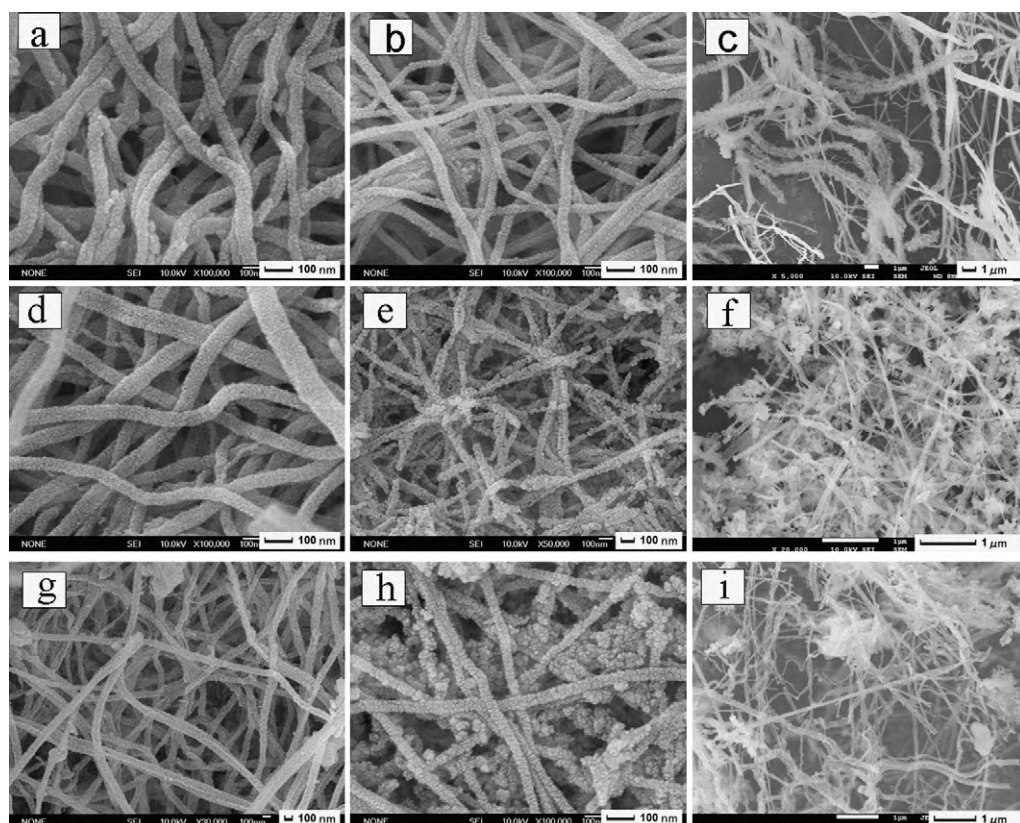
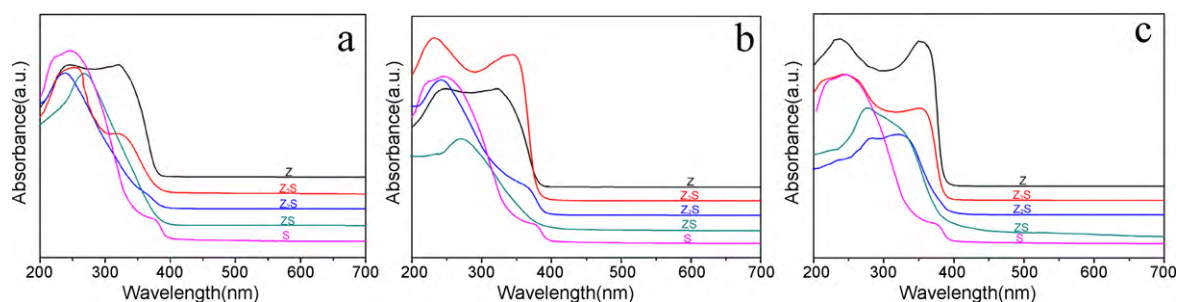


Fig. 3. SEM images of (a) $\text{Z}_3\text{S}-5$, (b) $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-7$, (c) $\text{ZS}-9$, (d) $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-5$, (e) $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-7$, (f) $\text{Z}_2\text{S}-9$, (g) $\text{ZS}-5$, (h) $\text{ZS}-7$, (i) $\text{ZS}-9$.

Table 1The mean crystallite size of ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers obtained at different calcination temperature.

Sample	Sn content (mol%)	Phase	Mean crystallite size (nm)		
			500 °C	700 °C	900 °C
Z	0	ZnO	48.6	82.3	170.2
Z ₃ S	25	ZnO	32.6	58.6	100.6
		SnO ₂	2.0	A few	A few
		Zn ₂ SnO ₄	–	36.2	78.2
Z ₂ S	33.3	ZnO	22	48.6	A few
		SnO ₂	3.3	7.8	10.2
		Zn ₂ SnO ₄	–	40.2	80.2
ZS	50	ZnO	28.5	A few	A few
		SnO ₂	4.5	11.2	25.3
		Zn ₂ SnO ₄	–	30.4	65.3
S	100	SnO ₂	16.3	26.3	45.2

**Fig. 6.** UV-vis diffuse reflectance absorption spectra of the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers calcined at different temperature for 5 h: (a) 500 °C, (b) 700 °C, (c) 900 °C.

between the ZnO and SnO₂ occurred to form an inverse spinel-type Zn₂SnO₄ phase (JCPDS, #74-2184) at 700 and 900 °C. The reaction between ZnO and SnO₂ to form Zn₂SnO₄ is expressed as following [37]:



The diffraction peaks are continuously getting sharper with increasing of the calcination temperature, suggesting that the crystallite size becomes larger at higher calcination temperature. This is in agreement with the results shown in TEM images (Fig. 4). Table 1 showed that the mean crystallite size of ZnO was always much larger than that of SnO₂ under the same calcination temperature. This is because that ZnO sinters more easily, and therefore it tends to form larger grain size [38]. Additionally, the average crystallite size of SnO₂ and ZnO in the SnO₂/ZnO composite nanofibers is slightly smaller than that of pure SnO₂ and pure ZnO nanofibers (Table 1). It has been reported that the addition of SnO₂ into ZnO causes a reduction in the mean crystallite size of ZnO and SnO₂ [39,40].

The DRS of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers are shown in Fig. 6. For comparison, the DRS of pure ZnO and SnO₂ nanofibers are also presented. The wavelength of absorption edge is determined by extrapolating the horizontal and sharply rising portions of the curve and defining the edge as the wavelength of

the intersection [41]. The absorption edges and the band gap energies (E_g) calculated on the basis of the corresponding absorption edges are shown in Table 2. The band gap absorption edge of ZnO calcined at 500, 700 and 900 °C are determined to be 386.5, 388.2 and 390.1 nm, corresponding to the E_g of 3.21, 3.19 and 3.18 eV, respectively. They are in reasonable agreement with the values of 3.2 eV reported in the literature [42]. The band gap absorption edge of SnO₂ calcined at 500, 700 and 900 °C are determined to be 401.0, 402.0 and 402.3 nm, corresponding to the E_g of 3.09, 3.08 and 3.08 eV, indicating that the E_g of the SnO₂ has little relation with the calcination temperature. However, this value is much less than the reported value of 3.8 eV [43]. It was reported that SnO₂ is a n-type semiconductor oxide with not only the direct E_g of 3.5–3.9 eV, but also an indirect E_g of ~2.6 eV, so the band gap value of SnO₂ nanofibers indicates an indirect transition as reported by Seftel [44] and Wang et al. [45]. Table 2 shows that the E_g of ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers fall in between that of neat ZnO and SnO₂. This is due to that their E_g are the contribution of the corresponding ZnO, SnO₂ and/or Zn₂SnO₄ crystallite phases in the composite nanofibers. For the ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers with a fixed Zn:Sn, their E_g slightly decreased with the calcination temperature (Table 2).

Zhang et al. [46] realized that the E_g of materials are related to their photocatalytic activity. The larger the E_g of a material is, the greater the redox potential for the photogenerated electron-hole

Table 2The composition, calcination temperature, absorption edge and band gap energy of ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers.

Sample	Sn content (mol%)	Absorption edge (nm)			Band gap energy (eV)		
		500 °C	700 °C	900 °C	500 °C	700 °C	900 °C
Z	0	386.5	388.2	390.1	3.21	3.19	3.18
Z ₃ S	25	389.1	391.3	393.7	3.19	3.17	3.15
Z ₂ S	33.3	390.3	393.2	394.5	3.18	3.15	3.14
ZS	50	395.0	396.3	396.1	3.14	3.13	3.13
S	100	401.0	402.1	402.3	3.09	3.08	3.08

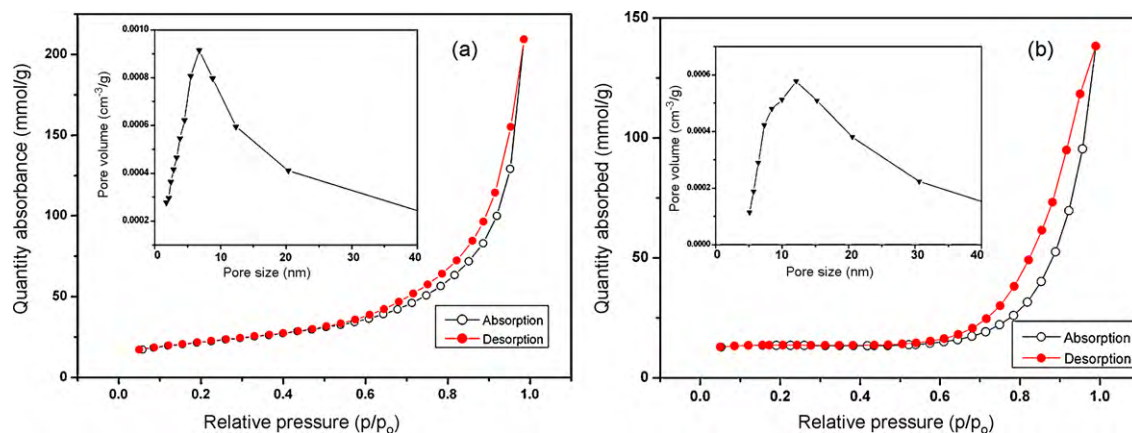


Fig. 7. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers, inset is pore size distribution image of corresponding composite nanofibers: (a) Z₂S-5 and (b) Z₂S-7.

is. So the ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers calcined at 500 °C would show higher photocatalytic activity than those calcined at 700 and 900 °C, as will be discussed in the later section.

To further understand the pore structure of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers, their N₂ adsorption and desorption isotherms were measured. The typical N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms and pore size distributions of Z₂S-5 and Z₂S-7 are shown in Fig. 7. They exhibited a type IV isotherms with type H₃ hysteresis when the relative pressure P/P_0 is in the range of 0.6–1.0 according to the IUPAC nomenclature. This is a characteristic process between adsorption into and desorption from the mesopores [47]. The insets in Fig. 7 are the corresponding pore size distribution (PSD) curves, which were derived by the Barret–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method. They revealed a pore size distribution centered at about 6.7 nm (Fig. 7a) and 13.6 nm (Fig. 7b) for the Z₂S-5 and Z₂S-7 nanofibers, respectively. In addition, the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) analysis showed that the surface areas of the Z₂S-5 and Z₂S-7 were 78.2 and 39.8 m² g⁻¹, respectively, indicating that the surface areas decreased with the increasing of the calcination temperature. This is because that the grain size increased with increasing of the calcination temperature, as shown in the TEM images (Fig. 4). The pore sizes and surface areas of ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers are summarized in Table 3. For composite nanofibers calcined at a same temperature, it is obviously noted that the molar ratio of Zn:Sn had little effect on the pore size and surface areas. The fully thermal decomposition of cellulose fiber template, which accounts for nearly 90 wt.% of the precursor composite fiber, is the main reason for the formation of mesopores in the metal oxide nanofibers. Therefore, the different molar ratio of Zn:Sn showed little effect on the porosity. However, the calcination temperature affects the porosity because the crystallite growth greatly depends on the temperature (Table 1, Fig. 5).

RhB has often been used as a model dye molecule for photocatalytic degradation by a transition metal oxide [48,49]. The photocatalytic activity of mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers was evaluated by the photocatalytic decomposition

Table 3
The composition, calcination temperature, pore size and surface areas of ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers.

Sample	Sn content (mol%)	Pore size (nm)		Surface areas (m ² g ⁻¹)	
		500 °C	700 °C	500 °C	700 °C
Z ₃ S	25	6.5	13.6	76.5	38.2
Z ₂ S	33.3	6.7	13.6	78.2	39.8
ZS	50	6.8	13.5	75.2	37.6

of RhB dye under the irradiation of UV light. Fig. 8 shows the absorbance spectra of RhB aqueous solutions in the presence of Z₂S-5 after UV irradiation. It can be seen that the maximum absorbance at 554 nm disappears completely after irradiation for 60 min. Moreover, the maximum absorbance peak showed blue shift from 554 to 521 nm after irradiation. This should result from the formation of a series of N-de-ethylated intermediates in a stepwise manner. Similar phenomena were also observed during the photodegradation of sulforhodamine B [50] and RhB [51] under visible light irradiation.

The photocatalytic degradation rates of RhB with the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers are shown in Fig. 9. In addition to photocatalytic experiments in the presence of Z₂S-5, two control experiments were performed in the absence of Z₂S-5 with UV irradiation or in the presence of Z₂S-5 without UV irradiation (Fig. 9a). RhB was hardly degraded under the control experimental conditions. However, in the presence of UV irradiation and Z₂S-5, RhB was photo-degraded rapidly (Fig. 9a). From the almost linear relationship between C/C_0 and t , a first-order degradation mechanism was suggested for all the samples in the degradation period tested in this research. The degradation rate constants of RhB by ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers were listed in Table 4. The photocatalytic activity follows the order of Z₂S-5 > Z₃S-5 > ZS-5 > Z-5 > S-5. The ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers showed higher photocatalytic activity than pure ZnO and SnO₂ nanofibers. Moreover, the Z₂S-5 showed the strongest photocatalytic activ-

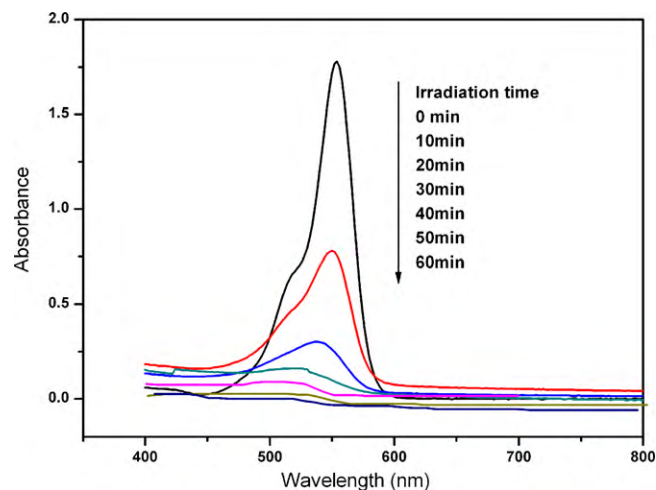


Fig. 8. The absorbance spectra changes of Rhodamine B in an aqueous solution in the presence of Z₂S-5 after different irradiation times.

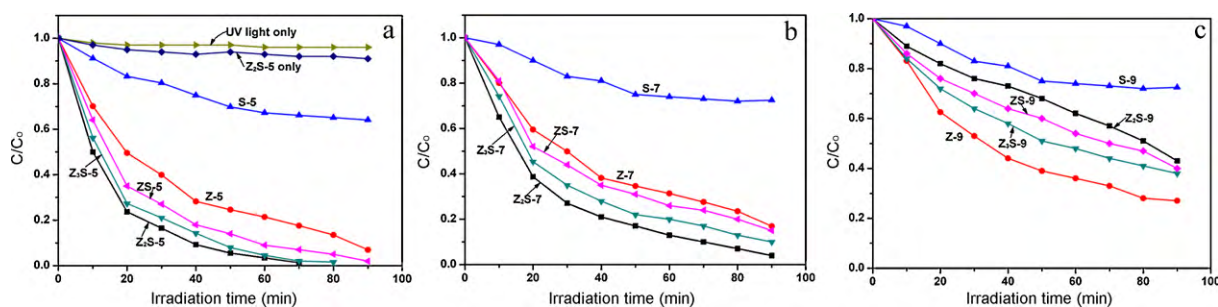


Fig. 9. Photocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B aqueous solutions by ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers calcined at (a) 500 °C, (b) 700 °C, (c) 900 °C.

Table 4

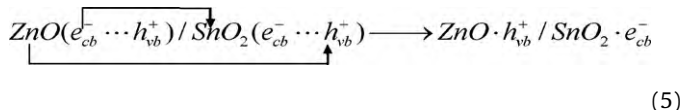
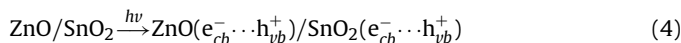
Degradation rate constants of RhB using ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers photocatalysts.

Sample	Rate constant, k (min ⁻¹)	Sample	Rate constant, k (min ⁻¹)	Sample	Rate constant, k (min ⁻¹)
Z-5	0.024	Z-7	0.020	Z-9	0.018
Z ₃ S-5	0.046	Z ₃ S-7	0.027	Z ₃ S-9	0.012
Z ₂ S-5	0.051	Z ₂ S-7	0.031	Z ₂ S-9	0.008
ZS-5	0.035	ZS-7	0.024	ZS-9	0.010
S-5	0.007	S-7	0.002	S-9	0.001

ity than the other samples. This is attributed to its high surface areas, high efficiency in the light utilization and high efficient separation of photogenerated electron/hole pairs (showed in the following section). It can be seen that the photocatalytic activity was decreased with increasing of the calcination temperature for composite nanofibers with a fixed Zn:Sn ratio. This is because the Zn₂SnO₄ generated at 700 and 900 °C showed lower photocatalytic activity than ZnO [45], and the surface areas decreased with increasing of the calcination temperature.

Many researches have proved that an optimal composition ratio is necessary to maximize the lifetime of photogenerated electrons [44,51]. This is also the case for the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers. When the content of SnO₂ was as low as 25 mol%, the effect of photogenerated electron trapped by SnO₂ was not obvious because of the insufficiency of SnO₂. The photocatalytic activity was thus not the highest. When the content of SnO₂ was as high as 50 mol%, some ZnO active sites would be surrounded by SnO₂. This would hinder the contact between ZnO and oxygen containing species, resulting in the reduction of the photocatalytic activity. In this study, the optimal ZnO/SnO₂ composition was found to be Zn:Sn = 2:1. And the Z₂S-5 showed the highest photocatalytic activity among Z₂S-5, Z₃S-5 and ZS-5.

Fig. 10 shows the mechanism of the charge separation and photocatalytic reaction for the mesoporous Z₂S-5 photocatalysts. As illustrated in the scheme, when the Z₂S-5 photocatalysts are irradiated by UV light with a photon energy higher or equal to the band gaps of ZnO and SnO₂, electrons (e⁻) in the valence band (VB) are excited to the conduction band (CB) with simultaneous generation of the same amount of holes (h⁺) in the VB (Eq. (4)). Because the CB of SnO₂ is lower than that of ZnO, upon light-activation the electrons transfer from the CB of ZnO to that of SnO₂, and SnO₂ acts as a sink for the photogenerated electrons. Conversely, the holes transfer from the VB of SnO₂ to that of ZnO (Eq. (5)). The photogenerated electrons and holes in the Z₂S-5 photocatalysts could inject into a reaction medium and participate in chemical reactions [46,52].



The electronic acceptors like adsorbed O₂ can easily trap the photogenerated electron (e⁻) to produce a superoxide anion radical ([•]O₂⁻), and hydroxyl radicals ([•]OH) are formed by the reaction of the photoinduced hole (h⁺) with adsorbed H₂O. The formed [•]O₂⁻ were reacted with e⁻ and H⁺ to produce H₂O₂, which would provide hydroxyl radical ([•]OH) by acting as a direct electron acceptor by reaction with e⁻ and [•]O₂⁻. The hydroxyl radical ([•]OH) is an extremely strong oxidant for the partial or complete mineralization of organic chemicals [53]. The following photocatalytic reactions possibly occur:

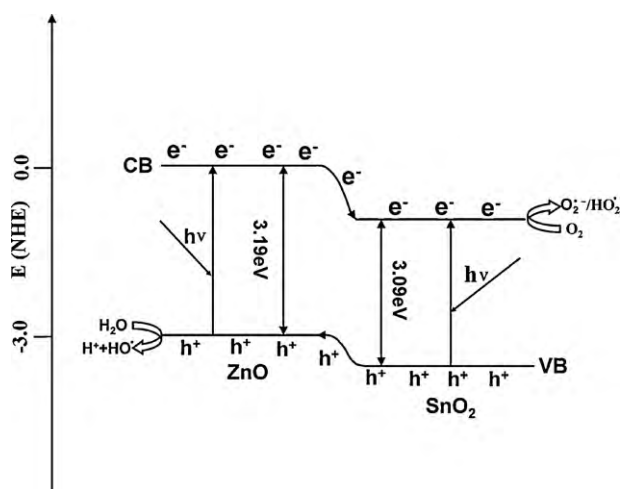
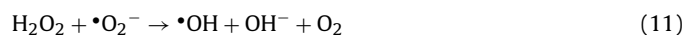


Fig. 10. The schematic illustration of the electron transfer and the energy level diagram indicating the band positions of the ZnO and SnO₂ in the photocatalytic system.

Therefore, efficient charge separation increases the lifetime of the charge carriers and reduces the recombination of the hole–electron pairs in the composite nanofibers, thus increases the quantum efficiency [52]. This results in the strongest photocatalytic efficiency for Z₂S-5 nanofibers among the ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers prepared in this research.

4. Conclusions

Mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers with high photocatalytic activity were successfully synthesized through electrospinning. Their crystal phase compositions, mean crystallite sizes, band gap energies, as well as photocatalytic efficiency, were studied in relation to the molar ratio of Zn:Sn and calcination temperatures. TEM images showed that the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ composite nanofibers were composed of grain-like nanoparticles. The photocatalytic activity of the mesoporous ZnO/SnO₂ reached the maximum when the molar ratio of Zn:Sn was 2:1 and the calcination temperature was about 500 °C for 5 h. The enhancement of the photocatalytic activity is attributed to the high BET surface areas, high efficiency in the light utilization and high efficient separation of photogenerated electron/hole pairs. The electrospinning method reported in this manuscript can be extended to the preparation of other mesoporous semiconductor composite nanofibers for the treatment of wastewater.

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