



## Synergistic effects of hollow structure and surface fluorination on the photocatalytic activity of titania

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### ABSTRACT

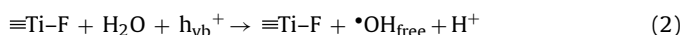
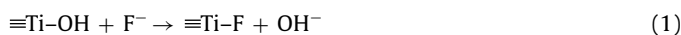
To study the synergistic effects of hollow structure and surface fluorination on the photoactivity of TiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow microspheres were synthesized by a hydrolysis–precipitate method using sulfonated polystyrene (PS) as templates and tetrabutylorthotitanate (TBOT) as precursor, and then calcined at 500 °C for 2 h. The calcined samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction, scanning electron microscopy, transmission electron microscopy and N<sub>2</sub> sorption. Photocatalytic activity was evaluated using reactive brilliant red X3B, an anionic organic dye, as a model pollutant in water. The results show that the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow microspheres is significantly higher than that of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles prepared in the same experimental conditions. At pH 7 and 3, the apparent rate constants of the former exceed that of the latter by a factor of 3.38 and 3.15, respectively. After surface fluorination at pH 3, the photoactivity of hollow microspheres and nanoparticles further increases for another 1.61 and 2.19 times, respectively. The synergistic effect of surface fluorination and hollow structure can also be used to prepare other highly efficient photocatalyst.

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### 1. Introduction

A great deal of effort has been devoted in recent decades in solving the widespread problem of contamination of effluent from urban and agricultural industries with biorecalcitrant and organic pollutants [1–9]. Various catalytic techniques have been applied in the field of environmental protection. Among which, TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysis has attracted increasing attention due to its biological and chemical inertness, strong photooxidation power, cost effectiveness, and long-term stability against photo and chemical corrosion [8–12]. However, a vital problem, i.e., low quantum efficiency (~4%), hampers its widespread practical applications [10,13,14]. To improve these properties, the morphologies and macroscopic structures of TiO<sub>2</sub> have been intensively studied [13,15–17]. For example, a three-dimensional porous structure of TiO<sub>2</sub> with a large surface area is known to exhibit an enhanced photocatalytic performance [18,19]. The submicron-scale hollow spheres of TiO<sub>2</sub> are promising because of their potential to provide a large

surface/volume ratio [17,19]. In addition, the diffractions on the hollow spheres and the reflections due to the shell structure would improve the functional properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> [13,19]. It has been recently reported that surface fluorination can result in significant enhancement in the photocatalytic activity of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ascribed to the enhanced production of free •OH radicals in solution as a result of fluoride displacement of surface hydroxyl groups (Eqs. (1) and (2)) [11,12,20,21]. Interestingly, Choi and co-workers have demonstrated that the surface fluorination of TiO<sub>2</sub> also results in the enhanced photocatalytic degradation of stearic acid [22] and acetaldehyde [23] in gaseous phase, and they ascribed this to the enhanced generation of airborne free •OH radicals.



However, the synergistic effects of hollow structure and surface fluorination on the photoactivity of TiO<sub>2</sub> have not been reported yet. In the present work, we prepared hollow spheres of TiO<sub>2</sub> using sulfonated polystyrene (PS) as template, and the effect of surface fluorination on the photoactivity of hollow microspherical TiO<sub>2</sub> is examined, using reactive brilliant red X3B [10], an anionic organic dye, as the target organic pollutant.

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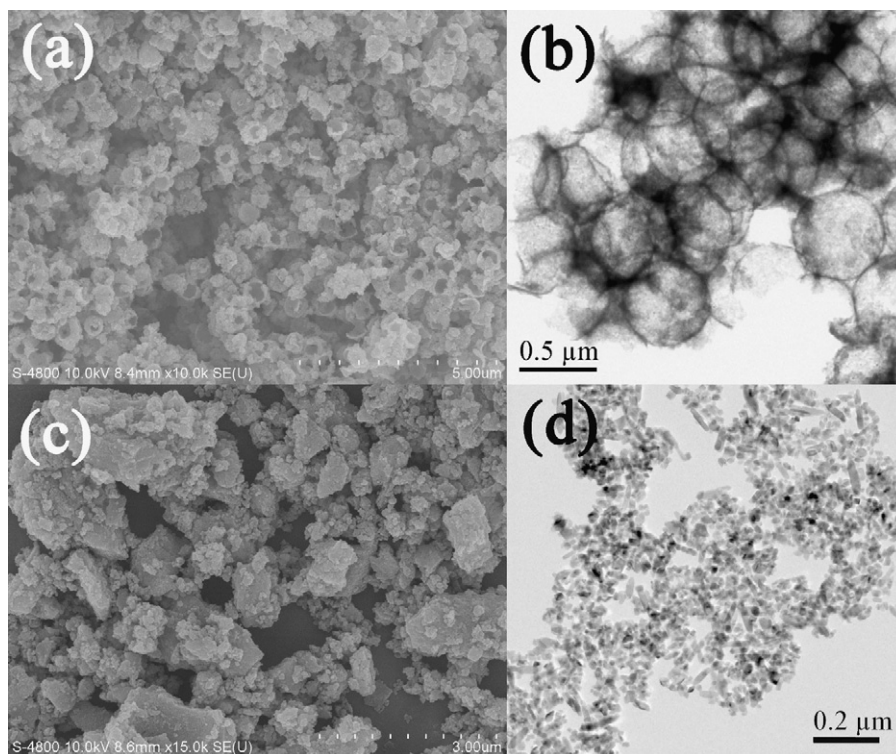


Fig. 1. SEM and TEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow microspheres (A and B) and nanoparticles (C and D).

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Preparation

Template of sulfonated PS with a diameter of 0.5 μm is prepared according to the literature [24], then 25 mL ethanol solution containing 0.3 mL tetrabutylorthotitanate (TBOT) was added dropwise to 15 mL of the sulfonated PS spheres ethanol solution (0.1 g/mL) under magnetic stirring. After that, 25 mL of ethanol solution containing 3.4 mL ammonia solution was dropped into the mixed solution. The resulted solution was stirred at 60 °C for another 2 h before it was refluxed for another 1.5 h. The solution was then filtered and the cake was washed with ethanol and water. TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres were obtained after the cake was heated in air at 500 °C for 2 h to remove the PS templates. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were also prepared accordingly in the absence of sulfonated PS template.

### 2.2. Characterization

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns obtained on a D8 advance X-ray diffractometer (German Bruker) using Cu Kα radiation at a scan rate of 0.02°/s were used to determine the crystallite size and identity. The accelerated voltage and applied current were 200 kV and 20 mA, respectively. The average crystallite size of the catalyst was determined according to the Scherrer equation using FWHM data after correcting for the instrumental broadening. The BET surface area ( $S_{\text{BET}}$ ) of the powders was analyzed using nitrogen adsorption in a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 nitrogen-adsorption apparatus (USA). The BET surface area was determined by a multi-point BET method using the adsorption data in the relative pressure ( $P/P_0$ ) range of 0.05–0.3. Pore volume and average pore size (APS) were determined by nitrogen-adsorption volume at the relative pressure of 0.994. All the samples were degassed at 180 °C prior to the nitrogen-adsorption measurements. The morphologies of TiO<sub>2</sub> powders were observed on a field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM) (Hitach, Japan) with an acceleration voltage of

20 kV and transmission electron microscope (TEM) (Tecnai G20, USA) using an acceleration voltage of 200 kV.

### 2.3. Adsorption and photoactivity evaluation

Photocatalytic reactions were carried out using a high-pressure mercury lamp (375 W, Shanghai Yamin) as light source, emitted mainly at 365 nm. The reactor (80 mL) was made of a Pyrex glass, and positioned at a fixed distance of ca. 10 cm from the lamp. X3B was used as the target organic pollutant. HClO<sub>4</sub> and NaOH were used to adjust the solution pH, and NaF (1.0 mM), if necessary, was added in the solution for surface fluorination of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Prior to illumination, a suspension containing 50.0 mg of catalyst and 50 mL of  $1.0 \times 10^{-4}$  mol/L X3B was continuously stirred in the dark for 12 h. The concentration of substrate in bulk solution at this point was used as the initial value for the adsorption and the further kinetic treatment of the photodegradation processes. During the photoreaction, the reactor was thermostated at 25 °C through a water recycle system and stirred mechanically at a constant rate. At given intervals of illumination, small aliquots of the suspension were withdrawn by syringe, centrifuged, and then filtered through a Millipore filter (pore size 0.45 μm). The filtrates were monitored by a UV–vis spectroscopy at 510 nm.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Morphology and crystalline phase

Fig. 1A and B shows SEM and TEM images of the titania hollow microspheres prepared in the presence of spheric sulfonated PS template, respectively. In this preparation approach, TBOT is firstly adsorbed into the negatively charged sulfonated shell layer of PS templates [13]. After hydrolysis in a basic solution and calcinations, the PS template is removed and the hollow spheres of TiO<sub>2</sub> are obtained. The prepared TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow microspheres are monodispersed in a diameter of 0.5 μm and a shell thickness of 10–20 nm

**Table 1**  
Physical properties of the photocatalysts.

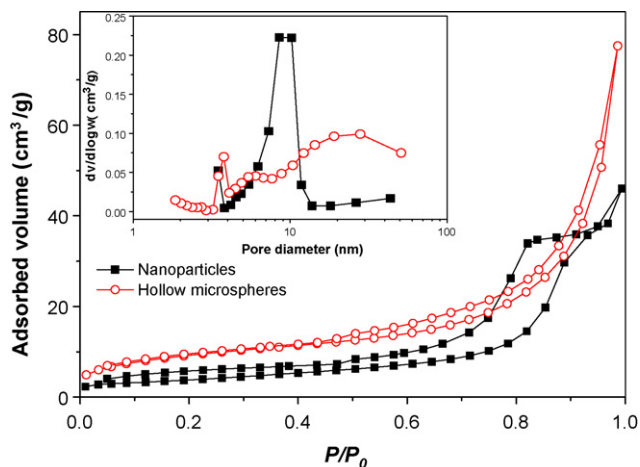
Photocatalyst	Phase	Crystalline size (nm)	$S_{\text{BET}}$ ( $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ )	Pore volume ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$ )	APS (nm)
Nanoparticles	Anatase	26.2	14.0	0.071	9.8
Hollow spheres	Anatase	13.5	32.9	0.12	14.2

(Fig. 1A and B). However, only  $\text{TiO}_2$  aggregated nanoparticles are accordingly obtained in the absence of sulfonated PS template (Fig. 1C and D).

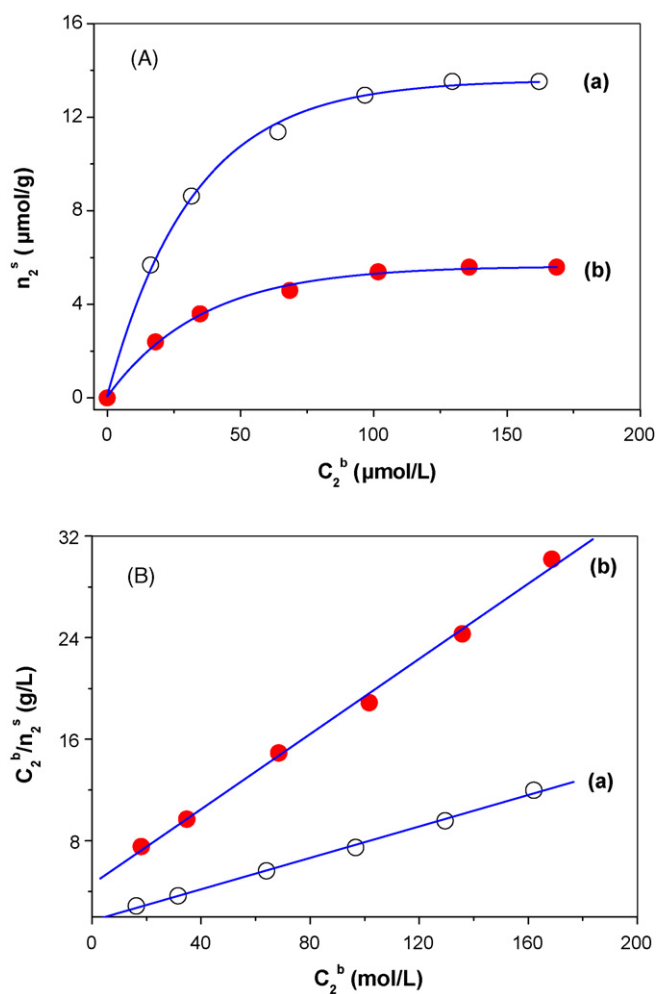
XRD results (not shown here) indicate that the diffraction peaks of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres and nanoparticles could be indexed as the tetragonal anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$ , which are in good agreement with the JCPDS file of  $\text{TiO}_2$  (JCPDS No. 21-1272) [16]. According to the Scherrer–Warren formula, the average crystallite size of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres and nanoparticles after calcination are around 13.5 and 26.2 nm, respectively (Table 1). The smaller crystallite size of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres is due to the low hydrolysis reaction rate of TBOT adsorbed on the surface of sulfonated PS and these adsorbed sulfonated groups prevent the crystallization of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

### 3.2. BET surface areas and pore structures

The  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption–desorption isotherms of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres and nanoparticles are of type IV (Fig. 2). At low relative pressure, the adsorption isotherm of  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres is higher than that of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles. It demonstrates that  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres contain more micropores than nanoparticles due to its smaller crystallite size of 13.5 nm (Table 1). At high relative pressure between 0.4 and 1.0, the curve exhibits a hysteresis loop, implying the presence of mesopores (type IV) [6,14]. The hysteresis loop of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles at high relative pressure is more obvious than that of hollow microspheres, indicating a narrower mesopore size distribution of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles (Fig. 2). The micropores and small mesopores in  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres are from intra-aggregated pores, and the large mesopores may be assigned to the pores among inter-aggregated particles [25,26]. In comparison with nanoparticles,  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres show a larger specific surface area, pore volume and smaller average pore size (APS) with the values of  $32.9 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ ,  $0.12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$  and  $14.2 \text{ nm}$ , respectively. The corresponding values for that of nanoparticles are  $14.0 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ ,  $0.071 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$  and  $9.8 \text{ nm}$ , respectively (Table 1).



**Fig. 2.**  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption–desorption isotherms and corresponding pore size distributions (inset) of the prepared titania nanoparticles and hollow microspheres.



**Fig. 3.** Adsorption isotherm (A) and the corresponding Langmuir plot (B) of X3B on  $\text{TiO}_2$  samples of hollow microspheres (a) and nanoparticles (b), from aqueous solution (pH 7) at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ .

### 3.3. Adsorption of X3B at pH 7

Dark adsorption properties of the catalyst are important to the surface photoreaction and the determination of reaction rate as well [27]. The adsorption capacity of the catalyst for the organic substrate of X3B in water was thus measured at pH 7. Fig. 3A demonstrates the adsorption isotherms of the prepared  $\text{TiO}_2$ , where the amount of equilibrium adsorption,  $n_2^s$ , is plotted as a function of equilibrium concentration in bulk solution,  $C_2^b$ . It can be seen that the adsorption of  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres were much higher than that of nanoparticles, in agreement with the order of  $S_{\text{BET}}$ . Larger surface area is expected to have more sites for X3B to be adsorbed. The adsorption of X3B on  $\text{TiO}_2$  can be described by the Langmuir model with an equation of  $n_2^s = n^s K C_2^b / (1 + K C_2^b)$  [10,27], where  $n^s$  is the total adsorption sites and  $K$  is the Langmuir adsorption constant. The adsorption parameters of  $n^s$  and  $K$  can easily be obtained from Fig. 3B. It can be seen from Table 2 that  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres exhibit larger adsorption parameters of  $n^s$  and  $K$  than nanoparticles. This difference can be attributed to the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hol-



**Table 2**  
Adsorption and photoactivity of the photocatalysts.

Photocatalyst	$n_s^s$ ( $\mu\text{mol/g}$ ) <sup>a</sup>	$K$ (L/mol) <sup>a</sup>	$n_{\text{ad}}$ ( $\mu\text{mol/g}$ ) <sup>b</sup>			$K_{\text{app}}$ ( $10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$ )		
			pH 7	pH 3	pH 3/F	pH 7	pH 3	pH 3/F
Nanoparticles	6.80	$3.24 \times 10^4$	5.38	31.9	6.30	7.87	6.68	14.63
Hollow spheres	16.2	$3.64 \times 10^4$	12.9	49.8	12.4	26.59	21.02	33.80

<sup>a</sup> The maximum adsorbed amount and the adsorption constant of X3B on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  at pH 7, according to Langmuir model with an equation of  $n_s^s = n^s K C_2^0 / (1 + K C_2^0)$ .

<sup>b</sup> The amount of X3B adsorbed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  after adsorption–desorption equilibrium is reached (initial concentration of X3B is  $1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/L}$ ).

low microspheres with smaller crystallite size and higher specific surface areas. As reported by Xu and Langford [27] the adsorption constant  $K$  increases with decreasing the particle size because of a greater driving force for adsorption on the finer particles.

### 3.4. Photocatalytic degradation

X3B is a very stable organic chemical and it shows little degradation under UV irradiation ( $\lambda \geq 320 \text{ nm}$ ) in the absence of photocatalyst [10,13]. The degradation kinetics of X3B in the presence of  $\text{TiO}_2$  can be well fitted by the apparent first-order rate equation.  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres show much higher photoactivity than that of nanoparticles at pH 7 (Fig. 4c and b). The apparent rate constant ( $K_{\text{app}}$ ) of the former exceeds that of the latter by a factor of 3.38 ( $26.59 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for hollow microspheres and  $7.87 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for nanoparticles), which are ascribed to the stronger adsorptive ability of hollow microspheres due to their smaller particle size and larger surface areas (Table 1). As a naked  $\text{TiO}_2$  particle is exposed to water, the surface is hydrated to satisfy the coordination of surface  $\text{Ti}^{\text{VI}}$  ions. Dissociation of the chemisorbed molecular water then gives rise to surface  $\text{OH}^-$  groups ( $\equiv\text{Ti}-\text{OH}$ ), consequently, the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  becomes positively charged in an acidic medium. The surface specification modeling shows that  $\equiv\text{Ti}-\text{OH}_2^+$  species accounts for 89% at pH 3 [20]. Thus, a high adsorption of anionic X3B on  $\text{TiO}_2$  was observed at pH 3. The adsorption of fluoride on  $\text{TiO}_2$  is a ligand exchange between  $\text{F}^-$  and  $\equiv\text{Ti}-\text{OH}$  on the surface (Eq. (1)). Such complexation is more favorable in an acidic medium (especially at pH 3), with an equilibrium constant of about  $10^8$  [10,20,21]. The surface specification modeling shows that  $\equiv\text{Ti}-\text{F}$  is the dominant species on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the presence of 1.0 mM NaF at pH 3 [10]. The positive charge of

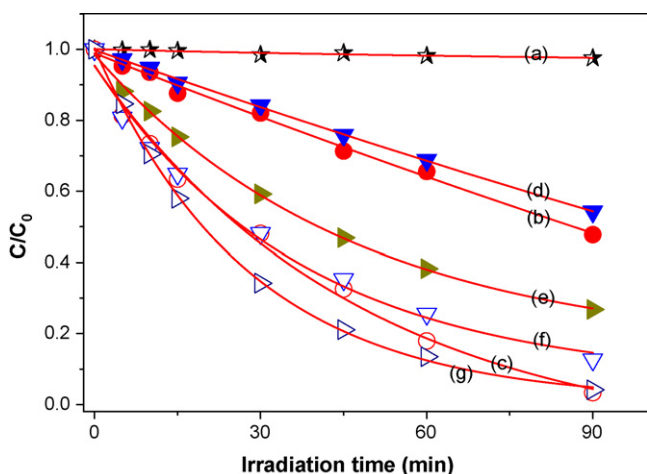
$\text{TiO}_2$  ( $\equiv\text{Ti}-\text{OH}_2^+$ ) is reduced after the surface is occupied by fluoride, which leads to a decrease in the adsorption of X3B (Table 2).

To study the synergistic effect of surface fluorination and hollow microstructure on the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , photocatalytic degradation of X3B was performed at pH 3. It should be noted that the degradation of X3B under UV is negligible in a homogeneous NaF solution at pH 3 without the photocatalyst (Fig. 4a). Although the adsorption isotherms of X3B at pH 3, in  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres and nanoparticles, are not determined, the amount of X3B adsorbed ( $n_{\text{ad}}$ ) before irradiation at the same initial concentration could also be served as a qualitative reference for the comparison in adsorption. Table 2 shows the amount of X3B adsorbed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  after adsorption–desorption equilibrium is reached at pH 7 and pH 3 in the presence or absence of NaF (initial concentration of X3B is  $1.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/L}$ ). It suggests that the adsorption of X3B on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres is much higher than on the surface of nanoparticles at pH 3. The degradation profiles of X3B at pH 3 in  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres and nanoparticles are shown in Fig. 4f and d, respectively. The apparent rate constant of the former exceeds that of the latter by a factor of 3.15 ( $21.02 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for hollow microspheres and  $6.68 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for nanoparticles). After surface fluorination, the degradation of X3B is greatly enhanced, in solutions of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles and hollow microspheres (Fig. 4e and g). The photoactivity of hollow microspheres and nanoparticles further increases for another 1.61 and 2.19 times ( $14.63 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for hollow microspheres and  $33.80 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$  for nanoparticles), respectively.

It is assumed that the relative reactivity of free hydroxyl radicals is higher than that of subsurface holes [10]. The enhanced photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  after surface fluorination is due to the transformation of active species from hole to free hydroxyl radical (Eq. (1) and (2)). Fig. 4 shows that  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres after surface fluorination exhibits the highest photoactivity in all situations, which reflects the synergistic effects of hollow structure and surface fluorination on the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Some papers reported that the high photoreactivity of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres is due to the multiple diffractions and reflections of the light irradiated on the surface of the catalyst [15,19,28,29]. However, in our case,  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres show the same light absorptive ability as that of nanoparticles according to the diffused reflectance spectra (data not shown here), which suggested that it should be other factors, such as adsorption, other than light harvesting ability of the photocatalysts, to be responsible for the higher photoactivity of hollow spheres.

## 4. Conclusions

The effect of surface fluorination and hollow structure on the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is studied. It demonstrates that the adsorption and photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres are higher than that of nanoparticles due to its stronger adsorption to the substrate, owing to the smaller particle size and larger surface area. Surface fluorination can further enhance the photoactivity, and the  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow microspheres after fluorination shows the highest photoactivity, which demonstrates the synergistic effect of sur-



**Fig. 4.** Photocatalytic degradation of X3B under UV irradiation at different experimental conditions, (a) in the solution of 1.0 mM NaF at pH 3 without photocatalyst, (b) in the presence of titania nanoparticles at pH 7, (c) in the presence of hollow microspheres at pH 7, (d) in the presence of naked titania nanoparticles at pH 3, (e) in the presence of fluorinated titania nanoparticles at pH 3, (f) in the presence of naked titania hollow microspheres at pH 3 and (g) in the presence of fluorinated titania hollow microspheres at pH 3.

face fluorination and hollow structure on the photoactivity of TiO<sub>2</sub>. This study may provide new insight into design and preparation of advanced photocatalytic materials.

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