



# Synthesis and photo-degradation application of WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres

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## ABSTRACT

A WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> composite, hollow-sphere photocatalyst with average diameter of 320 nm and shell thickness of 50 nm was successfully prepared using a template method. UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra illustrated that the main absorption edges of the WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres were red-shifted compared to the TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres, indicating an extension of light absorption into the visible region of the composite photocatalyst. The WO<sub>3</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> phases were confirmed by X-ray diffraction analysis. BET isotherms revealed that the specific surface area and average pore diameter of the hollow spheres were 40.95 m<sup>2</sup>/g and 19 nm, respectively. Photocatalytic experiments indicate that 78% MB was degraded by WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres under visible light within 80 min. Under the same conditions, only 24% MB can be photodegraded by TiO<sub>2</sub>. The photocatalytic mineralization of MB, catalyzed by TiO<sub>2</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>, proceeded at a significantly higher rate under UV irradiation than that under visible light, and more significant was the increase in the apparent rate constant with the WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> composite semiconductor material which was 3.2- and 3.5-fold higher than with the TiO<sub>2</sub> material under both UV and visible light irradiation. The increased photocatalytic activity of the coupled nanocomposites was attributed to photoelectron/hole separation efficiency and the extension of the wavelength range of photoexcitation.

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## 1. Introduction

Semiconductor photocatalysts have attracted enormous attention because of their wide applications in environmental purification, such as air and water purification, and organic pollutant degradation [1–4]. Among the oxide semiconductor photocatalysts available, titanium dioxide has proven to be the most widely used one for environmental catalysis because it has various merits, such as excellent photocatalytic activity, low cost, nontoxicity, and chemical and biological inertness [5,6]. However, TiO<sub>2</sub> has two major disadvantages that restrict it from being widely used in practical applications: (1) the rapid recombination of photogenerated electron (e<sub>cb</sub><sup>-</sup>)/hole (h<sub>VB</sub><sup>+</sup>) pairs, which significantly reduces photocatalytic efficiency [7]; and (2) the location of its light response region in the UV region, which accounts for only about 5% of the energy of sunlight.

Considerable efforts have been made to prevent the recombination of charge carriers in the semiconductor and improve the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub>, such as doping with metal ions, especially transition metal ions into the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice [8], deposition of noble metals [9], dye photosensitization on the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface [10,11], and coupling with other semiconductors, such as ZnO–TiO<sub>2</sub> [12], V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> [13], ZrO<sub>2</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> [14,15], CdS–TiO<sub>2</sub> [16,17] and

WO<sub>3</sub>–TiO<sub>2</sub> [18–22]. Among the oxide semiconductors, coupling TiO<sub>2</sub> with WO<sub>3</sub> has been the subject of intensive investigations during the last 15 years [18,22] as an approach that for achieving an efficient charge separation and improving the photocatalytic properties of TiO<sub>2</sub>.

Morphology and microstructures play an important role in the photocatalytic activity of titania. Many studies concerning the new structures of titania, such as titanium dioxide nanowires, nanorods, nanotubes [23,24], and so on, have been undertaken. Recently, the preparation of titania hollow microspheres has also attracted much attention because of their large surface area, low density, and highly efficient light-harvesting abilities [7,25]. Despite the fact that many papers have focused on the fabrication of nano- and micro-scale hollow spheres, most of these studies focus on the synthesis and morphology of pure phase titania.

Several synthetic approaches have been employed for preparing mixed metal–oxide systems with core–shell morphology. In comparison to other particles, hollow spheres can be widely used in several applications, such as drug delivery, protection of light-sensitive biological molecules, controlled release of various substances, nano-reactors, and paints and fillers, among others. Hollow balls have many advantages compared to porous particles because of the relatively low density of the former compared to the latter.

In the present work, hollow spheres composed of mixed WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> metal oxide shells were synthesized using colloidal carbon spheres as the template. The aim of this study was to design and

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construct  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres that can be effectively applied in air/water purification and organic pollutant degradation.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Materials

All reagents were of analytical grade and were subjected to no further treatment. Tetrabutyl titanate,  $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$  (Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) was used as the starting material. Glucose,  $\text{D-(+)-C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$  (Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.), absolute ethanol,  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$  (Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) and ammonium metatungstate,  $(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{W}_7\text{O}_{24}\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.) were used as received. The water used throughout was deionized and doubly distilled.

### 2.2. Preparation of carbon spheres

In a typical experiment [26], 12 g of glucose was dissolved in 80 mL of water to form a solution. The solution was then sealed in a 100 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and maintained at  $180^\circ\text{C}$  for 4 h. The products were centrifuged (5000 r/min), washed, and dispersed in water for five cycles, after which they were centrifuged, washed, and redispersed in ethanol for five cycles. The carbon spheres were then dried at  $80^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 h under a vacuum.

### 2.3. Synthesis of $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$ core-shell particles

The starting solution was prepared by mixing 1 mL  $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$  and 20 mL ethanol, followed by the addition of 0.06 g ammonium metatungstate. After stirring at  $40^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min, a sample of 0.1 g colloidal carbon spheres, as prepared in Section 2.1, was added to the reaction media, which was then stirred vigorously for 1 h. When the mixture had cooled to room temperature, it was centrifuged, washed, and dispersed in ethanol for five cycles. The mixture was aged in air at room temperature for 12 h and dried at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  in a vacuum oven. To fabricate the 4.5 wt%  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  composite particles, the mixture was heated at a rate of 2 K/min from room temperature and kept at  $550^\circ\text{C}$  for 4 h in muffle furnace. For comparison, the same procedure was followed to produce  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres without the addition of ammonium metatungstate.

### 2.4. Structural characterization

The structural properties were determined by an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, XD-3A, Shimadzu Corporation, Japan) using graphite monochromatic copper radiation ( $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$ ) at 40 kV and 30 mA over the  $2\theta$  range  $20\text{--}80^\circ$ . The Scherrer equation (Eq. (1)) was applied to estimate the average crystallite sizes of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  samples [14]:

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

where  $D$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\beta$  are the crystallite size, the X-ray wavelength, the half-height width of the diffraction peak of anatase titania (1 0 1) and  $k = 0.89$  is a coefficient. The hollow particles were characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEM2000EX, Japan). The morphologies of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles were observed by a scanning electron microscope (SEM, JSM-5600LV, Japan). BET surface area measurements were carried out via  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption at 77 K using an ASAP2020 instrument based on adsorption data in the partial pressure ( $P/P_0$ ) range of 0.01–0.99. Infrared spectra were obtained using a Nicolet 6700 FT-IR spectrometer (Thermo Fisher, America). Spectra over the  $4000\text{--}475\text{ cm}^{-1}$  range were obtained by the co-addition of 256 scans with a resolution of  $4\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a mirror velocity of  $0.6329\text{ cm/s}$ . Spectra were co-added to improve the

signal to noise ratio. The UV–vis absorption spectra of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres were collected using a Shimadzu UV-2100 instrument equipped with an integrating sphere to characterize the spectral features of the photocatalyst samples and to determine semiconductor band-gap energies. The indirect band gap energies of the two titania samples can be estimated from a plot of  $(ah\nu)^{1/2}$  versus photon energy ( $h\nu$ ) by the following equation (Eq. (2)) near the band edge [27]:

$$ah\nu = B_i(h\nu - E_g)^2 \quad (2)$$

Here,  $a$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $E_g$  and  $B_i$  are absorption coefficient, light frequency, band gap, absorption constant. The  $E_g$  values determined by extrapolating the linear region of the plot to  $h\nu = 0$ .

### 2.5. Photo-degradation application of $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$

In the photocatalytic experiments, 5 mg of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres were dispersed into 200 mL of an aqueous methylene blue (MB) solution (10 mg/L, initial PH 7,  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ). Prior to photooxidation, the suspension was magnetically stirred (300 rpm) in a dark condition for 30 min. The aqueous suspension containing MB and photocatalyst were irradiated under UV and visible light. The photocatalytic reactor used is a cylindrical concentric Pyrex-quartz tubular reactor. In the reactor system, six sets of 365 nm, 6 W UV lamps (FL6BLB, Sankyo, Japan) for UV irradiation or a 110 W high-pressure sodium lamp (Institute of Electrical Light Source, Beijing) for visible light irradiation were used to allow independent control of the on/off status of each lamp. The UV lamp was positioned inside the cylindrical Pyrex vessel surrounded by a circulating water jacket (Pyrex) to cool the reaction solution. The visible light lamp was located 10 cm above the surface of the liquid in the reactor; a 400 nm cut-off glass filter was used to remove the radiation in the UV region emitted by the visible light lamps. The photon flux in the visible light region at the surface of the liquid was  $7\text{ mW/cm}^2$ , determined with a Radiometer (FZ-A, Beijing) fitted with 420 nm sensor. The photon flux in the UV light region at the external wall of the quartz tube was  $135\text{ }\mu\text{W/cm}^2$ , determined with a Radiometer (UV-A, Beijing) fitted with 365 nm sensor. At the given time intervals (5 and 15 min), analytical samples were taken from the suspension and immediately centrifuged at 80 rps for 10 min. MB concentration was analyzed by a UV–vis spectroscopy (Shimadzu UV-2100). The degradation rate can be calculated using Eq. (3).

$$\text{degradation rate} = 100\% \times \frac{(C_0 - C)}{C_0} \quad (3)$$

Here,  $C_0$  is the initial concentration of MB before UV irradiation, and  $C$  is the concentration of MB remaining in the solution, and the apparent first-order kinetic equation (Eq. (4)) was used to fit the experimental data:

$$\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C}\right) = k_{\text{app}} \times t \quad (4)$$

where  $k_{\text{app}}$  is the apparent reaction rate constant, and  $t$  is the reaction time [28]. For comparison, the same procedure was also performed for  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterization of $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$ composites

#### 3.1.1. Morphology

Composite photocatalyst  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres were synthesized using a colloidal carbon template. The micrographs of the samples were observed by SEM and TEM. Fig. 1 shows the SEM and TEM images of the carbon sphere template obtained by hydrothermal synthesis. The micrographs of the carbon spheres showed that

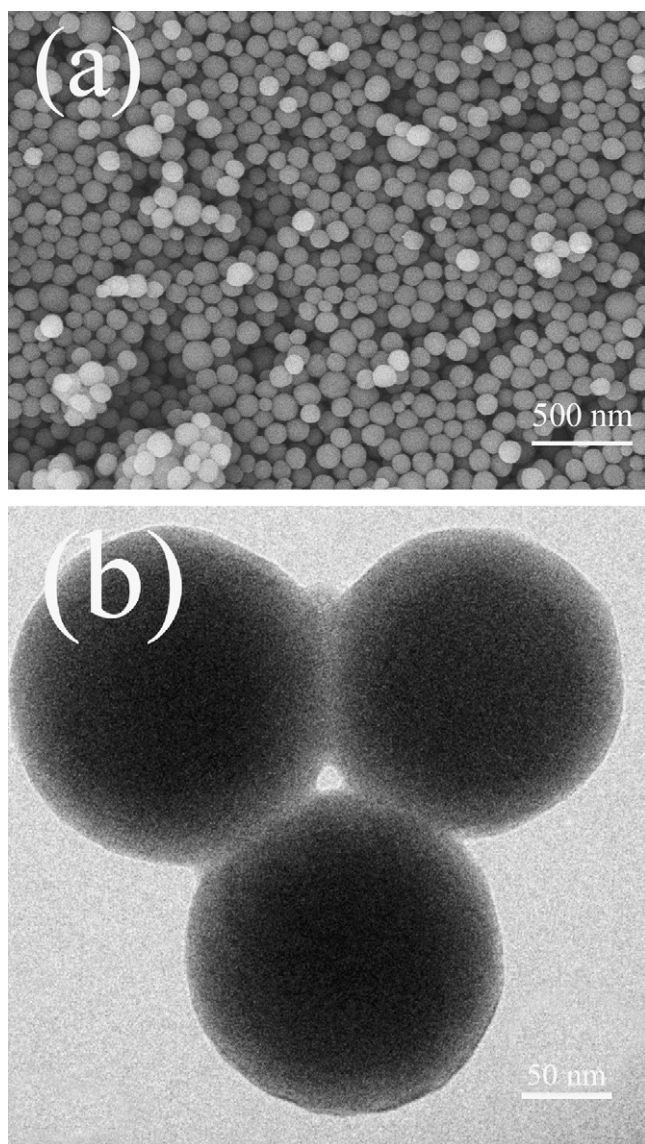


Fig. 1. (a) SEM and (b) TEM images of carbon spheres.

the carbon balls were nearly mono-dispersed, spherical structures with uniform particle size distributions. In addition, the balls had smooth surfaces, and the diameter of the colloidal carbon spheres ranged from 180–250 nm.

Fig. 2a shows an SEM micrograph of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres obtained after the removal of the carbon sphere template. The calcinations of these composite particles resulted in the fabrication of hollow spheres. The diameter of the composite photocatalysts was about 320 nm. Ultrasound images of the composite photocatalysts are shown in Fig. 2b. The images further confirmed that the composite catalysts had a hollow spherical structure and that the wall thickness of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres was about 50 nm.

### 3.1.2. Phases

XRD was used to characterize the crystalline phases of the photocatalysts. XRD patterns of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  phases formed at 550 °C are shown in Fig. 3. The presence of five main peaks of  $\text{TiO}_2$  at  $2\theta = 25.22^\circ$ ,  $37.78^\circ$ ,  $47.94^\circ$ ,  $54.96^\circ$ , and  $62.69^\circ$  were found; these peaks can be respectively indexed to the (101), (004), (200), (211), and (204) planes of anatase titanium. The patterns clearly indicated that the nanoparticles had a pure anatase structure, with

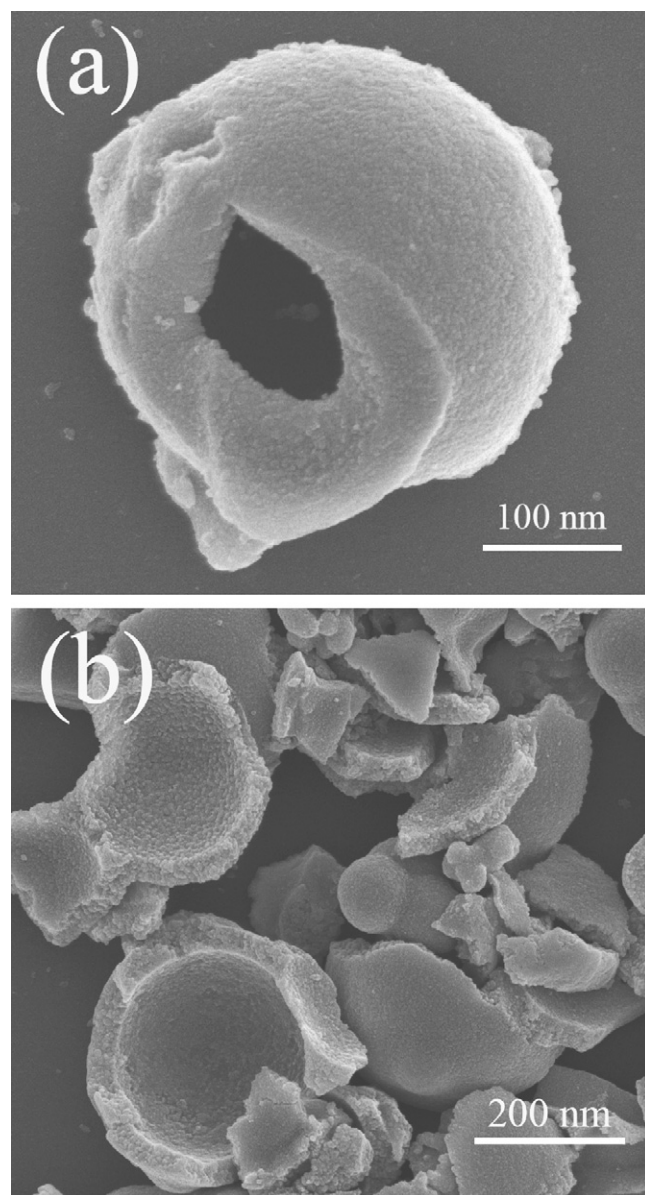


Fig. 2. SEM images of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  spheres (a) without ultrasound and (b) with ultrasound.

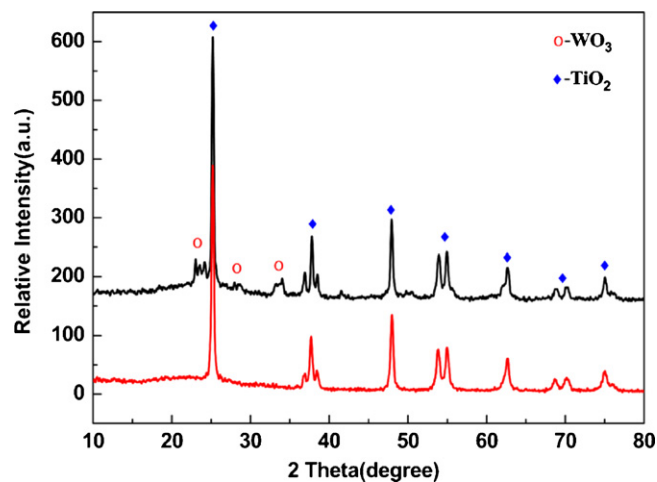


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

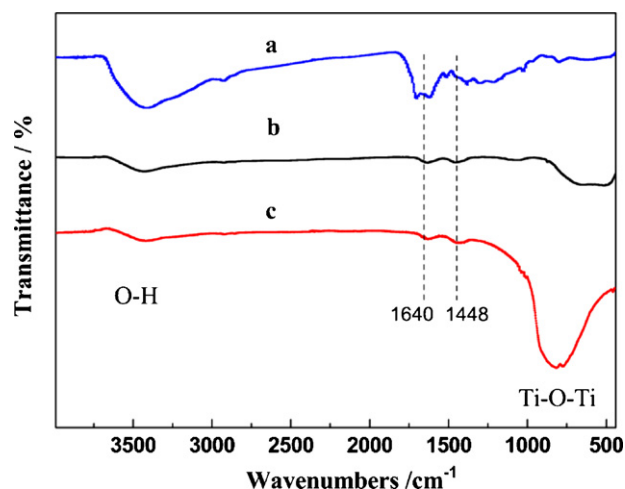


Fig. 4. FT-IR spectra of (a) carbon sphere template, (b)  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and (c)  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

all major peaks matching well with the standard pattern of anatase titanium (JCPDS no. 21-1272). The crystallite size, calculated by the Scherrer formula (Eq. (1)), was 32 nm. No characteristic carbon peak was found, indicating that the carbon sphere template was completely removed at  $550^\circ\text{C}$ .

### 3.1.3. FT-IR

The FT-IR spectra of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres and  $\text{TiO}_2$  are shown in Fig. 4. The characteristic absorption band at  $\sim 3420\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was attributed to  $-\text{OH}$  stretching, that at  $\sim 1630\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was attributed to aromatic and  $-\text{OH}$  bending vibrations, and that at  $\sim 1448\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was attributed to  $\text{C}-\text{H}$  stretching vibrations. All of the samples showed relatively intense and broad bands in the vicinity of  $400\text{--}800\text{ cm}^{-1}$  due to  $\text{Ti}-\text{O}$  vibrations [29]. No characteristic peak of  $\text{CO}_2$  was found at  $\sim 2370\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , confirming the successful removal of the carbon spheres.

Based on the study by Wang et al. [30–32], we proposed a generating mechanism for the fabrication of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres by templating carbonaceous microspheres as illustrated in Fig. 5. Carbon microspheres, which served as the templates, were first prepared from glucose by dehydration under hydrothermal conditions. According to researches done by Sun and Li [26], the surface of the spheres is hydrophilic, as it is functionalized with  $-\text{OH}$  and  $\text{C}=\text{O}$  groups, which is illustrated in Fig. 5a. Upon dispersal of the carbon microspheres in  $\text{Ti}(\text{O}i\text{Bu})_4$  and ammonium metatungstate, the functional groups in the surface layer were able to bind metal cations (such as  $\text{Ti}^{2+}$  species formed in the reaction media during the hydrolysis of  $\text{Ti}(\text{O}i\text{Bu})_4$  salts) through coordination or electrostatic interactions. The formation process can be seen in Fig. 5b. After the removal of carbon templates by calcination, the hollow spheres achieved an average diameter of about 320 nm, roughly 50 nm larger than the starting spheres.

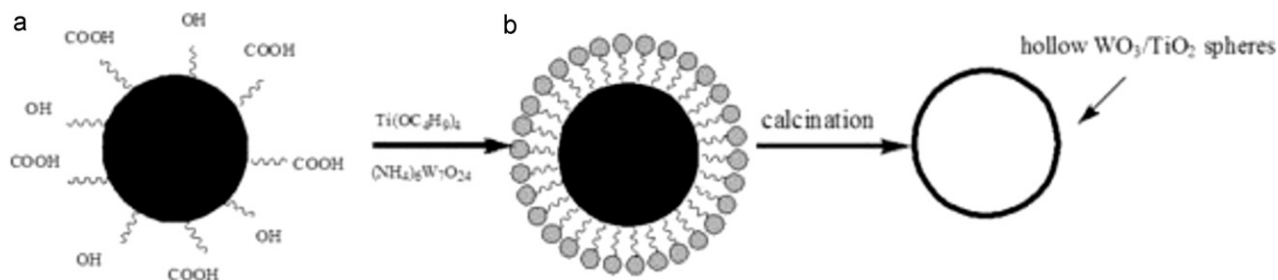


Fig. 5. Schematic of the formation of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres using carbon spheres as a template.

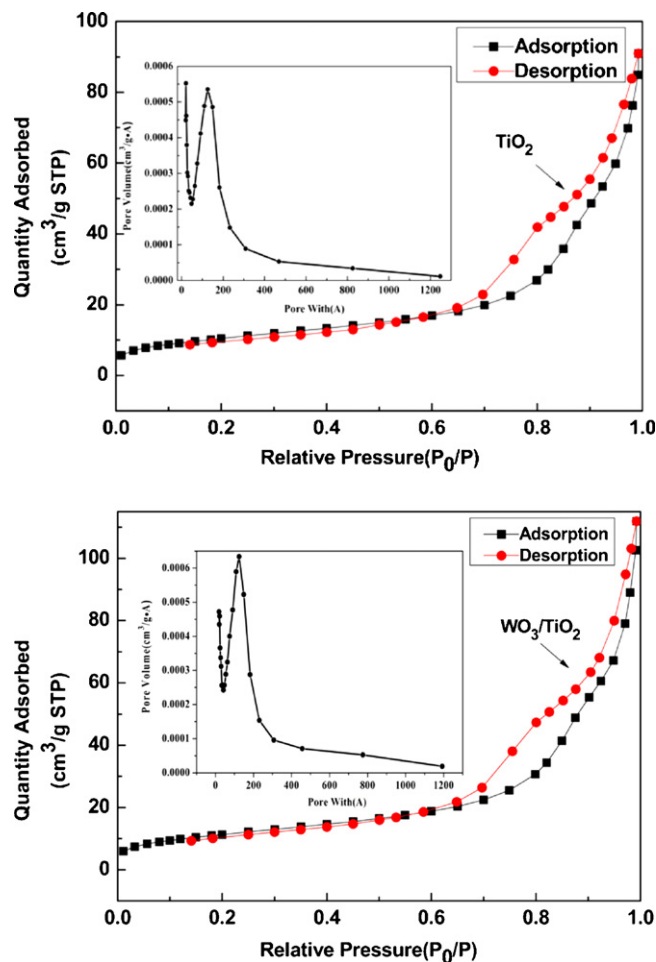


Fig. 6. Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres (inset: pore size distribution curves).

### 3.1.4. BET

To characterize the specific surface area and porosity of the as-prepared samples,  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption analysis was carried out. Fig. 6 shows the  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherms and the corresponding pore-size distribution curves of the two titania samples. The isotherms corresponding to the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres were of type IV, according to Brunauer–Deming–Deming–Teller (BDDT) classification. Two capillary condensation steps were found, indicating bimodal pore-size distributions in the mesoporous (pore diameters between 2 and 50 nm) and macroporous (pore diameters larger than 50 nm) regions [33]. The hysteresis loop at lower relative pressure ranges ( $0.4 < P/P_0 < 0.9$ ) was associated with finer intra-aggregated pores within primary agglomerated particles, while that at higher relative pressure ranges ( $0.9 < P/P_0 < 1$ ) was related to larger inter-

**Table 1**  
Surface area, pore volume, and average pore size of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

Sample	$S_{\text{BET}}$ ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ )	$V_{\text{tot}}$ ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$ )	$D$ (nm)
$\text{TiO}_2$	37.52	0.1408	15.01
$\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$	40.95	0.1735	16.91

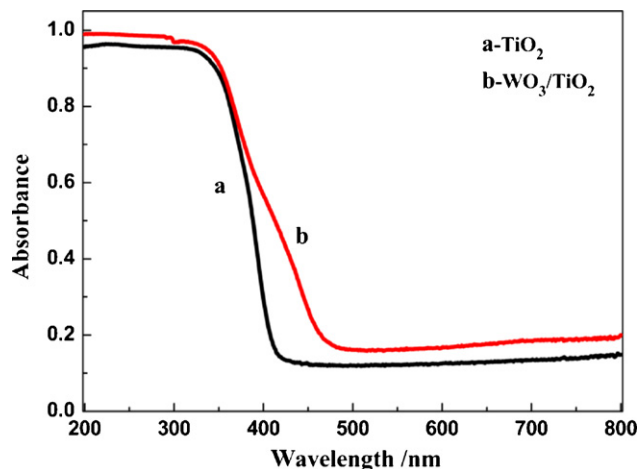


Fig. 7. Diffuse reflectance UV-vis spectra of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

aggregated pores between secondary aggregated particles [34]. This bimodal pore-size distribution was confirmed by the corresponding pore-size distributions (see inset in Fig. 6). A relative pressures approaching unity, the adsorption isotherm was similar to a type II isotherm curve, indicating the presence of mesopores among the agglomerated  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres. The tailing of the pore-size distribution curve showed the presence of macro pores [34,35]. The specific surface area, pore volume, and average pore size of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres are shown in Table 1. It can be seen that the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres had relatively higher surface-to-volume ratios compared to  $\text{TiO}_2$  ones.

### 3.1.5. Absorption spectrum

The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectrum of  $\text{TiO}_2$  is shown in Fig. 7a. It was dominated by the edge due to the  $\text{O}^{2-}-\text{Ti}^{4+}$  charge transition in anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  at 300–380 nm [36,37], which is comparable to the excitation of electrons from the valence band to the conduction band.

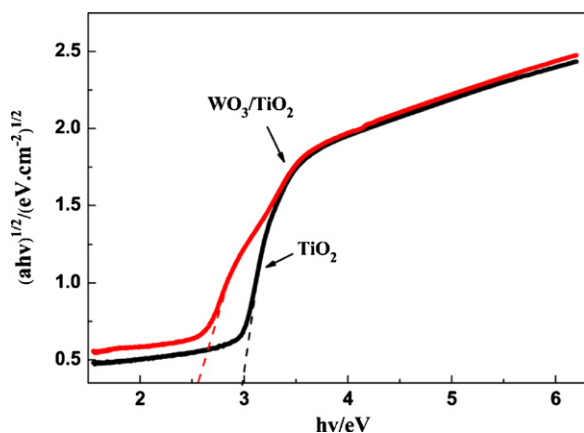


Fig. 8. Plots of  $(ah\nu)^{1/2}$  versus photon energy ( $h\nu$ ) of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

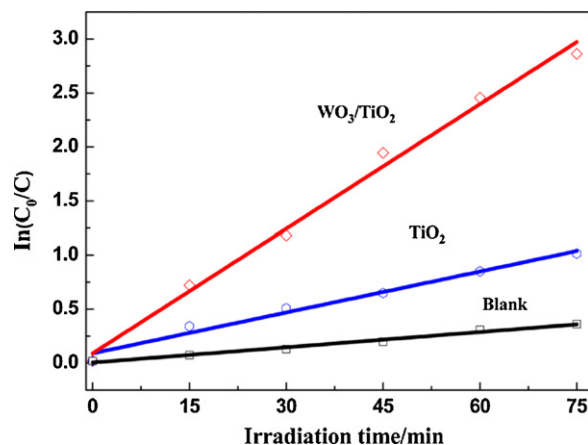


Fig. 9. Linear transform  $\ln(C_0/C)=f(t)$  of the kinetic curves of MB degradation of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres under UV irradiation.

In Fig. 7b, the main absorption edge of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres was 477 nm, which was shifted towards the visible region compared to pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ . As well, the absorption of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  was stronger than that of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the visible region. The plots of  $(ah\nu)^{1/2}$  versus  $h\nu$  are presented in Fig. 8. The indirect band gap energies estimated from the intercept of the tangents to the plots were 3.0 and 2.6 eV for  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres, respectively. Therefore, the light-harvesting efficiency of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres was larger than that of  $\text{TiO}_2$  ones.

The red-shift in the absorption spectrum of the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres may be attributed to two reasons. First, the indirect band gap energy of anatase titania was 3.2 eV; it was 2.8 eV for  $\text{WO}_3$ . When  $\text{WO}_3$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  form a coupled photocatalyst, the formation of defective energy levels within the forbidden band of  $\text{WO}_3$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  could decrease the band gap energy of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  [18,38]. Second, oxygen defects that occurred during the formation of titania particles may have caused the spheres to red-shift. Oxygen defects would extend titanic activity to the visible region; this phenomenon was investigated by Martyanov et al. [39].

### 3.2. Photocatalytic application of $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$

Evaluation of the photocatalytic activities of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres was carried out by the degradation of MB under UV or visible light irradiation. The level of mineralization with irradi-

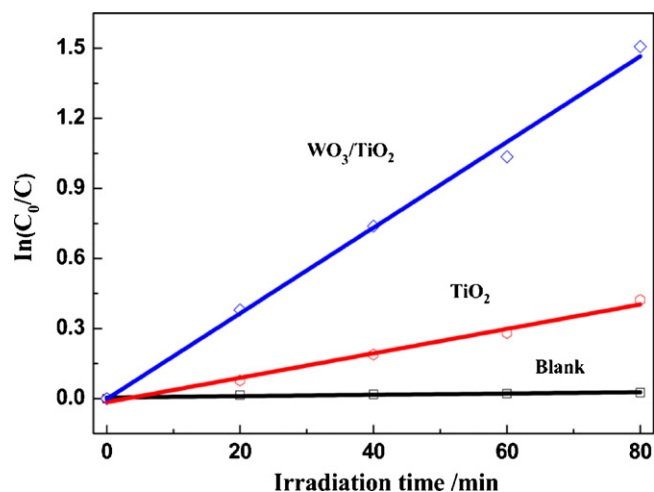


Fig. 10. Linear transform  $\ln(C_0/C)=f(t)$  of the kinetic curves of MB degradation of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres under visible light irradiation.

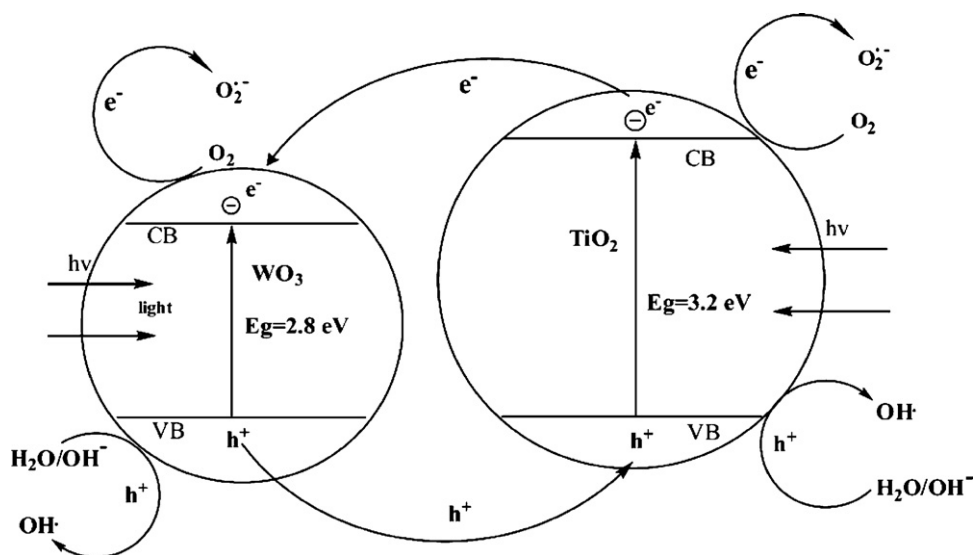


Fig. 11. Schematic representation of charge carrier separation in the photoexcited  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  photocatalyst.

ation time was investigated by analyzing the UV–visible spectra of the reaction solution obtained at 5 and 15 min intervals. Fig. 9 shows the results of the photocatalytic decomposition of MB under UV irradiation. After 60 min irradiation, the degradation rate (Eq. (3)) of MB was 95%, 57%, and 30% for  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres,  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres, and blank hollow spheres without catalysts, respectively. This shows that  $\text{WO}_3$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$  had enhanced photocatalytic activity, and the linear relationship between  $\ln(C_0/C)$  and  $t$  indicates that the photo-catalytic degradation reaction follows pseudo-first-order kinetics (Fig. 9). From Fig. 9, we obtained the following  $k_{\text{app}}$  data for  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres: 0.041 and 0.013  $\text{min}^{-1}$ , respectively. The correlation coefficients  $R^2$  were 0.99 and 0.98 for  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres, respectively.

Fig. 10 shows the photocatalytic properties of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres under visible light irradiation. The blank test confirmed that MB only slightly degraded under visible light in the absence of catalysts, indicating that the photolysis and adsorption action of catalysts can be ignored. Only 24% MB can be photodegraded by  $\text{TiO}_2$  under visible light in 80 min. The sample with  $\text{WO}_3$  exhibited higher photocatalytic activity than pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ . 78% of MB can be photodegraded by  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  under the same condition. Meanwhile, the linear relationship between  $\ln(C_0/C)$  and  $t$  indicates that the photo-catalytic degradation reaction also follows pseudo-first-order kinetics (Fig. 10). On the basis of the pseudo-first-order reaction, the apparent rate constants were calculated to be 0.00524, 0.0184, and 0.000283  $\text{min}^{-1}$  for pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  and blank hollow spheres without catalysts, respectively. Results showed that the coupled with  $\text{WO}_3$  sample had a great influence on the photocatalytic activity of the as-prepared photocatalyst and demonstrate that fabricated mixed metal oxide hollow spheres could potentially be used as an efficient photocatalyst for degradation of organic pollutants. In comparison to the UV photoactivity, the photocatalysts showed lower apparent rate constant in the visible region (Table 2). It is worth mentioning here that the apparent rate constant in the presence of fabricated  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres is 3-fold higher than those reported in the literature [28]. Moreover, according to the studies by Saepurahman et al. [40–42], it is interesting to find that the optimal conditions of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  photocatalysts with other preparation technique (hydrothermal method [21], sol–gel method [32], and flame-made method [41]) is not the same and the apparent rate constant could be improved by the procedure of preparation such as catalyst loading, optical

Table 2

UV and visible apparent rate constant  $k$  ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) for the  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  hollow spheres.

Sample	$k$ ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) UV degradation	$k$ ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) visible degradation
Blank	0.005	0.00028
$\text{TiO}_2$	0.013	0.0052
$\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$	0.041	0.018

absorption, initial PH, light wavelength, and calcination temperature [40,42].

The increased photocatalytic activity of the coupled photocatalyst was primarily attributed to enhancements in charge separation efficiency because a junction [4,18,28] was formed by the decoration of  $\text{WO}_3$  with  $\text{TiO}_2$ , which plays an important role in the separation of photogenerated electron–hole pairs (Fig. 11).

When  $\text{WO}_3$  ( $E_g = 2.8$  eV) and  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $E_g = 3.2$  eV) form a coupled photocatalyst,  $\text{WO}_3$  can be excited by photons under visible illumination, and  $\text{TiO}_2$  remain unexcited. Upon visible excitation, an electron from the anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{WO}_3$  may be promoted from the valence band ( $e_{\text{cb}}^-$ ) to the conduction band, leaving behind a hole in the valence band ( $h_{\text{vb}}^+$ ). As the conduction band of  $\text{WO}_3$  is lower than that of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , the former can be used as a photoelectronic receiver. The photo-generated electrons of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  conduction band will be transferred to the conduction band of  $\text{WO}_3$  [20]. Since the holes move in the opposite direction from the electrons, photo-generated holes will be trapped within the  $\text{TiO}_2$  particle, causing charge separation to become more efficient [21,41]. The positive holes in the valence band can be trapped by  $\text{OH}^-$  or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  species adsorbed on the surface of the catalyst, producing reactive hydroxyl radicals in aqueous media. The photo-generated electrons accumulate on the surface of  $\text{WO}_3$  and could be rapidly transferred to molecular oxygen  $\text{O}_2$  to form the superoxide radical anion  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet -}$  and hydrogen peroxide  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  [18,21]. The newly formed intermediates can interact to produce a hydroxyl radical  $\text{OH}^\bullet$ , which is responsible for the decomposition of MB.

#### 4. Conclusions

Hollow spheres composed of  $\text{WO}_3/\text{TiO}_2$  mixed metal oxide shells were fabricated by the template method. The as-synthetic hollow spheres exhibited high catalytic activity for MB photo-

degradation under visible light irradiation. The indirect band gap energies of TiO<sub>2</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> hollow spheres were 3.0 and 2.6 eV, respectively. WO<sub>3</sub>-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> can shift the light absorption band from near UV to the visible region. Kinetic studies indicated that the photocatalytic degradation of MB followed pseudo-first-order kinetics. The photocatalytic mineralization of MB, catalyzed by TiO<sub>2</sub> or WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> proceeded at a significantly higher rate under UV irradiation than that under visible light. The apparent rate constant of photodestruction of MB catalyzed by WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> composite semiconductor material was 3.2 and 3.5-fold higher than by TiO<sub>2</sub> under both UV and visible light irradiation. The increased photocatalytic activity of the coupled nanocomposites was attributed to photoelectron/hole separation efficiency and the extension of the wavelength range of photoexcitation.

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