

The Effect of WO₃ on the Photocatalytic Activity of TiO₂

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Samples of WO₃/TiO₂ mixed oxide powders were prepared by two methods: (1) the incipient wetness impregnation of an aqueous ammonia solution of H₂WO₄ onto TiO₂ (P25), followed by heat treatment and (2) the ultrasonic nebulization and flame hydrolysis of a mixed isopropanol solution of tungsten(V) pentaethoxide and titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide. The photocatalytic activities of TiO₂-based catalysts were evaluated by the degradation of 1,4-dichlorobenzene (DCB). The addition of WO₃ to TiO₂ greatly increased its photocatalytic behavior. This may be related to an increase in the transfer of electrons from the TiO₂ to the outer system, via the formation of an intermediate W(V) species. © 1994 Academic Press, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

TiO₂ has been shown to be an excellent photocatalyst for the degradation of several environmental contaminants (1,2). Many organic compounds can be oxidized in aqueous solution on the surface of TiO₂ powders illuminated with near-UV or sunlight (3,4).

It has been shown that the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ is influenced by the crystal structure, surface area, size distribution, porosity, band gap, and surface hydroxyl group density (5-8). Recently, noble metals (Pd, Au, Ag, etc.) deposited on TiO₂ have been widely studied for the purpose of improving the latter's photocatalytic activity (9-13). Gerischer and co-workers (3,11) have proposed that the rate of photooxidation of organic compounds, on the surface of a catalyst, is limited by the rate of electron transfer to oxygen. They have reported that the modification of the TiO₂ surface by noble metals increases the efficiency of electron transfer to oxygen and, hence, increases the efficiency of photoassisted oxidation.

In contrast to metal/TiO₂ photocatalysts, there have been few studies reported concerning the photocatalytic activity of metal oxide/TiO₂ catalysts. Several papers have reported (14,15) on the use of chromium oxide and iron oxide as additives to TiO₂ in order to increase the rate of photooxidation of phenol. Tokumitsu *et al.* (16) have used WO₃/TiO₂ photocatalysts to remove (CH₃)₃N, CH₃SH, and CH₃CHO from air. Photooxidation of metha-

nol using a MoO₃/TiO₂ catalyst was reported by Liu *et al.* (17). However, the latter results indicate that the photocatalytic activity was one-fifth that of pure TiO₂.

In this study, it is shown that WO₃/TiO₂ shows a higher photocatalytic activity toward the oxidation of 1,4-dichlorobenzene. The investigation is part of a systematic attempt to prepare mixed oxide systems which can efficiently photodegrade chlorinated hydrocarbons. The choice of WO₃ was based on the relative band position of WO₃ · xH₂O and TiO₂. It has been reported (18,19) that the flat band potential of WO₃ · xH₂O obtained from Schottky-Mott plots is -0.45 V (vs SCE), and that of TiO₂ is -0.7 V. Hence, photogenerated electrons are transferred to the WO₃ conduction band and the holes accumulate in the TiO₂.

Members of the WO₃/TiO₂ system have been reported to act as denitrification catalysts (20,21), and Tennakone *et al.* (19) have suggested that members of the WO₃/TiO₂ system might be more efficient than pure TiO₂ for the photodegradation of water. However, they did not publish experimental data to substantiate their claims. The study reported in this paper is the first which investigates members of the WO₃/TiO₂ system as catalysts for the photooxidation of chlorinated hydrocarbons.

EXPERIMENTAL

Preparation of TiO₂ and WO₃ Powders

A commercial form of TiO₂ (Degussa P25) was chosen as a standard sample of TiO₂. A second sample of TiO₂, studied in this investigation, was prepared by the ultrasonic nebulization and flame hydrolysis of a 0.5 M isopropanol solution of titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide (Johnson Matthey Co.). A solution containing a titanium precursor was nebulized by a commercial ultrasonic humidifier (Holmes Air). The generated mists were carried by argon (flow rate 1.6 liter/min) and fed into the oxy-hydrogen flame (H₂ flow, 3.5 liter/min; O₂ flow, 8.0 liter/min). The TiO₂ powders produced were deposited on the wall of a silica tube. The detailed experimental apparatus has been described in a previous publication (22).

The WO₃ was prepared by the ultrasonic nebulization

and flame hydrolysis of 0.5 M isopropanol solution of tungsten(V) pentaethoxide (Gelest, Inc.). The flame condition was the same as was used for the preparation of the TiO₂ samples.

Preparation of WO₃/TiO₂ and WO₃/Metal Oxide Polycrystalline Samples

Members of the WO₃/TiO₂ system were prepared by the incipient wetness method. An aqueous ammonia solution of H₂WO₄ (Allied Chemical & Dye Corporation, No. 1204), containing 2.0 mg/ml of tungstic acid, was the source of WO₃ in this study. In order to vary the WO₃:TiO₂ content, a fixed weight of TiO₂, P25, as ultrasonically dispersed in varying aliquots of the aqueous ammonia solution of tungstic acid. Each solution was then evaporated in a water bath. The product was subsequently dried in a drying oven at 120°C for 16 hr and ground with a mortar and pestle. Finally, the product was calcined in an oxygen gas stream (100 cm³/min) at 450°C for 1 hr.

In addition, WO₃/TiO₂ samples were prepared by the ultrasonic nebulization and flame hydrolysis of a 0.5 M mixed isopropanol solution of tungsten(V) pentaethoxide and titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide. The flame condition was the same as was used for the preparation of TiO₂.

WO₃ was also added to other binary metal oxide supports, such as SiO₂, SnO₂, Al₂O₃, and ZrO₂ by the incipient wetness impregnation of an aqueous ammonia solution of H₂WO₄. The preparation condition was the same as was used for the preparation of samples of WO₃/TiO₂.

Characterization of Products

X-ray powder diffraction patterns of the powder samples were obtained using a Philips diffractometer and monochromated high intensity CuKα₁ radiation (λ = 1.5405 Å). The diffraction patterns were taken with a scan rate of 1° 2θ min⁻¹ over the range 12° < 2θ < 80°, while cell parameters were determined from scans taken at 0.25° 2θ/min. Precise lattice parameters were obtained from the diffraction peaks using a least-squares refinement program which corrects for the systematic errors of the diffractometer.

Crystallite sizes were calculated from the peak widths by using the Scherrer equation, $D = k\lambda/(\beta \cos \theta)$, where D is the crystallite size, k is a shape factor (a value of 0.9 was used in this study), λ is the X-ray radiation wavelength (1.5405 Å for CuKα₁), and β is the half width (in radians) of the peak at 2θ. β was determined from the experimental integral width by applying standard corrections for the effects of Kα₁-Kα₂ separation and instrumental broadening.

The surface area was measured by the single-point BET method using a Flow Sorb (II) 2300 (Micromeritics Instrument Corp., Norcross, GA). The samples were degassed

at 170°C for 2 hr and the adsorbate gas consisted of a mixture of 30% N₂/70% He.

Measurement of Photocatalytic Activity

The photocatalytic activities of various powder samples were evaluated by the degradation of 1,4-dichlorobenzene (DCB). A saturated DCB solution was prepared by adding an excess of DCB to distilled water and stirring for 8 hr. The solution was capped and preserved in darkness. A standard stock solution containing 0.0015 wt% of the ultrasonically dispersed oxide was prepared. Three ml of this solution was transferred to a silica cuvette and 0.2 ml of a saturated aqueous solution of DCB was added. A sample containing 0.2 ml of distilled water and 3 ml of the TiO₂ suspension was used as a blank for the absorption measurement. The sample was then irradiated with a 150-watt xenon short-arc lamp whose output was passed through a pyrex filter. The differential absorption at 224 nm (maximum absorption peak of DCB) was measured using a Perkin-Elmer 552A spectrophotometer. The change in concentration of DCB of the irradiated sample as a function of time was compared to that of the blank.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There have been relatively few phase studies carried out on the WO₃/TiO₂ system. Several techniques were used to obtain information concerning the surface structure of members of the WO₃/TiO₂ system. They included Raman spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction spectroscopy (XRD), X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XANES), and Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) (23-28). These studies have revealed that impregnated WO₃ clusters on the surface of the TiO₂. Ramis *et al.* reported (26) that the WO₃ surface consists of wolframyl groups (W = O) and the WO₃ inhibits the phase transformation of anatase to rutile. In this study, the cell parameters of two WO₃/TiO₂ samples are compared to those observed for TiO₂ (P25) and TiO₂ prepared by flame hydrolysis of titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide (Table 1). There appears to be no detectable change in cell parameters, which limits the degree of solid solution of WO₃ in TiO₂ to less than 2 mole%. Table 1 also shows little difference in the surface area and crystallite size of the prepared WO₃/TiO₂ powders and pure TiO₂ samples.

The photocatalytic activity of WO₃/TiO₂ powder samples was evaluated by the degradation of 1,4-dichlorobenzene (DCB). Samples were irradiated for 10 min with a xenon lamp. Figure 1 shows the change in concentration of DCB as a function of irradiation time. It can be seen that pure WO₃ shows little catalytic activity compared to TiO₂. Samples of TiO₂ prepared by flame hydrolysis of titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide were not as active as P25. This is consistent with the lower surface area and larger

TABLE I
Structural Data for TiO₂ and WO₃/TiO₂ (mole% 10/90) Samples

Sample	Preparation	Calcination temperature (°C)	Surface area (m ² /g)	Crystallite ^a size (nm)	X-ray I _{max} anatase/rutile	Cell parameter (Å) of TiO ₂ ^b
TiO ₂	P25	R.T.	47	17	71/29	<i>a</i> = 3.781(2) <i>c</i> = 9.490(2)
TiO ₂	Flame hydrolysis	As prepared	34	26	99/1	<i>a</i> = 3.780(2) <i>c</i> = 9.491(2)
WO ₃ /TiO ₂ (mole% 10/90)	Incipient wetness	450 ^c	49	18	70/30	<i>a</i> = 3.781(2) <i>c</i> = 9.488(2)
WO ₃ /TiO ₂ (mole% 10/90)	Flame hydrolysis	As prepared	30	25	99/1	<i>a</i> = 3.783(2) <i>c</i> = 9.491(2)

^a Crystallite size of anatase phase of TiO₂.

^b Cell parameters of anatase phase of TiO₂.

^c WO₃/TiO₂ samples prepared at 450°C gave optimum photocatalysts.

crystallite size of the particles formed by flame hydrolysis of the alkoxide. The two WO₃/TiO₂ samples show approximately a 100% increase in photocatalytic activity over a pure TiO₂ sample which has been heated to 450°C. The optimum loading of WO₃ on TiO₂ (P25) particles was determined by measuring the activity of various WO₃/TiO₂ samples. The results of these measurements are plotted in Fig. 2. It can be seen that the optimum concentration of WO₃ on TiO₂ powders is 3 mole%.

The fundamental process which occurs in TiO₂ photocatalysts requires the promotion by light excitation of a valence band electron to the conduction band. In the presence of WO₃, these electrons can be transferred to WO₃, resulting in the formation of W(V) species.¹ This would be consistent with the results of Tennakone *et al.* (19), which reported that when WO₃ particles in contact with TiO₂ in water are irradiated with light, there is an electron transfer from TiO₂ to WO₃ · xH₂O. However, the

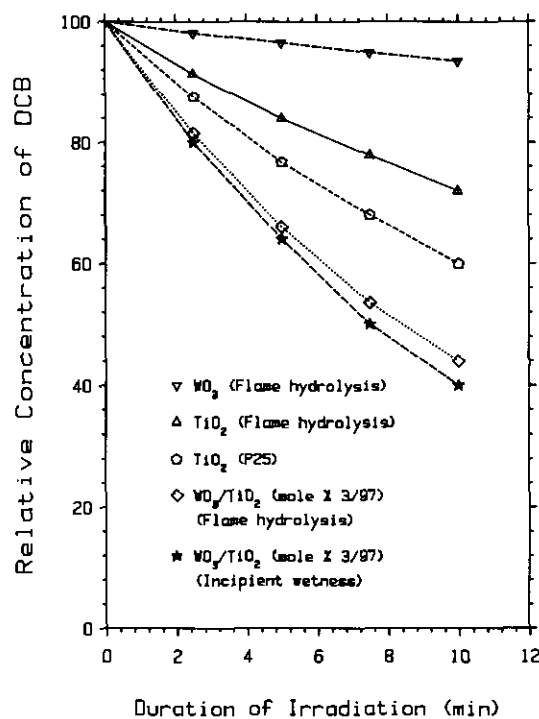


FIG. 1. Decomposition of DCB vs irradiation time of TiO₂, WO₃, and WO₃/TiO₂ powders.

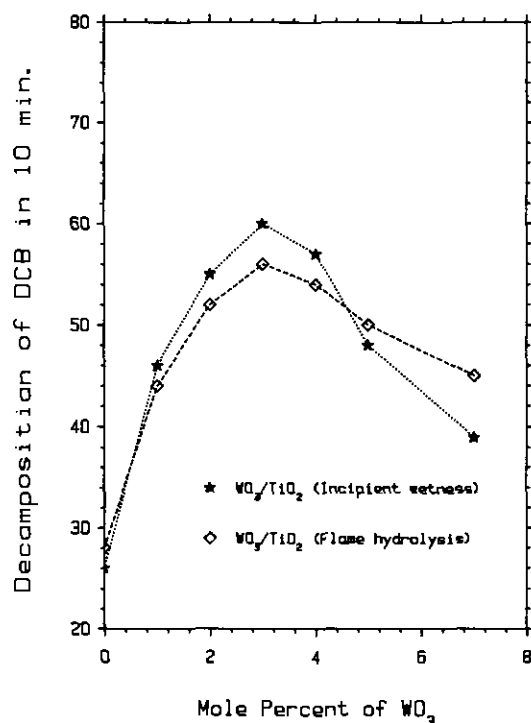


FIG. 2. Photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ powders as a function of concentration of WO₃.

TABLE 2
Photocatalytic Activity of 3 mole% WO₃ over Various Supporting Oxides

Supporting oxide	TiO ₂ (P25)	SiO ₂	SnO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	ZrO ₂
Photocatalytic activity ^a	60	1	2	2	2

^a % of DCB decomposition in the initial 10 min of irradiation.

lack of a blue color due to the W(V)–W(VI) couple is undoubtedly related to the ease by which the electron from tungsten can be transferred to the outer systems (air). This electron-hole separation process then permits the separated holes to transfer to OH[−], creating the active oxidant OH*. The dispersed WO₃ particles play an important role in accepting the photogenerated electrons from TiO₂, and these electrons are transferred to oxygen adsorbed on the surface of the TiO₂ particles. The increased photocatalytic activities shown by the WO₃/TiO₂ samples are consistent with the model of Gerischer and Heller (3), which predicted increased activity of the photocatalyst if the electron transfer rate-controlling step could be made more efficient.

In order to test if WO₃ itself is photocatalytically active or if it only modifies the support, WO₃ was introduced onto several supports. Colloidal particles of SiO₂, SnO₂, Al₂O₃, and ZrO₂, which have high surface areas, can readily be dispersed in an aqueous solution. A 3 mole% of WO₃ was introduced on these supporting materials by the same incipient wetness technique which was used for the preparation of the WO₃/TiO₂ samples. Table 2 shows that WO₃ supported over SiO₂, SnO₂, Al₂O₃, or ZrO₂ shows low activity. Therefore, WO₃ in the presence of supports which show little photocatalytic activity remains inactive.

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