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Full Length Article

Effect of crystalline/amorphous structure on light absorption and carrier separation of CeO₂-TiO₂ heterojunctions



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ABSTRACT

Three types of heterojunctions with crystalline ceria/amorphous titania (cC/aT), amorphous ceria/amorphous titania (aC/aT) and crystalline titania/amorphous ceria (cT/aC) structures were prepared to study the effect of structure on their light absorption and carrier separation. The formation mechanism of both crystalline and amorphous phases was studied in this paper. The light absorption and carrier separation efficiency of the heterojunction are markedly enhanced relative to two pure oxides (TiO₂ and CeO₂). Defects such as oxygen vacancy from the lattice disorder in the aC/aT sample enable the highest absorption of visible light, but also reduce its carrier separation efficiency. The highest separation efficiency of the amorphous phase. The experiment confirmed that the the aC/cT sample has more separated charge carriers to react with organic pollutants compare with the cC/aT and aC/aT samples. The work in this paper is useful for rational design and preparation of heterojunctions made by other oxides with high visible light absorption and carrier separation efficiency.

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1. Introduction

Titania (TiO₂) has been extensively studied as a photocatalyst [1-3] because of its favorable band-edge positions, chemical stability and abundance. The practical applications of TiO₂ are substantially limited due to its large band gap and rapid recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes (e⁻-h⁺) [4,5]. Despite various methods such as metal or nonmetal doping [6,7], co-deposition of metals [8], and dye sensitization [9], there is still a long way to go to obtain an ideal titania photocatalyst.

Recently, black TiO₂ has attracted significant attention due to its increased charge transfer and visible light absorption [10–12]. Black TiO₂ is composed of two types of TiO₂: the core is a crystalline phase (anatase) and the shell is a disordered layer obtained by hydrogenation treatments [10]. The disordered shell determines the band gap narrowing in TiO₂, and the order/disorder interface improves the separation and transfer efficiency of e^-h^+ pairs as well as the photocatalytic performance. The biggest problem with

black TiO_2 is its harsh preparation conditions such as hydrogenation via high pressure.

Heterojunctions are another feasible way to improve photocatalytic activity [13–15]. The heterojunction provides a narrow bandgap to increase the visible light absorption [16]. More efficient charge separation can be achieved by the offset in the energies of the band edges from the heterostructure [17]. The interface of different crystals can sometimes becomes the carriers' barrier due to the lattice and electron mismatches, and thereby reduces the photocatalytic efficiency [18]. Finding a solution of the interfacial problem is essential to getting an active heterojunction. By referring to the order/disorder structure of black TiO₂, the amorphous phase may be one of the solutions. Mismatches at the interface can be fault-tolerant due to the disorder of amorphous phase. In addition, the amorphous phase can provide more unsaturated active sites to improve photocatalytic activities [19].

Cerium dioxide is one of the most attractive materials and is widely used in gas sensors [20], in fuel cells [21], and as a photocatalyst in water and air pollution treatment [22]. Ceria has the unique ability to store and release oxygen due to the redox pair Ce^{3+}/Ce^{4+} [22]. CeO_2 -TiO₂ heterojunction got many attentions [23–25]. But most of the researches focused on the effect of low amounts of ceria on the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂, the

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researches on the crystalline and amorphous structure in CeO₂-TiO₂ heterojunction are rare [26–28]. The formation mechanism of crystalline and amorphous phases in the heterojunction is still not found a clear answer. The influence of crystalline/amorphous phases on photocatalytic activity is also lacking.

In the present paper, we report an investigation on CeO_2 -TiO₂ heterojunction with three kind's structures (cC/aT, aT/aC andcT/aC). Thermal analysis of thermogravimetry-differential scanning calorimetry (TG-DSC) test was used to study the formation mechanism of crystalline and amorphous phases. The samples were characterized by various techniques including X-ray Diffraction (XRD), N₂ adsorption to evaluate BET surface area, diffuse reflectance UV-Vis spectroscopy, transmission electron microscopy (TEM with EDS), X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS) and photoluminescence spectroscopy (Pl). Aim of this investigation was a deep insight into the effect of crystalline/amorphous structure on the light absorption and carrier separation of the heterojunction.

2. Experimental

2.1. Preparation of samples

All reactants used in the experiment were purchased from China National Medicines Corporation Ltd. The CeO₂/TiO₂ heterojunction was synthesized via a sol-gel method. At first, solution A [a mixture of 0.06 mol of Ti(OC₄H₉)₄, 0.06 mol of C₆H₈O₇·H₂O (citric acid) and 150 mL of C₂H₅OH] and solution B [a mixture of Ce(NO₃)₃·H₂O with



Fig. 1. XRD patterns of all samples.

Table 1	1
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Physiochemical properties of all samples.

a stoichiometric amount, 150 mL of C_2H_5OH and 150 mL distilled water] were prepared. Then solution B was added dropwise to solution A with stirring, until a stable sol was formed. The sol was then aged in air until form a gel, and then dried at 333 K for 12 hours. Finally, the powder was calcined at 873 K in air for 4 h.

Concentrations of five heterojunctions were prepared with Ce/ Ti molar ratios of 1, 0.5, 0.25, 0.1, 0.05 and 0.01; these samples labeled as Ce1.0Ti-O, Ce0.5Ti-O, Ce0.25Ti-O, Ce0.1Ti-O, Ce0.05Ti-O and Ce0.01Ti-O, respectively. In order to compare properties, pure oxides were prepared with the same method for TiO₂ (using Ti(OC₄H₉)₄, citric acid, C₂H₅OH and distilled water) and CeO₂ (using Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O, citric acid, and distilled water).

2.2. Characterization of samples

Thermal analysis of thermogravimetry-differential scanning calorimetry (TG-DSC) of the precursor was performed using a simultaneous thermal analyzer TA-SDTQ600, with a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ in air up to 800 °C. The phases and crystallite sizes of the samples were examined over a 2θ range of $20-80^{\circ}$ using a Bruker D8 ADVANCE diffractometer with a nickel-filtered Cu Ka $(\lambda = 0.15418 \text{ nm})$ radiation source with a working voltage and current of 40 kV and 40 mA, respectively. The crystallite sizes were estimated using the Debye-Scherrer formula. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) of the samples were determined by adsorption of nitrogen (N2) using a Micromeritics Tristar 3020. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and highresolution TEM images were obtained using a JEOL 2100 with an energy dispersive spectrum (EDS) analysis module. Ultravioletvisible (UV-vis) diffuse reflectance spectra were obtained with a spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, UV-2450). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was taken on an X-ray photoelectron spectrophotometer, ESCA (Thermo Fisher Scientific, an ESCALAB 250, Mono Al Kα source, 1486.6 eV). The room temperature photoluminescence (Pl) spectroscopy measurements were performed by using an Edinburgh Instruments FLS980 fluorescence spectrophotometer with a 325 nm excitation.

2.3. Photocatalytic tests

The value of the photocatalytic efficiency was obtained by subtracting the degradation efficiency in the dark from that under light. A 0.1 g sample was dispersed into 500 mL of Methylene blue (MB) solutions. The initial concentration of the MB solution was 20 mg/L. The sample was stirred in dark for 30 min to achieve the adsorption-desorption equilibrium of MB., In one case, A Xenon lamp (500 W) was used as sunlight simulation and irradiated the samples. In the other one, degradation test was conducted without light. The suspension was extracted and centrifuged to separate the sample particles at different intervals. The concentration of MB solution was tested using a UV–vis spectrometer Shimadzu UV-3150.

Samples	Crystal phase	$S_{BET} \left(m^2/g \right)$	TiO _{2(Anatase)} /TiO ₂ (%)	Crystallite size		
				Anatase (nm)	Rutile (nm)	$CeO_2(Ce_2O_3)(nm)$
CeO ₂	CeO ₂	69	n.d.	n.d. ^a	n.d.	11.4
Ce1.0Ti-O	CeO2	87	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	6.8
Ce0.5Ti-O	CeO2	96	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	5.6
Ce0.25Ti-0	Ce_2O_3	117	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.7
Ce0.1Ti-O	Antase-Rutile	96	95	10	5.5	n.d.
Ce0.05Ti-O	Anatase-Rutile	85	90	13.3	7.6	n.d.
Ce0.01Ti-O	Anatase-Rutile	71	88	17.5	11.1	n.d.
TiO ₂	Anatase-Rutile	64	17	20.7	26.1	n.d.

^a Not detected.

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