

## Research Article

# Ultrasonic-Assisted Synthesis, Characterization, and Photocatalytic Application of SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> Core-Shell Nanocomposite Particles

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In this study, we report the synthesis of SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles by ultrasound irradiation of a mixture of dispersed SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, titanium-tetra-n-butoxide (TBOT), and ammonia in an ethanol-water solution medium. The resulting core-shell nanocomposite particles were characterized by SEM, TEM, FT-IR, XPS, XRF, zeta potential measurements, XRD, and UV-visible spectroscopy. Results showed that TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles coated on the surface of SiO<sub>2</sub> were 6–10 nm in size and retained an anatase crystalline phase. Zeta potential measurements confirmed that the surface property of the SiO<sub>2</sub> changed after TiO<sub>2</sub> coating. SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell particles demonstrated better decolorization of methylene blue dye compared to commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> in aqueous solution under UV light. After treatment, the catalysts were separated with low-speed centrifugation and successfully reused four times without loss of activity. This study may provide some inspiration for the synthesis of other metal oxide-metal oxide core-shell nanocomposite materials through ultrasound irradiation.

## 1. Introduction

The boom in industrialization and mass production undoubtedly benefit humans with numerous latest products and services. However, different industries such as textile, paper, leather, ceramic, cosmetics, and ink and food processing release various organic and inorganic pollutants, which cause a great health hazard to humans and the aquatic environment when discharged to the environment without further treatment [1]. Among the pollutants, synthetic organic dyes used as coloring agents are considered as one of the potential sources of nonaesthetic pollutants which contami-

nate surface and ground water and can harm ecological resources including water quality, soils, plants, and animals and also human health [2, 3]. A number of technologies have been developed to remove the organic pollutants including chemical treatment such as chlorination [3] and ozonation [4], electrochemical treatment [5], physical treatment such as adsorption by activated carbon [6] and membranes [7], biological treatment, and a combined chemical-biological method [8]. Although the biological method is cost-effective, the dyes are only adsorbed on the sludge and are not degraded in this method [9]. Physical methods also have the disadvantages such as the pollutants simply transfer from

one phase to another rather than their destruction. It has been found that photocatalysis is a promising technique for the destruction of dyes using semiconductor catalysts under light irradiation [10]. In addition, as per literature reports, enough research work has also been carried out related to the purification of water by photocatalysis [11]. Various types of photocatalysts such as  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{WO}_3$ ,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ,  $\text{CeO}_2$ , and their composites have been used for the degradation of organic pollutants [12]. Among these metal oxides, titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) has attracted much attention due to its wide range of applications such as paint industry, biomedicine, electronics, and environmental engineering [13].  $\text{TiO}_2$  has also been widely used as the photocatalyst because of its chemical and biological inertness, high stability against photocorrosion, nontoxicity, low cost, and excellent degradation for organic pollutants [2, 13, 14].

Despite the favorable properties of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in the decomposition of dyes, it is not thermally stable when applied independently as a powder form and tends to dissolve with losing its surface area in the solution. It is also known that when  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticle is used as free-suspending systems in photocatalysis, it shows better efficiency and photocatalytic activity compared to the encapsulated ones [15–17]. However, there are a number of disadvantages of using free-suspending systems such as loss of catalyst, instability of the catalyst particles, and difficulties for the separation of the particles after treatment. Nevertheless, one of the major drawbacks of  $\text{TiO}_2$  photocatalyst is the low quantum efficiency of  $\text{TiO}_2$  owing to the fast recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, which significantly reduces the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Therefore, the low photocatalytic efficiency of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  photocatalyst still remained a challenge and is insufficient for industrial-scaled applications. In order to minimize the above drawbacks,  $\text{TiO}_2$  is incorporated in high surface area materials. Incorporation comprises an increase in the surface area of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , controlling the crystalline phase of  $\text{TiO}_2$  as anatase even at high-temperature treatment to increase its crystallinity. In addition, composites made from  $\text{TiO}_2$  and other metal oxides were often used to improve the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  [18]. Among various types of metal oxides,  $\text{SiO}_2$  has drawn large interest due to its chemical inertness and stability at high temperature [19, 20]. Incorporation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in silica has many advantages including easy separation of the nanocomposites by low-speed centrifugation when the size of the carrier spheres ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) is large but small enough for easy dispersion in the system. Besides, silica is a cost-effective support possessing good mechanical strength for long-time operations compared to polymer-based carriers. Moreover, the encapsulation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  on high surface adsorbent silica spheres significantly facilitates reactant molecules to reach the active sites of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Therefore, the photocatalytic activity increases [18, 19].  $\text{SiO}_2$  traps the photogenerated electron of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and reduces the electron-hole recombination time of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Although a number of methods have been developed for the incorporation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in silica spheres including gas phase synthesis [21], dry coating synthesis [22], sol-gel process [23, 24], and microemulsion method [25], the above methods have the disadvantages including impurities, high

cost, long time to encapsulate  $\text{TiO}_2$ , multistep coating process, and complicated experimental procedure.

Ultrasound is a promising technology whose applications have been rapidly growing due to its unique effects compared to the conventional agitation, such as rapid volumetric heating, increased reaction rates and shortened reaction time, enhanced reaction selectivity, and energy saving [26]. In addition, in many cases, reactions under ultrasound irradiation represent environmentally friendly processes, using small amounts of solvents and consuming less energy [27]. Furthermore, ultrasonic irradiation provides minimal side reactions [28]. In this study, we report a fast, simple, and low temperature ultrasonic method to synthesize  $\text{SiO}_2@/\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles.

## 2. Experimental

**2.1. Materials.** The precursors used for the preparation of  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  were tetraethoxysilane (TEOS), ethanol (99.5%, KANTO Chemical Co., Japan), and titanium-tetra-n-butoxide (TBOT, Sigma-Aldrich) solutions. Ammonium hydroxide ( $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$ ) was purchased from WAKO Pure Chemical Industries Ltd., Japan. Degussa P-25 was used as commercial pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  in all the experiments. All other reagents were of analytical grade and were used in experiments without further purification. Milli-Q water with a resistivity of 18.3 M $\Omega$  cm was used in all the preparations.

**2.2. Synthesis of Silica Nanoparticles.** The ultrasound synthesis of silica powders was performed using an ultrasound instrument (20 kHz, 700W; Q 700, QSONIC, USA). To 20 mL ethanol solution of TEOS, the desired amount of water and ammonium hydroxide were added under magnetic stirring so that the concentrations of TEOS,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  were 0.22 M, 6 M, and 2 M, respectively. Immediately, the mixture was then ultrasound irradiated at room temperature for 1 hr. After the synthesis, the resulting silica spheres were separated by centrifugation and washed with ethanol and water. Finally, the prepared silica powder,  $\text{SiO}_2(\text{s})$ , was dried at 60°C for 24 hrs.

**2.3. Preparation of  $\text{SiO}_2@/\text{TiO}_2$  Core-Shell Nanocomposite Particles.** The coating reaction was performed in ethanol at room temperature by the hydrolysis and condensation of titanium-tetra-n-butoxide (TBOT). At first, dispersion of  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles in ethanol was performed by sonication. Typically, 0.40 g of prepared  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles was taken in a 100 mL Pyrex beaker, and then, 20 mL of ethanol was added into it. The mixture was then ultrasonicated for 5 min to ensure good dispersion of the  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles. After that, an appropriate amount of TBOT ( $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$  mol to  $9.0 \times 10^{-3}$  mol), ammonia (to maintain the concentration of 0.8 M), water (to maintain the concentration of 11 M), and ethanol was added into the dispersion. The mixture was exposed to high intensity ultrasound irradiation with a Ti probe having a diameter of 6 mm and an amplitude of 120  $\mu\text{m}$  for 2 hrs. The probe was inserted to an optimum depth of the reaction mixture during the experiment. The ultrasound equipment produces acoustic waves at a frequency of

20 kHz. After ultrasonic irradiation, the resulting suspensions were centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 10 min and washed with ethanol for three times and water to remove all unreacted reagents. The  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles were then dried at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 h. The prepared sample names are denoted as  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-1}$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-2}$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-3}$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-4}$ , and  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-5}$  for  $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$  mol,  $3.0 \times 10^{-3}$  mol,  $4.5 \times 10^{-3}$  mol,  $6.0 \times 10^{-3}$  mol, and  $9.0 \times 10^{-3}$  mol of TBOT loading, respectively.

**2.4. Material Characterization.** The morphological structure of the samples was investigated by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) using S-4500 (Hitachi Ltd., Japan) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using JEM-2010 (JEOL Ltd., Japan). FE-SEM observation was performed at an accelerating voltage of 5 kV and current of  $10 \mu\text{A}$ . Prior to the observation, the powder was dropped onto carbon tape. Then, samples were coated with a few nanometers of platinum using a Pt-Pd ion coater (Hitachi, E-1030, Japan). For TEM measurement, powder specimens were suspended in ethanol, and an aliquot of  $50 \mu\text{L}$  was deposited on a copper grid coated with a holey carbon film. The copper grids were allowed to dry at room temperature in air.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed using PHI 5000 Versa Probe-II (ULVAC-PHI Inc., Japan) by dropping the powder samples on the carbon tape using Mg  $K\alpha$  X-ray source operating at 200 W (15 kV). The vacuum level in the main chamber was under  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  Pa. The emission angle of the specimen from the surface normal was  $45^\circ$ . A wide scan (binding energy range: 0-900 eV, pass energy: 187.85 eV) was performed to detect all types of element on the surface, and narrow scan was performed for each element, C 1s, Si 2p, O 1s, Ti  $2p_{2/3}$ , and Ti  $2p_{1/2}$ , with the pass energy of 58.7 eV. The adventitious C 1s peak at 284.8 eV was used as reference for all binding energies.

FT-IR spectra were carried out using a system (FT/IR-4100 spectrometer, Jasco Corp., Japan) in the range  $4000\text{-}400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  with a resolution of  $2.0 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Measurements were performed with a KBr pellet containing a small amount of sample powder. The weight ratio between sample powder and KBr was 1 : 10.

The UV-vis spectroscopic measurements were performed with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (V-560, Jasco Corp., Japan) in the wavelength region of 300-700 nm and band width of 5 nm.

A Zeta PALS apparatus (Zetasizer Nano, Malvern Instrument Ltd., Malvern, UK) was used to investigate the electrophoretic behavior of the materials.

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) spectra were recorded with a powder diffractometer (Ultima IV, Rigaku Corp., Japan) with  $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$  radiation.

**2.5. Photocatalytic Activity Measurement.** The photocatalytic activities of uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles and  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles were determined by methylene blue (MB) degradation under UV radiation. Photocatalytic experiments were performed at 293 K using a 100 mL Pyrex beaker in a reaction chamber ( $50 \text{ cm} \times 50 \text{ cm} \times 50 \text{ cm}$ )

containing five bulbs (22 inches, 15 W) with the strongest band at the wavelength of 352 nm. The distance between the UV lamp and the surface of the solution was about 15 cm. The average UVA and UVB intensities of exposure for all measurements were around 80 and  $0.25 \text{ W/m}^2$  measured by a UV monitor (MS-211-1, Eiko Instruments Co. Ltd.) with the peak intensity of 352 nm. The details of the experimental procedure were described somewhere else [29]. The initial concentration of the dye was  $1.00 \times 10^{-5}$  M, and different amounts of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  composite particles were added in the dye solution so that the  $\text{TiO}_2$  content in all the composites were 0.1 g. MB solution and photocatalysts were mixed in a beaker and kept at dark for 30 min with magnetic stirring to ensure the adsorption/desorption equilibrium between photocatalyst and dye. After switching on the UV lamp, at each time step, an aliquot of 2 mL of the aqueous suspension was taken from the beaker and centrifuged to separate the photocatalytic particles. The total volume of this mixture was kept constant by adding the same amount of water. The remaining MB dye concentration after irradiation was measured by UV-visible spectroscopy.

### 3. Results and Discussion

For the preparation of nanomaterials by using ultrasonic irradiation, phenomena responsible for sonochemistry can be characterized into primary sonochemistry, secondary sonochemistry, and physical modifications. It is important to note that the chemical and physical effects of ultrasound do not arise from a direct interaction between chemical species and sound waves but rather from the physical phenomenon of acoustic cavitation, namely, the formation, growth, and implosion of bubbles [30]. The bubbles collapse impluvially in less than a microsecond under ultrasonic irradiation and produce intense local heating ( $\sim 5000 \text{ K}$ ), high pressures ( $\sim 1000 \text{ atm}$ ), and large heating and cooling rates ( $>109 \text{ K/s}$ ), in a microscopic region of the sonicated liquid [30, 31]. Furthermore, the implosive collapse of bubbles facilitates the production of intense shock waves and microjetstream in the solutions, which promote the transfer of reactants and prevent the nanoparticles from aggregation [32]. Besides, it could enhance the dissolution processes and promote the chemical reactions and kinetics [24]. In the present study, the cavitation bubbles are filled with ethanol, water, ammonia, and TBOT vapors. Since the vapor pressure of ethanol (bp  $78^\circ\text{C}$ ) at  $32^\circ\text{C}$  is much higher than that of TBOT (bp  $312^\circ\text{C}$ ), the concentration of TBOT molecules inside the bubble is negligibly low and the ultrasound-driven hydrolysis of TBOT occurs in the liquid reaction zone rather than in the gas phase of the cavitation. The temperature of the hot spot in the vicinity of the collapsing bubble has been estimated to be about several thousand Kelvin. Consequently, transient temperature jumps in the liquid shell surrounding the cavitation bubble would lead to a strong local acceleration of titania nucleation [33].

**3.1. SEM Images.** The surface morphology of the uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$ , pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles was investigated using SEM, and the results are

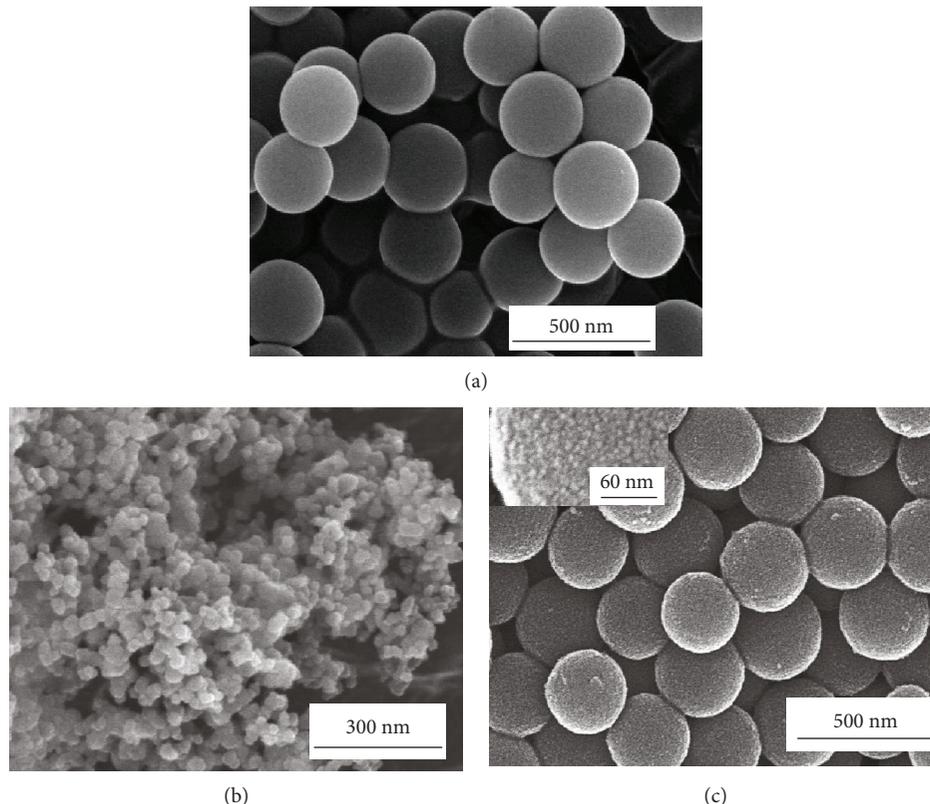


FIGURE 1: FE-SEM images of (a) uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, (b) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and (c) SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles (SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4).

TABLE 1: Elemental analysis of SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> samples using EDX and XPS analysis.

Sample	TBOT loading (mol)	Elemental analysis from XRF analysis		Elemental analysis from XPS analysis			
		Si	Ti	Si	C	O	Ti
Uncoated SiO <sub>2</sub>	—	100		25.4	21.0	53.6	0.00
Uncoated TiO <sub>2</sub>			100	0.00	23.8	51.6	24.6
SiO <sub>2</sub> -TiO <sub>2</sub> -1	$1.5 \times 10^{-3}$	95.7	4.3	23.5	16.7	55.7	4.1
SiO <sub>2</sub> -TiO <sub>2</sub> -2	$3.0 \times 10^{-3}$	90.3	9.7	20.2	14.8	56.2	8.8
SiO <sub>2</sub> -TiO <sub>2</sub> -3	$4.5 \times 10^{-3}$	85.7	14.3	15.6	11.6	55.4	15.4
SiO <sub>2</sub> -TiO <sub>2</sub> -4	$6.0 \times 10^{-3}$	80.3	19.7	8.7	12.1	59.4	19.8
SiO <sub>2</sub> -TiO <sub>2</sub> -5	$9.0 \times 10^{-3}$	71.2	28.8	3.2	12.2	59.8	24.8

shown in Figures 1(a), 1(b), and 1(c), respectively. The particle size of uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub> was around 250 nm. Pure TiO<sub>2</sub> had a particle size of 30–50 nm, whereas the particle size of TiO<sub>2</sub> in SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell particles was around 6–10 nm (Figure 1(c), inset). The elemental compositions of the prepared materials measured by XRF and XPS techniques are shown in Table 1. It was observed that the amount of titania content increased with an increase in TBOT loading which indicates the thicker titania layer formation with higher TBOT loading.

**3.2. TEM Images.** Figures 2(a), 2(b), and 2(c) show the TEM images of uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub>, pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, and SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-

shell particles, respectively. It can be found from Figure 2(a) that the diameter of the uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub> was about 250 nm. The surface of SiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanoparticles was coated with uniform TiO<sub>2</sub> layer, and the particle size of TiO<sub>2</sub> was 6–10 nm, as shown in Figure 2(b). The phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> on the surface of SiO<sub>2</sub> was confirmed by XRD analysis.

**3.3. XRD Patterns.** The XRD patterns of the uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub>, pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, and SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles are shown in Figure 3. Before taking the XRD spectra, pure SiO<sub>2</sub>, pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, and prepared SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell particles were heated at 500°C for 1 hour in order to improve the crystallinity of the particles. The XRD pattern of SiO<sub>2</sub>

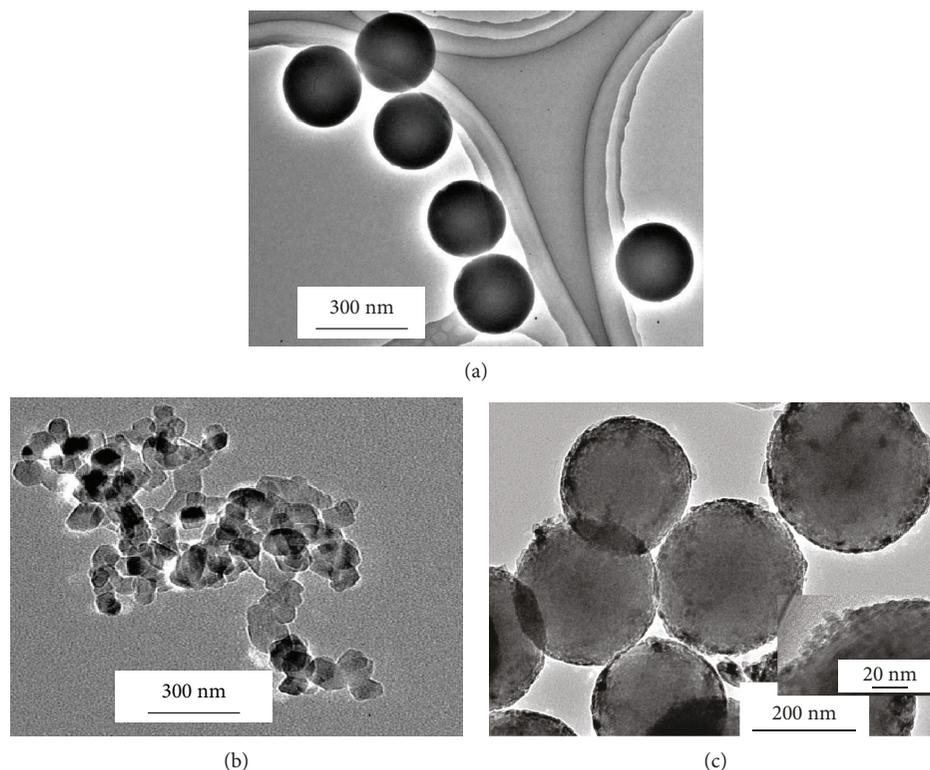


FIGURE 2: TEM images of (a) uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, (b) TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and (c) SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles (SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4).

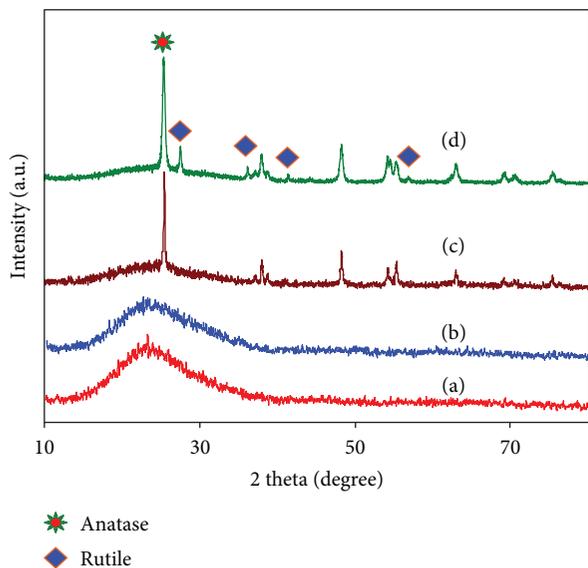


FIGURE 3: X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, (b) SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles, SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4 (as prepared), (c) SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles, SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4 (annealed at 500°C), and (d) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

nanoparticles indicates that the prepared SiO<sub>2</sub> was amorphous in nature. In addition to this, the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> showed peaks that correspond to both the anatase and rutile phases. The prepared SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell particles did not show any peak that corresponds to TiO<sub>2</sub>, which confirms that the crystalline phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> coated on SiO<sub>2</sub> was amorphous.

However, after heating the samples at 500°C, the anatase phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> was observed. The absence of a rutile peak in the SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> samples indicates that the prepared nanocomposite particles retained their anatase phase to anatase crystalline phase. It has been established from the literature that the anatase form of titania is very important for the photocatalysis [34, 35].

**3.4. XPS Spectra.** The presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> coating on SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles was further confirmed from the XPS wide scan spectra of uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub>, SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub>, and pure TiO<sub>2</sub> samples. The XPS wide spectra of the samples as shown in Figure 4 indicate that commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> samples had Ti 2p peaks whereas no such peak was observed in the case of uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the peak intensities of Ti 2p increased and Si 2p decreased with increasing TBOT loading while the intensity of O 1s remained almost unchanged. The above results indicate successful TiO<sub>2</sub> coating on the surface of SiO<sub>2</sub> particles. The XPS narrow scan spectra of Ti 2p and O 1s are illustrated in Figures 5 and 6, respectively. The spin-coupled Ti (2p<sub>3/2</sub> and 2p<sub>1/2</sub> peaks) doublet was located at 458.4 and 464.3 eV in pure TiO<sub>2</sub>. The shifting of binding energy to higher values in the SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> sample compared to pure TiO<sub>2</sub> is attributed to the formation of Ti-O-Si bonds at the interface of titania coating layer and silica particle surface [36, 37]. Since the electronegativity of Si is higher and polarizability is lower than that of Ti atom, the effective positive charge on Ti atom is increased, electron density around Ti atom is decreased, and the shielding effect is weakened, which results in the increased binding energy. The doublet

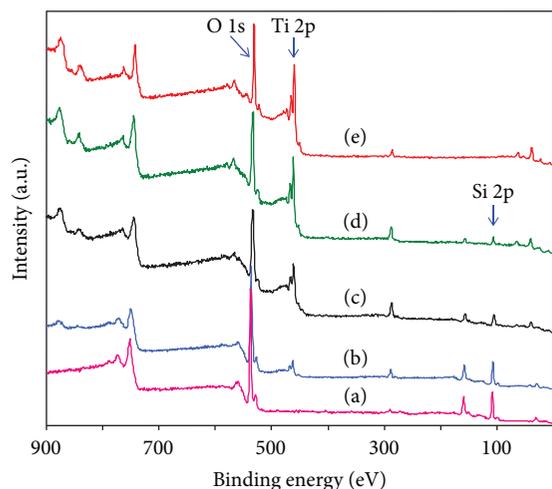


FIGURE 4: XPS wide scan spectra of (a) SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, (b) SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-1 (SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles prepared with  $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$  mol TBOT loading), (c) SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-3 ( $4.5 \times 10^{-3}$  mol TBOT loading), (d) SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4 ( $6.0 \times 10^{-3}$  mol TBOT loading), and (e) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

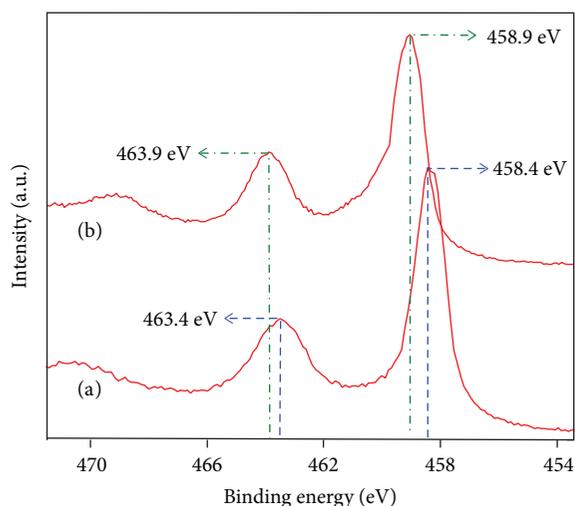


FIGURE 5: The XPS narrow scan spectra of Ti 2p for (a) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and (b) SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles, SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4.

for O 1s peaks was observed at 530.9 eV and 533.4 eV, which corresponds to Ti-O-Ti and Si-O-Si bonds [36, 37], respectively. Compared to the O 1s peak of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> (530.4 eV) (Supplementary Information-1 (SI-1)), the binding energies were shifted towards higher values in SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposites due to the greater electronegativity of Si than that of Ti [36, 37]. From the chemical shift of O 1s and Ti 2p peaks, it can be concluded that SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were successfully coated with TiO<sub>2</sub> and that Si-O-Ti bond was formed between the interface of SiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>.

**3.5. UV-vis Absorption Spectra.** Figure 7 represents the UV-vis absorption spectra of uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub>, SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub>, and pure TiO<sub>2</sub> samples. Pure TiO<sub>2</sub> showed a peak at 325 nm, SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles did not show any absorption peak, and

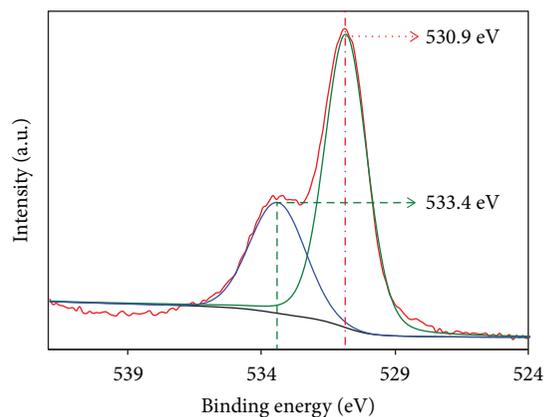


FIGURE 6: XPS narrow scan spectrum of O 1s of SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles (SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4).

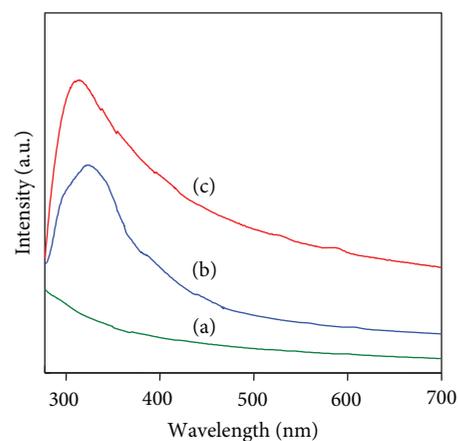


FIGURE 7: UV-visible absorption spectra of (a) SiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, (b) SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles (SiO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub>-4), and (c) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanocomposite particles showed a broad peak at 314 nm. It was observed that the absorption maxima of SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles shifted toward the blue region compared to pure TiO<sub>2</sub>. This result confirms not only the successful titania coating of SiO<sub>2</sub> particles but also the smaller particle size of TiO<sub>2</sub> in SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> compared to commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> [38]. Therefore, the smaller particle size of TiO<sub>2</sub> in SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell particles would be beneficial for the photocatalytic reaction as smaller particles provide a more effective surface for organic reactants and light absorption [39].

**3.6. FT-IR Spectra.** The FT-IR spectra of uncoated SiO<sub>2</sub>, SiO<sub>2</sub>@TiO<sub>2</sub>, and pure TiO<sub>2</sub> are presented in Figure 8. The band at 1105 cm<sup>-1</sup> was attributed to Si-O-Si asymmetric stretching vibration [40]. The peaks at 800 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 475 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponded to the symmetric stretching and deformation modes of Si-O-Si [40], respectively. A band at around 1450 cm<sup>-1</sup> was attributed to silanol bonds [41]. The broad band at around 3300 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1625 cm<sup>-1</sup> present in all the samples corresponded to OH stretching and bending of water [42, 43], respectively. Notably, by comparing the

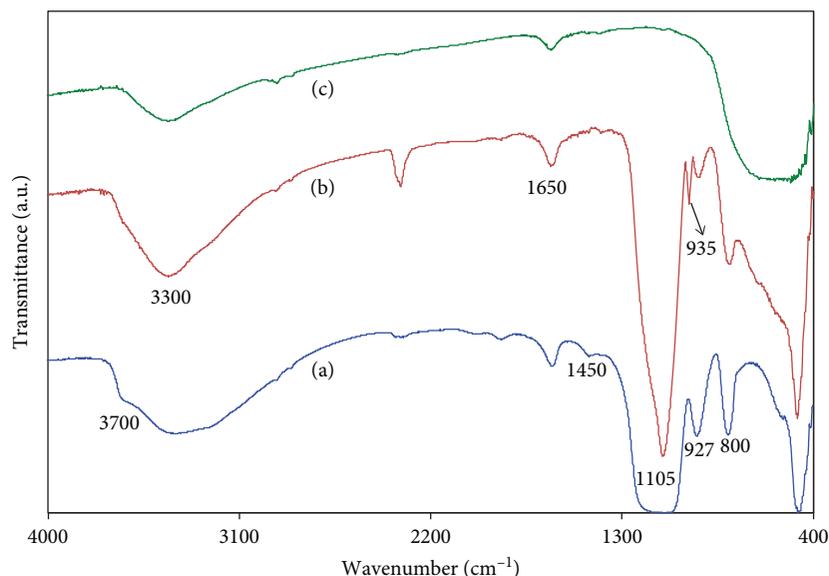


FIGURE 8: FT-IR spectra of (a) pure  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles, (b)  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles ( $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-4}$ ), and (c) pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles.

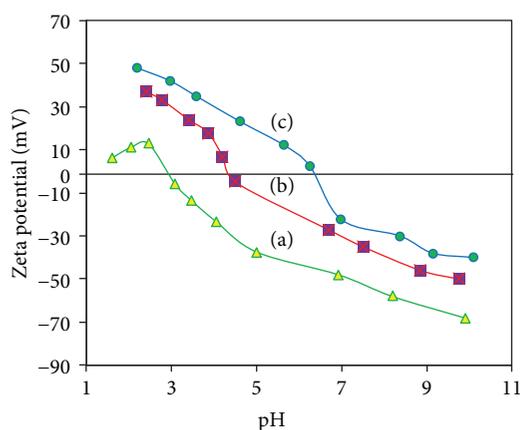


FIGURE 9: Variation of zeta potential with pH for (a)  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles, (b)  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles ( $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-4}$ ), and (c) pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles.

FT-IR spectra of uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ , the characteristic peak, observed at  $935\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , in Figure 8(b), was attributed to Ti-O-Si bond [41, 44]. These FT-IR spectra provided an important information that  $\text{TiO}_2$  was successfully coated on  $\text{SiO}_2$ .

**3.7. Zeta Potential Measurement.** Zeta potential measurements of the particles were carried out to investigate the presence of  $\text{TiO}_2$  coating on the silica surface. The zeta potential values of uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$ , pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell particles are presented in Figure 9. The values of zeta potentials of uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$  changed after  $\text{TiO}_2$  coating, which confirms successful  $\text{TiO}_2$  coating of  $\text{SiO}_2$  particles. Compared to uncoated  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles showed a lowered zeta potential value at neutral pH, which means better dispersion of  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  particles compared to uncoated  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles.

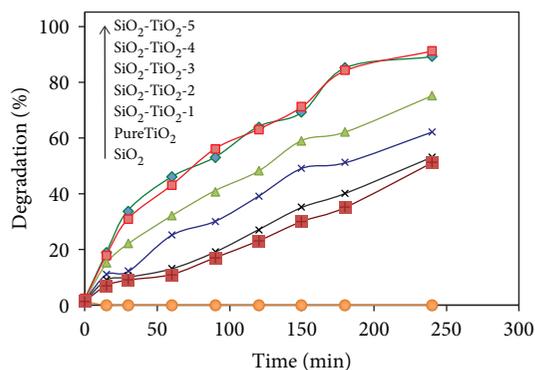
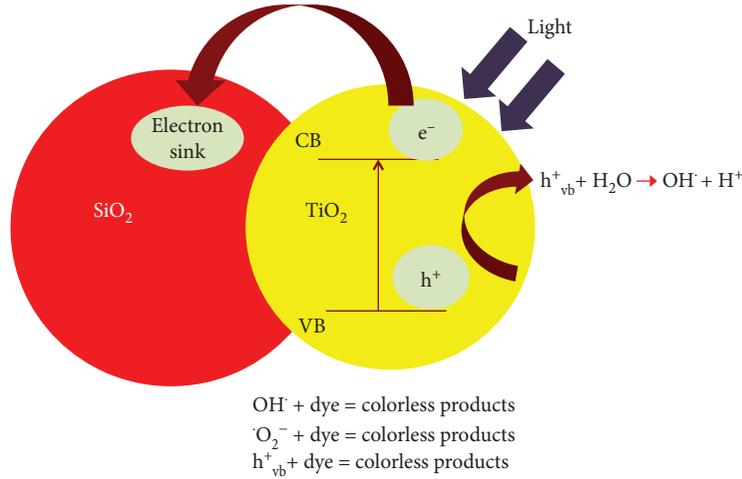


FIGURE 10: Photocatalytic activities of  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles and  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles prepared with different TBOT loading.

#### 4. Photocatalytic Activity Measurement

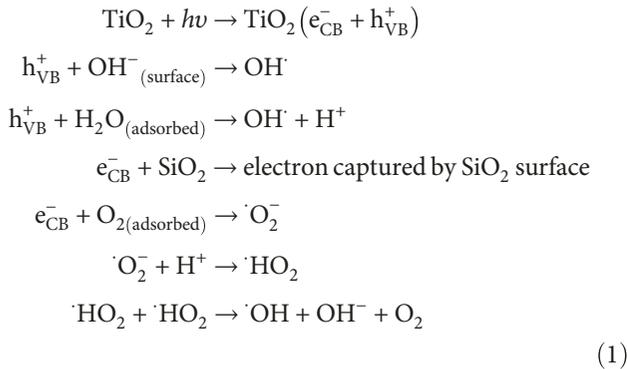
To evaluate the photocatalytic activity of the  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell particles and uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$  under UV light irradiation, methylene blue (MB) was chosen as a model pollutant for photocatalytic degradation. The changes in the absorption intensity of MB at  $664\text{ nm}$  were monitored by UV-vis spectroscopy. Figure 10 shows the degradation percentages of MB with the photocatalysts. It was found that the uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles did not show any photocatalytic activity whereas  $\text{SiO}_2@TiO_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles showed better photocatalytic activity compared to uncoated  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles as well as commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$ . In addition, the photocatalytic activity increases with increasing titania loading. However, the  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-5}$  (Table 1) sample showed lower photocatalytic activity compared to  $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-4}$  even though the former sample contained higher titania than the latter. The two curves seem, indeed, overlapped, i.e., the behavior seems comparable, which sounds reasonable if



SCHEME 1: Scheme of photocatalytic degradation of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles.

taking into account the fact that the silica nanoparticles are coated at their maximum potential and the titania in excess generates free coreless nanoparticles, which is also confirmed by SEM and TEM images (Supplementary Information-2 (SI-2)).

In general, photocatalytic degradation of dyes is an oxidative process, which involves several active radical formations such as hole ( $h^+_{\text{VB}}$ ), superoxide anion ( $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ ), and hydroxyl radicals ( $\text{OH}^\cdot$ ). Therefore, when catalysts are illuminated by UV light with photon energy higher than the band gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , electrons ( $e^-$ ) in the valence band (VB) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  excite to its conduction band (CB) with the formation of the same number of holes ( $h^+_{\text{VB}}$ ) left behind in the VB. The various reactions involve in the photocatalytic process can be summarized as follows [45–47]:



The mechanism of the enhancement of the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  over pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  under UV light irradiation could be illustrated in Scheme 1. In the  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  system, the excited electron transfer from  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface to  $\text{SiO}_2$  surface and stored temporarily in the silica as it acts as electron sink. Accordingly, the lifetime of the photogenerated pairs is increased. During the photodegradation process, the holes in the valence band react with water and generate  $\text{OH}^\cdot$  radicals and electron stored in the  $\text{SiO}_2$  surface produces superoxide anion radicals ( $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ ). Moreover, the insulating character of silica provides the stability of titania particles

even at extreme conditions. Furthermore, the formation of the new Ti-O-Si bond in  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles increases the band gap energy of the active center of  $\text{TiO}_2$  [20]. As a result, the lifetime of photogenerated electrons ( $e^-_{\text{CB}}$ ), holes ( $h^+_{\text{VB}}$ ), and electrons  $e^-_{\text{CB}}$  increases which leads to enhanced photocatalytic activity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  samples. Finally, the uniform distribution of titania nanoparticles on the silica sphere surface, as shown in SEM and TEM images (Figures 1(c) and 2(c)), also a good indication of the significant photocatalytic performance of the synthesized nanocomposite particles.

It has also been studied that well-separated particles show better catalytic performance than aggregated particles. Two aggregated catalyst particles compete with each other for the reactants, thus lowering their usage as catalyst particles, while dispersed particles could overcome this drawback. Wu and Lu [48] found that better separation of the immobilized catalyst particles leads to complete utilization of the catalyst particles and thus resulted in the higher rate of photodegradation. The better dispersion of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles over pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles enhances the photocatalytic activity of the catalyst. The catalytic performance of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  particles was better than uncoated  $\text{TiO}_2$  that could also be due to the following reasons: (1) smaller size of  $\text{TiO}_2$  in  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  than commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (2) complete recovery of the catalyst after treatment with low-speed centrifugation, (3) excellent reusing capability, etc. The degradation of MB can be explained by the following elementary mechanism shown in equations (2) and (3). It can involve the direct reaction of the dye with photogenerated holes in the process similar to the photo-Kolbe reaction or oxidation through successive attacks by hydroxyl radicals



or superoxide species [49]. The hydroxyl radical in particular is an extremely strong nonselective oxidant that has shown to

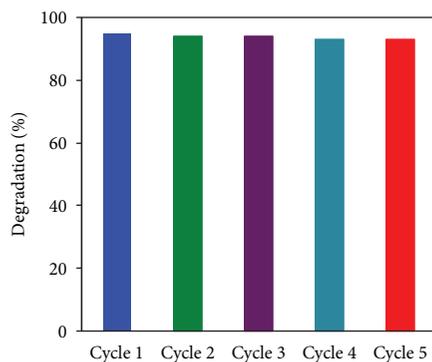


FIGURE 11: Reusability of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell photocatalyst ( $\text{SiO}_2\text{-TiO}_2\text{-4}$ ); pH 7.0;  $25^\circ\text{C}$ .

lead to the partial or complete oxidation of many organic chemicals [50].

### 5. Reusability of $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ Core-Shell Nanocomposite Particles

Photocatalyst stability is one of the most important factors for its practical application. As a consequence of that, the stability and reuse ability of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles were examined by conducting the photocatalytic experiments with model dye MB under UV irradiation cycled for five times as shown in Figure 11. After each run,  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  particles were recovered by centrifugation at 4000 rpm, washed with deionized water thrice, dried, and reused for the next run. On the other hand, 11000 rpm speed was required to recover the commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$  with a particle size of 20–30 nm. The results of the reusing test indicated that there was no considerable difference in the activity of the prepared  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst at least for five cycles. Thus, the  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst can be separated after dye treatment with low power centrifugation and reused successfully without loss of activity.

### 6. Conclusions

We have shown a simple, fast, and environment-friendly ultrasonic irradiation method for the synthesis of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{TiO}_2$  core-shell nanocomposite particles using TBOT in  $\text{SiO}_2$ -ethanol suspension. Compared to the conventional methods, which need long reaction time, the ultrasonic-assisted method allows the formation of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles on the  $\text{SiO}_2$  surface within short reaction time (2 hours). SEM and TEM images revealed that 6–10 nm sized  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles were uniformly coated on the surface of around 250 nm sized  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles. XRD analysis showed that  $\text{TiO}_2$  deposited on the surface of the  $\text{SiO}_2$  was amorphous, and the anatase crystalline form of  $\text{TiO}_2$  was formed after heating the composite materials at  $500^\circ\text{C}$ . A new Ti–O–Si bond at the interface between  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles identified by FT-IR and XPS has confirmed the successful  $\text{TiO}_2$  coating of  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanoparticles. Encapsulation of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  on high surface area  $\text{SiO}_2$  resulted in better photocatalytic ability compared to commercial  $\text{TiO}_2$ , easy separation, and com-

plete recovery of the catalyst after the dye treatment with low-speed centrifugation (4000 rpm). The prepared nanocomposite particles were reused successfully for five cycles without loss of catalytic activity. The ultrasonic-assisted approach can also be extended for the fabrication of a variety of core-shell nanocomposites such as  $\text{Au-TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{Ag-TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZrO}_2\text{-TiO}_2$ , and  $\text{SnO}_2\text{-TiO}_2$ . Research on these issues is currently underway.

### Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

### Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

### Acknowledgments

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### Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Information-1 (SI-1): XPS narrow scan spectra of O 1s of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  revealed that the binding energy of O 1s of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  was 530.1 eV. Supplementary Information-2 (SI-2): SEM and TEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -coated  $\text{SiO}_2$  nanocomposite particles with high titanium-tetra-n-butoxide (TBOT) loading indicated the significant free  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticle formation. (*Supplementary Materials*)

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