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Abstract We develop a facile infiltration route to synthesize hollow structured $SnO₂$ with an adjustable Ti doping content using $SiO₂$ microspheres as hard templates via an improved Stober method. The microstructures of the as-prepared Ti-doped SnO₂ samples were characterized by XRD, SEM, TEM, XPS, N_2 adsorption and desorption techniques. The photocatalytic activity of the hollow structured Ti-doped SnO₂ photocatalysts was investigated by decomposing Methylene Blue (MB) under UV and visible light illumination in a photochemical reactor. It is revealed that the hollow structured Ti-doped $SnO₂$ spherical specimens display enhanced photocatalytic activity toward decomposing MB than pure $SnO₂$ sample. In comparison with pure $SnO₂$ hollow spherical sample, Ti-doped SnO₂ with a doping content of 20 mol% displays the highest photocatalytic activity, with 92% MB photocatalytically decomposed under UV light irradiation, with 54% MB photocatalytically decomposed under visible light irradiation, within a degradation time of 135 min, respectively. The relation between microstructure, optical responsibility, photocatalytic performance is discussed and analyzed. The photocatalytic performance enhancement of Ti-doped SnO₂ can be attributed to the following reasons. Homogenous doping of Ti into lattice of SnO₂ prevents the recombination of the electron-hole pairs, and expands the range of useful excitation light to the visible light region. In addition, highly crystalline state, large surface area, and large pore size of the Ti-doped SnO₂ also contribute to the improved photocatalytic activity of the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples.

Keywords: tin dioxide; hollow spheres; doping; photocatalysis

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1. Introduction

Along with the development of photocatalytic technology in recent years, it is gradually evolving an independent and prosperous field of study, which is expected to play a significant role in abatement of environmental pollutants, especially degradation of refractory organic pollutants,¹⁻³ including detergents, dyes, pesticides and herbicides. Nanoscale semiconductor has received extensive attention as a potential effective photocatalyst due to its unique effects,^{4, 5} such as small dimension effect, quantum dimension effect, surface effect and macroscopical quantum tunnel effect. Among various semiconductor materials, TiO₂-based photocatalysts have been most thoroughly investigated and comprehensively employed in photocatalysis elimination of organic and inorganic compounds, owing to their high efficiency, chemical stability, low cost, non-toxicity, and photostability.⁶⁻⁸ However, TiO₂ is active only under near-ultraviolet irradiation and no visible light response can be obtained due to its wide band gap energy of 3.2 eV. Moreover, the high recombination rate of photogenerated electron-hole pairs is also the main obstacle for enhancing the photocatalytic efficiency of $TiO₂$ for practical applications. Alternatively, as an archetypical n-type semiconductor, tin oxide $(SnO₂)$ displays a variety of applications in gas sensor,⁹ anode material for lithium ion battery,¹⁰ transparent conductive electrode,¹¹ dye-sensitized solar cells,¹² photocatalysis,¹³ photovoltaic conversion,¹⁴ owing to its unique photoelectric effect, high chemical stability, excellent acid and alkali resistance. SnO₂ can cover a spectral bandwidth different from $TiO₂$ due to its peculiar energy-band structure. Furthermore, there is a coordination effect between $SnO₂$ and $TiO₂$ in the $TiO₂/SnO₂$ composite system for photocatalysis process. For instance, Levy et al.¹⁵ investigated the photogenerated carriers transfer process in a double-layered TiO₂/SnO₂ heterostructured film prepared from a colloidal suspensions of $TiO₂$ deposited on a transparent layer of F-doped SnO₂ on glass, suppressing recombination of photogenerated carriers, showing an enhancement of photo quantum yield and photocatalytic activity.

However, the band gap of $SnO₂$ is wide (E_g = 3.62eV at room temperature) that it can be activated by UV light only, resulting in a low photocatalytic activity for SnO₂. The suppression of recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs before their participation in redox processes constitutes a key issue for improving the photocatalytic efficiency of corresponding photocatalyst.¹⁶ One of the promising solutions is to introduce metal doping species to improve trapping behavior of electrons to inhibit electron-hole pair recombination, which can be attributed to the modification of band gap energy structure and introduction of dopant energy state. Due to the relation between ionic electronegativity and energy gap, substitution of Sn^{4+} by metallic ions in the SnO_2 lattice can create an allowed energy state in the band gap of SnO_2 , and induce a photoactive transition in the visible light. Thus far, many ionic dopants in different valence states have been investigated, including both transition metallic ions $(Zn,^{16} \text{Fe},^{19} \text{Co},^{20} \text{Mn},^{21} \text{Ni}^{20})$ and nonmetal ions (F^{22}, N^{23}) , other type of ions (Ga^{24}) . Another effective route to decrease the recombination rate of photogenerated charges of electrons and holes is to combine SnO₂ with some noble metal nanoparticles, such as $Ag²⁵ Au²⁶ Pt²⁷$ to form a semiconductor-metal heterostructure. Diverse structural and morphological forms of $SnO₂$ nanomaterials have been reported over the past several years, including nanoparticles, 28 nanowires, 29 hollow spheres, 30 nanobelts, 31 nanoribbons, 32 nanorods, 33 nanotubes, 34 nanodiskettes, 35 nanocomposites, 36 and thin films. 37 Specially, hollow structured materials with large surface area have been attracting much attention for their potential applications for their excellent adsorption ability to reactant molecules owing to their low density, high surface area, and porous structure.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ So far, numerous preparation approaches have been reported to centrally prepare hollow structured spherical samples, such as self-assembly, soft- and hard-template, emulsion techniques, and so forth. Up to

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now, the photocatalytic performance on hollow $SnO₂$ spherical nanostructures with an adjustable doping concentration of Ti, with a light responsibility tuned, is almost seldom reported.

Herein, we develop a facile infiltration route to prepare hollow structured $SnO₂$ with an adjustable Ti doping content using $SiO₂$ microspheres as hard templates through improved Stober method. The microstructures of the prepared Ti-doped SnO₂ samples were characterized by XRD, SEM, TEM, XPS, N_2 adsorption and desorption. The photocatalytic activity of the hollow structured Ti-doped SnO₂ photocatalyst was tested by decomposing Methylene Blue (MB) illuminated under UV and visible light in a photochemical reactor. It is revealed that hollow structured Ti-doped $SnO₂$ spherical specimens display enhanced photocatalytic activity on MB than SnO₂ sample. Especially, Ti-doped SnO₂ with a doping content of 20 mol% displays the highest photocatalytic activity, with 92% and 54% MB photocatalytically decomposed under UV and visible light irradiation, within degradation time of 135 min, respectively. The relation between microstructure, optical responsibility, photocatalytic performance is discussed and analyzed.

2 Experimental section

2.1 Synthesis of SiO² microspheres and hollow structured Ti-doped SnO²

In the improved Stober process⁴¹ for synthesizing SiO_2 microspheres, 110 ml ethanol and 18 ml ammonium hydroxide (28 wt%) were put into a flat bottom flask with vigorous stirring. After 5 min, 7.5 g TEOS was added dropwise into the above homogeneous solution. Afterward, the mixture was stirred for 10 h at room temperature. Subsequently, the white precipitate product (2.08 g) was harvested by 3 centrifuge disperse-rinse cycles with DI water and then dried at 80 \Box .

The preparation process for hollow structured Ti-doped SnO₂ is described in following detail. 1.53 g of SnCl₂•2H₂O was melted to liquid phase at 80 \Box . Then, 1.0 g of as-prepared SiO₂ microspheres was added under stirring after it was pre-heated at 100 \Box for 1 h to completely remove water from the mesopores of the silica. Afterward, 5 mL of deionized water was added into the above mixture and was sonicated for 3-5 min to form a homogeneous sol, and a predetermined amount of tetrabutyl titanate was added. The final solution was put into an oven at $80 \Box$ overnight to ensure the infiltration of tin precursor and titanium precursor on surface of $SiO₂$ microspheres. After the above reaction, the resulted light yellow solid product was kept in a tube furnace in air at 700 \Box for 3 h, at a ramping rate of 3 \Box min⁻¹. Then, in order to remove the silica, sodium hydroxide solution $(0.1 \text{mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$ was prepared by dissolving NaOH (2 g) in DI water (500 ml), then the product was dispersed in 50 ml NaOH solution with stirring, and heated to 50 \Box and maintained at this temperature for 12 h. Before the separation procedure, the PH value of washings can be measured, the results are presented in Table 1. The as-fabricated product was collected by centrifugation, washed with DI water and ethanol, respectively, and then dried in an oven at $80 \Box$ for 12 h. Finally, after drying process, a light grey powder was obtained. According to this method, the Ti-doped SnO₂ nanocomposites with different Sn : Ti molar ratios (10, 20 and 50 mol%) were fabricated and the as-obtained samples were labeled as $SnO₂ (10\% Ti)$, $SnO₂ (20\% Ti)$ and $SnO₂$ (50% Ti), respectively. In addition, for comparison, pure $SnO₂$ sample was denoted as $SnO₂$. Furthermore, the yields of the obtained products can be calculated and shown in Table 1.

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Samples	Theoretical output (g)	Actual output (g)	Yield $(\%)$	PH of washings
SiO ₂	2.16	2.08	96.22	
SnO ₂	1.21	1.15	94.67	8.5
SnO ₂ (10%Ti)	1.26	1.13	89.61	9.0
SnO ₂₀ %Ti)	1.31	1.18	90.27	8.2
$SnO2 (50\%Ti)$	1.60	1.43	89.67	9.3

Table 1 The yields of the syntheses and PH value of washings

2.2 Structural characterization

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Philips Rigaku D/Max-KA X-ray diffractometer using a Cu Ka radiation source $(\lambda = 1.54178\text{\AA})$ with an operation voltage and operation current being 40 kV and 50 mA, respectively. Field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM: SU-70) was used to observe the morphology of samples. The high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were acquired using a JEM-2100 (acceleration voltage of 200 kV). Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were carried out at 77 K using a Gold APP V-Sorb 2800 surface area and porosity analyzer. The surface area measurements were performed according to the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method. The pore size distribution was obtained from the desorption branch of the isotherm using the corrected form of the Kelvin equation by means of the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic (XPS) measurements were conducted on an ESCALAB 250 electron spectrometer using Al Kα radiation. XPS data were calibrated using the binding energy of C1s (284.7 eV) as the internal standard. UV-vis absorption spectra of the as-synthesized samples mixed with ethanol solution were measured with a TU-1901 double-beam UV-visible spectrophotometer. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra of photocatalysts were detected with recorded using conventional spectrometers (Hitachi U-4100 and Cary-50. Varian Co., respectively)

2.3 Photocatalyitc activity

Photocatalytic test was conducted on a XPA-7 photochemical reaction apparatus equipped with an internal light source (300 W Hg lamp and 350 W Xe lamp were used as UV light and visible light source) surrounded by a water-cooling quartz jacket to cool the lamp, where a 50 mL of the Methylene Blue (MB) solution with an initial concentration of 20 mg L^{-1} in the presence of solid catalyst (0.0125 g). The suspension was stirred in the absence of light for 60 min to obtain a good dispersion and reach an adsorption/desorption equilibrium between the organic dye molecules and the catalyst surface prior to irradiation. The solution was continuously stirred during the experiment. The concentration of MB in the centrifuged aqueous solution was determined by monitoring the absorption maximum of MB at λmax = 664 nm on TU-1901 double-beam UV-visible spectrophotometer. A calibration plot based on Beer−Lambert's law was established by relating the absorbance to the concentration.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Structural characterization of hollow structured Ti-doped SnO²

The crystalline structure and phase component of $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped $SnO₂$ were examined by X-ray powder diffraction

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 (XRD) . Fig. 1 depicts typical wide-angle XRD patterns of the synthesized materials. Both pure and Ti-doped SnO₂ samples exhibit similar XRD patterns that can be indexed to rutile structure. All diffraction peaks in Fig. 1 are in good agreement with those of standard patterns for tetragonal rutile $SnO₂ (JCPDS no. 41-1445)$ with a space group of P42/mnm and lattice constants of a = 4.74 Å, c = 3.19 Å. No other additional peaks are observed in the XRD patterns, confirming that both $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped SnO₂ are highly pure without any impurities. The diffraction peaks of the SnO₂ nanocrystals are sharp, indicating that the synthesized materials are highly crystalline. The diffraction peaks at 26.61, 33.89, 37.95, 51.78° can be well assigned to (110) , (101) , (200) , (211) planes of rutile SnO₂, respectively. With the increase of Ti doping content into lattice of SnO₂, the XRD diffraction peaks display a right shift trend, maintaining well crystal structure of rutile SnO₂. The diffraction peak deviation trend of the Ti-doped SnO₂ samples can be further intuitively investigated. Fig. 1b depicts magnified XRD patterns of (110) and (101) planes with different Ti doping contents, clearly showing a right shift trend for the XRD peaks with the increase of Ti-doping content. This suggests that the Ti doping in $SnO₂$ causes the decrease of lattice constants due to the smaller diameter of Ti^{4+} than Sn^{4+} .

For the metal ion doping, there exists two types of modes. In the case of the interstitial mode, the ionic radius of dopant is smaller than that of the matrix metal ion, allowing the doped metal ions to enter the crystal cell of the matrix. Upon doping through the substitutional mode, the dopant will substitute the lattice metal ions and thus occupy the positions of the metal ions in the lattice of matrix. In order to thoroughly investigate the doping mechanism, the lattice constants of various Ti doping content of Ti-doped SnO₂ are calculated according to Brag equation by using the (101) diffraction peak of rutile SnO₂, and the results are summarized in Table 2. It can be seen that along with increasing Ti doping content in the range of 0-50 mol%, the lattice constants (axc) of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples can be calculated to be 4.754×3.194, 4.737×3.184, 4.734×3.161 and 4.708×3.155, respectively. It can be indicated that Ti doping induces a decrease in lattice constants of SnO² , which is likely correlated with the smaller ion radius of Ti^{4+} compared with that of Sn^{4+} . Because the radius of Ti^{4+} and Sn^{4+} ions is 60.5 pm and 69 pm,⁴² respectively, the Ti⁴⁺ ion can easily replace the Sn⁴⁺ ion in the lattice of SnO₂ and forms a solid solution, without greatly changing the lattice constants of $SnO₂$ matrix, only causing a fluctuation in lattice constants of $SnO₂$.

Samples	a(A)	c(A)	$V(\AA^3)$
SnO ₂	4.754	3.194	71.76
$SnO2 (10\%Ti)$	4.737	3.184	71.47
SnO ₂ (20%Ti)	4.734	3.161	71.17
$SnO2(50\%Ti)$	4.708	3.155	71.10

Table 2 Unit cell parameters of $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples

The microstructure and surface area of the synthesized materials $(SnO₂$ and $SnO₂$ (20%Ti)) were further determined by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method at 77 K. The nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms and the corresponding pore size distribution curves of pure $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples are shown in Fig. 2. As revealed in the isotherms (Fig. 2a), a typical II cure with a hysteresis loop can be observed, indicating typical porous materials including macropores and mesopores. The hysteresis loop located in high relative pressure $(P/P0 > 0.85)$ may be attributed to the space caused by the accumulation of particles. An estimation of the mean pore size can be obtained from 4V/A where V is the total pore volume and A the

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specific area. The mean pore sizes of SnO_2 and SnO_2 (20%Ti) are 45.8±0.5 nm and 60.7±0.5 nm, respectively. The textural properties including surface area, pore size and pore volume of all samples are listed in Table 3. With Ti doping content increasing, the surface area, specific pore volume, and pore size increase from 26.2 \pm 0.5 m² g⁻¹, 0.30 \pm 0.01 cm³ g⁻¹ and 45.8 \pm 0.5 nm for pure SnO₂ sample to 35.6 \pm 0.5 m² g⁻¹, 0.54 \pm 0.01 cm³ g⁻¹, and 60.7 \pm 0.5 nm for Ti-doped SnO₂ (20%Ti) sample, respectively. It is generally accepted that the photocatalysis process is mainly related to the adsorption and desorption of molecules on the surface of photocatalyst.⁴³ A high specific surface area can facilitate electrons transfer and provide a sufficient amount of interface for photocatalysis reactions, resulting in enhanced photocatalytic activity.⁴⁴

XPS spectra were used to investigate the chemical bonding state through the binding energies and intensities of the elements. From an XPS survey spectrum (Fig. 3a) for the $SnO₂$ (20%Ti) sample, it is indicated that the sample is mainly composed of Ti, Sn, O elements. From XPS analysis, the actual atomic ratio for Ti:Sn is $1.98:7.99$ for the 20% Ti-doped SnO₂. The XPS survey spectrum indicates the presence of silicon specie, which is attributed to the inevitably incompletely removed silica template. Fig. 3b-3d displays the high-resolution XPS spectra for the Sn 3d, O 1s and Ti 2P species, respectively. According

to XPS result, Fig. 3b demonstrates that the peaks are located at 486.4 and 495.2 eV, which are ascribed to the Sn 3d 5/2 and Sn 3d $3/2$, respectively, indicating the valence state of Sn is +4. The lower value of the Sn $3d_{5/2}$ binding energy for Ti-doped $SnO₂$ than that of $SnO₂$ (>486.4 eV) is due to the presence of oxygen deficiency.^{45, 46} Fig. 3c shows the high resolution XPS spectrum of oxygen. The shape of a wide peak indicates that there exist several chemical bonding state according to the value of binding energy. It is related to oxygen-metal bonding of O_{Ti-O} and O_{Sn-O} , C–O or C=O bonding, and adsorbed water with increased binding energy, which are denoted as O_I , O_{II} , respectively. Using the XPS Peak fitting program, version 4.1, each O 1s XPS spectrum is fitted to three peaks centered at 530.5, 532.4, and 533.2eV. The peak at lower binding energy of 530.5 eV can be attributed to oxygen of Ti-SnO₂, while the peak centered at 532.4 eV is due to the the oxygen in C–O or C=O bounds.⁴⁷ The peak at 533.2 eV should be ascribed to adsorbed water, the intensity of which is much lower than the others.⁴⁸ The XPS spectrum in Fig. 3b shows that the binding energy of Ti $2P_{3/2}$ and Ti $2P_{1/2}$ peak is 464.6 and 458.5eV, respectively, indicating Ti is doped into lattice of $SnO₂$ in the form of $Ti⁴⁺$, in agreement with the reported literature values.^{49, 50} The additional broad peak at 472 eV in the Ti 2p XPS spectra is known satellite peak from Ti 2p, which is related to the existence of Plasmons. Similar phenomenon can be observed in other previous work on Sn-doped titania photocatalysts.⁵¹ The shoulder peak around 497 eV in the Sn 3d region might be similarly ascribed to the satellites, or a signal noise.

The microstructure and surface morphology of pure $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples were characterized using a SU-70 field-emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM), as shown in Fig. 4. As can be seen from Fig. 4a, the prepared $SiO₂$ spherical samples display an average size of 300 nm and are relatively monodisperse. As depicted in low- and high-magnification FESEM images in Fig. 4b-4c for pure $SnO₂$ sample synthesized using $SiO₂$ spheres as templates, the $SnO₂$ spherical products display hollow structural characteristics with an average of 300 nm similar to that of $SiO₂$ templates. The morphology and size of the hollow structured $SnO₂$ spheres are uniquely distributed. Fig. 4d-4f shows low-magnification FESEM images of the Ti-doped SnO₂ materials with 10, 20, 50 mol% Ti doping contents. It clearly indicates that the addition of Ti does not destroy the structure and surface morphology of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ products, and still exhibit macroporous spherical

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structure with size of approximately 300 nm. The elemental energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mapping characterization was carried out to further describe the microstructures on chemical composition and element distribution of the as-synthesized $SnO₂$ (20%Ti) (Fig. S1), showing that $SnO₂$ (20%Ti) sample is composed of Sn, O and Ti elements, Sn, O and Ti elementals (Fig. S1b-1d, Fig. S2) are homogeneously distributed among the sample.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was used to further characterize the microstructure of $SnO₂$ (20%Ti) sample, as is shown in Fig. 5. From the low magnification TEM images in Fig. 4a-4b, it is shown that the diameter of hollow structured 20% Ti-doped SnO₂ is about 300 nm, which is coincident with that obtained from SEM analysis. A high-resolution TEM lattice image in Fig. 5c suggests that the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ is composed of fine nanoparticles with an average diameter of 5-6 nm. It is obviously shown that the Ti-doped SnO₂ sample is highly crystalline. The crystal structural nature of the samples is determined according to the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) analysis in Fig. 5d, revealing a polycrystalline nature of the as-synthesized tetragonal rutile SnO₂ (space group: $P42/m$) with lattice constants of a = 4.74 Å, c = 3.19 Å. The diffraction rings in Fig. 5d correspond well with that of the (110), (101), (200), (200), (202) planes of tetragonal rutile SnO₂. Fig. 6a depicts a high resolution TEM lattice image taken along [534] zone axis. The marked d-spacing of 0.15 nm and 0.14 nm correspond well to that of (2-2-1) and (11-2) planes of tetragonal SnO₂. Fig. 6b gives atypical HRTEM lattice image taken along [214] zone axis. The marked d-spacing of 0.21 nm and 0.19 nm correspond well to that of (-120) and (-201) planes of tetragonal $SnO₂$..

3. 2 UV-vis absorption properties of hollow structured Ti- doped SnO² photocatalyst

Fig. 7a shows the UV-vis absorption spectra of ethanol solution mixed with hollow structured Ti-doped $SnO₂$ with different Ti doping levels. The UV-vis spectrum of pure $SnO₂$ shows a strong peak at 250 nm, which is attributed to the electronic transition from the valence band (VB) to the conduction band (CB) of $SnO₂$. When dopants and defects are introduced, additional extrinsic electronic levels can be located in the energy band gap of the $SnO₂$. It can be seen that both pure $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped $SnO₂$ show obvious UV-light absorption. As compared to the UV-vis spectrum of pure $SnO₂$, the absorption edges of SnO2 with different Ti doping contents shift red gradually. Especially, it's worthwhile to note that the UV-vis spectrum of the Ti-doped SnO_2 extends into the visible light region due to the incorporation of Ti dopants into lattice of SnO_2 . The shifting of optical absorption edge of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ to the lower energy region, extending into visible light region is mainly attributed to the narrowed band gap caused by the evolution of the electronic structure.

In order to investigate the influence of doping concentrations on the optical band gap, the band gap energy of the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples can be calculated roughly according to the plots in Fig. 6b, which is obtained via the transformation based on the following formula:

$(\alpha$ hv² = K(hv – Eg),

where α is the absorbance, hv is the photon energy, and K is the parameter. The estimated band gap values of SnO₂, 10%, 20%, 50% Ti-doped SnO₂ correspond approximately to the light responsibility with an energy band gap of 3.65, 3.08, 3.32, 3.45 eV, respectively (Fig. 7b), as illustrated in Table 4. Therefore, it can be concluded that the transition of light responsibility from UV to visible light of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples can be realized by homogeneous doping in $SnO₂$.

Table 4 The band gap of $SnO₂$ with different Ti doping concentration levels

3. 3 Photocatalytic activity of hollow structured Ti-doped SnO2 photocatalysts

Photocatalytic activity of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ and pure $SnO₂$ photocatalysts are comparatively investigated by decomposing a representative Methylene Blue (MB) organic pollutant under UV and visible light irradiation, respectively. The time-dependent UV-Vis spectra of an aqueous MB solution in the presence of Ti-doped SnO2 photocatalysts under UV and visible light irradiation for regular time intervals are displayed in Fig. S3-S4, respectively. It is indicated that the intensity of absorption peaks for MB decreases gradually with the reaction time increasing under UV and visible light irradiation. When illuminated by UV and visible light, the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ photocatalysts display much higher photocatalytic efficiency than pure $SnO₂$ due to the homogeneous Ti doping effect.

The degradation efficiency of the hollow $SnO₂$ and Ti-doped $SnO₂$ nanostructures under UV and visible light irradiation is defined as C/C_0 , where C_0 and C are the initial and instantaneous concentration of MB, respectively. Fig. 8a depicts the photocatalytic activity of the as-prepared photocatalysts under UV light. It is found that Ti-doped SnO₂ specimens display enhanced photocatalytic activity on MB than $SnO₂$ samples. Especially, Ti-doped $SnO₂$ with a doping content of 20 mol% can photocatalytically degrade 92% MB within degradation time of 135 min under the irradiation of UV (Fig. 8a). Also, 54% MB can be photocatalytically decomposed in the presence of 20%Ti-doped SnO₂ hollow structured sample within degradation time of 135 min under the irradiation of visible light (Fig. 8b). According to previous studies,^{52,53} the degradation of dyes can be ascribed to a pseudo-first-orderreaction with a simplified Langmuir–Hinshelwood model when C_0 is very small: $\ln(C_0/C) = k t$, where k is the apparent first-order rate constant. As displayed in Fig. 9a, 20%Ti-doped SnO₂ hollow structured sample displays the highest rate constant (ca. 0.01507 min^{-1}) among all the samples under the irradiation of UV light. The photocatalytic activity and the kinetic rate constants of the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ hollow structured photocatalysts with different Ti loading follow the order: $\text{SnO}_2(20\% \text{Ti})$ > $\text{SnO}_2(10\% \text{Ti})$ > $\text{SnO}_2(50\% \text{Ti})$ > SnO_2 . Also, the photocatalytic activity was explored under the irradiation of visible light, and the similar behavior of photocatalytic activity can be observed. As shown in Fig. 9b, both the Ti-doped SnO₂ hollow structured photocatalysts show enhanced photocatalytic activity compared to the pure SnO₂, the SnO₂ (20%Ti) sample still shows the best photocatalytic activity, the kinetic rate constants of the Ti-doped SnO₂ hollow structured photocatalysts with different Ti loading follow the order: $SnO_2(20\%Ti) > SnO_2(10\%Ti) > SnO_2(50\%Ti) > SnO_2$.

For the Ti-doped SnO₂ photocatalysts, the photocatalytic activity increase with the Ti^{4+} doping concentration increasing, as the Ti doping content is below 20 mol%. There exists an optimal doping Ti content of 20 mol% for the best photoctalytic activity toward decomposing MB both under UV and visible irradiation for the Ti-doped SnO₂ hollow structured photocatalysts. As the Ti doping content is higher than the optimal value of 20 mol%, Ti doping becomes detrimental for the photocatalytic activity. At lower doping concentration below the optimal value, photocatalytic activity increases with dopant content increasing, because there are fewer trapping sites available, the existence of an optimal Ti dopant concentration in $SnO₂$ matrix can be expound by the balance of an increase in trapping sites bringing about efficient trapping and fewer trapped carriers bringing about longer lifetimes for interfacial charge transfer.^{54,55} The detailed mechanism will be discussed in the next

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section.

3. 4 Mechanism of photocatalytic activity enhancement of Ti-doped SnO²

The relevant mechanism related to the photocatalytic performance enhancement of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ can be attributed to the following reasons. Homogenous doping of Ti into lattice of SnO₂ prevents the recombination of the electron-hole pairs, and expands the range of useful excitation light to the visible light region (Fig. 10). In addition, the small size of Ti-SnO₂ nanoparticles, highly crystalline state, large surface area, and large pore size of the Ti-doped SnO₂ also contribute to the improved photocatalytic activity of the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples.

Under light irradiation, $SnO₂$ samples absorb the light photons. As the absorbed photon energy is larger than the band gap of SnO₂, electrons are excited from the valence band (VB) to the conduction band (CB), creating electron-hole pairs. These charge carriers migrate to the surface and react with MB molecules absorbed on the surface. However, during the migration process, many electrons and holes may recombine, and as a result the charge recombination may decrease the photocatalysis efficiency. Furthermore, since the optical response of $SnO₂$ is limited to UV light region due to its inherently band gap energy of 3.62 eV, its photocatalytic application is restricted only to the UV range. One of the potential solutions for improving photocatalytic efficiency of $SnO₂$ is to shift its absorption from the UV region to the visible-light region and efficiently decrease the recombination rate of photogenerated charges, allowing for more photons to be absorbed and utilized in decomposing the pollutants.

It has been widely recognized that the photocatalytic efficiency of semiconductor oxide materials can be improved substantially by introduction of metallic ions owing to modification of their band-gap energy structures and introduction of dopant energy states. In the present work, the above microstructure and UV-vis spetra analysis have shown that Ti homogeneously doping can shift the absorption edge of $SnO₂$ to the visible light range and narrow the band gap of $SnO₂$. It is shown that there exists an optimal doping concentration of 20 mol% Ti for Ti-doped $SnO₂$ to photocatalytically decompose 92% MB within 135 min under UV light, and 54% MB within 135 min under visible light, respectively.

Substitution of Sn^{4+} by Ti ions in the SnO₂ lattice creates allowed energy states in the band gap of SnO₂, generating photoactive transitions due to excitation of an electron from this energy level to the $SnO₂$ conduction band (CB). Ti doping influences the photoreactivity of $SnO₂$ by acting as electron traps and by altering the electron-hole pair recombination rate. According to the schematic diagram for photocatalytic mechanism of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ photocatalysts shown in Fig. 10, the hypothetical process proposed for the photocatalytic degradation of MB is as follows:

$$
SnO2 + hv \longrightarrow SnO2 (eCB + hVB+)
$$
 (1)

$$
e_{CB} + O_2 \longrightarrow O_2 \tag{2}
$$

$$
\bullet \mathcal{O}_2 + \mathcal{H}^+ \quad \longrightarrow \quad \bullet \mathcal{HO}_2 \tag{3}
$$

$$
\bullet \text{HO}_2 + \text{e}_{\text{CB}} + \text{H}^+ \longrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \tag{4}
$$

$$
H_2O_2 + e_{CB}/O_2 \longrightarrow \text{OH} + OH \tag{5}
$$

$$
h_{VB}^+ + H_2O \longrightarrow \bullet OH + H^+ \tag{6}
$$

$$
h_{VB}^+ + OH^- \longrightarrow \bullet \bullet OH \tag{7}
$$

$$
\cdot \text{OH} + \text{MB} \longrightarrow \text{Degradation products} \tag{8}
$$

The photogenerated electrons can be scavenged by dissolved oxygen molecules (O_2) on or near the photocatalyst surface to

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produce a superoxide anion radical $\cdot O_2$) and hydrogen peroxide $\cdot H_2O_2$. The formed $\cdot O_2$ might either directly oxidize MB or yield hydroxyl radicals (•OH) by reacting with hydrion (H^+) and photogenerated electrons (e_{CB}). The photoinduced holes (h_{VB}^+) in the valence band can be trapped by OH or H₂O species adsorbed on the surface of the catalyst, to further generate reactive •OH species, which is an extremely strong oxidizing agent for the partial or complete decomposition of MB molecules.

In the case for the Ti dopant concentration lower than 20 mol%, the Ti doping is helpful to trap photogenerated electrons so as to limit the charge recombination, which is one of the main factors in determining the photocatalytic activity of $SnO₂$. The space-charge region becomes narrower with the increasing of Ti dopant concentration, and therefore the electron-hole pairs are efficiently prevented from recombination by the large electric field. Nevertheless, too high-loading concentration of Ti would be utilized as recombination centers for electron-hole pairs. As the concentration of doping is higher than a threshold level, the space-charge region becomes so narrow that the light penetration depth greatly exceeds the space-charge layer. The recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs in the semiconductor thus increases because there is no driving force to realize the separation of electron-hole pairs. Hence, there exists an optimum concentration of Ti dopant to guarantee that the thickness of light penetration depth is approximately equivalent to the space charge layer. As a consequence, the recombination rate increases significantly with the dopant concentration increasing above the threshold level of Ti doping concentration. Therefore, as observed and confirmed in the present work, an optimum Ti-doped content is required to optimize its role of photogenerated electron trapping. It is shown that as the Ti loading content is higher than the optimal value of 20 mol%, the higher content doping of Ti⁴⁺ becomes detrimental for the photocatalytic activity. Furthermore, due to the lower band gap energy, the light absorption capacity of the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples is higher than that of pure $SnO₂$. It can efficiently utilize solar energy in the visible light region and result in the generation of more e- and h+ pairs, thus enhancing the photocatalytic activity of Ti-SnO₂ catalyst toward decomposing MB pollutants.

Photocatalytic activity is closely associated with the lifetime of photogenerated electrons and holes. It is generally accepted that PL signals result from the recombination of photoinduced charge carriers. PL emission spectra of hollow structured Ti-doped $SnO₂$ with different Ti doping concentration are used to describe the recombination rate of photoexcited electrons and holes, as presented in Fig. 11. It is shown that all Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples exhibit lower PL emission intensity than pure $SnO₂$ sample, indicating that the recombination of photoexcited electrons and holes of Ti-doped $SnO₂$ photocatalyst is efficiently hindered, thus successfully effectively implementing the separation of electrons and holes. The efficient separation of electron–hole pairs is exactly advantageous to the enhancement of photocatalytic activity of Ti-doped SnO₂. At the relative low Ti loading content, along with the increment of Ti doping concentration, the recombination of photoexcite electron–hole pairs is restricted effectively, nevertheless. As the Ti doping content is higher than the optimal value of 20 mol %, the relevant recombination rate of photoexcited electron–hole pairs contrarily exhibits a increasing trend. As a consequence, the photocatalytic activity should comply with such a regularity described that the 20% Ti-doped SnO₂ shows the best photocatalytic performance toward decomposing the MB pollutants.

The enhanced photocatalytic activity can also be attributed to unique structural characteristics of hollow Ti-doped SnO₂. It is shown that the silica-template synthesized hollow structured 20% Ti-SnO₂ samples display high surface area (35.6±0.5 m² g⁻¹), large volume (0.54 cm³ g⁻¹), pore size (0.61 \pm 0.01 nm), accordingly, the 20%Ti-SnO₂ sample possesses the higher rate constants than pure $SnO₂$ and thus shows the enhanced photocatalytic activity. Furthermore, the incorporation of Ti species

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into lattice of $SnO₂$ induces the grain refinement of $SnO₂$. According to TEM analysis, the average particle size of Ti-doped SnO₂ (20Ti %) can be calculated to be 6 nm, and the Ti-doped SnO₂ samples are highly crystalline. The fine particle size, highly crystalline, large surface area and porous structure contribute to a higher photocatalytic performance for the Ti-doped $SnO₂$ samples.^{56, 57}

4 Conclusions

A facile infiltration route is developed to prepare hollow structured Ti-doped SnO₂, using silica microspheres as the templates, stannous chloride as the tin precursor, tetrabutyl titanate as the titanium precursor. The microstructures and chemical compositions of Ti-doped SnO₂ samples were characterized by XRD, XPS, BET, SEM and TEM. XRD and SEM results reveal that the crystal structure and morphology is not affected by Ti doping, maintaining a highly crystalline state and hollow spherical nanostructure with a diameter of about 300 nm. Ti is uniformly incorporated into lattice of $SnO₂$ materials in the form of Ti⁴⁺. Ti doping into lattice of SnO₂ increases the BET surface area from 26.2±0.5 m² g⁻¹ of SnO₂ to 35.6±0.5 m² g⁻¹ of SnO₂ (20%Ti), effectively induces light response transition from UV region to visible region and greatly inhibits the recombination of electron-hole pairs on $SnO₂$, which play essential roles in improving the photocatalytic activity of Ti-doped $SnO₂$. The photocatalytic activity of the hollow structured Ti-doped SnO₂ photocatalysts was investigated by decomposing Methylene Blue (MB) under UV and visible light illumination in a photochemical reactor. It is revealed that the hollow structured Ti-doped SnO₂ spherical specimens display enhanced photocatalytic activity toward decomposing MB than pure SnO₂ sample. The relation between microstructure, optical responsibility, photocatalytic performance is discussed and analyzed. The mechanism related to photocatalytic performance enhancement of Ti-doped SnO₂ is systematically investigated.

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Fig. 1 (a) Wide-angle XRD patterns and (b) magnified (110) and (101) XRD peak of Ti-doped SnO₂ samples.

Fig. 2 (a) N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and (b) pore size distributions of SnO_2 and 20% Ti-doped SnO_2 .

Fig. 3 XPS spectra of 20%Ti-doped $SnO₂$ sample. (a) Survey spectrum, (b) Ti 2p, (c) Sn 3d, (d) O 1s.

Fig. 4 SEM images of (a) SiO_2 , (b) (c) SnO_2 , (d) 10% Ti-doped SnO_2 , (e) 20% Ti-doped SnO_2 , (f) 50% Ti-doped SnO_2 samples.

Fig. 5 (a) (b) Low magnification TEM images of 20% Ti-doped SnO₂. (c) A typical high resolution TEM lattice image of 20% Ti-doped SnO₂ shows that sample is composed of highly-crystalline nanoparticles with an average of 6 nm. (d) Selected area electron diffraction pattern of 20% Ti-doped SnO₂, the diffraction rings correspond well with that of the (110), (101), (200), (220) , (202) planes of tetragonal rutile SnO₂.

Fig. 6 (a) High resolution TEM lattice image taken along [534] zone axis. The marked d-spacing of 0.15 nm and 0.14 nm correspond well to that of (2-2-1) and (11-2) planes of tetragonal SnO₂. (b) High resolution TEM lattice image taken along [214] zone axis. The marked d-spacing of 0.21 nm and 0.19 nm correspond well to that of (-120) and (-201) planes of tetragonal $SnO₂$.

Fig. 7 (a) UV-vis spectrum of pure and $SnO₂$ with different Ti content doping levels. (b) $(\alpha hv)^2$ -hv curves of pure and $SnO₂$ with different Ti content doping levels.

Fig. 8 Plots of (C/C_0) versus irradiation time (t) for Ti-doped SnO₂ samples under (a) UV light and (b) visible light.

Fig. 9 Plots of ln (C/C₀) versus irradiation time (t) for Ti-doped SnO₂ samples under (a) UV light and (b) visible light.

Hollow Structured Ti-doped SnO₂

Fig. 10 The schematic diagram for photocatalytic mechanism of Ti-doped SnO₂ photocatalysts.

Fig. 11 PL spectra of pure and $SnO₂$ with different Ti content doping levels.