Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/materialsA

ARTICLE

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Received 00th January 2012, Accepted 00th January 2012

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

Novel 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ Nanocomposites for Highly Enhanced Photocatalytic Activity

Meryam Zalfani,^{+ab} Benoit Van der Schueren,^{+a} Zhi-Yi Hu,^{+c} Joanna C. Rooke,^a Ramzi Bourguiga,^b Min Wu,^{*d} Yu Li,^{*d} Gustaff Van Tendeloo,^c and Bao-Lian Su^{*ade}

Novel 3DOM BiVO4/TiO2 nanocomposites with intimate contact were for the first time synthesized by a hydrothermal method in order to elucidate their visible-light-driven photocatalytic performances. BiVO4 nanoparticles and 3DOM TiO2 inverse opal have been fabricated respectively. These materials were characterized by XRD, XPS, SEM, TEM, N₂ adsorption-desorption and UV-vis diffuse (UV-vis) and photoluminescence spectroscopies. As references for comparison, a physical mixture of BiVO₄ nanoparticles and 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal powder (0.08:1) and a BiVO₄/P25 TiO₂ (0.08:1) nanocomposite made also by hydrothermal method have been prepared. The photocatalytic performance of all the prepared materials was evaluated by the degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB) as model pollutant molecule under visible light irradiation. The highly ordered 3D macroporous inverse opal structure can provide more active surface areas and increased mass transfer because of its highly accessible 3D porosity. The results show that 3DOM BiVO4/TiO2 nanocomposites possess a highly prolonged life time and increased separation of visible light generated charges and extraordinarily high photocatalytic activity. Owing to the intimate contact between BiVO₄ and large surface area 3DOM TiO₂, the photogenerated high energy charges can be easily transferred from BiVO4 to 3DOM TiO2 support. BiVO4 nanoparticles in 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal structure act thus as a sensitizer to absorb visible light and to transfer efficiently high energy electrons to TiO₂ to keep photogenerated charges long life and well separated, owing to its direct band gap of 2.4 eV, favourably positioned band edges, very low recombination rate of electron-hole pairs and stability when coupled with photocatalysts, explaining the extraordinarily high photocatalytic performance of 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites. It is found that more BiVO₄ in nanocomposite, longer time the photogenerated charge separation and higher photoatalytic activity. This work can shed light on the development of novel visible light responsive nanomaterials for efficient solar energy utilisation by the intimate combination of an inorganic light sensitizing nanoparticle with inverse opal structure with high diffusion efficiency and high accessible surface area.

1. Introduction

In recent years, semiconductor photocatalysts have attracted a great deal of attention due to their potential application in environmental remediation. Among these semiconductors, $TiO_2\ has$ been extensively investigated as the most promising photocatalyst because of its safety, low-cost and high efficiency under UV light irradiation.¹ However, the broad band gap energy of this metal oxide limits its use in visible light² as TiO₂ is active only under ultraviolet (UV) light, about 3-5% of the solar spectrum. In addition, low rate of electron transfer to oxygen and a high recombination rate of photo generated electron-hole pairs result in its low photo quantum efficiency.³⁻⁵ Many strategies have been developed to improve photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂ through the second component doping to promote the photon to electron conversion efficiency, the photogenerated charge separation and the visible light harvesting. The combination of TiO₂ with a sensitizer semiconductor system has shown superior performance such as enhanced or tuneable light absorption within TiO₂, improved photo-generated electron-hole separation and exalted interfacial charge transfer efficiency.⁶ Coupling narrow-band-gap semiconductors such as CdS,⁷ CuBi₂O₄,⁸ with wide band-gap semiconductors like TiO₂, SnO₂⁹ and WO₃,¹⁰ and forming composite photocatalysts such as Bi₂WO₆/TiO₂, Bi₂O₃/TiO₂, In₂O₃/TiO₂, Cu₂O/TiO₂, WO₃/TiO₂, etc., have been extensively investigated.¹¹⁻¹⁵ Keet al.¹⁶ showed that the WO₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites present much higher photocatalytic activity than pure TiO₂ in the photodegradation reaction of Rhodamine B (RhB) under UV light. Vinodgopal et al.¹⁷ studied a coupled SnO₂/TiO₂ semiconductor system which carried out a very rapid and complete decolorization of the textile azo dye under UV irradiation. Bessekhouad et al.¹⁸ reported that Bi₂O₃/TiO₂ heterojunction structure presented higher activity than pure Bi₂O₃ and TiO₂-P25 for the photocatalytic degradation of Orange II under UV– vis irradiation.

The monoclinic BiVO₄ structure was reported to show highly promising photocatalytic activity under visible light irradiation due to

RSCPublishing

its relatively narrow band gap energy of 2.4 eV, compared to its two tetragonal phases both with band gap energy of 3.1 eV.¹⁹⁻²¹ Due to its visible light photocatalytic activity, it has also been used for the degradation of organic pollutants and oxygen evolution in the water splitting reaction.²²⁻²³ The combination of the narrow band gap semiconductor material as BiVO4 with TiO2 to produce BiVO4/TiO2 nanocomposite with intimate heterojunction could be an efficient way to offer a visible light photocatalyst with high photocatalytic activity and attracts increasing attention.^{20,24-30} Cao et al.²⁴ synthesized the porous peanut-like BiVO₄/TiO₂ composite nanostructures by hydrothermal process and the photocatalytic activity of these BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanostructures was largely enhanced. Zhang et al.²⁵ reported the synthesis of BiVO4/TiO2 by a one-step microwave hydrothermal method, and found that the 20 wt % TiO2/BiVO4 nanocomposite exhibits the better photocatalytic activity compared to pure monoclinic BiVO₄ and other percentages of TiO₂ in BiVO₄ because of its high crystallinity, narrow band gap, and most importantly, the hierarchical heterostructure which can effectively separate photoinduced electron-hole pairs on the surface of BiVO₄/TiO₂ photocatalysts. They claimed that BiVO₄ played a role of light sensitizer. The sensitizer effect of BiVO4 has also been pointed out by Tang et al.³⁰ Colon et al ^{20,31} studied ternary erbium doped BiVO₄/TiO₂ heterostructure made by a simple impregnation method which showed highly enhanced photocatalytic activity in the degradation of phenol²⁰ and methylene blue³¹. They attributed this high photocatalytic activity of erbium doped BiVO₄/TiO₂ to the occurrence of a luminescence process generated by erbium ions and the possibility to adjust the band position between Er³⁺ doped BiVO₄ and TiO₂, leading to the effective charge pair separation. Hu et al²⁶ prepared BiVO₄/TiO₂ with a mass ratio of 1:200 by hydrothermal treatment for benzene degradation reaction and claimed that their material was 3-4 times more active than nitrogen doped TiO₂ under visible light irradiation. A bilayer TiO₂ photonic crystal (PC)/porous BiVO₄ was constructed by using liquid-phase deposition and Spin coating by Hou et al ³². The photocatalytic ability of porous BiVO₄ was enhanced by combination with a TiO₂ PC layer as the back reflector which intensified the light absorbance, showing another advantage of a TiO2 PC crystal in enhancing light absorption and the comination of BiVO₄ and TiO₂. In spite of these promising results, the role of BiVO₄ in BiVO₄/TiO₂ heterostructures and photoelectronic mechanism remain a point in debate. Moreover, the accessibility of reactants to these heterostructures is not favourable due to the low porosity, low surface area of TiO₂ supports and low adsorptive properties of BiVO4.21,33 Xie et al 29 in their recent paper showed very clearly the importance of combination of TiO₂ and BiVO₄ to achieve long life visible light excited charge carriers which gave unexpectedly high photocatalytic activity for water splitting. Pure Mo doped BiVO₄ inverse opal structures have been prepared. ³⁴ Due to the specific structure, the higher photocurrent density owing to the effective charge collection was observed leading to an enhancement in photoelectrochemical water splitting and showing the importance of macroporous inverse opal structure in charge collection.

The photocatalytic behaviour of highly ordered three dimensional macroporous titania with an inverse opal structure and good accessibility of reactants in dye molecule degradation has been investigated.³⁵⁻⁴⁰ Wu et al.³⁵ studied the degradation of RhB with 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal structure with different pore diameters. They have shown that the photocatalytic activity presents a variation with the pore diameter. In this framework, Zheng et al.³⁶ demonstrated that the order of Benzoic acid (BA), Methyl Orang (MO) and RhB photocatalytic degradation is related with pore size of the TiO₂ inverse opal structure (IOS). With the increasing of the pore size of the TiO₂ IOS, the mass transfer and light utilization efficiency are

enhanced. The continuous pore voids facilitate the transfer of reactant molecules which is beneficial for dye sensitization.

On the other side, since 3DOM inverse opal structures as photonic crystals (PC) have periodic dielectric contrast modulation in the length scale of the wavelength of light, coherent Bragg diffraction forbids light with certain energies to propagate through the material along a particular crystallographic direction. This gives rise to stopband reflection, and the range of energies that is reflected back depends on the periodicity and dielectric contrast of the PC. At the wavelengths corresponding to the edges of these stop-bands, photons propagate with strongly reduced group velocity; hence called 'slow photons'. The slow photons can be used to enhance the light absorption of materials when the photon energy matches the absorbance of the material leading to the generation of a large number of electron-hole pairs and an enhanced photocatalytic activity. Liu et al.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ investigated the slow photon effect on the photocatalytic activity of inverse opal ZnO by tuning the incident light angle.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ Compared with bulk ZnO, it was found that inverse opal ZnO exhibits much higher photocatalytic activity.

Chen et al.⁴¹ have also demonstrated that inverse opal WO₃ photoanodes with different stop-bands showed an enhanced photocurrent intensity. Photonic crystals, particularly titania, have been considered as components in dye-sensitized photoelectrochemical cells designed to increase the efficiency of the solar cells by enhancing photocurrent efficiencies due to the localization of heavy photons near the edges of photonic gaps.⁴²⁻⁴⁶ The slow photon effect on photovoltaic cells and photochemical process was investigated by Nishimura et al.⁴⁶ and Chen et al.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ as a means of promoting the optical absorbance of TiO₂ based composite system. In addition to this slow photon effect, 3DOM structure has an open interconnected porous network, facilitating the diffusion of molecules and offering a larger surface area, both being quite favourable for photocatalysis.^{50, 51}

In order to benefit from the advantages of both the composite system and the 3DOM structure, we have combined the 3DOM TiO₂ with narrow band gap semiconductor BiVO₄ as a light sensitizer leading to the visible light absorbing materials with enhanced photocatalytic activity. To the best of our knowledge, we have for the first time prepared 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites offering a heterojunction by their intimate contact. In this work, the synthesis, characterization, and photocatalytic activity of 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites in the visible light degradation of a dye molecular model were studied. The mechanism of enhanced visible light photocatalytic activity of the as-synthesized nanocomposites is proposed and discussed. For comparison, TiO₂ inverse opal, BiVO₄ nanoparticles, a physical mixture of BiVO₄ nanoparticles and 3DOM TiO₂ powders, and BiVO₄/P25 TiO₂ nanocomposite by hydrothermal method were synthesized and used as references.

2. Experimental

2.1 Synthesis of 3DOM TiO₂, BiVO₄ and 3DOM TiO₂-BiVO₄nanocomposites

Styrene, sodium hydroxide and potassium persulfate were purchased from Aldrich. Polystyrene (PS) spheres were synthesized by an emulsion polymerization method without the addition of surfactant. The styrene (20 mL) was washed three times with a solution of NaOH (1M) to remove the polymerization inhibitor, and then added to 160 mL of bidistilled water in a two-neck flask. This solution was stirred at 350 rpm under an inert atmosphere and heated to 70 °C. After 30 min and when the temperature was stabilised at 70 °C, 0.16 g of K₂S₂O₈ was added to initiate polymerization. After 30 min the mixture become cloudy and after 6 hours the polymerization was stopped by cooling and venting the flask. The white solution obtained

was a dispersion of PS beads in water. The PS sphere size is around 350 nm.

To obtain an opal structured template, the PS beads dispersion was self-assembled by oven-drying at 40°C for 5 days and characterised by scanning electron microscopy.

The fabrication of three dimensionally ordered macroporous (3DOM) titania was achieved via a templating strategy, as reported in the literature, 35, 38-40, 52, 53 in which a thick layer of self-assembled polystyrene spheres (PS) were deposited onto a filter paper in a Buchner funnel under vacuum. The PS assembly was then infiltrated with the precursor solution. Titanium isopropoxide (Aldrich, 97%) was added dropwise to completely cover the PS spheres whilst under vacuum such that it occupied the voids inside the PS assembly. The precursor-template mixture was then air dried for 24 h and subsequently calcined at 550 °C for 12 h at a heating rate of 2 °C/min to obtain TiO₂ photonic crystals (PCs) with inverse opal structure (IOS). In order to incorporate BiVO₄ nanoparticles inside the voids of the 3DOM TiO₂, a hydrothermal method was used. In a typical process, stoichiometric amounts of Bi (NO₃)₃·5H₂O (Carl Roth, \geq 98%, p.a. ACS) and NH₄VO₃ (Carl Roth, \geq 98%, p.a.) were dissolved in a stoichiometric volume of an ethylene glycol-water mixture and stirred for about 10 min until a clear solution formed. Then, different amounts of 3DOM TiO2 were added into the solution and sonicated for 15 min. After 1h stirring, the obtained vellow-coloured mixture was transferred into a Teflon-sealed autoclave which was maintained at 160 °C for 24 h. The solid powders were recovered by centrifugation and washed with distilled water and absolute ethanol three times. Finally, the obtained solid was vacuum-dried at 60 °C for 6h, and was then calcined at 300 °C for 1h. Dumbbell-like BiVO4 structures were synthesized under the same experimental conditions. Two other reference samples were prepared for photocatalytic comparison. Firstly, BiVO₄ nanoparticles were introduced into P25 TiO₂ nanoparticles by the same method described above by hydrothermal synthesis. After washing, the sample recovered was labelled BiVO₄/P25-TiO₂ nanocomposite. Secondly, the obtained BiVO₄ dumbbell like structure was mixed with 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal powders, giving a physical mixture of BiVO₄ and 3 DOM TiO₂, labelled as phy-mix BiVO₄-3DOM TiO₂ IO.

2.2 Material characterisation

Powder X-ray diffraction was performed on a PANalytical X'pert Pro with Cu Ka radiation. Textural properties of the materials were evaluated via adsorption-desorption of nitrogen at -196 °C using a Micromeritics Tristar 3000 with prior outgassing. The morphological properties of the samples were observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Jeol JSM-7500F) equipped with an energy dispersive X-ray detector (EDX). Furthermore, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed on a Philips FEI-Tecnai 10 electron microscope with an accelerating voltage of 80 kV. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed on a K-AlphaTM + X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS). The binding energy for the C (1s) peak at 284.9 eV, (relative to adventitious carbon from the XPS instrument itself), was used as a reference. The UV-Vis absorbance spectra were obtained using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer Lambda 35 UV-visible spectrometer fitted with a Labsphere for analysis in diffuse reflectance mode) in the range of 200-750 nm. Photoluminescent properties of the samples have been studied by using Perkin Elmer LS45 Luminescence spectrometry.

2.3 Photocatalytic testing

Photocatalytic testing was performed under visible light irradiation (400-800 nm) using 6 neon lamps of 18 W. The luminous power of each lamp is 1250 lm and the total luminous power is 7500 lm in the

photocatalytic reactor. The emission spectrum of Neon light lamp was given in Figure 1S. It can been seen that the intensity of UV light emitted by the neon lamp is very low and can be neglected, no UV filter has been used to cut the UV light. The reaction temperature was maintained at room temperature. In each experiment 20 mg of photocatalyst was placed in 50 mL of reactant solution with an initial concentration of 10^{-3} M of RhB. The suspension was poured into a quartz tube, inserted into a reactor and stirred in the dark for 120 min to ensure adsorption/desorption equilibrium prior to irradiation. During irradiation, 2 mL of the suspension was removed at a given time interval for subsequent RhB concentration analysis.

3. Results and discussions

3.1 Phase composition

XRD patterns of the as-prepared 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal, two BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposites and BiVO₄ nanoparticules are shown in Fig. 1. The XRD pattern (Fig. 1a) of TiO₂ inverse opal structure shows five peaks at $2\theta = 25.3^{\circ}$, 37.9° , 48.0° , 54.6° and 62.8° corresponding to the crystal planes of (101), (004), (200), (211), and (204), respectively (JCPDS card no. 14-0688), which indicates that the TiO₂ sample adopts an anatase phase after calcination at 550 °C. The XRD peaks (Fig. 1d) of BiVO4 nanoparticles correspond to the monoclinic scheelite phase (JCPDS14-0688). The diffraction profiles reveal that both BiVO₄ and TiO₂ powder are highly crystalline. Diffraction patterns of BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 nanocomposites (Fig. 1b and c) showed the combination of the XRD profiles of both TiO₂ inverse opal and BiVO₄ nanoparticles. Weak XRD diffraction peaks of vanadate species at $2\theta = 18.8^{\circ}$, 28.8° , 30.5° , 35° , 39.9° and 42.4° (121) corresponding the crystal planes of (011), to



Fig. 1 X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) TiO_2 inverse opal, (b) 0.04 $BiVO_4/3DOM TiO_2$, (c) 0.08 $BiVO_4/3DOM TiO_2$ nanocomposites and (d) $BiVO_4$ nanoparticles.

(040), (002), (-1,1,2) and (150), respectively, are observed as shown by (\bullet) in Fig. 1b and c. This is presumably due to a combination of their low content and high dispersion.

The average crystallite sizes of pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles, pure TiO₂ inverse opal structure and TiO₂ nanoparticles in 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite, calculated by the Scherrer equation, were found to be 30.0, 29.4 and 22.5 nm, respectively. In general, an increase of the crystallite size is observed in the high temperature treated samples. However the TiO₂ crystallite size decreases in the BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanojunction composites compared to that in pure TiO₂ inverse opal, which is confirmed by the presence of broad peaks in the diffraction pattern of $0.08BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ nanocomposite.

This can be ascribed to the fact that the introduced $BiVO_4$ nanoparticles inhibits grain aggregation. With increasing content of $BiVO_4$ nanoparticles in $BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO_2 , the nanoparticles of the $BiVO_4$ grew from 30 nm to about 45.2 nm, indicating nanocrystals of $BiVO_4$ shifted into the agglomerated state as a result of densification, the crystal grows.

3.2 Morphology

Fig. 2 shows SEM images of pure TiO_2 inverse opal (a and b), pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles (c and d) and BiVO₄/3DOM TiO_2 nanocomposite (e and f) respectively.

The pure macroporous TiO_2 sample exhibits (Fig. 2a and b) a highly ordered three dimensional inverse opal structure with interconnected pores. The average pore size of the TiO_2 inverse opal is about 320 nm, being smaller than that of PS spheres used (350nm) due to the contraction of inverse opal structure after removing PS spheres upon calcination.

The pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles (Fig. 2c) exhibit dumbbell-like shapes, highlighting that the as-prepared BiVO₄ product is composed of countless dumbbell-like aggregates and nearly all of them adopt the same morphology. Single dumbbell aggregated from nanoparticles has a length ranging from 1 to 5 μ m. Furthermore, we can notice that the surface of the obtained BiVO₄ sample is fairly rough as shown in Fig. 2c, which further indicates that every dumbbell is formed by an aggregation of nanoparticles. Fig. 2d presents an enlarged SEM image of the top structure of the dumbbell (Fig. 2c). It confirms that the BiVO₄ is an aggregate of small sphere-like nanoparticles of 30-60 nm. Thus the dumbbell-like BiVO₄ is assembled by oriented aggregation nanoparticles. This morphology is quite similar to that previously reported.²¹



Fig. 2 SEM images, (a) and (b): inverse opal structural TiO_2 sample; (c) and (d): BiVO₄ sample; (e) and (f): inverse opal structural TiO_2 doping with BiVO₄ sample (BiVO₄ particles are indicated by arrows).

The SEM micrograph in Fig. 2e confirms that a $BiVO_4/3DOM TiO_2$ nanojunction was obtained. The TiO₂ inverse opal support has a highly ordered structure with few defects. In this image it can be seen that the morphology of $BiVO_4$ has changed and the particle size was greatly increased to around 45 nm (as highlighted by the arrows in Figure 2f). This is due to the effect of the calcination temperature. This observation is in very good agreement with XRD results.



Fig. 3 TEM images, (a) and (b): inverse opal structural TiO₂ sample; (c) and (d): BiVO₄ Nanoparticles.

In order to get more information about the microstructure of the asprepared products, further investigation was performed by TEM. The macrostructure of pure TiO₂ inverse opal structure was examined by TEM, where the macropores can be clearly identified in Fig. 3a via a contrast in the image between voids and material. As shown in Fig. 3b, TiO₂ is an aggregation of small nanoparticles. Fig. 3c shows a typical TEM image of dumbbell-like BiVO4 nanoparticles. As can be shown in Fig. 3d, it confirms that the BiVO4 is an aggregate of small nanoparticles which is in good agreement with SEM observations. The TEM, STEM images and EDX mapping of 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite are shown in Figure 4. The 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite (Fig. 4a and b) has a dual morphology with small particles corresponding to BiVO₄ present on the 3DOM TiO₂ structure. The bismuth vanadate adopts a new morphology (Fig. 4b) with increased size after the formation of the nanocomposite (highlighted by arrows). The elemental compositions of the BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ heterojunctions were analyzed by energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS). As shown in Fig. 4c-e, the EDX mapping of 0.08BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 indicated the presence of Bi, V, Ti and O atoms in the sample. Red colour showed the Ti element and green colour represented bismuth vanadate nanoparticles which are homogenously dispersed on 3DOM TiO₂ IO structure. Fig. 4e is the combination of TiO₂ and BiVO₄. Fig. 4 evidenced very clearly the intimate contact between 3DOM TiO2 IO structure and BiVO₄ nanoparticles.

3.3 Chemical states by X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) In order to elucidate the elemental composition, the oxidation states and the chemical environment of Bi, V and Ti elements in the BiVO₄/TiO₂ photocatalyst, XPS analysis was performed.

Fig. 5 shows XPS spectra of the $0.08BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ nanocomposite (spectrum a), compared with pure TiO₂ inverse opal structure (spectrum b) and pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles (spectrum c), in different spectral regions that correspond to different elements, revealing the binding energies for Bi4f, Ti2p, V2p and O1s of the asprepared samples.

Fig. 5d-g shows high-resolution XPS spectra of the BiVO4/TiO2 sample. As shown in spectrum d, the binding energies of Bi 4f_{7/2} and Bi 4f_{5/2} are 159.0 and 164.3 eV, respectively, indicating that this element is present as Bi (III). The binding energy values are typical for bismuth in BiVO₄.⁵¹ A shift of 0.3 eV to higher binding energy in the peak positions of bismuth, as compared to pure BiVO4 (158.7eV and 164.0 eV), suggesting that electron transfer from BiVO₄ to TiO₂ could occur, in accordance with the shift observed for bismuth. The high resolution V2p spectrum reveals a doublet with peaks centred at 524 and 516.3 eV (spectrum e), which corresponds to the V2p1/2 orbit and V2p_{3/2} orbit, respectively. These peaks also display binding energy values, typical of V (V) as reported in the literature.⁵¹⁻⁵⁴ Thus, the analysis of the V2p core lines of the as-prepared sample clearly indicates the presence of V5+ oxidation states. Compared with pure BiVO₄, a slightly shift for 0.3 eV is observed in the position peaks corresponding to V2p (524.0 for the V2p1/2 orbit and 516.3 eV for V2p3/2).



Fig.4 (a) and (b) TEM and STEM image of a same zone of inverse opal structural TiO_2 doping with BiVO₄ sample (BiVO₄ particles are indicated by arrows); (c-e) Corresponding EDX elemental mapping results.

Spectrum f depicts two bands with binding energies of 458.2 eV and 463.9 eV that are assigned to $Ti2p_{3/2}$ and $Ti2p_{1/2}$, respectively, corresponding to Ti^{4+} in a tetragonal structure such as anatase titania.⁵⁵ Compared to pure TiO₂, a shift of 0.6 eV to lower binding energy in the peak positions of TiO₂ (458.8 eV and 464.5 eV) is observed, confirming the possible charge transfer between BiVO₄ and TiO₂. The high-resolution XPS spectrum of the O1s (spectrum g) shows a narrow peak at a binding energy of 529.6 eV. For pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles and TiO₂ inverse opal structure, this peak was located at 529.4 and 530.0 eV, respectively. This asymmetric peak indicates that oxygen is present on the surface not only as lattice oxygen, but also free oxygen.^{51,53,54} All of these results gave the insight that the

composite was formed by TiO_2 and $BiVO_4$. Moreover, the peaks for Bi4f, V2p, Ti2p and O1s in the $BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ nanocomposite had slightly shift compared with those in pure $BiVO_4$ and TiO_2 resulting from the interaction between $BiVO_4$ and TiO_2 in the composite system.

3.4 Textural Analysis

N₂ adsorption-desorption of the TiO₂ inverse opal, BiVO₄ and BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposites revealed type II isotherms. For TiO₂ inverse opal, the pore size distribution plot calculated via the Barrett Joyner Halenda (BJH) method shows a narrow pore size distribution (insert Fig. 6a) centred at 2.3nm, resulting from the aggregation of TiO2 nanoparticles. The adsorbed nitrogen volume for TiO₂ inverse opal does not reach saturation at high relative pressure $p/p_0 = 0.8-1.0$, which indicates the presence of large macropores. Thus the N₂ isotherm obtained for TiO₂ inverse opal contains macroporosity which is from inverse opal structure. BET specific surface areas of pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles, pure TiO₂ inverse opal structure and BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposites are shown in Table 1. BiVO₄ and TiO₂ inverse opal were found to have a surface area of 4 and 30 m^2/g , respectively. For BiVO₄ nanoparticles (insert of Fig. 6b), the pore size distribution is quite large. The N₂ adsorptiondesorption isotherms give a hysteresis coming from the aggregation of large particles. In the case of two BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 nanocomposites (Fig. 6c and d), other than macroporosity from inverse opal structures, two pore sizes centred at 2.4 and 8 nm for 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ and 2.5 and 7 nm for 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ were observed, respectively. The pore size at 2.3-2.5 nm comes from the aggregation of TiO₂ nanoparticles whilst the pores of 7-9 nm come from the aggregation of BiVO₄ nanoparticles. When the amount of BiVO₄ nanoparticles is increased, the size of nanoparticles becomes bigger, larger pores can be formed, reducing the amount of pores of 7-9 nm. The XRD results confirmed the growth of nanoparticles with increasing BiVO₄ amount.



Fig. 5 Wide range XPS spectrum of the $0.08BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ nanocomposite (a), pure TiO₂ inverse opal (b) and pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles. High-resolution XPS spectra of Bi4f (d), V2p (e), Ti2p (f) and O1s (g) regions.

3.5 Optical properties

ARTICLE

In order to understand the photocatalytic characteristics of the synthesized BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites, it is important to compare some of their particular properties such as reflectance and photoluminescence with those of pure BiVO4 and TiO2. The ordinary photographs and the UV-Visible absorbance spectra of TiO2 inverse opal, BiVO4 nanoparticles and two BiVO4/TiO2 nanocomposites are shown in Fig. 7A and B, respectively. From Fig. 7A titania inverse opal (a) has a white color. Adding bismuth vanadate (d) which has a strong yellow color, the tone of the white changes in two different manners. In the sample with 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ (b), the color turns on a light yellow tone. With increasing the amount of BiVO4 to 0.08 (c) the yellow colour becomes more intense. It can be clearly seen that with an increasing amount of BiVO4, the absorption edge of the BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite is red shifted to longer wavelengths within the visible-light range (spectra b and c of Fig. 6B), with the spectral response range of TiO₂ being extended. BiVO₄ nanoparticles sample (spectrum d of Fig. 7B) showed an absorption edge around 527 nm, which could be responsible for any potential visible-light induced photocatalytic activity.



Fig. 6 N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms and pore size distributions (insets) of the as-synthesized TiO₂ IO (a), BiVO₄ nanoparticles (b), $0.04BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂, (c) and $0.08BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ (d) heterojunction photocatalysts.

Table 1, BET specific surface area, Average pore diameter and pore volume of 3DOM TiO₂ and BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ heterojunction photocatalysts.

Sample	S _{BET} m ² /g	Pore size/nm	Pore volume cm ³ /g
BiVO ₄	4	23	0.00032
TiO ₂	30	2.3	0.0062
0.04 BiVO4/3DOM 7	ΓiO ₂ 25	2.4	0.0028
0.08 BiVO ₄ /3DOM 7	ГіО ₂ 17	2.5	0.0022

The steep absorption edge in the visible range indicates that the absorption of visible light is not due to the transition from impurity levels but to the band gap transition, ^{35,36} originating from charge transfer response of monoclinic BiVO₄ from the valence band

populated by hybridization of O2p orbital and Bi 6s orbital to the conduction band formed by V3d orbital.⁴² As can be shown the absorbance of the BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposites in the visible light region increases with increasing the amount of bismuth vanadate (spectra b, c and d of Fig. 6B). The change in light absorption can be inferred even from the colours of the various compounds.

The band gap energies of the as-prepared samples could thus be estimated from a plot of $(\alpha hv)^{1/2}$ versus the photon energy (hv) via the Kubelka-Munk method:⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸

 $\alpha hv = A (hv - Eg)^{1/2}$, where α , h, v, Eg, and A are the absorption coefficient, Planck's constant, light frequency, band gap energy, and a constant, respectively.

The intercept of the tangents to the x-axis gives a good approximation of the band gap energy for the materials. As shown in Fig. 7C, the estimated band gaps of the BiVO₄ nanoparticles, TiO₂ inverse opal, 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ and 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ photocatalysts were about 2.37, 3.15, 2.45 and 2.4 eV, respectively. From these results it can be confirmed that the BiVO₄ semiconductor acts as a visible light absorber for TiO₂, leading to effective separation of photoinduced electron–hole pairs, thus reducing the likelihood of recombination. In order to investigate whether thiscould be possible, photoluminescence (PL) measurements were carried out.



Fig. 7 (A) Ordinary photographs. (B) UV/vis diffuse absorbance spectra., and (C) a plot of $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus band gap energy of (a) 3DOM TiO₂,(b) 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂,(c) 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ and (d) BiVO₄ photocatalysts.

Fig. 8 shows photoluminescence (PL) emission spectra of pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles, pure TiO₂ inverse opal and BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanoheterostructured photocatalysts, which have been used to provide information on the efficiency of charge carrier trapping, migration and transfer.

It is very helpful to understand the fate of the electron-hole pairs in semiconductors as PL emission stems from the recombination of free carriers. The PL intensity depends on the recombination of excited electrons and holes. The lower the PL emission intensity is, the lower the recombination property of the sample is. As can be seen, BiVO₄ (spectrum a) exhibits a weak emission at 525 nm which is caused by electron-hole recombination at surface traps. The overall PL emission intensity of BiVO4 is the lowest, indicating very low recombination rate of electron-hole pairs in this material. It can also be observed that the bare TiO₂ (spectrum d) exhibits a strong PL signal in the range 400 to 450 nm, and has four obvious PL peaks at about 442, 460, 493 and 525nm, respectively, possibly the former mainly resulting from band edge free excitons, the latter mainly resulting from binding excitons.^{59,60} The overall PL emission intensity of TiO₂ is the highest, showing its highest recombination rate of electron-hole pairs, being unfavourable for photocatalysis. However, the characteristic emission of TiO₂ is significantly affected after introduction of BiVO₄ nanoparticles and the intensity is progressively reduced with increasing BiVO₄ amount in 3DOM TiO₂ IO structure. This behaviour shows that efficient charge or energy transfer occurs at the BiVO₄/TiO₂ heterojunction interface. The observation of PL bands depends on the excitation wavelengths. For example, no PL bands when the excitation wavelength is 320 nm for BiVO₄ nanoparticles while some PL bands, in spite of low intensity, are indeed observed with excitation wavelength of 515 nm (Figure 2S). These are due to different electron-hole generation and recombination between different bands (Figure 3S).



Fig.8 Photoluminescence spectra of (a) pure $BiVO_4$, (b) $0.08BiVO_4/TiO_2$,(c) $0.04BiVO_4/TiO_2$ and (d) pure TiO_2 .

According to the positions of the CB and VB of TiO₂ and those of BiVO₄ and XPS results, this also suggests that interactions between BiVO₄ and TiO₂ involve charge transfer of photoexcited electrons from the conductive band of the donor BiVO₄ to empty electronic states of the acceptor TiO₂ and a better charge separation in space in BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposites. These observations are in good agreement with those observed by XPS study. More details will be given in the following sections.

3.6 Photocatlytic activity

The degradation of Rhodamine B (RhB) under visible light irradiation was conducted, as a test reaction, in the presence of each material. The absorption spectrum in the range 500-600 nm for different time intervals for $0.08BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ nanocomposite photocatalyst is shown in Fig. 9A as an example. It has been shown that the major absorption peaks of RhB, located at around 554 nm, diminished gradually under visible light irradiation in the presence of BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite. The photocatalytic efficiencies (C/C₀) of pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles, pure 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal, two reference samples (phy-Mix 0.08 BiVO₄-3DOM TiO₂ IO and 0.08 BiVO₄/P25-TiO₂ nanoparticles) and two BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites are illustrated in Fig. 9B. The blank experiment of RhB degradation without the presence of photocatalyst was shown in curve a of Figure 9B. A very low degradation rate of RhB, similar to that reported in literature, was observed and can be neglected. It can clearly be observed that for all samples the degradation of RhB increases gradually with increasing irradiation time. BiVO₄ nanoparticles exhibit a very poor photocatalytic activity, with only 22 % of RhB being degraded in 50 min., despite its strong absorption in the visible region. Under the same illumination conditions 28 % of the RhB solution was degraded by 3DOM anatase TiO₂ inverse opal. However due to its wide band gap energy in the UV range, TiO₂ could not absorb in the visible range. Thus theoretically, no possible degradation of dye molecules by TiO₂ can be expected. Its good degradation rate could be resulted from its particular 3DOM IO



Fig. 9 (A) The temporal evolution of the absorption spectra of the RhB solution in the presence of 0.08 $BiVO_4/3DOM$ TiO₂ photocatalysts under visible-light illumination. (B) The variation of RhB concentrations (C/C₀) with irradiation time over different photocatalysts: (a) a blank, (b) BiVO₄ nanoparticles, (c) pure 3DOM TiO₂, (d) phy-mix 0.08BiVO₄-3DOM TiO₂, (e) 0.08BiVO₄/2DOM TiO₂, (f) 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ and (g) 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂

structure. We will explain this observation in the following paragraph. The photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ can be improved by coupling catalysts with sensitizers leading to the BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposite proposed herein with a narrow band gap and thus higher photocatalytic activity. The increase in performance was demonstrated by a superior photodegradation of RhB, with the destruction of 80 % and 95 % RhB over a 120 min period in the presence of 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ and 0.08BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂, respectively.

It has been reported that the photocatalytic degradation process of RhB follows first-order kinetics.⁶⁰ The kinetics of RhB degradation with the different samples is illustrated in Fig. 10. The rate constants of the pure BiVO₄ nanoparticles, pure TiO₂ inverse opal, phy-mix 0.08 BiVO₄-3DOM TiO₂, 0.08 BiVO₄/P25-TiO₂, 0.04BiVO₄/3DOM TiO2 and 0.08BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 photocatalysts are calculated to be 0.0062, 0.0078, 0.0079, 0.0084, 0.0152 and 0.0256 min⁻¹ respectively. From the rate constants (k) in Fig. 10, it can be inferred that the order for the photodegradation rates is: 0.08BiVO4/3DOM $TiO_2 > 0.04BiVO_4/3DOM TiO_2 > 0.08 BiVO_4/P25-TiO_2 > phy-mix$ 0.08 BiVO₄-3DOM TiO₂ \geq 3DOM TiO₂ > BiVO₄. The nanocomposite of 0.08BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 has a photocatalytic activity 4 times and 3 times higher than pure BiVO₄ and 3DOM TiO₂, respectively, showing high impact of BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 heterojunction on the photocatalytic performance. The reference sample prepared by a physical mixing of BiVO4 and 3DOM TiO2 IO has the similar photocatalytic activity to that of pure 3DOM TiO₂ IO, indicating that the introduction of low amount of BiVO4 into 3DOM TiO₂ IO by physical mixing does not induce an effect on the photocatalytic activity and the importance of the intimate contact between BiVO₄ and 3DOM TiO₂ IO structure. Another reference sample 0.08BiVO₄/P25-TiO₂ prepared by the same hydrothermal method as BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ showed a higher photocatalytic activity than that of pure 3DOM TiO₂ and that of the physical mixing sample and pure BiVO₄ nanaoparticles, but much lower than that of BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposites, confirming again the enhancement by the intimate contact between BiVO4 and TiO2 and the importance of 3DOM inverse opal structure.



Fig. 10 Kinetics of RhB degradation with (a) a blank, (b) BiVO4 nanoparticles, (c) 3DOM TiO₂, (d) physical mixture of 0.08BiVO4-3DOM TiO₂, (e) 0.08BiVO4/P25-TiO₂ nanoparticles, (f) 0.04BiVO4/3DOM TiO₂ and (g) 0.08BiVO4/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite photocatalysts.

It is clear that the photocatalytic activity of $BiVO_4/TiO_2$ nanocomposite photocatalysts is strongly dependent on the amount of $BiVO_4$. The photodegradation activity of (x) $BiVO_4:TiO_2$ increases remarkably with an increasing amount of $BiVO_4$ up to x = 0.08. The enhanced photocatalytic activity may originate from the interfacial transfer of electrons and holes as observed by PL and XPS studies. The lifetime of the charge carriers is increased thus the recombination of electron-hole pairs can be inhibited which resulted in an elevation of the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO_2 under visible-light irradiation. As comparison, Cao et al.²⁴ studied the photocatalytic activity of $BiVO_4/TiO_2$ composite under simulated sun-light irradiation. The photocatalytic activities of the $BiVO_4/TiO_2$ composites with different ratio were evaluated by the degradation of RhB at room temperature. They found that a 20 wt% TiO_/BiVO₄ shows the higher activity with a constant rate equal to 0.04 min⁻¹.

3.7 Photocatalytic mechanism

The coupling of different semiconductor oxides seems useful in order to absorb a wide range of solar radiation and to achieve a more efficient electron-hole pair separation when under irradiation and, consequently, a higher photocatalytic activity. A schematic representation of our BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 nanocomposites with bismuth vanadate nanoparticles incorporated in 3DOM inverse opal TiO₂ matrix is presented in Fig. 11 A. The combination of BiVO₄ and TiO₂ attracted much attention recently in photocatalysis.^{20,24-31} However, the photocatalytic promoting mechanism remains unclear and diverging. Hu et al²⁶ proposed a band configuration where the CB and the VB bands of BiVO4 were positioned at the locations higher than the CB and the VB of pure TiO2, respectively. Under visible light irradiation, electrons of the VB of BiVO4 are promoted to its CB, leaving holes behind. Electrons at the CB of BiVO₄ can now be transferred to the CB of TiO₂. Electrons at the CB of TiO₂ are good reductants which can capture the adsorbed O₂ and reduce it to O₂⁻ to oxidize dye molecules. The holes at the VB of BiVO₄ can react with OH to give rise OH which can also be used for the degradation of dye molecules. They claimed that BiVO₄ played a role of light sensitizer. The photodegradation of organic molecules occurred at the side of BiVO₄. However, our present results show that pure BiVO₄ gave a very low photocatalytic activity. Different electronic mechanism should be involved. Zheng et al²⁵ proposed a different electronic mechanism. On the basis of their calculations, they placed the CB and VB of BiVO₄ between the CB and the VB of TiO₂. They suggested under both UV and visible light irradiation that the photogenerated electrons from RhB dye molecules are transferred to the CB of TiO₂ which are in turn transferred to the CB of BiVO₄, leaving the holes at the VB of TiO2. They proposed that the reduction of RhB occurs at the CB of BiVO4 and the oxidation of RhB can take place at the VB of both TiO₂ and BiVO₄. Colon et al³¹ postulated a similar electronic mechanism with the similar positions of the CB and the VB of TiO₂ and those of BiVO₄. However, this proposition concerning the positions of the CB and VB of TiO2 and those of BiVO₄ remain to be confirmed. In some very recent papers, the positions of the CB and VB of TiO2 and BiVO4 were revisited. A generally accepted point is that under visible light irradiation, electrons of the VB of BiVO₄ will be firstly excited to the CB of BiVO₄, leaving holes behind and these photogenerated electrons will be transferred to the CB of TiO₂. Tang et al³⁰ pointed out that electrons transfer from BiVO₄ to TiO₂ is feasible since E_{cb} of TiO₂ is considered to be located just under the conduction band of BiVO₄. Fu et al²⁹ in their excellent recent paper confirmed this suggestion that electrons are transferred from BiVO4 to TiO2. BiVO4 can be considered as light sensitizer for TiO₂.



Fig.11 (A) Schematic representation of $BiVO_4/TiO_2$ nanocomposites. (B) Energy band diagram and charge transfer processes in $BiVO_4/TiO_2$ nanostructured photocatalysts under visible light irradiation.

On the basis of the above analysis, our XPS results, photocatalytic performance of a series of materials studied herein and the fact that pure BiVO₄ gives an unexpectedly low photocatalytic activity in the degradation of RhB dye molecules, a new energy band diagram of the BiVO₄/TiO₂ heterojunction photocatalysts is proposed and presented in Fig. 11 B. It should be taken into account the fact that the work function for RhB is -5.45 eV and -3.08eV for excited RhB.⁶¹ For BiVO₄, a valence band (VB) edge potential of 1.90 V (NHE scale) was reported by Su et al.⁶² while the VB of TiO₂ was reported as 2.82 V (NHE scale) by Hagfeldt et al.63 and Sayama et al.64 The mesured band gap energies of TiO2 and BiVO4 by the present study were around 3.15 and 2.37 eV, respectively. The position of aconduction band (CB) edge is determined by $E_{CB} = E_{VB} - Eg$. Thus, the calculated CB of BiVO₄ and TiO₂ were -0.47 and -0.27 eV, respectively. The difference in the conduction band energies between BiVO₄ and TiO₂ allows the transfer of electrons from the conduction band of BiVO₄ to that of TiO₂ since the position of the CB of TiO₂ is just under that of BiVO₄.

When the system is irradiated with visible light, BiVO₄ is activated to generate electron-hole pairs. An electron (e⁻) is promoted from the valence band VB into the conduction band CB of BiVO₄, leaving a hole (h⁺) behind. The excited-state electrons produced by BiVO₄ can be injected into the conduction band of the coupled TiO₂ due to the intimate joint of the electric fields between the two materials and the position of the CB of TiO₂ is just under the CB of BiVO₄ as indicated by Tang et al.³⁰ The electron transfer is feasible. The electron and holes are physically separated in space, reducing the opportunity of their recombination. The conduction electrons at TiO₂ side are good reductants which can be scavenged by molecular oxygen O₂ to yield the superoxide radical anion O₂⁻. The holes at VB of BiVO₄ will interact with hydroxyl groups to form OH · radicals. It is well known that the OH radical is a powerful oxidizing agent capable of degrading most pollutants. In the present case, RhB dye model molecules will be degraded by O_2^- and OH radicals. Anatase TiO₂ inverse opal has a too large gap so that no electrons can be promoted from the VB to CB thus no electron-hole pairs can be formed under visible light irradiation.

Concerning pure BiVO4 nanoparticles, the band gap is around 2.4 eV and located in the visible light zone. However, an unexpected low photocatalytic activity towards RhB dye molecules, even lower than that of anatase TiO₂ inverse opal structure has been observed. The same phenomenon that the photocatalytic activity of monoclinic BiVO₄ in the degradation of phenol is lower than that of pure anatase TiO₂ in the visible light range has been previously reported by Colon et al²⁰. The low photocatalytic activity of single phase of BiVO₄ photocatalysts was also pointed out by Fresno et al²⁷, Li et al²¹ and Jiang et al.³³ The lower photocatalytic activity of pure monoclinic BiVO₄ compared to 3DOM TiO₂ observed in the present study can be from two different reasons. Firstly, although our PL study showed that pure monoclinic BiVO4 has a very low recombination rate of electron-holes, due to its intrinsic characters of pure BiVO4 as to its very poor adsorptive performance towards organic dye molecules and the inefficient migration of photogenerated electron-hole pairs to surface for photocatalytic reaction, the pure monoclinic BiVO4 presented an unexpectedly low photocatalytic activity in the visible light degradation of organic dye pollutants. ^{21,33} The combination with TiO₂ can largely improve the adsorption properties and migration rate of electron-hole pairs towards surface of BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ facilitating the electron transfer from the CB of BiVO4 to the CB of TiO₂. Secondly, as RhB molecules can absorb visible light, it is possible that some electrons can be promoted from HOMO (-5.45 eV) to LUMO (-3.08 eV) and these electrons of RhB can migrate to CB of anatase TiO₂ to generate reactive O₂⁻ to degrade RhB dye molecules. This is why the degradation of RhB can be observed on anatase TiO₂ inverse opal in the visible light range although TiO₂ absorbs only UV light and the activity is even higher than that of BiVO₄ nanoparticles.

It is worthy noting that our 3 DOM TiO₂ presented a very interesting photodegradation activity in visible zone. It is well-known that TiO₂ has a large electronic band gap and can not absorb visible light and should not present a photodegradation activity of dye molecules in visible zone. The dye molecule degradation rate of pure TiO₂ inverse opal has been reported by Lee et al.65 Their TiO2 IO sample gave a degradation rate of 5% after 120 minutes, being much lower than the photocatalytic activity observed for our pure TiO₂ inverse opal. The difference is because 1) different preparation conditions: their TiO₂ IO sample was calcined at 850 °C and contained mainly rutile phase, while our sample was calcined at 550 °C and contained only anatase phase. It is well known that the rutile phase is less active than anatase phase. 2) different photocatalytic conditions: in their case, they used Methylene blue while in our case, we used Rh B as reactants; 3) different characteristics of samples: their sample had a macropore size of 500 nm while our sample had a macropore size of 250 nm. Their sample is in a shape of film while our sample is in powder shape. Our sample had a higher surface area, i.e. higher contact area. Due to above reasons, their sample presented different activity compared to our 3DOM TiO₂ powder. However, one point is important to underline that our bare 3DOM TiO2 IO sample gave an unexpectedly high degradation rate of 28%. The reason is very probably related to the 3DOM TiO₂ IO structure which could generate the slow photon effect so that the photocatalytic activity is enhanced. Ozin's group and our group have reported this effect for TiO₂ IO in

form of films for visible light and UV light in gas phase⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ and liquid phase 39,49,50 photocatalytic degradation of dye molecules, respectively. Our present sample could have this slow photon effect to give an enhancement in photocatalytic activity even in the visible light zone, being in a good agreement with the observation made by Ozin et al with similar pore size of TiO₂ IO.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ That is why we observed a degradation activity of 28 % which is not observed for P25 in visible light zone. We are working on this effect to better investigate the slow photon effect in visible light zone to enhance the photocatalytic activity. However, due to its powdery shape, the investigation is much more difficult than film shaped samples. Another point is that the 3DOM TiO₂ can provide more active surface areas, more contact area and increase mass transfer because of its highly accessible 3D porosity. We prepared a reference sample by the deposition of BiVO₄ nanoparticles on P25-TiO₂ nanoparticles using the same hydrothermal preparation method. The phtocatalytic activity of 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites is much higher than that of BiVO₄/TiO₂-P25 nanocomposite, showing very clearly the effect of 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal structure.

We also performed a control experiment in the photodegradation of RhB using a physical mixture (e.g., grinding) of BiVO₄ dumbbell nanoparticles and 3DOM TiO₂ powder and compared its photocatalytic activity with that of BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite. It is evidenced that the photocatalytic activity of the physical mixture (e.g., grinding) of BiVO₄ dumbbell and 3DOM TiO₂ is very similar to that of pure 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal structure and slightly higher than that of pure BiVO₄ dumbbell, but much lower than that of BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ IO nanocomposites prepared by careful deposition of BiVO₄ nanoparticles on 3DOM TiO₂ IO structure to have an intimate contact between two phases, illustrating the advantage of intimate contact between BiVO₄ nanoparticles and 3DOM inverse opal structure.

When narrow band gap sensitizer BiVO4 and large band gap photocatalyst TiO₂ are in intimate contact in 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposite, the draw backs such as the rapid e⁻- h⁺ recombination occurred in TiO₂, the poor adsorption properties and low migration rate of electron-holes of pure BiVO4 towards its surface and no excitation of TiO₂ in visible light range can be avoided. Under visible light irradiation, the electrons at the CB excited from the VB of BiVO₄ can migrate to the CB of TiO₂ photocatalyst to generate very reactive O2⁻ species. The h⁺ generated at VB of BiVO4 can react with hydroxyl groups to form oxidizing agent OH⁻. Both O₂⁻ and OH⁻ at the surface of BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite will degrade RhB dye pollutants adsorbed by TiO2. BiVO4 in our BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 nanocomposites play a role of light sensitizer, accelerating the photodegradation rate of RhB by 3DOM TiO₂. More BiVO₄, more sensitizing effect, i.e. better light absorption (suggested by diffuse reflectance) and better charge separation effect (suggested by PL). Two effects make 0.08BiVO4/3DOM TiO2 sample better photocatalyst. However, there exists an optimal amount of BiVO4 amount. We are working to determine this optimal amount. More BiVO4 in TiO2 inverse opal, more electrons-holes generated in BiVO₄/3DOM TiO₂ nanocomposite, higher photocatalytic activity is. It is clear that the 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposite with intimate contact can be an efficient way to design long-lived visible light excited charge carriers for photocatalysis.

4 Conclusions

Novel 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites have been successfully synthesized. According to UV-Vis DRS results, the absorption of BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites increased in the visible region. Moreover, the low band gap energy of BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites also influenced dye degradation, and showed significant promise for this nanocomposite to be employed as an effective visible light photocatalyst for dye wastewater treatment, photocatalytic water splitting, CO₂ reduction and other solar applications. In fact, by coupling different band-gap semiconductors such as TiO₂ and BiVO₄, the resultant nanocomposites facilitate the separation of the photogenerated carriers under the internal field induced by the different electronic band structures of the semiconductors. Thus the photocatalytic activity of TiO2 inverse opals was efficiently improved. It can be concluded that adding the narrow band gap energy materials as light sensitizer to TiO₂ is a very promising method to render 3DOM TiO2 inverse opals more efficient in the photodegradation of organic pollutants and in water splitting reaction under visible light. Thus, compared to 3DOM TiO₂ the 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites presented herein exhibit higher photocatalytic activities and can be considered as more efficient as they promote visible- light driven photocatalysis. Increasing BiVO₄ amount in nanocomposites can increase the photogenerated charge separation time and in consequence improve again the photocatalytic performance. In the present work, the benefit of 3D porosity and high surface area of TiO₂ inverse opal structure is essential for the accessibility of dye molecules to photocatalysts and for a better dispersion of BiVO4 nanoparticles. However, the benefit of slow photon effect of 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal photonic crystal structure has not been studied. The future work will focus on the optimisation of the amount of BiVO4 in nanocomposites, the study of other large band gap photocatalyts such as ZnO and taking profit equally the possible slow photon effect of 3DOM TiO₂ inverse opal.

Acknowledgements

This work was realized with the financial support of the Belgian FNRS (Fonds National de la RechercheScientifique). This research used resources of the Electron Microscopy Service located at the University of Namur. This Service is member of the "PlateformeTechnologiqueMorphologie - Imagerie". The XPS analyses were made in the LISE, Department of Physics of University of Namur thanks to Dr. P. Louette. This work was also supported by Changjiang Scholars and Innovative Research Team (IRT1169) of Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. B. L. Su acknowledges the Chinese Central Government for an "Expert of the State" position in the Program of the "Thousand Talents" and a Clare Hall Life Membership at the Clare Hall and the financial support of the Department of Chemistry, University of Cambridge.

Notes and references

^aLaboratory of Inorganic Materials Chemistry (CMI), University of Namur (UNamur), 61 rue de Bruxelles, B-5000 Namur, Belgium. Email: bao-lian.su@unamur.be

^bLaboratoire de Physique des Matériaux: Structure et Propriétés, Groupe Physique des Composants et Dispositifs Nanométriques, Faculté des Sciences de Bizerte, University of Carthage, 7021 Jarzouna-Bizerte, Tunisia

^cEMAT (Electron Microscopy for Materials Science), University of Antwerp, Groenenborgerlaan 171,B-2020 Antwerp, Belgium

^dState Key Laboratory of Advanced Technology for Materials Synthesis and Processing, Wuhan University of Technology, Luoshi Road 122, 430070, Wuhan, Hubei, China. Email: minwu@whut.edu.cn and baoliansu@whut.edu.cn

^eDepartment of Chemistryand Clare Hall College, University of Cambridge, Lensfield Road, Cambridge, United Kingdom, Email:bls26@cam.as.uk

+ The authors contribute equally to this work.

- 1 S. J. Liao, D. G. Huang, D. H. Yu, Y. L. Su and G. Q.Yuan, J. *Photochem. Photobiol.* A, 2004, **168**, 7–13.
- 2 H. Li, G. Liua and X. Duana, J. Mater. Chem. Phys, 2009, 115, 9-13.
- 3 W. S. Lu, G. C. Xiao, D. Z. Li, X. Z. Fu and X. X. Wang, Chin. *J.Inorg. Chem*, 2005, **21**, 1495–1499.
- 4 H. Irie, Y. Watanabe and K. Hashimoto, J. Phys. Chem. B, 2003,107, 5483–5486.
- 5 O. Diwald, T.L. Thompson and T. Zubkov, J. Phys. Chem. B, **2004**, 108, 6004–6008.
- 6 N. Serpone, P. Maruthamuthu, P. Pichat, E. Pelizzetti and H. Hidaka, J. Photochem. Photobiol. A:Chem, 1995, **85**, 247–255.
- 7 L. M. Peter, D. Jason Riley, E. J. Tull and K. G. UpulWijayantha. *Chem. Commun*, 2002, **10**, 1030–1031.
- 8 W. Liu, S. F. Chen, S. J. Zhang, W. Zhao, H.Y. Zhang and X. L. Yu, *J. Nanopart. Res*, 2010, **12**, 1355–1366.
- 9 I. Bedjat and P. Kamat, J. Phys. Chem, 1995, 99, 9182–9188.
- 10 J. Engweiler, J. Harf and A. Baiker, J. Catal, 1996, **159**, 259–269.
- 11 J. Xu, W. Z. Wang, S. Sun and L. Wang, *Appl. Catal. B*, 2012,**111–112**, 126–132.
- 12 Y. Liu, F. Xin, F. Wang, S. Luo and X. Yin, J. Alloys Compd. **498**, 179–184.
- 13 E. V. Skorb, E. A. Ustinovich, A. I. Kulak and D. V. Sviridov, J. *Photochem. Photobiol. A*, 2008, **193**, 97–102.
- 14 L. Huang, F. Peng, H. J. Wang, H. Yu and Z. Li, Catal. *Commun*, 2009, **10**, 1839–1843.
- 15 Z. D. Meng, L. Zhu, J. G. Choi, C. Y. Park and W. C. Oh, *Nanoscale Res. Lett*, 2011, 6, 459–469.
- 16 D. N. Ke, H. J. Liu, T.Y. Peng, X. Liu and K. Dai, *Materials Letters*, 2008, 62, 447–450.
- 17 K. Vinodgopal and P.V. Kamat, *Environmental Science and Technology*, 1995, **29**, 841–845.
- 18 Y. Bessekhouad, D. Robert and V. Weber, *Catalysis Today*, 2005, **101**,315–321.
- 19 A. Zhang and J. Zhang, *Mater. Lett.*, 2009, **63**, 1939–1942.
- 20 S. Obregon, S. W. Lee and G. Colon, *Dalton Trans*.2014, **43**, 311-316.
- 21 Y. K. Li, J. Y. Dong, Y. F. Wang, J. Y. Sun, Y. F. Li, Y and Q. Pi, J. Mol. Catal., A. Chem. 2014, 387, 138-146.
- K. Sayama, A. Nomura, T. Arai, T. Sugita, R. Abe, M. Yanagida,
 T. Oi, Y. Iwasaki, Y. Abe, H. Sugihara, *J. Phys. Chem. B*, 2006,
 110, 11352-11360.
- 23 A. Kudo, K. Ueda, H. Kato and I. Mikami, *Catal. Lett.*, 1998, **53**, 229–230.
- 24 B. Cao, J. Peng and Y. Y, J. Clust. Sci., 2013, 24, 771–785.
- 25 L. Zhang, G. Tan, S. Wei, H. Ren, A. Xia and Y. Luo, J. Ceram.Int., 2013, **39**, 8597–8604.
- 26 Y. Hu, D. Li, Y. Zheng, W. Chen, Y. He, Y. Shao, X. Fu and G. Xiao, *Appl. Catal. B*, 2011, **104**, 30-36.
- 27 G. Long, F. Fresno, S. Grosss and U. L. Stangar, *Enriron. Sci. Pollut. Res. Int.* 2014, **21**, 11189-11197.
- 28 R. Rahimi, S. Zargari and M. M. Moghaddas, *Adv. Mater. Res.* 2013, **702**, 172-175.

- 29 M. Xie, X. Fu, L. Jing, P. Luan, Y. Feng, H. Fu, Adv. Energy Mater. 2014, 4, 130095.
- 30 S. Ho-Kimur, S. J. A. Moniz, A. D. Handoko and J. W. Tang, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2014, 2, 3948-3953.
- 31 S. Obregon and G. Colon, *RSC Adv.*, 2014, 4, 6820-6926.
- 32 T. Y. Huo, X. F. Zhang, X. Dong, X. X Zhang, C. Ma, G. W. wang, H. C. Ma, M. Xue, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2014, 2, 17366-17370
- 33 H. Q. Jiang, H. Endo, H. Natori, M. Nagai and K. Kobayashi, *Mater. Res. Bull.*, 2009, 44, 700-706.
- 34 M. Zhou, J. Bao, Y. Xu, J. J. Zhang, J. F. Xie, M. L. Guan, C. L. Wang, L. Y. Web, Y. Lei and Y. Xie, ACS Nano, 2014, 8, 7088-7098
- 35 M. Wu, Y. Li, Z. Deng and B. L. Su, *ChemSusChem*, 2011, 4, 1481.
- 36 X. Zheng, S. Meng, J. Chen, J. Wang, J. Xian, Y. Shao, X. Fu and D. Li, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2013, **177**, 21263–21273.
- 37 C. W. Cheng, S. K. Karuturi, L. J. Liu, J. P. Liu, H. X. Li, L.T. Su, A. I.Y. Tok and H. J. Fan, *Small.*, 2012, 8, 37–42.
- 38 J. Liu, Y. Li, H. W. Huang, C. Wang, M. Wu, L. H. Chen and B. L. Su, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2014, 2, 5051.
- 39 M. Wu, J. Jing, J. Liu, Z. Deng, Y. Li, O. Deparis and B. L. Su, J. Mater. Chem. A, 2013, 1, 15491.
- 40 M. Wu, J. Liu, J. Jing, C. Wang, S. Z. Huang, Z. Deng, Y. Li and B. L. Su, *Appl. Catal, B-Environ*, 2014, **411**, 150–151.
- 41 X. Chen, J. Ye, S. Ouyang, T. Kako, Z. Li and Z. Zou, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2011, **5**, 4310–4318
- 42 L. I. Halaoui, N. M. Abrams and T. E. Mallouk, J. Phys. Chem. B, 2005, 109, 6334–6342.
- 43 P. R. Somani, C. Dionigi, M. Murgia, D. Palles, P. Nozar and G. Ruani, *Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cells*, 2005, **87**, 513–519.
- 44 C. L. Huisman, J. Schoonmanand A. Goossens, Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cells, 2005, 85, 115–124.
- I. Rodriguez, F. Ramiro-Manzano, P. Atienzar, J. M. Martinez, F. Meseguer, H. Garcia and A. Corma, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2007, 17, 3205–3209.
- 46 S. Nishimura, N. Abrams, B. A. Lewis, L. I. Halaoui, T. E. Mallouk, K. D. Benkstein, J. Van De Lagemaat and A. Frank, *J.Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2003, **125**, 6306–6310.
- 47 J. I. L. Chen, E. Loso, N. Ebrahim and G. A. Ozin, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2008, **130**, 5420-5421.
- 48 J. I. L. Chen, G. von Freymann, S.Y. Choi, V. Kitaev and G.A. Ozin, Adv. Mater., 2006, 18,1915–1919.
- 49 J. I. L. Chen, G. von Freymann, V. Kitaev and G. A. Ozin, *J. Am. Chem.* Soc., 2007, **129**, 1196–1202.
- 50 M. Wu, A. Zheng, F. Deng, B. L. Su, Appl. Catal. B: Environ, 2013, 138–139, 219–228
- 51 L. Dong, S. Guo, S. Zhu, D. Xu, L. Zhang, M. Huo and X. Yang, *Catal. Commun.*, 2011, **16**, 250–254.
- 52 Y. Guo, X. Yang, F. Ma, K. Li, L. Xu, X. Yuan and Y. Guo, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, 2010, **256**, 2215–2222.
- 53 N. Myung, S. Ham, S. Choi, Y. Chae, W. Kim, Y. J. Jeon, K. Paeng, W. Chanmanee, N. R. de Tacconi and K. Rajeshwar, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2011, 115, 7793–7800.
- 54 Z. Ozlem Kocabaş-Ataklı and Y. Yurum, J. Chem. Eng., 2013, 225, 625-635.
- 55 Z. F. Bian, J. Zhu, S. H. Wang, Y. Cao, X. F. Qian and H. X. Li, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2008, **112**, 6258–6262.
- 56 Y. Q. Wu, G. X. Lu and S. B. Li, J. Phys. Chem. C, 2009, 113, 9950–9955.
- 57 A. Zhang and J. Zhang, Mater. Lett., 2009, **63**, 1939–1942.
- 58 L. D. Zhang and C. M. Mo, *Nanostruct. Mater.*, 1995, **6**, 831–834.

- 59 L. Q. Jing, X. J. Sun, B. F. Xin, B. Q. Wang, W. M. Cai and H. G. Fu, J. Solid State Chem., 2004, 177, 3375–3382.
- 60 J. Cao, B. Luo, H. Lin, B. Xu, S. Chen, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ*, 2012, **111–112**, 288–296.
- 61 Z. Xiong, L. L. Zhang, J. Ma and X. S. Zhao, *Chem. Commun.*, 2010, **46**, 6011–6099.
- 62 J. Su, L. Guo, N. Bao and C.A. Grimes, *Nano Lett.*, 2011, **11**, 1928–1933.
- 63 A. Hagfeldt and M. Gratzel, Chem. Rev., 1995, 95, 49–68.
- 64 K. Sayama, A. Nomura, T. Arai, T. Sugita, R. Abe, M. Yanagida, T. Oi, Y. Iwasaki, Y. Abe and H. Sugihara, *J. Phys. Chem. B*, 2006, **110**, 11352–11360.
- 65 S. Lee, Y. Lee, D. H. Kim and J. H. Moon, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces, 2013, 5, 12526–12532

Novel 3DOM BiVO₄/TiO₂ Nanocomposites for Highly Enhanced Photocatalytic Activity

 $BiVO_4$ nanoparticles in 3DOM TiO_2 inverse opal structure act as a sensitizer to absorb visible light and to transfer efficiently high energy electrons to TiO_2 to keep photogenerated charges long life and well separated, explaining the extraordinarily high photocatalytic performance of 3DOM $BiVO_4/TiO_2$ nanocomposites.

