

Chapter-2

Synthesis and characterizations of individual nanoforms of TiO₂ and carbon

2.1 Introduction

Metal oxides having a lot of benefits like simple working principle, non-toxicity, low cost and long-term stability etc. are being reported for different applications [1]. Exemplary electronic exchange characteristics and wide band gap of metal oxide nanoforms make them a superior choice over other nanomaterials [2]. Several metal oxides like SnO₂, WO₃, FeO₃, ZnO, CuO, TiO₂ etc. with a lot of potential have been implied in different domains like photocatalysis [3], biosensors [4], solar cells [5], antibacterial [6], chemical sensors [7], water splitting [8].

TiO₂ is considered as an promising metal oxide for various applications because of its nontoxic nature, long term thermal stability and chemical inertness [9]. TiO₂ is one the important metal oxide semiconductor that is less explored in comparison to SnO₂ and ZnO and also holds on to the good physical and chemical properties. TiO₂ has an advantage to be synthesized and implemented in different nanoforms such as nanotube, nanoparticle, nanorod, nanofiber and nanosphere etc. Various researchers have utilized the unique TiO₂ nanostructures for different applications like water purification [10], photocatalysis [11], photonic crystals [12], gas sensing [13], solar water splitting [14] and supercapacitors [15] etc.

TiO₂ can be fabricated by various low-cost techniques such as sol-gel template [16], surfactant directed [17], hydrothermal [18],[19], anodization of Ti foil [20] etc. 1-D TiO₂ nanostructures can be fabricated using hydrothermal method [21] and anodization of Ti foil [22]. 2-D TiO₂ nanostructures can be synthesized by atomic layer deposition. Zero dimensional TiO₂ nanoparticles can be fabricated using sol-gel method. TiO₂ has the capability to be synthesized in different nanoforms with different nanostructures according to the required application.

Different nanoforms having different dimensions (0-D, 1-D, 2-D and 3-D) have unique advantages. One dimensional nanostructure like nanotubes, nanorods, nanowires have various unique properties like high surface to volume ratio, good stability with uniformity, homogenous structure, adequate dispersion high crystallinity, predefined conductance and eminent resistance etc. [23],[24]. Zero-dimensional (0-D) nanomaterial is one of the most promising material with its unique nature. Excessive small size with highly functioning edge

sites per unit mass and also the quantum confinement effect of 0-D materials makes them supreme among other nanomaterials [25]. 1-D TiO₂ nanotube array have found to be superior among all due to outstanding properties like high surface to volume ratio, one dimensional electron flow and highly crystalline nature [26-28].

Carbon constitutes an important section of nature. Acquainted with the popularity of graphite and diamond which are highly explored and applied in different fields. The new emerging nanocarbons graphene, carbon nanotubes and fullerene have given researchers a lot of opportunities in almost every domain of nanoscience. The semiconductor characteristics and appropriate dimensions of carbon nanostructures makes them a one of perfect nanomaterial in nanotechnology. The excellent chemical and electrical properties of graphene, CNT and fullerene with unique structures, e.g. immense electron mobility, high specific area and small size makes them a adequate candidate for different applications [29],[30].

This chapter includes the detailed synthesis procedure of both TiO₂ nanostructures with their characterization techniques. 1-D TiO₂ nanotubes were fabricated by electrochemical anodization and 0-D TiO₂ nanoparticles were fabricated by sol-gel method. Morphological, structural, chemical characterizations were performed to analyse the TiO₂ nanostructures. The procedure for the formation of graphene oxide solution and fullerene aqueous solution has been described in this chapter along with different characterization techniques (FESEM, TEM, Raman, UV-vis and XPS).

2.2 TiO₂ nanotubes: 1-D material

2.2.1 Synthesis



Fig.2.1. TiO₂ nanotube synthesis via electrochemical anodization route.

Highly aligned TiO₂ nanotubes array was synthesized by anodic oxidation route (Fig. 2.1). High purity Ti foil (99% pure, 0.25 mm thick) was cut into 1 cm × 1 cm pieces to be used as an anode material. Ti foil was cleaned with acetone and dried in air for further use. A rectangular-shaped graphite sheet with dimensions 1.5 cm × 1.5 cm (thickness: 1 mm) was used as the counter electrode (cathode). A separation of 3.5 cm was maintained between anode and cathode during anodic oxidation. Anodization was performed at room temperature (300 K) for 90 min under a constant potential of 40-50 V. The electrolyte was prepared with 0.5 wt% of ammonium fluoride (NH₄F), 10 vol% of deionized (Milli-Q) water and ethylene glycol. TiO₂ nanotubes/Ti samples were cleaned with water and ethanol and then dried in air. After that, all the prepared samples were annealed in dry air at 350 °C for 3 h to make the nanotubes electrically stable and robust.

2.2.2 Characterizations

Morphological characterizations

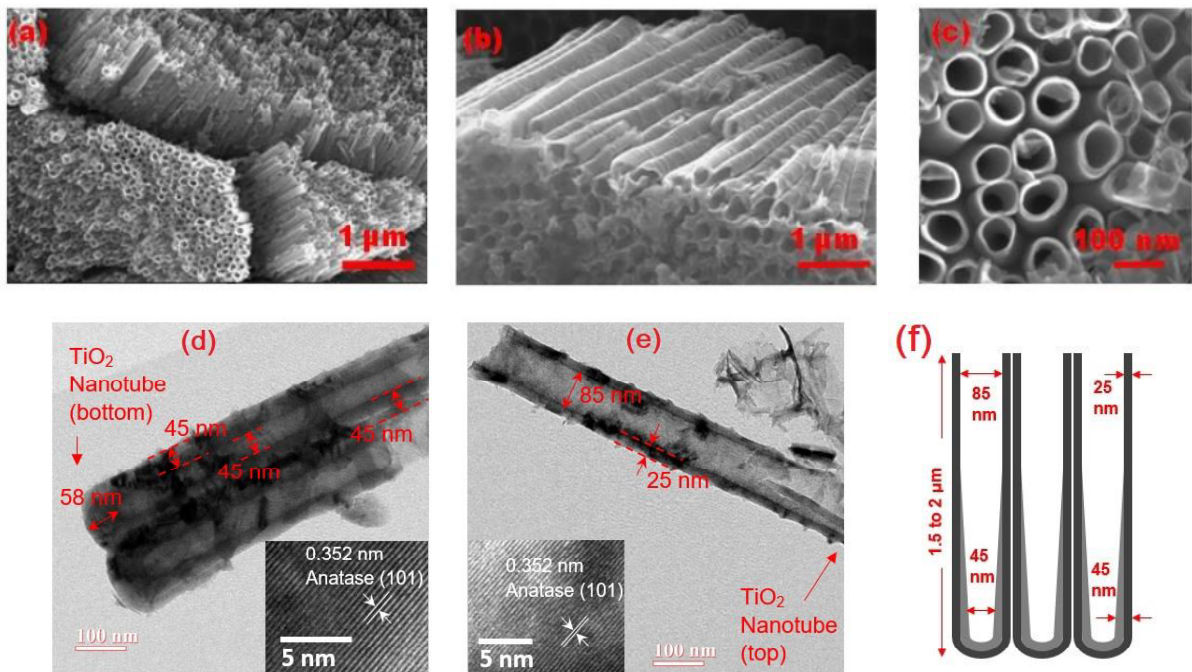


Fig.2.2. FESEM image of TiO₂ nanotubes:(a) overall view of TiO₂ nanotubes (b) top view; (c) side view. Corresponding TEM image of (d) bottom and (e) top of the nanotubes. (f) A schematic of TiO₂ nanotubes with all the essential dimensions is drawn based on the TEM results.

Highly arranged and oriented nanotubes were formed by the process of electrochemical anodization. The average length of nanotubes formed is 1.5 - 2 μm. The average outer and inner diameter of the TiO₂ nanotubes were measured as 120-140 nm and 75-90 nm respectively

(Fig.2.2(c)). To further investigate the morphology of nanotubes, TEM was performed (Fig. 2.2 (d) and (e)). TEM image in Fig.2.2(d) and (e) confirm that the wall thickness and inner diameter of anodically grown TiO₂ nanotube are not uniform rather the wall thickness is increased towards bottom direction lowering the inner radius. Wall thickness of TiO₂ nanotubes was measured near bottom and top as 45 nm and 25 nm, respectively. The inner diameter was measured near bottom and top as 45 nm and 85 nm, respectively. Therefore, the outer diameter was almost constant (~135 nm) throughout the length of the nanotube (Fig. 2.2(d) and (e)). As the TEM image is represented by part in Fig. 2.2(d) and (e), a possible schematic of a complete TiO₂ nanotubes is shown in Fig. 2.2(f) indicating all the essential dimensions. Inter-planar distances of 0.352 nm is corresponding to anatase tetragonal (1 0 1) plane is clearly observed from the insets of the Fig. 2.2 (d) and (e) [31].

Structural characterization

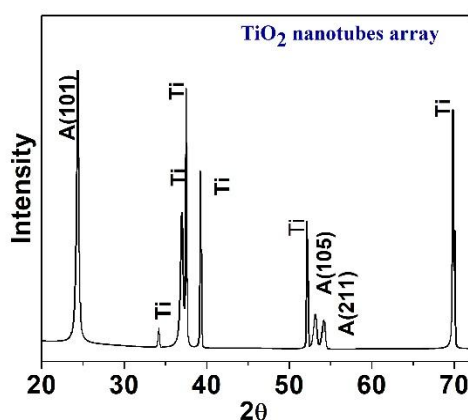


Fig 2.3. XRD spectra of TiO₂ nanotubes.

XRD confirmed the anatase crystallinity of TiO₂ nanotubes (Fig. 2.3). The sharp and high intensity peak at 24.5° corresponds to the A (101) crystallinity. The low intensity peaks at 53.2° and 54.1° correspond to the anatase (105) and (211) respectively. All the other peaks labelled as Ti depicts titanium substrate. The XRD peaks for anatase TiO₂ were authenticated by JCPDS file No. 21-1272.

Other characterizations like Photoluminescence (PL), Raman and UV vis spectroscopy were also performed for the TiO₂ nanotube array (Fig.2.4). PL spectrum was recorded by using a 325 nm laser at room temperature (Fig. 2.4 (a)). PL spectrum exhibited two major peaks – B peak in the UV region (390 nm) and G peak in the visible region. The B peak represents the band-to-band emission i.e. the electronic transition from conduction band to valence band and the band gap of TiO₂ nanotubes (3.2 eV). The G peak in the visible region originated due to the oxygen vacancies (defects) related trap assisted recombination.

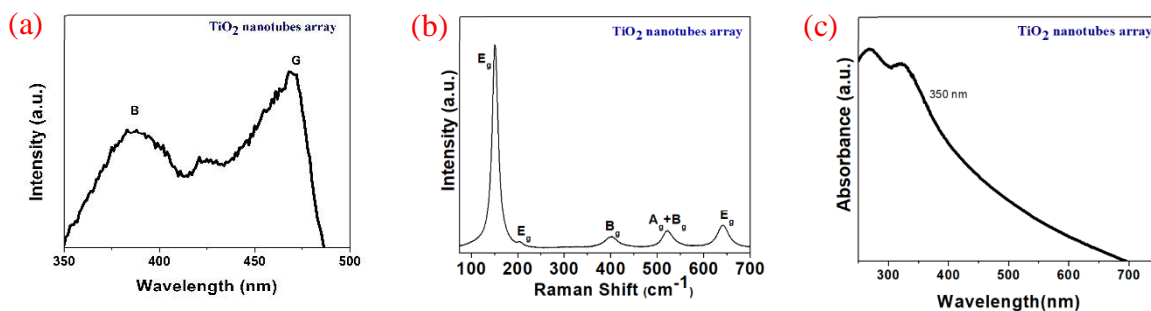


Fig. 2.4. TiO₂ nanotubes array (a) Photoluminescence, (b) Raman spectra (c) UV vis spectra.

Raman spectroscopy is an important tool to study the composition of materials. Raman spectrum of the TiO₂ nanotube array was recorded using a 532 nm laser at room temperature (Fig.2.4 (b)). Five peaks were observed in the TiO₂ nanotubes array. The active modes present nearly at 145 cm⁻¹ (E_g), 195.4 cm⁻¹ (E_g), 395.2 cm⁻¹ (B_g), 514.6 cm⁻¹ (A_g+B_g) and 634.4 cm⁻¹ (E_g) corresponds to the anatase phase of TiO₂ [32],[33].

UV vis spectroscopy for pure TiO₂ nanotubes is represented in Fig. 2.4 (c). UV vis adsorption spectra exhibited the adsorption edge at 350 nm which very well corresponds to the energy band gap (3.2 eV) of TiO₂.

Chemical characterization

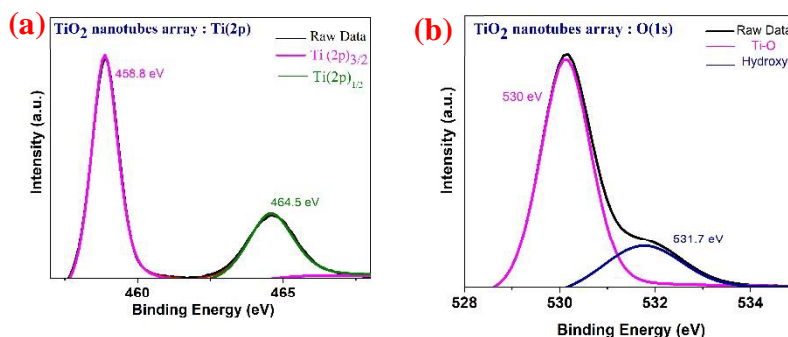


Fig. 2.5. XPS spectra of TiO₂ nanotubes (a) Ti2p, (b) O1s.

Splitting of photoelectrons of Ti⁴⁺ is assigned to Ti2p_{3/2} and Ti2p_{1/2} with a separation of 5.92 eV that authenticate the existence of anatase TiO₂ (Fig. 2.5(a)) [13].

O1s spectra of TiO₂ nanotubes is deconvoluted into two peaks at 530 eV and 531.7 eV (Fig. 2.5(b)). The high intensity peak at 530 eV corresponds to the lattice oxygen (Ti-O) and small intensity peak at 531.7 eV corresponds to the surface oxygen or adsorbed oxygen [34],[35].

2.3 TiO₂ nanoparticles: 0-D material

2.3.1 Synthesis

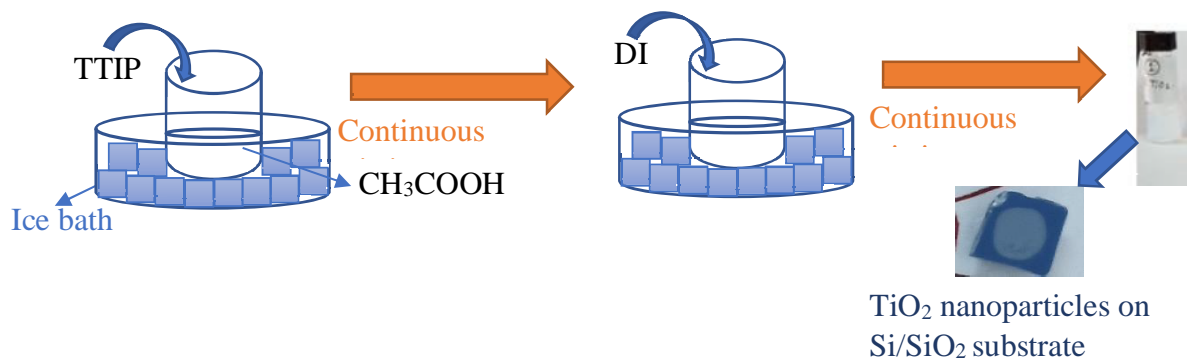


Fig.2.6. Synthesis of undoped *p*-type TiO₂ nanoparticles via sol-gel method.

Undoped *p*-type TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) were synthesized by sol-gel method. 2 ml of titanium (IV) iso-propoxide (TTIP, 99.99% pure from Sigma Aldrich) was added dropwise to the 10 ml of acetic acid (CH₃COOH) inside an ice bath under vigorous stirring conditions. Then 40 ml of deionized water was added drop wise into the mixture of TTIP and CH₃COOH. The solution was stirred for 90 min and the colour of the solution became completely transparent. Then the TiO₂ solution was aged in a dark place for 48 hours at 20 °C. After aging, the colour of the TiO₂ solution became slightly opaque. Finally, the pure TiO₂ nanoparticles were obtained. Synthesis steps of TiO₂ nanoparticles are represented in Fig. 2.6.

2.3.2 Characterizations

Morphological Characterizations

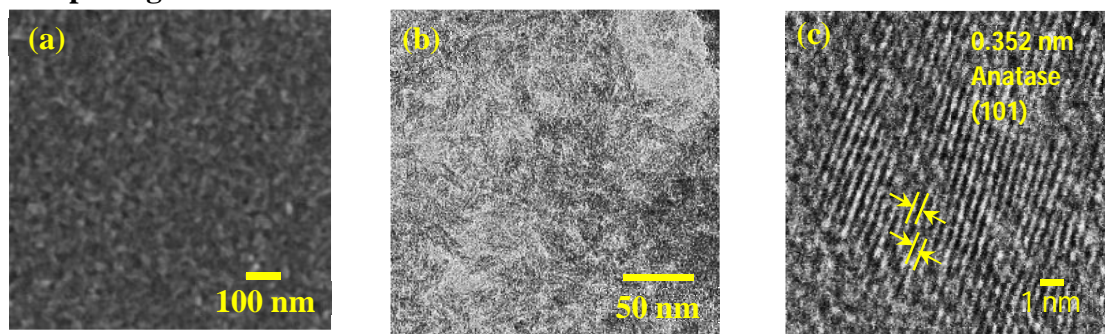


Fig. 2.7. Undoped *p*-type TiO₂ nanoparticles (a) FESEM, (b) TEM, (c) HRTEM representing the lattice fringes.

Uniform, continuous and compact distribution of *p*-TiO₂ NPs is observed in the FESEM image in Fig. 2.7(a). 18 nm average size of TiO₂ NPs was estimated from TEM image in Fig. 2.7(b) and (c). The d-spacing of 0.352 nm measured from lattice image in Fig. 2.7(c) confirmed the formation of anatase (101) crystallinity.

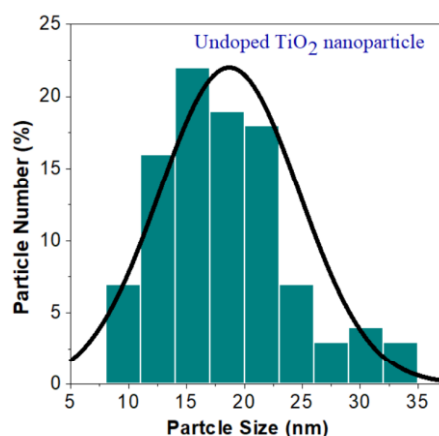


Fig. 2.8. Particle size of undoped p -type TiO_2 nanoparticle.

Size of the TiO_2 nanoparticles were varying from 10 to 35 nm with average value of 18 nm as shown in the distribution in Fig. 2.8. Size were estimated from SEM and TEM.

Structural Characterization

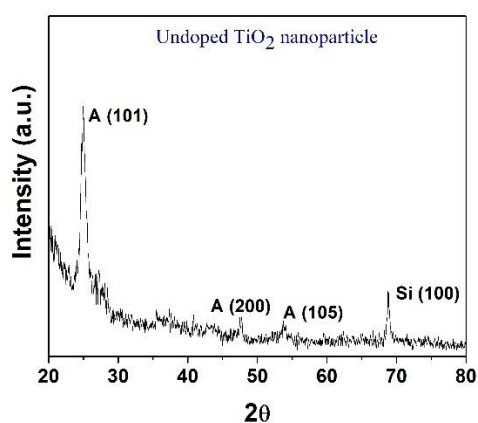


Fig. 2.9. XRD spectrum of undoped p -type TiO_2 nanoparticle.

The XRD spectra of undoped TiO_2 nanoparticles is represented in Fig. 2.9. The sharp and high intensity peak at 24.5° confirms the anatase crystallinity (101) of TiO_2 nanoparticles. The low intensity peaks at 47.6° and 53.8° correspond to the anatase (200) and (105) respectively. A sharp intensity peak at 68.8° corresponds to the Silicon substrate. The XRD peaks for anatase TiO_2 were authenticated by JCPDS file No. 21-1272.

Other spectroscopic characterizations like PL, Raman and UV vis were carried out to estimate the structural properties of TiO_2 nanoparticles and shown in Fig 2.10(a), (b) and (c) respectively. The photoluminescence spectrum of undoped TiO_2 nanoparticles depicts two peaks- one small B peak in the UV region (320 nm) and another high intensity G peak in the

visible region (520 nm) (Fig. 2.10 (a)). The B peak in the UV region represents direct transition of electron from conduction to the valence band representing the band gap of TiO₂ nanoparticles as 3.6 eV which is also authenticated from the UV vis spectrum of TiO₂ nanoparticles exhibiting the adsorption edge at ~336 nm (Fig. 2.10 (c)). The G peak in the visible region is aroused due to the oxygen vacancies (defects) related trap assisted recombination (Fig. 2.10(a)). The non-stoichiometric nature of TiO₂ nanoparticles with abundant surface oxygen type defects is confirmed by the large intensity G peak at 520 nm (Fig. 2.10 (a)).

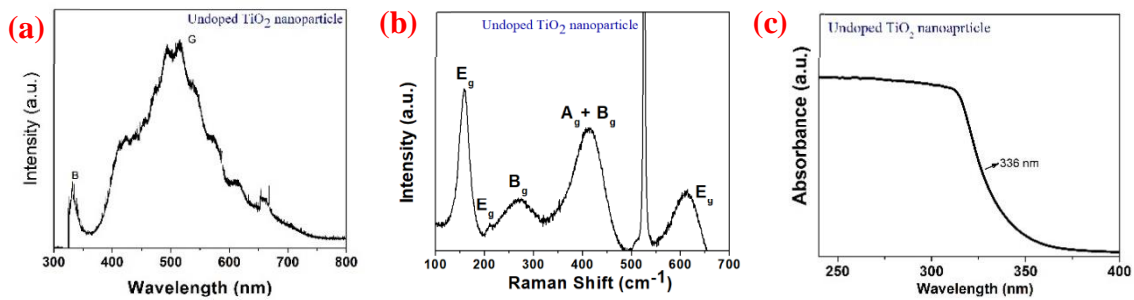


Fig. 2.10. Undoped *p*-type TiO₂ nanoparticles; (a) photoluminescence, (b) Raman, and (c) UV vis spectra.

The presence of anatase crystallinity in *p*-TiO₂ NPs was confirmed by six active Raman modes like E_g (144 cm⁻¹), E_g (199 cm⁻¹), B_g (399 cm⁻¹), A_g + B_g (516 cm⁻¹) and E_g (639 cm⁻¹) (Fig. 2.10 (b)). The high intensity peak at 525 cm⁻¹ originated from Si/SiO₂ substrate.

Chemical characterization

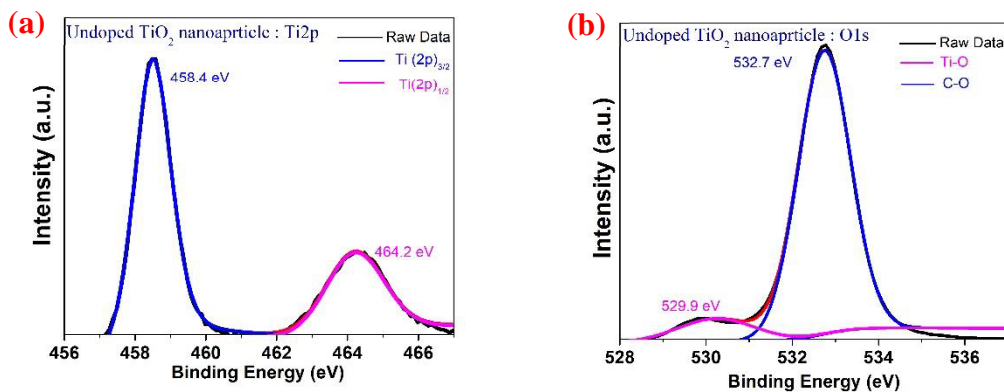


Fig. 2.11. XPS spectra of undoped *p*-type TiO₂ nanoparticles (a) Ti2p, (b) O1s.

Splitting of photoelectrons of Ti⁴⁺ is assigned to Ti2p_{3/2} and Ti2p_{1/2} with a separation of 5.9 eV that authenticates the existence of anatase TiO₂ Fig. 2.11(a) [13].

O1s spectra of TiO₂ nanoparticles exhibited high intensity peak at 532.8 eV attributed to the surface oxygen originated from Ti-OH, adsorbed oxygen species etc. whereas Ti-O peak intensity at 529.8 eV was quite low (Fig. 2.11(b)) [36]. The high peak intensity at 532.8 eV was observed due to the extremely small dimensions (~12 nm) of the particles that eventually increased the number of surface atoms reducing the bulk formation that results in a high intensity surface oxygen peak compared to the bulk oxygen (Ti-O).

p-type conductivity

Table 2.1 Hall effect result of sol-gel derived undoped *p*-TiO₂ nanoparticles.

Sample Specification	Conductivity	Bulk carrier density	Hall mobility	Bulk resistivity
S ₁	<i>p</i> -type	$8.793 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	47 cm ² /Vs	$6.462 \times 10^{-6} \Omega\text{-cm}$.
S ₂	<i>p</i> -type	$8.598 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	51 cm ² /Vs	$3.702 \times 10^{-6} \Omega\text{-cm}$.
S ₃	<i>p</i> -type	$8.461 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	63 cm ² /Vs	$1.512 \times 10^{-6} \Omega\text{-cm}$.

The Van Der Pauw method was used to confirm the *p*-type conductivity of TiO₂ nanoparticles. The Hall effect measurement was performed with 100 nm current and 0.5 T magnetic field. A set of three samples were synthesized by sol gel technique (under same conditions) for Hall measurement as represented in Table 2.1. The *p*-TiO₂/SiO₂/Si samples with 1 cm × 1 cm dimensions were used for the measurement. Hall measurement determined the *p*-type conductivity of TiO₂ nanoparticles having carrier concentration around $8.598 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, mobility around 51 cm²/V-s and bulk resistivity around $3.702 \times 10^{-6} \Omega\text{-cm}$.

2.4 Precursor preparation of carbon nanostructures

2.4.1 Synthesis

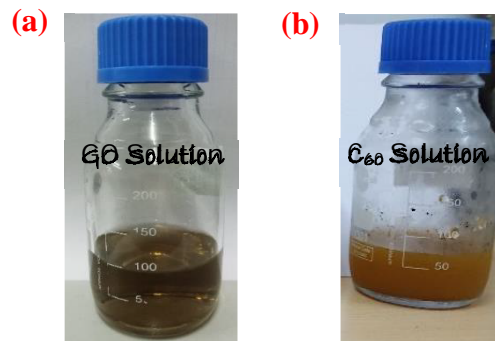


Fig.2.12. (a) 0.2 wt% graphene oxide solution, (b) Fullerene aqueous solution.

Precursor preparation of graphene oxide (2-D material)

Concentrated (6.2 g/L) and aqueous solution of single layer (>80%, flake size: 0.5-5 μm) graphene oxide (GO) of graphene supermarket brand was used. 0.2 wt% stable aqueous solution of GO was used for the further study (Fig 2.12 (a)). 1mg of graphene oxide was added in 500 ml of DI water and solution started for 15 minutes.

Aqueous solution preparation of fullerene (0-D material)

High purity fullerene C_{60} (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9%) was used to prepare the aqueous solution of fullerene. Firstly, high purity C_{60} fullerene was added to toluene to maintain the concentration around 2 mg/mL and a purple-coloured homogenous mixture was obtained. In the second step the deionized water was added to the precursor solution. Two insoluble phases were formed that were kept for ultrasonication for a long time, until the toluene was evaporated and a yellowish solution was obtained (Fig. 2.12(b)).

2.4.2 Characterization

Morphological characterization

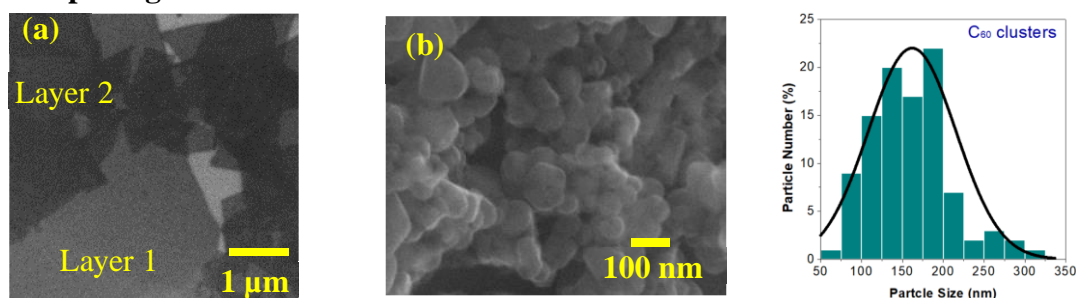


Fig. 2.13. FESEM Image: (a) graphene oxide, (b) fullerene clusters. (c) Size distribution of fullerene clusters obtained from the FESEM image.

FESEM image of graphene oxide (Fig. 2.13(a)) confirms the formation of mostly single or a few layers of GO flakes. C_{60} clusters were spherical in shape (Fig. 2.13(b)). C_{60} clusters of variable sizes (50 nm -350 nm) were observed in FESEM (Fig. 2.13(b)). The size distribution in Fig. 2.13(c) indicates 161 nm of average size of the C_{60} clusters.

Structural characterizations

The graphene oxide depicted the adsorption edge at around 287 nm with a measured band gap around 3.59 eV (Fig. 2.14(a)). C_{60} has two broad absorption edges in the UV region – 216 nm and 224 nm (Fig. 2.14(b)). These optical absorption bands are recognised as dipole allowed transitions in original C_{60} and are accordant with literature [37],[38].

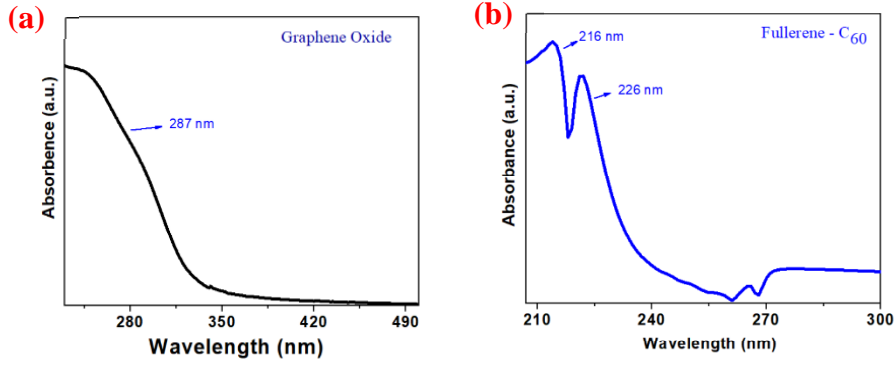


Fig. 2.14. UV vis absorption spectra of (a) graphene oxide, (b) fullerene- C_{60} .

Raman spectroscopy of graphene oxide was performed at room temperature using a 300 nm laser (Fig. 2.15(a)). The two main peaks – D and G at 1300 cm^{-1} and 1600 cm^{-1} were observed in the Raman spectra respectively. D peak contributes to the sp^3 defects in carbon and G peak provides the information of plane vibration in sp^2 configuration [39].

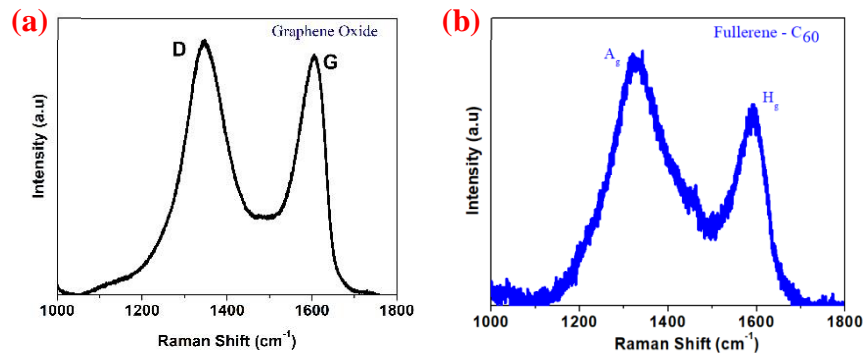


Fig. 2.15. Raman spectra (a) graphene oxide, (b) fullerene.

The calculated I_D/I_G ratio for graphene oxide was 1.05 which very well depicts the lesser number of defects. Similarly, two peaks were observed in fullerene depicting $A_g(1)$ and $H_g(8)$ mode (Fig. 2.15(b)). A_g mode is defined as the pentagonal pinch mode which contributes to C_{60} nanoparticles [38].

Chemical characterization

Strong O1s peak at 532.6 eV originated from pure GO due to presence of oxygen functionalized groups (mainly, hydroxyl/epoxy) on GO surface (Fig. 2.16 (a)) [36]. Similarly, O1s high scan of fullerene depicts a high intensity peak at 532.7 eV corresponding to the adsorbed oxygen groups (C-O, C=O or C-OH) due to the functionalization of fullerene molecules (Fig. 2.16 (c)).

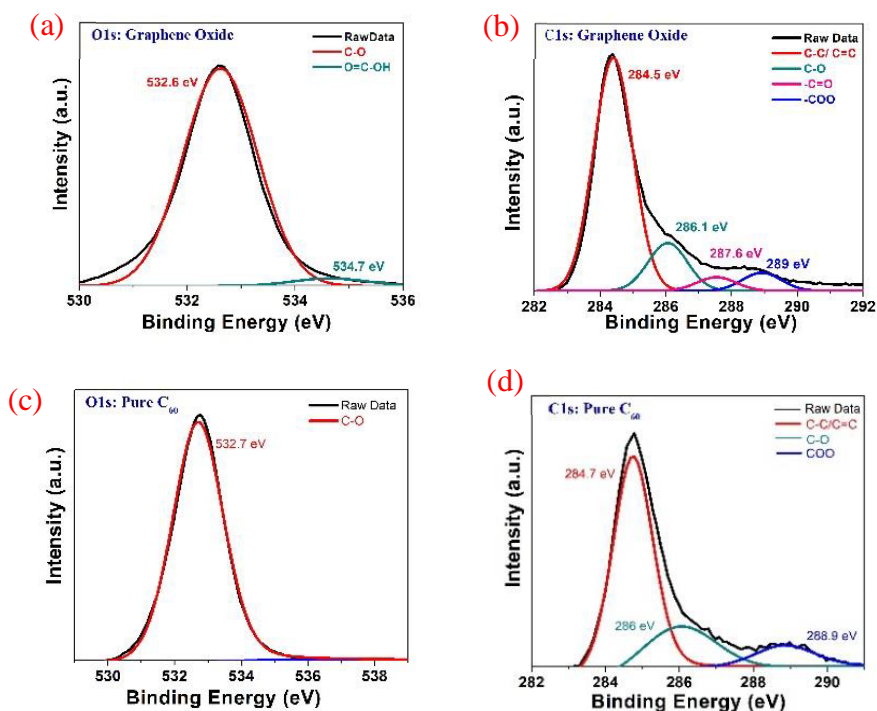


Fig. 2.16. XPS spectra: Graphene oxide with (a) O1s, (b) C1s; Fullerene with (c) O1s, (d) C1s. The high resolution C1s scan of graphene oxide and C₆₀ depicted the large intensity peak at 284.5 eV/284.7eV which is attributed to the adventitious carbon and sp² hybridization (Fig. 2.16(b) and (d)). Oxygen functionalization such as hydroxyl/epoxy (C-O) peak was located at 286 eV in all the nanocarbons, confirming the good amount of oxidation. The peak located at 287.6 eV corresponds to the carbonaceous band (C=O) in GO. The other oxygen functional group like COOH was found for both pure GO and pure C₆₀ (Fig. 2.16 (b)) [36],[40].

2.5 Conclusions

Pure TiO₂ nanotubes were prepared by simple electrochemical anodization method and undoped TiO₂ nanoparticles were prepared by sol-gel method. Both the adopted methods were easy and cost effective. Different characterizations including morphological, structural and chemical were performed to analyse the both the TiO₂ nanostructures (nanotube and nanoparticles). FESEM confirmed the formation of highly orientated and organized nanotubes and compact and dense distribution of nanoparticles. XRD confirmed the anatase crystallinity of TiO₂ in both the structures. All the active six modes corresponding to the anatase crystallinity of TiO₂ were observed in Raman spectroscopy of both the nanostructures. X-ray photo spectroscopy was performed to study the composition of TiO₂. TiO₂ nanotubes exhibited *n*-type behaviour and TiO₂ nanoparticles showed *p*-type behaviour.

Pure graphene oxide solution (Graphene supermarket) was synthesized in aqueous form for further use. High purity fullerene (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %) was hydrated to increase its hydrophilicity. Fullerene aqueous solution obtained was highly stable and active. Both pure carbon nanostructures were analysed using different characterization techniques like FESEM, XRD, Raman spectroscopy, UV vis and XPS.

TiO₂ has an advantage of being synthesized in 1-D nanotubes and 0-D nanoparticles where TiO₂ nanostructures have been widely utilized to detect variety of volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Different ways have been adopted by different researchers to improve sensor performance. Out of which one of the way is to enhance the sensing performance of metal oxides is by increasing or decreasing the oxygen vacancy in nanoscale metal oxides which can be considered 'self-doping'.

References

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