

# Photocatalytic properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> sol–gel modified nanocomposite films

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## Abstract

TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite films with different concentrations of TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A nanoparticles were immobilized on glass substrates using a dip coating process. The crystalline structure and surface chemical state of nanocomposite film properties were examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), respectively. The specific surface area and morphology of TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A nanoparticles were evaluated by the BET method and Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FE-SEM). The photocatalytic activities of films were evaluated by the methyl orange decoloring rate. XPS measurements showed that the oxygen amount (%) was related to the film composition. The composite film with 10 g/L MT-150A loading yielded the highest amount of surface oxygen (26.82%) and TiO<sub>2</sub> rutile showed the lowest amount of surface oxygen (13.67%) in the form of surface hydroxyl groups. The remaining oxygen was identified as lattice oxygen. In addition, the nanocomposite film with 10 g/L MT-150A loading yielded the highest photocatalytic activity.

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## 1. Introduction

TiO<sub>2</sub> is of interest as a photocatalyst for the degradation of several environmental contaminants [1–5]. Many organic compounds can be decomposed in aqueous solution in the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> under UV light irradiation. For example, azo-dyes like alizarin S, crocein orange G, methyl red, congo red and methylene blue have been completely mineralized with TiO<sub>2</sub>/UV in aqueous suspensions [6]. In recent years, titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) based nanocomposite have attracted much attention in photocatalytic applications [7].

Sol–gel processing is one of the most common methods to produce TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites. This process involves the hydrolysis and polycondensation of a precursor (e.g. metal alkoxide) and subsequent formation of the gel, which results in a crystalline network structure after heat treatment. The sol–gel technique provides many advantages over conventional methods such as low processing temperature, homogeneity, possibility of coating on large area substrates, and cost effective [8,9].

Furthermore, incorporating TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles as nanofillers into titanium alkoxide solution to form nanocomposite film has been proved to be a promising technique to prepare TiO<sub>2</sub> coatings for photocatalytic applications such as water and air purification as well as dye sensitized solar cells [10–14]. The relationship of TiO<sub>2</sub> particles with TiO<sub>2</sub> formed from a sol precursor via hydrolysis/condensation and crystallization process was in fact a host–guest relationship in the composite films. The advantage of using this technique for the preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> films is that the high purity commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles can be well glued by the presence of sol–gel derived TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix [12,15,16].

In this study, we employed commercial titania nanoparticles, MT-150A, and incorporated them into a TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix prepared from a titanium alkoxide precursor sol. Titania powder modified films were produced using a dip coating sol–gel process. Then, hydrophilicity, photocatalytic and self cleaning properties of nanocomposite films were investigated.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Nanocomposite film preparation

First, a TiO<sub>2</sub> precursor sol was prepared as following: acetyl acetone (0.57 mol) and titanium tetraisopropoxide (1 mol) were

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dissolved in order in 1-butanol (12 mol) to form solution A; a mixture of deionized water (2 mol) and 1-butanol (8 mol) was obtained as solution B. Solution B was then added to solution A dropwise under stirring. The resulting sol was then aged for 12 h. Acetyl acetone was added to slow the speed of hydrolysis and condensation reactions and form a stable sol.

For the synthesis of titania nanoparticles modified films, TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A, TAYCA, nanoparticles with 0, 10, 30, 50 and 70 g/L were added slowly in TiO<sub>2</sub> sol under vigorous stirring to avoid the formation of larger titania agglomerates in the sol. To obtain a homogeneous distribution, the solution was stirred at room temperature for 12 h. A white and viscous solution was obtained. The films were obtained by a dip coating method and withdrawn at the speed of 5.33 cm/min. The films were air dried for 2 h, and then were heat-treated at 500 °C for 1 h in air (heating rate 10 °C/min). This procedure was carried out five times. Before coating, glass substrates were ultrasonically cleaned in acetone and ethanol for 15 and 20 min, respectively.

To make photocatalytic comparison, TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A colloidal sol was prepared by ball milling: the TiO<sub>2</sub> paste solution was prepared by dissolving of TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A powder (0.5 g) in water (4.5 mL) and surfactant (POIZ, 50 mg). To prepare paste solution and to avoid the formation of larger titania agglomerates in the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol, ZrO<sub>2</sub> balls (5 g) were introduced in the solution which was milled for 3 h (500 rpm). After that, ZrO<sub>2</sub> balls were removed from the solution and the volume of paste solution was increased to 100 mL using deionized water. Then, the film was deposited on the glass substrate according to the method mentioned above.

## 2.2. Film characterization

The crystal phase composition of titania powder modified films and their TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix (without MT-150A) were determined by XRD (Philips powder diffractometer, Cu K $\alpha$  radiation). The surface chemical state of the films was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, JEOL) using Mg K $\alpha$  source (1253.6 eV). The X-ray source was operated at 10 kV for a current of 10 mA. Spectra were calibrated with respect to the C1s peak at 284.6 eV [17].

The specific surface area and morphology of the TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A nanoparticles were evaluated by the BET method and Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FE-SEM; JEOL).

The hydrophilicity of the films was evaluated by measuring the contact angle of a water droplet on the film surfaces. A droplet was injected on to the surface using a 1  $\mu$ L micro-injector (Kyowa Interface Science, Drop Master 500). The water contact angle was averaged from five measurements. UV–Vis was irradiated to the surface of the samples by Xe lamp (power 300 W, wavelength 300–500 nm). In the part of water contact angle measurements, samples were stored in a drying oven at 100 °C for at least 12 h before use. In addition, the hydrophilic–hydrophobic conversion of films after storage in a dark place was investigated.

The photocatalytic activities of films under UV irradiation were evaluated by the decoloring rate of methyl orange

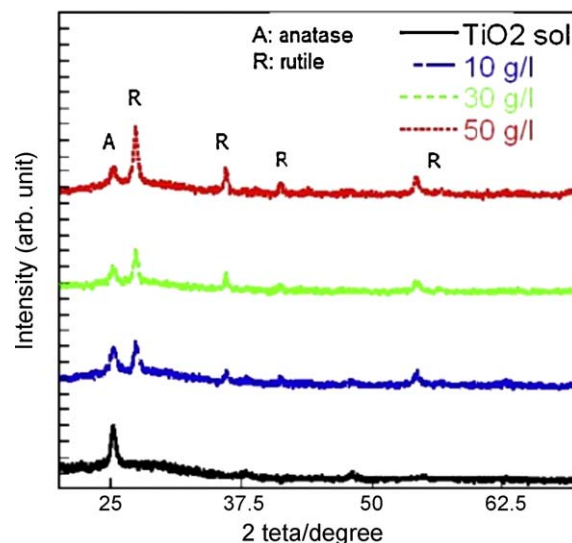


Fig. 1. X-ray diffraction patterns of film samples.

(C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>14</sub>N<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>Na). Methyl orange was also used as a model organic compound to measure the photoreactivity in other studies [18,19].

One sample of film (surface area 6 cm<sup>2</sup>) was horizontally placed at the bottom of the testing cell containing 25 mL (2  $\times$  10<sup>−5</sup> M) methyl orange solution. The solution was irradiated with 300 W ultraviolet light. The distance between the sample and irradiation source was 8 cm. After irradiation, the light absorbance of methyl orange solution was measured using a UV–vis spectrophotometer at 464 nm, which is the maximum absorption of methyl orange [20]. Then, the decoloring rate of methyl orange, was used to quantify the photocatalytic activities of thin films, and calculated using following equation: [21]

$$\eta = \frac{A_0 - A}{A_0} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where  $A_0$  is the light absorbance of methyl orange before the irradiation (absorption equilibrium in the dark place for 30 min) and  $A$  is the light absorbance of methyl orange after the irradiation (see Fig. 1).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Crystalline structure

The XRD patterns of the nanocomposite film samples are shown in Fig. 2.

From the XRD pattern, the percentage of anatase phase can be calculated using Eq. (2):

$$\% \text{ of anatase phase} = \frac{100}{1 + (I_R/0.79I_A)} \quad (2)$$

where  $I_A$  and  $I_R$  are the strongest intensities of anatase phase along the (1 0 1) plane and rutile phase along (1 1 0), [21]. The

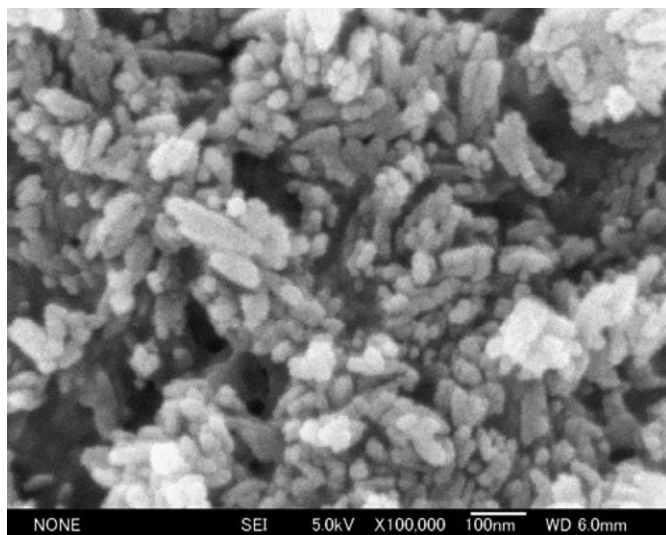


Fig. 2. FE-SEM image of TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A nanoparticles.

Table 1  
Effect of titania loading on crystal percent and crystal size of nanocomposite films.

Sample	%anatase	%rutile	Anatase size (nm)
TiO <sub>2</sub> matrix	100	0	16
10 g/L	43	57	13.4
30 g/L	32	68	12.6
50 g/L	27	73	11.5

percentages of anatase phase in TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix and composite sol–gel modified TiO<sub>2</sub> films are summarized in Table 1.

The average crystallite size of the anatase phase of films was calculated from the Scherrer equation [22], using the (1 0 1) peak:

$$t = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos\theta} \quad (3)$$

where  $t$  is the grain size,  $K$  is a constant (0.9),  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of X-ray (Cu K $\alpha$ ),  $\beta$  is the half-peak width, and  $\theta$  is the diffraction angle in degree.

In the nanocomposite film samples, with the addition of MT-150A nanoparticles, the XRD peak gradually becomes broader. It means that the crystalline size of TiO<sub>2</sub> becomes smaller with the addition of additives. In the composite film, the size of TiO<sub>2</sub> crystallites was smaller than in the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> (Table 1). Moreover, Yu et al. [23] indicated that increase of additives to titania hindered the crystal growth of TiO<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.2. TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A nanoparticles

The specific surface area of the TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A nanoparticles, evaluated by the BET method, was 101.84 m<sup>2</sup>/g. Fig. 3 shows a FE-SEM image of TiO<sub>2</sub> MT-150A particles. It can be derived that the average size of particles is in the range of 10–20 nm.

### 3.3. XPS studies

Fig. 3 shows XPS scan spectra for 10 g/L nanocomposite film. The surface chemical state of the films was analyzed by high resolution XPS. Fig. 3b shows the Ti 2p XPS spectra of the 10 g/L composite film. The binding energies of Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> were observed at 458.2 and 463.9 eV, respectively, with a separation of 5.7 eV between the two peaks. This is a typical characteristic of the Ti<sup>4+</sup> state in TiO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the Ti 2p XPS peak is sharp and strong, indicating that the Ti element exists mainly as the chemical state of Ti<sup>4+</sup> in the films [24,25]. Therefore, an XPS spectrum confirmed that the film contains only titania.

### 3.4. Photocatalytic activity

The photocatalytic activities of films were characterized by the degradation of methyl orange. The methyl orange degradation rate after 3 h irradiation in the presence of nanocomposite films is shown in Fig. 4, showing 10 g/L nanocomposite film to have the highest photocatalytic activity. The results reveal that the photocatalytic performance of TiO<sub>2</sub> can be improved by the formation of nanocomposite films.

TiO<sub>2</sub> is a semiconductor with band gap energy of 3.2 eV. When titanium oxide is irradiated with UV light ( $\lambda < 380$  nm),

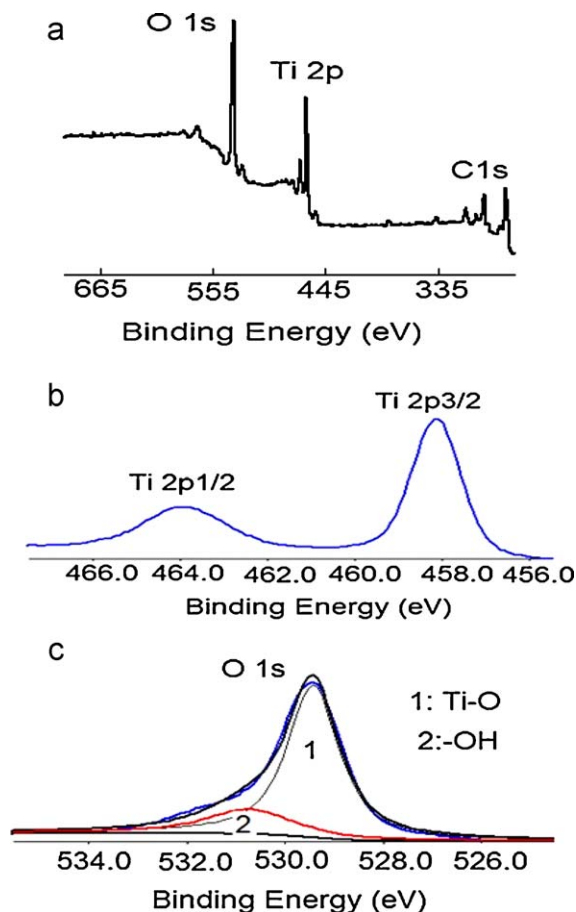


Fig. 3. XPS spectra of 10 g/L nanocomposite film (a) wide scan and (b) high-resolution spectra of Ti 2p and (c) O1s.

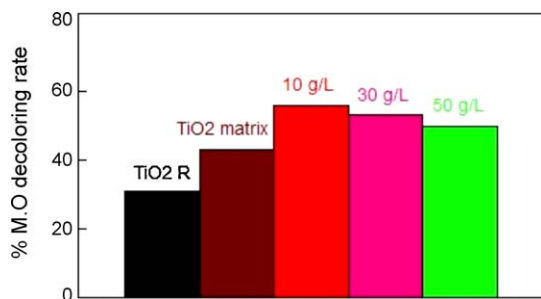
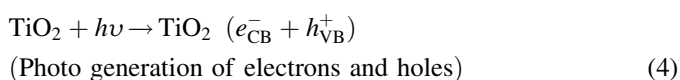


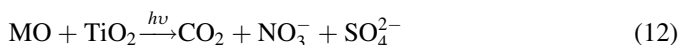
Fig. 4. Methyl orange decoloring rate.

the electrons and holes are produced in conduction band and valence band, respectively as for:



These photo electron–hole pairs have an oxidizing potential which is sufficient to oxidize most pollutants present in aqueous systems. The photogenerated electrons react with molecular oxygen ( $\text{O}_2$ ) to produce superoxide radical anions ( $\text{O}_2^-$ ), and photogenerated holes react with water to produce hydroxyl radicals. These highly reactive species are able to decompose a variety of organic compounds [26,27].

Based on [28], the photodegradation reaction of methyl orange (MO) on the nanocomposite  $\text{TiO}_2$  film surface can be written as follow:



Wholly, the photoactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  depends on several parameters such as surface hydroxyl group density, crystalline structure, recombination rate of electron–hole pairs. Crystalline structure has a significant effect on the photocatalytic efficiency of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . These results confirmed the effect of crystalline phase on the photoreactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Many researchers confirmed that the anatase phase has higher photoreactivity than the rutile phase [29]. This difference can be related to oxidation and reduction potential of photo generated holes and electrons in the conduction and valence bands in the anatase and rutile phase. In addition, it is believed that a combination of anatase and rutile has a higher photoreactivity than anatase or rutile alone [30–32]. Therefore, nanocomposite film with a higher fraction of anatase phase has higher photoactivity.

In addition, it is well accepted that hydroxyl groups have a significant effect on the photoreactivity of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . XPS is one of the most useful methods to measure hydroxyl group content on the film surfaces. The O 1s XPS spectrum of 10 g/L nanocomposite film is displayed in Fig. 3c. In the literature, the O 1s peak is often believed to be composed of 3–5 different oxygen species, such as Ti–O bonds in  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_3$ , hydroxyl groups, C–O bonds, and adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  [33].

To get reliable data and statistics, the O 1s peak will be modeled with two pseudo-Voigt functions with peak 1 in Fig. 3c, related to lattice oxygen in  $\text{TiO}_2$  and with peak 2

Table 2

Fit parameters for the O 1s peak.

	MT-150A	TiO <sub>2</sub> matrix	10 g/L
Area 1	3903.192	3390.751	2972.1
Area 2	618.1	690.85	1089.35
$E_{\text{K1}}$ (eV)	528.7	529.68	529.50
Hydroxyl content (%)	13.67	16.9	26.82

corresponding to surface oxygen, in the form of OH in Ti–OH (surface hydroxyl group). The hydroxyl content (%) is the ratio of the area of peak 2 to the total area of the two O 1s peaks. In Table 2, the fit parameters for the O 1s peak are shown for MT-150A,  $\text{TiO}_2$  matrix and 10 g/L nanocomposite film. It is the largest for the 10 g/L nanocomposite film and is the smallest for MT-150A. It is noted that the hydroxyl content in the nanocomposite film is higher than that in  $\text{TiO}_2$ , indicating the amount of the hydroxyl group to result from the chemisorption of water molecules on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface enhanced by the formation of nanocomposite film. Although some water is easily adsorbed on the surface of  $\text{TiO}_2$  films during the deposition process, the physically absorbed water on  $\text{TiO}_2$  is easily desorbed under the ultrahigh vacuum condition of the XPS system. Therefore, the XPS spectrum only shows chemisorbed water. It means that the hydroxyl on the surface can be attributed to the Ti–OH group. Hydroxyl groups are important factors in the  $\text{TiO}_2$  because not only they can reduce the recombination of electron–hole pairs but also they have a strong photo-oxidation capability which can improve the photocatalytic activity of the films [34].

Methyl orange is attacked by hydroxyl radicals and generates inorganic radicals or some other intermediates. Eventually methyl orange and intermediate compounds are oxidized into  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ .

The 10 g/L nanocomposite film shows the highest photoactivity due to the highest surface hydroxyl groups and the highest fraction of the anatase phase.

#### 4. Conclusions

MT-150A loading has been shown to have a significant effect on structural properties and photocatalytic activity. The photocatalytic activity can be improved significantly by the formation of nanocomposite films including MT-150A nanoparticles in  $\text{TiO}_2$  sol–gel derived matrix. This can be explained by the change in film structural properties by: (i) a change in the crystalline phases (anatase and rutile), (ii) a decrease in the crystallite size, i.e. increases in the amount of surface active area and (iii) an increase in the hydroxyl group density. It is concluded that the crystal structure and hydroxyl group density of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposite films are two critical factors for photocatalytic activity. Therefore,  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposite sol–gel derived film would possibly be more useful than pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  film in exhibiting photoreactivity for practical applications such as the self cleaning effect in building applications.



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