

Influence of annealing atmosphere on the structural phase changes and optical properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles

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Abstract. In the present work, structural and optical behaviour of sol-gel synthesized TiO₂ and Nitrogen doped TiO₂ (N-doped TiO₂) nanoparticles calcined under air and vacuum atmosphere have been analysed. N-doped TiO₂ samples were synthesized by adding ammonia as nitrogen source and as reducing agent. The molar concentration of Ammonia was fixed at 1 M and 2 M respectively. The incorporation of nitrogen into the TiO₂ samples was verified using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to examine the structural characteristics of air and vacuum-annealed samples, and Scherrer equation was used to determine the average crystallite size. Raman analysis was carried out to understand all the major modes of vibration in the annealed samples. UV-visible spectroscopy was carried to analyse the effect of different atmospheres on the band gap of the samples. Photoluminescence studies were used to understand the presence of defect states in the sample.

1. Introduction

TiO₂ is an indirect wide band gap semiconductor used in numerous applications such as photocatalysis [1, 2], biosensors [3], solar cells [4], pigments [2], antibacterial agent [5], batteries [6], supercapacitors [7], etc. The low cost, non-toxicity, abundance, good chemical stability, excellent oxidation capacity makes them an excellent candidate for research [8]. Anatase TiO₂ is widely exploited as an excellent candidate for photocatalytic applications. However, its use as a photocatalyst is restricted to the near UV region due to the large intrinsic bandgap ~ 3.2 eV [9]. To tune the bandgap to the visible region, several methods have been suggested which include the doping of TiO₂ with d-block transition elements such as Fe, Cu, and non-metals such as C, N, Boron, etc. [10]. Several reports on N-doping using ammonia gas, urea, etc. has been reported. N-doping was found to lower the band gap via the introduction of N-doping centers and a reduced electron-hole recombination rate [10-12].

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In this study, we have used a simple sol-gel route to synthesise N-TiO₂ nanoparticles. Ammonia was used as the nitrogen (N) source. It has been suggested that N-doping could be a useful way to introduce defects into the system and hence could be used to tune properties such as photocatalytic activity [10-12]. In addition, defects could also be introduced by annealing TiO₂ in a controlled environment [13]. Herein, we report the combined effect of N-doping and vacuum annealing on the introduction of defects and tuning the band gap of anatase TiO₂.

2. Experimental details

Pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles have been synthesised using titanium isopropoxide, isopropanol and deionised water as starting materials. Initially stoichiometric amounts of isopropanol and deionised water were mixed and heated. Then titanium isopropoxide was slowly added dropwise with continuous stirring. The precursor solution was then heated for 3 hours. Finally, a white residue was obtained, which was ground using agate mortar and pestle to obtain the precursor. To prepare nitrogen doped TiO₂ (N-TiO₂), a strong reducing agent ammonia was introduced in the solution during the synthesis procedure. Here we have used 1M and 2M solution of ammonia to prepare N-TiO₂ samples. These prepared precursor samples were then divided into two batches. The first batch was calcined at 400 °C for 4 hours in a muffle furnace in air to get Pristine TiO₂ labelled as TP0, and 1M and 2M N-TiO₂ samples represented as TP1 and TP2 respectively. The second batch was calcined under vacuum atmosphere in a tubular furnace at the same temperature and were labelled as TPV0, TPV1 and TPV2 respectively. Powder samples were subjected to X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) utilising Al-K α X-rays with an energy of 1486.6 eV using a Thermo Scientific ESCALAB Xi+ equipment. Initially, a wide scan was recorded to ensure that the sample surface was free of any foreign materials. The elemental oxidation states were further confirmed using the high-resolution XPS scan of Ti 2p, N 1s and O 1s regions. The XPS spectrum was fitted using XPSPEAKfit 4.1 after subtracting the background using Shirley method. The C 1s peak at 284.8 eV was used to calibrate the measured binding energy. The X-ray diffraction pattern of each sample was recorded using a PHILIPS X'PERT PRO powder diffractometer employing Cu-K α ($\lambda=1.54060$ Å) radiation. The diffraction profiles were scanned over the range 20° to 80° with a step of 0.017°. Raman spectra in the range 100-800 cm⁻¹ were recorded using a Horiba LabRAM HR Evolution spectrometer equipped with lasers of wavelength 532 and 785 nm. UV-visible absorbance spectra of TiO₂ were recorded using Jasco V650 spectrophotometer in the range 200 to 900 nm and band gap was estimated using Tauc's Plot. An Edinburgh FLS 1000 spectrometer, with an excitation wavelength of 325 nm from a 150 W xenon lamp was used to analyse photoluminescence (PL).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. XPS Analysis

XPS, a surface-sensitive method, yields insights into the chemical environment of the ionic species located on the sample surface. As a representative of the series, the survey spectra of TP0, TP1 and TPV1 are shown in Fig.1(a-c). High-resolution spectra of selected samples were taken and are shown in Fig.2 (a-f) respectively. The Ti 2p spectra of TP0 sample has only a single peak corresponding to Ti⁴⁺ as shown in Fig.2(a). Interestingly, TP1 sample exhibit a multiple oxidation state of Ti⁴⁺ and Ti³⁺. The formation of Ti³⁺ is ascribed to the introduction of N into the TiO₂ lattice. The O 1s high resolution spectra of TP1 is deconvoluted into three peaks corresponding to lattice oxygen of TiO₂ (O_l), oxygen vacancy

(O_V) and hydroxyl group (-OH) oxygen, respectively and is presented in Fig 2(c). The band gap narrowing discussed in the next section could be attributed to the presence of mixed oxidation states. Due to introduction of N into the lattice, O_V have been created due to the formation of Ti^{3+} , which introduced intermediate energy levels in the bandgap, contributing to the band gap narrowing. Hence, in TP1 sample, both O_V and Ti^{3+} contribute to band gap reduction via creating additional energy levels. N 1s binding energy peak at 399.54 eV for TP1 sample confirms the introduction of N into the lattice as shown in Fig 2(d). The peak at 403.37 eV of N 1s can be represented as satellite peak. The increase in lattice parameter could be ascribed to the introduction of O_V into the lattice upon introducing a strong reducing agent such as ammonia.

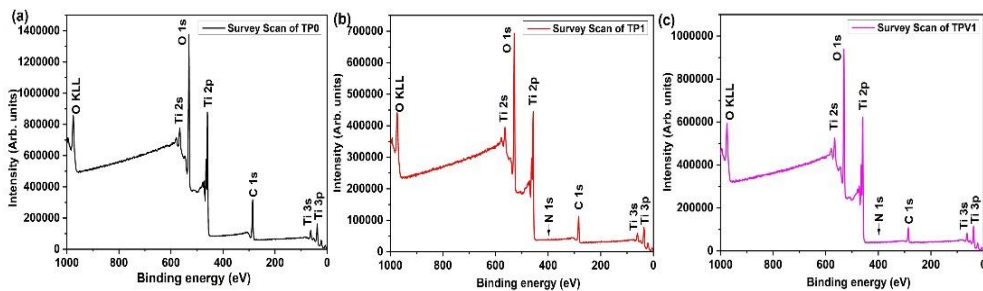


Fig. 1. Survey scans of (a) TP0, (b) TP1 and (c) TPV1

Upon vacuum annealing, a broadening of Ti 2p peak could be seen in TPV1 sample as shown in Fig 2(e). Upon deconvolution of peaks, it could be seen that the amount of Ti^{3+} has increased in comparison to TP1 sample. Also, in the O 1s spectra, the presence of O_V has increased as shown in Fig 2(f) as compared to TP1 sample. The increase in O_V and Ti^{3+} is due to the combined effect of N-doping and vacuum annealing. Thus, it could be affirmed with previous reports that N-doping and vacuum annealing creates defects into the system and could influence the structural and optical behaviour of TiO_2 [13].

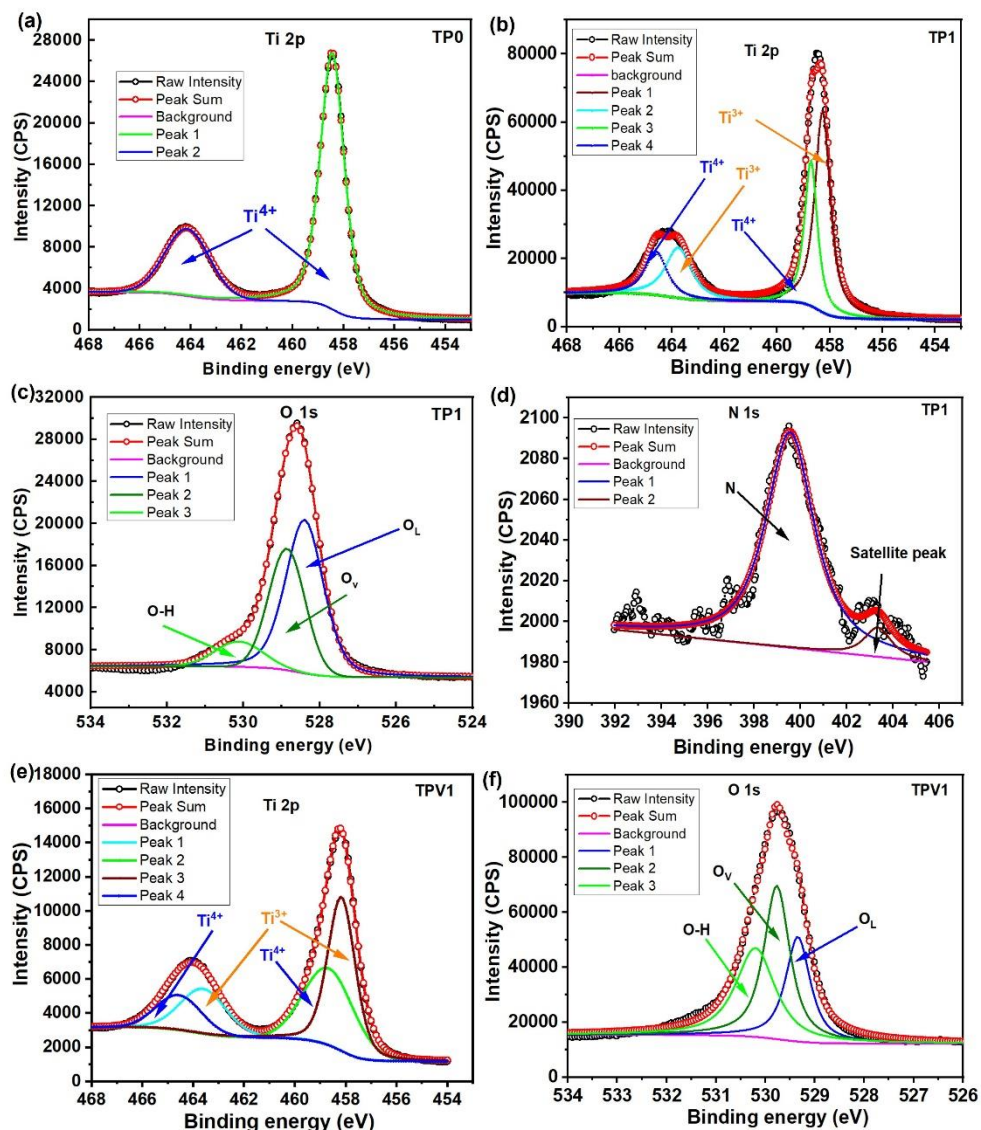


Fig. 2. High Resolution scan of (a) Ti 2p in TP0, (b) Ti 2p in TP1, (c) O 1s in TP1, (d) N 1s in TP1, (e) Ti 2p in TPV1 and (f) O 1s in TPV1.

3.2. Structural studies

3.2.1. XRD Analysis

Fig. 3 (a and b) shows the indexed XRD patterns of air and vacuum annealed samples respectively. All the samples crystallise into the anatase phase of TiO₂ with tetragonal structure having space group I41/amd and all the peaks could be well indexed with ICDD 78-2486. In TP0, the peak at 31.5° corresponds to the (110) plane of the rutile phase. It could be seen that with the increase in the molar concentration of Ammonia, the rutile phase has been suppressed and only anatase phase is seen in TP1 and TP2. A similar trend is also observed for vacuum annealed samples TPV0, TPV1 and TPV2 as seen in Fig 3(b).

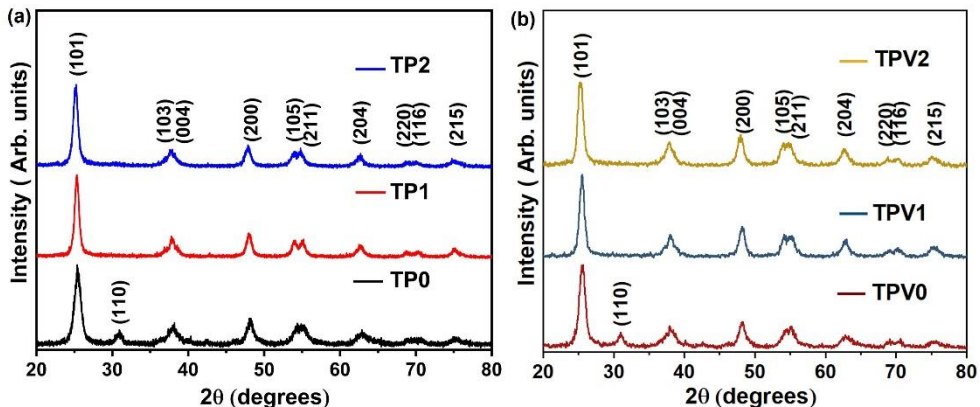


Fig.3. XRD patterns of (a) Air annealed samples (b) Vacuum annealed samples

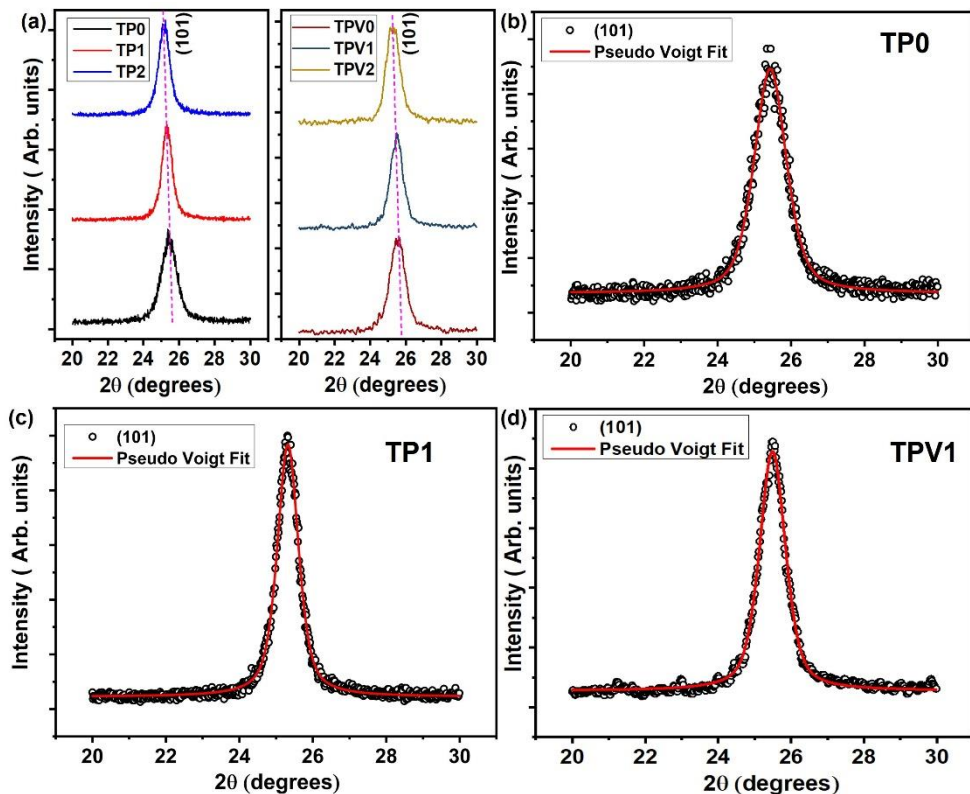


Fig. 4 (a) Peak shift corresponding to air and vacuum annealed samples (b-d) Curve fitting of (101) peak of TP0, TP1 and TPV1.

Fig. 4(a) shows the peak shift for (101) plane of air and vacuum annealed samples. The N-TiO₂ samples TP1 and TP2, exhibit a blue shift compared to the pristine sample TP0. As the doping percentage increases, Bragg angle θ become smaller. Consequently, when $\sin\theta$ decreases, the interplanar spacing, d increases. The increase in d spacing affirms the incorporation of N into the lattice, thereby leading to increase in lattice parameters. In vacuum annealed samples, a similar blue shift corresponding to air annealed samples has been

observed as seen in Fig 4 (a). Fig 4(b-d) shows the curve fitting to the (101) peak of TP0, TP1 and TPV1 respectively. However, with vacuum annealing, broadening of peaks has been observed which is attributed to a smaller crystallite size. The crystallite size has been estimated from Scherrer equation

$$t = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

where t is the size of a crystallite, K is a constant that depends on crystallite size and is taken as 0.9, λ is the wavelength of X-rays used (1.5060 Å), θ is the Bragg diffraction angle and β is termed as the full width at half maximum (FWHM). The parameters obtained from the curve fitting of the XRD peaks is tabulated in Table 1. The values of lattice parameters estimated and the crystallite size deduced from Scherrer equation has been tabulated in Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Table 1. Interplanar spacing for air and vacuum annealed samples

Sample	Plane (h k l)	2 θ (in degrees)	d- spacing (Å)	Sample	Plane (h k l)	2 θ (in degrees)	d- spacing (Å)
TP0	(101)	25.4337	3.5010	TPV0	(101)	25.4124	3.5030
	(200)	48.1872	1.8878		(200)	48.0192	1.8932
	(105)	53.9857	1.6980		(105)	53.7320	1.7046
	(211)	55.0679	1.6672		(211)	55.0324	1.6677
TP1	(101)	25.3226	3.5161	TPV1	(101)	25.3102	3.5172
	(200)	48.0325	1.8935		(200)	48.0008	1.8938
	(105)	53.9845	1.6980		(105)	53.7256	1.7048
	(211)	55.0628	1.6672		(211)	55.0314	1.6674
TP2	(101)	25.1637	3.5380	TPV2	(101)	25.0567	3.5511
	(200)	47.8744	1.8994		(200)	47.5678	1.9101
	(105)	53.8721	1.7013		(105)	53.5673	1.7094
	(211)	54.8488	1.6733		(211)	54.5463	1.6810

Table 2. Lattice parameters estimated for air and vacuum annealed samples

Sample	a (Å)	c (Å)	Sample	a (Å)	c (Å)
TP0	3.7757	9.3500	TPV0	3.7762	9.3502
TP1	3.7871	9.4649	TPV1	3.7885	9.4656
TP2	3.7989	9.7138	TPV2	3.7992	9.7140

Table 3. Determination of average crystallite size using Scherrer equation for air and vacuum annealed samples

Sample	Plane	β	θ (degree)	Crystallite size (nm)	Average crystallite size (nm)
TP0	(101)	1.0443	12.7169	7.8026	9.4495
	(200)	1.0499	24.094	8.2915	
	(105)	0.7686	26.9926	11.6038	
	(211)	0.8874	27.5319	10.0991	
TP1	(101)	0.6875	12.6613	11.8498	11.2235
	(200)	0.8078	24.0163	10.7717	
	(105)	0.7459	26.9923	11.9578	
	(211)	0.8687	27.5314	10.3164	
TP2	(101)	0.7476	12.5818	10.8935	11.4354
	(200)	0.8103	23.9372	10.7312	
	(105)	0.7183	26.9361	12.4105	
	(211)	0.7648	27.4244	11.7070	
TPV0	(101)	1.0643	12.7062	7.6554	9.3057
	(200)	1.0549	24.0096	8.2476	
	(105)	0.786	26.866	11.3345	
	(211)	0.8974	27.5162	9.9855	
TPV1	(101)	0.6905	12.6551	11.7973	10.9984
	(200)	0.8182	24.0004	10.6328	
	(105)	0.791	26.8628	11.2626	
	(211)	0.8699	27.5157	10.3011	
TPV2	(101)	0.7546	12.52835	10.7898	11.3972
	(200)	0.8298	23.7839	10.4666	
	(105)	0.7203	26.78365	12.3594	
	(211)	0.7468	27.27315	11.9728	

3.2.2. Raman Analysis

Raman spectroscopy is an extremely powerful tool to understand the material's phase, surface disorder and the presence of deformities or defects. The synthesised samples show six active Raman modes corresponding to anatase TiO₂. The modes have been labelled as E_g (1), B_{1g} (1), A_{1g}, E_g (2), B_{1g} (2) and E_g (3). The E_g, A_{1g} and B_{1g} modes involve symmetric

stretching, anti-symmetric stretching and symmetric bending vibrations of O-Ti-O bonds respectively. The Raman spectra of air and vacuum annealed samples are shown in Fig. 5 (a) and 5(b) respectively. The inset of 5(a) and 5(b) shows the magnified spectra of $E_g(1)$ peak. The $E_g(1)$ mode of air annealed samples exhibit a blue shift together with peak broadening as seen in the inset of Fig. 5 (a). This could be ascribed to the nonstoichiometry in TiO_2 due to the introduction of O_v due to the formation of Ti^{3+} when N is introduced into the TiO_2 lattice [13]. On the contrary, in vacuum annealed samples, no evident peak shift is observed, however broadening of peaks could be seen which is associated with the introduction of O_v both due to N doping and vacuum annealing.

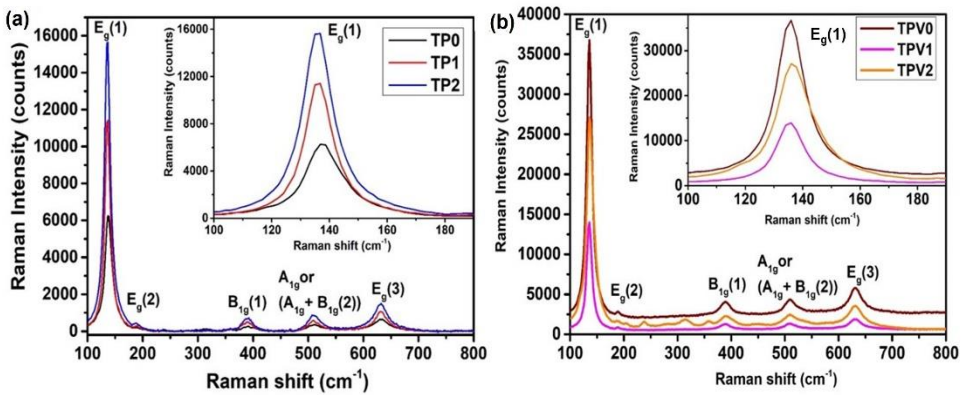


Fig. 5. Raman spectra of (a) Air annealed (b) Vacuum annealed TiO_2 samples. Insets show the shift and broadening of $E_g(1)$ mode.

3.3. Optical studies

3.3.1. UV-visible Analysis

To understand the influence of N-doping and different annealing environment on the band gap of TiO_2 samples, absorbance spectra in the range 200-900 nm were recorded and the band gap was estimated using Tauc's plot. Fig 6 (a) and 6 (c) show the absorbance spectra of air and vacuum annealed samples respectively. The N-doped and vacuum annealed samples display a sharp rise in absorption at ~ 300 -400 nm which is associated with the inherent bandgap absorption of anatase TiO_2 in the UV region. The reported band gap of anatase TiO_2 is 3.2 eV [14-15]. The band gap of air and vacuum annealed samples have been estimated using Tauc's plot and the band gaps of the TP0, TP1 and TP2 were estimated to be 3.32, 3.27 and 3.25 eV, respectively. In vacuum annealed samples, a further decrease in band gap was observed and they were estimated to be 3.30, 3.23 and 3.21 eV for TPV0, TPV1 and TPV2 respectively. The reduction in band gap is due to the formation of O_v both due to N-doping and vacuum annealing leading to the formation of Ti^{3+} centers, which in turn, form additional donor levels in the lattice of TiO_2 [13]. Both O_v and Ti^{3+} generate new energy levels below the conduction band (CB) favouring band gap narrowing.

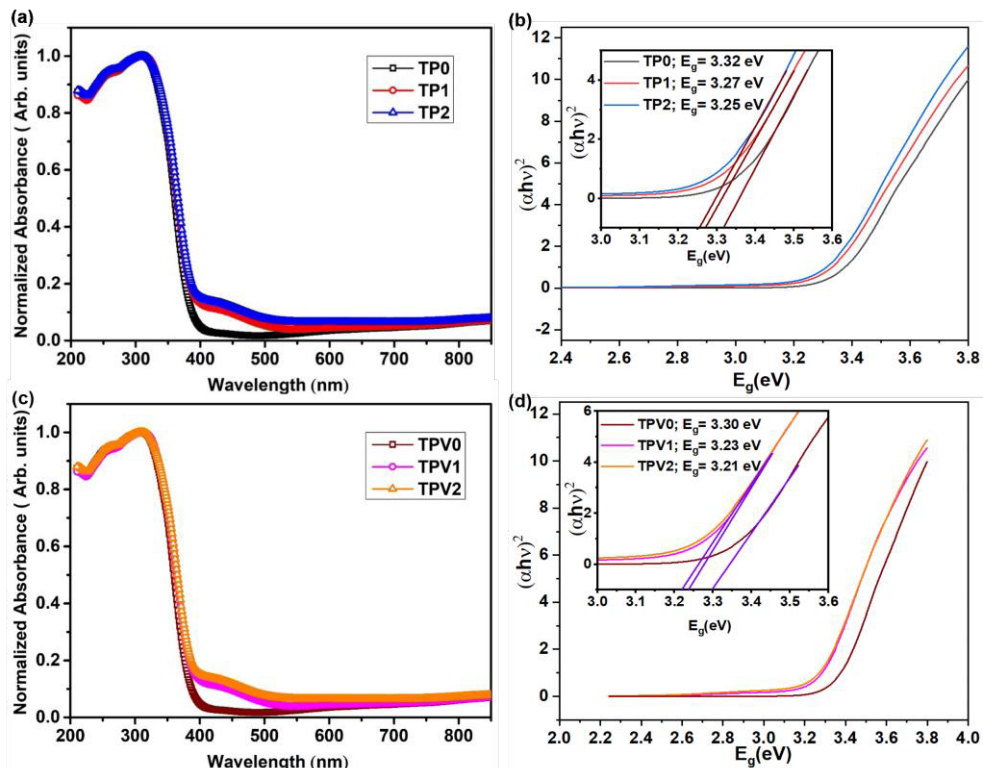


Fig. 6. Normalized Absorbance spectra of (a) Air annealed (c) Vacuum annealed TiO₂ samples, Tauc's plots for (b) Air annealed samples (d) Vacuum annealed samples

3.3.2. Photoluminescence studies

PL spectrum of the air annealed and vacuum annealed samples recorded at an excitation wavelength of 325 nm is displayed in Fig. 7(a) and 7(b) respectively. They provide insights into the radiative and non-radiative recombination pathways of photoexcited electrons via distinct trap levels such as shallow traps (ST) and deep traps (DT). The N-doped air and vacuum annealed samples show sharp emission peaks with slight variations in the PL intensity. The PL spectra shows transitions in the range 350 to 700 nm. The UV emission peak \sim 380 nm corresponds to the inter-band transition of electrons from CB minimum to valence band, positioned at distinct k-points in Brillouin zone [16]. Furthermore, the PL emission peaks are closely linked to the radiative decay of self-trapped excitons (STE) and ST and DT centers connected to oxygen defect centres. Transitions involving ST are responsible for emission peaks in the range 405–468 nm (3.06–2.65 eV), while transitions involving DT are responsible for those in the region 480–590 nm (2.58–2.10 eV). ST levels include STE, O_V, and impurities [15] and act as radiative recombination centers, whereas the DT levels, are specifically formed from oxygen defects and serve as non-radiative recombination sites. The emissions at 363 and 381 nm correspond to STE. STE's are formed when an electron localized at a lattice site traps a hole and gives rise to UV emission. The presence of O_V in the ST and DT levels in the band gap of TiO₂ result in oxygen defect related emissions [17]. ST involve Ti³⁺ states located just below the CB and correspond to blue-green emission. DT levels are associated with oxygen defects associated with O_V and N centers. In air annealed samples, the presence of Ti³⁺ and O_V are less compared to vacuum

annealed samples. Hence, in vacuum annealed samples, more DT centers have been created that act as non-radiative recombination sites resulting in quenching of PL signals. The schematic illustration of excitation and emission process in TiO₂ is shown in Fig 8.

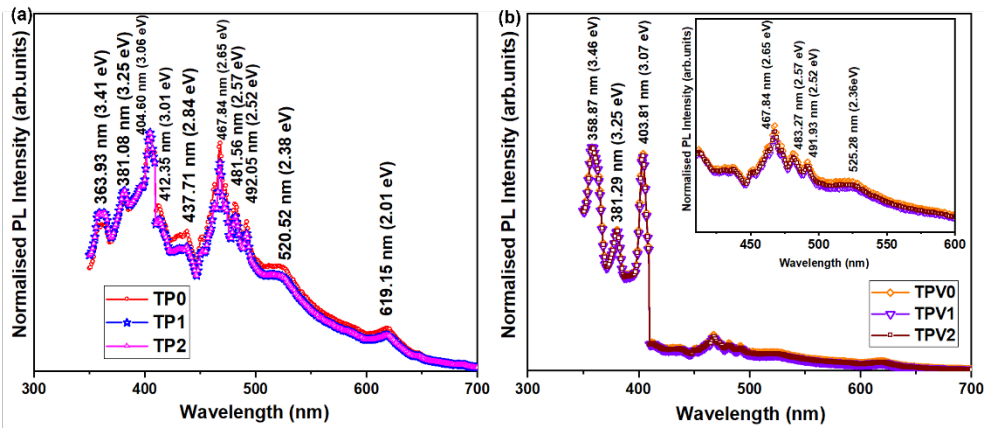


Fig.7. PL spectra of (a) Air annealed and (b) Vacuum annealed TiO₂ samples

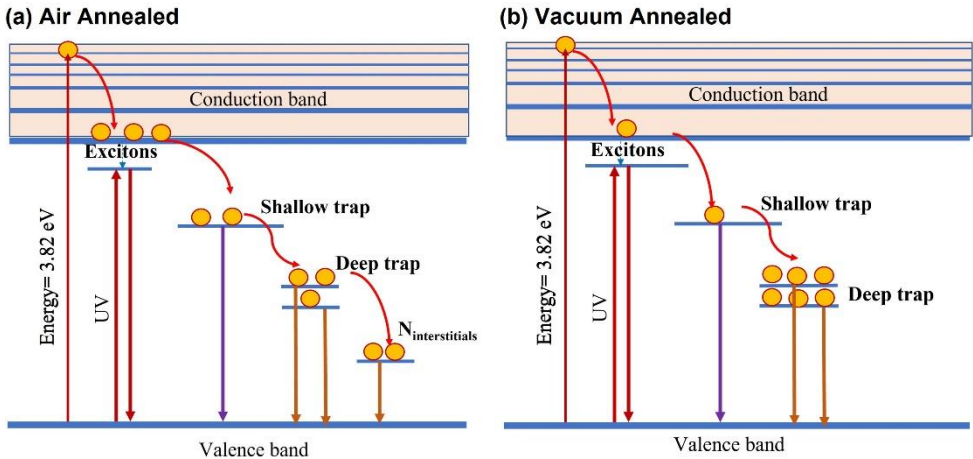


Fig.8. Schematic representation of plausible PL emission mechanism in (a) Air annealed and (b) Vacuum annealed TiO₂ samples

4. Conclusion

In the present work, pristine TiO₂ and N-doped TiO₂ nano samples have been synthesized through sol-gel route. The samples have been annealed in air and vacuum atmosphere. The XPS analysis of air annealed sample confirms that N has been incorporated into the lattice of TiO₂. Air annealed sample shows both Ti³⁺ and Ti⁴⁺ states, while with vacuum annealing, the percentage of Ti³⁺ and O_V increases. The XRD pattern of the samples were analysed and the phase purity, peak shift, lattice constant and average crystallite size were studied. The average crystallite size was found to be in the range of 9-11 nm for air annealed samples and was found to decrease with vacuum annealing. The UV-spectral studies of the samples reveal narrowing of band gap with increase in the concentration of ammonia. The band gap further reduces with vacuum annealing which is attributed to the formation of O_V and Ti³⁺ centers.

Quenching of PL emission peaks has been observed with vacuum annealing which is attributed to the creation of non-radiative deep trap levels in comparison to shallow trap levels. Hence, it could be seen that N-doped TiO₂ samples could be used for further applications such as photocatalysis, dilute magnetic semiconductors, etc.

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