

## Chapter 2

### Hydrothermal synthesis and characterization

#### 2.1 Hydrothermal procedure

Hydrothermal synthesis can be defined as reactions occurring under the conditions of high-temperature–high-pressure (above 100°C and 1 atm) in aqueous solutions in a closed system [22]. According to this result, hydrothermal synthesis takes place at elevated temperature ( $>100^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and pressure (greater than atmospheres). It usually relates to water as a catalyst and sometimes as a component of solid phases in the synthesis [20]. Hydrothermal synthesis of  $\text{TiO}_2$  involves self-assembly which is nanofabrication approach by bottom-up self-construction of atoms smaller than a nanometer and autonomously grows into nanostructures [21]. Self-assembly is any spontaneous formation of an organization from individual parts without human intervention, which takes place in liquid phase. Self-assembly is the product of interaction of interfacial forces that reactants undergo chemical change at interface on the surface of solid. The ordered formation is usually the result of equilibrium state (influenced by appropriate environment or hydrothermal condition), which individual parts keep equal distance to each other, not a random aggregation [22]. Crystallization routes have been explored that concern the use of pattern and electrostatic interactions that assist self-organization of crystalline into desired geometries. Therefore, bottom-up architectures of nanostructures need to govern over the nucleation and assembly of first precipitates. Rutile structure rises from oriented assembly of  $\text{Ti(IV)-butoxide}$  (TBO) precursor [21].

Hydrothermal method is preferential compared to other techniques. For the system involved high pressure in autoclave, then a single crystal and polycrystalline can be produced at low temperature ( $<250^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), which do not require a sintering process at high temperature. Furthermore, the equipment and methodologies are simple and proper for low cost manufacturing [4, 19]. In this work,  $\text{TiO}_2$  NRs will be prepared via the hydrothermal method on FTO substrate assisted by  $\text{TiO}_2$  seed layer. However, the characteristics of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NRs depend not only on the seed layer but are also influence by hydrothermal parameters such as precursor concentration (Titanium (IV) butoxide) and

synthesis time. This process can vastly influence the crystallinity and growth orientation of TiO<sub>2</sub> films.

## 2.2 Material characterization

### 2.2.1 Crystal structure of TiO<sub>2</sub>

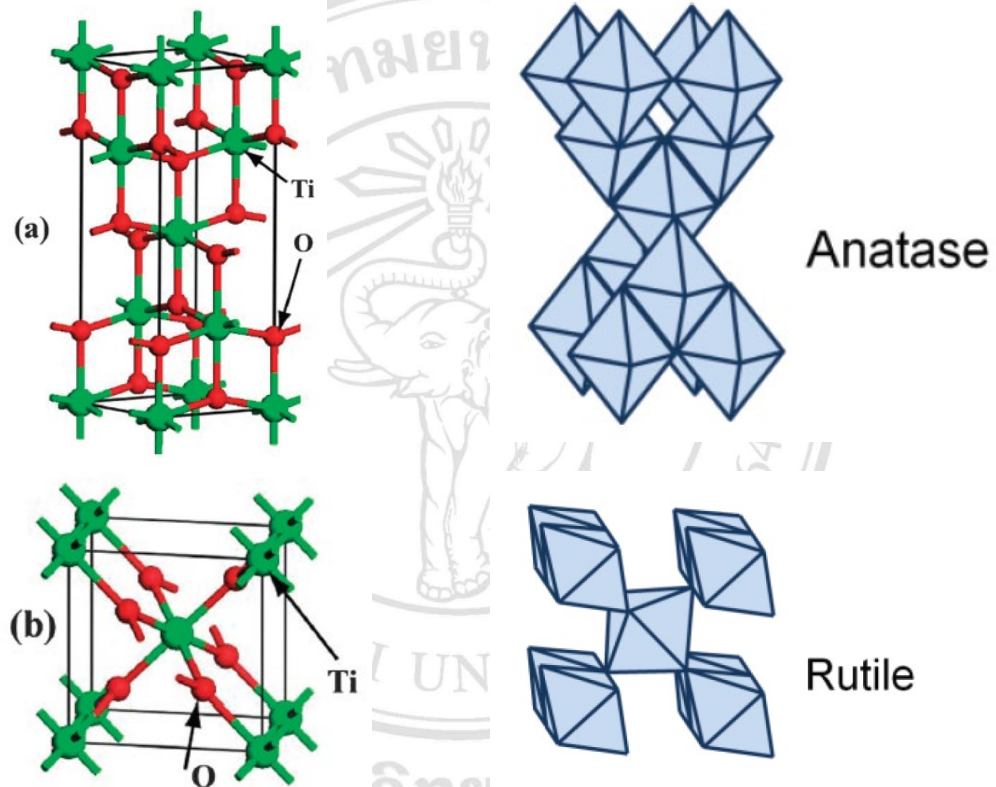
Structural information of compounds can be identified by x-ray diffraction (XRD) technique. The XRD analysis provides information of crystalline material in range of unit cell dimensions. X-rays are form of electromagnetic radiation with a short wavelength. X-rays are used to produce the diffraction pattern because their wavelength  $\lambda$  (0.01-10 nm) is small as the spacing  $d$  between planes in the crystal [23]. X-ray reflection pattern is characteristic form of individual material. When an incoming X-ray beam strikes an atom, the electrons around the atom begin to oscillate with the same frequency as the x-ray beam. The incoming beam travels in almost all directions resulting in destructive wave combination. Hence, there is no energy releasing from the solid sample. However, the atoms in a crystal are aligned in an ordered orientation, x-ray beams pierce through the sample at difference directions. Thus, a diffracted beam can be considered as interference of a large number of scattered [24]. Bragg's law represents the relation between lattice spacing ( $d$ -spacing) and x-ray wave length as Eq. (2.1). The determination of plane spacing ( $d$ -spacing) can be accomplished by Bragg's law as;

$$2d \sin \theta = n\lambda, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\lambda$  is wavelength of the X-ray,  $\theta$  is scattering angle,  $n$  is a positive representing the order of the diffraction peak, and  $d$  is inter-plane distance of atoms.

The physical properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> are significantly dependent on the crystal structure. At ambient condition, TiO<sub>2</sub> has two dominant phases as rutile and anatase. Both structures are tetragonal lattice that constructs from octahedral building blocks consisting of chains of TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedra. Ti<sup>4+</sup> ion is surrounded by an octahedron of six O<sup>2-</sup> ions. The two crystalline forms both anatase and rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> consist of TiO<sub>6</sub><sup>2-</sup> octahedral. In the rutile phase, two opposite edges of each octahedron link at a corner of

oxygen atom, forming linear chains of octahedral at corner. On the other hand, anatase has no corner sharing but shows four edges shared per octahedron (faces sharing). The anatase structure consists of zigzag chains of  $\text{TiO}_6^{2-}$  octahedral links to each other with edge-sharing bonding. Because anatase has more edge sharing, the internal spaces between octahedra are larger (as in Figure 2.1) resulting in less density packing than rutile [25-27].



**Figure 2.1** Molecular structures of  $\text{TiO}_2$  (a) rutile and anatase (b) [28, 29]

### 2.2.2 Energy band of $\text{TiO}_2$

In quantum mechanical system, energy of electrons in an atom is discrete energy level or quantized energy level. Electrons always travel around nuclei all the time so determination of electron position can specify by electron probability density. If all atoms are isolated, the electron energy will separate from each other by a large distance. When the atoms get closer, wave functions of outer electrons start to overlap to each other's. Therefore, electron probability density interacts with the neighboring atoms resulting in electron energy level (which is quantized for single atoms) splitting

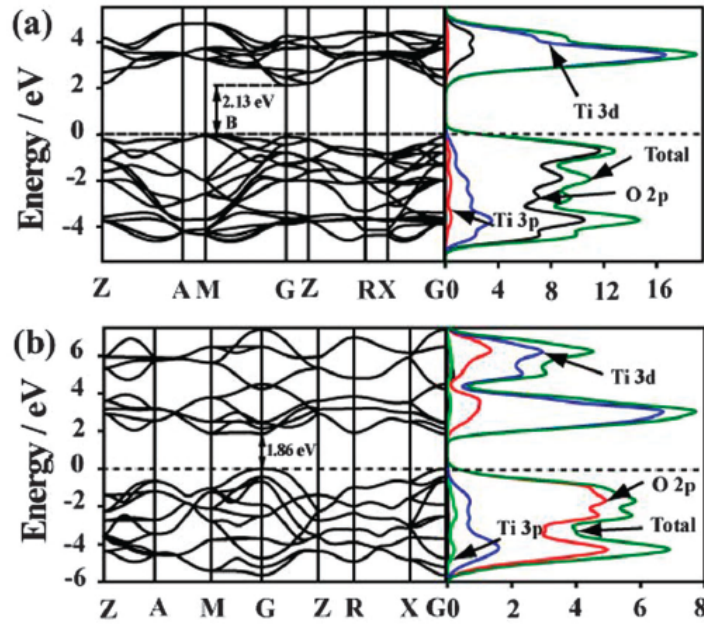
out to be several energy levels. Regarding to Pauli Exclusion Principle, electrons cannot occupy the same quantum state within a quantum system, thereby electrons have different quantum states by separation of electron energy level. The small states occur called energy band consisting of allowed band which electrons can occupy and forbidden band. This model used to describe conductivity in semiconductor. For semiconductor at 0 K, the high allowed band usually free of electrons which is the empty state named conduction band (CB) and the low band that fill of electrons (filled state) is valance band (VB). The different between the lowest CB and highest VB is forbidden band or energy gap ( $E_g$ ). The filled state (VB) cannot conduct electricity because electron cannot transfer.

For high temperature or activation of light, energy at least equal to  $E_g$  can promote electrons to change state from VB to CB and left hole at VB. Movement of electron in CB and hole in VB induced electric current in semiconductor [30]. Hence, semiconductor requires photon energy more than its  $E_g$  to create one electron-hole pair as follows:

$$E_g = h\nu, \quad (2.2)$$

where  $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}$  is the Planck constant and  $\nu$  is frequency of photon.

The crystal structures, band structures, density of states (DOS) of anatase and rutile  $\text{TiO}_2$  were calculated by first-principles density functional theory (DFT). The results demonstrate that both of  $\text{TiO}_2$  valence bands comprise of O 2p states and a few Ti 3d states. The strong p-d hybridizations between O 2p and Ti 3d states which establish bonding states in the valence band contribute to transfer of photoexcited holes. Moreover, the conduction bands mainly consist of Ti 3d states with a few O 2p and Ti 3p states and the present of strong hybridization exists between Ti 3d and O 2p as shown in Figure 2.2 [28]



**Figure 2.2** The DOS and band structures of anatase (a) and rutile (b) TiO<sub>2</sub> with Fermi level shown by a dashed line [28]

The energy band structures of anatase and rutile were calculated by DFT. Band gap energies were observed between the conduction band minimum (CBM) and the valence band maximum (VBM). Anatase exhibits an indirect band gap of 2.13 eV and rutile is a direct band gap semiconductor with 1.86 eV band gaps. Although both methods have the same tendency, the calculated values are much smaller compared to the experimental values (3.2 for anatase and 3.0 for rutile) [26]. Since anatase possess the long electron lifetime which is higher than 1  $\mu$ s, more than 10  $\mu$ m electron diffusion length can be observed, which is much longer than those in rutile (100-650 nm), calculated by the electron mobilities of 20 and 0.1 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs in rutile and anatase, consequently. This long diffusion length could raise the light-harvesting efficiencies and photocatalytic reactivity in anatase [5, 29].

To determine the energy band, ultraviolet–visible spectroscopy (UV-VI) can be used. UV-VIS is the measurement of the intensity of light after penetrates through a sample or after reflection from a sample surface. To observe optical properties of material such as the light absorption, a single wavelength or over a continuous spectral range light can be used for measurement. The limits of detection are approximately 170–1100 nm for silicon-based detector. Absorption of ultraviolet spectra contributed to

transfer outer electrons of atoms absorbing photon energy to higher energy state because adsorption of photon can be converted into atoms energy and cause atoms energy change into higher level. The difference of energy change can be examined by measurement of light energy before and after piece through a sample. The absorbed energy is to raise the molecule from the ground state energy  $E_0$  to the higher excited state (energy  $E_1$ ). The difference in energy is given by

$$\Delta E = E_1 - E_0 = h\nu = h \frac{c}{\lambda}, \quad (2.3)$$

where  $h$  = Planck's constant,  $c$  = velocity of light,  $\lambda$  = wavelength of the absorbed radiation and  $\nu$  is frequency of molecule absorbed ultraviolet radiation. Absorption degree of a sample is recorded by a spectrometer at different wavelengths causing plot of absorbance ( $\alpha$ ) in various wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) [31].  $E_g$  can be calculated as follows:

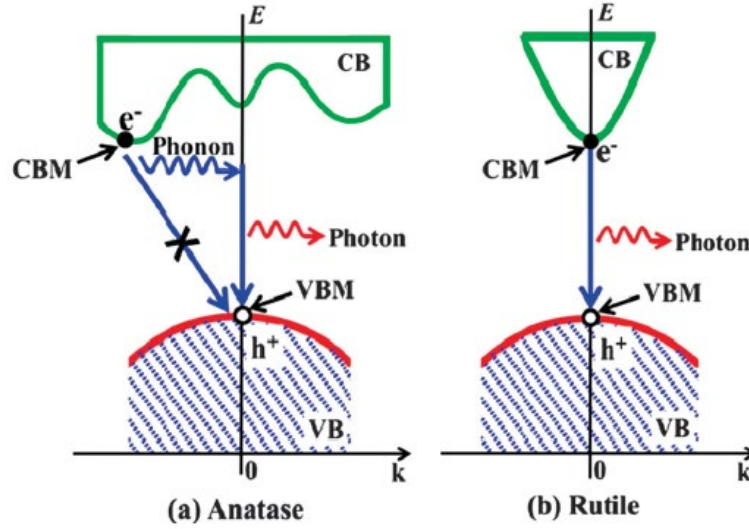
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{d} \ln\left(\frac{1}{T}\right), \quad (2.4)$$

$$\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^n, \quad (2.5)$$

where  $\alpha$  is absorption coefficient,  $d$  is thickness of nanorods,  $T$  is transmission coefficient,  $A$  is a constant, and  $n$  is 1/2 for direct allowed transition (2 for indirect allowed transition).

### 2.3 Charge recombination mechanism

The carrier recombination dynamics in rutile and anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  single crystals were studied by combining time-resolved, transient absorption and photoconductivity measurements. In rutile, the electrons and holes show exponential decays with lifetimes of 24 and 48 ns, respectively. In contrast, anatase illustrates non-exponential decay. Electrons appear in the conduction band for more than a few microseconds, while holes promptly decrease within a few nanoseconds [29].



**Figure 2.3** Recombination processes of photoexcited electrons and holes within indirect gap anatase and direct gap rutile (b) [28]

Carrier recombination occurs when excited electron in conduction band moves backward to recombine with photoexcited hole and emitting energy. Therefore, electron has low energy and returns to valence band. When the electrons come back from the conduction band to the valence band, extra energy will be released as photons. Moreover, the excited electrons must obey the transition selection rule of momentum conservation; referring to the following:

$$E_g = \hbar\omega, \quad (2.6)$$

$$\hbar\mathbf{k}'_e - \hbar\mathbf{k}_e = \pm\hbar\mathbf{q}_{\text{phonon}}, \quad (2.7)$$

where  $\hbar$  is the reduced Planck constant,  $\mathbf{k}'_e$  and  $\mathbf{k}_e$  are the electron wave vectors at the VBM and CBM, respectively,  $\mathbf{q}_{\text{phonon}}$  is the wave vector of the assisted phonon,  $E_g$  is the band gap of semiconductor, and  $\omega$  is angular frequency of the emissive photon.

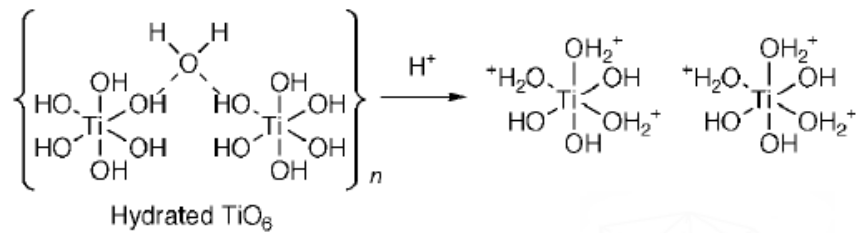
For recombination of rutile, an electron only emits a photon because in the direct band gap semiconductors (CBM and VBM are in the same position). However, in the indirect band gap semiconductors as anatase, excited electron require assistance from phonon to recombine with hole. Hence, the photogenerated electrons cannot recombine with holes readily, resulting in higher excited electron–hole lifetime in anatase compared with rutile [26]. as shown in Figure 2.3 [28].



## 2.4 Growth mechanisms of TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs

Generally, formation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs by hydrothermal procedure is conducted in hydrochloric acid (HCl) diluted with deionized water (DI) and Ti(IV)-butoxide (TBO) applied as a reactant with structure formula  $\text{Ti}(\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_4$ . There is a number of approaches explained growth mechanisms of TiO<sub>2</sub>, which are interesting and beneficial explanation for this research.

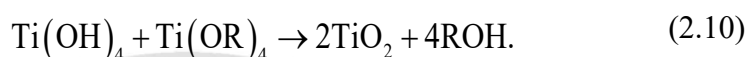
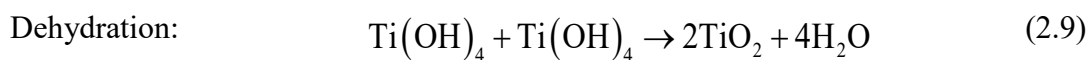
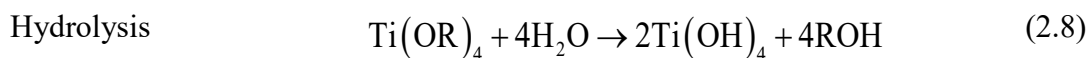
When the four-fold Ti precursor ( $[\text{Ti}(\text{RO})_4]$ ) reacts with water, the coordination number of  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  increases from four (+ 4) to six (+ 6) to accept oxygen lone pairs forming Ti-O bond. These six-fold structural units obtain high pressure and become the octahedra that finally combine into the precipitate crystal. The octahedra agglomeration grows along corner and edge sharing during the condensation reactions. During the particle agglomeration, the acidity of the reaction solution plays a crucial factor for the hydrolysis of  $\text{Ti}(\text{ROH})_4$  in aqueous solution [21]. Under high acidity,  $\text{Ti-OH}^-$  groups receive H from HCl and turn into  $\text{Ti-OH}_2^+$  groups (protonated groups) that easily combine with  $\text{OH}^-$  groups of other  $\text{TiO}_6$  octahedra (Figure 2.4). The hydrogen bond among the protonated nanocrystallines could attribute to aggregation of TiO<sub>2</sub>. To form Ti-O-Ti oxygen bridge bonds, water molecule is eliminated (dehydration) [32]. Rutile phase requires high degree of protonation of the  $\text{TiO}_6$  octahedra to form their favorable dense orientation. That means it desires advanced acid intensity to effective catalyze the hydrolysis and dehydration reaction. Furthermore, the crystal growth must precede through high temperature. Whereas, formation of the anatase phase preferred weak acid conditions because of the lower surface energy of anatase compared with that of rutile. [21]. After dehydration reaction, poor protonation process results in face-sharing anatase phase (Figure 2.5 (a)) while sufficient protonation results in corner and edge sharing (Figure 2.5 (b)).



**Figure 2.4** Formation of the  $\text{TiO}_6$  octahedra from protonation [32]



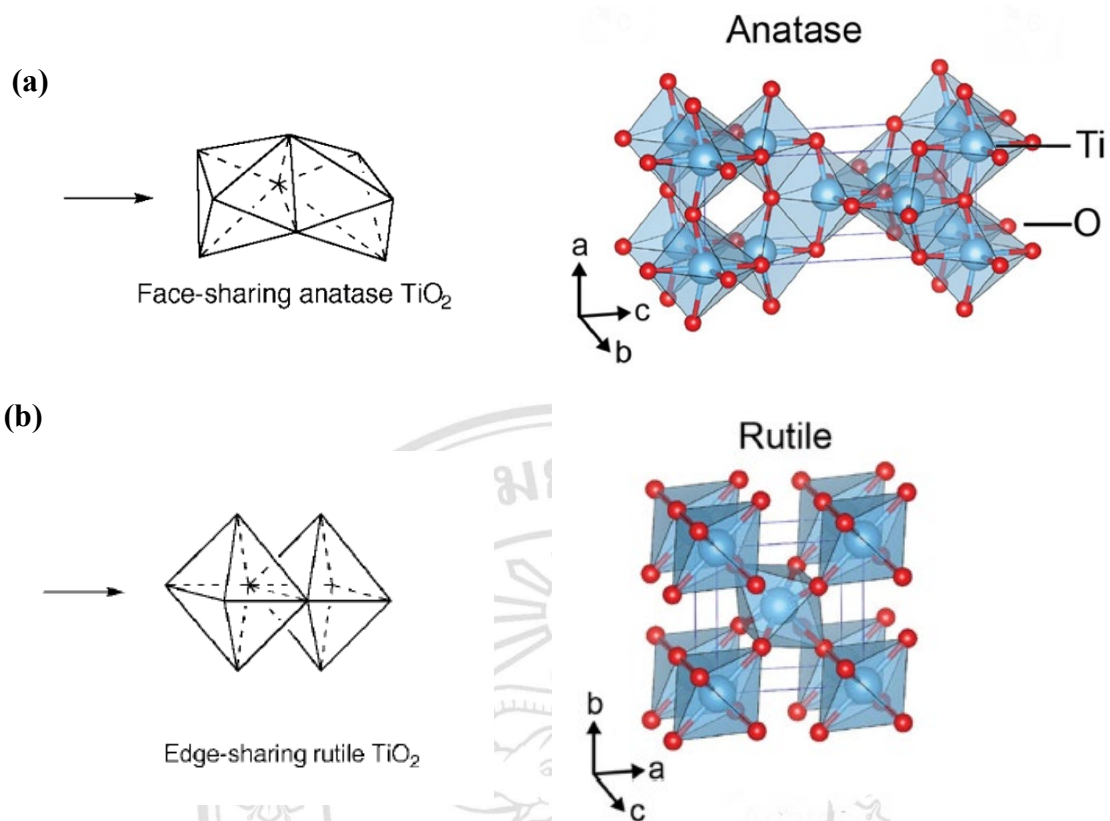
Chemical reaction of hydrolysis process and dehydration (condensation) in hydrothermal synthesis can be written as follows [29]



The entire reaction via the hydrothermal process between TBO precursor and water is [21]



where R is the component of Ti(IV)-butoxide named butyl-group with the general formula  $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9$ . Concentrations of acidity ( $\text{OH}^- / \text{H}^+$  ratio) are crucial for crystal orientation. Recently, the similar hydrothermal approach with the resembling hydrothermal solution using TBO, HCl and DI water, reported that the presence of maximum oxygen in  $\text{TiO}_2$  was observed by XPS. This maximum comes from OH and  $\text{OH}_2$  groups. While the surface hydroxide ions contribute to the 1D growth of single crystalline  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanorods on FTO substrate [33]. Another report indicated that anatase and rutile phase are the results from nanorods synthesis on seed layer by hydrothermal method using 4-5 pH and 1-2 pH synthesis solutions, respectively [19].



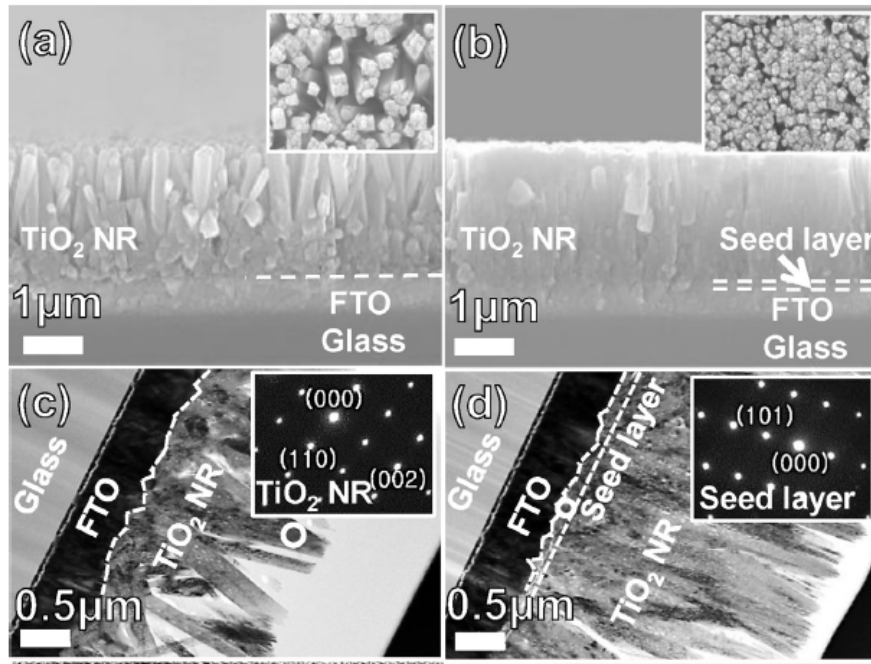
**Figure 2.5** (a) Face-sharing octahedra of anatase (b) and edge-sharing octahedra of rutile [32, 34]

Moreover, other purpose of growth mechanisms showed that Ti rapidly reacts with HCl vapor to produce unstable  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$ , and then  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  is promptly hydrated (acquire water into their structure) and oxidized by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  vapor to form  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  on the substrate [13, 35].  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  is the most stable state because it is able to form an octet and ready to bond with other  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  forming  $\text{TiO}_2$ . These initial nanorods can absorb titanium and oxygen from the medium to develop their growth process [35]. In this study,  $\text{TiO}_2$  NRs will be synthesized with lower amount of HCl in hydrothermal solution compared with previous studies [6, 19]. This usability reduction of HCl not only contributes to decrease harmfulness of high acidity but also decrease the manufacturing cost of NRs synthesis.

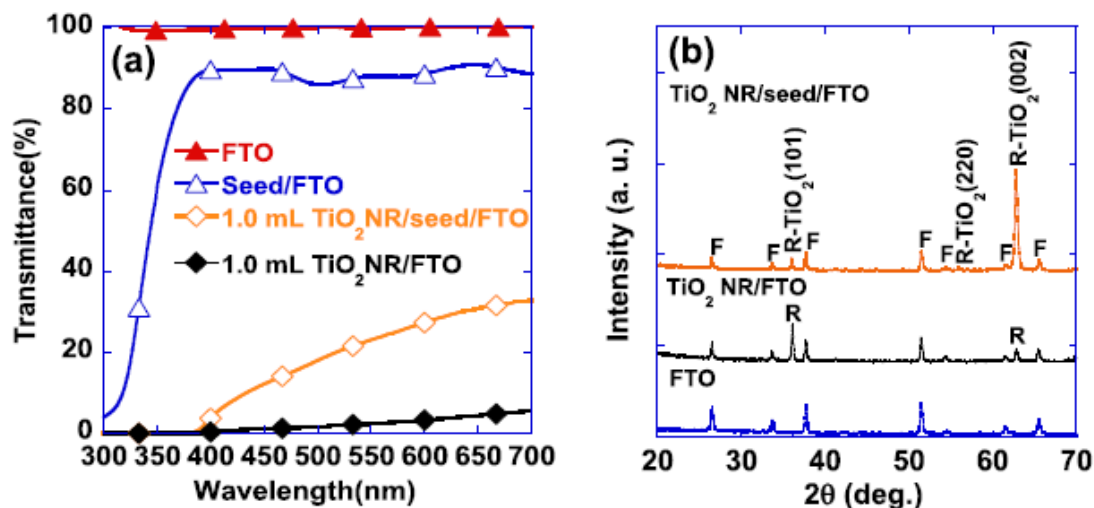
## 2.5 Effect of seed layer on $\text{TiO}_2$ nanorods

Hyun Kim and Bee Lyong Yang [19] studied the growth of rutile titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) nanorods on bare fluorine-doped The results illustrated that the average thickness of the seed layers was 140 nm composting of nanoparticles with 10-40 nm

diameters. The surface of the SLs on FTO displayed lower roughness relative to bare FTO. The SLs was an anatase phase  $\text{TiO}_2$  with an (101) diffraction peak. By hydrothermal method, lengths of performed nanorods were 1-2  $\mu\text{m}$ . The diameter of NRs on the SLs was significantly reduced with the improvement of the density. The nanorods on the SLs had vertical-alinement with a high density. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  NRs show a rutile tetragonal structure with (002) and (110) diffraction plane. NRs on seed layers and bare FTO are rutile tetragonal structure different in the dominate crystal plane. Dominate crystal plane of NRs on seed layers is (002) and (101) for NRs on FTO as illustrate in Figure 2.7 (b) The transparency of the nanorod on SLs was higher. Band gaps of the nanorods were about 2.95 eV compared to the bulk rutile phase with a 3.2 eV band gap. The difference is because of the NRs nanostructures having a larger surface area and smaller dimensions.

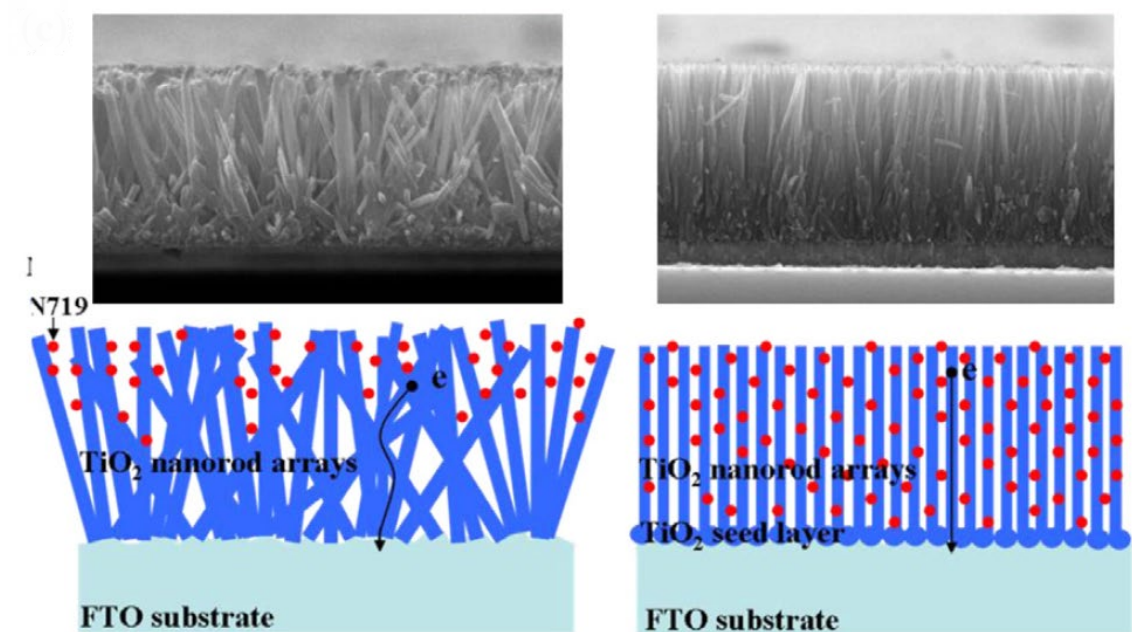


**Figure 2.6** FE-SEM and TEM images of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  NRs (a,c) and (b,d) are images of the  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{FTO}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SL}/\text{FTO}$  [19]



**Figure 2.7** ( a ) UV-Vis transmittance spectra of the bare FTO, SLs/ FTO, TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs/SLs/FTO and TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs/FTO grown by hydrothermal method using 1.0 mL of Ti precursor (b) X-ray diffraction patterns of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs/SLs/FTO, TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs/FTO, and FTO [19]

Jingyang Wang et al [36] studied seed layer effect on morphology and photo conversion efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorods in dye-sensitized solar cells. In several of SLs concentration using TiCl<sub>4</sub> solution with various concentration (0.05 M, 0.1 M, 0.15 M, 0.2 M), the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorods formation accomplished using hydrothermal method were reported. The grain size was increased and the surface roughness was decreased. Roughness of seeded-FTO reduced with the rise of TiCl<sub>4</sub> concentration because the higher TiCl<sub>4</sub> concentration is attributed to create the large TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Therefore the orientation of the (002) rutile as increasing of TiCl<sub>4</sub> concentration with the greater vertical alignment. XRD patterns of NRs show TiO<sub>2</sub> rutile phase growth in [001] direction.



**Figure 2.8** Diagram of the dye adsorption and electron transport of the TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs grown on bare and seeded-FTO [36]

SEM images display that TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on SLs significantly decrease in diameter but increase in density with high regular orientation. TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs with SLs displayed higher reflection in the visible light region (420–750 nm), probably due to more efficiently incident light scattering from high density NRs. While the vertical alignment NRs result in the light path improvement thus, higher light harvest efficiency can be obtained. Moreover, the smaller TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs grown on SLs lead to lower resistance of the electron transfer at the interfaces [36].

## 2.6 Application in Perovskite and dye-sensitized solar cell

### 2.6.1 Perovskite solar cells (PSCs)

Various observations report that TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorods (NRs) have capability more than conventional TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (NPs) since NPs consist of a great number of grain boundary leading to energy loss because of electrons scattering in grain boundary regions [6-8]. Recently, among one-dimensional (1D) TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures, TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs exhibit the remarkable electron transfer properties such as high photoelectrochemical (PEC) performance and high electron life time because they provide the direct electron pathway [12]. The prominent plane of NRs on SLs is (002). Photocurrent densities

measured for the nanorods primarily grown in the (002) orientation were larger [19]. Perovskite solar cell using TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs provide highest efficiency at 17.6 % (with current density ( $J_{sc}$ ) 23.17 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) owing to the adequate NRs size and proper inter-rod spacing which are significant to promote electron transfer. While, too short NRs do not offer a sufficient number and density of heterojunctions for charge separation because of a low surface area. Too long and densely packed TNRs array results in poor penetration of perovskite and increases in the probability of electron-hole recombination.

### 2.6.2 Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs)

The TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs without the SLs exhibits a low forward bias. TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs with result in shifting the onset to high bias. This can be attributed to the following reasons. First, the dense seeding layer can efficiently restrict charge recombination at the FTO surface. Second, recombination rate is decreased by fast electron transport in the vertical NRs at TiO<sub>2</sub> surface. The DSSCs based on TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs with a SLs exhibited higher short-circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$ ) relative to the cell composing of bare NRs. The value of the  $J_{sc}$  using with SLs on FTO is increased from 2.60 to 4.91 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> due to the dye adsorption enhances with denser TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorods grown on SLs. DSSCs using NRs on TiCl<sub>4</sub> SLs can accomplish the maximum efficiency 2.55% which is higher than solar cell with NRs bare FTO (1.33% efficiency). It implied that the DSSCs based on the TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs grown on the SLs have the longer electron lifetime, which could reduce the electron recombination and lead to an improved performance of the cell.

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