Insights of the formation mechanism of nanostructured titanium oxide polymorphs from different macromolecular metal-complex precursors

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ABSTRACT

The insight into the mechanism of the unprecedented formation of pure anatase TiO2 from the macromolecular Chitosan precursors has been investigated using micro Raman spectroscopy, Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and thermogravimetric/differential thermal analysis (TGA/DTA). The formation of a graphic film was observed upon annealing of the macromolecular precursor, reaching a maximum at about 500 °C due to decomposition of the polymeric chain of the Chitosan and (PS-co-4-PVP) polymers. The proposed mechanism is the nucleation and growth of TiO2 nanoparticles over this graphic substrate. SEM and Raman measurements confirm the formation of TiO2 anatase around 400 °C. The observation of an exothermic peak around 260 °C in the TGA/DTA measurements confirms the decomposition of carbon chains to form graphite. Another exothermic peak around 560 °C corresponds to the loss of additional carbonaceous residues.

1. Introduction

Among the different nanoparticle fabrication methods, solid-state pyrolysis has gained much importance in recent years [1, 2, 3]. Although solution synthesis methods generally permit the control of the particle size and morphology [4, 5, 6], the incorporation of as-prepared nanoparticles into solid-state devices for practical applications [7, 8, 9, 10] is not straightforward [11], as solution phase methods usually imply nanoparticle agglomeration [12, 13, 14]. On the other hand, solid-state preparation methods usually allow an easy and direct incorporation of particles into solid-state matrices such as SiO2, TiO2, Al2O3 and even glasses. For example, we have previously reported a novel solid-state method to synthesize metallic nanostructures from pyrolysis at 800 °C of metallic and organometallic derivatives of poli- and oligophosphazene [15, 16, 17, 18, 19]. Other complex nanostructure precursors of physical state mixtures such as MLn/[NP(O2C12H8)2]3 were also reported [20, 21, 22]. However, in several of these systems the sought M (or MxOy) phase is accompanied by a phosphate byproduct phase [23]. Consequently, in order to obtain directly the pure M or MxOy phase, it is necessary to use a P free polymer template. In this sense, we have recently developed a novel method using macromolecular Chitosan MXn and PS-co-4-PVP MXn precursors followed by subsequent solid-state pyrolysis at 800 °C under air [23, 24, 25, 26]. However, although the formation of nanoparticles in solution is well known [27, 28, 29], the studies of solid-state preparation methods are limited, and the parameters controlling both the size and the morphology of the formed nanoparticles are unknown [18]. In this regard, we have evidenced that the pyrolysis of the precursor (NP[OC8H17]2 (OC8H17)3P=Me2) occurs through the intermediate formation of a layered graphite host which is formed in the first step of the thermal solid-state reaction [18].

Titanium dioxide (TiO2) is a well-known semiconductor, which can crystalize in eight different polymorphic forms [30] e.g. rutile, anatase, brookite, TiO2-B (bruce). In particular, anatase is known to be a...
potential solar-driven photocatalyst active for the photodegradation of various dye contaminants [31]. The photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ largely depends on its physical and chemical properties such as morphology, surface area and crystallinity [32, 33]. In this context, solid state methods to prepare pure TiO₂ phase are a constant challenge [11], with mainly two different solid-state methods reported in the literature [34, 35]. Dodd et al. [34] prepared a mixture of anatase and brookite powder by solid-state chemical reaction of anhydrous TiOSO₄ with Na₂CO₃. Besides, Gillan et al. synthesized rutile from solid-state metathesis reaction of TiCl₃ with Na₂O₂ [35]. Also TiO₂ nanoparticles were prepared using solid-state methods [36, 37], however it was not possible to isolate the anatase phase.

Recently, we have also reported a solid-state method to prepare pure anatase phase by selecting the adequate precursor from different macromolecular complexes [38]. As described in this work, different combinations of anatase/rutile could be achieved depending on the used precursor, with pure anatase phase finally achieved by a two-step method with the (Chitosan)/TiOSO₄ precursor, after pyrolysis at 800 °C. The obtained TiO₂ nanostructures present a very efficient photocatalytic decoloration in a short time. The best photocatalyst degrades methylene blue (MB) by 98 % in only 25 min measured at 655 nm, in an alkaline medium. These results showed the most efficient photocatalyst reported in the literature, in a short time, using pure TiO₂ without the addition of any other phase or dopant [39, 40]. An extended comparison of the photocatalytic response of different TiO₂ nanoparticles was performed [38]. Moreover, the factors controlling their photocatalytic properties are the size and then the crystal phase and subsequently the morphology. It is also remarkable that these three aforementioned factors have not been controlled simultaneously. In any case, the formation mechanism of TiO₂ is still unknown. In the present work, we report some insight about the formation mechanism of TiO₂ from different macromolecular complexes: (Chitosan)/TiCl₃ (I), (PS-co-4-PVP)/TiCl₃ with TiCl₃ = Cp₂TiCl₂, TiOSO₄ and TiO(acac)₂ organometallic or metallic salt of Ti. Raman spectroscopy, Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and thermogravimetric/differential thermal analysis (TGA/DTA) techniques at temperatures between 250 °C to 800 °C were used to elucidate the changes that occur in the precursors during their annealing.

2. Experimental

2.1. Precursors

The synthesis and characterization of the macromolecular complexes (Chitosan)/Cp₂TiCl₂ (I), (PS-co-4-PVP)/Cp₂TiCl₂ (II), (Chitosan)/TiOSO₄ (III) (PS-co-4-PVP)/TiOSO₄ (IV) (Chitosan)/Ti(acac)₂ (V), and (PS-co-4-PVP)/Ti(acac)₂ (VI) were prepared as previously described in reference [38].

Chitosan, Poly (styrene-co-4-vinylpyridine), Cp₂TiCl₂, TiOSO₄, TiO(acac)₂ were used as received from Sigma-Aldrich.

2.2. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA/DTA)

Thermogravimetric analysis was performed using both a DTA-TGA SDT-2960 instrument (TA Instruments) at the Institute of Nanoscience and Materials of Aragon (INMA), and a TGA4000, 100–240V/50–60Hz (Perkin Elmer) at the Institute of Applied Chemical Sciences of the Autonomous University of Chile.

2.3. Raman spectroscopy

Raman scattering measurements were performed using a DILOR XY spectrometer with a CCD detector and a spectral resolution of 1.4 cm⁻¹.

The 514.53 nm line of an argon ion laser (Ar⁺) was used as a source of excitation. Dispersed light was collected through an x50 microscope objective lens. A Linkam TS1500V stage was used for in situ thermal treatments. Raman spectra were fitted with 2 gaussian-like peaks using OriginPro software, with R² values above 0.9 obtained in all cases. The integrated intensity of each peak was ascribed to D and G modes respectively.

2.4. Morphological characterisation

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) analysis was performed using a Merlin Field Emission SEM (Carl Zeiss, Germany) in order to analyse the morphology of the particles from the different precursors.

2.5. Pyrolysis of macromolecular complexes

In order to obtain the nanostructured TiO₂, macromolecular complexes were pyrolyzed in a porcelain crucible using a furnace (model LEF-105S-1, LabTech) under air atmosphere at 500 °C, 600 °C, 700 °C and 800 °C for 4 h, and using a heating rate of 10 °C/min.

3. Results and discussion

A detailed Raman analysis of the different samples was performed. We have clear evidences of the formation of anatase and/or rutile phases as summarized in the appendix. Here we will focus on the formation of carbon species in order to elucidate the nucleation of TiO₂ particles since, as based on the literature, it is believed that a graphitic layer plays a crucial role on the nanoparticle formation. The precursors (I), (II), (III), (IV), (V), and (VI) were annealed at 400 °C and their Raman spectra are shown in Figure 1, where the typical D and G graphite bands [18, 41, 42, 43, 44] are observed. These bands are not clearly defined in some cases, as observed for the macromolecular precursor (III) and (V). This is a consequence of an incomplete combustion of the polymer leading to organic C–H residues. These D and G bands have been previously reported for the combustion of the macromolecular complex (NP-O-C₆H₁₂O₃O₃C₈H₁₄PPh₂-Mn(CO)₄ (η₅-C₅H₆Me₂) where the formation of graphitic particles was observed [15].

The formation of other carbon species as graphene has been also observed in thermal treatments of metal-dextran gel materials [45]. In this sense, it has been suggested that the carbon species are probably formed from the carbon chains skeleton of the polymeric metal macro-molecular complexes [46]. For instance, based on preceding studies, soluble metallic precursors have been reported using graphitic materials such as graphite, graphene and carbon nanotubes as templates to deposit metal nanoparticles. It is believed that the metal nanoparticles are covalently bound to the graphite surface, as most chemical reactions occur by reduction or functionalization. As an example, selective deposition of iron oxide on highly oriented pyrolytic graphite using iron chloride as a precursor was recently reported [47]. Selective deposition is happening on the defects and step edges of the graphite, producing iron oxide nanoparticles without any additional chemical treatments. These authors also suggested a mechanism for the deposition and conversion of iron hydroxides and oxyhydroxides into iron oxide by air annealing, in a similar mechanism as the one presented in this work.

The broadened bands and enhanced intensity in the “D” band, exhibited by the Raman spectra in Figure 1, are typical of nanocrystalline graphite [48, 49].

Detailed in situ Raman measurements as a function of the temperature were performed in order to get information of the TiO₂ formation mechanism. Raman spectra were recorded from 200 °C at intervals of 50 °C for the macromolecular complex (VI), and then it was annealed up to
Figure 1. Raman spectra in the zone of the D and G bands for the precursors (I)-(VI) pyrolized at 400 °C.
500 °C (see Figure 2). The formation of graphitic layers becomes evident at 250 °C. When increasing the temperature, the intensity of the D band increases and the G band decreases up to 500 °C, where the D band becomes most intense.

The graphitization degree can be expressed by the ID/IG ratio. Diverse values in the same sample suggest a high degree of inhomogeneity of the material during the pyrolytic process, being this a typical behavior for this material [11, 17]. From these experiments, an increase of the formation of non-graphitic materials is observed (ID/IG increase) from 250 °C to 450 °C. Above this temperature, an increase of the graphitization degree ID/IG was observed due to carbonization (see Figure 3). The behavior up to 450 °C is consistent with the thermal conduct of some polymers [45], where graphene or graphitic materials are formed during annealing. Above this temperature ie. from 500 °C to 800 °C this graphitic template disappears by a combustion process to give mainly CO2 and H2O.

The evolution of the Raman spectra of (III) as a function of temperature is observed in Figure 4, where a similar behavior was found. Both D and G bands appear at 200 °C, suggesting the formation of a graphitic phase. At 400 °C, the maximum intensity was found for the D band, and finally at 500 °C both D and G bands become less intense due to carbonization near to the total loss of organic matter.

For precursor (III), the variation of ID/IG with the temperature, indicate a maximum in the formation of the non-graphite phase at 400 °C following by a decrease of the ID/IG ratio (see Figure 5). This maximum indicates an increase of the formation of a graphitic template materials, where the nanoparticles of anatase begin to nucleate and then a decreasing of these graphitic materials on raising the temperature, suggesting their lost as CO2 over 400 °C, then following to 800 °C where the carbon is lost almost completely.

The nucleation of metal oxide nanoparticles in the form of needle or bars, as previously reported for III and IV precursors [38], was confirmed by SEM. As observed in Figure 6, when the calcination temperature is increased, TiO2 nanoparticles nucleate forming bars of about 2–10 μm in length. Those microfibers are composed of agglomerated nanoparticles of 20–30 nm, as seen in Figure 6e for precursor III. We believe that the
presence of TiOSO₄ linked to the polymeric chain, for TiO₂(III) and TiO₂(IV) precursors, induces the formation of microfibers formed by fused nanoparticles on the surface, leading to large surface areas (as seen in Figure 6). This seems to be independent of the polymer and pyrolysis temperature. The observation of needle-like agglomerated TiO₂ nanoparticles is in concordance with the results reported by Wang et al. In their studies, the titanium glycolate precursor Ti(OCH₂CH₂O)₂ was synthesized using a solvothermal route. Pure anatase phase was obtained after oxidation. The authors claimed that the organic ligands at the surface of the chains prevented the agglomeration of the chains during calcination. In addition, they found a chain-shape change with large specific surface area [50]. In our case, the organic ligands of the chitosan
and PVP linked to the TiOSO₄ also prevent the aggregation in a similar manner, thus forming the needle-like agglomerated TiO₂ nanoparticles.

Interestingly, from Raman spectra in the zone of both D and G bands for the precursors (I)-(V) and in the zone of the anatase and rutile phase of TiO₂ with temperature, the formation of the anatase phase can be observed already at temperatures of 200 °C for precursors I, II, V, and VI, as shown in detail in the appendix. An intense peak at 150 cm⁻¹ confirms the presence of anatase in precursor III. The presence or rutile in precursors I and II, and in minor proportion in IV, was confirmed as an intense peak at 600 cm⁻¹. As an example, the Raman spectrum of the anatase phase and the corresponding analyzed area for precursor III is shown in Figure 7. A complete study of all the precursors can be found in the appendix. We can then conclude that anatase/rutile mixture phases are being formed at 800 °C for the precursors I and II. In addition, pure anatase single phase is formed for the precursors III, IV, V, and VI. In our previous work, it was found that the precursor polymers play a key role during the nucleation process of the TiO₂ into the anatase or rutile phase [38]. However, this step was not completely elucidated. They confirmed band gap energies higher than bulk values by the study of the absorption edge, which are in concordance with the quantum confinement effect of smaller TiO₂ nanostructures. On the other hand, the tendencies regarding the crystal phase are in agreement with the previously reported band gap energies. In any case, it was found no direct correlation of the morphology with E_g values.

A thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of both the macromolecular complexes and the polymer was previously carried out and presented in the supplementary information of reference [38], in order to obtain information about the thermal process during the combustion. However, this TGA information is now very relevant and needs direct correlation with the findings already discussed regarding Raman spectroscopy. For example, for the III and IV precursors, three clear weight losses were observed. The ones related to carbon species are the second peak at 260–320 °C, attributed to the decomposition of carbons where the species –NH₂, CH₃OH, and OH are found; and finally the third peak at 500–600 °C associated to the carbonization of organic matter equivalent to the central ring of chitosan (precursor III) and the styrene group in the polymer and the sulphate group in the metal precursor forming SO₂ (precursor IV). Specifically for precursor IV, the peak displacement was assigned to the decomposition of the pyridine group, confirming the coordination of the titanium to the polymer chain. The presence of two peaks, could be due to the combustion of the pyridine group coordinated to the metallic precursor TiOSO₄ (297 °C), while at 325 °C occurs the calcination of the pyridine group without coordination. Similar findings were reported by Chaudhary et al. [51] using related coordinated polymers. They found a two-step decomposition at 300 °C and 335 °C, which can be related with our observations for the PVP compound. We can then correlate that the decomposition of the second peak at 260–300 °C is consistent with the formation of graphite as observed by Raman spectroscopy starting at 250 °C. The carbonization associated with the third decomposition peak is also consistent with the decrease of both D and G bands observed at 500 °C, which become less intense due to carbonization of the remaining organic matter.

A tentative mechanism for the formation of TiO₂ nanoparticles is proposed, suggesting that at the intermediate pyrolysis temperature (300–500 °C) a graphitic surface is formed, being crucial for the growth of TiO₂ nanoparticles. The further increase up to 800 °C leads to graphite decomposition, although some carbon traces are remaining as a shell coating of the TiO₂ nanoparticles.

4. Conclusions

Raman studies on the thermal treatment of the TiO₂ precursors (Chitosan)(Cp₂TiCl₂) (I), (PS-co-4-PVP)•(Cp₂TiCl₂) (II), (Chitosan)•(TiOSO₄) (III) (PS-co-4-PVP)•(TiOSO₄) (IV) (Chitosan)•(Ti(acac)₂) (V), and (PS-co-4-PVP)•(Ti(acac)₂) (VI) at several temperatures confirmed the formation of a graphitic thin layer around 500 °C, where the TiO₂ nanoparticles grow up.

After this temperature, SEM images show the formation of bars composed of agglomerated TiO₂ nanoparticles. TGA/DTA analysis confirmed an exothermic peak around 500 °C assigned to the combustion of the organic matter of the respective polymer template thus producing holes where the TiO₂ nanoparticles grow-up. Raman spectra of the precursors confirm the formation of anatase, which already begins to be observed at 200 °C.

Declarations

Author contribution statement

Patricio Allende: Performed the experiments; Analyzed and interpreted the data; Wrote the paper.

Alodia Orera, Miguel A. Laguna-Bercero, María Luisa Valenzuela, Carlos Díaz, Lorena Barrientos: Conceived and designed the experiments; Contributed reagents, materials, analysis tools or data; Wrote the paper.

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Data availability statement

Data will be made available on request.

Declaration of interests statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Additional information

No additional information is available for this paper.

APPENDIX

Raman spectra of precursors (I) to (VI). For each precursor, the Raman spectra were performed at three temperatures: 200 °C, 400 °C and 800 °C (a,c,e). Next to each Raman image appears an optical microscope image, taken on the zone were the Raman spectra were performed (b,d,f). In the figure e and for some precursors (I,II, IV and VI) more than one spectrum was recorded to find the best Raman response. The same situation occurs for the Raman spectrum at 200 °C (figure a for each the precursors II, IV and V). A strong band around 150 cm⁻¹ indicate the presence of TiO₂ anatase while a strong band at 600 cm⁻¹ confirm the presence TiO₂ rutile.
Precursor I

a) Raman Shift (cm\(^{-1}\))

b) Image of precursor I

c) Raman Shift (cm\(^{-1}\))

d) Image of precursor I

e) Raman Shift (cm\(^{-1}\))

f) Image of precursor I
Precursor III

(a) Graph showing Raman Shift (cm$^{-1}$) vs. Intensity for TiO$_2$ precursor III and TiO$_2$ precursor III.

(b) Image of a material sample.

(c) Graph showing Raman Shift (cm$^{-1}$) vs. Intensity for Precursor III.

(d) Image of a material sample.

(e) Graph showing Raman Shift (cm$^{-1}$) vs. Intensity for TiO$_2$ precursor III.

(f) Image of a material sample.
