## **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**



# Facile synthesis and characterization of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles: X-ray peak **profle analysis using Williamson–Hall and Debye–Scherrer methods**

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## **Abstract**

In this study,  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were synthesized by a sol–gel method involving the interaction of the titanium isopropoxide precursor and sodium hydroxide followed by calcination at a temperature of 450 °C. The efects of stirring time and solution pH on the morphology, phase types and crystallite sizes were investigated. The prepared TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were characterized using X-ray difraction analysis (XRD), high resolution scanning electron microscopy (HRSEM), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), selective area electron difraction (SAED), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). The HRSEM/HRTEM micrograph showed the formation of well distinct  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles with spherical shapes except at pH 2. FTIR spectroscopy showed the presence of the Ti–O stretching modes and Ti–O–Ti vibration modes in the samples. Crystallite size and lattice strain at peak broadening of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles were studied using Williamson–Hall analysis and Scherrer's equation. It was found that W–H crystallite sizes were significantly different from the sizes obtained from Scherrer's equation at basic medium (pH 8–12) under the applied conditions of stirring time and solution pH for  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles. XRD pattern demonstrated the formation of pure anatase phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> irrespective of the solution pH and stirring time. XPS analysis showed the existence of the Ti 2p orbital in the oxidation states of+4. The study demonstrated that stirring time and solution pH determined the crystallite sizes and not the phase types.

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#### **Graphic abstract**



**Nanoparticles** 

Keywords TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles · Williamson–Hall · Debye Scherrer · Crystalline size · Reflection peaks

## **Introduction**

Researchers in diferent felds of science and engineering have shown immense interest in nanomaterials due to their electrical, optical, antibacterial, absorptivity, photocatalytic, gas sensitivity, magnetic, chemical and mechanical properties [[1–](#page-18-0)[6](#page-18-1)]. Though, many studies on various types of semiconductors such as titania (TiO<sub>2</sub>) [[7\]](#page-18-2), MgO [[8\]](#page-18-3), Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>  $[9]$  $[9]$ , ZnO  $[10-13]$  $[10-13]$  and CdS  $[14]$  $[14]$  at the nanoscale have been widely documented and practically employed for technological purposes. Particle size and crystal morphology play important roles in these applications, which have motivated researchers on the synthesis of nanocrystalline  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ . TiO<sub>2</sub> is a non-toxic n-type semiconductor which exists in the three polymorphs of TiO<sub>2</sub> namely; anatase (tetragonal), rutile (tetragonal) and brookite (orthorhombic). Among these, anatase is considered as a metastable phase at a lower temperature, difficult to prepare due to susceptibility to phase transformation and it possesses excellent chemical and physical properties due to its bandgap energy of 3.2 eV [[15](#page-19-2)].  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles are considered one of the most beneficial functional materials owing to its excellent optoelectronic properties: sufficient photoreactive properties, high dielectric constant, high transmission coefficient, and high breakdown strength  $[16]$  $[16]$ .

 $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles have been synthesized using various methods which include hydrothermal [[17\]](#page-19-4), co-precipitation [[18\]](#page-19-5), chemical vapour deposition [[19](#page-19-6)], sol–gel [\[16\]](#page-19-3), laser ablation [[20](#page-19-7)], spray pyrolysis [[21](#page-19-8)], vacuum arc deposition [\[22\]](#page-19-9) amongst others. In most studies, precursors such as Titanium isopropoxide, titanium hydroxide, titaniumn-butoxide, titanium tetrachloride, titanium trichloride, titanium sulphate to mention but a few. It is noteworthy to mention that,  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared via conventional gas-phase techniques required the use of sophisticated equipment. These techniques such as physical vapour deposition, spray pyrolysis and sputtering methods caused agglomeration of the particles, requiring complex chemical procedures for the dispersion of nanoparticles in a solvent, thus resulting in poor characteristics and performance. Also, some of these methods required expensive toxic chemicals, high amount of energy and in most cases generate toxic byproducts which are environmentally friendly. Owing to the disadvantages of these processes, the sol–gel method has been considered as the most suitable route for the synthesis of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles of controlled size and desired morphology due to its low cost, ease of set-up and reaction temperature. Sol–gel involves the formation of a colloidal suspension through hydrolyzation, polymerization, evaporation and condensation of metal salt precursor. Diferent researchers have applied the sol–gel method to prepare  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles [\[23](#page-19-10), [24](#page-19-11)]. They found that synthesis parameters such as solution pH, the concentration of the metal salt precursor, the nature of the metal salt precursor, stirring speed, reaction time, reaction temperature, solution pH infuence the shape, size, purity, porosity, surface area and phase types of the metal nanoparticles. These properties which also include crystallinity play a vital role in their applications.

For instance, the pH of the medium signifcantly afects crystal structure and surface morphology such as the size

and the entanglement of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanostructures [\[25](#page-19-12)[–27](#page-19-13)]. Tsega and Dejene [\[28](#page-19-14)] reported that the morphology and crystallinity of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  depend on the pH of the precursor solution. Lower acidity promoted the formation of the anatase phase of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles and greater crystallite size. This shows that the degree of crystallinity of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles is pHdependent. However, the possibility of the diferent phase structure of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles of different pH solution and the relationship between solution pH and phase types of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  has not been clearly understood. Not only that, but a detailed study on a crystalline size determination using Williamson–Hall (W–H) analysis and Debye–Scherrer's equation on the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles synthesized at different pH and stirring time also has not been reported. Therefore, investigation of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles synthesized under acidic and basic medium is necessary for the clarifcation of the crystal forms, micro/nanostructure, phase types and optical properties of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles.



<span id="page-2-0"></span>Fig. 1 Pictorial representation of the steps involved in the preparation of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles using the sol–gel technique



XRD has been a powerful technique in determining the crystal structure, crystalline phases, crystalline orientation, lattice parameters, strain, energy density and among others [\[29](#page-19-15)]. X-ray peak profle analysis (XPPA) is a method used to estimate the crystallite size and lattice strain extracted from the peak width analysis. Crystallite size quantifes the size of the coherent difraction domain while lattice strain measures the distribution of lattice constants arising from lattice dislocation. In previous studies, crystallite sizes on peak broadening of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were determined by Priyanka et al. [[30\]](#page-19-16). In their study, the crystallite size obtained using Williamson–Hall and Scherrer Debye equations were performed only for  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared at pH 2 while Kibasomba et al.  $[31]$  $[31]$  calculated the crystallite sizes of TiO<sub>2</sub> calcined at the temperature range of 350–650 °C using Williamson–Hall plot method. Also in the studies of Sabry et al. [[2\]](#page-18-6), Singh et al. [[32](#page-19-18)], Singh et al. [[33](#page-19-19)] and Fu et al. [[34\]](#page-19-20), both Scherrer and Williamson–Hall equations were utilized on  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles calcined at different temperatures. From these studies, it was observed that crystalline sizes for both methods increase with temperature. It can be seen that previous studies focused on the efect of calcination temperatures on the phase types of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles. In contrast, the present work describes the synthesis of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles from titanium isopropoxide (TTIP) at a different stirring time and solution pH by the sol–gel method. The morphological, microstructural, functionality and chemical oxidation properties of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were investigated by X-ray difraction, high resolution scanning electron microscope (HRSEM), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), selected area of electron diffraction (SAED), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. The XXPA was carried out for estimating the crystallite size, lattice strain and dislocation density of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles using Williamson–Hall analysis and Scherrer's equation.

# **Materials and methods**

## **Materials**

Titanium tetraisopropoxide, Ti $[OCH(CH_3)]_4$ , (TTIP, 97%), sodium hydroxide (NaOH,  $\geq$ 97%) and ethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH)  $(\geq 99.5\%)$  were procured from Sigma Aldrich; and were used as received without further purifcation. All the reagents were analytical grade chemicals and deionized water was used throughout the study.

#### **Titanium oxide nanoparticle (sol–gel method)**

The sol–gel method which involves the variation of stirring time and solution pH was used for the synthesis of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles and are described as follows:

#### **Efect of stirring time**

The steps involved in the efect of stirring times on the synthesis of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles via sol–gel method follow Fig. [1](#page-2-0) without (Step **B**). Five diferent solutions were prepared as follows:  $30 \text{ cm}^3$  of TTIP solution was measured individually into five separate  $250 \text{ cm}^3$  beaker containing 120 cm<sup>3</sup> of de-ionized water (Step **A**). The fve separate solutions were stirred for 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 min, respectively, using a magnetic stirrer at 250 rpm. A gel was formed in each of the fve solutions at pH 5.62 and washed with de-ionized water and ethanol several times and thereafter, oven-dried at 105 °C for 24 h (Step **C**). The obtained yellow xerogel was pulverized in a mortar to a fine powder and further calcined in the furnace at 450 °C for 3 h (Step **C**).

#### **Efect of pH solution**

Figure [1](#page-2-0) shows the pictorial representation of the synthesis protocol of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles via sol–gel method. Another set of fve diferent solutions were prepared as follows: Firstly,  $30 \text{ cm}^3$  of the TTIP solution was measured into five separate  $250 \text{ cm}^3$  beaker containing 120 cm<sup>3</sup> of de-ionized water. (Step **A**). To each of the fve solutions, the pH of the solution was adjusted to 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12, respectively, using 0.5 M nitric acid or 0.5 M sodium hydroxide, followed by vigorous stirring on a magnetic stirrer at 250 rpm for optimum stirring time (smallest crystallite size) (Step **B**). A gel was formed and were allowed to age for 2 h, later washed with de-ionized water and ethanol several times and thereafter, oven-dried at 105 °C for 24 h (Step **C**). The obtained yellow xerogel was pulverized in a mortar to a fine powder and further calcined in the furnace at 450 °C for 3 h (Step **C**).

## **Characterizations of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles**

The phase and the crystal size of the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were determined using X-ray diffraction (Bruker AXS D8 Advance, X-ray difractometer) with CuKα radiation  $(1.5406 \text{ Å})$  in the diffraction angles range of 10 to 90 $^{\circ}$  and the phase composition of the sample was examined. The morphology and elemental composition of the nanoparticles were investigated using high-resolution scanning electron microscopy (HRSEM) (Zeiss Auriga model) operated with electron high tension at 5.0 kV for imaging. About 0.05 mg powdered sample was placed onto carbon adhesive tape and sputter-coated with Au–Pd via a Quorum T15OT for some



<span id="page-4-0"></span>**Fig. 2** XRD patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles produced at different stirring time **a** 20 min **b** 40 min **c** 60 min **d** 80 min and **e** 100 min



<span id="page-4-1"></span>**Fig. 3** XRD patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles produced at different solution pH **a** 2 **b** 4 **c** 6 **d** 8 **e** 10 and **f** 12

minutes before the analysis. The particle size and distribution pattern were analysed by Zeiss Auriga high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) coupled with electron dispersive spectroscopy. The powdered sample  $(0.02 \text{ g})$  was suspended in 10 cm<sup>3</sup> of methanol, ultrasonicated to achieve total dispersion. Two drops of the slurry were dropped onto a holey carbon grid with the help of a micropipette and then allowed to dry on exposure to a photolight. The Fourier transmission infrared (FTIR) spectra were recorded using the Thermo Scientifc Nicolet iS5spectrometer recorded at wavenumber of 4000–500 cm−1. X-ray photoelectrons (XPS) model using a monochromated MgKα (1253.6 eV) at a power of 300 W and 15 eV was used to study the surface composition of the sample.



<span id="page-5-2"></span>**Table 1** Average crystallite size of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  at different stirring time for the Scherrer formula and the Williamson–Hall (W–H) analysis



## **Results and discussion**

## Mechanism of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles via sol-gel **method**

The sol–gel method is commonly used to synthesize  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles and the frequent metal and non-metal alkoxides precursors are titanium (IV) tetraisopropoxide (TTIP), titanium chloride, titanium (IV) tert-butoxide, bis (cyclooctatetraene) titanium, tetraisopropylorthotitanate (TIPT), potassium titanium oxalate (KTO), butyl titanate (TBT) and titanium (IV) butoxide [[32](#page-19-18), [35](#page-19-21)]. During this process, the colloid is formed after the hydrolysis and polycondensation reactions. An acid and a base help in the hydrolysis of the precursor followed by the growth and agglomeration of particles. This process proceeds by hydrolytic polycondensation of titanium precursors being alkoxides or chlorides in the presence of solvents, modifers, and organic templates. The reaction starts with hydrolysis, which is the formation of Ti–OH moieties by the substitution reaction of water with Ti-OR groups. The precursors further undergo condensation reactions to produce Ti–O–Ti by oxolation or Ti–OH–Ti bonds by olation [[36\]](#page-19-22).

### **XRD analysis**

The XRD patterns of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared at different stirring times and solution pH are shown in Figs. [2](#page-4-0) and [3](#page-4-1), respectively. According to diferent scholars, the production of diferent of phases of titania depends on calcination temperatures and it has been reported that the formation of anatase occurred at a lower temperature less than 600 °C [\[37](#page-19-23), [38\]](#page-19-24). This informed the choice of calcination temperature of 450 °C for the production of titania. The choice of calcination temperature was based on the formation of titania with the anatase phase. Figure [2](#page-4-0) revealed the presence of several diffraction peaks at 2 theta values of  $25.28^\circ$ ,  $30.79^\circ$ ,



38.58°, 48.05°, 53.89°, 55.06°, 62.12°, 68.76°, 70.31°, 75.03° and 82.14° which correspond to the following Miller indices (101), (111), (112), (200), (105), (211), (213), (116), (220), (215) and (303), respectively. This information is in harmony with the Joint Committee on Powder Difraction Standard (JCPDS) No. 00–021-1272 of a typical tetragonal  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  anatase phase irrespective of the stirring time with parameters  $a = b = 3.79 \text{ Å}$ ,  $c = 9.51 \text{ Å}$ ,  $\frac{a}{c} = 2.51$ , cell volume = 136.31 Å, density = 3.89. No trace of brookite or rutile phase was detected as a function of stirring times, and non-detection of these phases suggests high purity of assynthesized  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles under the applied conditions. The similar tetragonal anatase phase of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared using the sol–gel method had been reported by Kang et al. [[23\]](#page-19-10) and Nateq and Ceccato [[24\]](#page-19-11). It can be seen that the XRD patterns of the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were similar with anatase peaks at almost the same difraction angles as displayed in Fig. [2](#page-4-0). This indicates that stirring time did not influence the phase types of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles but rather crystallite sizes. Crystallite sizes were calculated using Dybe–Scherrer and Williamson–Hall expression shown in Eqs. [1](#page-5-0) and [2](#page-5-1) and the values obtained were compared:

<span id="page-5-0"></span>
$$
D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \tag{1}
$$

where *D* is the crystallite size (nm), *k* is a constant (0.94 for spherical particles),  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the X-ray radiation (CuK $\alpha$ =0.1541 nm),  $\beta$  is the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the intense and broad peaks,  $\varepsilon$  is the lattice strain while  $\theta$  is the Bragg's or diffraction angle.

<span id="page-5-1"></span>
$$
\beta \cos \theta = \frac{k\lambda}{D} + 4\varepsilon \sin \theta \tag{2}
$$

Crystalline size obtained using Eq. [\(1\)](#page-5-0) at stirring time of 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 min were 2.04, 3.50, 3.63, 1.24 and 3.84 nm (see Table [1](#page-5-2)). The smallest crystallite size (1.24 nm) was obtained at stirring time of 80 min and



<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Fig.** 4 A Williamson-Hall plot of  $\beta \cos \theta$  against  $4\sin \theta$  calculated from XRD diffractogram for TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at stirring time **a** 20 min **b** 40 **c** 60 min **d** 80 and **e** 100 min calcined at 450 °C

therefore selected as the optimum stirring time to synthesize  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles. A slight difference in terms of crystallite size and optimum stirring time when the Williamson–Hall equation was observed while there were signifcant diferences in the crystallite sizes obtained using Williamson–Hall and Dybe-Scherrer equations. The separation of size and lattice strain broadening analysis was done using Williamson–Hall alone. The crystallite size reported in this study was smaller than 22.9 nm reported by Netaq and Ceccato [\[24\]](#page-19-11) who also employed a sol–gel method based on hydrolysis-condensation of titanium tetraisopropoxide in solutions of water/cyclohexane/Triton X-100 system. The possible reasons for the variation



<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Fig. 5** A Williamson-Hall plot of  $\beta \cos \theta$  against  $4\sin \theta$  calculated from XRD diffractogram for TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at pH **a** 2 **b** 4 **c** 6 **d** 8 **e** 10 and **f** 12 calcined at 450 °C

in the crystallite sizes may be ascribed to diferences in calcination temperature and solvent types used.

As shown in Fig. [3](#page-4-1), it can be seen that the Bragg's peaks were more intense at 2 theta value of 25.28° (101) than other difraction angles, which suggest the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles of large crystallite size. While the peaks of low intensity and the broad base became more prominent, indicating the formation of nanoparticles of smaller sizes. The diference in the crystallite sizes at different pH values could be attributed to the amount of  $H^+$  or OH− during the growth or nucleation of the titanium crystals. At low pH (2) to (6), there was strong electrostatic repulsion between the hydrogen ion and positively charged Ti ion and may be responsible for the small crystallite sizes. This suggests that the acidic medium favours the formation of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles of small crystallite sizes. While at high pH (10) and (12), there was an occurrence of strong electrostatic attraction between the negatively charged hydroxyl ions and positively charged Ti ion, which eventually result in the formation of  $Ti(OH)<sub>4</sub>$ . Upon the <span id="page-8-1"></span>**Fig. 6** The plot of crystalline size and dislocation density against stirring time of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles using Debye– Scherrer analysis



<span id="page-8-2"></span>**Fig. 7** The plot of crystallite size and lattice strain against stirring time of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles using Williamson-Hall analysis

calcination of Ti(OH)<sub>4</sub> precipitate in the furnace, TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles of larger crystallite sizes were formed. Furthermore, the dislocation density  $(\delta)$  was calculated using Eq. [\(3](#page-8-0)) and the result is shown in Table [1](#page-5-2).

$$
\delta = \frac{1}{D^2} \tag{3}
$$

Scherrer and Williamson–Hall equations were employed in the determination of average crystallite size, dislocation density and lattice strain of the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles at different stirring times. The plots of  $\beta \cos \theta$  against  $4\sin\theta$  for the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at different stirring times and pH values give straight lines as shown in Fig. [4](#page-6-0) and [5](#page-7-0), respectively. The respective values of lattice strain and average crystalline size were calculated from the slope and intercept. The plots of W–H for  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles (from Fig. [4](#page-6-0)) gave grain sizes of the stirring times that are slightly more than the results obtained from Scherrer's equation. Thus, indicating that Scherrer's equation employed for average particle size determination ftted well for the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>The dislocation density is inversely proportional to the grain size/crystallite size of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles calculated using Debye Scherrer's formula. According to Table [1,](#page-5-2) it was noticed that the dislocation density decreased with increase in stirring times from 20 to 60 min and beyond this time, the sudden increase was observed precisely at 80 min and the increment was due to the reduction and rearrangement in the



<span id="page-9-0"></span>**Fig. 8** The plot of crystalline size and dislocation density against stirring time of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles using Williamson-Hall analysis



<span id="page-9-1"></span>**Table 2** Average crystallite size of TiO<sub>2</sub> at different pH for the Scherrer formula and the Williamson–Hall (W–H) analysis



<span id="page-9-2"></span>**Fig. 9** The plot of crystalline size and dislocation density against pH of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles using Dybe-Scherrer analysis



<span id="page-10-0"></span>



<span id="page-10-1"></span>**Fig. 11** The plot of crystalline size and dislocation density against pH of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  using Williamson-Hall analysis

crystallite size of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ . The plots of crystalline size, dislocation density and lattice strain versus stirring time using Scherrer and Williamson–Hall analysis are shown in Figs. [6,](#page-8-1) [7](#page-8-2) and [8.](#page-9-0) The highest dislocation density was obtained at 80 min, which is an indication of inverse proportionality of both parameters as described in Figs. [6](#page-8-1) and [8.](#page-9-0) The relationships between FWHM and lattice strain,  $\varepsilon$  according to the Williamson–Hall equation were calculated and presented in Tables [1](#page-5-2) and [2.](#page-9-1)

As presented in Table [2](#page-9-1), Scherrer and Williamson–Hall equations were employed in the evaluation of average crystallite size, dislocation density and lattice strain of the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared via variation of solution pH. As observed in Table [2](#page-9-1), the change in pH (either acidic or basic medium) did not cause phase transformation of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles from anatase to rutile or anatase to brookite instead variations in crystallite sizes were observed. This showed that an acidic or basic medium (oxolation and deoxolation occur) and further condensation led to the formation of pure anatase phase [[39,](#page-19-25) [40](#page-19-26)]. This study strongly proved that the mechanism of formation of the crystalline structure via adjustment of the pH only afect the crystallite size and not necessarily the phase types formed. Similar to what was observed earlier under the variation of stirring times, strong





<span id="page-11-0"></span> $\hat{Z}$  Springer

*A* Anatase and *R* Rutile

 $\boldsymbol{A}$  Anatase and  $\boldsymbol{R}$  Rutile



<span id="page-12-0"></span>**Fig. 12** SEM Analysis of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at different pH **a** 2 **b** 4 **c** 6 **d** 8 **e** 10 and **f** 12 calcined at 450 °C

and intense difraction peaks which correspond to a typical anatase phase of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were repeated irrespective of solution pH. Again,  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles with the smallest crystallite size of 1.52 nm were formed at the basic medium (pH 8). Comparatively, it was found that the pH of the medium exhibited a signifcant efect on the crystallite sizes of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles than the stirring time due to the smaller crystallite sizes obtained from the former than the latter. The sharp and intense difraction peaks observed at





<span id="page-13-0"></span>**Fig. 13** HRTEM and SAED images of TiO<sub>2</sub> at pH **a** 2 **b** 4 **c** 6 **d** 8 **e** 10 and **f** 12



<span id="page-14-0"></span>**Fig. 14** The plot of grain size against different pH of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles from HRTEM



pH 12 in the XRD patterns were attributed to the fast nucleation, which increases the crystallinity and average crystallite size of the sample. Thus, this is quite diferent from the broad difractograms obtained for lower pH values.

The plots of Williamson–Hall analysis of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles of diferent pH as presented in Fig. [5](#page-7-0) give the average crystallite size and strain estimated from linear ft data. The results provide coherent values of lattice strain which range from − 0.249 to 0.251. The small values obtained for the lattice parameters could lead to larger surface areas and more active sites [[41](#page-19-28)]. It was observed that with the increase in pH from 2 to 12, the strain associated with the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  samples decreased, as shown in Table [2](#page-9-1) due to the reduction in the level of hydrogen ion in the medium. This efect may be due to the theory of nucleation caused by the crystal growth of nanoparticles [[42](#page-19-29), [43\]](#page-19-30). The graphs of crystalline size, dislocation density and lattice strain against pH using Scherrer and William-Hall analysis are shown in Figs. [9](#page-9-2), [10](#page-10-0) and [11.](#page-10-1) The lattice strains as presented in Tables [1](#page-5-2) and [2](#page-9-1) contained positive and negative values. The signifcant positive and negative values imply compressive and tensile strain. This is attributed to the lattice shrinkage and lattice expansion under the infuence of compressive and tensile strain, respectively. The lattice strain numbers at pH 10 and 12 reduce during the growth phase corresponding to their W–H measurements. The negative values of strain are related to compressive strain. Table [3](#page-11-0) shows the comparison of calculated crystallite sizes using Debye–Scherrer and Williamson–Hall equations from the previous studies and the present study.

Table [3](#page-11-0) shows that the estimated crystallite sizes and the phase types of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles depend on several factors

<span id="page-14-1"></span>**Table 4** The average grain size of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles of HRTEM images

pH	Phase	Average grain size (nm)
2	Anatase	$9.11 \pm 2.05$
4	Anatase	$8.60 \pm 1.10$
6	Anatase	$7.24 \pm 4.30$
8	Anatase	$6.80 + 2.37$
10	Anatase	$10.36 + 3.82$
12	Anatase	$14.10 + 3.90$

such as the method of synthesis, synthesis parameters varied such as solution pH, stirring speed, stirring time, temperature, calcination temperature, holding time, concentration and nature of the salt precursors amongst others. The average crystallite sizes obtained in this study using the two equations differed on tetragonal anatase phase of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles produced.

### **HRSEM analysis**

HRSEM and HRTEM analysis were only carried out on  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared at different pH. The preliminary XRD results show that stirring time has a signifcant effect on the sizes and shapes of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles. The surface morphologies of the synthesized  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles at different pH (a)  $2$  (b)  $4$  (c)  $6$  (d)  $8$  (e)  $10$  (f)  $12$ were shown in Fig. [12](#page-12-0). These micrographs displayed that the size of the particles was infuenced by the experimental pH condition, indicating randomly and cluster distribution



<span id="page-15-0"></span>



<span id="page-15-1"></span>**Fig. 16** The FTIR spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at pH **a** 2 **b** 4 **c** 6 **d** 8 **e** 10 and **f** 12 calcined at 450 °C

of spherical TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles except at pH (2). At acidic medium, the concentration of hydrogen ions overshadows that of the positively charged Ti ion thus resulted in electrostatic repulsion and partial formation of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles. With an increase in pH from 8 to 12, the concentration of hydroxyl ion exceeds that of hydrogen ions, and thus electrostatic attractions occurred leading to the formation of agglomerated spherical particles. At higher pH values, deoxolation due to condensation took place (at this point, the amount of hydroxyl ions in the solution was greater than the positively charged Ti ion leading to the formation of well-defned and evenly distributed spherical-shaped material [\[57](#page-20-12)]. Therefore, the nano-crystalline structure produced was pH-dependent and promoted the yield of anatase phase

<span id="page-16-2"></span>



<span id="page-16-3"></span>**Fig. 18** XPS high-resolution spectrum; Ti 2p spectra of anatase  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles

of TiO<sub>2</sub>. The reaction mechanisms for the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles at lower and higher pH conditions in Eqs. ([4\)](#page-16-0) and [\(5](#page-16-1)) are as follows:

Acidic condition :  $TiO_2 + nH^+ \rightarrow TiO_2H_n^{+n}$  (4)

$$
Basic condition: TiO2 + nOH- \rightarrow TiO2(OH)n-n
$$
 (5)

With the increasing pH values in the sol–gel method, the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  samples possess well-defined shape (spherical) <span id="page-16-1"></span><span id="page-16-0"></span>and particle sizes, which are as a result of a precipitating agent (NaOH). This showed that the precipitating agent used in this study completely controlled and improved dispersivity. As shown in the HRSEM images (Fig. [13](#page-13-0) c, d, e and f), presence of voids or spaces in between the particles suggests the occurrence of inter-particle porosity. Generally, the spheroidal well-dispersed homogeneous and spherical crystal morphologies of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  samples were more evident in the basic medium than the acidic medium.



<span id="page-17-0"></span>**Fig. 19** XPS high-resolution spectrum; O 1 s spectra of anatase  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles



## **HRTEM analysis**

Figure [14](#page-14-0) shows the HRTEM images of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles prepared at different pH (a) 2 (b) 4 (c) 6 (d) 8 (e) 10 and (f) 12. It was shown that the samples consist of spherical crystalline sizes of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles with the average particle size range from 6.80 to 14.10 nm. Lattice fringes observed in HRTEM is evidence of the formation of well-crystallized  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  material under the applied conditions. HRTEM micrograph also showed the d-spacing of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  planes which correspond to the results obtained from XRD and SAED patterns. The spectrum recorded for elemental composition of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles gave well-defined peaks related to tea, O, C, and Ni for the as-synthesized  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  at acidic medium, but Na was found in the as-synthesized  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  at pH > 7. The presence of oxygen was linked to the interaction of the precursor with air during synthesis (washing with ethanol and water) or during calcination in the furnace under air atmosphere. This indicates that the non-metal is in stoichiometric amount with another element present; leading to better performance of adsorption activity. The black spot observed on the HRTEM image patterns at pH 10 and 12 could be attributed to overlaying  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  particles, while the C was from the carbon support film on the TEM grid. According to Fig. [14](#page-14-0), the inter-planar distance between lattice fringes of 0.35, 0.19 and 0.16 nm confirmed the  $(101)$ , (200) and (211) planes of anatase  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  structure, respectively. The SAED patterns of the well-crystallized  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ nanoparticles exhibit diffraction concentric ring pattern, corresponding to a polycrystalline anatase phase. Table [4](#page-14-1)

shows the grain sizes of HRTEM images of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles and the plotted graph using the average size and standard deviation is presented in Fig. [14](#page-14-0).

## **FTIR analysis**

FTIR spectra of the  $TIO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles produced at the different stirring time of (a) 20 min (b) 40 min (c) 60 min (d) 80 min and (e) 100 min are shown in Fig. [15](#page-15-0). The absorption band at 1639.54 cm<sup>-1</sup> for TiO<sub>2</sub> produced at stirring time of 40, 60 80 and 100 min is assigned to H–O–H bending. At the stirring time of 60 min, it was noted that the intensity of bands between 535 and 600 cm−1 decreased. A strong absorption peak appeared in the  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles produced at stirring time of 20, 40, 80 and 100 min and was associated with the vibrational modes of Ti–O–Ti bonds [[58](#page-20-13)]. This is an indication that the intensities of the bands promote the Ti–O network resulting in the formation of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles (Fig. [16](#page-15-1)). In the cases of the FTIR spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles produced at different pH (a) 2 (b) 4 (c) 6 (d) 8 (e) 10 and (f) 12 calcined shown in Fig. [16](#page-15-1), absorption peaks in the range  $520-630$  cm<sup>-1</sup>, assigned to Ti–O stretching modes was observed [[29\]](#page-19-15). This particular absorption band also corresponds to tetrahedral [TiO4]4− units. At a pH of 8, a broader band observed at 630 cm<sup>-1</sup> was linked to O-Ti–O and Ti–O-Ti of the TiO<sub>2</sub> framework. The formation of the anatase phase of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  at basic medium has the tendency of the bond breakage of Ti–O-Ti by NaOH to Ti–O-Na, suggesting the presence of high concentration of NaOH during the synthesis could influence the crystal growth of sodium titanate (Na<sub>2</sub>Ti<sub>3</sub>O<sub>7</sub>).

## **XPS analysis**

Figures [17,](#page-16-2) [18](#page-16-3), [19](#page-17-0) represent the general survey and the deconvoluted XPS spectra of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles synthesized by sol–gel method. Figure [17](#page-16-2) shows the general XPS survey of Ti in the nanoparticle shows strong signals of Ti LMM, O KLL, O (1 s), Ti (2 s), C (1 s), Ti  $(2p)$ , Ti  $(3 s)$  and Ti  $(3p)$  at different binding energies. While Fig. [18](#page-16-3) which show the deconvoluted XPS spectra of Ti 2p revealed the presence of Ti  $(2p_{1/2})$  and Ti  $(2p_{3/2})$ corresponds to the atomic percentage of 32.8 and 67.2%, respectively. This indicates that  $Ti$  exists in the  $+4$  oxidation state and was obtained from the spin–orbit splitting of Ti  $(2p_{1/2})$  and Ti  $(2p_{3/2})$  electron bands. The energy diference between the doublets peaks is approximately 6 eV, thus confirmed the presence of Ti in  $+4$  and oxidation, not  $+3$  (Fig. [18\)](#page-16-3). The existence of Ti in the chemical valence state of  $+4$  corroborated the previous studies [[59](#page-20-14)]. The Ti LMM Auger transition exhibits a sharp peak in the region 880 eV, which corroborated to the crystal  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$ .

These two identified peaks at 464.9 eV (Ti  $2p_{1/2}$ ) and 458.8 eV (Ti  $2p_{3/2}$ ) in Fig. [18](#page-16-3) are similar to the published work reported by Krishnan et al. [\[60](#page-20-15)] who found that peaks for  $Ti^{4+}$  located at 459.3 and 465 eV, respectively. The two major peaks in  $O(1 s)$  in Fig. [19](#page-17-0) lie between the binding energy of 529.5 eV and 530.9 eV. The hump shape of the O 1 s spectrum shows the presence of embedded surface species which were ascribed to four peaks at 530.7, 531.9, 532.9 and 534 eV as represented in Fig. [19.](#page-17-0) The initial peak at 530.7 eV represents the lattice O band to  $Ti^{4+}$  and the other three peaks emanated from water molecules on the surface of the sample. The order of OH group with oxygen can be found at the bridging oxygen site (531.9 eV), as a terminal group while oxygen attached to the five coordinated  $Ti^{4+}$  $(O-Ti^{4+})$  covalent bond existed at a binding energy of 533 eV and formation of a water molecule was confrmed with the binding energy of 534 eV.

# **Conclusion**

In summary,  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were synthesized by sol–gel method and the efects of stirring time and solution pH were investigated. The prepared  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles were characterized by diferent analytical tools. The characterization tools confirmed the successful synthesis of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles via sol–gel method. The optimum conditions to prepare well-distinct and evenly distributed spherical  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles of tetragonal anatase phase were: solution pH (8) and stirring time (80 min), respectively. It was found that the stirring time and pH signifcantly infuenced only the crystallite sizes and not the phase types of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  nanoparticles. The crystallite size obtained from W–H analysis shows variation

which could be as a result of the diference in average the particle size distribution. It was revealed that W–H crystallite sizes at the acidic and basic media were signifcantly diferent from the size obtained using the Debye–Scherrer equation. The HRTEM images of  $TiO<sub>2</sub>$  illustrated that the inter-planar distances for SAED ring patterns were in agreement with the XRD plane results. The XPS analysis demonstrated two peaks located at the binding energies of 464.9 eV (Ti 2P<sub>1/2</sub>) and 458.8 eV (Ti 2P<sub>3/2</sub>).

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## **Declarations**

**Conflict of interest** Authors have declared that there is no confict of interest.

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