

CHAPTER IV

**Effect of shell precursor concentration on
optical and photocatalytic properties of core-
shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures**

In the previous chapter, we have discussed about various temperature dependant properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles along with three core-shells where the core was annealed at different temperature. We also went on a detailed survey of optical properties of MgO nanostructures which acted as the shell in case of the core-shell structures. By comparing the individual properties of core and shell along with the core-shell nanostructure, we found no trace of shell characteristics in the hybrid structure. This may be attributed to the almost insulating band gap of MgO which is around 7.8 eV. So this time we attempted with a shell layer of SnO₂ which has a band gap 3.7 eV almost near to the band gap of the core TiO₂ i.e 3.2 eV (in bulk). So, in this chapter we shall absorb ourselves in quenching the following queries

- Will a coating with a material of near band gap energy significantly affect the core properties?
- What will be the influence on the optical and photocatalytic properties of the core when the shell concentration is varied? Will it attain a saturation level at certain extent?

In this chapter, we have undergone a detailed analytical and qualitative study over the optical properties of core TiO₂ nanostructures when it is coated with three different shell concentrations. The structural and morphological properties are studied with the help of XRD pattern, TEM images, Raman, XPS and EDX spectra. The samples were characterized for the optical perspective through UV-vis absorbance spectra, PL spectra and TRPL analysis. Also the photoactivity of all the samples under day light was studied to achieve degradation of methylene blue.

4.1 Synthesis of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures

Core TiO₂ nanoparticles are prepared via a simple sol-gel method as we have already discussed in *chapter III*. SnO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized following [1] only with an increment of the pH to 11. The synthesis of SnO₂ nanoparticles is started with the addition of 1 gm of SnCl₂.2H₂O in a mixture of 11 ml deionized water and 5 ml of ethanol and is allowed to stir for 5 min. Then 1 ml HCl is added drop wise to the above solution. After stirring it for 15 min the solution is fixed at pH 11 by drop wise addition of aq. ammonia. By this procedure, SnO₂ solutions of three different

concentrations were prepared namely 0.2 M, 0.4 M and 0.6 M. This solution is stirred for 2–3 h at 80 °C. To the prepared TiO₂ nanoparticles, SnO₂ solutions were added dropwise followed by stirring for 4–5 hours then centrifuging and drying at 80 °C to obtain the three core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures named as TS2, TS4 and TS6.

4.2 Structural and morphological characterizations

4.2.1 XRD pattern analysis

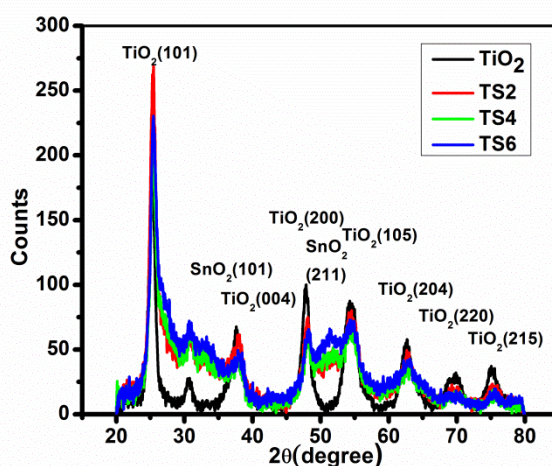


Fig. 4.1: XRD pattern of core TiO₂ along with core-shell TiO₂/SnO₂ nanostructures with different shell concentrations

Fig. 4.1 shows the XRD patterns of TiO₂ and its corresponding core-shells TS2, TS4 and TS6. From the figure, it is clearly predictable that the core TiO₂ nanoparticles possess all the anatase peaks along with a low intensity brookite peak around $2\theta = 32^\circ$. The diffraction peaks of TiO₂ for different values of $2\theta = (25, 38, 48, 54, 63, 69, 75)$ from different crystal planes $\{(101), (004), (200), (105), (204), (220), (215)\}$ respectively are found in the pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles as well as all the three core-shell structures. Also two peaks of SnO₂ are found in the core-shell nanostructures indicating its presence in the core-shell sample. It is very clear from the image that with increase in SnO₂ concentration, the intensity of shell related peaks are enhanced e.g TS6 exhibits highest intensity peak at SnO₂ (211). Alternately highest intense peak at TiO₂ (101) is found at TS2 confirming sufficient concentration of TiO₂ in the sample.

We have determined the lattice strain of each sample using Williamson-Hall (*W-H*) equation (described in *chapter 2 section 2.2.1*). We have calculated the microstrain and crystallite sizes of all the core-shell nanostructures along with core TiO₂ which are presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Calculation of microstrain and crystallite size

Sample name	Crystallite size (nm)	Microstrain
TiO ₂	8	0.0053
TS2	10	0.00275
TS4	11	0.0175
TS6	12	0.00436

When the size of a material is reduced from bulk to nano, lots of surface defects occur in the particle owing to the high surface to volume ratio present in the nanocrystal. We can see that the strain is significantly decreased in the core-shell structure with lowest shell concentration. When the core is coated with an external shell layer, the system comes under an external compressive strain. Compressive force imparts a negative strain in the system. But, in case of core-shell structures, the oxygen vacancy related defects play a vital role in increasing the strain. That is why the strain is reduced but it does not come to negative value although a bit lessened than the strain of the core structure. However with increase in shell concentration, the shell material is under high tensile strain due to coherent growth on the core structure. This further increases the strain in TS4. Also the lattice mismatch between TiO₂ and SnO₂ plays a vital role enhancing the microstrain in TS4. In the earlier case, we can see from XRD pattern that TS2 exhibits almost all characteristic peaks of TiO₂ due presence of very thin coating layer of SnO₂. But the lattice mismatch increases with increase in shell concentration as we can see that with increasing shell concentration, the SnO₂ related peaks have become more intense. However for the constant core size, growth of a larger shell exceeds the critical thickness for accommodation of electron and can only be accommodated by the formation of defects that relax the strain between core and shell. Therefore the sample TS6 is showing negligible strain [2]

Also the calculation of crystallite sizes for each sample indicates that with increase in shell concentration, the crystallite sizes are also increased. This is because of the fact that coating the core material enhances the crystallinity of the core-shell system because the shell is not amorphous in the sample. So, with increasing shell thickness, it is accompanied with increasing crystalline size because the crystallite size of the shell also takes part in enhancing the crystallite size of the whole system [3].

4.2.2 HRTEM image analysis

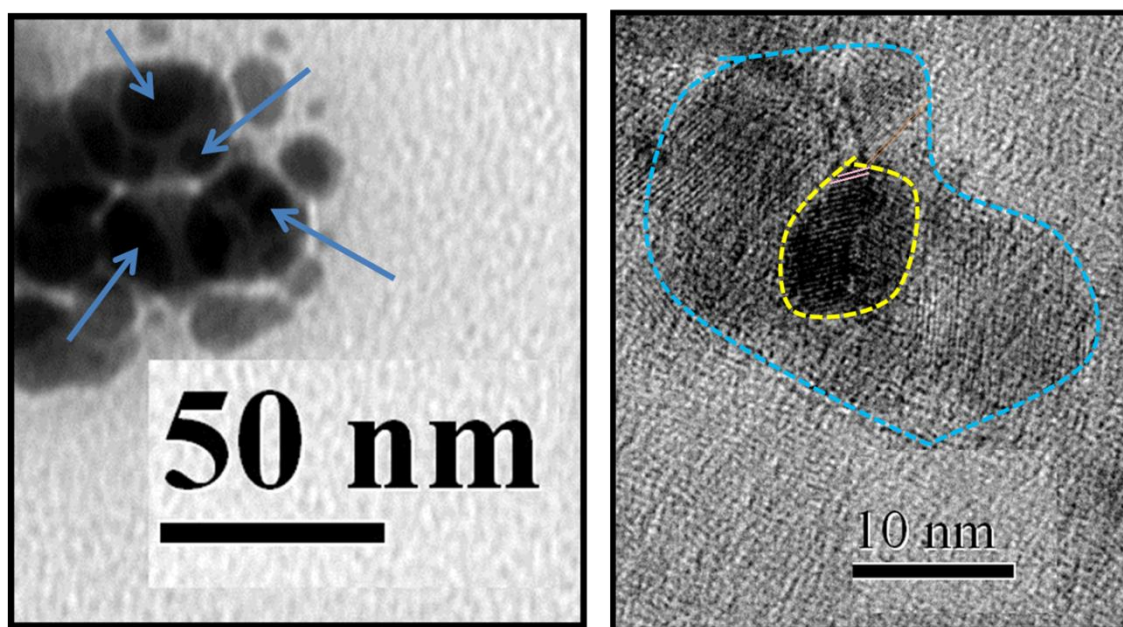


Fig. 4.2: Low resolution (left) and High resolution (right) TEM image of TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures

Fig. 4.2 (left) shows the low resolution tem image of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures. The blue colored arrows indicate the core portion in the surrounding shell layer. One shell seems to accommodate more than one core nanoparticle [3]. Agglomeration is present in the sample as we did not use any kind of surfactant while synthesizing the sample. From the HRTEM image (Fig. 4.2, right) the core size is found to be 8 nm whilst the shell size is estimated as 10 nm in average. We have to measure the average thickness of the shell as the shell layer is not uniform surrounding the core. The core lattice planes are indicated by pink colored lines while the shell planes are indicated with orange colored lines.

4.2.3 EDX spectra analysis

The EDX pattern further confirms the presence of all constituent elements in the core-shell structure which is shown in Fig 4.3.

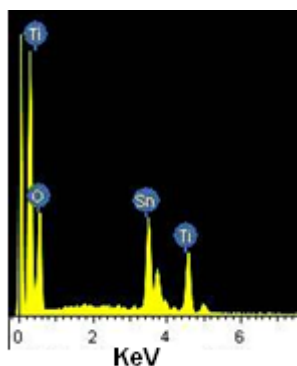


Fig. 4.3: EDX spectra of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures

4.2.4 Raman spectra analysis

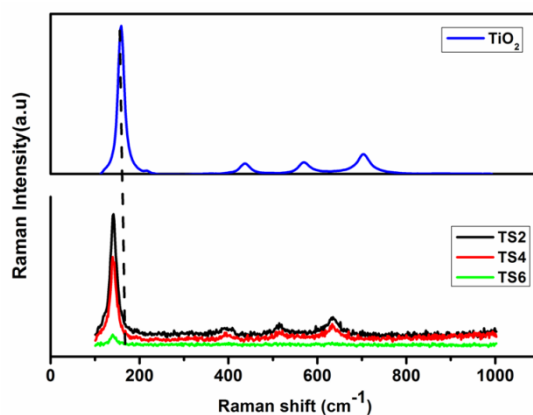


Fig. 4.4 Raman spectra of the core TiO₂ and the synthesized core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6)

Fig 4.4 shows the Raman spectra for core TiO₂ and the three core-shell nanostructures TS2, TS4 and TS6. In case of TiO₂, an intense Eg peak has appeared at 144 cm⁻¹, followed by low intense A1g, B1g peaks at 410 cm⁻¹, 520 cm⁻¹ and at 630 cm⁻¹ respectively [4-5]. The 144 cm⁻¹ peak occurs prominently in core TiO₂ which is red shifted to 140 cm⁻¹ in case of all the core-shell nanostructures. The intensity of the peaks are found to be decreasing w.r.t the core and also found to be suppressed with

increasing shell thickness where in TS6 all the peaks except the E_g peak vanish permanently.

The size of the nanocrystals, presence of defects have a profound effect on the Raman peak position, line width, etc. To study the effect of size, defects and temperature on the position, width of the Raman peak, we have considered the E_g Raman peak. Xu et al. [6] used a phonon confinement model to explain the observed changes in the Raman line and position using Heisenberg uncertainty principle.

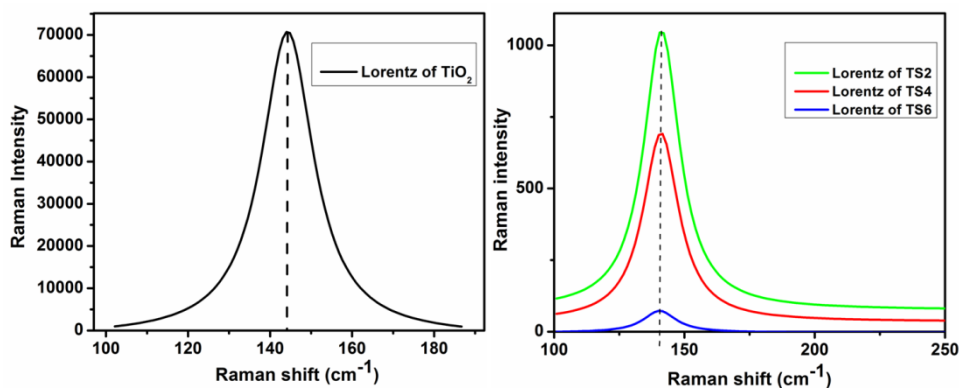
$$\Delta X \Delta P \geq \hbar/2 \dots\dots\dots(4.1)$$

Where ΔX is crystallite size, ΔP is the phonon momentum distribution and \hbar is reduced Planck constant. When it comes to a perfect crystal, first order Raman scattering of photons abide by the phonon selection rule $q=0$, implying phonon contribution at the center of Brillouin zone. Thus, when ΔX increases as we can see in our case, ΔP decreases resulting in very less amount of phonon contribution. This leads to shifting as well as contraction of the active Raman peak. The red Raman downshifts are mainly accredited to either size-induced phonon confinement [7] or lattice defects, such as point defects, dislocations and stacking faults [7]. Again the strength of a bond is determined by its force constant and the force constant of a bond is associated with frequency by $\nu \propto \sqrt{k}$ [8]. The increase in oxygen vacancies in the core-shell nanostructure plays a vital role in red shifting of the Raman peak as number of Ti-O bonds decrease due to lack of oxygen atoms hereby decreasing the force constant and the wave number also thus gets reduced.

The shell acts as a shield for the phonons to interact more thus decreasing the Raman intensity. The disappearance of Raman bands for the core-shell nanostructure TS6 indicates that TiO₂ nanostructure is completely surrounded by a shell of sufficient thickness, which does not allow much optical phonon of TiO₂ (core) to participate in the Raman scattering process[11].

Table 4.2: Calculation of bond width of active raman peak and phonon lifetime

Sample name	E _g bond width (cm ⁻¹)	Phonon lifetime (pico sec)
TiO ₂	15.45	0.3
TS2	16.68	0.89
TS4	16.66	0.9
TS6	15.31	1.08

Fig. 4.5: E_g bond vibration of core TiO₂ and the synthesized core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6)

We have calculated the phonon lifetime, considering E_g mode, in each sample by adopting the energy-time uncertainty relation, $\Delta E/\hbar = 1/\tau = 2\pi c\Gamma$, where ΔE is uncertainty in the energy of phonon mode, \hbar is reduced plank constant, Γ is the FWHM of the Raman peak [9]. The calculated phonon lifetimes are tabulated in table 4.2. It is obvious from the table that the phonon lifetime increases in case of the core-shell nanostructures. As we can see from Table 4.1 that crystallite size of all the core-shell nanostructures are much higher than that of TiO₂ and this leads to an increase in the phonon density hereby increasing the anharmonic phonon coupling. This finally enhances the decay time or the lifetime of the phonons [9]. The line width broadening is caused by size distribution of TiO₂ NCs and phonon confinement effect in the TiO₂ NCs [10]. The enhanced Raman line bond width is due to the presence of lattice defects which occurred as a result of lattice mismatch between the core and shell. So although in TS2, the Raman line width has increased a lot but it again goes on

decreasing order with increase in shell thickness which may be attributed to the fact that the Raman line width is inversely proportional to the size of the nanocrystals.

4.2.5 XPS spectra analysis

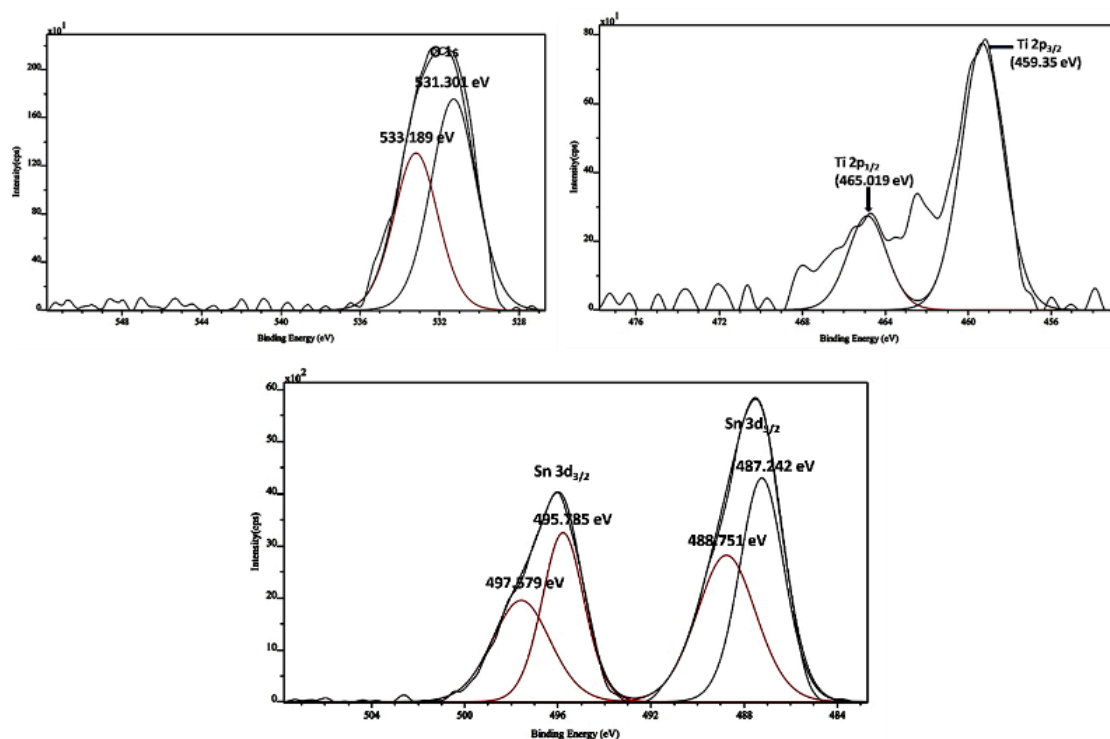


Fig. 4.6 XPS spectra of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanocrystal

Fig 4.6 shows the XPS spectra of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures. The XPS spectra of pristine TiO₂ has already been analysed in the earlier chapter (section 3.6.6). So, here we can see that in the core-shell structure, the O_L peak is shifted to 531.301 eV whilst the O_H peak shifts to 533.189 eV. Both O_L and O_H peaks move to higher binding energies and this shift may be attributed to TiO_{2-x} or SnO_{2-y} after addition of SnO₂ to TiO₂ [3]. While analyzing the Sn spectra in the core-shell structure, it is found that Sn 3d_{5/2} and Sn 3d_{3/2} peaks are present in the core-shell nanostructure but both of them are deconvoluted as doublets. Sn 3d_{5/2} is found at two positions (487.242 eV, 488.751 eV) whereas Sn 3d_{3/2} is obtained at two positions (495.785 eV, 497.579 eV). The higher binding energy related peaks correspond to Sn⁴⁺ state while the lower binding energy related peaks are attributed to Sn²⁺ state. The occurrence of the Sn²⁺ state in the core-shell structure indicates the presence of oxygen vacancy in the sample

[12]. This result demonstrates that Sn⁴⁺ ions close to oxygen vacancies inhabit two electrons from the oxygen vacancy cavity V_o and transform to Sn²⁺ ions yielding an F center. Actually, when an O atom is lost from the SnO₂ lattice, the electron pair that remains trapped in the vacancy cavity V_o leaves behind a pair of electrons which give rise to an F center. The basic assumption is that the two electrons in F centre tend to occupy the neighboring Sn⁴⁺ ion and yield Sn²⁺ center [12].



The XPS analysis of Ti shows that it is in ⁴⁺ state. Again, it is seen in the core-shell nanostructures that, the Ti 2p_{3/2} peak (458.6 eV) is shifted to higher binding energy (459.350 eV). The same goes for Ti 2p_{1/2} peak (464.8 eV) which is shifted to 465.019 eV

4.3 Optical Property analysis

Core TiO₂ and all the three core-shells TS2, TS4 and TS6 were characterized to realize their optical properties and how they change w.r.t that of the core/

4.3.1 UV-vis absorbance spectra analysis

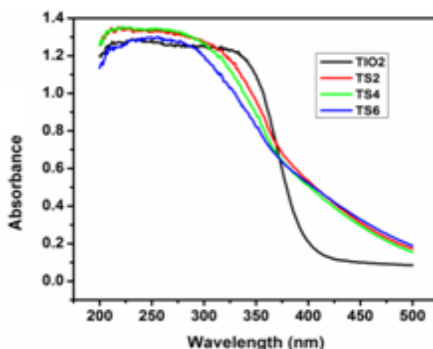


Fig. 4.7: Absorbance spectra of core TiO₂ and core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6) nanostructures

Fig 4.7 reveals the UV-vis absorbance spectra of core TiO₂ along with the three core-shell nanostructures. TiO₂ has shown sharp UV absorbance with two peaks at ~225 nm and 330 nm. The 225 nm peak of TiO₂ is seen all the three core-shells. But a surprising

phenomenon is observed as unlike other core-shell nanostructures, the 330 nm peak position is blue shifted in the core-shell nanostructures and this shift is more prominent with increasing shell thickness. It is observed that TS6 is behaving completely like the shell SnO₂ as the later is also found to exhibits absorbance peak around 290 nm. So a coupling mechanism might have occurred between the core and shell where a few of the UV photons excited are absorbed by the outer shell and may be due to high shell thickness, the excitation source does not have enough intensity to penetrate the shell. Thus the absorbance features of the core are being suppressed resulting in distinct characteristics resembling the shell. But it can be clearly seen that the absorbance intensity of the core-shell nanostructures in the visible regime is enhanced far more than the core structure which is an essential condition for the applicability of the material. The absorption hump of TiO₂ in the visible region may be due to Ti³⁺ defect related states as well as oxygen vacancies present in the sample. The same goes for the core-shell structures which may occur due to Sn²⁺ states as well as increment of oxygen vacancies in the core-shell structures.

The Urbach energy is calculated by plotting the $\ln F(R)$ vs. E and are shown in Fig. 4.8. The absorption is calculated by Kubelka-Munk plot. The band gap of the nanomaterials were calculated from a plot of the modified Kubelka-Munk function $[F(R)E]^{1/2}$ vs the energy of absorbed light E The calculated Urbach energy values and the band gap values are tabulated below in Table 4.3.

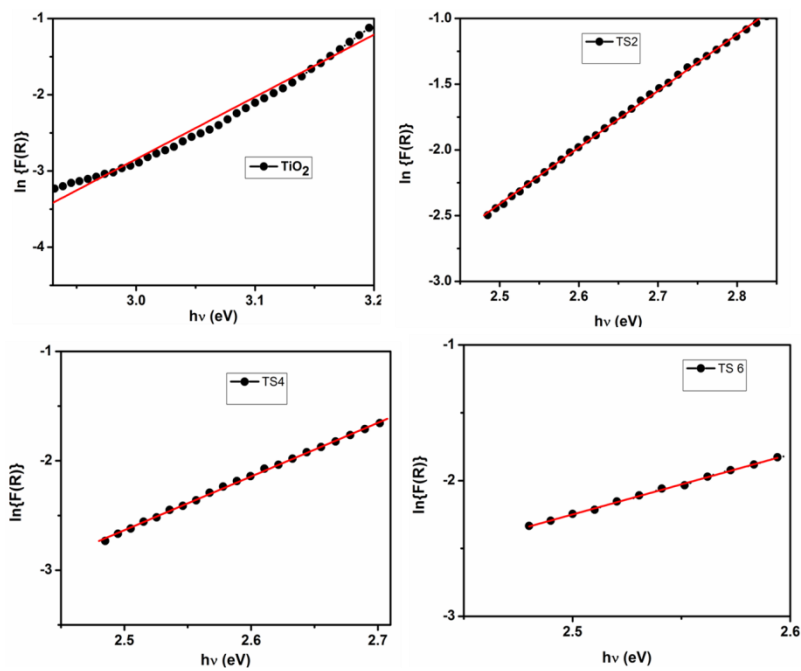


Fig. 4.8: Urbach energy plot of core TiO₂ and core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6) nanostructures

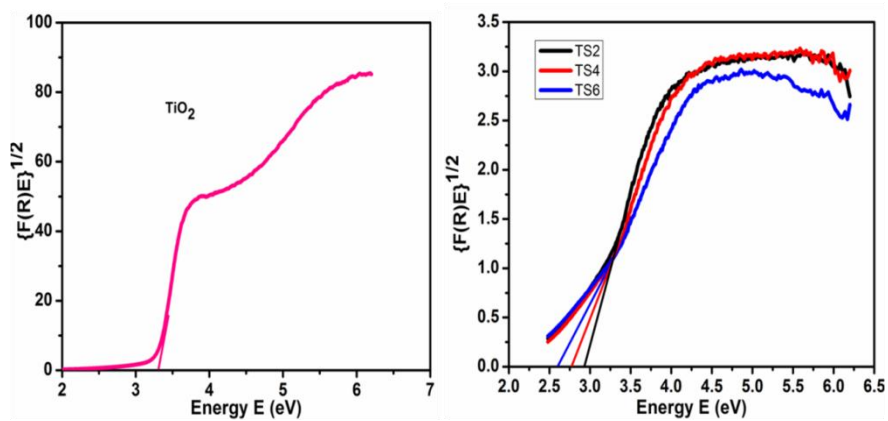


Fig. 4.9: Tauc's Plot for of core TiO₂ and core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6) nanostructures

Table 4.3: Calculation of urbach energy and band gap

Sample name	Urbach energy (meV)	Band gap (eV)
TiO ₂	122	3.25
TS2	232	2.9
TS4	204	2.75
TS6	225	2.6

From table 4.3 we can find that there is remarkable increase in Urbach energy when TiO₂ nanoparticles are annealed and are coated with SnO₂ shell layer. It is well established that the growth of the shell leads to prominent strain and formation of defect states at the core/shell interface or within the shell [13]. These can serve as trap centres for photogenerated charge carriers. The excited electrons are captured by the shallow defect bands, preventing their direct transition to the conduction band hereby increasing the Urbach energy to such high extent. But as we increase the shell thickness which consequently results in decreasing the band gap; implying that for a constant core, the valance band position of the shell will move upwards while the conduction band position will shift downwards. So, in the shell the distance between the valance band and conduction band becomes very low and hence there is lot more probability of recombination of electrons and holes in the sample. Thus some of the electrons are lost instead of getting trapped in defect centers reducing the Urbach energy. But still the urbach energy is higher than that of the core TiO₂ as due to formation of core-shell structure, charge separation is still more than in the core. The charge separation is schematically shown in Fig. 4.12. Again as we have explained in paragraph (strain), when the shell thickness overcomes a critical thickness, it becomes unable to accommodate the electrons and the electrons tend to stay in various defect related trap sites which further increases the Urbach energy.

4.3.2 Photoluminescence spectra analysis

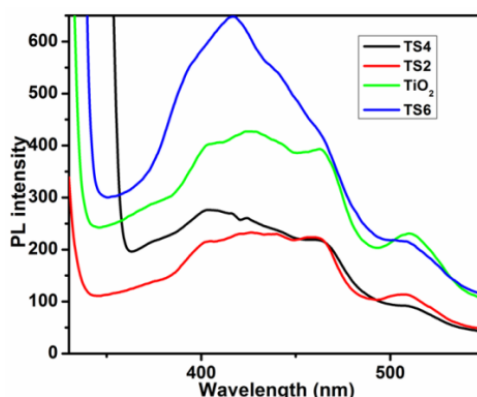


Fig. 4.10: Comparative room temperature PL spectra of core TiO₂ and core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6) nanostructures, excited at a wavelength of 350 nm

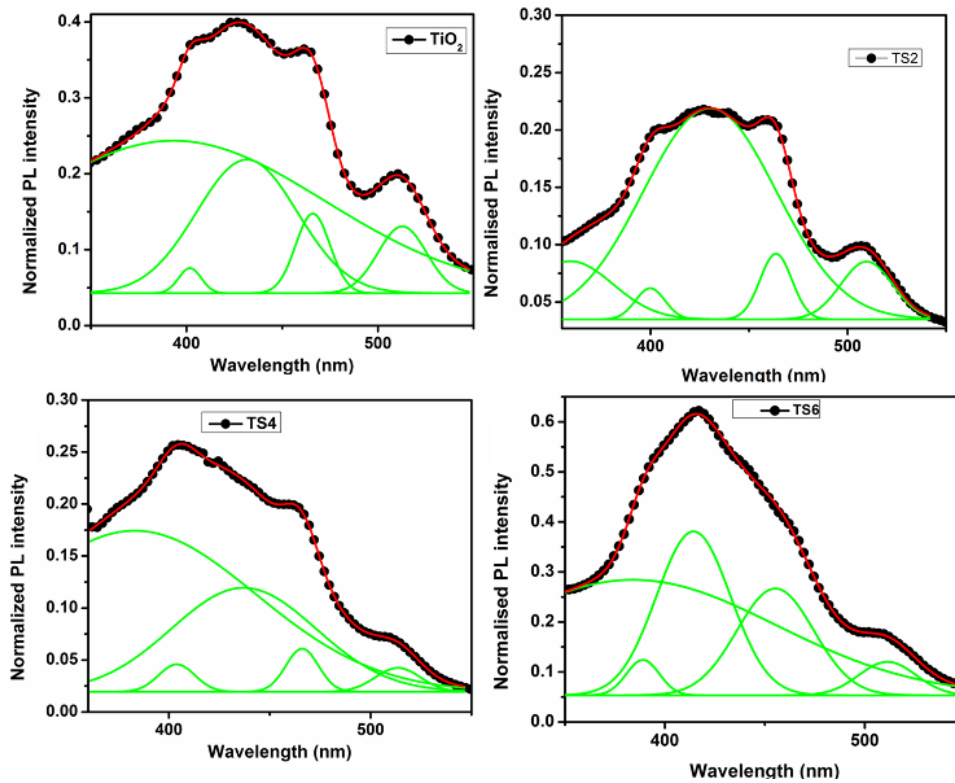


Fig. 4.11: Gaussian fit of PL spectra of core TiO₂ and core-shell (TS2, TS4 and TS6) nanostructures

Fig 4.10 shows the PL of core TiO₂ as well as all the three core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures. This figure is plotted as a comparative diagram to show that in case of TS2 and TS4, the luminescence intensity is suppressed than that of the core TiO₂. This is resembling TYPE 2 core-shell structure as due to enhanced charge separation in the core-shell structure, there is less probability of overlapping of electrons and holes in the core-shell structure which is schematically shown in Fig.4.12.

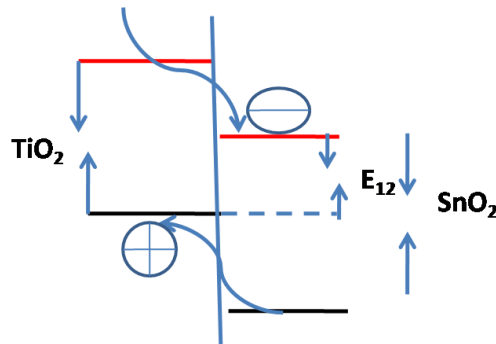


Fig. 4.12: Charge separation in core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂

Fig 4.11 displays the Gaussian fitting of the PL intensities of all the core-shell nanostructures along with the core counterpart to realize the exact positions of the PL peak. We can see that core and all three core-shells exhibit an emission peak at 390 nm. This peak is due to phonon assisted indirect transition from $M \rightarrow \Gamma$ in the Brillouin zone. But it is prominent that the intensity of the peak is suppressed in the core-shell nanostructure TS2 and TS4. This is due to the fact that the outer SnO₂ shell that is covering the core TiO₂ nanoparticles. The lowering of the TiO₂ related UV peak should be due to relatively thick and dense MgO layer, thus the excitation source does not have enough penetration intensity to excite the inner TiO₂ nanoparticles. Again, the photo-generated charge carriers emitted from the TiO₂ core get absorbed by the TiO₂ NPs which are formed on the surface of the core [14].

Although the photo-generated charge carrier emission from the TiO₂ core is very strong, the TiO₂ NPs which are developed on the surface of TiO₂ core can absorb some of the emission, ensuing decrease of the UV emission [14]. Also from the charge separation diagram we can see that both electron and hole are spatially separated at the interface of the core and shell due to their band alignments. The visible emission peaks are associated with excitons, oxygen vacancies and different surface defect states [15-17]. TiO₂, TS2 and TS4 exhibit an intense emission peak around 425 nm which is assigned to self trapped exciton (STE) recombination [18-19]. But an anomaly has occurred in TS6 sample as the PL intensity of 390 nm peak has enhanced along with occurrence of another peak at 380 nm. This may be due to the fact that with utmost shell thickness, the lattice mismatch between the core and shell increases to a higher extent resulting in occurrence of the additional peak while destructing the STE peak completely.

4.3.3 TRPL spectra analysis

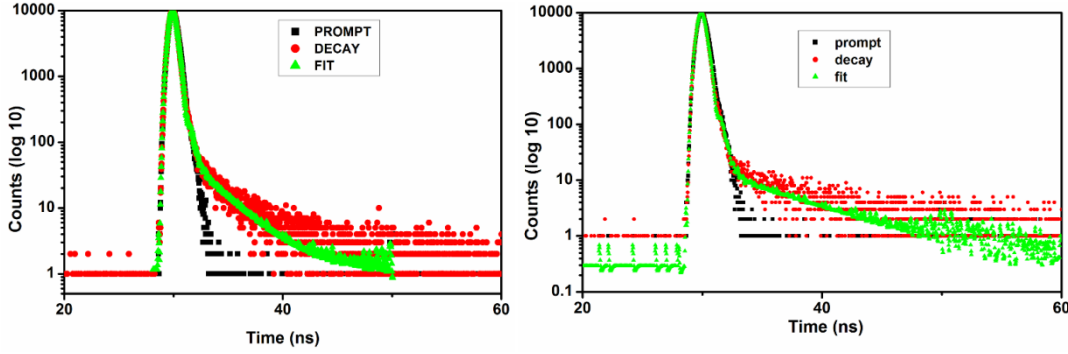


Fig. 4.13: TRPL spectra of (left) core TiO₂ and (right) core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂

Fig. 4.13 shows the TRPL spectrum for both core TiO₂ and core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures. A four exponential was fitted to calculate the life time of TiO₂ whilst a five exponential was needed to find out the same for TiO₂-SnO₂ through the following equation

$$y = y_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \exp(-t/\tau_i) \dots (\text{for } n \text{ exponential})$$

From the graph, the values of $\tau_1 = 5.052403E \times 10^{-12}$ sec, $\tau_2 = 6.115959 \times 10^{-11}$ sec, $\tau_3 = 5.526903 \times 10^{-11}$ sec and $\tau_4 = 2.843263 \times 10^{-9}$ sec. The values of $\alpha_1 = -219.0319$, $\alpha_2 = -13.22373$, $\alpha_3 = 16.22717$ and $\alpha_4 = 2.337827 \times 10^{-4}$

The lifetime of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ is found to be 8.04 pico sec which is calculated using the parameters $\tau_1 = 4.828623 \times 10^{-11}$ sec, $\tau_2 = 5.827831 \times 10^{-11}$ sec, $\tau_3 = 5.689869 \times 10^{-11}$ sec, $\tau_4 = 6.183882 \times 10^{-9}$ sec and $\alpha_1 = -57.02612$, $\alpha_2 = -319.5732$, $\alpha_3 = 376.1231$ and $\alpha_4 = 4.546176 \times 10^{-5}$. The lifetime of electron in the core-shell structure is found to be 0.015 nano sec which is much more higher than that of the core structure that is 0.005 nano sec indicating that there is very less recombination in the sample. This once again stands with the TYPE 2 structure of core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂. The spatial separation of electron and hole leads to reduced wave function overlap and thus longer lifetime of charge recombination is expected in TYPE 2 heterostructures. Our observation indicates that the formation of shell leads to an increase in lifetime, which can be concluded as the clear evidence of reduced electron hole wave function overlap in core-shell material. Upon coating, the number of oxygen vacancies increases (also found in XPS spectra), and therefore large number of carriers

are trapped in these defect centers. Thus, as compared to the pristine one, the electrons in the coated system now can transit from one defect related state to another state and then to the valence band until they find emission center. The oxygen vacancies, with trapped electrons, act as charged defects. Therefore, these charged oxygen vacancies can also interact with the mobile electrons and scatter them, thereby decreasing their mobility [20]. Decrease in mobility results in separation of the electrons-holes for longer time resulting in increase in the lifetime.

4.4 Application of core TiO₂ nanoparticles and core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures in photocatalysis

Photocatalytic activities of pure TiO₂ nanoparticles and core-shell TiO₂-SnO₂ nanostructures were examined by observing the degradation of methylene blue (MB) under daylight. The photoactivity was studied under daylight lamp of 500 watt power Xenon lamp in the wavelength range from 400-700 nm as described in earlier chapters. The decrease of concentration or degradation of methylene blue from its initial concentration was studied by observing the decrease of the absorption peak (A_t) of the dye solution irradiated for the aforementioned period. The degradation efficiency of phenol solution is given by $\{(A_0 - A_t)/A_0\} \times 100\%$ [21] where A_0 is the initial concentration of the dye solution. The rate constants were determined using 1st order reaction kinetics as mentioned in chapter 2 (section 2.3.3)

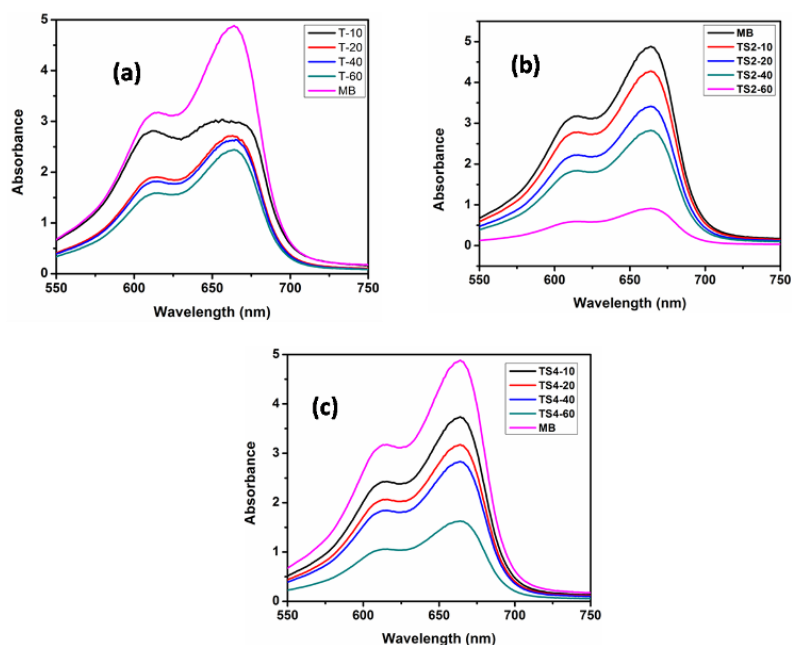


Fig. 4.14: Absorbance of MB in presence of catalyst (a) TiO₂, (b) TS2 and (c) TS4

Fig. 4.14 shows the photocatalytic degradation scenario of core TiO₂ and TS2, TS4 core-shell nanostructures. The degradation efficiencies and rate constants are tabulated in table 4.4.

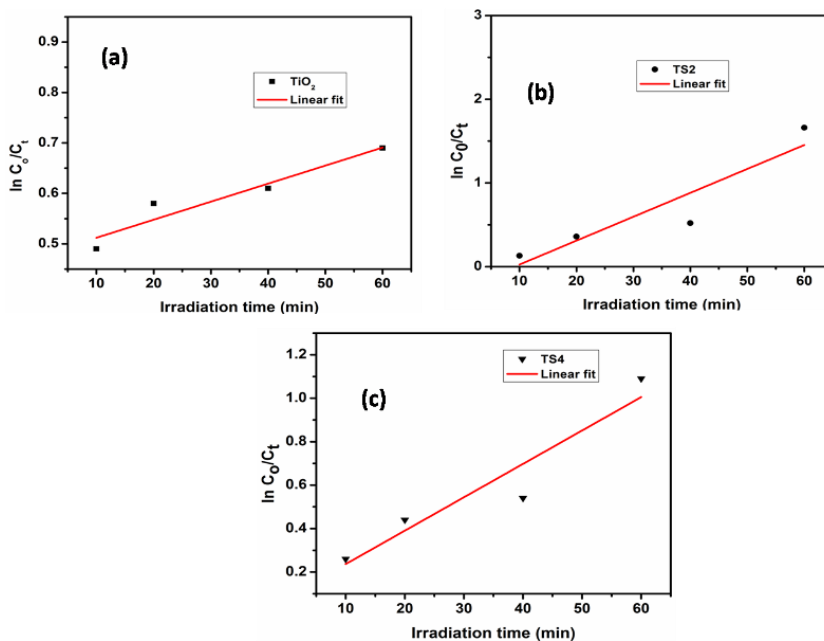


Fig. 4.15: $\ln C_0/C_t$ vs irradiation time graph for determination of rate constant

Table 4.4: Calculation of rate constant and degradation efficiency

Sample name	Rate const (min ⁻¹)	% degradation w.r.t time of irradiation			
		10 min	20 min	40 min	60 min
TiO ₂	0.003	38.6	44	42.5	50.1
TS2	0.02	12.11	29	42	81.66
TS4	0.015	24.2	35.5	42	66.9

We can see that the highest degradation efficiency obtained for TiO₂ to degrade methylene blue (MB) is 50.1%. The core shell structures TS2 and TS4 exhibited very high degradation efficiencies when irradiated for 60 min. Also from the calculation of rate constants it is found that the core-shell nanostructures are far better photocatalytic agent than the core counterpart. A possible mechanism for degradation of MB was demonstrated in an earlier report by considering work functions of MB (5.67 eV), excited MB (3.81 eV), conduction band of TiO₂ (4.25 eV) and the conduction band of SnO₂ (4.5 eV) [22] while similar mechanism for photodegradation of RhB has been proposed by Zhang et al [23]. MB excited in the presence of daylight can efficiently transfer electrons into the TiO₂ conduction band. The slow degradation of MB by TiO₂ is attributed to the electron recombination between the injected electron and surface adsorbed MB (holes) (arrow in Fig. 4.16). But the scenario is different for the TiO₂/SnO₂ core-shell system where electrons first jump into the TiO₂ conduction band and then can be transferred to the conduction band of SnO₂. This leads to prominent separation between the electron and hole by increasing their lifetime (mentioned in section 4.3.3). The electron in the conduction band of SnO₂ can then be trapped by dissolved oxygen to form reactive oxygen species which then degrade the dye MB. The MB molecules adsorbed directly onto SnO₂ nanoparticles can transfer electrons into the conduction band of SnO₂, which in turn leads to the degradation of MB via the same process described above.

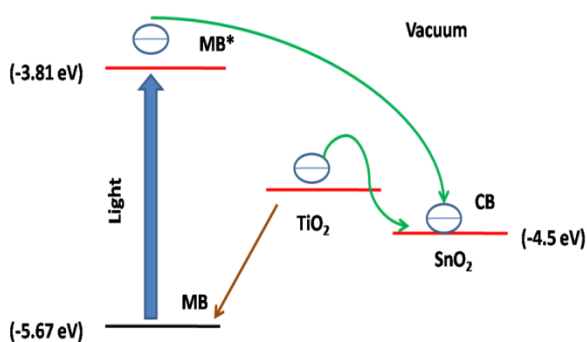


Fig. 4.16: Charge transfer schematic diagram

But we could not find any degradation for TS6 sample. There was an indication in the PL spectra that the nanostructure may not be applicable as a photocatalyst due to highly intense luminescence. This may be because of the fact that charge separation is very low in the sample and also maximum number of electrons are lost in recombination. Another reason may be the following fact that, with the shell thickness so high, the light source does not have enough energy to excite the inner core electrons and those electrons which are excited they could not tunnel to the surface of the material to take part in the reaction that yields degradation of MB molecules on the surface.

4.5 Conclusion

Thus in this chapter we have made a clear effort to answer the questions which were the aim to work on this material. We can see that coating TiO₂ with a near band gap material like SnO₂ significantly affected its properties specially in case of UV-vis absorbance spectra where we could see the core-shell structure was behaving entirely like the shell material. Again with increase in shell thickness, enhancement of properties was observed until we obtained a shell thickness which exceeded the critical thickness for accommodating the electron the shell conduction band. Thus we failed to obtain any significant contribution from TS6 sample but TS2 and TS4 have established themselves to be excellent photocatalytic agents than performed far better than core TiO₂ in degrading both phenol as well as MB.

References

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