

Highly Visible Light Activity of Nitrogen Doped $TiO₂$ Prepared by Sol–Gel Approach

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A simple approach was explored to prepare N-doped anatase $TiO₂$ nanoparticles (N-TiO₂ NPs) from titanium chloride (TiCl₄) and ammonia (NH₃) via sol– gel method. The effects of important process parameters such as calcination temperatures, $NH₃/TiCl₄ molar ratio (R_N)$ on crystallite size, structure, phase transformation, and photocatalytic activity of titanium dioxide $(TiO₂)$ were thoroughly investigated. The as-prepared samples were characterized by ultraviolet–visible spectroscopy, x-ray diffraction, transmission electron microscopy, energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy, and x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. The photocatalytic activity of the samples was evaluated upon the degradation of methylene blue aqueous solution under visible-light irradiation. The results demonstrated that both calcination temperatures and NH3/TiCl4 molar ratios had significant impacts on the formation of crystallite nanostructures, physicochemical, as well as catalytic properties of the obtained TiO₂. Under the studied conditions, calcination temperature of 600°C and $NH₃/TiCl₄$ molar ratio of 4.2 produced N-TiO₂ with the best crystallinity and photocatalytic activity. The high visible light activity of the $N-TiO₂$ nanomaterials was ascribed to the interstitial nitrogen atoms within $TiO₂$ lattice units. These findings could provide a practical pathway capable of large-scale production of a visible light-active $N-TiO₂$ photocatalyst.

Key words: TiO₂, anatase, visible-light activity, photocatalyst, interstitial nitrogen, sol–gel

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, photocatalytic detoxification of water and air has attracted considerable atten-tion.^{[1,2](#page-7-0)} Among several photocatalysts being investigated, titanium dioxide is highly preferred due to its low-cost of production, strong catalytic activity,

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stability, and nontoxicity. $3,4$ $3,4$ $3,4$ However, the large band gap (3.2 eV) of TiO₂ restricts its applications mainly to the ultraviolet (UV) ranges, which account for only [3](#page-7-0)-5% of sunlight energy.³ Photocatalytic efficiency of $TiO₂$ could be enhanced by generating mid-gap states or narrow its band gap.^{[5](#page-7-0)} The most effective method is to dope $TiO₂$ with impurities such as metal [iron (Fe) and copper (Cu)] or non-metal elements [boron (B), carbon (C), nitro-(Received January 21, 2016; accepted August 19, 2016; except of non-metal elements [boron (b), carbon (C), mtro-
gen (N), sulfur (S), and fluorine (F)].^{[6–10](#page-7-0)} However,
multished online September 6, 2016) metal doping can lead to thermal instability and carrier trapping which may adversely affect the photocatalytic power of the obtained catalysts.^{[9](#page-7-0)} Regarding the widely used non-metal dopants, nitrogen (N) reportedly exhibits considerable absorption in the visible wavelengths. $9-11$ Moreover, nitrogen is greatly desirable due to its nontoxic nature and proven ability to enhance photocatalytic efficiency of TiO_2 TiO_2 .² So far, the effects of N doping on photocatalytic enhancement of $TiO₂$ have not been fully understood even though several mechanisms such as the mixing the N $2p$ with O $2p$ states, the formation of N-induced midgap levels or impurity species such as NO_x , NH_x have been proposed.¹ Recent studies have also reported that oxygen vacancy or associated defects within $TiO₂$ plays a vital role in the visible-light activity (VLA) of $\mathrm{N}\text{-}\mathrm{TiO}_2$. $^{13-15}$

The synthesis of N-doped $TiO₂$ can be conducted by various methods such as sputtering, $\frac{16,17}{16}$ ion implantation,^{[18](#page-7-0)} chemical vapor deposition,^{[19,20](#page-7-0)} solgel, $^{21-25}$ $^{21-25}$ $^{21-25}$ $^{21-25}$ $^{21-25}$ oxidation of TiN, 26 26 26 nitrification of TiO₂ in an ammonia gas flow, 9 or decomposition of N-containing metal organic precursors.[27](#page-7-0) However, large-scale applications of $N-TiO₂$ are feasible only if this material can be produced by simple, inexpensive technologies and equipment. The sol–gel method could be a viable choice as N-doped TiO2 can be simply produced by adding a nitrogen precursor $(NH₄Cl$ or $NH₄OH)$ a solution containing Titanium anions. In one study by Sato et al. 24 24 24 N-TiO₂ with evident VLA was obtained, simply by annealing the mixture of $Ti(OH)_4$ and either NH₄Cl or NH₄OH.

The photocatalytic activity of $N-TiO₂$ can be significantly affected by the structure and sizes of $TiO₂$ crystallites, level and chemical states of doped nitrogen.[28–30](#page-7-0) For example, it was believed that the $N-TiO₂$ crystals in anatase phase showed better photocatalytic activity, compared to $N-TiO₂$ crystals in other phases.^{[2](#page-7-0)} The effect of nitrogen level on structural properties and photocatalytic activity of N-TiO₂ were reported by many authors.^{25,27,2} Sato et al. 25 has demonstrated that the photocatalytic activity of $N-TiO₂$ increased with increasing calcination temperature up to around 400° C and then decreased with further increase in calcination temperatures. The authors ascribed the increase and decrease in catalytic activity to narrowed bandgap of doped samples and the sintering of the samples, respectively. Therefore, it is critical to control the physical behaviors of $N-TiO₂$ crystals in order to maximize its photocatalytic activity.

In this study, a simple approach for preparing N- $TiO₂$ from calcined products of $TiCl₄$ in $NH₄OH$ was reported. This sol–gel method enabled massive production of highly active photocatalyst for applications in water treatments. The effects of calcination temperatures and molar ratio of $NH_3/TiCl_4$ on crystallite structure, chemical states of doped N, VLA of N -TiO₂ were thoroughly investigated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Titanium chloride $(TiCl₄, 99%)$ was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. Ammonia $(NH_3, 25\%)$ and methylene blue (MB) were purchased from Merck. Other chemicals were of analytical grades.

Preparation of N-TiO₂ Nanoparticles

 $N-TiO₂$ was synthesized by sol–gel method, using titanium chloride (TiCl₄) and ammonia (NH₃) as titanium source and dopant, respectively. Initially, 0.35 M TiCl₄ solution (solution A) was prepared via the hydrolysis of titanium chloride (99%) in water at 0-C. Aqueous ammonia (10%) (solution B) was prepared at 0° C from stock solution (25%) and was then mixed with solution A at given $NH_3/TiCl_4$ molar ratios $(R_N = 0-4.2)$. The mixture was vigorously stirred at ambient temperature for 4 h. The precipitate was filtered, washed four times by distilled water before being dried at 60° C for 24 h in a vacuum drying cabinet.

To study the influence of calcination temperatures on phase transition, crystallite structure and photocatalytic activity of N-TiO₂, precursor mixtures of NH₃ and TiCl₄ (R_N = 4.2) were calcined at temperatures ranging from 200 to 900°C (heating rate 5°C/min) for 30 min. On the other hand, the effects of various $NH_3/TiCl_4$ molar ratios (0–4.2) on N-TiO $_2$ samples annealed at 600°C for 30 min were determined.

Characterization of N-Doped TiO₂

X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the as-prepared samples were recorded by powder x-ray diffractometer (D8 Advance Brucker, Germany), using Cu K α radiation over the range of 20–70°. The average crystallite size of the samples was calculated from the diffraction peak broadening as described by Kondo et al. 30

Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM)

The morphology (particle size and shape) of the undoped and N-doped $TiO₂$ NPs were observed by a transmission electron microscope (TEM) (JEM1010, JEOL, Japan), operating at 80 kV.

X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

The chemical states of N in the $N-TiO₂$ NPs were analyzed using x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy $(Model S-ProbeTM2803, Fisons Instruments, USA).$ The XP spectra were acquired using monochromatic Al-K radiation (100 W), and the core levels of N_{1s} were calibrated with respect to the C_{1s} level at 284.5 eV.

Bunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET)

The Bunauer-Emmett-Teller specific surface area (S_{BET}) of the prepared samples was measured by N_2 adsorption/desorption isotherm at 77 °K using an ASAP 2010 Micromeritics adsorption apparatus (USA).

Measurement of Photocatalytic Activity

The photocatalytic reaction of as-synthesized N-TiO2 was conducted using light source from a 40 W Goldstar compact lamp (Fig. S1). A filter (400- 700 nm cut-off wavelengths) was used to block the UV light and let only visible light pass through (Fig. S2). Typically, 150 mg of $N-TiO₂$ was added into 200 ml aqueous solution of MB (10 mg/L) and stirred in the dark. The dye was allowed to adsorb onto $N-TiO₂$ before being exposed to the light source. After 90 min of irradiation, the 90 min of irradiation,

photocatalytic effects were measured by UV spectrophotometer (CECIL—CE 1011, Germany) at 663 nm.^{[31](#page-7-0)} The photocatalytic activity of undoped $TiO₂$ was also measured and used as reference sample. The photocatalytic degradation efficiency of $TiO₂$ was determined using method of Gouma and Mills.³²

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Influence of Calcination Temperature and NH3/TiCl4 Molar Ratio on Crystallite Structure of N-Ti $O₂$

The mechanism of transformation of titanium precursor into $N-TiO₂$ was given as below:

$$
TiCl_4 + H_2O \rightarrow Ti(OH)_x + Cl^-
$$
 (1)

$$
NH_3 + H_2O \rightarrow NH_4OH \tag{2}
$$

$$
Ti(OH)_x + NH_4OH \rightarrow N \cdot - \cdot Ti(OH)_x + H_2O \qquad (3)
$$

$$
N -- Ti(OH)x \rightarrow N -- TiO2 + H2O
$$
 (4)

Clearly, it is very important to control experimental conditions such as calcination temperature and molar ratio in order to improve the crystal quality as well as increase the photocatalytic activity of $N-TiO₂$ crystals.

Influence of Calcination Temperature on Crystallite Structure of N -Ti O_2

The phase transformation of $N-TiO₂$ from amorphous $\langle 200^{\circ}$ C) to anatase (200–600°C) and then rutile $(> 600$ °C) is demonstrated in Fig. 1. Obviously, no crystal phase was formed at low calcination temperature of 200°C and the samples were amorphous. At 300°C, the crystals started to grow in anatase phase (ref JCPDS file No. 21–1272). The Fig. 1. X-ray diffraction patterns of N-doped TiO₂ at different calci-
nation temperatures (200–900°C). Calcination time is 30 min
crystallite structure of the nanoparticles (as

Temperature $({}^{\circ}{\rm C})$	Lattice parameters			Phase composition		
	$a = b, A$	c, A	Nitrogen content [*] $(\%)$	$A(\%)$	\boldsymbol{R} (%)	Photocatalytic activity $(\%)$
200				Amorphous	Amorphous	62.5 ± 1.8
300	3.790	9.487	4.51	100		70.5 ± 2.0
350	3.789	9.488	4.02	100		73.0 ± 2.0
400	3.788	9.500	3.40	100		82.5 ± 2.7
500	3.791	9.508	2.43	100		94.0 ± 3.5
600	3.787	9.512	1.74	100		99.4 ± 3.9
700	3.782	9.512	0.86	91.3	8.7	98.5 ± 3.8
800			0	Ω	100	93.0 ± 3.0
900			0	0	100	83.5 ± 2.8

Table I. Influence of calcination temperature on lattice parameters, actual nitrogen content in sample and photocatalytic activity of $N-TiO₂$

indicated by the sharpness of the XRD peaks) was improved at higher calcination temperature (400– 600° C) due to thermally induced effects on crystal growth. A clear phase transformation from anatase into rutile phase was observed at 700°C. At 800°C and 900°C, only rutile phase (ref JCPDS file No. 21– 1276) was noted. In fact, the thermal transformation between rutile phase and anatase phase of $N-TiO₂$ was reported by many authors and various mechanisms were proposed. $32-34$ According to Gouma and Mills,^{[32](#page-7-0)} anatase-into-rutile phase transformation was initiated by the formation of rutile nuclei on the surface of anatase particles and the growth of rutile phase was at the expense of neighboring anatase. Zhang and Banfield 33 suggested that rutile nucleation might occur at the interface, surface or in the bulk of $TiO₂$. Other authors illustrated the absorption of anatase particles onto rutile and the growth of rutile particles by coalescence.[34](#page-7-0)

As seen from Table [I](#page-2-0), with increasing temperature, lattice parameters a and b slightly decreased

Fig. 2. X-ray diffraction patterns of N-TiO₂ nanoparticles calcined at 600°C at different NH₃/TiCl₄ molar ratios.

 $(3.789 \t{r} \t{3.782 \t{A}})$, whereas c increased $(9.488 \t{r} \t{3.789 \t{F}})$ 9.512 Å and reached a stable value of 9.512 Å at 600° C. These results confirmed the improvement in crystal quality of $N-TiO₂$ samples.

Influence of Molar Ratio on Crystallite Structure of $N-TiO₂$

As seen in Fig. 2, N-doping had a remarkable effect on phase transition of $TiO₂$. At low doping level of nitrogen $(R_N < 2.1)$, anatase crystals were completely transformed into rutile after having been annealed at 600°C for 30 min. However, at higher nitrogen content $(R_N = 2.1 - 4.2)$, a mixture of the two phases was observed. At molar ratio as high as 4.2, only pure anatase crystals were obtained and the phase transition occurred only at annealling temperature above 700°C (see "[Influence of calcina](#page-2-0)[tion temperature on crystallite structure of N-TiO2'](#page-2-0)' section). The delay of phase transition could be ascribed to the small size and high porosity of synthesized nanoparticles when doped with nitro-gen.^{[35](#page-8-0)} Indeed, the phase transformation delay was apparently accompanied by a decrease in particle size (Table II). In previous works, depending synthesis conditions, increase in $NH_3/TiCl_4$ molar ratios might have different effects on crystal sizes. Some works reported that the increase in N content enhanced crystal growth indicated by the increase of crystal sizes.^{[10](#page-7-0)} However, in other works, the trend was opposite.^{[32,](#page-7-0)[36](#page-8-0)} Under the given conditions of this study, data suggested that doping of nitrogen restrained the growth in particle size of $N-TiO₂$. The increase in nitrogen content reduced sizes of $TiO₂$ nanoparticles and inhibited the anatase-to-rutile phase transformation.

These findings showed that phase composition as well as crystal size of $N-TiO₂$ could be controlled by varying the ratios of ammonia to $TiCl₄$. It was also worth noting that at high level of N-doping $(R_N = 4.2)$, pure anatase crystals were obtained with reduced particle sizes. This demonstrated that the agglomeration of $TiO₂$ nanoparticles might be avoided by N-doping.

		Phase composition		
Molar ratio	Particle size (nm) **	$A(\%)$	\boldsymbol{R} (%)	Photocatalytic activity $(\%)$
θ	32.1 ± 2.2	0	100	42.5 ± 1.4
1.75	30.1 ± 2.1	0	100	60.4 ± 1.8
2.10	25.2 ± 1.5	65.1	34.9	68.6 ± 2.0
2.45	21.2 ± 1.0	93.4	6.6	76.8 ± 2.5
2.80	17.6 ± 0.9	94.2	5.8	85.1 ± 2.9
4.20	17.2 ± 0.9	100	0	99.4 ± 3.9

Table II. Influence of molar ratio on lattice parameters, actual nitrogen content in sample and

XPS

Figure 3 shows XPS spectra of N-TiO₂ sample prepared at R_N = 4.2 and $T_{\rm C}$ = 600°C. As seen from Fig. 3, characteristic peaks of Ti $2p$ (459.4 eV) and O 1s (529.6 eV) were obtained. The presence of a small peak around 400 eV indicated that nitrogen has been incorporated into $TiO₂$ lattice. The small peak relevant to nitrogen atoms was actually consisted of three different peaks located at 398, 401.3, and 400 eV (Fig. 4a). The interpretation of binding energies of N 1s obtained from XPS spectra was still controversial. In general, peaks at 396–397 eV were usually assigned to substitutional nitrogen whereas peaks at higher binding energies were attributed to $interstitial$ N.^{[37,38](#page-8-0)} In this study, obtained results indicated that the doped nitrogen atoms were apparently interstitial. Specifically, nitrogen has penetrated into lattice and formed Ti–N and O–N bonding rather than replaced oxygen atoms. On the other hand, the XPS spectra also revealed a shift of Ti $2p_{3/2}$ peak from 459.8 eV to 458.5 eV (Fig. 4b)

Fig. 3. XPS spectrum of N-TiO₂ nanoparticles annealed at 600 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 min.

when N was incorporated in the $TiO₂$. Similarly, characteristic peak of O 1s also moved from 531.1 to 530.0 eV (Fig. 4c). These results further confirmed the successful inclusion of N into the $TiO₂$ crystal.

The XPS peaks relevant to Ti, O, N elements in N-TiO2 samples prepared at different temperatures were shown in Table [III](#page-5-0). XPS relevant to Ti and O first shifted toward higher energy levels at the initial stages of growth process of $N-TiO₂$ crystals, then gradually decreased during the crytallization, as well as phase transformation, and finally reached to intrinsic values of pure samples. On the other hand, XPS spectra provided additional information to reveal how thermal treatment affects structural behaviors of $N-TiO₂$ nanomaterials.

Meanwhile, a continuous decrease in N 1s intensity was observed as increasing calcination temperature. As consequence, the doping level of nitrogen (determined from relative intensities of XPS peaks) in doped samples was found to decline rapidly with increasing temperature from 4.51% to 0%, most probably as a result of nitrogen decomposition from the solid phase. The data obtained from FT-IR spectra (Fig. S3, Supplementary Information) were in agreement with analysis of nitrogen content by XPS (Table [I\)](#page-2-0) which showed a continued depletion of nitrogen in N-doped samples as temperatures increased.

Thermal Analysis

Thermal behavior and thermal phase transition of $TiO₂$ and N-TiO₂ were investigated using Differential thermal analysis (DTA) and Gravimetric thermal analysis (GTA) (Fig. [5\)](#page-5-0). The total weight loss was determined to be 16.60% and 27.48% for undoped and doped $TiO₂$ nanoparticles, respectively. The mass loss of the doped sample was nearly twice as much as that of pure sample, probably due to desorption of ammonia included in doped samples.^{[25](#page-7-0)}

According to Lin et al. 27 27 27 the weight loss of these samples can be attributed to (1) evaporation of

Fig. 4. XPS spectrum of (a) N 1s; (b) Ti 2 p ; and (c) O 1s of TiO₂ (solid line) nd N-TiO₂ (dash line) calcined at 600°C for 30 min.

adsorbed water and desorption of organic molecules $(100-300\degree C)$, (2) thermal decomposition of unhydrolyzed precursor (300–450°C), and (3) removal of chemisorbed water $(>450^{\circ}C)$. As seen from Fig. 5, DTA measurements showed the desorption of adsorbed water including a sharp endothermic peak at low temperatures $(122.14^{\circ}C)$ for pure sample, 129.31°C for doped sample). The removal of water molecules in the mentioned temperature ranges indicated a transformation of titanium precursor into $TiO₂$ (Eq. [4\)](#page-2-0). Furthermore, an exothermal peak was obtained at 413.2°C in doped sample, which was assigned to the transformation of amorphous $TiO₂$ into anatase phase.^{[36,37](#page-8-0)} Sato et al. ^{[29](#page-7-0)} also noted exothermic peak at 430°C and ascribed the observed peak to the release of water from oxidation of ammonium at high temperatures. The XPS results (see "XPS" section) evidenced the presence of N–O bonds in N-doped samples. Thus, exothermic peak at 413.2°C probably related to ammonium reaction with oxygen within the molecular lattice.

TEM

Figure [6](#page-6-0) illustrated surface morphologies of $TiO₂$ and N-doped TiO₂ NPs ($R_N = 4.2$) calcined at 600°C for 30 min. In both cases, the particles that formed the aggregates were nanometric. However, $N-TiO₂$ particles had smaller size (15–20 nm) than those of undoped material (25–35 nm). This indicated that the presence of nitrogen atoms in $TiO₂$ lattice units led to reduction in size of nanoparticles.

The effects of N doping on particle sizes of $TiO₂$ varied with precursors, N sources, synthesis meth-ods and conditions.^{[29,](#page-7-0)[35](#page-8-0)} When tetrabutyl titanate was used as the precursor and the synthesis was conducted via hydrothermal process, N-doped, and undoped $TiO₂$ did not show significant difference in particle size.^{[35](#page-8-0)} Similarly, microemulsion-hydrothermal method with the tetrabutyl titanate as the precursor produced N-doped and undoped $TiO₂$ with very close particle sizes.^{[8](#page-7-0)} However, Sathish et al.^{[28](#page-7-0)} using TiCl₃ and NH_3 to prepare TiO₂ via chemical method, reported significant differences in particle size between pure $TiO₂$ and N-doped samples. It

*BE Difference between undoped and doped TiO₂ nanoparticles. BE_{O1s} (TiO₂) = 531,1 eV. $BE_{Ti2p-3/2}$ (TiO₂) = 459,8 eV. $BE_{Ti2p-1/2}$ $(TiO_2) = 465,6$ eV. $'V$ ery weak.

Fig. 5. Thermal analysis of (a) TiO₂ and (b) N-TiO₂ (NH₃/TiCl₄ = 4.2) using DTA and GTA. Unannealed samples were dried at 80°C for 24 h before testing.

Fig. 6. TEM images of (a) N-TiO₂ and (b) undoped TiO₂ nanoparticles calcined at 600°C for 30 min.

was also important to note that the extent of particle size variations also depended on the amount of N used for doping $TiO₂$ catalyst.¹⁰

UV–Vis

The UV–Vis spectra of N-TiO₂ samples were measured to determine the bandgap shift (data not shown here, see Fig. S7).

For all the samples, there was a sharp edge, which could be assigned to the intrinsic bandgap of $TiO₂$. The presence of nitrogen atoms within $TiO₂$ lattice was indicated by a noticeable shift of absorption edge to the visible light region as compared to the pure sample (3.2 eV) and a small absorption band at long wavelengths (400–550 nm). It was believed that the inclusion of nitrogen atoms in $TiO₂$ generated isolated N_{2p} band above the top of the O_{2p} valance band, thereby, narrowed the bandgap energy of the material.^{[2,29,33](#page-7-0)}

The calcination temperature is one of the most critical factors affecting optical behaviors of $N-TiO₂$ samples. $26,29$ In this study, the blue shift of absorption edge increased with calcination temperatures up to 600°C. Then, the trend reversed at higher temperatures (Fig. S7). The observed slight expansion of bandgap could be due to the loss of nitrogen at high temperatures. The narrowest bandgap was found to be 2.71 eV. It was worth noting that the color of N-TiO₂ samples varied with the calcination temperatures. The N-TiO₂ samples prepared at $R_{\rm N}$ of 4.2 and calcined at 200 $^{\circ}$ C, 400 $^{\circ}$ C, 600 $^{\circ}$ C, and 800°C had vivid yellow, yellow, light yellow, and white color, respectively. This color change could be attributed to decreasing amount of nitrogen.

BET

In general, N-doped $TiO₂$ featured larger surface area than non-doped samples, inferred from smaller crystallite sizes of N-doped TiO₂. Experimentally, the BET surface area of N-TiO₂ (R_N 4.2, 600°C, 30 min) and $TiO₂$ was estimated to be 66 m²/g and $12 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, respectively. The presence of NH₃ molecules could probably lead to better control of nucleation and growth of nanocrystallites, as well as the formation of well-ordered nanostructures. Moreover, the large specific area is critical to enhance activity of photocatalysts.

Photocatalytic Analysis

TiO2-based catalysts have drawn considerable attention in water treatment and other environmental applications. Therefore, in this study, photocatalytic activity of the as-prepared $TiO₂$ was evaluated, using methylene blue as a model contaminant. The photocatalytic activities of $N-TiO₂$ were investigated at different calcination tempera-tures (Table [I\)](#page-2-0) and $NH_3/TiCl_4$ molar ratios (Table [II](#page-3-0)). As the annealing temperature increased, the catalytic power of $TiO₂$ increased up to 600°C (99.4%) and slightly decreased as the temperature exceeded this limit. The decrease in photocatalytic activity of $N\text{-TiO}_2$ $(T > 600^{\circ}\text{C})$ was reportedly ascribed to removal of nitrogen from $TiO₂$ matrix at elevated temperature²⁹ or decreased number of defect sites due to sintering of the samples. 26

On the other hand, the results clearly showed that photocatalytic decomposition of MB depended on NH3/TiCl4 ratio. Under studied conditions, catalytic efficiency of Ni -TiO₂ was improved with increasing $NH₃/TiCl₄$ molar ratio and reached a maximum value of 99.4% $(R_N = 4.2)$ (Table [II\)](#page-3-0). These results concurred well with those obtained when N-doped $TiO₂$ was prepared by plasma-assisted chemical vapor deposition^{[38](#page-8-0)} and by the sol–gel method using titanium isopropoxide (TTIP) and aqueous ammonia.[27](#page-7-0) The trends possibly resulted from the increase in crystallinity and surface area of $N-TiO₂$ nanoparticles with increasing N/Ti ratio. 27 In this study, the crystal size decreased (up to $R_N = 4.2$) with increasing amount of N doping (Table [II\)](#page-3-0). However, our preliminary experiments (data not shown) demonstrated that as $NH₃/TiCl₄$ molar ratio exceeded 4.2, a decrease in photocatalytic ability of $N-TiO₂$ was noted. In previous works, this phenomenon was linked to the reduction of surface area. 27 In another research, Huang et al. 35 investigated the effects of $urea/Ti(OH)₄$ ratio on crystal structures and the

photocatalytic activity of the $N-TiO_2$. Photocatalytic activity was apparently reduced with increasing $urea/Ti(OH)₄$ ratio and the percentage of anatase/ rutile phase in the mixture was considered as the major factor. Cong et al. conducted a comprehensive research correlating variations in N/Ti molar ratios to changes in photocatalytic activity of N-TiO₂.⁸ Similar trends were observed for N from different sources (thiethylamine, urea, thiourea, hydrazine hydrate). Maximum photocatalytic activity was recorded at an optimal N/Ti ratio and, beyond this value, the photocatalysis of $N-TiO₂$ decreased significantly. Analysis of actual N content in the sample revealed that optimal Ti/N ratio corresponded to the maximum amount of actual N in the sample. Other explanations included the synergic effect of the pure anatase phase structure, crystallite size, specific surface area, pore volume, and crystallinity of the sample.¹⁰

CONCLUSION

In summary, a simple approach for the synthesis of nitrogen-doped $TiO₂$ nanoparticles has been developed via sol-gel method using $TiCl₄$ and $NH₃$. The effects of critical factors on structure and photocatalytic properties of the products were evaluated. The results reveal the evolution of $TiO₂$ crystallite during calcination at different temperatures which will help to select the optimal condition for $TiO₂$ production. The effects of $NH₃$ amount on product were also investigated. The data allow the control of the synthesis regarding the process parameters and final product properties. The interstitial nitrogen atoms within $TiO₂$ lattice units played an important role to generate intermediate energy levels and to narrow the bandgap, thereby enhances VLA of the materials. The advances of the developed strategy could be listed as: (1) easy manipulation; (2) high purity of the obtained products; (3) the controllable level of nitrogen doping; (4) highly photoactive product (up to 1.1% per min for MB); and (5) high anatase-to-rutile phase transformation temperature.

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ELECTRONIC SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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