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Oxygen adsorption-induced surface segregation of titanium oxide by activation in carbon nanofibers for maximizing photocatalytic performance;

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This research demonstrates a simple method for synthesizing titanium dioxide nanoparticle-decorated carbon nanofibers. These nanofibers showed highly efficient degradation of methylene blue under UV light because of the synergistic effects of the large surface-active sites of titanium dioxide nanoparticles and the carbon nanofibers on the photocatalytic properties.

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has been one of the most widely used metal oxides because of its optical, dielectric, and catalytic properties, which are necessary in various industries that produce dyes, fillers, catalyst supports, and photocatalysts.^{1,2} The photocatalytic properties are of special interest for the neutralization of pollutants and harmful organics. Although TiO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized to maximize their performance by increasing the number of active sites, aggregation of the nanoparticles has limited the effectiveness of their application.³ However, composites have been reported to disperse TiO₂ nanoparticles on substrates, and recently, TiO₂-carbon composites have been found to be attractive because carbonaceous materials can act as thermally stable and electrically conductive substrates.⁴

To prepare $\rm TiO_2$ –carbon composites, $\rm TiO_2$ nanoparticles were attached to or grown directly on the surface of carbonaceous materials. Kadirova *et al.* immersed activated carbon felts (ACF), having a surface area of 1275 m² g $^{-1}$, into $\rm TiO_2$ nanoparticle-dispersed solutions. After calcining the resulting materials at 250 °C for 1 h, the $\rm TiO_2$ particles were shown to have aggregated.⁵ During the photodegradation of methylene blue (MB), ACF– $\rm TiO_2$

composites and commercial TiO₂ particles degraded 60 and 40%, respectively, of the initial MB concentration after 2 h.⁵ Another conventional method for synthesizing TiO₂ particles is to grow particles from their precursors using wet chemistry, such as solgel reactions. Titanium isopropoxide as a precursor was dissolved in anhydrous ethanol and mixed in the presence of ACF. Subsequent calcination resulted in TiO₂ nanoparticles on the surface of the ACF. However, TiO₂ nanoparticles uniformly dispersed on the matrix were not successfully synthesized.⁶

This research presents a method for synthesizing well-dispersed ${\rm TiO_2}$ nanoparticles on the surface of carbon nanofibers (CNFs). As-spun nanofiber webs were prepared by electrospinning a polyacrylonitrile (PAN)–titanium isopropoxide polymer blend solution. The nanofiber webs were then subjected to an additional heat treatment to provide stabilization, carbonization, and activation. The composite samples were activated for 0, 10, 30, and 60 min and were designated as ATCNF0, ATCNF10, ATCNF30, and ATCNF60, respectively.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images show that activation does not cause the diameters of the fibers to change significantly (170 to 250 nm). The surface morphology of ATCNF0 does not differ from that of the pure activated CNF (Fig. 1a). However, nanoparticles are present on the surface of ATCNF10 and become larger with longer exposure (Fig. S1a, ESI†), which leads to the aggregation of the nanoparticles. The nanoparticles on ATCNF60 range from 30 to 50 nm in diameter (Fig. 1b). Most of the nanoparticles, shown in the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images, range from 5 to 10 nm and are shown to be inside the ATCNF0 fibers, whereas ATCNF60 reveals significant aggregation of the nanoparticles (Fig. 1c and d). It is evident that mild activation under an oxygen atmosphere results in the migration of some of the nanoparticles from the inside to the surface, followed by their growth (Fig. 1c-f). More interestingly, selectedarea electron diffraction patterns indicate that the nanoparticles in ATCNF0 and ATCNF60 are in TiO and TiO2 forms, respectively.

As the activation time increases, the peaks at 2θ of 37.4° , 43.0° , 62.1° , 74.3° , and 78.1° in X-ray diffractograms (XRD) corresponding to the (111), (200), (220), (113), and (222) planes of TiO, respectively,

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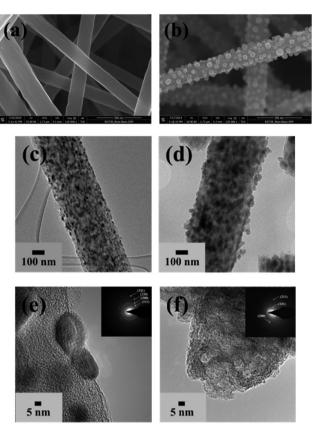
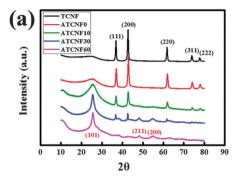


Fig. 1 SEM images of (a) ATCNF0 and (b) ATCNF60 and TEM images of (c and e) ATCNFO and (d and f) ATCNF60. Insets in (e) and (f) are SAED patterns of ATCNF0 and ATCNF60, respectively.

become smaller (Fig. 2a). ATCNF30 shows peaks at 2θ of 25.3°, 48.1°, and 54.9° corresponding to the (101), (200), and (211) planes, respectively, which indicates the TiO₂ anatase phase.⁷ These results confirm that the nanoparticles exist as TiO inside the CNFs before activation, which is then converted to TiO2. The effective activation time for the conversion of TiO to TiO2 lies between 10 and 30 min, indicated by the appearance of the 48.1° and 54.9° peaks during that period. The chemical state of the surface species of the composites is analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and the Ti2p spectra for ATCNF0 and ATCNF60 are shown in Fig. 2b. Deconvolution of the ATCNF0 spectrum shows four peaks at 465.5, 461.3, 459.1, and 455.5 eV corresponding to Ti⁴⁺ 1/2, Ti²⁺ 1/2, Ti⁴⁺ 3/2, and Ti²⁺ 3/2, respectively, which indicates that the nanoparticles on the surface of ATCNF0 are in TiO and TiO2 forms.8 However, there are two peaks located at 459.1 and 465.5 eV, resulting from only TiO2, in ATCNF60.

Structural evolution in the activation, as observed from micrographs, XRD, and XPS spectra, suggests that oxygen draws the TiO nanoparticles from inside to the surface of the CNFs. Once on the surface, oxygen adsorbs to the nanoparticles, causing them to convert to TiO2, which is more thermodynamically stable than TiO. It is known that titanium isopropoxide reduces to TiO₂ during low-temperature sintering.9

However, it is likely that the carbonization of PAN under nitrogen does not result in the conversion to TiO2. Therefore, an additional oxidation is needed to obtain CNFs that contain



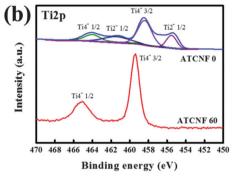


Fig. 2 (a) X-ray diffractograms of the TCNF and its activated samples at various activation times and (b) XPS Ti2p spectra of ATCNF0 and ATCNF60.

TiO₂ nanoparticles. The surface segregation by adsorption of specific gases used as catalysts has been studied in metal composites as a method to control active sites and optimize their performance. Gao et al. reported that Pd layered with Au was segregated on the surface because of CO adsorption, which increased catalytically active sites. 10 Although the composites used in this research are not bimetallic alloys, it is possible that a similar mechanism can be applied (Fig. S3, ESI†).

As expected, the activation resulted in adsorption-induced growth of TiO2 nanoparticles as well as of a porous structure in the CNFs. The surface areas of the pure CNF and TCNF are found to be 39.7 and 100.3 m² g⁻¹, respectively, with a similar average pore diameter of \sim 6.5 nm. This phenomenon results from complex physical and chemical reactions, such as the reduction of titanium isopropoxide and oxidation of the nanoparticles. After activation, a significant increase in the surface area is observed, where the values are 258.4 and 436.0 $\text{m}^2\,\text{g}^{-1}$ for the pure ACNF and ATCNF60, respectively (Table 1).

The photocatalytic performance of commercial TiO₂ powder, the pure ACNF, and ATCNF60 is evaluated by the methylene blue (MB) degradation test (Fig. 3a). Although the pure ACNF reveals a

Table 1 Textural properties of the CNF and TCNF, and their activated samples (ACNF and ATCNF60)

Sample	$S_{\mathrm{BET}} \left(\mathrm{m^2 \ g^{-1}} \right)$	Total pore volume (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	Average pore diameter (nm)
CNF	39.7	0.08	6.5
TCNF	100.3	0.16	6.3
ACNF	258.4	0.22	4.7
ATCNF60	436.0	0.35	4.5

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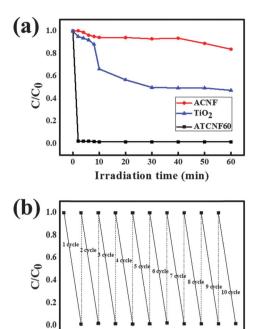


Fig. 3 (a) Photocatalytic degradation of MB as the concentration change versus irradiation time and (b) the cyclic performance of ATCNF60.

10 Irradiation time (min)

12 14 16

porous structure, as determined from the BET measurements, only 10% of MB is degraded. Even the TiO2 powder does not degrade MB completely over a UV exposure time of 60 min. However, MB is degraded completely within 2 min in the presence of ATCNF60, verifying that well-dispersed TiO2 nanoparticles on the surface and partially exposed nanoparticles on the walls of the pores in the CNFs synergistically maximize photocatalytic performance. To confirm the stability of ATCNF60, the cyclic test of MB degradation was carried out. Fig. 3b shows the complete degradation of MB in 2 min over 10 cycles, indicating the stable photocatalytic capability of ATCNF60. Note that conventional loading of TiO2 particles by immersing activated carbon materials or stabilized PAN webs into a sol-gel solution can neither control

the degree of dispersion nor maximize the surface area of activated carbon materials because of the blockage of pores by TiO2 particles.3,5,11

In conclusion, a simple method for synthesizing TiO₂ nanoparticle-loaded CNF webs has been demonstrated. PAN and titanium isopropoxide as precursors were physically mixed in dimethylformamide as solution dopes and were electrospun to prepare composite nanofiber webs. X-ray diffractograms and XPS spectra of the resulting webs obtained after stabilization and carbonization revealed TiO-related peaks and chemical bonding energies, respectively. Activation at 500 °C under an oxygen atmosphere converted TiO to TiO2, and aggregated nanoparticles were well dispersed on the CNF surfaces by adsorption-induced surface segregation, as observed by SEM and TEM. Unlike the conventional synthesis of TiO₂-carbon composites, PAN-based CNFs are used as substrates for nanoparticle loading, and only one-step activation is needed to produce welldispersed TiO₂ nanoparticles on the surface of porous CNFs. The TiO₂-CNF webs show the complete decomposition of MB in 2 min, indicating highly sensitive and fast-responding photocatalysts. It is probable that the synthesis can be utilized to control the size of TiO₂ nanoparticles and the surface morphologies of CNFs for synergistic effects on photocatalytic properties.

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