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# Fabrication and Photocatalytic Characterizations of Ordered Nanoporous X-Doped (X = N, C, S, Ru, Te, and Si) TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> Films on ITO/Glass

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Transparent, ordered nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite films doped with metal elements (Ru, Si, and Te) and nonmetal elements (N, C, and S) were fabricated by successive anodization and sol–gel process directly on glass substrates covered with a tin-doped indium oxide (ITO) film. The doping of ruthenium, nitrogen, carbon, and sulfur in TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited an enhanced effect on the absorbance, while the doping of silicon and tellurium showed little effect. Particularly, the N- and Ru-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films on ITO/glass developed an enhanced absorption red shift of 580 nm (–N) and 500 nm (–Ru). The nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite film exhibited the highest photocatalytic activity in decomposing acetaldehyde under ultraviolet-light irradiation, with a value of 13 times in initial reaction rate or 7.8 times in quantum yield higher than a commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub> material, Degussa P25. The ultraviolet-light photocatalytic activities of nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films were enhanced by the doping of nitrogen, carbon, and sulfur but slightly weakened by the doping of ruthenium, silicon, and tellurium. Particularly, the nanoporous N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films exhibited effective photocatalytic activity on ultraviolet light decomposition of a highly toxic dioxin, HpCDD, and gave the highest decomposition rate of ~95% (via 7 h of irradiation) for the specimen with a dopant content of 1.7 wt % nitrogen.

## 1. Introduction

Nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> materials have attracted great attention because of widely potential applications in electronic, photoelectrochemical, and photocatalytic systems such as photoelectrodes,<sup>1–3</sup> photoelectrochemical solar cells,<sup>4–6</sup> gas sensors,<sup>7–9</sup> and high-performance photocatalysts.<sup>10–12</sup> Thus far, many studies have been conducted on the preparation of various porous TiO<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials, including nanoporous films and nanotubule arrays, by sol–gel process,<sup>10–14</sup> anodization,<sup>9,15,16</sup> and electrodeposi-

tion.<sup>17,18</sup> Among the methods mentioned above, the sol–gel process combined with some template techniques (e.g., upon porous alumina) is the most intriguing because of the arbitrary controlling of porous morphology by templates and TiO<sub>2</sub> composition through solutions for sol–gel coating. Especially, fabricating porous TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures with uniform morphology and improved properties directly on mechanically strong substrates is necessary and of technical significance for various practical applications.

As a well-known optoelectronic semiconductor with photoelectrochemical and photocatalytic activity, TiO<sub>2</sub> is considered to be an effective and nontoxic photocatalyst for atmosphere cleaning and water purification. Many studies had been devoted to the mechanism and the relation to the particle sizes in photocatalytic reactions on TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>1,19–23</sup> Recently, to enhance or improve the photocatalysis from ultraviolet (300 < λ < 400 nm) to visible light range (λ > 400 nm), many studies on the substitutional doping of metal ions (e.g., Fe,<sup>24,25</sup> Co,<sup>26</sup>

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La,<sup>27,28</sup> Ru,<sup>29</sup> Zr,<sup>30</sup> Nd,<sup>31</sup> and Si<sup>32</sup>) and nonmetallic elements (N,<sup>33–35</sup> S,<sup>36</sup> and C<sup>37</sup>) have been intensely investigated on the TiO<sub>2</sub> system. It is commonly recognized that the doping in TiO<sub>2</sub> improves the photocatalytic activity by shifting the onset of the response from the ultraviolet to the visible light range. Among the dopants mentioned above, N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> is the most effective and has been elaborated in many theoretical and experimental studies, in which a widely acceptable explanation is a band-gap narrowing effect because of the substitution of nitrogen from oxygen, thus leading to the photocatalytic reaction under the visible light with low energy. In contrast, it is usually considered that the metal doping to the photocatalytic improvement of TiO<sub>2</sub> lies in the shifting of light absorption toward the visible region, accompanying with the by effects of the undesired instability because of the lattice distortion or bond weakening and to the increased carrier trapping from the formation of electronic mid-gap states associated doping elements.

In our previous studies,<sup>38,39</sup> we had reported the fabrication of highly porous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite nanostructures on Ti/glass substrates by successive anodization and sol–gel process and found that high photocatalytic activities were achieved in decomposing acetaldehyde under ultraviolet light irradiation. In the present paper, we mainly report the fabrication of various transparent, doped nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite films on ITO/glass by an analogous method to the previous approach and further explore the photocatalytic activities in decomposing acetaldehyde and highly toxic dioxins under ultraviolet light irradiation.

## 2. Experimental Procedures

**2.1. Fabrication Process.** The synthetic method of nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>-based films on glass substrates was similar to previous studies.<sup>11,12</sup> Briefly, a high-purity aluminum layer (99.99%,  $\approx 1.5$   $\mu$ m thick) was deposited on a glass substrate (soda lime glass, 25  $\times$  100  $\times$  0.7 mm) covered with a tin-doped indium oxide film (ITO,  $\approx 120$  nm,  $\approx 10$   $\Omega$  in sheet resistance) by multicycled radio frequency (RF) sputtering at a rate of 1.5 nm/s. To form nanoporous alumina films, the Al/ITO/glass specimens were anodically oxidized in a 10 vol % H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> solution at a constant potential of 130 V and 4  $^{\circ}$ C, until the aluminum layers were completely transformed into alumina (characterized by the anodic current dropping from 20 to 30 to  $\approx 3$  A/m<sup>2</sup> and by the appearance changing from opaque to transparent).<sup>13</sup> Then, the specimens were immersed in a 5 vol % H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> solution at 30  $^{\circ}$ C for 45 min to enlarge the pores for the easy filling of various TiO<sub>2</sub>-based solutions in the successive sol–gel process. The sol–gel process was performed by one-step dip coating, in which various TiO<sub>2</sub>-based oxides were coated on pore walls of the alumina films, to

form various porous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite nanostructures on ITO/glass with open apertures. On the basis of the results of a previous study,<sup>39</sup> the sol–gel-coated specimens were consecutively heated at 100  $^{\circ}$ C for 1 h and 500  $^{\circ}$ C for 2 h, to achieve highly crystalline anatase phase for high photocatalytic activity. Other details on the coating conditions in the sol–gel process were the same as in a previous study.<sup>11</sup>

**2.2. Photocatalysts Synthesis.** All of the solutions for anodization, pore-widening, and sol–gel coating were prepared by analytical-grade reagents as received (Kanto Chem. Co.). The precursory TiO<sub>2</sub> solution ( $\approx 5$  wt %, solution A) used in the sol–gel process was prepared with titanium isopropoxide, acetylacetone, distilled water, and ethanol in a mole ratio of 1:1.1:3:20.<sup>11</sup> In the sol–gel coating, the precursory TiO<sub>2</sub> solution was diluted with ethanol into a 3 wt % solution (solution B; viscosity  $\approx 1.76$  cSt; 20  $^{\circ}$ C), to achieve a continuous TiO<sub>2</sub> coating and a hollow-type composite nanostructure with open apertures by one-step dip coating. The Ru-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> solutions were prepared by adding a mixed solution (2 g/L RuCl<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O + 3 vol % H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) in solution B for a dopant concentration of 2–4 wt % in RuO<sub>4</sub>. The N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> solution was prepared by adding a 1 M NH<sub>3</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> solution in solution B to achieve nitrogen contents of 1–4 wt %. The NCS-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> solution was prepared by adding 1 M thiourea solution in solution B to obtain 4.32 wt % NCS in TiO<sub>2</sub> or 1.65, 0.72, and 1.86 wt % as N, C, and S elements, respectively. The Si, Te-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> solution was prepared by adding a mixed (SiO<sub>2</sub> + 2.5% TeO<sub>2</sub>) solution in solution A to achieve a thick coating for robust TiO<sub>2</sub>–4% SiO<sub>2</sub>–1% SiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubule arrays on glass.<sup>12</sup> Except for the Ru-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> solution, which was dark red, all of the other TiO<sub>2</sub> solutions were transparent with a bright yellow color.

**2.3. Characterizations.** The morphology of the specimens was observed by a field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, S-5000, Hitachi) after coating with a thin osmium film. The crystallographic structures of the specimens were analyzed by an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, RINT-2200V/PC, CuK $\alpha$ , 40 kV/40 mA) and a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL-200 kV). For the TEM observation, the TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> layer stripped from the substrate was embedded into epoxy resin and cut by an ultramicrotome (LKB-2088/V) with a diamond knife into  $\sim 60$  nm thick slices. The sliced samples were then set on carbon-coated copper microgrids and observed in the bright field along with the corresponding diffraction pattern. The transparency of the specimens was investigated by an UV–vis spectrometer (U-3500, Hitachi).

**2.4. Photocatalytic Measurements.** The photocatalytic activities of the various TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanostructures on ITO/glass were evaluated by photodecomposition tests of the following substances under ultraviolet light irradiation.

(a) *Acetaldehyde Gas.* The photocatalytic decomposition test was carried out in a closed circulation system (CCS; 250 cm<sup>3</sup>) interfaced to a gas chromatograph (Hitachi, G-35A) with a thermal conductor detector (TCD) and a photoionization detector (PID) for acetaldehyde and CO<sub>2</sub> analysis, respectively. Prior to the catalytic experiments, the specimens were treated in a flow of oxygen gas at 300  $^{\circ}$ C until no CO<sub>2</sub> product was detected. The specimens were then separated from the flow system and switched to the CCS by two three-way stopcocks and evacuated under a vacuum of 10<sup>–5</sup> Pa and 300  $^{\circ}$ C for 1 h. After the specimens had cooled to room temperature, the reactant, a gaseous mixture of 93.3 kPa CH<sub>3</sub>CHO–He (930 ppm) and 13.3 kPa O<sub>2</sub>, was introduced in the reactor. The nanoporous specimens ( $\approx 1 \times 1$  cm) were irradiated from the outside of the reactor by a 200 W Hg–Xe lamp (Hayashi, LA300UV-1,  $\lambda = 365$  nm) with an incident light intensity of 50 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>. For reference, 30 mg of commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> powder (Degussa P25, 50 m<sup>2</sup>/g) was put on a  $\phi 1.3$ -cm dent on glass and irradiated under the same conditions.

(b) *Dioxin Solution.* The reactant was a standard dioxin solution [1,2,3,4,6,7,8-heptachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (HpCDD), 50  $\mu$ g/L in toluene]. The HpCDD is a highly toxic and cancer-induced substance, with a toxic equivalency factor (TEF) of 0.01 [world health organization (WHO), 1998]. In the experiment, 0.20-mL of HpCDD solution was dropped onto the nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>-coated specimens ( $\approx 2 \times 4$  cm) on a hotplate and dried by Ar gas flow in the dark. The samples with dried HpCDD ( $\approx 10$   $\mu$ g) were then set in the reactor of a closed circulation system (110 cm<sup>3</sup>) and irradiated inside the reactor by two 8 W black light lamps

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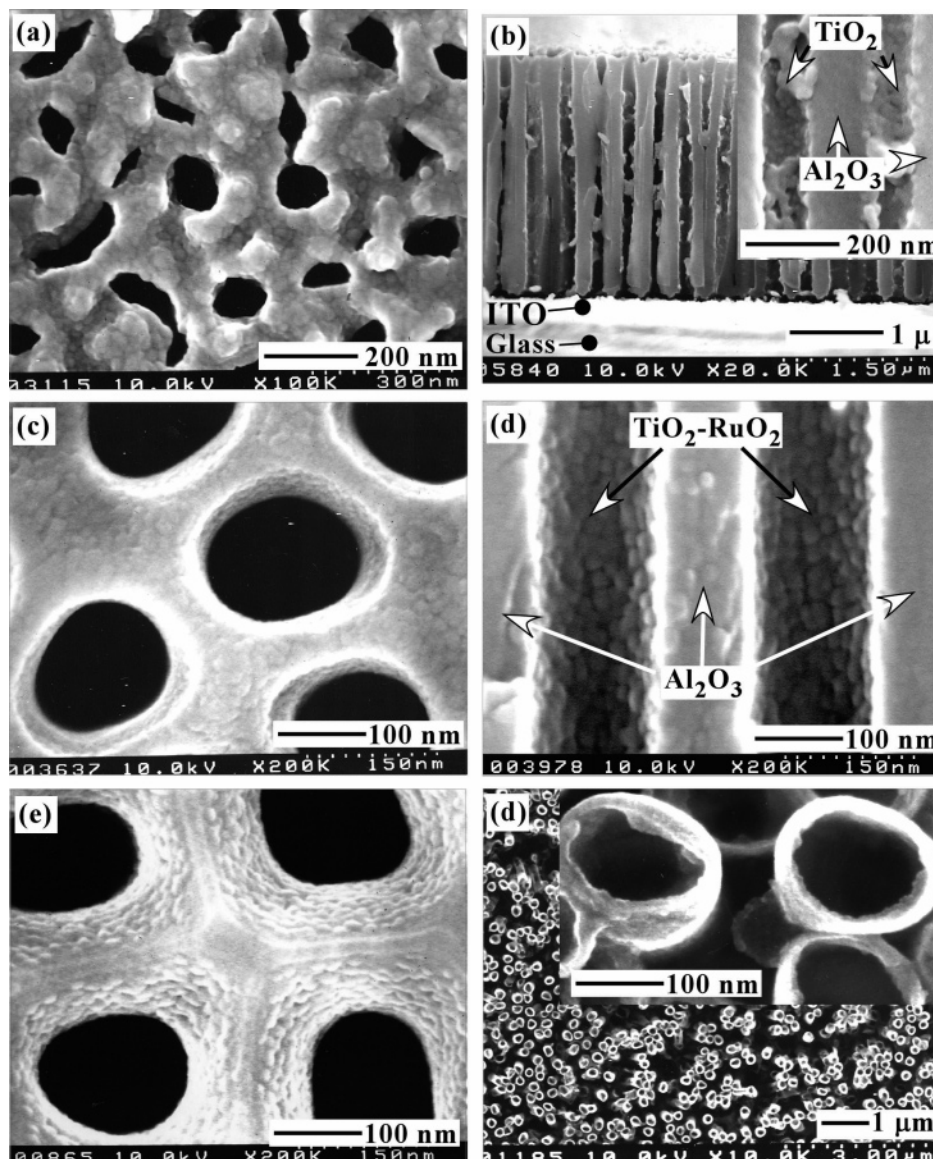
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**Figure 1.** Field-emission scanning electron microscopic (FESEM) images of (a–e) various nanoporous  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  composite films on ITO/glass coated with (a and b) pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (c and d) Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and (e) N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and (f) a  $\text{TiO}_2\text{--SiO}_2\text{--TeO}_2$  nanotubule array after the removal of the anodic alumina.

[FL8BLB,  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 360 \text{ nm}$  (315–400 nm)] with a frontal light intensity of  $0.9 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ . The remnant HpCDD after irradiation was retrieved by immersing the irradiated samples in toluene in a circulated heating set at  $70^\circ\text{C}$  for 3 h and then analyzed by GC–MS equipment (HP5890 II). The decomposition ratios were calculated from the difference between the original and the remnant HpCDD and corrected by the retrieving ratios of HpCDD without irradiation, which were close to 100%.

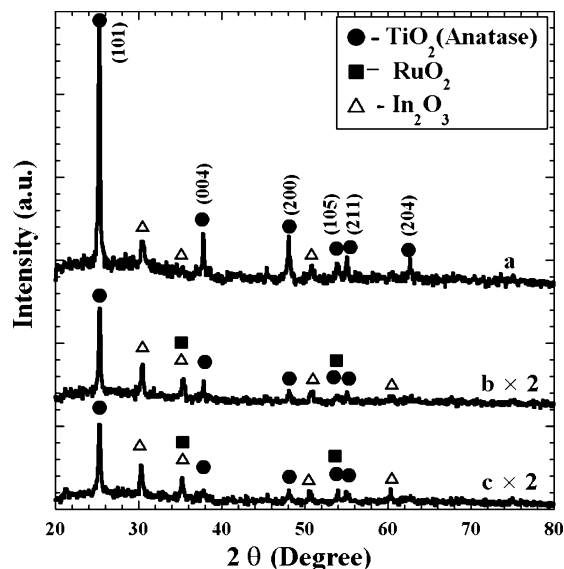
### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. $\text{TiO}_2$ -Based Nanostructures on ITO/Glass.

Figure 1 shows the FESEM images of surface morphology and vertical fracture sections of various  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based composite films on ITO/glass. All of the porous nanostructures inherit the porous contours of the anodic alumina films ( $\sim 2.5 \mu\text{m}$  thick) with open apertures, composed of ordered straight nanopores of  $\phi 120\text{--}150 \text{ nm}$  perpendicular to the substrates. The coatings on porous alumina films are dense and uniform, with a thickness of  $20\text{--}30 \text{ nm}$ . From the high-resolution images (parts a and b of Figure 1), the pristine  $\text{TiO}_2$  coating without doping exhibits a rough surface consisting in clustered grains from  $20$  to  $100 \text{ nm}$ , because of a strong coagulation of the

pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  gel.<sup>38</sup> The Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  coatings (parts c and d of Figure 1) show a relatively smooth surface composing of uniform grains  $\approx 20 \text{ nm}$ , indicating an inhibiting effect on the coagulation of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  gel. The N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  coatings (Figure 1e) exhibit a uniform granular texture similar to the Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$ , irrespectively of the nitrogen content in  $\text{TiO}_2$ . While the addition of silicon and tellurium in  $\text{TiO}_2$  leads to a dense coating with almost indiscernible grains (Figure 1f), because of the glassy nature of  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{TeO}_2$ .<sup>11</sup>

As for appearance, all of the composite films are transparent (see Figures 4 and 5), with slight whitish, reddish, and yellowish colors for the  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $-\text{SiO}_2\text{--TeO}_2$ ), Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimens, respectively. It was also found that the composite films did not crack or exfoliate when cutting or breaking the specimen, indicating the good adherence to the ITO/glass substrate and durable mechanical strength of the films. Moreover, from a Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) measurement, the average ratio of the real surface areas of the composite films on glass to the apparent dimensions of the nanoporous samples was evaluated to be around  $1.2 \text{ m}^2/\text{cm}^2$ ,

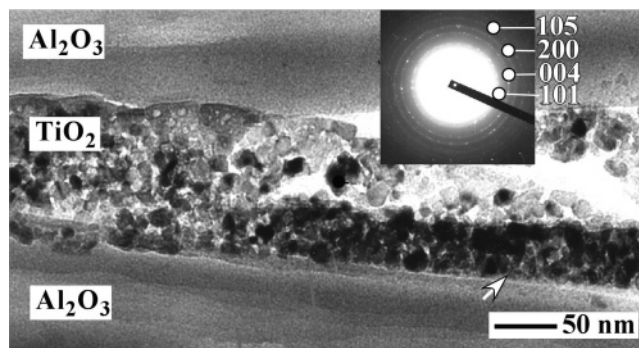


**Figure 2.** X-ray diffraction patterns of composite nanoporous films on ITO/glass coated with (a) pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (b)  $\text{TiO}_2$ -2%  $\text{RuO}_2$ , and (c)  $\text{TiO}_2$ -4%  $\text{RuO}_2$ .

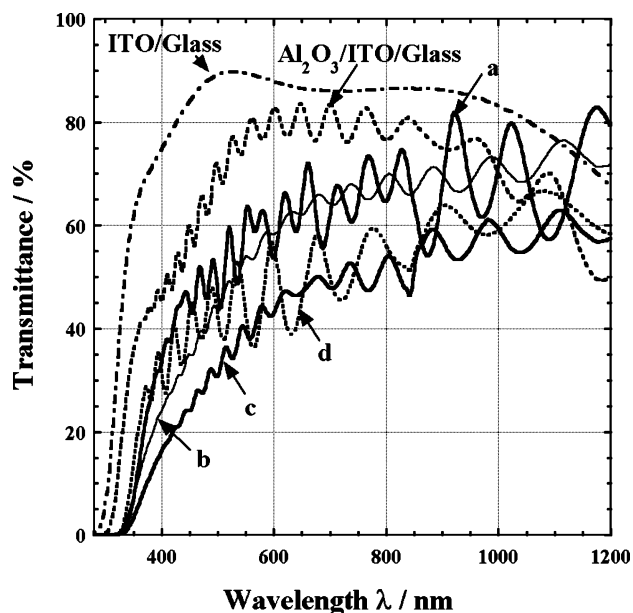
which is an incomparably large surface area for other conventional filmy  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials. In addition, according to the simulated calculation based on the surface FESEM images, the average porosities of the composite films were estimated to be 40–50%.

**3.2. Crystallographic Structures.** X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis demonstrated that all of the  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based films mentioned above were well-crystallized after calcination at 500 °C for 2 h. The crystalline titanium oxides (Figure 2) are ascribed to polycrystalline tetragonal anatase with the lattice constants  $a = 3.78 \text{ \AA}$  and  $c = 9.58 \text{ \AA}$  [Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JSPDS) card number 71-1168], which is well-known as a semiconductor with photoelectronic and photocatalytic activities. The intensities of the main peak (101) of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  (Figure 2) for Ru-doped specimens were apparently lower than that of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and the intensity decreased with the increase of Ru dopant, although they experienced the same sol-gel process. The Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimens (parts b and c of Figure 2) show lower peak intensity than the pristine  $\text{TiO}_2$  film (Figure 2a), and the peak intensity decreases with increasing ruthenium content, which is similar to the addition of Si and Te in  $\text{TiO}_2$ .<sup>11</sup> This indicates an inhibiting effect of Ru-doping on the crystallization of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Moreover, the Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimens develop two small peaks at  $2\theta = 35.1^\circ$  and  $54.3^\circ$  (although it overlapped with indium oxide), which are close to the {101} and {211} reflections of tetragonal ruthenium oxide with the lattice constants  $a = 4.49 \text{ \AA}$  and  $c = 3.11 \text{ \AA}$  (JSPDS card number 71-2273). This infers that the ruthenium added in  $\text{TiO}_2$  is over-dosed for doping and exists in independent oxide and a solid solution state in the lattice of the anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  matrix. In addition, it is also found (not shown) that the doping of N, C, and S elements did not affect the crystal structure of  $\text{TiO}_2$ .

Figure 3 shows a representative vertical cross-sectional TEM image of the  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanostructure. It is clearly seen that the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer between the alumina walls is composed of uniform nanocrystals 10–20 nm in width. The  $\text{TiO}_2$  crystals are closely packed along the alumina pore walls, forming a continuous  $\text{TiO}_2$  film in about three layers of nanocrystals (see the arrow in Figure 3). This indicates that the nodules of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer in Figure 1b are secondary grains composing of numerous fine  $\text{TiO}_2$



**Figure 3.** Representative transmission electron microscopic (TEM) image of the vertical cross section of  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  composite film and the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern corresponding to the  $\text{TiO}_2$  region.

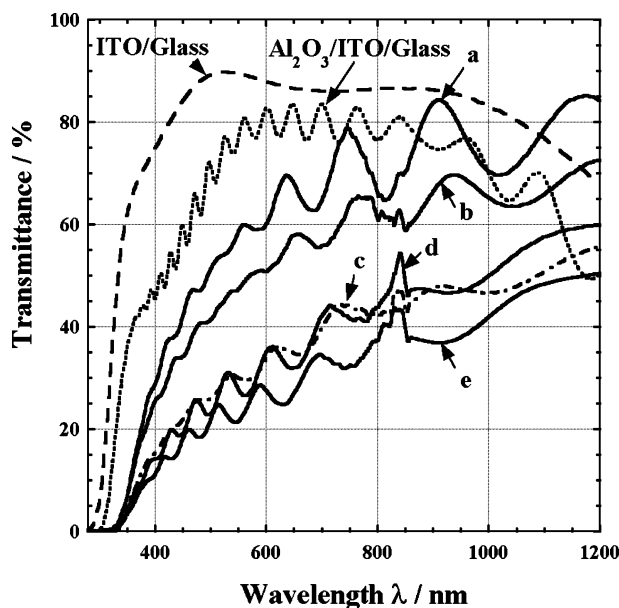


**Figure 4.** UV-vis transmission spectra of nanoporous films coated with (a) pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (b)  $\text{TiO}_2$ -2%  $\text{RuO}_2$ , (c)  $\text{TiO}_2$ -4%  $\text{RuO}_2$ , and (d) an integrated array of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -4%  $\text{SiO}_2$ -1%  $\text{TeO}_2$  nanotubules on ITO/glass.

crystals. The selected area electron diffraction pattern corresponding to the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer (inset) displays several continuous rings that are close to the {101}, {004}, {200}, and {105} reflections of tetragonal anatase titanium oxide, which is consistent to the XRD results (Figure 2).

**3.3. Transparency of Doped  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  Films.** The light absorption or transparency of  $\text{TiO}_2$  materials is an important factor related to the efficiency of photocatalysis and other photochemical reactions. Figure 4 shows the UV-vis transmission spectra of various metal-doped  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  composite nanostructures on ITO/glass substrates. For references, the spectra of the ITO/glass substrate and the bare nanoporous alumina films on ITO/glass without sol-gel coating were also given in the figure. The  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based nanoporous films are moderately transparent throughout the UV and visible light regions, with lower transmittances than that of the bare nanoporous alumina film without sol-gel coating (---), indicating the stronger light absorbance of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based films than the anodic alumina film. The pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ -coated nanoporous specimen (Figure 4a) exhibits a strong absorbance (transmittance  $\approx 30\%$ ) near the wavelength of 387 nm, the band gap of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$ , and a high transmittance in the visible light range (50–70%). The doping of ruthenium in  $\text{TiO}_2$  (parts b and c of Figure 4) leads to the enhancement of light





**Figure 5.** UV-vis transmission spectra of various nanoporous N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films on ITO/glass with dopant contents of (a) 0% N (i.e., pure TiO<sub>2</sub>), (b) 4.32 wt % NCS, (c) 1.16 wt % N, (d) 1.65 wt % N, and (e) 2.32 wt % N.

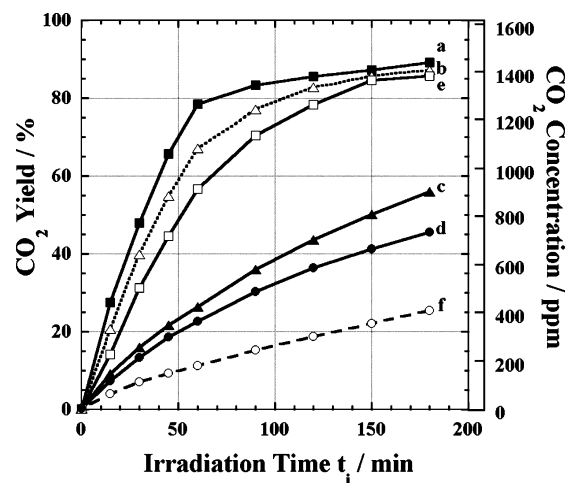
absorption in the ultraviolet light region, expressed as the transmittance, decreasing from 30% (pure TiO<sub>2</sub>) to 22 and 17% ( $\lambda = 387$  nm) for the 2% RuO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> and 4% RuO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens, respectively. Moreover, the Ru-doped specimens developed apparent absorption red shifts. For instance, with the same transmittance of 30% as pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, the spectrum of the 4% RuO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>2</sub> specimen (Figure 3c) shifts up to 500 nm, possibly because of the strong light absorbance of ruthenium oxide to the visible light.<sup>29</sup> In contrast, the low transmittance of Si,Te-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> specimen (Figure 4d) is mainly ascribed to the defused reflection of integrated TiO<sub>2</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-TeO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes after chemical etching.<sup>12</sup>

Figure 5 demonstrates the transmission spectra of nanoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films doped with nonmetallic elements, nitrogen, carbon, and sulfur. Similar to the ruthenium dopant, the enhancement of light absorption is also obtained for both NCS- and N-doped specimens, while with little dependence on the dopant concentration. Moreover, the N-doped specimens (parts c–e of Figure 5; doped with ammonia nitrate) enhance the light absorption of TiO<sub>2</sub> throughout the UV and visible light regions, whereas the NCS-doped specimen (Figure 5b; doped with thiourea) leads to an absorption mainly in the visible light region. Particularly, with the same transmittance of 28% as the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 5a), the N-doped specimens develop an enhanced absorption red shift up to  $\approx 580$  nm.

**3.4. Photocatalytic Activity in Decomposition of Acetaldehyde Gas.** The photocatalytic activities of various TiO<sub>2</sub>-based nanostructures doped with metal ions were evaluated by decomposing acetaldehyde under ultraviolet light irradiation according to the following reaction:<sup>19</sup>



For intuitional comparison of our results to the literature values, the most widely investigated (and probably the best) commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst, Degussa P25, was also examined under the same experimental conditions. The yields and the concentrations of the produced CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of irradiation time for various samples



**Figure 6.** Time variations of yield and concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> produced by photodecomposition of acetaldehyde gas under ultraviolet light irradiation for composite nanoporous films coated with (a) pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, (b) TiO<sub>2</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-TeO<sub>2</sub>, (c) TiO<sub>2</sub>-2% RuO<sub>2</sub>, (d) TiO<sub>2</sub>-4% RuO<sub>2</sub>, (e) an integrated array of TiO<sub>2</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-TeO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes, and (f) commercial P-25 TiO<sub>2</sub> powder.

are shown in Figure 6. At the same irradiation time, all of the nanoporous specimens produced a much higher CO<sub>2</sub> yield or concentration than the P25, indicating the high photocatalytic performance of the formers. It should be pointed out here that, even though with similar apparent areas, i.e., 1.3 cm<sup>2</sup> ( $\phi 1.3$  cm) for the powdery P25 and 1 cm<sup>2</sup> ( $1 \times 1$  cm) for the nanoporous samples, the really applicable surface areas of the nanoporous samples are actually smaller than that of P25, i.e., 1.0–1.2 m<sup>2</sup> for the porous specimens (BET measurement) and 1.5 m<sup>2</sup> for the P25 (30 mg  $\times$  50 m<sup>2</sup>/g).

The superior photocatalytic performances of the nanoporous samples to the P25 can be mainly attributed to the unique surface characteristics endowed by the highly porous structure. It can be reasonably deduced that the absorbability of acetaldehyde on nanoporous samples is higher than that on powdery P25, thus leading to a high photocatalytic activity.<sup>40</sup> The nanoporous structure with thin thickness (20–30 nm; Figure 1) may be benefit for enhancing the charge carrier separation [i.e., the generation of electron (e<sup>-</sup>) and hole (h<sup>+</sup>) pairs] in TiO<sub>2</sub> and/or inhibiting the recombination of the electron and hole pairs, which relates to high efficiency on photocatalysis. Moreover, a combination of the porous structure with open apertures/ordered straight channels and the appropriate transparency-absorbance of composite TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films on glass may also contribute to the high photocatalytic activities of the nanoporous specimens. The porous structure provides fluent pathways to the reactant (acetaldehyde) and products (CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O), thus enabling the effective utilization of the whole surface areas. In addition, the moderate transparency may allow for the UV light to reach the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer inside the nanopores in several micrometers thick and render an effective photodecomposition of the acetaldehyde absorbed there, thus leading to higher photocatalytic activities than the conventional powdery TiO<sub>2</sub>.

The initial reaction rate ( $R_0$ ) and quantum yield ( $\Phi_{15 \text{ min}} = 5n_{\text{CO}_2}/n_{\text{photon}}$ ),<sup>19</sup> which are usually considered as the interpretation of photocatalytic activity, for the nanoporous specimens and P25 are listed in Table 1. For comparison, the ratios compared to the P25 sample are

(40) Li, D.; Haneda, H.; Hishida, S.; Ohashi, N. *Chem. Mater.* **2005**, *17*, 2596.

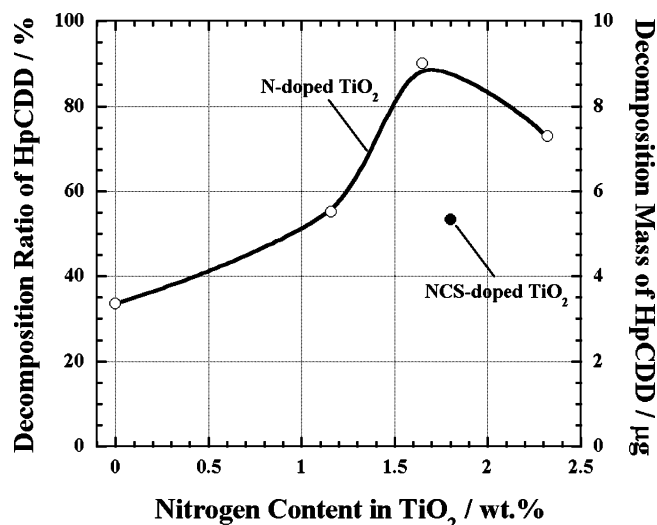
**Table 1. Initial Reaction Rate ( $R_0$ ) and Quantum Yield ( $\Phi$ ) of Various Nanoporous Samples for Decomposition of Acetaldehyde under Ultraviolet Light Irradiation**

samples	$R_0/10^7$ (mol min <sup>-1</sup> )	$\Phi^a$ (%)
porous TiO <sub>2</sub>	4.80 (12.97) <sup>b</sup>	18.35 (7.81) <sup>b</sup>
porous TiO <sub>2</sub> -SiO <sub>2</sub> -TeO <sub>2</sub>	3.70 (10.0)	14.20 (6.04)
tubular TiO <sub>2</sub> -SiO <sub>2</sub> -TeO <sub>2</sub>	2.97 (8.02)	10.42 (4.34)
porous TiO <sub>2</sub> -2% RuO <sub>2</sub>	0.95 (2.57)	10.42 (4.34)
porous TiO <sub>2</sub> -4% RuO <sub>2</sub>	0.86 (2.32)	10.42 (4.34)
powdery TiO <sub>2</sub> (P25)	0.37 (1)	2.35 (1)

<sup>a</sup>  $\Phi = (5n_1/n_2) \times 100\%$ ; <sup>19</sup>  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the numbers of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules produced at the reaction time of 15 min and the numbers of photons consumed on the catalyst surface, respectively; where the number of photons ( $n_2$ ) = {light flux intensity (500 W/m<sup>2</sup>)/light wavelength (365 × 10<sup>-9</sup> m)}/{Planck's constant (6.626 × 10<sup>-34</sup> J s)/light speed (2.998 × 10<sup>8</sup> m/s)} = 9.19 × 10<sup>18</sup> (photon). <sup>b</sup> The values in parentheses are ratios compared to the value of the P25 sample.

also given in the table. Noticeably, the pure TiO<sub>2</sub>-coated specimen exhibits the highest initial reaction rate and quantum yield of 4.80 × 10<sup>-7</sup> mol/min and 18.35%, respectively, which are 13 times (in  $R_0$ ) or 7.8 times (in  $\Phi_{15 \text{ min}}$ ) higher than the P25, indicating the strikingly enhanced photocatalytic activity of the ordered, highly porous TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructure on ITO/glass. This can be ascribed to the fact that the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> coating is composed of highly crystalline anatase with crystal sizes from 10 to 20 nm (Figure 3), which is thought to be the optimum grain size of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> for high photocatalytic activity.<sup>20,21</sup> In contrast, the doping of metal ions (Ru, Si, and Te) leads to the decrease of the initial reaction rates, to a different extent, in the decomposition of acetaldehyde. Particularly, the Ru-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens (lines c and d in Figure 6) exhibit low initial reaction rates that are nearly one-fifth of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> sample. This may be ascribed to the inhibition effect of Ru-doping on the crystallization of TiO<sub>2</sub> (parts b and c of Figure 2) and/or the decrease of the transparency caused by the inclusion of RuO<sub>2</sub> (parts b and c of Figure 4). Moreover, increasing Ru dopant from 2 to 4% decreases the initial reaction rate from 0.95 to 0.86 (× 10<sup>-7</sup> mol/min), which may be mainly ascribed to the lowering of the transmittance from ~20 to ~12% ( $\lambda = 387$  nm). Nevertheless, owing to the absorption red shift to 500 nm (Figure 4c), the Ru-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens with higher photocatalytic activities than the P25 may be applied as visible light photocatalysts for many purposes.<sup>29</sup>

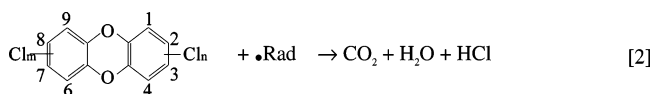
In addition, although they had similar transparency (parts a and d of Figure 4), the photocatalytic activity of Si,Te-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> specimen is slightly lower than that of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, which can be mainly ascribed to the inhibition of glassy SiO<sub>2</sub>-TeO<sub>2</sub> on the crystallization of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>11,12</sup> Furthermore, the photocatalysis of integrated TiO<sub>2</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-TeO<sub>2</sub> nanotubules on ITO/glass was also investigated (Figure 6e). Unexpectedly, the initial reaction rate is even lower than that in the nanoporous state (Figure 6b), although the surface area of integrated nanotubules would increase because of the exposure of the outer walls of the nanotubules. The decrease of the initial rate from nanoporous to nanotubular states for the TiO<sub>2</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-TeO<sub>2</sub> specimens may be explained by the smoothing of the walls of the tubes because of the dissolution of tiny particles or nodules during the etching of the corrosive solution and/or the absorption of Cr<sup>6+</sup> ions on the walls of the nanotubules, thus leading to the decreasing of the applicable area (the former) and/or the passivation (or poison) of photocatalytic TiO<sub>2</sub> (latter). Therefore, from the viewpoint of practical photocatalytic uses, the nanoporous composite films are preferable

**Figure 7.** Decomposition ratios of a toxic dioxin (HpCDD) under ultraviolet light irradiation for nanoporous (N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>)/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films on ITO/glass with different nitrogen concentrations.

considering the aspects of mechanical strength and low-cost production.

**3.5. Photodecomposition of Dioxins.** The photocatalytic activities of the nanoporous N- and NCS-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite films on glass were investigated through photodecomposing (or photodegrading) a highly toxic dioxin, HpCDD, under ultraviolet light irradiation. Figure 7 displays the decomposition ratios of various TiO<sub>2</sub>-coated nanoporous specimens after UV irradiation for 7 h. The TiO<sub>2</sub>-coated nanoporous specimens, both with and without doping, exhibit striking photocatalytic effects on the decomposition of the HpCDD under UV irradiation. Noticeably, the N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens lead to a remarkable enhanced effect on the photocatalysis compared to the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> specimen. Particularly, the specimen containing 1.7 wt % nitrogen doped with ammonia nitrate exhibits the highest decomposition ratio ~95%, which is reported by the present paper for the first time. Moreover, the NCS-doped TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens doped with thiourea (N content ~ 1.65%) also shows an enhanced photocatalytic activity (decomposition ratio ~ 53%) that is higher than the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> specimen (decomposition ratio ~ 33%) but lower than the 1.7% N-doped specimen (95%). This indicates that the doping of carbon and sulfur in TiO<sub>2</sub> leads to an inhibiting effect on the photocatalysis under UV irradiation, which is different from the results under visible light irradiation.<sup>36,37</sup>

The enhanced photocatalytic activity of the doped TiO<sub>2</sub> in the decomposition of HpCDD may be explained from the basic principle of the photocatalytic reaction on TiO<sub>2</sub>. Generally, electron (e<sup>-</sup>) and hole (h<sup>+</sup>) pairs are generated as ultraviolet light is irradiated on TiO<sub>2</sub>. This produces powerful radical species that are capable of decomposing most organic compounds.<sup>20</sup> The photocatalytic decomposition reaction of HpCDD can be roughly expressed as the following reaction formula:



where  $\cdot\text{Rad}$  is OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, or NO<sub>3</sub> radicals.<sup>41,42</sup> The photo-

catalytic decomposition of HpCDD on  $\text{TiO}_2$  is described by the first-order reaction kinetics with a half-life of 3.9 h, initiated by OH radical attack, without formation of stable intermediates or dechlorinated PCDDs.<sup>41</sup> In the present study, the enhanced photocatalytic activity of the N-doped nanoporous  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  films on glass can be ascribed to several factors. First, the enhancement of light absorption throughout the UV and visible light regions (Figure 5) for the N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimens leads to effective photocatalytic reactions under the irradiation with a relatively low light intensity (i.e.,  $0.8 \text{ mW/cm}^2$ ). Second, the band-gap narrowing effect because of the nitrogen doping contributes the high photocatalytic decomposition of HpCDD on N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimens. According to J. Premkumar,<sup>34</sup> the doping of nitrogen in  $\text{TiO}_2$  leads to a band-gap narrowing from 3.1 to 2.8 eV, caused by the shifting of the top edge of the valance band to the negative direction because of the mixing of N 2p and O 2p states and the shifting of the bottom edge of the conduction band to the positive direction because of the generation of oxygen vacancies. This definitely decreases the energy rampart that must be overcome to produce powerful radical species, thus increasing the ratios or numbers of active radicals and enhancing the decomposition of HpCDD under UV irradiation. Furthermore, the substitution of oxygen by nitrogen in the N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimens may produce more oxygen vacancies that may, in turn, enhance the charge carrier separation/transportation in  $\text{TiO}_2$  and/or inhibit the recombination of electron and hole pairs, thus leading to a high photocatalytic capability. Therefore, the fact that the 1.7% N- $\text{TiO}_2$  specimen doped with ammonia nitrate developed the highest photocatalytic effect (decomposition ratio) may reflect the optimum combination of band-gap narrowing, light absorption, and the charge carrier separation/transportation. In contrast, the explanation

on photocatalytic behavior of the NCS-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  specimen may be more complicated. It may be ascribed to the relatively low absorbance (Figure 5b) and/or the chemical states of carbon and sulfur elements in  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,<sup>36</sup> which is no longer elaborated in the present paper.

### Conclusions

We successfully fabricated various ordered, nanoporous  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  composite films doped with metal elements (Ru, Si, and Te) and nonmetal elements (N, C, and S) directly on ITO/glass substrates. The nanoporous pristine  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  film exhibited the highest photocatalytic activity in decomposing acetaldehyde under UV irradiation, which is 13 times in initial reaction rate or 7.8 times in quantum yield higher than the best commercially available  $\text{TiO}_2$  material, Degussa P25. To the best of our knowledge, it is the highest value of photocatalytic activity for the pristine  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanostructures under UV irradiation that has been reported thus far. Moreover, it is confirmed for the first time that the nanoporous  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  films with nitrogen dopant possess remarkable photocatalysis in decomposing a highly toxic dioxin, HpCDD, under UV irradiation. Particularly, the N-doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoporous film containing 1.7 wt % nitrogen exhibited a high decomposition ratio  $\approx 95\%$ , showing a promising future for practical uses in circumstance cleaning. Furthermore, owing to the enhanced absorption red shift, the N- or Ru-doped  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  films on ITO/glass may be also utilized as visible light photocatalysts for multifunctional applications such as atmosphere cleaning, water purification, and solar-energy cells, which are being explored.

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(42) Lee, J. E.; Choi, W. Y.; Mhin, B. J.; Balasubramanian, K. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2004**, *108*, 607.