

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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Defect generation, *d-d* transition, and band gap reduction in Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles

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Abstract

TiO₂ doped with Cu²⁺ initiates the formation of brookite phase along with anatase. Doping of Cu²⁺ introduces structural defects into TiO₂. The direct evidence is the low intense and broad diffraction peaks. Raman peaks of doped TiO₂ are also broad and are blueshifted. Pure TiO₂ exhibits an absorption in the UV region, the position of which is shifted towards the visible region on incorporation of Cu into it. The visible absorption peaks arise due to the *d-d* transition of Cu²⁺ in the crystalline environment of TiO₂. Incorporation of Cu²⁺ distorts the local structure of TiO₂, resulting in the loss of octahedral symmetry surrounding Cu²⁺. The Jahn-Teller distortion splits the ²E_g and ²T_{2g} state of Cu²⁺ into several *d* states. Interaction of light excites the electron from ground to several of the excited states and gives the visible absorption peaks in the framework of TiO₂. These Cu²⁺ *d* states and oxygen defects create band states, thereby favoring electronic transition to these levels and resulting in lowering of band gap of TiO₂. A direct confirmation is the increase in the magnitude of Urbach energy with the reduction in the band gap of doped TiO₂.

Keywords: Defects, Raman peak, Blueshift, Crystal field, Band gap

Background

TiO₂ is an important transition metal oxide material with a major application area in photocatalysis, where it shows its efficiency in the removal of unwanted impurities from water, air, etc. [1,2]. The main drawback of pure TiO₂ is its wide band gap (3 to 3.2 eV); because of which, it absorbs only the UV part of solar radiation that accounts for only 4% of the total solar radiation, leaving most of the visible portion of light [2,3]. This material can be made visible light-active either by introducing structural defects such as Ti³⁺ and oxygen vacancies or by incorporation of non-metals such as N, C, and S, and transition and rare earth ions [3-10]. These defects and dopants create sub-band states in the band gap of TiO₂ and shift the absorption edge of TiO₂ towards the visible region, thus enhancing the visible light photoactivity. Structural defects, generated on doping, can effectively tune the band structure and control the photoactivity. In Fe, Ce-codoped TiO₂, it is reported that doping of these ions leads to the creation of grain boundary defects and results in the bending of the valence and conduction bands. These defects limit the electron mobility to the interface and prevent charge carrier recombination [11]. Cu is also an important dopant

because it has high electronic conductivity, and it is cheap and highly available on the Earth's crust [12]. Cu-doped TiO₂ or CuO/TiO₂ composite serves as an efficient photocatalytic material in the decomposition of gas-phase alcohols, acid orange 88, methylene blue, etc. [13-15]. Cu doping can effectively reduce the wide band gap of TiO₂ by creating defects and *d*-band states of Cu in TiO₂ and can also act as active trap centers of electrons to reduce carrier recombination [3,16]. Other applications of Cu-doped TiO₂ are as anode materials in Li-ion batteries [12], CO sensing [17], NO and CO₂ reduction [18,19], etc. Cu-doped TiO₂ also shows activity in bacterial inactivation [20]. In this article, we have discussed the doping effect of Cu on the crystallinity of pure TiO₂ nanoparticles. We have examined how Cu extends the absorption edge of TiO₂ to the visible region and reduces the effective band gap of TiO₂. The structural characterizations are done with X-ray diffraction, transmission electron microscopy, and Raman spectroscopy, while absorption spectra are analyzed in a UV-vis spectrometer in diffuse reflectance mode.

Methods

TiO₂ nanoparticles with 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu were prepared by sol-gel method. The synthesis started with the addition of 10 ml of titanium isopropoxide (Sigma-Aldrich

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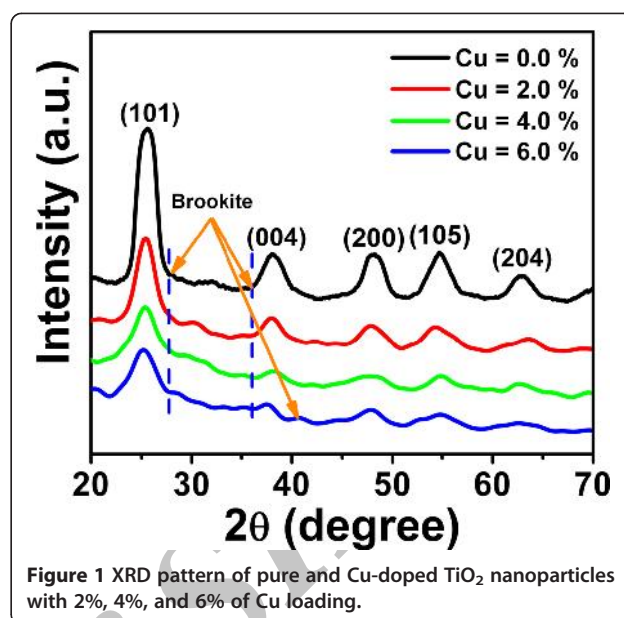
Corporation, St. Louis, MO, USA) to a mixture of 20 ml 2-propanol (Merck, Worli, Mumbai, India) and 10 ml of ethanol (Merck). The reaction mixture was stirred for 15 min, and then 1 ml of water was added to hydrolyze the isopropoxide chain. This was followed by dropwise addition of copper nitrate hexahydrate (Merck) solution with the requisite amount of Cu. The solution was stirred for 6 h, and after this time, the solution was transformed to gel. The gel was centrifuged in water and ethanol for five times and then dried in a vacuum oven at 80°C to get an amorphous Cu-doped TiO₂ nanopowder. The nanopowder was then annealed in air at 450°C for 4 h to obtain Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the samples was characterized using a Rigaku MiniFlex X-ray diffractometer (Rigaku, Tokyo, Japan) with CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$) at a scanning angle between 20° and 70°. The high-resolution transmission electron microscope (TEM) images of the doped nanoparticles are obtained using a JEOL-JEM-2100 transmission electron microscope (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) at an operating voltage of 200 kV. Energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra of the samples were studied with a JEOL JSM (model 6390 LV) scanning electron microscope with an INCAx-Sight EDX detector (Oxford Instruments, Abingdon, Oxfordshire, UK). The Raman spectra of the samples were recorded using a Renishaw In-Via Raman spectrometer (Renishaw, Wotton-under-Edge, UK) at a resolution of 0.3 cm⁻¹. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra were obtained using a Bruker EMX 300 EPR spectrometer (Bruker BioSpin GmbH, Silberstreifen 4, Germany). Diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the samples were obtained using a Shimadzu 2450 UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan) with BaSO₄ powder as the standard reference sample.

Results and discussion

X-ray diffraction analysis

The diffraction pattern of pristine and Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles is shown in Figure 1. The diffraction pattern corresponds to the tetragonal anatase phase of TiO₂ (JCPDS-782486). Indeed, a small fraction of brookite phase is also present in between 27° and 36°, and at 40° (JCPDS-761934). Anatase and brookite are the metastable phases of TiO₂ and usually formed at low temperature during solution-phase synthesis. Presence of brookite phase has also been observed by So et al. in TiO₂ nanoparticles [21]. They reported that the brookite phase completely disappeared at high annealing temperature. Increase in the brookite fraction with doping indicates inhibition of the formation of complete anatase phase due to incorporation of Cu on the lattice site or grain boundary. The crystallite size of the samples is calculated by using



Scherrer's equation, $d = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}$, where d is the crystallite size, λ is the wavelength of X-ray radiation, β is full width at half maximum, and θ is the diffraction angle. The resultant sizes are 6, 5.5, 5, and 4 nm for pristine and 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu, respectively. The diffraction peaks are broad in all the samples. The widening of the XRD peaks indicates reduction in the grain size and increase in the fraction of the amorphous grain boundary, containing many of the structural defects. The diffraction peak intensity is lower in the doped samples than in the pristine one. The low intense diffraction peaks indicate degradation of structural quality or loss of crystallinity of TiO₂ on doping.

TEM and EDX analysis

The high-resolution transmission electron microscope images of 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles are shown in Figure 2a,b,c. The particles are spherical in shape with some amount of agglomeration. The particle size distribution shows that the average numbers of particles have a size of 9, 8, and 8 nm, respectively, for 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu-doped TiO₂. Therefore, doping does not affect the size of the nanoparticles. Figure 2d,e,f shows the EDX pattern of the 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles, showing the presence of Cu, Ti, and oxygen in the nanoparticles. There is no peak of nitrogen in the EDX, indicating removal of nitrate impurities during centrifugation.

Raman spectroscopy study

Raman spectroscopy is a technique of importance for the understanding of the local structure changes on incorporation of dopant ions. The Raman spectra of our samples are shown in Figure 3.

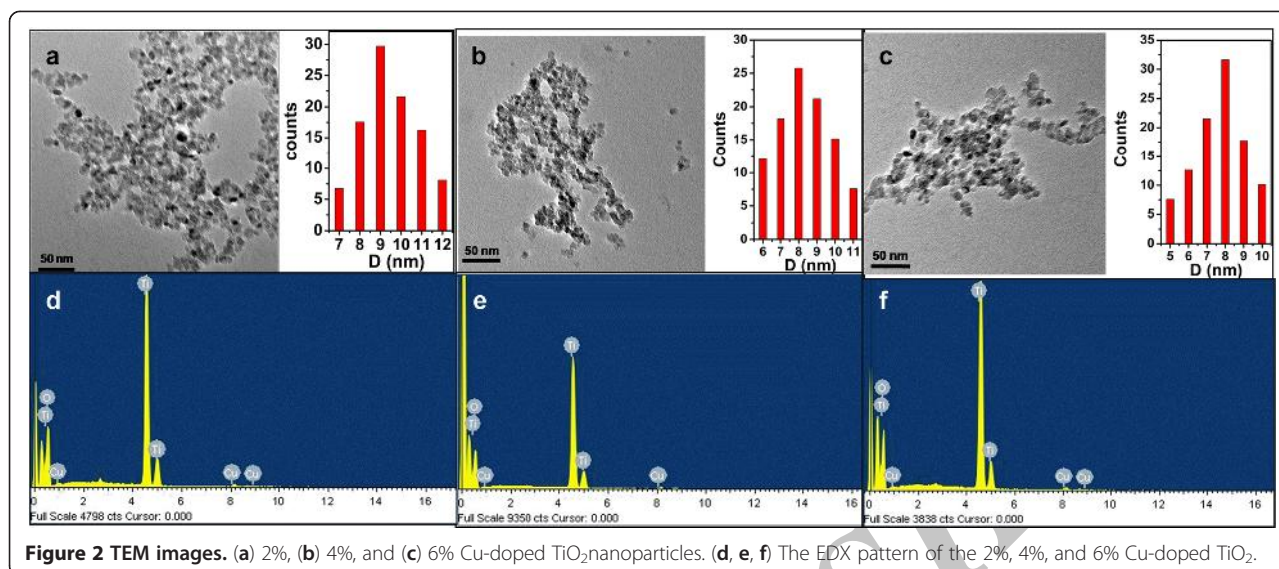


Figure 2 TEM images. (a) 2%, (b) 4%, and (c) 6% Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles. (d, e, f) The EDX pattern of the 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu-doped TiO₂.

The Raman spectra of our samples correspond to the anatase phase of TiO₂. We have not detected any secondary peaks related to Cu or its oxide phases. The intense peak at 149 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the E_g mode of anatase TiO₂ [22,23]. Other than this, two other low intense modes appear at 197 and 641 cm⁻¹, respectively. The B_{1g} mode occurs at 400 cm⁻¹, and the $A_{1g} + B_{1g}$ mode appears at 530 cm⁻¹, respectively [23]. The significant observation in the Raman peaks of the samples is the broadness and shifting to a higher wavenumber with Cu loading. Any characteristic Raman vibration is associated with the Ti-O stretching, bending vibration [24]. The E_g peak is associated with the symmetric stretching vibration of O-Ti-O in TiO₂, the B_{1g} peak is due to the

symmetric bending vibration of O-Ti-O, and the A_{1g} peak is the result of antisymmetric bending vibration of O-Ti-O [24]. The ionic size of Cu²⁺ (0.73 Å) is larger than that of Ti⁴⁺ (0.64 Å), and hence, doping of this ion will distort the lattice structure of TiO₂; since there is charge difference between Cu²⁺ and Ti⁴⁺, doping of Cu generates oxygen vacancies in the lattice of TiO₂ to maintain the charge neutrality [3]. If doping occurs on the substitutional position on the Ti⁴⁺ site, the Ti-O-Ti bond will be disturbed and a new Cu-O-Ti or Cu-O-Cu bond will be formed. Therefore, disturbance of the Ti-O-Ti bonds and the formation of new Cu-O bonds will affect the Raman-active modes and will result in the broadening and shifting of the peaks. Although Cu²⁺ doping on the Ti⁴⁺ site will affect the entire Raman-active modes, we have considered the intense E_g peak to understand the doping effect. The E_g peak is associated with the Cu-O-Cu stretching mode vibration, and on doping, the strength of this vibration lowers, since oxygen vacancy is formed nearby. The formation of oxygen vacancy nearby Cu is theoretically proved in the Cu-doped TiO₂ system [25]. Due to the generation of these oxygen vacancies, the lattice is contracted and the peak is shifted to a higher wavenumber. Perker and Siegel in their work reported that oxygen vacancies are responsible for the shifting and broadening of the Raman peak [26]. On the other hand, some people reported that quantum size effect has a role to play in the broadening and peak shifting [27]. From XRD and TEM, we have found that the size of the nanoparticles is in the nanoregime; therefore, phonon confinement will be prominent. Alongside, XRD also demonstrates that grain boundary defects are also generated. Therefore, both phonon confinement and structural defects may result in the shifting and broadening of the Raman E_g peak. The oxygen vacancy generation

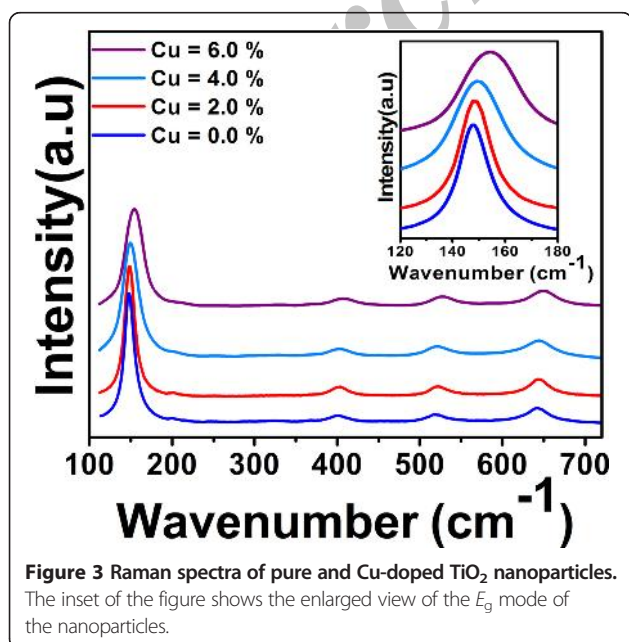


Figure 3 Raman spectra of pure and Cu-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles. The inset of the figure shows the enlarged view of the E_g mode of the nanoparticles.

and lattice disruption of Cu-doped TiO_2 are shown in Figure 4a.

Electron paramagnetic resonance spectra analysis

Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) is an important tool to understand the valence state of the dopant and the coordination environment of the dopant in the framework of the host. The EPR spectra of 2% Cu-doped TiO_2 nanoparticles are shown in Figure 5. As shown in the spectra, the EPR spectra are asymmetric in shape and contain a signal corresponding to the presence of Cu^{2+} in the distorted octahedral coordination of TiO_2 [15,28]. The intense peak is centered at $g_{\perp} = 2.08$ followed by less intense quadruple signals at $g_{\parallel} = 2.21, 2.28, 2.38$, and 2.48, respectively, in the lower side of the magnetic field. The values of both g_{\perp} and g_{\parallel} are greater than the g value of free electron $g_e = 2.0023$. From the position of the above-mentioned g values, it can be said that Cu^{2+} is coordinated in the octahedral coordination of TiO_2 and has substituted Ti^{4+} on the lattice site [15]. The EPR peak is also broad which indicates the presence of dipolar interaction among neighboring Cu^{2+} ions that leads to the increase in the width of the EPR peak.

Study of optical properties

The diffuse reflectance spectra of pure and doped TiO_2 are shown in Figure 6a. The method adopted to acquire the absorption spectra of powder samples in DRS mode is that of Kubelka-Munk. The equation for the Kubelka-Munk method is represented by $F(R) = (1 - R)^2/2R$, where R is the reflectance and $F(R)$ is the absorbance [29]. The $F(R)$ curves of the samples are shown in Figure 6b.

Doped samples exhibit an absorption peak at 330 nm corresponding to the maximum absorption when electrons are excited from the valence to the conduction band. Doped samples show shifting in the absorption peak to the visible region. One absorption shifting occurs at just above 400 nm, and another big absorption hump appears in between 550 and 900 nm. In TiO_2 , the valence band

(VB) is composed of O $2p$ states, and the conduction band (CB) is composed of Ti $3d$ states [30]. The 330-nm absorption peak is due to electronic transition from O $2p$ to Ti $3d$. Doped samples contain an extended absorption edge above 400 nm and a broad absorption peak in between 550 and 900 nm. The first absorption between 400 and 500 nm appears as a result of interfacial charge transfer from the O $2p$ valence band to the Cu(II) state attached to TiO_2 [31-37]. These Cu(II) states may be present either as Cu(II) nanoclusters or in the form of amorphous oxide phase of CuO. Li et al. [15] demonstrated that Cu(II) does not show this absorption peak if it is present as CuO, but displays this absorption when it is present as Cu(II) ions attached to TiO_2 . However, Qiu et al. suggested that the absorption peak between 400 and 500 nm appears due to charge transfer from TiO_2 to CuO clusters in a system of CuO/ TiO_2 nanocomposite [34]. Therefore, based on these observations, we can predict that the absorption appears due to charge transfer from O $2p$ to Cu(II) clusters or CuO amorphous phase. However, from EPR signals, it is found that copper is present as Cu(II) and is well placed in the octahedral coordination of TiO_2 . Moreover, the broadening of the EPR line suggests that Cu^{2+} - Cu^{2+} dipolar interaction is taking place and that this is possible when Cu^{2+} is so closely associated possibly forming clusters. These may be nanoclusters of copper, since bulk copper clusters could have been detected in the diffraction pattern. Therefore, with the help of EPR results, we can suggest that the observed absorption band is due to charge transition from the valence band of TiO_2 to Cu(II) nanoclusters attached to TiO_2 . Apart from the absorption band between 400 and 500 nm, doped samples contain another absorption hump extending from 550 to 900 nm. The second absorption band is mainly due to the $d-d$ transition of Cu^{2+} in the crystalline environment of TiO_2 [31-37]. Cu^{2+} has a d^9 electronic configuration, and in the pure octahedral coordination, the 2D state of Cu^{2+} is splitted into 2E_g

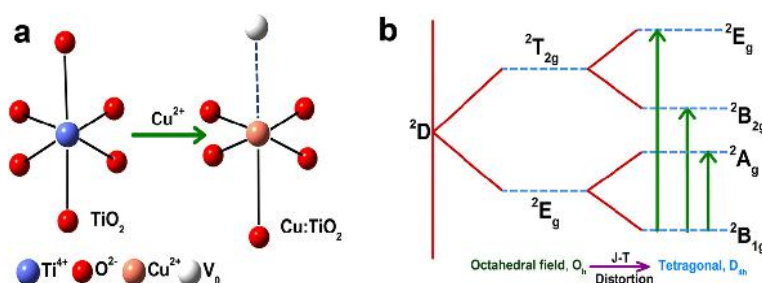
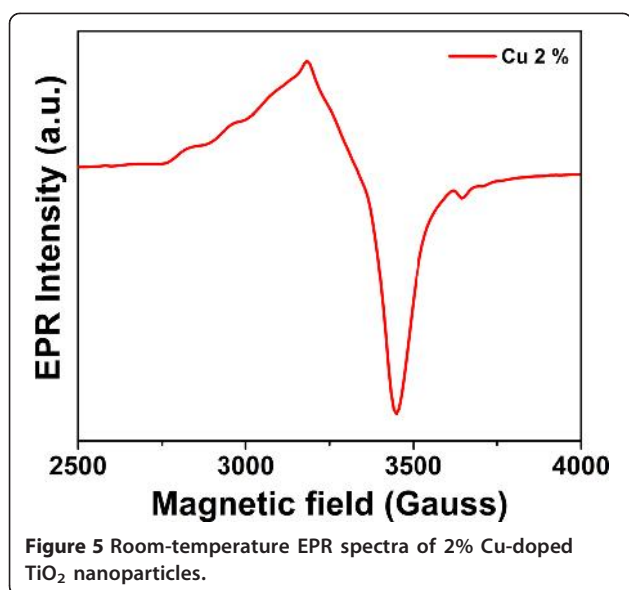


Figure 4 Distortion of the TiO_6 octahedra. (a) Schematic representation of the distortion of the TiO_6 octahedra on doping Cu^{2+} ion on the Ti^{4+} lattice site. Doping of Cu^{2+} on Ti^{4+} generates oxygen vacancies (white ball) nearby Cu^{2+} (shown by a dashed line). (b) Jahn-Teller (J-T) distortion of the octahedral symmetry of TiO_6 and changes in the $d-d$ transition from octahedral to tetragonal. In undistorted octahedral coordination, only a single electronic transition occurs. On the other hand, due to the J-T effect, three possible $d-d$ excitations may occur.

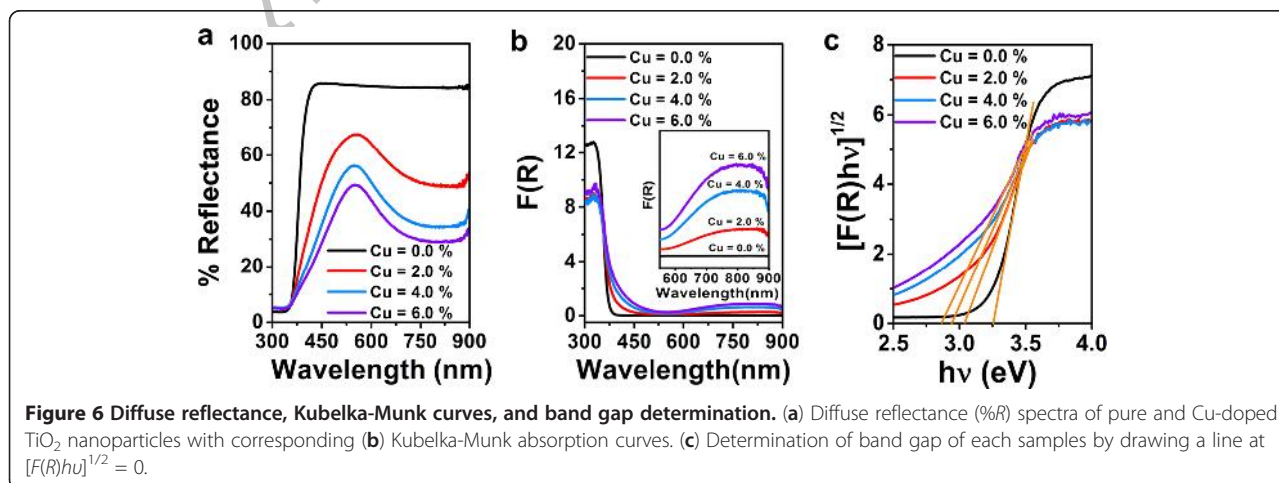


ground state and ${}^2T_{2g}$ excited state with a single electronic transition. However, from the XRD and Raman spectra of the samples, it was found that doping of Cu^{2+} generates oxygen vacancies which lie near Cu^{2+} . Therefore, Cu^{2+} is no longer in the pure octahedral (O_h) symmetry, and the symmetry is slightly distorted. A Jahn-Teller (J-T) distortion is taking place, changing the symmetry from O_h to D_{4h} [35]. Due to the J-T effect, the ground state 2E_g is further splitted into ${}^2B_{1g}$ ground and 2A_g excited states, and the ${}^2T_{2g}$ is separated into ${}^2B_{2g}$ ground and 2E_g excited states [35,36]. Therefore, the possible optical transitions that may give rise to the above peaks are ${}^2B_{1g} \rightarrow {}^2A_g$, ${}^2B_{1g} \rightarrow {}^2B_{2g}$, and ${}^2B_{1g} \rightarrow {}^2E_g$. In reports, the absorption at 450 and 900 nm and the broad band at 810 nm are assigned to ${}^2B_{1g}$ to 2E_g and ${}^2B_{1g}$ to ${}^2B_{2g}$ transitions, respectively [35-38]. This absorption peak cannot be shown by Cu^+ , since Cu^+ has completely

filled $3d^{10}$ configurations. Since $3d^{10}$ is highly stable, photoexcitation will not release electrons, and therefore, no absorption will appear. The $d-d$ electronic transition of Cu^{2+} is shown in Figure 4b.

From the absorption spectra of the samples, it is understood that doping shifts the absorption edge of TiO₂ from the UV to visible region. Now, we can determine the effective reduction in the band gap (BG) of TiO₂ due to the incorporation of Cu^{2+} ions. Figure 6c shows the band gap of all samples. For BG determination, $[F(R)hv]^n$ is plotted against hv . Since anatase TiO₂ is an indirect band gap semiconductor, the value of $n = \frac{1}{2}$ ($n = 2$ for direct band gap) [29]. The line drawn on the linear part of $[F(R)hv]^{1/2}$ vs. hv curve at $[F(R)hv]^{1/2} = 0$ gives the band gap. From UV-vis spectroscopy, it is found that Cu^{2+} forms sub-band states in the band gap of TiO₂ [39]. Along with Cu^{2+} , oxygen defect band states are also formed in the band gap. In pure TiO₂, the electronic transition occurs directly from VB to CB. However, on Cu doping, the electrons are not directly excited to CB since the unoccupied $\text{Cu}^{2+} s-d$ states and oxygen vacancies capture the electrons. The charged oxygen defect states formed in TiO₂ are F (two electrons), F^+ (single electron), and F^{++} (devoid of electrons) [40]. The oxygen vacancy states that may capture electrons are F^+ and F^{++} , respectively. Therefore, the sub-band states of Cu^{2+} and oxygen defects are responsible for the reduction of effective band gap of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Sahu et al. [3] examined the red shift in the band gap of TiO₂ on Cu doping and examined that absorption edge shifting and band gap reduction are controlled by the surface of the nanoparticles, lattice strain, and vacancies.

We can determine the width of the defect bands formed as an intermediate state in the band gap of TiO₂. These defect band states create a band tail extending from the lower of conduction band to deep down of band gap, and similarly, the defect states very near to the valence



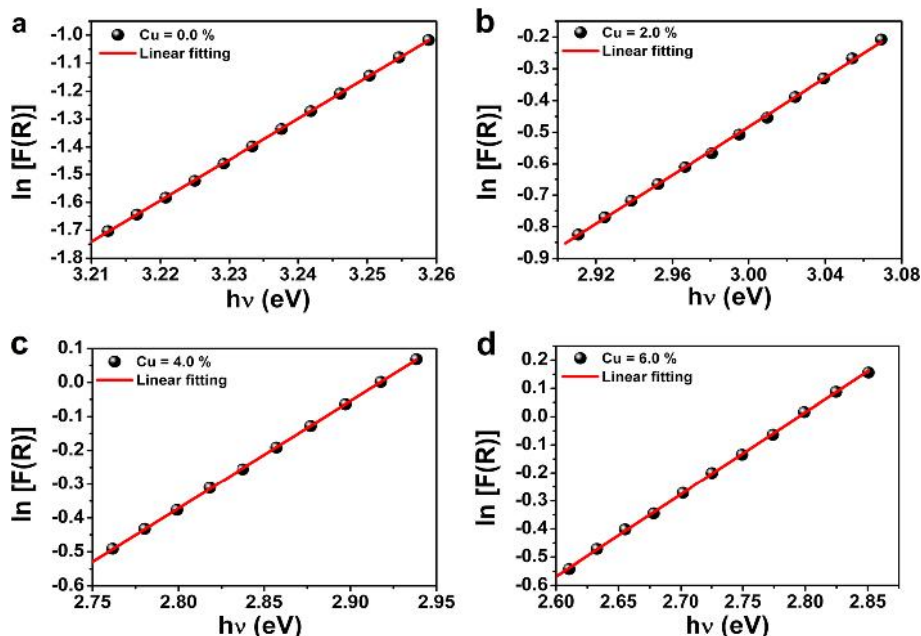


Figure 7 Plot of $\ln[F(R)]$ vs. $h\nu$ for the determination of Urbach energy (E_u). (a) 0.0%, (b) 2.0%, (c) 4.0%, and (d) 6.0% Cu-doped TiO_2 nanoparticles. The reciprocal of the slope of the linear fitting gives the value of E_u .

band also smear the valence band edge deep inside the gap. Therefore, on both sides of the valence band maximum and conduction band minimum, an energy tail is formed. This defect tail is known as the Urbach tail, and the energy associated with this defect tail is referred to as Urbach energy. The equation for Urbach energy is given by $\alpha = \alpha_0 \exp\left(\frac{E}{E_u}\right)$, where α is the absorption coefficient, E is the photon energy, and E_u is the Urbach energy [41,42]. The Urbach energy is calculated by plotting $\ln\alpha$ vs. E . The reciprocal of the slopes of the linear portion, below the optical band gap, gives the value of E_u . The Urbach energy of each sample is shown in Figure 7.

Absorbance coefficient α is proportional to $F(R)$; hence, we can write $\ln[F(R)]$ vs. E . The Urbach energy of pure and 2%, 4%, and 6% Cu is 67, 259, 316, and 343 meV, respectively. Therefore, as band gap decreases, the magnitude of defect energy increases. This clearly supports our argument that sub-band states formed in between the valence and conduction bands result in the narrowing of the band gap. With doping level, the number of defect levels below the conduction band increases to such an extent that the band edge is shifted deep into the forbidden gap, thereby reducing the effective band gap of TiO_2 . The schematic of the formation of the Urbach tail and the relationship of the band gap with Urbach energy for different samples are shown in Figure 8a,b.

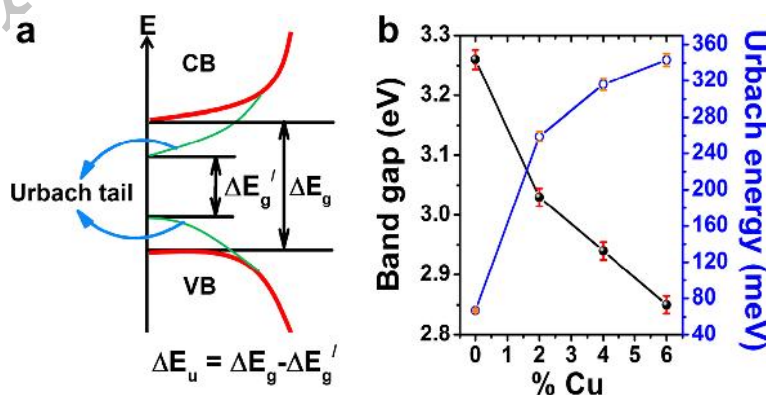


Figure 8 Result of doping and variation of the band gap. (a) Doping induced smearing of the valence and conduction band edges and formation of Urbach tail in Cu-doped TiO_2 nanoparticles. (b) Variation of band gap and Urbach energy for different concentrations of Cu.

Conclusion

Doping of Cu introduces structural defects and increases the fraction of brookite phase. The diffraction peaks are broad in the doped samples, indicating reduction in the grain size and increase in the amount of amorphous grain boundary. The small crystallite size and oxygen defects are responsible for the broadening and shifting of Raman peaks. Cu^{2+} introduces d states in the mid-band gap of TiO_2 . The single electron in the d orbital undergoes Jahn-Teller distortion and gives rise to a broad absorption peak in the visible region. The d states of Cu^{2+} and oxygen defects are responsible for the narrowing of the band gap of TiO_2 . These defects increase the magnitude of Urbach energy, and the magnitude of this energy increases as Cu loading increases.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

BC designed the objective of the work described in the text and drafted the manuscript. MD did the synthesis and performed the instrumental analysis. AC participated in the design of the study and approved the final draft of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the financial support provided by the Department of Science and Technology (DST), India to the project SR/NM/NS-98/2010 (G).

Received: 3 January 2013 Accepted: 27 March 2013

Published: 19 April 2013

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doi:10.1186/2228-5326-3-25

Cite this article as: Choudhury et al.: Defect generation, *d-d* transition, and band gap reduction in Cu-doped TiO_2 nanoparticles. *International Nano Letters* 2013 **3**:25.

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