

Gram-scale synthesis of highly crystalline, 0-D and 1-D SnO₂ nanostructures through surfactant-free hydrothermal process

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Abstract We report the synthesis of highly crystalline SnO₂ nanoparticle and nanorod structures with average diameters well within quantum confinement limit (3.5–6.4 nm), through surfactant-free hydrothermal synthesis. The size and shape of the nanostructures could be controlled by controlling the pH (4.5–13.0) of the reaction mixture and the temperature of hydrothermal treatment. Probable mechanisms for the variation of particle size and growth of one-dimensional structures are presented considering the size-dependent crystal solubility at lower pH values of the reaction solution and Ostwald ripening of the quasi-spherical nanoparticles at higher pH values, respectively. Variation of optical band gap energy and hence the effects of quantum confinement in the nanostructures have been studied.

Keywords SnO₂ nanoparticles and nanorods · Large-scale synthesis · Quantum confinement · Hydrothermal growth · Optical properties

Introduction

Current enhanced interest on the synthesis of semi-conducting metal oxides nanostructures is primarily

driven by their unique optical, chemical, and electrical properties. Among the common metal oxides, SnO₂, an *n*-type semiconductor with a wide band gap ($E_g = 3.6$ eV, at 300 K), large excitonic binding energy (130 meV), and a low electron affinity (Bhise et al. 2007), has been thoroughly investigated for various technological applications such as gas sensors for environmental monitoring (Xu et al. 2005; Mädler et al. 2006; Carreño et al. 2009), optoelectronic devices (Lee et al. 2004), transparent conducting electrodes (Sugimoto et al. 2004), catalyst supports (Jiang et al. 2004), energy storage (lithium batteries) (de Monredon et al. 2002), and energy conversion (Zhang and Gao 2004). The improved performance of SnO₂ nanostructures in such applications is primarily attributed to their large surface to volume ratio and the size-dependent electronic or optical properties. A variety of methods have been employed to prepare SnO₂ nanocrystals of different morphologies, such as hydrothermal (Chiu and Yeh 2007), thermal evaporation (Pan et al. 2001), microemulsion process (Liu et al. 2001a), chemical deposition (Liu et al. 2001b), solid state reactions (Xu et al. 2002; Sun et al. 2006), sol-gel (Broussous et al. 2002), sonochemical (Pang et al. 2001), among others. Ba et al. (2005) have developed the technique to synthesize highly uniform crystalline SnO₂ nanoparticles of 3.5 nm average diameter through a non-aqueous benzyl alcohol route. Shao et al. (2005) could synthesize hollow SnO₂ microspheres through a template-free hydrothermal route. Nanowires, nanoribbons, and nanotubes of rutile and

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orthorhombic tin oxide nanostructures have also been synthesized by Dai et al. (2002) using an elevated temperature synthesis technique ($\sim 1,100$ °C). On the other hand, Cai et al. (2005) have fabricated asterisk-like SnO₂ nanostructures with multi-armed nanoribbons and nanowires by thermal evaporation of the mixture of SnO and Sn powders. However, reports on the synthesis of SnO₂ nanostructures of controlled morphology in the quantum confinement regime are scarce (Cheng et al. 2004). While solution-based techniques for the fabrication of nanostructures are considered promising due to their potentials for controlling their size and morphology and hence their physical properties (Alivisatos 1996; Hyeon et al. 2002), fabrication of anisotropic nanostructures through solution-based technique, specially without using organic ligands or surfactants, is of great importance as the inherent physical properties of the nanostructures can be preserved.

In this article, we report on the synthesis of highly crystalline quantum confined zero-dimensional (0-D) and one-dimensional (1-D) SnO₂ nanostructures through a ligand or surfactant-free hydrothermal method at relatively low temperatures. The low-temperature hydrothermal synthesis route is a superior alternative to the post-growth calcination process needed for the crystallization of SnO₂ prepared by other methods (Wang et al. 2003). Effects of solution pH and temperature of hydrothermal treatment on the size and morphology control of the nanostructures have been discussed.

Experimental

A typical synthesis process started with the preparation of aqueous solutions of SnCl₄·5H₂O (5.0 mmol/1.753 g) and NaOH (22.2 mmol/0.89 g) by dissolving them in 10.0 and 20.0 mL of deionized (DI) water, respectively. Subsequently, the NaOH solution was slowly added to SnCl₄ solution drop-wise under magnetic stirring to adjust the pH of the mixture solution to a desired value. Then 30.0 mL of anhydrous ethanol was added to the above mixture. Different solutions were prepared with final pH values maintaining at 5, 7, 9, 11, or 13. To prepare the reaction solutions of pH 11 and 13, a NaOH solution of higher concentration was utilized. The pale-white turbid mixture was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave

and treated hydrothermally either at 180 or 225 °C for 12 or 24 h. After the hydrothermal treatment, the autoclave was passively cooled down to room temperature, and the white precipitate formed at the bottom was collected, separated by centrifuging (8,000 rpm, 20 min.), washed repeatedly with water and ethanol, and dried at 80 °C in air for several hours. Powder samples of the order of gram amount were obtained. To check the morphology and size reproducibility of the grown nanostructures, synthesis of each sample was repeated at least three times.

Structural analyses of the powder samples were carried out through X-ray diffraction (XRD) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a Siemens D8 Discover diffractometer (Cu K_α source; $\lambda = 1.5406$ Å, accelerating voltage = 25 keV, filament current = 40 mA, scanning range $2\theta = 10$ – 75° , step size = 0.02° , dwell time = 1 h) and a JEOL FEG 2010F FasTem electron microscope (operating at 200 keV), respectively. Optical properties of the nanostructures were evaluated by Raman spectroscopy, diffused reflectance in the UV–vis spectral range, Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, and photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy at room temperature. FTIR analysis of the samples was performed using a Nicolet Magna 750 spectrometer in the 4,000–400 cm⁻¹ spectral range. Diffused reflectance spectra (DRS) of the samples were recorded in the 200–800 nm range using a Varian Cary 5000 spectrophotometer attached with an integrating sphere. A Perkin–Elmer NIR Spectrum GX FT-Raman spectrometer with Nd:YAG laser source (1,064 nm, 500 mW) was used for recording the Raman spectra at room temperature. The PL spectra of the SnO₂ samples were recorded by a 1-m long ScienceTech monochromator using a Hamamatsu PMH-04 photomultiplier and a He-Cd laser (as excitation source, $\lambda = 325$ nm).

Results and discussion

The structural phase and crystallinity of the SnO₂ nanostructures obtained at different pH values were tested through their XRD patterns (Fig. 1). There appeared well-defined intense XRD peaks for all the samples, and the diffraction peaks matched well with the tetragonal rutile phase of SnO₂ (JCPDS file # 88-0287). As can be appreciated from Fig. 1, intensity of the diffraction peaks increases with the increase of

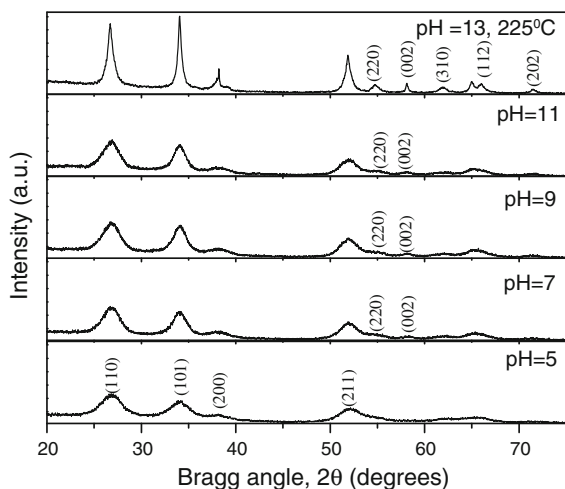


Fig. 1 X-ray diffraction patterns of SnO₂ nanostructures grown at different pH values. All the samples were prepared with hydrothermal treatment at 180 °C for 12 h, except the sample prepared with pH 13 (225 °C, 24 h)

pH value of the reaction mixture, indicating an improvement of crystallinity at higher pH values. However, the XRD peaks are quite broad due to small particle size of the samples. While the increase of solution pH causes a gradual increase in diffraction peak intensity, the increase is drastic when the temperature of hydrothermal treatment increased from 180 to 225 °C, specially for higher pH values of the reaction mixtures.

Figure 2 shows typical low-resolution TEM images of SnO₂ nanostructures grown at different pH values. Formation of ultrafine, highly monodisperse, quasi-spherical SnO₂ particles is observed for the pH values 5–7. On further increasing the pH to 9, the particles tend to agglomerate to some extent and become slightly elongated in shape. For a fixed temperature of hydrothermal treatment (180 °C), the average size of the SnO₂ nanoparticles first decreases with the increase of pH and then increases beyond pH 8. At pH 11, even for 180 °C temperature of hydrothermal treatment, the spherical morphology of the nanoparticles changes to rod-like morphology (Fig. 2d). The tendency of forming elongated nanostructures is pronounced for the pH values higher than 9.0. On increasing the pH of the reaction mixture to 13, even for the hydrothermal treatment at 180 °C resulted in 100 % conversion of nanoparticles to rod-like elongated structures of relatively low-aspect ratio (length/diameter ~ 2.8; not shown). Finally at pH 13

and 225 °C hydrothermal temperature, uniform nanorods with average diameter of 5.8 nm and length up to 68.0 nm are produced (aspect ratio ~ 12). The diameters of the nanorods are very much similar to that of the primary nanoparticles (the particles grown at lower pH values), which suggests that the rod-like anisotropic nanostructures might have been produced from the initially formed spherical nanoparticles in the hydrothermal reactions (Gu et al. 2004). Dimensions of the nanostructures were measured from their high-resolution transmission electron microscopic (HRTEM) images, and their size distribution histograms are presented as insets of Fig. 2. The relationship between the pH value of the reaction mixture and the average size of the produced particles is displayed in Fig. 3. It can be seen that the average diameter of the particles first decreases from 5.4 to 3.5 nm on increasing the pH value from 5 to 7 and then increases up to 5.6 nm when the pH increased up to 11. The change in average size of the spherical particles can be understood considering the size-dependent crystal solubility described by Thompson–Freundlich equation (Lifshitz and Slyozov 1961). In a supersaturated aqueous medium, the tiny crystalline nuclei are formed, which followed by their growth (Yu et al. 2003). When most of the excess solute gets precipitated in a supersaturated solution during the reaction (hydrolysis in this case) process, there is a considerable decrease in saturation level. Under such condition, the smaller particles begin to dissolve and the larger particles grow by consuming the smaller ones. This process is commonly known as Ostwald ripening and is a common growth mechanism for several metal oxide nanostructures produced by bottom-up approach. The driving force in Ostwald ripening arises because the concentration of solute in the vicinity of small particles is higher than the average supersaturation, while it is lower in the vicinity of larger particles (Jain and Hughes 1978). It is worth mentioning that the growth by Ostwald ripening usually produces spherical-shaped particles, which is thermodynamically most stable due to minimization of overall surface energy. We speculate that in our case, the spherical particles were formed at lower pH values through the assembly of tiny crystallites with rapid crystal growth at a relatively high degree of supersaturation (Lee et al. 2006). At pH 7, the primary nanocrystals undergo dissolution, resulting in the formation of smaller particles. With further increase

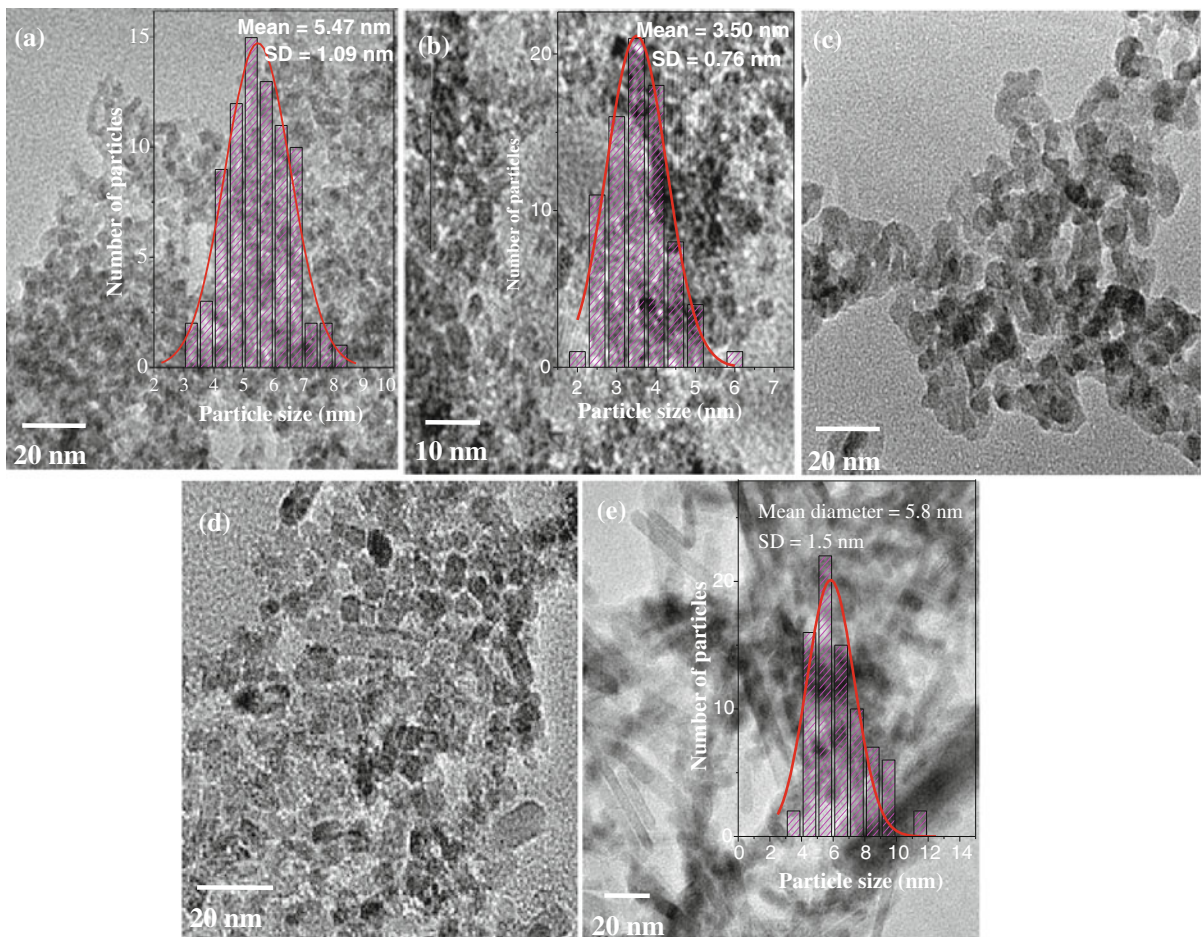


Fig. 2 Typical TEM micrographs of the SnO₂ nanoparticles grown hydrothermally at: **a** pH 5/180 °C/12 h, **b** pH 7/180 °C/12 h, **c** pH 9/180 °C/12 h, **d** pH 11/180 °C/12 h, and **e** pH

13/225 °C/24 h. Particle size distribution histograms of the samples are presented as insets

of pH, such particles grow in size as they incorporate more grains/growth units that they encounter in the reaction medium. Previous results reported by Jiang et al. (2005) have also shown the suppression of particle growth in the pH range 2–6 (inset of Fig. 3), but above pH 7 they did not observe the formation of particles. The distinct results of these two experiments may be attributed to the used alcohol which was ethylene glycol instead of ethanol, mixing ratio of alcohol to water, and the nature of initial precursor salt, tin (II) halide instead of tin (IV) halide which we used in our experiment. It is very clear from Fig. 2d that at pH 11, the nanoparticles have the tendency to grow along certain crystallographic direction and the complete evolution of morphology from spherical to anisotropic nanostructure (1-D) occurs at pH 13.

The HRTEM images presented in Fig. 4 clearly show a morphological evolution of the nanostructures grown at different pH values. The lattice fringes with spacing of 0.33 nm correspond to the (110) plane of rutile SnO₂. It is important to note that these 1-D SnO₂ nanostructures grow preferentially along [001] direction. To understand this preferential growth behavior, we must consider the surface energies of SnO₂ in different crystallographic orientations. The theoretical calculations made by several groups (Slater et al. 1999; Leite et al. 2003) revealed the same general trends: in order of increasing energy, the surfaces follow the sequence (110) < (100) < (101) < (001). Since (110) surfaces are suggested to have the lowest surface energy, the growth along [110] direction is highly unfavored. The preferential growth along [001]

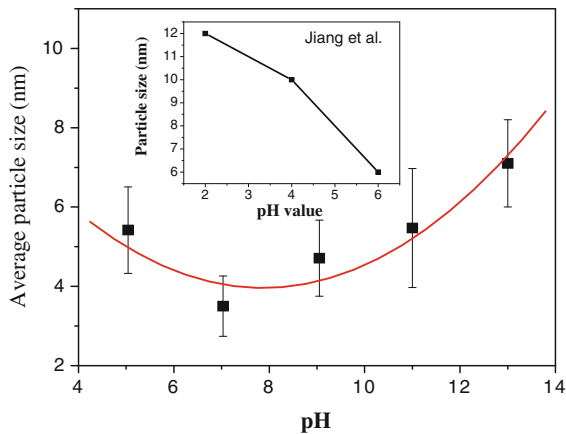


Fig. 3 Variation of average particle size on the pH value of the reaction mixture. The variation reported by Jiang et al. (2005) has been shown as inset. The smooth red line is the computer fitted curve to the experimental data points, and the vertical bars at the experimental data points represent the distribution widths

direction in the present case (Fig. 4e) provides a strong evidence that the growth of the rod-like 1-D structures occurs neither by monomer deposition nor by particle coarsening, but only through a coalescence mechanism, i.e., oriented attachment. This anisotropic alignment is attained by restricting the attachment process in some crystallographic directions and is the dominant mechanism in the formation of anisotropic structures of nanomaterials. By analyzing the morphology and size of the SnO₂ nanostructures grown at different pH values, we suggest that at lower pH values (pH < 11), the growth event occurs through Ostwald ripening and the particles do not undergo oriented attachment process. At pH > 11, solubility of SnO₂ in the reaction solution is extremely low, and hence, the coarsening process is insignificant. Under such reaction condition, oriented attachment of spherical nanoparticles formed in the reaction mixture is favored, and the 1-D nanostructures of uniform diameter are produced.

For evaluating the band gap energy, DRS spectra of the SnO₂ nanostructures were treated with the Kubelka–Munk relation (Kubelka and Munk 1931; Escobedo-Morales et al. 2007). Band gap energies of the samples were estimated from the variation of Kubelka–Munk function $F(R_{\infty})$ (also known as remission function) with photon energy (Fig. 5). As can be seen, the band gap energy of the nanostructures first increases with the increase of pH of the reaction mixture and then decreases in accordance with the

variation of their particle size (see the inset of Fig. 5). As can be appreciated, the DRS estimated band gaps of all the samples are much higher than the band gap energy of bulk SnO₂ (3.6 eV), confirming the quantum confinement of charge carriers in the nanostructures. Effective band gap of the nanostructures were also calculated using the effective mass approximation relation (Xu et al. 2008):

$$E_g^{\text{eff}} = E_g + \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2\mu R^2} - \frac{1.8e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon R} + \text{small terms}, \quad (1)$$

where E_g is the bulk band gap energy, R is the nanocrystal radius (average radius of the nanoparticles estimated from their TEM micrographs in the present case), \hbar is Planck's constant divided by 2π , and μ is the effective reduced mass. The dielectric constant $\epsilon = 14$ and reduced mass $\mu \approx m_s^* = 0.275m_s$ (because $m_s^* \ll m_h^*$ where m_s^* and m_h^* are the effective masses of electron and hole, respectively) of bulk SnO₂ were considered for calculations. Surprisingly, the calculated band gaps of the nanostructures were considerably (9–15 %) smaller than their values estimated from DRS analysis (see the inset of Fig. 5). To understand this discrepancy, we estimated the average grain size of the samples from their XRD patterns using Scherrer relation and found that the average grain size of the nanoparticles (samples prepared at pH values 5–11) is ~10 % lower than their TEM estimated values. However, the argument cannot be applied for the sample prepared at pH 13 and hydrothermal treatment at 225 °C, as the nanostructures are 1-D and perfect single crystalline in nature. A careful observation of the HRTEM images presented in Fig. 4 would reveal that the 1-D structures are not uniform in diameter; rather, they are sheet-like with thickness less than 3.0 nm. Therefore, the quantum confinement effect is stronger along their thickness. In fact, even the apparent spherical nanoparticles produced at lower pH values might be the round-shaped sheet-like structures. The observed blue-shift in the effective band gap of these nanostructures probably the result of combined effects (quantum confinement) of their width and thickness which cannot be distinguished in the diffuse reflectance spectra of the powder samples.

In order to study the effect of pH on the Raman scattering of hydrothermally grown SnO₂ nanoparticles, room temperature Raman spectra of all the

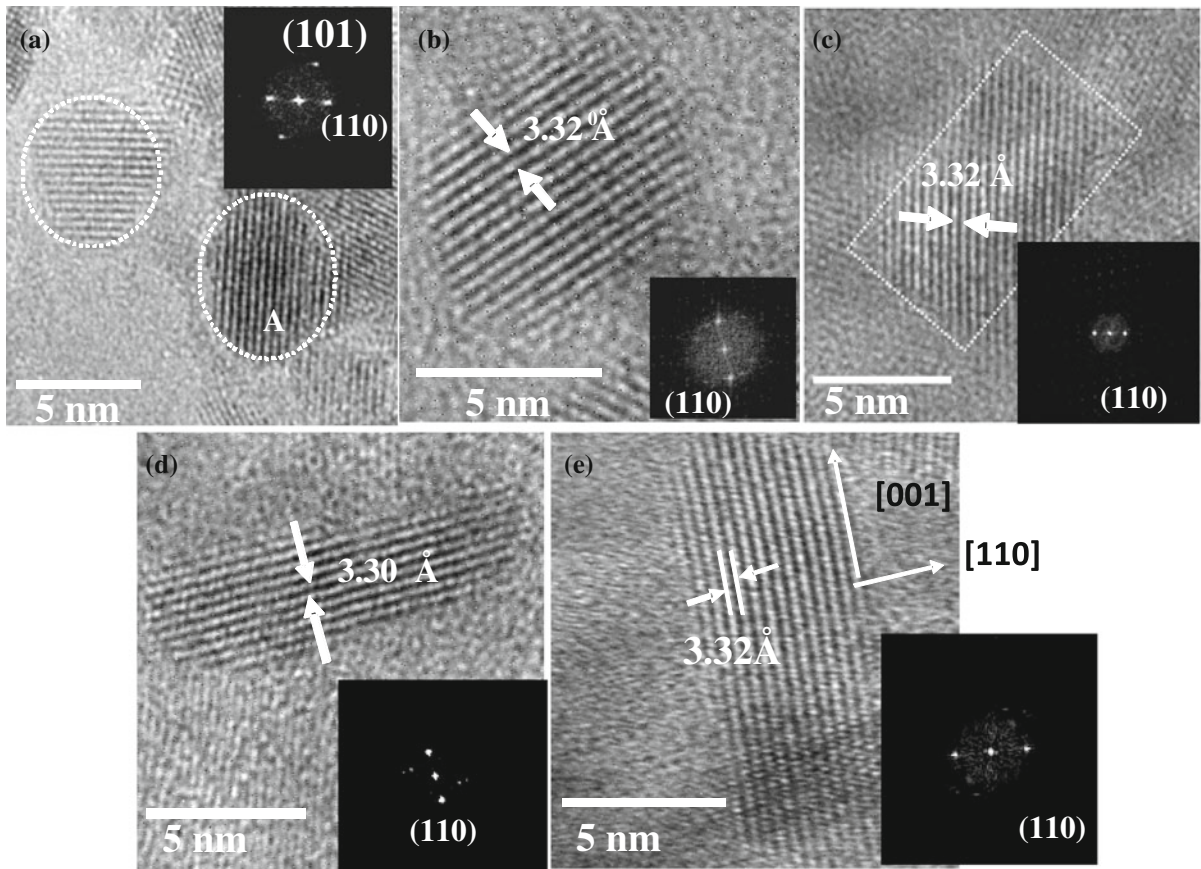


Fig. 4 Typical HRTEM images of SnO₂ nanoparticles grown at: **a** pH 5/180 °C/12 h, **b** pH 7/180 °C/12 h, **c** pH 9/180 °C/12 h, **d** pH 11/180 °C/12 h, and **e** pH 13/225 °C/24 h. *Insets* show the fast Fourier transform of a selected area for each SnO₂ sample

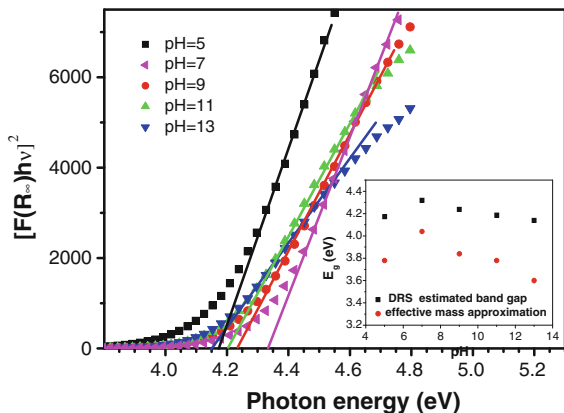


Fig. 5 Kubelka–Munk-treated DRS spectra of the SnO₂ nanostructures prepared at different pH values. *Inset* shows the variations of band gap energy with pH values estimated from DRS analysis and calculated using effective mass approximation

samples was measured. For SnO₂, the six unit cell atoms give rise to the following 18 vibrational modes at the Γ point of the Brillouin zone (Merle et al. 1980; Dieguez et al. 2001):

$$\Gamma = A_{1g} + A_{2g} + B_{1g} + B_{2g} + E_g + 2A_{2u} + 2B_{1u} + 4E_u \quad (2)$$

Of these 18 modes, two are IR active (the single A_{2u} and the triply degenerate E_u), four are Raman active (three non-degenerate modes, A_{1g} , B_{1g} , B_{2g} , and the doubly degenerate E_g), and two are silent (A_{2g} and B_{1u}). One A_{2u} and two E_u modes are acoustic (Zhou et al. 2006).

Figure 6 shows the Raman spectra of the SnO₂ nanostructures grown at different pH values in the spectral range 400–800 cm⁻¹. The Raman scattering peaks appeared at about 482, 635, and 778 cm⁻¹ are associated with the fundamental E_g , A_{1g} , and B_{2g}

modes of rutile SnO_2 , respectively, confirming the growth of SnO_2 nanostructures in pure phase (Chen et al. 2006; Hu et al. 2002). Among these classical modes, B_{2g} is most sensitive to the particle size and shifts toward lower wave numbers as the size decreases. Two Raman bands at 543 and 584 cm^{-1} appeared as a consequence of disorder activation. The intensity and position of these bands depend on the nanoparticle size (Dieguez et al. 2001). It can be seen that the synthesis of SnO_2 at lower pH values induces a broadening and an intensity reduction of the principal modes, which could be related to the effects of nanometer size and internal strain produced during lattice growth at lower pH values. With the variation of pH of the reaction mixture, the intensity and width of the 584 cm^{-1} silent mode varied in accordance with the variation of particle size, i.e., on decreasing particle size, the intensity of the band decreased and became broader, as has been observed by Dieguez et al. (2001). However, the other silent mode (543 cm^{-1}), which was almost unrecognizable for the spherical or quasi-spherical nanoparticles fabricated at 180°C hydrothermal treatment, became very much intense for the sample prepared at pH 13 and 225°C . Though the origin of this silent mode is associated to the breakdown of long-range crystal symmetry in nanocrystals with high surface area and other surface imperfections, a high contribution of this mode in the Raman spectra of crystalline nanocrystals as in the present case is not expected. As has been described by Dieguez et al. (2001), the surface of otherwise highly crystalline nanoparticles has interfacial component consisting of grain boundary atoms or surface atoms. The surface atoms, which may constitute several atomic layers, are frequently displaced from their exact positions required to form ideal crystalline structure. Surface reconstruction in the (110) plane of single-crystalline SnO_2 involving up to three atomic layers and the presence of oxygen vacancies have also been demonstrated by Jones et al. (1997). Therefore, non-stoichiometry and lattice disorder at the nanocrystal surface generate the silent modes in small SnO_2 nanoparticles. As has been discussed earlier, our 1-D SnO_2 nanostructures fabricated at pH 13.0 and at 225°C hydrothermal treatment are planer in nature with considerably smaller thickness than their widths. Presence of a high density of surface atoms is expected in such planer structures, which are disorder in nature, containing oxygen

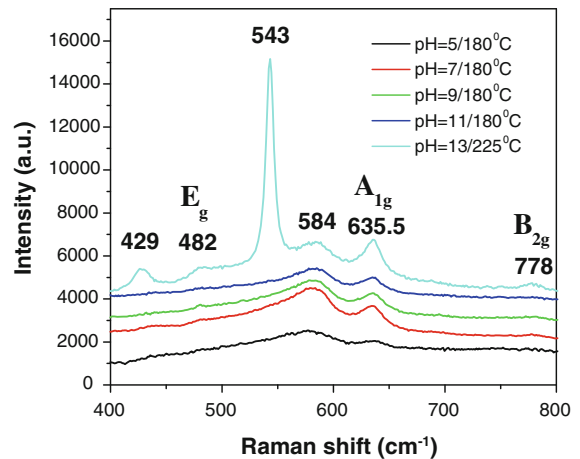


Fig. 6 Raman spectra of the SnO_2 nanostructures grown at different pH values

vacancies, inducing an intense surface mode as we can see in the Fig. 6. In fact, appearance of this silent mode in nanostructured SnO_2 has also been associated with the surface bound atoms by Sangeetha et al. (2011). The origin of Raman scattering peak at 429 cm^{-1} for the sample grown at pH 13 is not clear at this moment.

Fourier transform infrared spectra of all the samples revealed similar features. In Fig. 7a, a typical FTIR absorption spectrum of the SnO_2 nanoparticles is shown. The absorption peaks around $1,634$ and $3,432\text{ cm}^{-1}$ appeared due to bending and stretching vibrations of water molecules absorbed at the surface of tin oxide, respectively. Two strong peaks appeared around 526 and 662 cm^{-1} belong to O–Sn–O and Sn–O stretching vibrations, respectively, suggesting the well-crystalline nature of the SnO_2 nanostructures (Shen et al. 2004). A shoulder peak appeared around 568 cm^{-1} is associated with the antisymmetric Sn–O–Sn stretching vibration of the surface bridging oxide formed through condensation of adjacent surface –OH groups (Chen and Gao 2004). The bands appeared in the 850 – $1,357\text{ cm}^{-1}$ range are associated to the bending modes of different types of surface terminated –OH groups (Zhang et al. 2011). The peak appeared at around $2,354\text{ cm}^{-1}$ belongs to residual CO_2 traces in the atmosphere of the spectrometer.

Similar to the FTIR spectra, room temperature PL spectra of the samples revealed identical features. As can be seen from the typical PL spectrum presented in Fig. 7b, there appeared two prominent emissions at about 414 and 436 nm , correspond to 2.99 and

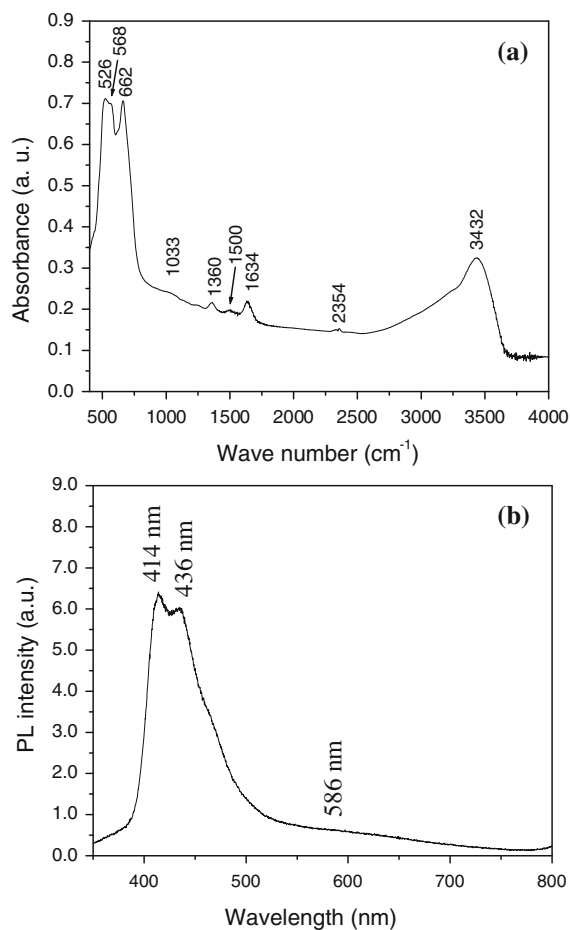


Fig. 7 Typical room temperature **a** FTIR and **b** PL spectra of the SnO₂ nanoparticles

2.84 eV, respectively. These two bands are frequently associated to the doubly ionized oxygen vacancies (V_o^{++}) in SnO₂ (Das et al. 2006). The recombination of surface trapped hole with the electron at the deep trap level (V_o^+) forms a doubly ionized oxygen vacancy center (V_o^{++}). It is believed that the emissions are produced when an electron from the conduction band recombine with the holes at (V_o^{++}) center (Seo et al. 2002). However, the most common emission associated with crystalline defects and stoichiometry deviation in SnO₂ is frequently observed in the visible spectral range (450–750 nm) (Cheng et al. 2004; Liu et al. 2003). As can be seen, there appeared a broad and very low-intensity emission band peaked around 586 nm (2.12 eV) in our samples, indicating their near-stoichiometric composition and excellent structural quality.

Conclusions

Synthesis of highly crystalline, 0-D and 1-D nanostructures of SnO₂ in quantum confinement regime could be possible in large scale by hydrothermal method controlling the pH of the reaction mixture and the temperature. While at lower pH values (pH 5–7) the spherical- or round-shaped SnO₂ nanoparticles grow through Ostwald ripening process of the small nuclei as growth units, and at higher pH values (pH > 9) uniform nanorods grow by oriented attachment process. Higher temperature of hydrothermal treatment accelerates the growth process and promotes the formation of longer 1-D structures. The results presented in this study demonstrate that by manipulating the pH of the reaction mixture, temperature, and time of hydrothermal treatment, surfactant-free SnO₂ nanoparticles of variable sizes and fine nanorods of desired lengths can be produced systematically.

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