# GROWTH AND CHARACTERIZATION OF RUTILE TiO<sub>2</sub> NANOSTRUCTURES SYNTHESIZED BY CHEMICAL BATH DEPOSITION FOR UV PHOTODETECTOR APPLICATIONS

By

#### ABBAS MOHAMMED SELMAN

Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

December 2015

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First, I wish to thank Allah for the good health, patience, and well being that were necessary to complete this research. Second, I am grateful to my main supervisor, Prof. Dr. Zainuriah Hassan, whose sincere guidance allowed me to finish my research. Moreover, her invaluable help with her comments and suggestions through the difficult times during the experimental and thesis procedures have contributed to the success of my research. During the writing of this thesis, she also provided the moral support and the freedom I needed to proceed. I hope that one day I would become a good supervisor to my students as Prof. Dr. Zainuriah Hassan had been to me. Third, I am profoundly thankful to my immediate family to whom this dissertation is dedicated; they have been a constant source of love, concern, support, and strength during all these years. I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my family. I would like to thank my wife, who constantly cheers me up and lovingly stands by me through both good and bad times. I would also like to thank my sons, Mustafa and Mujtaba, and my lovely daughter, Tuqa, for their patience while I took time away from our activities as a family. They always supported me and encouraged me with their best wishes. My extended family has also aided and encouraged me throughout this endeavor. I would like to specially mention the support given by my mother; I warmly appreciate her generosity and understanding. I would also like to acknowledge my upperclassmen, who were mentors in many ways. Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to the technical staff, who maintained all the machines in the N.O.R lab very efficiently. I feel that they are the greatest system administrators in Malaysia: from Abdul Jamil to Yushamdan, Ee Bee Choo, and the rest of the team.

#### TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACK	NOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
TABI	LE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST	OF TABLES	ix
LIST	OF FIGURES	xi
LIST	OF ABBREVIATIONS	xv
LIST	OF SYMBOLS	xvii
ABST	ГРАК	xix
ABST	ГКАСТ	xxi
CHA	PTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	Overview	1
1.2	Research problem	2
1.3	Research objectives	3
1.4	Research originality	4
1.5	Scope of study	4
1.6	Thesis outline	4
CHA	PTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1	Introduction	6
2.2	Preparation of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub>	6
2.3	UV-detector based on TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns	22

CHA	PTER 3	3: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND	28
3.1	Introd	uction	28
3.2	Funda	mental properties of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns	28
3.3	Chem	ical bath deposition method	31
3.4	Grow	th mechanism of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns	32
3.5	Theor	y of X-ray crystallography	34
	3.5.1	Bragg's law and lattice constants	35
	3.5.2	Lattice strain and crystallite size	37
3.6	Energ	y band gap of TiO <sub>2</sub>	39
3.7	Theor	etical concepts of PD <sub>c</sub>	41
	3.7.1	Introduction	41
	3.7.2	Metal-semiconductor contact	42
	3.7.3	Schottky barrier height	44
	3.7.4	P–N heterojunction structure	46
	3.7.5	Photoconduction mechanism	48
	3.7.6	Metal-Semiconductor-Metal PDc	50
		3.7.6.1 Sensitivity, quantum efficiency and current gain	51
		3.7.6.2 Response and recovery times	53
СНА	PTER 4	4: EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE	55
4.1	Introd	uction	55
4.2	Grow	th of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns	55
	4.2.1	Substrate cleaning	55
	4.2.2	Preparation of the TiO <sub>2</sub> seed layer	57
	4.2.3	Synthesis of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns by chemical bath deposition method	57

4.3	Thermal annealing processes		59
4.4	Struct	tural and morphological characterization	59
	4.4.1	X-ray diffraction (XRD)	60
	4.4.2	Atomic force microscopy (AFM)	61
	4.4.3	Field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) and energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDX)	62
4.5	Optica	al characterization	63
	4.5.1	Photoluminescence measurements (PL)	63
	4.5.2	Raman spectroscopy	64
	4.5.3	Optical absorption	65
	4.5.4	Thin film thickness measurement	65
4.6	Devic	e fabrication	66
	4.6.1	Fabrication of HN-PD <sub>i</sub> based on TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs on p-Si(111) substrate	66
	4.6.2	Fabrication of MSM-PD <sub>i</sub> based on TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs on p-Si(111) substrate	68
	4.6.3	Current-voltage and current-time measurements system	69
СНА	PTER :	5: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:	70
GRO	WTH A	AND CHARACTERIZATION OF RUTILE TiO2	
NAN	OSTRU	UCTURES GROWN ON DIFFERENT SUBSTRATES	70
5.1	Introd	luction	70
5		fects of growth temperature on the growth of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns on glass ostrate	70
	5.2.1	Surface morphology	70 70
	5.2.2	Crystalline structure	73
	5.2.3	Optical properties	77
	2.2.3	5.2.3.1 Optical absorption and optical transmission	77
		5.2.5.1 Optical absorption and optical transmission	11

		5.2.3.2 Photoluminescence spectra	80
		5.2.3.3 Raman spectrum	82
5.3	Effect	s of a substrate type on the growth of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns	84
	5.3.1	Introduction	84
	5.3.2	Morphological and structural characterization of ${\rm TiO_2}$ Ns grown on different substrates	85
		5.3.2.1 Surface morphology	85
		5.3.2.2 Crystalline structure	88
	5.3.3	Optical properties	94
		5.3.3.1 Photoluminescence spectra	94
		5.3.3.2 Raman spectrum	96
5.4	Summ	nary	99
СНА	PTER (	6: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:	100
RU	TILE N	ANOSTRUCTURES GROWN ON SI SUBSTRATE	100
6.1	Introd	uction	100
6.2	The ef	effect of pH on the growth of rutile TiO2 Ns	
	6.2.1	Surface morphology	101
	6.2.2	Crystalline structure.	103
	6.2.3	Optical properties	105
		6.2.3.1 PL spectra	105
		6.2.3.2 Raman spectrum	107
6.3	Effect	of duration time on growth of rutile TiO2 Ns	109
	6.3.1	Surface morphology	109
	6.3.2	Crystalline structure	112
	6.3.3	Optical properties	114

		6.3.3.1	PL spectra	114
		6.3.3.2	Raman spectrum	116
6.4		of variati	ions in precursor concentration on the growth of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub>	
	Ns.			118
	6.4.1	Surface n	norphology	118
	6.4.2	Crystallir	ne structure	121
	6.4.3	Optical p	properties	126
		6.4.3.1	PL spectra	126
		6.4.3.2	Raman spectrum	128
6.5	Effec	t of annea	lling treatment on structural and morphological properties of	
		e TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns		130
	6.5.1	Surface n	norphology	130
	6.5.2	Crystallir	ne structure	133
	6.5.3	Raman sp	pectrum	135
6.6	Summ	ary		138
CHAI	PTER 7	: RESUL	TS AND DISCUSSION:	140
RUT	TILE Ti	O2 NANO	OSTRUCTURES AS UV DETECTOR	140
7.1	LIVI A	ataatian h	v hotorojunation photodiodo hogod on mitila TiO. No on n Si	
7.1			y heterojunction photodiode based on rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns on p-Si e with platinum electrode	140
	7.1.1	Introduct	ion	140
	7.1.2	UV detec	ction of the fabricated Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN- PD <sub>i</sub>	140
7.2			y heterojunction photodiode based on rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns on p-Si te with aluminum electrode.	152
	7.2.1	Introduct	ion	152
	7.2.2	UV detec	etion of the fabricated Al/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN- PD	152
7.3		-	tal-semiconductor-metal based on rutile NRs grown on with platinum electrodes	162

	7.3.1	Introduction	163
	7.3.2	UV detection by rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs array on p-Si (111) substrate	165
7.4	Comp this st	arison and discussion between three UV-PDis, which fabricated in audy	174
7.5	Sumn	nary	177
CHA	PTER 8	8: CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES	178
REF	EREN	CES	180
PUB	BLICA	TIONS	203

#### LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 5.1 Summary of films thickness and comparison of the energy gap of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> as derived from optical absorption and that derived from PL spectra.	72
Table 5.2: Structural parameters of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns on glass substrates at various deposition temperatures.	76
Table 5.3: Raman bands of prepared rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns.	83
Table 5.4: Structural parameters (lattice constant and strain) of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on variety subatrates.	92
Table 5.5: Structural parameters (lattice mismatch, crystalline size and texture coefficient) of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on a variety of substrates.	93
Table 5.6: Raman bands of prepared rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on a variety of substrates.	98
Table 6.1: Structural parameters (lattice constant, lattice mismatch, crystalline size and FWHM of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrate at different concentrations of TiCl <sub>3</sub> solution.	123
Table 6.2: Structural parameters (texture coefficient and strain) of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrate at different concentrations of TiCl <sub>3</sub> solution.	123
Table 7.1: Comparison of the responsivity, quantum efficiency, and sensitivity of the Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> at different bias voltages.	146
Table 7.2: Comparison of the photo current, response and recovery time of the Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> at different bias voltages.	151
Table 7.3: Comparison of the responsivity, quantum efficiency, and sensitivity of the Al/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> at different bias voltages.	158
Table 7.4: Comparison of the photo current, response and recovery time of the Al/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> at different bias voltages.	162
Table 7.5: Comparison of the responsivity, quantum efficiency, and sensitivity of (Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/Pt) MSM-PD <sub>i</sub> at different bias voltages.	171
Table 7.6 : Comparison of the photo current, response and recovery time of the (Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/Pt) MSM- structured PD <sub>i</sub> at different bias voltages.	173

Table 7.7: Comparison of the responsivity, quantum efficiency, and sensitivity for three devices Pt-HN-PD <sub>i</sub> , Al-HN-PD <sub>i</sub> and MSM-PD <sub>i</sub> at 5 bias	177
voltages.	175
Table 7.8: Comparison of the photo current, response and recovery time for three devices Pt-HN-PD <sub>i</sub> , Al-HN-PD <sub>i</sub> and MSM-PD <sub>i</sub> at 5 bias voltages.	176

#### LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 3.1: Unit cell of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> .	28
Figure 3.2: Rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> crystal structure.	29
Figure 3.3: Schematic for the formation process of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns.	33
Figure 3.4: The general tetragonal unit cell with lattice constants $a$ , $b$ , $c$ and angle $\beta$ , $\alpha$ , $\gamma$ .	36
Figure 3.5: Schematic of the direct bandgap energy showing the vertical interband transition in semiconductor.	40
Figure 3.6: Formation of energy barrier and band bending in electrical and thermal equilibrium.	43
Figure 3.7: Energy band representation of a semiconductor p-n junction under	
different biase voltage, (a) Zero bias voltage; the Fermi levels are	
equil-librated on both sides of the junction, creating an internal	
electric filed,(b) Reverse bias voltage; the Fermi levels are displaced	
as carriers are depleted from the junction region. A small reverse	
current passes, (c) Forward bias voltage; high forward current passes	
as carriers recombine at the junction.	47
Figure 3.8: The schematic of the photoconductive mechanism of TiO <sub>2</sub> : (a) off-state, (b) off-on conversion, (c) on-state, (d) on-off conversion.	50
Figure 3.9: Energy band diagram of an MSM-PDc under bias.	51
Figure 3.10: Response and recovery times of a typical PD <sub>c</sub> .	54
Figure 4.1: The methodology and fabrication processes.	56
Figure 4.2: Setup for CBD used in synthesizing TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns	58
Figure 4.3: Geometric clarification of Bragg's Law.	61
Figure 4.4: (a) Schematic diagram of the metal shadow used for the fabrication of PD <sub>i</sub> , and (b) Real image of shadow mask.	67
Figure 4.5: The schematic diagram of the HN-PD <sub>i</sub> .	67

Figure 4.6: (a) Schematic diagram of the metal shadow used for the fabrication of MSM structured UV-PD <sub>i</sub> and (b) Real image of shadw mask.	68
Figure 4.7: The schematic diagram of the device (MSM-structured UV-PD <sub>i</sub> ).	69
Figure 5.1: FESEM images of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns at deposition temperatures: (a) 50 °C; (b) 55 °C; (c) 60 °C; (d) 65 °C; (e) 70 °C.	71
Figure 5.2: XRD patterns of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on glass substrateat different deposition temperatures.	74
Figure 5.3: UV–vis–NIR absorption spectra of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns at different deposition temperatures.	77
Figure 5.4: UV–vis–NIR transmittance spectra of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns at different deposition temperatures.	79
Figure 5.5: $(\alpha hv)^2$ as a function of photon energy (hv) for the samples.	80
Figure 5.6: PL spectra of TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns for samples at room temperature.	81
Figure 5.7: Raman spectra of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns at different deposition temperatures.	83
Figure 5.8: FESEM images of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on different substrates: (a) FTO-glass; (b) silicon; (c) quartz; (d) Sapphire.	86
Figure 5.9: XRD patterns of TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on a variety of substrates.	89
Figure 5.10: PL spectra of TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on a variety of substrates.	95
Figure 5.11: Raman spectra of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on a variety of substrates.	97
Figure 6.1: FESEM images of the (a) TiO <sub>2</sub> seed layer and rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different pH: (a) 0.5, (b) 0.7, (c) 0.9.	102
Figure 6.2 : XRD patterns of the TiO <sub>2</sub> seed layer and rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different pH.	104
Figure 6.3: Photoluminescence spectra at room temperature of the TiO <sub>2</sub> seed layer and rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Nsgrown on silicon (111) substrates at different pH.	106
Figure 6.4: Raman spectra of TiO <sub>2</sub> seed layer and rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different pH.	108
Figure 6.5 : FESEM images of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at duration time of growth: (a) 1 h. (b) 2 h. (c) 3 h. (d) 4 h	110

Figure 6.6: AFM images (3D) of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different duration time of growth.	111
Figure 6.7: XRD patterns of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different duration time of growth.	113
Figure 6.8: Photoluminescence spectra at room temperature of the rutileTiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different duration time of growth.	115
Figure 6.9: Raman spectra of rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates atat different duration time of growth.	117
Figure 6.10: FESEM image of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different concentrations of TiCl <sub>3</sub> solutions: (a) 2 mM, (b) 3 mM, (c) 4 mM, (d) 5 mM.	120
Figure 6.11: XRD patterns of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrate atdifferent concentrations of TiCl <sub>3</sub> solutions.	122
Figure 6.12: Photoluminescence spectra at room temperature of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different concentrations of TiCl <sub>3</sub> solutions.	127
Figure 6.13: Raman spectra of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates at different concentrations of TiCl <sub>3</sub> solutions	129
Figure 6.14: FESEM image of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates (a) as deposited, and annealed at (a) 350 °C, (b) 550 °C, (c) 750 °C and (d) 950 °C.	131
Figure 6.15: XRD patterns of the rutile TiO <sub>2</sub> Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates as deposited, and at different annealing tempertures.	134
Figure 6.16: Raman spectra of the rutile $TiO_2$ Ns grown on silicon (111) substrates as deposited, and at different annealing tempertures. $A = Anatase$ and $R = rutile$ .	137
Figure 7.1: Current-voltage characteristics of the Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/P-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> — under dark and UV illumination (393 nm, 1.01mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ).	142
Figure 7.2: Room temperature responsivity spectra of the Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/P-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> .	145
Figure 7.3: The photocurrent versus light wavelength for Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD:	148

Figure 7.4: 7	The repeatability property (ON / OFF) of the Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111) /In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> under pulsed UV light (393 nm, 1.01mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ) at various bias voltages.	150
Figure 7.5: (	Current-voltage characteristics of the Al/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/P-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> – under dark and UV illumination (325 nm, 1.6mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ).	154
Figure 7.6: F	Room temperature responsivity spectra of the Al/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> .	156
Figure 7.7: T	The photocurrent versus light wavelength for Al/ TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> .	159
Figure 7.8: 7	The repeatability property (ON/OFF) of the rutile Al/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/p-Si (111)/In HN-PD <sub>i</sub> under pulsed UV light (325 nm, 1.6 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ) at various bias voltages.	161
Figure 7.9:	Current-voltage characteristics of the (Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs/Pt) MSM-PD <sub>i</sub> under dark and UV illumination (365 nm, 2.3 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ).	166
Figure 7.10:	Room temperature responsivity spectra of the (Pt/TiO $_2$ NRs/Pt) MSM-PD $_i$ .	168
Figure 7.11:	The photocurrent versus light wavelength for (Pt/TiO $_2$ NRs/Pt) MSM-PD $_i$ .	169
Figure 7.12:	The repeatability property (ON/OFF) of the (Pt/TiO <sub>2</sub> NRs /Pt) MSM-PD under pulsed UV light (365nm, 2.3 mW/cm <sup>2</sup> ) at various bias voltages	i 172

#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

a. u. Arbitrary unit

 $A_{Eg}$  Absorption edge

AFM Atomic force microscopy

ALD Atomic layer deposition

CBD Chemical bath deposition

I<sub>d</sub> Dark current

DI Distilled deionized water

DSSCs Dye-sensitized solar cells

DLE Deep level emissions

EDX Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

FESEM Field emission scanning electron microscopy

FTO Fluorine-doped tin oxide

FWHM Full width at half maximum

I<sub>f</sub> Forward current

HN Heterojunction

PD<sub>i</sub> Photodiode

PD<sub>c</sub> Photodetector

ITO Indium tin oxide

I<sub>r</sub> Reverse current

*R* Responsivity

S Sensitivity

 $E_{\rm g}$  Semiconductor energy gap

S<sub>B</sub> Schottky barrier

2D Two-dimensional

3D Three-dimensional

MSM Metal-semiconductor-metal

MBE Molecular beam epitaxy

MS Metal-semiconductor interface

NCs Nanocrystals

NFs Nanoflowers

Ns Nanostructure

NRs Nanorods

NPs Nanoparticles

NTs Nanotubes

NWs Nanowires

PL Photoluminescence spectroscopy

D<sub>c</sub> Photodetector

I<sub>Ph</sub> Photo current

XRD X-ray diffraction

UV Ultra violet

#### LIST OF SYMBOLS

a, b, c Lattice constants

α Absorption coefficient

A Area

A Absorbance

A\* Effective Richardson coefficient

*k* Boltzmann constant

°*C* Celsius temperature

g Current gain

 $\theta$  Diffraction angle

X<sub>s</sub> Electron affinity

q Electron charge

E<sub>fs</sub> Fermi energy level in semiconductor

E<sub>fm</sub> Fermi energy level in the metal

v Frequency of incident light

β Full width at half maximum of XRD peak

d Interplanar spacing of the crystal phases

Io Intensity of the incident light

I Intensity of the transmitted light

*n* Ideality factor

P<sub>inc</sub> Incident optical power

Δd Lattice mismatch

 $\Phi_{\rm m}$  Metal work function

(hkl) Miller indices

*h* Plank constant

η Quantum efficiency

 $\Phi_s$  Semiconductor work function

 $\zeta$  Strain along c-axes

Strain along a-axes

c Speed of light

T Transmittance

 $T_{(hkl)i}$  Texture coefficient

 $\lambda \hspace{1cm} Wavelength$ 

## PERTUMBUHAN DAN PENCIRIAN NANOSTRUKTUR TiO<sub>2</sub> RUTIL DISINTESIS OLEH PEMENDAPAN RENDAMAN KIMIA UNTUK APLIKASI PENGESAN CAHAYAULTRAUNGU

#### **ABSTRAK**

Dalam projek ini, titanium dioksida (TiO<sub>2</sub>) fasa rutil berstruktur nano telah berjaya difabrikasikan menggunakan kaedah pemendapan rendaman kimia (CBD). Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengfabrikasikan nanostruktur (Ns) TiO<sub>2</sub> rutil menggunakan teknik kos rendah dan untuk memastikan keadaan yang optimum untuk pembangunan Ns TiO2 rutil yang seragam melalui kaedah CBD atas pelbagai substrat, seperti Si (111) jenis-p, nilam (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) satah-c, kaca bersalut FTO (FTO kaca), kaca dan kuarza. Tambahan pula, kesan jenis substrat dan keadaan pertumbuhan [media pH, tempoh masa, perubahan dalam kepekatan prekursor (larutan TiCl<sub>3</sub>), suhu pertumbuhan, dan rawatan penyepuhlindapan] pada sifat-sifat struktur, morfologi, dan optik Ns TiO2 rutil telah dikaji. Pertama, substrat kaca telah dipilih sebagai substrat kos rendah untuk mengkaji pengaruh suhu pemendapan kepada pertumbuhan Ns TiO<sub>2</sub> rutil. Keadaan pertumbuhan yang optimum kemudiannya digunakan untuk mengkaji kesan substrat kepada pertumbuhan rutil. Semua substrat dibenihkan dengan lapisan benih TiO<sub>2</sub> yang disintesis dengan sistem pemercikan magnetron reaktif frekuensi radio sebelum pertumbuhan Ns TiO<sub>2</sub> rutil. Kedua, sampel Ns rutil yang ditumbuhkan atas substrat Si ditentukan sebagai sampel yang optimum. Oleh itu, untuk menjelaskan kesan parameter penyediaan pada ciriciri Ns TiO<sub>2</sub> rutil, kesan daripada beberapa parameter, yang disebutkan di atas disiasat. Semua substrat Si dibenihkan dengan lapisan benih TiO<sub>2</sub> (lapisan benih TiO<sub>2</sub> juga dikaji dalam kajian ini). Morfologi permukaan, struktur hablur dan ciri-ciri lain bagi Ns TiO<sub>2</sub> yang dimendapkan dikaji menggunakan mikroskop imbasan elektron pancaran medan (FESEM), mikroskop daya atom (AFM), spektroskopi tenaga-serakan X-ray (EDX), pembelauan sinar-X (XRD), fotoluminesen (PL) dan spektroskopi Raman. Berdasarkan pemerhatian dan analisis struktur keadaan pertumbuhan, sampel yang disediakan pada suhu 55 °C, pH 0.7, tempoh pertumbuhan 3 jam, kepekatan larutan TiCl<sub>3</sub> 4 mM, dan suhu penyepuhlindapan 550 °C menghasilkan sifat-sifat struktur, morfologi, dan optik yang optimum dengan keamatan puncak XRD (110) yang tertinggi. Di samping itu, spektrum Raman mengesahkan kristal fasa rutil bagi TiO2 dan keamatan ultraungu (UV) PL yang paling tinggi adalah disebabkan olah nanorod (NRs) TiO2 yang berkualiti tinggi dengan sedikit kecacatan. Keputusan ini menunjukkan bahawa keadaan pertumbuhan yang optimum menghasilkan Ns TiO<sub>2</sub> yang berkualiti tinggi pada substrat Si jenis-p berorientasikan (111). Akhirnya, parameter telah dioptimumkan untuk mengawal sifat-sifat struktur, morfologi, dan optik Ns TiO<sub>2</sub> rutil. Filem-filem yang mempunyai sifat optimum kemudiannya dipilih untuk mengfabrikasikan fotodiod heterosimpang p-n dan fotodiod logam- semikonduktor-logam (MSM) yang sangat sensitive, cepat bertindak balas dan cepat pemulihan. Fotodiod heterosimpang p-n menunjukkan sambutan foto-kecekapan kuantum dan sensitiviti yang lebih tinggi berbanding dengan fotodiod MSM.

#### **GROWTH AND CHARACTERIZATION OF RUTILE TiO2**

### NANOSTRUCTURES SYNTHESIZED BY CHEMICAL BATH DEPOSITION FOR UV PHOTODETECTOR APPLICATIONS

#### ABSTRACT

In this project, nanostructured rutile-phase titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) was successfully fabricated using the chemical bath deposition (CBD) method. This study aimed to fabricate uniform and high-quality rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructure (Ns) using a low-cost technique and to determine the optimum conditions for uniform rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns development grown using the CBD method on various substrates, such as p-type Si (111), c-plane sapphire (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), FTO-coated glass (FTO glass), glass and quartz. Furthermore, the effects of substrate type and growth conditions [pH media, time duration, annealing treatment, growth temperature, and variations in precursor concentration (TiCl<sub>3</sub> solution)] on the morphological, structural, and optical characterizations of rutile Ns were correspondingly examined. First, glass substrates were selected as a low-cost substrate to study the influence of deposition temperature on the rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns preparation. The optimum growth conditions were subsequently used to studythe effect of substrates on rutile preparation. TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer has been prepared on the substrates via a radio frequency reactive magnetron sputtering system prior to rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns growth. Second, the sample of rutile Ns grown on a Si substrate was determined as the optimal sample. Therefore, to elucidate the influence of preparation conditions on the characteristics of rutile TiO2 Ns, the effects of several parameters, that were mentioned above, were investigated. All of the Si substrates were seeded with a TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer (the TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer was also examined in this research). Based on the observations and results analyses of the

growth conditions, the sample prepared at a temperature of 55 °C, pH of 0.7, duration of growth of 3 h, concentration of TiCl<sub>3</sub> solution of 4 mM, and annealing temperature of 550 °C produced the optimal structural, morphological, and optical properties with the highest (110) XRD peak intensity. In addition, the Raman spectra confirmed the rutile crystal phase of TiO<sub>2</sub>, and the highest PL ultraviolet (UV) intensity was attributed to the good quality of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanorods with few defects. These results indicate that the optimized growth conditions yield very high quality TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns on p-type (111)-oriented Si substrates. Finally, the parameters were optimized to control the crystal structure and surface morphology and the optical characterizations of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns. The films with optimal properties were then selected to fabricate highly sensitive, fast-responding, and rapidly recovering p-n heterojunction photodiode and metal-semiconductor-metal (MSM) photodiode. The p-n heterojunction photodiode exhibited higher photoresponse, quantum efficiency, and sensitivity as compared to the MSM photodiodes.

#### **CHAPTER 1**

#### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Overview

Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) is an important semiconductor material with a wide band gap  $(E_g)$  (3.02 eV and 3.20 eV for rutile and anatase respectively) and it is an n-type semiconductor [1, 2]. TiO<sub>2</sub> exists in nature mainly in three crystal structures, namely, anatase, rutile, and brookite. The rutile phase exhibits high hardness, transparency in the visible region, ultraviolet (UV) absorption rate, Young's modulus, refractive index, dielectric constant, and chemical stability, as well as excellent mechanical strength [3, 4]. These properties increase the demand for the rutile form of TiO<sub>2</sub> as a research material for various applications, including sensing [5], photocatalysis [6, 7], solar cells [8], light-emitting diodes [9], and UV photodetectors (PD<sub>c</sub>s) [10]. Currently, one-dimensional TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures (Ns) can be grown by thermal evaporation [11], hydrothermal synthesis [12], template synthesis [13], sol-gel method [14], chemical vapor deposition [15], electrochemical deposition [16], and chemical bath deposition (CBD) [17]. Among these methods, CBD is a promising and flexible approach because of its simple and low-cost process for synthesizing TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns with controllable morphology [18]. This method does not require sophisticated instrumentation such as vacuum systems and other expensive equipment, only simple equipments such as hot plates with magnetic stirrer are required.

Producing  $TiO_2$  Ns on a naked glass and Si substrates has been unsuccessful; thus, nucleation and deposition require a  $TiO_2$  seed layer [19, 20]. Several

researchers have successfully deposited high-quality rutile with a ZnO buffer layer on Si substrates and boron-doped diamond films to increase the density and improve the morphology of the nanorods (NRs) [21, 22]. These films may have potential use in future optoelectronic nanodevices because of their interesting properties.

#### 1.2 Research problem

Growing rutile-phase TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns films using a low-cost method at low temperature is complicated because most of the methods used for preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns create the polymorph of anatase. Commonly rutile phase can be produced by high heat treatment ofanatase Ns. But, annealing produces agglomeration of nanostructured materials, which lead to the decreasing in photocatalytic properties of rutile. Thus, the synthesis of one-dimensional (1D) rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns at low temperatures is difficult but highly important. Exploring novel techniques for the growth of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns by controlling morphologyand crystallite size has attracted much interest. Recently, several techniques have been effectively adopted to grow 1D rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>, which has attracted increasing interest because of its unique properties attributed to thesurface morphology, enormous numbers of effective sites, and nanoscale combination.

Crystalline  $TiO_2$  is a well-known polymorphous compound, which crystallizes as brookite, rutile, and anatase. These structures have the same essential structural octahedral units with various arrangements. The rutile phase is the highest thermodynamically steady form, whereas the brookite and anatase forms are metastable and transform into rutile form when heated. Various deposition methods have been used to synthesize rutile  $TiO_2$  Ns. However, most of these methods require

complex, expensive instruments, thereby increasing the synthesis cost of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns-based UV-PD<sub>c</sub>s.

The biggest challenge in the low-growth temperature method for rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns is the presence of mixed phase of rutile and anatase with high surface defects that lead to a decrease in rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns quality. In addition, selecting the optimal growth condition is necessary to grow high-quality 1D rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>. The substrate choice, in particular, is very important to ensure that it matches rutile. To control this parameter, a TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer is important to initiate rutile Ns growth on substrates for most deposition methods. However, this layer is unwanted because it generates a second path for current flow and functions as an interfacial layer that may decrease the optical efficiency and reduce the improved functionality of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns in UV-PD<sub>c</sub>s.

#### 1.3 Research objectives

The main objectives of this research are:

- 1- To synthesize rutile-phase TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns films by low cost CBD method and study its crystal structure, surface morphology and optical characteristics under different growth conditions.
- **2-** To investigate and study the photodetection properties of heterojunction (HN) Photodiode (PD $_i$ ) as UV-PD $_c$  based on rutile TiO $_2$ Ns with Pt and Al front metal contacts.
- 3- To study the photodetection properties of metal-semiconductor-metal  $(MSM)\ PD_i$  as  $UV\text{-}PD_c$  based on rutile  $TiO_2\ Ns$  with Pt Schottky contact.

#### 1.4 Research originality

The originality of this research is based on the following points:

- 1- Growth of high quality and high density 1D and 3D rutile-phase TiO<sub>2</sub>
  Ns using low cost CBD method.
- **2-** Study the influence of pH on the crystal structure, surface morphology and optical characteristics of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>, and determined the specific value of pH, which, has not been reported before to obtain TiO<sub>2</sub> with pure rutile phase and high crystallinity.
- **3-** Study the effects of variations in precursor concentration (TiCl<sub>3</sub> solution) on the crystal structure, surface morphology and optical characteristics of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns, which, has not been reported before.
- **4-** Fabricate a high-sensitivity, fast-response, rapid-recovery HN-PD<sub>i</sub> and MSM-PD<sub>i</sub> based on rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns.

#### 1.5 Scope of study

This work focused on the synthesis of 1D rutile -phase TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns films by CBD method at different growth conditions. The parameters were optimized to control the crystal structure, surface morphology and optical characteristics of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns. The optimal properties were then selected to fabricate high-sensitivity and fast-response HN-PD<sub>i</sub> and MSM-PD<sub>i</sub>.

#### 1.6 Thesis outline

**Chapter1** includes a brief overview of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns and its applications. The research problem, objectives of the study and originality are also discussed in this

chapter. **Chapter 2** focuses on the literature review of some properties of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>

Ns prepared by different techniques. The detection properties of HN-PD<sub>i</sub> and MSM-PD<sub>i</sub> based on TiO<sub>2</sub> are also included.

Chapter 3 discusses the growth mechanism of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns by CBD method, and includes the theoretical background of crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns and its optical properties and an application in UV-PD<sub>c</sub>s. Chapter 4 describes the methodology and experimental techniques in the preparation of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns and UV-PD<sub>c</sub> applications. Chapter 5 discusses the effect of growth temperature on the crystal structure, surface morphology and optical characteristics of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns grown on seeded glass substrates. The effects of substrate type on the above properties are also investigated in this chapter by growing rutile Ns on various seed substrates (glass, quartz, sapphire, FTO glass, and silicon). Chapter 6 discusses the synthesis and characterization of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns grown on Si substrates by CBD methodat different growth parameters (pH, concentration, duration of growth, and annealing temperature). Chapter 7 focuses on the fabrication of HN-PD<sub>i</sub> and MSM-PD<sub>i</sub> as UV-PD<sub>c</sub>s based on the sample with optimal properties. The comparisons between the performances of UV-PD<sub>i</sub>s are also investigated. Finally, Chapter 8 presents the conclusions and possible research directions.

#### **CHAPTER 2**

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

 $TiO_2$  is an excellent semiconductor material that exhibits enormous potential applications in UVPD<sub>c</sub>s because of their wide  $E_g$  (>3 eV for all crystalline phase). In addition,  $TiO_2$  Ns, including nanoflowers (NFs) and NRs have been extensively studied because of their amazing properties and high surface-to-volume ratios. The high surface to volume ratio of 1D  $TiO_2$  Ns makes them more sensitive than  $TiO_2$  bulk materials, indicating that the former has high photoresponse and efficient light absorption in the UV region.  $UVPD_cs$  based on 1D  $TiO_2$  Ns have been effectively investigated; several researchers have studied the factors affecting device performance such as preparation methods, morphologies, structures, growth parameters, and so on. Therefore, this chapter includes a summary and review of articles concerning the growth and preparation of  $TiO_2$  Ns; the structural, morphological, optical properties of  $TiO_2$  Ns; and the UV detection properties of the compound.

#### 2.2 Preparation of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>

Various methods can be performed to prepare rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>. Among all the deposition methods, the CBD method can achieve large area coating, the starting chemicals are available with easily controlled preparation parameters, and offers a low-cost synthesis for TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs because the morphology of TiO<sub>2</sub> can be easily controlled [18]. Dhawale et al. [23] prepared rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs at room temperature on a glass substrate through the CBD method, then exposed the samples to electron

beam irradiation after heat treatment for 2 h in air at 723 K. The morphological, structural, optical, and electrical properties of rutile  $TiO_2$  NRs were modulated by electron bombardment. More et al. [17] chemically grew  $TiO_2$  NRs on fluorine tin oxide (FTO)-coated glass substrates through a low-cost and simple CBD method with a titanium trichloride ( $TiCl_3$ ) aqueous solution containing urea. They noted that the  $E_g$  decreased from 3.4 eV to 3.3 eV after heat treatment. By contrast, the structural results showed no difference in the amorphous structure for the asdeposited and annealed  $TiO_2$  thin films. All films were amorphous phase with very low crystallinity.

Wang et al. [24] grew pure rutile  $TiO_2$  nanospheres, and the nanosheets were randomly arranged in the film. Most of these nanosheets grew vertically on the substrate through the CBD method at a low temperature (80 °C) on a seeded glass substrate with  $TiO_2$  layer through the sol–gel method. Depending on the absorption spectrum, a sharp absorption edge ( $A_{Eg}$ ) at around 395 nm was obtained and the determined optical  $E_g$  was 2.9 eV. Furthermore, they noted that replacing some DI water with absolute ethanol or the addition 1.5-3 mmol of ammonium fluoride (NH<sub>4</sub>F) to the precursor bath significantly reduces the crystallite size of  $TiO_2$ . In addition, a gradual transition from rutile to anatase is observed as the ethanol and NH<sub>4</sub>F contents are increased. Manurung et al. [25] grew rutile  $TiO_2$  thin films on indium tin oxide (ITO) coated glass at room temperature by CBD, followed by annealing at 500 °C for 4 h. They noted that  $TiO_2$  films prepared through a single deposition cycle were amorphous. However, films prepared through five and six deposition cycles were more crystalline with the production of rutile phase. In all

these films, the electrical resistivity and the thickness increased with increasing number of deposition cycles.

Mayabadi et al. [26] synthesized nanocrystalline rutile  $TiO_2$  thin films on glass substrates from an aqueous medium of  $TiCl_3$  and  $NH_4OH$  at room temperature via CBD. The optical  $E_g$  slightly decreased with increasing deposition time. The use of the  $TiCl_3$  solution presents more advantages than the use of other conventional Ti sources. Such advantages include lower cost, higher stability, easier handling of fumes, and rapid hydrolysis of  $TiCl_4$  [27, 28]. Cassaignon et al. [29] synthesized particles via hydrolysis and oxidation of  $TiCl_3$  in an aqueous solution. The medium acidity (0.5 < pH < 6.5) at 60 °C has key function during the precipitation in this study. The precipitates were obtained at particularly soft conditions, such as low acidity and temperature, and this condition allowed the preparation of rutile NPs with tiny sizes (3 nm).

Bae et al. [30] prepared rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs via the hydrothermal synthesis of aqueous TiCl<sub>3</sub> solution containing NaCl as reactants. They noted that the NaCl has an important function in the formation and dispersal of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs, with controlled crystal characteristics. Xue et al. [31] investigated the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns through a simple solvothermal route by using a low-cost and stable TiCl<sub>3</sub> solution as Ti precursor and subjecting the samples to annealing. They concluded that the presence of ethanol and water in mixture solvent has a key function in the formation of mesoporous core-shell TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns. The established method is simple and provides the large-scale growth of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns. Huang et al. [32] synthesized rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs via hydrothermal method by employing TiCl<sub>3</sub> and ethanol. They noted that the concentrations of HCl and ethanol have played an important function in the

microstructural change between well-dispersed rod-like nanoparticles and 3D micro-flowers.

Gamal et al.[33] prepared high-surface area mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> obtained from TiCl<sub>3</sub> aqueous solutions at pH = 4.7, then the production were dried in air at either 100 °C for 48 h or 300 °C for 3h. The results showed that the drying at 300 °C yields more acidic surface hydroxyls than the drying at 100 °C. Furthermore, the drying temperature at 100 °C gives texture that retain more water inside the pore structure than in the case of the drying temperatureat 300 °C, and this result was reflected in the different textures of the two series of samples. Tamilselvan et al. [19] reported the hydrothermal synthesis of dense, uniform rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on an anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer-coated glass substrate. However, they were unsuccessful in growing TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns on a naked glass substrate. Thus, nucleation and deposition require a TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer.

Yasuda et al. [34] investigated the effect of the use of radio-frequency (RF) bias sputtering at room temperature on the crystal structure characteristics of TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films prepared from a crystallized TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer that was prepared on a glass substrate at 300 °C with a thickness of around 90 nm. They noted that asuitable RF substrate bias (50 V) yielded photocatalytic TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films. The high crystallinity of the TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer before heat treatment has an important function in enhancing the epitaxial growth of vertical crystallites of the TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film. Li et al. [35] prepared single crystalline rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs arrays on a pre-treated glass substrate via a hydrothermal approach. The glass substrate coated with TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles was annealed two times at 700 °C for 30 min to produce a TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystal seeds layer with suitable thickness then immersed into a hydrothermal solution to fabricate rutile

TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. This seed layer had a strong impact on the growth morphology of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs and provided a very promising approach for the preparation of NRs arrays. Soundarrajan et al. [36] prepared dense, uniform, and homogeneously distributed rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs with a high orientation along the (101) plane via the chemical spray pyrolysis technique. The NRs were grown on the glass substrate coated with an anatase seed layer.

Liu and Aydil. [37] developed a hydrothermal method to prepared single crystalline rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on FTO-coated glass substrate. They concluded that the rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns could only be fabricated on FTO substrates and all attempts to prepare rutile TiO2 NRs on silicon or glass substrates were unsuccessful, revealing that nucleation and growth may require epitaxy on FTO crystals. In other words, the FTO substrate also had a tetragonal rutile structure, and the lattice mismatch between rutile and FTO was 2%. This small value of lattice mismatch has animportant function in forming the epitaxial nucleation and production of rutile TiO2 NRs on FTO. To provide conclusive proof of their hypothesis, transmission electron microscopy was used to investigate the interface of the FTO-NR. They obtained three observations. First, TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs could only be prepared on FTO. Second, TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs were strongly attached on the FTO substrate and could not be removed even with the aid of ultrasonication. Finally, when the FTO film was patterned by removing some of its portions from the substrate via etching, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs array could only be grown selectively on the remaining FTO film. Furthermore, they concluded that TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs did not grow on the FTO substrates when the temperature was less than 100 °C.

They found that increasing the hydrothermal reaction temperature from 150 °C to 200 °C would increase the growth rate. Subsequently, rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs could be grown on various substrates by controlling some preparation conditions and by using TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer. Wa et al. [38] reported a two–step procedure preparation to grow rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on an anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer on Si and glass substrates. The seed layer of TiO<sub>2</sub> was first deposited via spin coating and heat treatment, then the preparation of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs via a hydrothermal method at 175 °C at different durations. They concluded that the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer was necessary for the preparation of rutile NRs by supplying a nucleation layer.

Zhu et al. [39] successfully prepared a high crystalline rutile phase TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on FTO substrate via a two–step procedure for hydrothermal method, producing TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs as seed layer initially followed by growth of rutile phase TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. They observed that the TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs film exhibited a higher absorption in the wavelengths between 350 nm–700 nm. Therefore, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs film could be used for sensors, and this growth method provided a simple and inexpensive method to growth 1D rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns. Liao et al. [40] grew rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs arrays on FTO coated glass seeded with a TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer via a hydrothermal method. They noted that the TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer can enhancethe crystalquality of TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. Furthermore, the efficiency ofdye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) based on rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs without TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer is smaller than that with TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer. Comparison studies were performed by Kim et al. [41] on the effects of the presence of a TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer on the nanostructural and photocatalytic properties of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on FTO–coated glass substrates via hydrothermal procedure.

The seed layers were deposited via spin coating method, and then annealed in air at 550 °C for 2 h. The seed layers significantly affected the structural, morphological, and electrical properties of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. Furthermore, in the NR with the seed layers, the diameter of each NR decreased by about 1.5 times compared to that of NR on bare FTO, and the density was over two times larger. Wang et al. [42] prepared rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs arrays on a seeded FTO substrate with TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer via a hydrothermal procedure. They demonstrated the enhanced efficiency of the DSSCs based on prepared rutileTiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. The TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer has a very important function in providing the nucleation and preparation of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on the FTO substrate.

Tang et al. [20] grew rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs on an Si substrate via hydrothermal method by using assisted growth layer from anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanodot. The results revealed that the growth of rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs was caused by the rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> seed layer formed from the dissolution-reprecipitation of the anatase nanodots during the hydrothermal process. Gao et al. [43] synthesized rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs via a hydrothermal preparation method by pretreating the quartz substrates with a TiO<sub>2</sub> colloid solution to fabricate the seed layer. The results showed that the introduction of TiO<sub>2</sub> crystal seeds on the substrates can distinctly improve the alignment orientation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. Adjusting the density of TiO<sub>2</sub> crystal seeds on the quartz substrates can electively control the growth density, growth morphologies, and diameter distribution of TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs. Cho et al. [21] successfully synthesized high-quality rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> on Si (100) substrate with a ZnO seed layer via RF-magnetron sputteringat a substrate temperature of 500 °C.

The structural analysis results showed a high crystallinity of rutile  $TiO_2$  thin film was achieved on the ZnO seed layer, and this result was related to the enhancement of the crystalline quality of the seed layer. Yuan et al. [22] prepared rutile  $TiO_2$  NRs via hydrothermal method on boron-doped diamond film with a ZnO seed layer to increase the density and improve the morphology of the NRs. Gao et al. [44] reported a new procedure of preparing rutile  $TiO_2$  nanoflower (NFs) composed of NRs onto mica substrates at 70 °C without annealing via hydrolysis of  $TiCl_4$  ethanolic solution with the presence of  $SnO_2$  as a seed layer. This method improved the photocatalytic efficiency of rutile  $TiO_2$  NFs and can be attributed to the joint contribution of high crystalline quality, low  $E_g$  and exposed facets of the rutile NRs.

Kumar et al. [45] synthesized high crystalline quality rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs via hydrothermal methodon various substrates, included ITO, Si/SiO<sub>2</sub>, FTO, Si (100), Si (111), glass slides, and glass rods. By optimizing the preparation conditions such as precursor concentrations and deposition temperature, they fabricated rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs prepared on FTO substrate as the photoanode for a DSSC with an efficiency of 2.9 %. The preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs on other substrates can result in the widening of their applications, such as water splitting and Li-ion battery, which may need substrates other than FTO. Nechache et al. [46] synthesized rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> nanowires (NWs) via pulsed laser deposition method on silicon substrates. They performed sequential deposition of an Au/Ti bilayer, and then annealed to enhance the growth of TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs. Furthermore, rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs showed a sharp and strong emission peak at 363.2 nm (3.41 eV) at an excitation wavelength of 355 nm. This growth strategy presented a simple method to enhance the preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs on Si

substrates with a broad  $E_g$ , thereby providing an opportunity to integrate them in applications involving UV light detection. Dong et al. [47] successfully prepared via ahydrothermal methodsingle-crystalline rutile  $TiO_2$  NRs films on Ti substrates. They noted that the Ti substrate significantly improved the initial rutile film, which was converted into the anatase phase during the hydrothermal synthesis method, and improved the nucleation and epitaxial growth of rutile  $TiO_2$  NRs.

Yeh et al. [48] grew highly dense and well-packed rutile phase TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals (NCs) on sapphire (100) and (012) substrates via reactive magnetron sputtering with Ti as target. They studied the morphological, structural and spectroscopic properties of the prepared samples, and all results showed the production of high purity rutile TiO<sub>2</sub>. Bayati et al. [49] prepared rutile epitaxial layers with a (200) orientation on sapphire substrate via pulsed laser deposition at various repetition rates. The visible transmittance of the rutile layers decreased with increasing repetition rate, which indicated the creation of more structural defects at higher repetition rates. Furthermore, the films deposited at higher repetition rates resulted in a rougher surface, which was suitable in photocatalytic applications. Kulikovsky et al. [50] deposited hard rutile phase TiO<sub>2</sub> films at biases ≥ 90 V via reactive DC magnetron sputtering on quartz and semiconductive and conductive Si substrates. They noted that the rutile structure continued to be produced even after the RF power was switched off. This result indicated that after the bias was switched off, the grains of rutile continued to grow at more suitable conditions, and larger-sized grains grew in the absence of ion bombardment. Dubal et al. [51] synthesized polycrystalline rutile TiO2 NRs via a controlled precipitation route on glass and ITO substrates. They determined that the as-deposited TiO2 NRs were

amorphous in structure, which became polycrystalline after annealing at 623 K for 2 h in air. Kim et al. [52] reported for the first time the production of rutile  $TiO_2$  NWs via the heat treatment of Au-covered titanium aluminum nitride (TiAlN) substrates (200 nm layer of TiAlN was prepared via a DC magnetron sputtering machine with the targets of Ti and Al in an  $Ar/N_2$  atmosphere). They noted that, the diameter of the prepared rutile NWs increased with increasing Au layer thickness, whereas the  $E_g$  was reduced with rise Au layer thickness.

The pH of a medium significantly affects structural, morphological and optical characterizations of TiO2 Ns. Therefore, the effects of pH on the characterization of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns have been extensively studied, and many researchers have focused on acidic conditions. Hu et al. [53] synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs from the precipitation in the TiCl<sub>4</sub> precursor at different pH by adding aqueous ammonia. They observed that when temperature during heat treatment was increased, the conversion from anatase structure to rutile structure was enhanced in NPs with a lower pH value. The complete transformation for all samples occurred during heat treatment at 900 °C. Ibrahim et al. [54] studied the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs via sol–gel method by using titanium tetraisopropoxide as a source of Ti. They found that the pH of the solution affected the agglomeration of the particles. Furthermore, pH has a key function in the formation of a TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs. A lower acidity improved the anatase structure, whereas a higher acidity produced a rutile phase. Jiang et al. [55] prepared rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs with various particle sizes via a hydrothermal process with variation of organic acids. They found that, the production of high crystallinity rutile structure TiO<sub>2</sub> was highly dependent on the pH values of the autoclaved amorphous TiO<sub>2</sub> suspension. The amorphous  $TiO_2$  completely transformed to rutile structure  $TiO_2$  at a  $pH \le 0.4$ .

Jeong et al. [56] reported the influence variety pH on the phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns by using aqueous solutions of peroxo titanium complex. Nanosized anatase and rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> with different shapes and sizes were prepared via the sol-gel process. They concluded that the sequence of addition of acetic acid has key function in the TiO<sub>2</sub> phase evolution by changing the pH in the solution via the formation of different titanium precursors. Zhang et al. [57] reported the influence of pH on the TiO<sub>2</sub> phase transformation from theoretical and practical approaches. They concluded that, the rutileTiO<sub>2</sub> was directly grown when the pH of the precursor solutions is 2, whereas anatase was formed at pH 4 and converted to pure rutile phase at a critical crystallite size of 9.0 nm. Molea et al. [58] described the effect of pH values on the formulation of rutile and anatase crystalline phases and photocatalytic activity. They noted that at high pH, only the anatase phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> was obtained, whereas at acidic conditions, anatase and rutile co-exist, but rutile was the dominant phase. Li and Sun. [59] reported the aggregation/sedimentation potentials of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles in the mono and binary systems of fulvic acids and Fe (III) at different pH. The particle size of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the monosystem of Fe (III) decreased at pH 4. Correspondingly, aggregation was increased at pH 4 but was decreased at pH 6 and 8 in a binary system of Fe (III). Barati and Sani. [60] studied the influence of pH on the crystal structure and surface morphologyof TiO<sub>2</sub> films and found that the crystallite size decreased with decreasing pH.

The effect of duration time on the size and structure of crystalline  $TiO_2$  has been investigated by many researchers [61]. Zhao et al. [62] investigated the

influence of duration of growth and heat treatment on rutile TiO2 NRs on FTO substrate via hydrothermal method. They concluded that increasing the duration of growth highly induced a clear variation in NRs lengths because the precursor was progressively depleted with increasing the duration of reaction. Regonini and Clemens. [63] studied the effect of anodizing time on the length, and photoelectrochemical properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes (NTs). They found that the optimum anodizing time was 20 min at 30 V and produced 1.1 µm long NTs films. A photocurrent density of 460 mA.cm<sup>-2</sup> was generated. Altomare et al. [64] studied the effect of the anodization time on the structural and photoactivity properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs arrays prepared via electrochemical anodization. They concluded that the anodization time length has a key function in the preparation of well-aligned NTs arrays to be employed as photoactive materials in a variety of applications. Bandgar et al. [65] reported an inexpensive and easy process for the controllable growth of nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> at mild chemical reaction parameters using an inexpensive practical technique, which presented significant advantages. They investigated the influence of reflux time on the fabrication of nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> prepared via a wet chemical synthesis route by using peroxotitanate complex (PTC) solutions. They observed that increasing the reflux time resulted in variations in the crystalline size of TiO<sub>2</sub> in a systematic manner, and the reflux time has a substantial influence on the formation of nano  $TiO_2$  with changing refractive indices and  $E_g$  energies.

Cheng et al. [66] investigated the influences of various hydrothermal conditions such as; growth duration, concentration of TiCl<sub>4</sub> solution, pH, and temperature on the growth, phase, and grain size. They observed that the high pH value and concentration of TiCl<sub>4</sub> solution were beneficial in the formation of the

rutile phase. The temperature had a strong effect on the obtained grain size and the grains agglomeration. At low growth temperature, the grain size decreased and in agglomeration among grains increased. Furthermore, increasing the reaction time improved grain growth. The results exhibited that the grain size of the products increased with increasing reaction time. The survey of previous studies revealed that TiCl<sub>4</sub> is highly sensitive to atmospheric moisture and requires special precautions. By contrast, the TiCl<sub>3</sub> solution is easily manipulable and is not moisture-sensitive. As such, it has been used as a titanium source for TiO<sub>2</sub> growth [67, 68].

Roy. [69] synthesized rutile and anatase Ns via a simple microwave irradiation technique by adding 20 and 5 mL of TiCl<sub>3</sub> dropwise as the titanium precursor to 200 mL of 1.0 M NaOH solution and 200 mL of 1.0 M HCl solution, respectively, with continuous stirring. The reaction mixtures were irradiated for 20 and 60 min, respectively, for complete precipitation. The results showed that the anatase phase was observed when 1.0 M NaOH was used; in contrast the growth of rutile phase was noted when the medium was 1.0 M HCl. The two Ns prepared in various media have various phase structures, surface areas, and particle sizes. The anatase phase had a higher photocatalytic activity than the rutile phase. Patil et al. [70] prepared nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films on glass substrates heated at a temperature of 350 °C by using spray pyrolysis technique and studied the influence of variations in precursor concentration (0.01, 0.02, and 0.03 M) in an aqueous solution of titanium chloride (TiCl<sub>3</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O) on the crystal structure and optical properties of nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films. They noted that the grain sizes increased from 10 nm to 29 nm with increasing concentration of the precursor

solution. Furthermore, the  $E_g$  of the  $TiO_2$  films changed from 3.28 eV to 3.29 eV and demonstrated repeatable gas sensing performance.

Bing et al. [71] fabricated rutile  $TiO_2$  microspheres on glass substrates via hydrothermal treatment from an aqueous solution of  $TiCl_3$  with saturated NaCl containing urea as an additive at optimized conditions of temperature (170 °C), time (4 h), and concentration of the reactants (0.15 mol/L  $TiCl_3$ ). Li et al. [67] prepared rutile, brookite, and anatase NPs using a redox route at mild hydrothermal parameters (growth temperature =180 °C and time duration= 3 h) with  $TiCl_3$  as the Ti source and ammonium peroxodisulfate, hydrogen peroxide, nitric acid, or perchloric acid as the oxidant. They noted that a low pH value favored the growth of rutile phase, a high pH value favored the formation of anatase, and intermediate pH and reactant concentration stabilized the brookite phase. The three types of  $TiO_2$  phase showed special crystal morphologies: nanoplates for brookite, rounded nanocrystals for anatase, and NRs for rutile. Both the  $E_g$  (3.11 eV) and the indirect  $E_g$  (2.85 eV) of brookite were between those of anatase and rutile.

The heat treatment of  $TiO_2$  Ns had a great effect on its crystalline phase composition, grain size, surface morphology, and optical properties. Therefore, many studies have been done to understand the effect of annealing temperature on  $TiO_2$  Ns. Elfanaoui et al. [72] grew  $TiO_2$  thin films on glass substrates via CBD with  $TiOSO_4$  as a precursor of Ti. The films were then annealed at a high temperature (500 °C–700 °C) in air for 1 h. The results showed that anatase-rutile transformation took place after annealing at 700 °C, and the  $E_g$  of  $TiO_2$  decreased from 3.22 eV to 2.88 eV when the heat treatment temperature was increased from 500 °C to 700 °C. Zhu et al. [73] reported the effect of heat treatment (from 200 °C to 600 °C) on the

microstructure and dynamics of electron transport and recombination in DSSCs with oriented TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs arrays. The results showed that annealing TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs from 500 °C to 600 °C increased the rutile amount from 3% to 32%. Furthermore, the annealed as-deposited sample at 300 °C underwent a transformation from amorphous to the partially crystalline then to the fully crystalline anatase at 400 °C.

Liu et al. [74] synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs via anodization of a Ti foil and annealing at high calcination temperatures (400 °C to 800 °C for 2 h) at ambient conditions. They noted that the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs underwent phase conversion from amorphous to anatase at 400 °C then the phase conversion from anatase to rutile occurred at temperatures > 600 °C. In addition, the TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs showed amazing optical properties. Green luminescence was observed in anatase, and a very intense NIR emission was noted in rutile after annealing. Zhang et al. [75] investigated the phase conversion of TiO<sub>2</sub> from anatase to rutile via UV Raman spectroscopy at excitation wavelengths of 325 and 244 nm by using lasers, and they compared the Raman spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> annealed at different temperatures (from 200 °C to 800 °C for 4 h in air) with the excitation lines in the UV and visible regions. They observed that the phase conversion from anatase to rutile took place at 550 °C, and the anatase phase was wholly converted to the rutile phase when the sample was annealed at temperatures up to 750 °C. Based on the UV Raman spectra, the rutile phase was only detected when the annealing temperature exceeded 700 °C, and the anatase phase was still observed at 750 °C. Sun et al. [76] reported the influence of heat treatment (from 250 °C to 750 °C for 1 h in ambient oxygen environment) on the hydrogen production of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs arrays. The findings demonstrated that only anatase diffraction peaks were noted for samples annealed at 450 °C. A sharp diffraction peak at 27.4° of rutile (110) began to appear when the temperature was near 550 °C, thereby denoting that the anatase phase started to convert into the rutile phase upon annealing at a high temperature. When the temperature was increased up to 750 °C, the intensity of the rutile peaks sharply increased, whereas the intensity of the anatase peaks almost reduced.

Gao et al. [77] investigated the effect of heat treatment on the photoresponse of TiO<sub>2</sub> films grown via the sol–gel process under nitrogen and oxygen at room temperature. All results demonstrated that the anatase–rutile transformation partly took place at 550 °C, and anatase retained its structural stability until 500 °C. Mechiakh et al. [78] prepared nano-crystalline TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films via the sol–gel process and investigated the influence of heat treatment on the crystal structure and optical characterizations of the films. They noted the TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films at heat treatment from 400 °C to 800 °C were anatase, partly transformed to rutile at 1000 °C, and completely transformed into rutile phase at 1200 °C. Furthermore, the  $E_g$  reduced from 3.51 eV to 3.33 eV when the heat treatment was raised from 400 °C to 800 °C. The  $E_g$  considerably decreased at annealing temperatures exceeding 1000 °C due to the rutile structure has a lower  $E_g$  compared to the anatase structure.

Kocemba et al. [79] studied the influence of pretreatment conditions from 100 °C to 800 °C in air and hydrogen (10% H<sub>2</sub>/Ar) atmosphere (for 1 h) on surface morphology, structure, and catalytic properties of TiO<sub>2</sub>. The results showed that at heat treatment in air atmosphere, a remarkable variation in the anatase-rutile conversion was noted at 700 °C. In hydrogen atmosphere, this conversion was also noted at 700 °C; however the intensity of the rutile peaks was higher. The whole conversion of anatase-rutile in TiO<sub>2</sub> took place at temperatures higher than 800 °C.

#### 2.3 UV-detector based on TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns

The photoelectric, optical, and morphological properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns have generated considerable attention from researchers because of their large specific surface area, distinctive UV absorption, and well-defined charge carriers transport path. Therefore, TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns are extremely appropriate for UV-PD<sub>c</sub> versus the background of visible light and / or infrared [80]. Aksoy et al. [81] formed an n-TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns/p-Si HN-PD<sub>i</sub> based on TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns deposited on p-Si substrates via the sol–gel method by using the spin coating method at deposition temperatures from 700 °C to 1100 °C. They noted that the crystallization of the anatase phase, which eventually transformed to rutile phase, occurred at 800 °C. Furthermore, the Schottky barrier (S<sub>B</sub>) height and ideality factor (n) of n-TiO<sub>2</sub> Ns/p-Si HN-PD<sub>i</sub> were 0.58 eV and 5.39, respectively. Therefore, these results exhibited that this device can be considered as a candidate for semiconductor device applications.

Chang et al. [82] studied the HN influences on the UV photoresponse of TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs fabricated using anodic aluminum oxide (AAO) as a template and via atomic layer deposition (ALD) nanotechnology on a Si substrate with ITO as the electrode. The study revealed that the photocurrent (I<sub>Ph</sub>) produced by the ITO-TiO<sub>2</sub> HN (Schottky contact) was equal to the I<sub>Ph</sub> produced by the TiO<sub>2</sub>-Si HN (p–n junction) at bias voltages from 0 V to -1 V. These results indicated the presence of a depletion region in the ITO-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Si-TiO<sub>2</sub> HNs. In other words, the diode transitioned from TiO<sub>2</sub>-Si HN-controlled to ITO-TiO<sub>2</sub> HN-controlled when the applied biases were changed from approximately 0 V to -1 V on the ITO electrode because the I<sub>Ph</sub> produced from the ITO-TiO<sub>2</sub> HN was improved at an increased reverse bias, whereas the current produced from the TiO<sub>2</sub>-Si HN decreased at an increased forward bias.

The two I<sub>Ph</sub> reached equal values at the transition point, thereby cancelling each other out.

Zhang et al. [83] synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub> NWs arrays on FTO via hydrothermal process, which was modified with the deposition of ZnO via the crystallization process. They fabricated UV-PD<sub>c</sub> based on TiO<sub>2</sub>/ZnO HN, which possessed high photoelectric performance. The ratio of I<sub>Ph</sub> to dark current (I<sub>d</sub>) was four orders of magnitude higher and the device had a high responsivity. Huang et al. [84] investigated the Schottky and Ohmic contact influences on the photoresponses of ITO/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs /Si and Ti/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs /Si PD<sub>i</sub>s. The TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs were prepared via ALD and were shaped by AAO on a p-type Si substrate. The findings indicated that the HNs produced by various electrodes could be a simple and accessible method in altering the performances of nanostructured PD<sub>i</sub>s. By exploiting the degree of freedom of the NT structure, the photoresponses of the two PD<sub>i</sub>s can be directly explored with respect to the type, combination, and area of the HN. This study confirmed the equal importance of HNs compared with the photoconductive properties of matter.

Liu et al. [85] fabricated of p-n HN based on of ITO/nanocrystalline TiO<sub>2</sub>/polyaniline/ITO as the sandwich-type structure via an easy process. The important results in this study indicated the use of polyaniline as the hole conductor because it is cheap and has high environmental stability and large absorption coefficient in the visible region. Therefore, a photovoltaic solar cell can be synthesized based on TiO<sub>2</sub>/ polyaniline. Yang et al. [86] fabricated a sensor for visible light with double-walled carbon NT film/Cu<sub>2</sub>O NPs film/TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs HNs. The TiO<sub>2</sub> NTs prepared on the Ti substrate and annealed at 450 °C for 2 h in air. They

observed the  $Cu_2O$  nanoparticles decreased the  $I_d$  and increased the  $I_{Ph}$  of the HNs. Thus, these nanoparticles have a key function in improving optoelectric performance. Furthermore, the ratio of  $I_{Ph}/I_d$  reached ~1×10<sup>4</sup> under lighting at 405 nm and ~3×10<sup>4</sup> under lighting at 532 nm. These values are two orders of value larger than those of the double-walled carbon NT film/  $TiO_2$  NTs HNs at the same lighting density. Furthermore, the response of the HNs was enhanced further. Lee and Hon [87]. designed UV-PD<sub>c</sub> based on  $TiO_2$ /water solid-liquid HN. In this device, two substrates were used. One was FTO-glass and the other was ITO-glass, where  $TiO_2$  was the active layer and deposited on the FTO-glass via ALD at 450 °C to form a  $TiO_2$ /FTO-glass electrode.

Pt film was deposited on the ITO glass via electron beam evaporation at room temperature to form a Pt/ITO-glass electrode. Afterward, water, which was used as an electrolyte, was poured into the space between the Pt/ITO-glass and TiO<sub>2</sub>/FTO-glass electrodes. The device can be operated in photovoltaic mode (self-powered ability) and exhibited linear variations in photocurrent, fast response, and good photosensitivity. Xie et al. [88] fabricated a self-powered UV-PD<sub>c</sub> (TiO<sub>2</sub>/water solid–liquid HN UV-PD<sub>c</sub>) based on single-crystalline rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs, which were deposited on FTO glass via hydrothermal processat low-temperature and then calcined at 500 °C for 1 h to enhance the crystallinity. Rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs film deposited on FTO glass was used as photoanode. A Pt counter electrode was prepared on the FTO glass via magnetron sputtering. After wards, deionized water was injected into the space between TiO<sub>2</sub> NRs/FTO glass and Pt/FTO glass electrodes as an electrolyte. This device showed good detection efficiency for UV light. The I<sub>Ph</sub> responded fasted under pulsed UV light.