

# Ag<sub>2</sub>S deposited on oxidized polypropylene as composite material for solar light absorption



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## ABSTRACT

Thin film metal chalcogenides are superior solar light absorbers and can be combined into a functional material when deposited on polymeric substrates. Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials were synthesized on oxidized polypropylene using chemical bath deposition method and their properties were explored using XRD, XPS, AFM and UV-Vis. Polypropylene surfaces were modified using solution methods to introduce hydrophilicity via carboxylic group formation which resulted in Ag<sub>2</sub>S film deposition and adhesion. These films showed slightly sulfur enriched composition from XPS analysis with the sulfate-like species forming, presumably at the oxidized polymer surface sites. Ag<sub>2</sub>S particle growth mechanism included nucleation and rather large (few μm) aggregate formation eventually covering the complete polymer surface, as inferred from AFM analysis. Absorption edge of the composite material shifted toward the higher wavelength in UV-Vis spectrum with the number of Ag<sub>2</sub>S exposure times showing a decreasing bandgap and the possibility of obtaining tunable optical property Ag<sub>2</sub>S-polymer composites using CBD methods.

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## Introduction

The rapid growth of the world economy as well as the Earth's population puts a strict requirement toward the new way and methods for inexpensive energy generation. Renewable energy sources, such as solar, wind, hydro and biomass recently have attracted significant amount of attention. Among these alternatives, conversion of solar light into electrical energy has become the most popular due to the large surplus of solar radiation available. Each year, 120.000 TW of solar radiation strikes the Earth's surface. For comparison, the global annual energy consumption is 13.5 TW, and is expected to increase to about 30 TW by the 2050 [1,2], which means that an immense potential lies in harvesting solar energy. However, using our current technologies, providing 30% of global energy needs in 2050 would require to cover an area of 250.000 km<sup>2</sup> with semiconductors even assuming an optimistic 10% solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency [3]. This

surface area implies tremendous amounts of solar absorber material, while also invoking their corresponding efficiency, cost and availability criteria. In the latest considerations, non-metal oxide based materials, such as sulfides are proposed to convey the highest electricity potential vs. materials cost ratio [4,5].

To minimize the amount of the solar absorber material, thin films of high absorptivity need to be considered. Silver sulfide (Ag<sub>2</sub>S) is an important metal chalcogenide semiconductor compound with the band gap of ~1.5 eV [6] and a high absorption coefficient of approximately 10<sup>4</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> [7], able to ensure most of the solar light absorption in a thin layer. Ag<sub>2</sub>S belongs to I-VI compound semiconductor materials with monoclinic crystal structure. It possesses a unique combination of properties, such as high dark ionic or electronic conductivity, photoconductivity, as well as related photovoltaic and photochromic effects [6,8–10]. Silver sulfide thin films have been produced as functional materials with applications in the contemporary advanced technologies ranging from photoconductive and photovoltaic cells, solar selective coatings, ion selective electrodes and membranes to IR detectors and laser recording media [11–18].

Composite materials consisting of polymers covered by thin layers of inorganic compounds possess tunable characteristic optical and semiconducting properties. In the recent years, metal

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chalcogenide semiconducting thin films on polymeric surfaces have been extensively studied due to their technological importance. Polypropylene is one of the fastest growing classes of thermoplastics and can serve as a model metal chalcogenide–polymer composite. It is low cost, low density, and has high heat distortion temperature (HDT). However, in its intrinsic state, hydrophobic polypropylene does not possess the surface properties required for preparation of thin solar absorber film composites. Polypropylene is resistant toward many solvents and chemicals. It is known due to its apolar characteristics, which has direct influence on its adhesion properties [19–22]. One of the polypropylene surface modification methods is its oxidation. The oxidation of isotactic polypropylene (iPP) in solid phase has been done via reactions with ozone,  $\gamma$ -initiated corona method and UV ray or with chemical oxidizing mixture [19,23–30]. The oxidation of iPP leads to the formation of oxygen-containing surface functional groups, which greatly affect the surface polarity and the adhesion properties of the polymer toward the metal chalcogenide deposition.

Thin film solar light absorbers are of particular interest for fabrication of large area arrays, solar selective coatings and solar cells. As such, tuneable and controllable thickness thin film deposition is of crucial importance in attaining their desired absorbing. Previously,  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  thin films with different morphologies have been prepared via various methods, such as solid–vapor reactions [31], radio frequency sputtering [32], thermal evaporation [33], electro deposition [34], successive ionic layer absorption and reaction (SILAR) [35] and chemical bath depositions (CBD) [6]. As in most of metal sulfide materials, a crucial property for solar energy harvesting is the resulting conductivity. It has already been shown that elemental stoichiometry affects the conductivity of sulfide thin films. Pyrite,  $\text{FeS}_2$ , for example, has been proposed as the next potentially efficient, abundant and inexpensive solar absorber [5]. However, tiny differences in elemental composition via sulfur defect states have been shown to affect the semiconducting properties of pyrite tremendously [36]. Consequentially, methods of solar absorber  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  thin films need to be obtained for a reproducible thin films with the desired stoichiometry. Compared with other deposition methods, previously proposed modification of the chemical bath deposition technique is very convenient, facile, low cost and environmentally friendly [30,37]. This is due to the fact that  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  sediments can be re-used after the reaction since they redissolve in nitric acid [37].

In this study,  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  thin films were synthesized on the partially oxidized hydrophilic polymeric material – isotactic polypropylene (iPP) – using chemical bath deposition. This method is based on a controlled precipitation of the desired compound from its corresponding ions in the reaction bath solution. While  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  has previously been deposited on hydrophilic or partially hydrophilic polymers, such as polyamide [37], here we employ hydrophobic polymer – polypropylene – as a substrate. Oxidized polypropylene – which possesses a hydrophilic character – was also prepared and structurally characterized to provide maximum adhesion for the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  material. Structural, chemical and optical properties of the resulting composite materials were determined using XRD, XPS, UV–Vis and AFM.

## Experimental methods

### Materials

All solutions were prepared using distilled water and analytical grade reagents. Only freshly prepared solutions were used for measurements and were not de-aerated during the experiments.  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  (96%, Barta a Cihlar, Czech Republic),  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ , (60%, Lach-Ner, Czech Republic),  $\text{CrO}_3$  (>99%, Reachim, Russia), sodium thiosulfate

( $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) (>99%, Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), and  $\text{HNO}_3$  (65%, Penta, Czech Republic) were used as received.

### Polypropylene oxidation

Isotactic polypropylene (iPP) used in this study was supplied by KWH Plast (Finland).  $15 \times 70$  mm samples of non-oriented isotactic polypropylene film of 150  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness were used for these experiments. First, polypropylene surface was oxidized to obtain hydrophilic properties for silver sulfide adhesion to proceed. Surface of the commercial iPP samples was treated for 25 min at 90 °C with oxidizing solution consisting of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  (1:1, saturated with  $\text{CrO}_3$ ) and finally rinsed with distilled water.

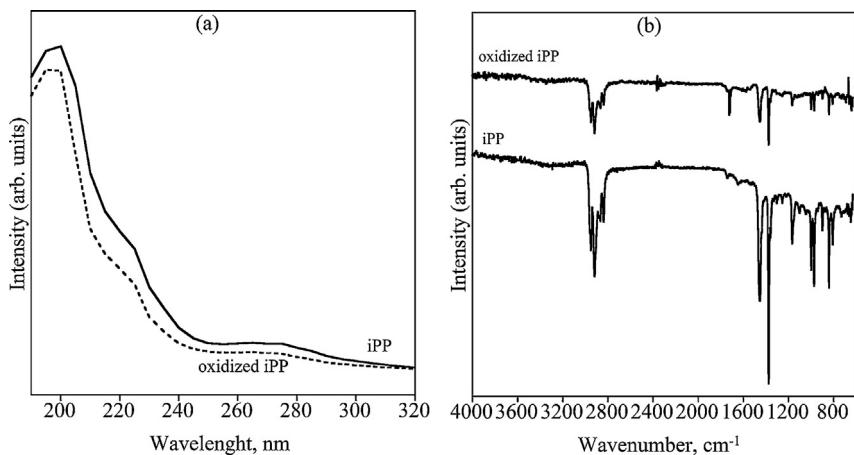
### $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ deposition on oxidized polypropylene

$\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  deposition on oxidized polypropylene was performed using procedures described previously for polyamide substrate [37]. Briefly, samples of the oxidized iPP were treated with aqueous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$  (0.2 mol/dm<sup>3</sup>) and  $\text{AgNO}_3$  (0.06 mol/dm<sup>3</sup>) solution at 20 °C with pH 2.3 (by adding nitric acid). All reactions of iPP treatment were carried out in the glass reactor. iPP films were immersed for 40 min up to six times in the precursor solution. Samples were withdrawn at certain time intervals, rinsed with the distilled water, dried with filter paper, left over anhydrous  $\text{CaCl}_2$  for 24 h and then used in analysis. Throughout the text, index added to the iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  represent the number of immersions with iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -1, iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -2, iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -3, iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -4, iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -5 and iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -6 corresponding to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 immersions, respectively.

### XPS and AFM analysis

XPS surface elemental analysis of the iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  composites was performed using a custom-designed Kratos Axis Ultra X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy system [38]. The surface analysis chamber is equipped with aluminum  $K_\alpha$  X-ray gun and 500 mm Rowland circle silicon single crystal monochromator. The X-ray gun was operated using a 15 mA emission current at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. Low-energy electrons were used for charge compensation to neutralize the sample. High-resolution spectra were acquired in the region of interest using the following experimental parameters: 20–40 eV energy window; pass energy of 20 eV; step size of 0.1 eV, and dwell time of 1000 ms. One sweep was used to acquire a survey spectrum of all binding regions. The absolute energy scale was calibrated to the  $\text{Cu } 2p_{2/3}$  peak binding energy of 932.6 eV using an etched copper plate. All spectra were calibrated using the adventitious C 1s peak at 285.0 eV. A Shirley-type background was subtracted from each spectrum to account for inelastically scattered electrons that contribute to the broad background. CasaXPS software was used to process the XPS data [39]. Transmission corrected relative sensitivity factor (RSF) values from the Kratos library were used for elemental quantification. An error of  $\pm 0.2$  eV is reported for all peak binding energies.

Atomic force microscopy height images were obtained using a Bruker Multimode 8 (NanoScope V controller) in tapping mode and Peakforce QNM mode. A Bruker TAP150 (MPP-12100) rectangular beam cantilever was used with a nominal spring constant of 5 N/m for the iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -1 and iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -3 samples (Peakforce QNM mode). A Bruker TAP525 (MPP-13100) rectangular beam cantilever was used with a nominal spring constant of 200 N/m for the iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$ -6 samples (tapping mode). Image analysis was performed using Bruker Nanoscope Analysis 1.40. For the particle analysis a threshold was used which allowed for particle recognition on the image. A bin size of 50 bins was chosen in each case.



**Fig. 1.** (a) UV-Vis and (b) transmission ATR-FTIR spectra of commercial and oxidized iPP samples.

### Other instruments and methods

#### Solution pH

Solution pH was measured by using pH-meter WTW330 with combinative glass and Ag/AgCl electrode and temperature meter WTW SenTix 41 (Germany).

#### XRD analysis

X-ray diffractometry was carried out using a Brag Brendan circuit on a Dron-6 diffractometer (Russia) utilizing Cu  $K_{\alpha}$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.154178$  nm), 30 kV voltage and 30  $\mu$ A current. The scanning range was  $2\theta = 25\text{--}60^\circ$  and the scanning speed was  $1^\circ \text{ min}^{-1}$ .

#### UV-Vis measurements

The UV-Vis spectra (200 to 1100 nm) of the iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composites were recorded using a Spectronic Genesys 8 UV/Visible spectrophotometer with compensation for iPP absorption while iPP (190–320 nm)—without compensation.

#### ATR-FTIR measurements

ATR-FTIR measurements were performed using Perkin Elmer FT-IR Spectrum GX spectrophotometer by averaging 64 scans with a wavenumber resolution of  $0.3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at room temperature. Spectra were recorded in the wavenumber range  $4000\text{--}600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

## Results and discussion

### Surface properties of the oxidized iPP films

A critical part of iPP modification is its surface preparation via partial oxidation to ensure adhesion with the Ag<sub>2</sub>S. When iPP was treated with oxidizing solution consisting of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>/H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (1:1) saturated with CrO<sub>3</sub>, a chemical reaction took place on the surface of the sample, as signified by the changes in UV-Vis and ATR-FTIR spectra shown in Fig. 1a and b, respectively. UV-Vis absorption spectrum of iPP shown in Fig. 1a contains three absorption peaks at 200 nm and less intense and shallower bands at 225 and 265 nm. Since iPP ideally contains only C-H and C-C bonds, no features in UV-Vis spectra should be observed. However, residual impurities and surface carbonyl groups can be present which might yield peaks observed. These carbonyl groups are responsible for 265 nm peak [40] and slightly decreased in intensity with oxidative treatment via carbonyl conversion to OH bond containing species. It can also be seen that the intensity of the absorption peak at  $\sim 195$  nm, which indicates the existence of polar group in the polymer matrix [41]. Thus it can be inferred, that oxidizing type of treatment causes

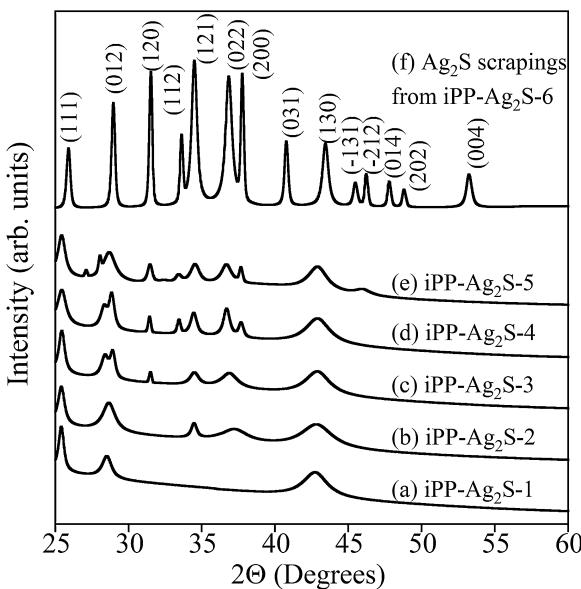
subtle change in the chemical structure of the polymer without resulting in its altered major physical and structural properties.

Introduction of additional polar groups on the iPP sample surface was probed via ATR-FTIR which due to the evanescent wave penetration depth has a probing depth of  $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$ . ATR-FTIR spectra of as received iPP and oxidized iPP samples in the range of 4000 to  $600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  can be seen in Fig. 1b. ATR-FTIR spectrum of as received iPP sample reveals strong absorption in the range  $2840\text{--}3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  due to sp<sup>3</sup> C-H stretch, along with the strong bands near 1458 and  $1376 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  due to absorptions of CH<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub> groups, respectively, which are characteristics of polypropylene. The absorption features at 840, 1000 and  $1170 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  are characteristic vibrations of terminal unsaturated CH<sub>2</sub> groups present in isotactic iPP which agree well with the reported literature data [42]. Most importantly, ATR-FTIR spectrum of oxidized iPP sample exhibits a noticeable change. The characteristic peaks of iPP sharply decrease in intensity. Also, a band starts growing near  $1715 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  that indicates the presence of C=O bonds [41]. The spectrum of oxidized iPP confirms that the oxidizing treatment of polypropylene increases surface hydrophilicity by introducing oxygen containing polar groups. Higher hydrophilicity of iPP surface causes electrostatic interactions between the charged surface of the polymer and the silver sulfide particles, providing better adhesion, a critical parameter in such composite preparation.

### XRD analysis of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials

The deposited Ag<sub>2</sub>S layers were subjected to XRD analysis to investigate their crystallographic structure. XRD diffractograms of samples were recorded in the  $2\theta$  range between  $25^\circ$  and  $60^\circ$ . Fig. 2 shows the X-ray diffraction pattern of the iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composites. After the first exposure in the precursor solution, the diffraction pattern of deposits on the polypropylene sample gave dominant peaks  $2\theta$  at  $26.2^\circ$ ,  $29.1^\circ$ , and  $43.5^\circ$ . After more exposures and when analysis of the scrapings of the iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 sample was performed, diffraction pattern gave dominant peaks  $2\theta$  at  $26.2^\circ$  (the crystallographic plane (1 1 1)),  $29.1^\circ$  (0 1 2),  $31.8^\circ$  (1 2 0),  $33.7^\circ$  (1 2 1),  $34.7^\circ$  (1 1 2),  $36.8^\circ$  (0 2 2),  $37.7^\circ$  (2 0 0),  $40.8^\circ$  (0 3 1),  $43.5^\circ$  (1 3 0),  $45.5^\circ$  (−1 3 1),  $48.8^\circ$  (0 1 4),  $46.3^\circ$  (2 0 2),  $47.8^\circ$  (−2 1 2), and  $53.2^\circ$  (0 0 4). The diffraction patterns were indexed to the monoclinic Ag<sub>2</sub>S phase and are in good agreement with the reported data for  $\alpha$ -Ag<sub>2</sub>S (acanthite) (JCPDS Card File: 00-014-0072). Crystallite size of the Ag<sub>2</sub>S in iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials was calculated using Sherer's formula [43]

$$D_{hkl} = \frac{0.89\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}$$



**Fig. 2.** Representative XRD patterns of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-2, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-4, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-5 composites. The number on the pattern represents number of exposures. In addition, XRD pattern of surface deposits from the iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 composite is shown. Peaks observed are those of acanthite, Ag<sub>2</sub>S (JCPDS Card File: 00-014-0072).

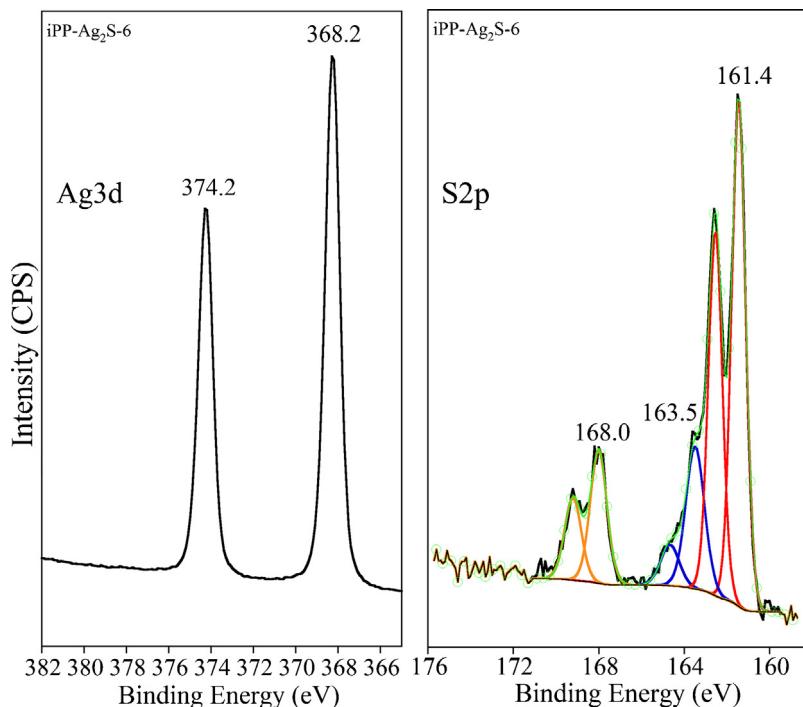
where  $D$  is the average crystallite size, nm,  $\lambda$  is the X-ray wavelength, ( $\lambda = 1.54178 \text{ \AA}$ ),  $\beta$  is the FWHM of the diffraction peak,  $2\theta$  is the diffraction angle. Typical crystallite size calculated ranged from 50 to  $\sim 300$  nm, depending on a peak. While it is difficult to accurately calculate the crystallite size due to the low intensity of the peaks on an intense iPP background, size range obtained is within the few hundred nanometers.

**Table 1**  
Atomic concentration calculations for iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S samples obtained from XPS analysis.

Sample	Ag 3d (%)	S 2p (%)	S (%)	S <sup>2-</sup> (%)	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (%)
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-1	63	37	9	70	21
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-2	66	34	18	75	7
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-3	65	35	20	73	8
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-4	63	37	15	71	14
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-5	58	42	21	58	21
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-6	61	39	18	63	19

#### Chemical surface composition of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials

XPS spectra of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S films showed information, typical to that of PA-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials recently reported [37]. Representative XPS spectra of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite material after six exposures (iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6) are shown in Fig. 3. Ag 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peak for all the samples analyzed was located at 368.2 eV, close to the 368.0 eV value reported for bulk Ag<sub>2</sub>S powder [44,45]. Corresponding S 2p doublet with S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> peak at 161.4 eV confirms Ag<sub>2</sub>S formation [44,45]. Similar to the previous work, two additional sulfur species were found on all sample surfaces with S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> peaks located at 163.5 and 168.0 eV. The origin of the former peak was discussed previously [37] and several assignments have been proposed, including S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> or S<sub>4</sub>O<sub>6</sub><sup>2-</sup> species [46,47], or oxygen–sulfur on substoichiometric metal sulfides [48]. Differently from the previous work, another species formed on PA-Ag<sub>2</sub>S surface with S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> peak at 168.0 eV cannot be unambiguously due to S<sup>+6</sup> in SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> [38,49]. While it is certainly a very oxidized type of sulfur species, all of the sulfate species reported in the literature are typically observed at 168.8 eV and higher. We attribute this peak due to the sulfate bonded to the oxidized iPP sites. Table 1 shows the quantification of Ag:S, as well as a distribution of sulfur species. Initial few stages of deposition resulted in almost stoichiometric Ag<sub>2</sub>S whereas at the latter stages surplus of sulfur can be observed, differently from the stoichiometric value of 2:1. It is possible that additional



**Fig. 3.** A representative XPS spectra of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials. That for iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 is shown. Different colors show doublets due to the different chemical species present.

**Table 2**

Measured mass increase for the complete deposition series for a typical iPP sample of  $1.5 \times 4 \text{ cm}$  ( $6 \text{ cm}^2$  area).

Sample	Sample mass (g)	Mass increase (g)	Mass increase (%) <sup>a</sup>
iPP	0.082	—	—
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-1	0.0915	0.0095	11.6
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-2	0.0934	0.0019	2.1
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-3	0.0955	0.00206	2.2
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-4	0.0976	0.0021	2.2
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-5	0.0999	0.0023	2.3
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-6	0.1017	0.0018	1.8

<sup>a</sup> Calculated as  $(\text{mass}_{n+1} - \text{mass}_n)/\text{mass}_n \times 100$ .

chemistry proceeds at the oxidized iPP surface sites yielding species with S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> peaks located at 163.5 and 168.0 eV slightly increasing sulfur amount observed. Furthermore, presence of oxidized sulfate species seems to be significant in the first sample, as well as the higher exposure ones. According to the AFM studies reported here (*vide infra*), very thin layers are initially formed on top of iPP (spherulites of iPP can clearly be discerned). Additional exposures lead to more homogeneous layers where iPP seems to be fully covered by a thin layer of Ag<sub>2</sub>S, since the spherulitic structure of iPP is barely visible. XPS data for iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-4 through iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 shows very similar surface speciation, albeit at somewhat large distribution. It can be due to the samples forming surface in macroscopically inhomogeneous fashion during the drying stage, as shown in previous SEM studies of copper selenide deposition on polyamide [50].

Typically, when polymer surfaces are treated using the method described here to deposit metal sulfide or selenide films, thin self-limiting films of  $\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$  result [37,50]. In the present experiments, we measured a mass increase of the samples after every exposure with the data tabulated in Table 2. Largest mass increase resulted after the unreacted oxidized iPP was exposed to the precursor solution the first time with about 11.6% increase. Every exposure that followed further contributed about  $\sim 2\%$  of the mass increase. Using these numbers and Ag<sub>2</sub>S density of  $7.22 \text{ g/cm}^3$  [51], we calculate  $\sim 0.46 \mu\text{m}$  thickness layer grown during the first exposure and  $\sim 0.23 \mu\text{m}$  thickness layer grown during each consecutive cycle. Actual film thickness of pure Ag<sub>2</sub>S phase can be less since some of the material will initially diffuse into the iPP before forming surface films [37,50] but the bulk density value used in calculations may not accurately describe that of the iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite. This thickness agrees well with that needed for novel thin film solar cell materials as metal sulfides in general have high absorption coefficient ( $10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) [52]. These diffused films are at the core of the

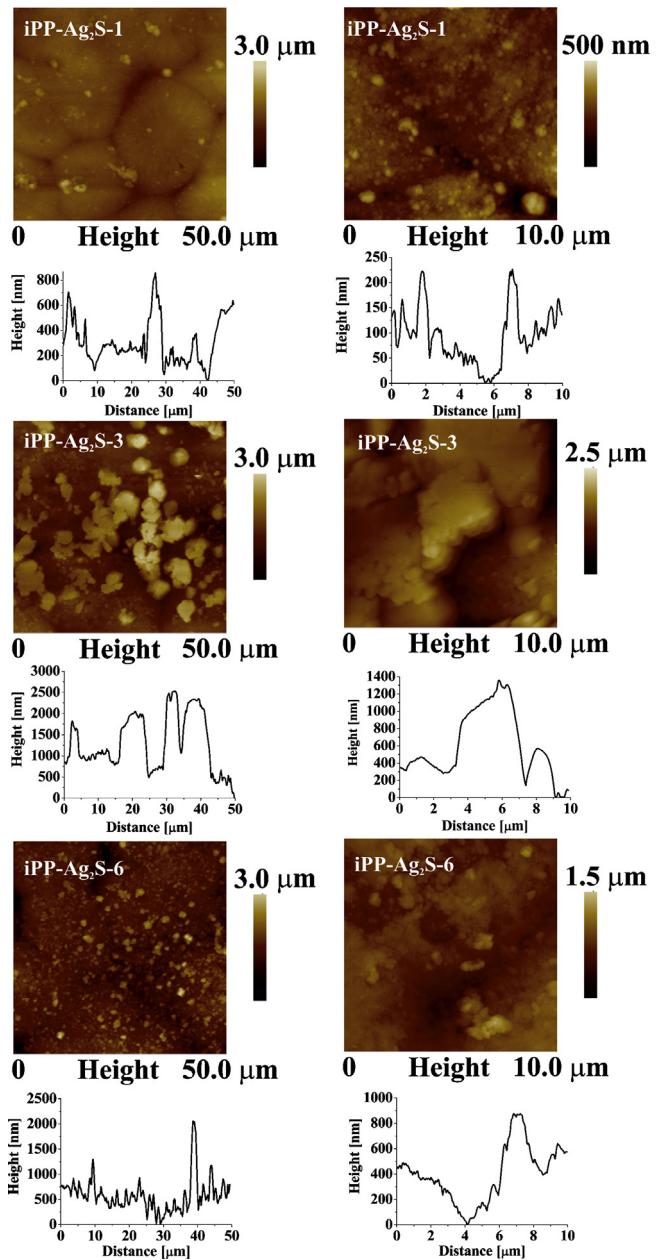


Fig. 5. AFM topography images of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3 and iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 samples.

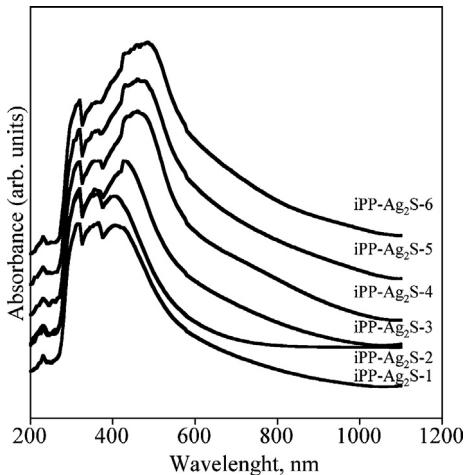


Fig. 4. UV-Vis spectra of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composites as a function of the exposure number.

hybrid thin film solar cell concept [53] and can be prepared using the method described here using virtually any hydrophilic polymer substrate or, as in the case described in this work, even hydrophobic polymer after its surface has been treated to induce hydrophilicity.

#### Optical and morphological analysis of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials

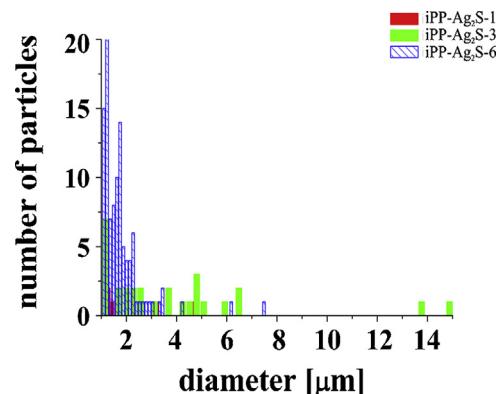
UV-Vis spectra of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite materials were obtained and are shown in Fig. 4. After interaction of silver ions with polypropylene in the presence of sulfur, a number of new peaks appear in the interval of 320 to 410 nm. Three obvious absorption peaks at 320, 355, and 410 nm appeared on the surface of iPP (Fig. 4, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1). All these peaks systematically characterize the very basic process of the band structure formation of Ag<sub>2</sub>S starting from the nanocluster level. Small silver sulfide particles are first incorporated into the pore systems of the iPP during the crystallization process. With increasing immersions time these particles join

into agglomerates and after six immersions formed entire layer. Therefore after six immersions, in a UV-Vis spectrum is peak at around 500 nm, characteristic Ag<sub>2</sub>S (Fig. 4, curve iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6). It can also be seen that with the increasing number of deposition steps, absorption maximum shifts from 410 to 500 nm. This transition represents a shift from the iPP peak to the sizeable contribution of Ag<sub>2</sub>S in the spectrum itself, as Ag<sub>2</sub>S has typical absorbance at around 500 nm [54]. The apparent shift of the 410 nm peak toward higher wavelengths in Fig. 4 also signifies gradual increase in Ag<sub>2</sub>S layer thickness and, possibly, an absorption edge change due to the changes in particle size [55]. This opens up a possibility of constructing Ag<sub>2</sub>S-polymer composite devices with tunable optical properties, using synthesis method described here.

AFM topography analysis was performed on iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S composite surface and representative scans are shown in Fig. 5 for iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3 and iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 samples. It can be seen that iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1 exhibits morphological structure typical of polypropylene [56] thus implying that Ag<sub>2</sub>S deposition proceeds mostly via diffusion into iPP surface or the surface layer is very thin. Isolated particulate matter of submicron dimensions can be observed as onset of Ag<sub>2</sub>S crystal formation. iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3, however, possesses aggregates on the surface consisting of micron sized particles which are proposed to be due to the Ag<sub>2</sub>S. These particles in turn are comprised of submicron size particles. iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 shows similar crystallites, however these crystallites are clearly smaller and more abundant. The different distributions also becomes apparent from the roughness analysis presented below in Table 3 and the particle diameter distribution of the 50 × 50 μm<sup>2</sup> scans in Fig. 6. From the roughness values presented in Table 3 it can be seen that

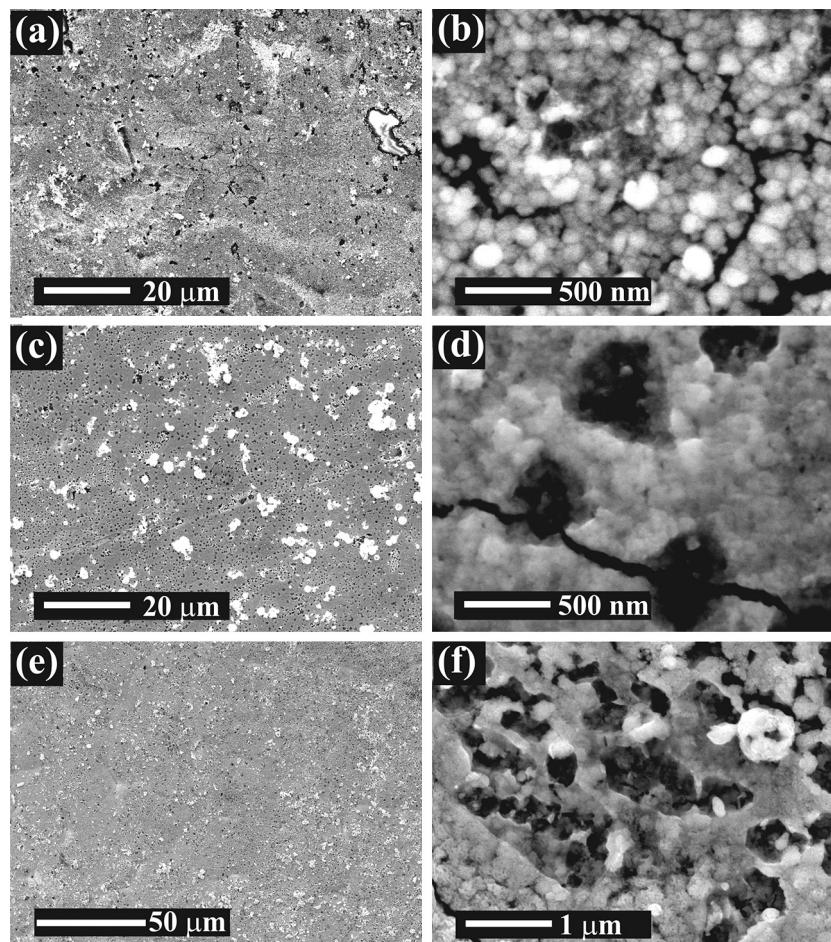
**Table 3**  
AFM analysis of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3 and iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 samples.

Sample	$R_q$ (nm) ( $10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}^2$ )	$R_q$ (nm) ( $50 \times 50 \mu\text{m}^2$ )
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-1	66	221
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-3	443	486
iPP-Ag <sub>2</sub> S-6	148	278



**Fig. 6.** Distribution of the particle sizes of the iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1, iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3 and iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 samples as obtained from the AFM image analysis.

the measured roughness increases initially from 66 to 443 nm in  $10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}$  scan for iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1 and iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3, respectively, as a function of exposures, while distinct isolated Ag<sub>2</sub>S particles are being formed. Roughness, however, decreases for the later stages



**Fig. 7.** High resolution SEM images of iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-1 (a and b), iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-3 (c and d) and iPP-Ag<sub>2</sub>S-6 (e and f) composite surfaces.

since a more uniform film is being formed. These data suggest that more immersions seem to provide a smoother and more homogeneously distributed  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  film on iPP surface. These data are also substantiated by the particle diameter measurements obtained from the AFM images and shown in Fig. 6. It can be seen that mid stages of the depositions, e.g. three exposure sample iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}-3$ , possesses particles ranging up to  $15 \mu\text{m}$ , while iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}-6$  particle diameters are less than  $8 \mu\text{m}$  and a majority below  $2 \mu\text{m}$ . From these data it becomes apparent that  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  does not grow as a uniform film on iPP surface, but rather via nucleation mechanism followed by the particle growth to fill out the complete surface.

High resolution SEM images of iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}-1$  (a and b), iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}-3$  (c and d) and iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}-6$  (e and f) composite surfaces are shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen, that uniform, tight packed films are formed, comprising from  $\sim 100 \text{ nm}$   $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  nanoparticles. Larger openings are seen within the films of  $\sim 0.5 \mu\text{m}$  in diameter, possibly originating due to the gas bubble emission during the film formation. Small high electron density aggregates can also be discerned on sample surface and result from concentrated  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  material (Fig. 7c), as confirmed by EDS analysis (not shown). These free standing  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  particles most likely result during the drying of the prepared films and are not uniformly present on top of most of the samples.

## Conclusions

$\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  on oxidized polypropylene surface was synthesized using chemical bath deposition and the corresponding properties were explored using XRD, XPS, AFM and UV-Vis. We were able to successfully modify iPP surface structure by inducing hydrophilic character via carboxylic group formation which resulted in  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  film deposition and adhesion.  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  films were slightly sulfur rich with a specific sulfate-like species forming on the oxidized polypropylene sites. Absorption peak in UV-Vis shifted with the increasing exposures implying systematically decreasing absorption edge and possibility for a tunable optical property iPP- $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  composites. Atomic force microscopy revealed that increasing number of exposures to precursor solution provided a smoother and more homogeneously distributed  $\text{Ag}_2\text{S}$  film on iPP surface. Metal sulfide materials, including acanthite, possess high adsorption coefficients ( $10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and will require small film thickness to absorb solar light. When incorporated into polymers using solution methods described here, tunable optical and structural property composites can be obtained.

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