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Effect of Ag doping on Antibacterial and Photocatalytic Activity of Nanocrystalline TiO₂

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Abstract

In the present study, nanocrystalline pure TiO₂ and 5 mol% silver doped TiO₂ (Ag-TiO₂) powders were prepared by sol-gel route. The prepared powders were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and UV-Visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) for their phase composition and optical properties, respectively. The antibacterial property of TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ was assessed by spread plate method against *Escherichia coli* as test bacteria. The photocatalytic activity of Ag-TiO₂ was studied by measuring degradation of Methylene blue (MB) under UV Irradiation and the results were compared with pure TiO₂. Further, the effect of temperature and dye concentration on degradation efficiency of pure TiO₂ was studied. XRD results confirm the presence of anatase phase in both the samples and the average crystallite size of both samples were found in the order of 6-15 nm. Addition of Ag reduces the band gap of TiO₂ from 3.1 eV to 2.9 eV. In 24 h of incubation period, Ag-TiO₂ showed complete inhibition of growth of *Escherichia coli* compared to pure TiO₂. It was observed that the degradation efficiency was more for TiO₂ annealed at 500 °C compared to as-synthesis TiO₂ and it decreases with further increase in temperature. In addition, as the dye concentration increases, the degradation efficiency of pure TiO₂ decreases. Among, TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples, MB degradation efficiency was higher for Ag-TiO₂ compared to pure TiO₂. Photo degradation of MB was modeled with power law kinetics and was observed to follow first order kinetics and the rate constant was enhanced with Ag doping in TiO₂.

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Keywords: Titanium dioxide; silver; sol-gel process; antibacterial property; photocatalytic activity; power-law kinetics.

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1. Introduction

Nanostructured and nanophasic materials have been extensively studied because of their unique properties which extends the spectrum of their applications in different fields. The impact of nanostructure on the properties of high surface area materials is an area of increasing importance for understanding, creating and improving materials in diverse applications (Koch, 2006). The study of nanometer size semiconductor crystals has been gaining much interest because, the physical and chemical properties of these semiconductor crystals can be systematically tuned by variation of the size according to increasingly well established scaling laws (Wilson et al., 2002). Among the various classes of materials, metal oxides are the most common, diverse and probably the richest class of materials in terms of physical, chemical and structural properties. Further, oxide nanoparticles can exhibit unique physical and chemical properties due to their small size and a higher number of surface atoms (Rodriguez and Fernandez, 2007).

Nanocrystalline titania (TiO_2) becomes increasingly important because of its potential application in catalysis/photocatalysis, coatings on self-cleaning surfaces, photovoltaic applications and removal of heavy metal ions from solutions for detoxification and oxidation of toxic organic contaminants in water to carbon dioxide, ceramic membranes and gas sensors (Fujishima and Zhang, 2006; Diebold, 2003). The wide range of applications of TiO_2 is mainly due to its properties like chemical inertness, non-toxicity and stability over a wide range of pH under irradiation conditions (Sharad et al., 2012; Fujishima et al., 2000). However, its band gap is so large ($E_g = 3.20$ eV) to be only excited under UV light with a wavelength less than 387.5 nm, which accounts for only 5% of the incoming solar energy (Dulce et al., 2013; Chen and Mao, 2007). Therefore, current research interests in shifting the absorption spectrum of TiO_2 towards the visible region in order to take the full advantage of sun light. In addition, a low rate of electron transfer to oxygen and a high recombination of photo generated electron-hole pair results low quantum efficiency (Diwald et al., 2004; Carp et al., 2004). Thus, to improve the response of TiO_2 to visible light and to enhance the separation of electron hole pairs, numerous methods including transition metal (Mukhtar et al., 2011; Wilke and Breuer, 1999), rare-earth metal (Ramya et al., 2013) and non metal (Nosaka et al., 2005) doped TiO_2 have been synthesized.

Silver (Ag) has been known to exhibit strong cytotoxicity towards a broad range of micro-organisms. Ag ions are capable of causing bacteriostatic or even bactericidal impact (Mukhtar et al., 2011; Morones et al., 2005). This bactericidal behavior of Ag nanoparticles is attributed to the presence of electronic effects, which is a result of the changes in the local electronic structure on the surfaces of smaller-sized particles. These effects are considered to be contributing towards an enhancement of the reactivity of Ag nanoparticle surfaces (Maness et al., 1999). It was reported that ionic Ag strongly interacts with thiol group of vital enzymes and inactivates them (Feng et al., 2000). Ag doping in TiO_2 is expected to show various effects on its photocatalytic activity by the following mechanisms. It may (i) enhance the electron-hole separation by acting as electron traps, (ii) extend the light absorption into the visible range and enhance surface electron excitation by Plasmon resonances excited by visible light and (iii) modify the surface properties of photo catalysts (Seery et al., 2007). Potential application for photocatalytic Ag doped TiO_2 include self-cleaning surfaces for water purification. He et al. (2002) investigated the effect of Ag doping on the photocatalytic activity of the TiO_2 films. They reported that the increase in photocatalytic activity by doping Ag into TiO_2 is due to the increase in interfacial charge transfer efficiency for TiO_2 and due to enhancement in the charge pair separation and thereby inhibiting their recombination.

A number of methods have been used to prepare TiO_2 nanopowders, such as co-precipitation (Quan et al., 2007), mechanochemical (Yin et al., 2003), hydrothermal (Wang, 2007) and sol-gel (Mohammadi et al., 2008) synthesis. From the last few decades, the sol-gel process has become one of the successful techniques for preparing nanocrystalline metallic oxide materials. The homogeneous properties of the products prepared by this method are very satisfactory (Ding and Liu, 1997). A unique property of sol-gel process is an ability to go all the way from molecular precursor to the product, allowing a better control of the whole process and the synthesis of tailor made materials for various applications (Brinker and Scherrer, 1990). In this paper, nanosized TiO_2 and Ag- TiO_2 powders are prepared by sol-gel process. The physical properties of the prepared powders are characterized by UV-Vis spectroscopy and XRD. The influence of the irradiated photo catalyst TiO_2 and Ag- TiO_2 on degradation of

Methylene Blue (MB, C₁₆H₁₈N₃S) in aqueous system is studied. Since *Escherichia coli* had been used as a biological indicator of water system, it is taken as a model in our work for antibacterial studies.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Titanium tetra n-butoxide (E. Merck, Germany) was used as titanium precursor and silver nitrate (E. Merck, Germany) was taken as Ag precursor. Titanium tetra n-butoxide was taken as titanium precursor because of its lower reactivity with atmosphere compared to other titanium source precursors like titanium isopropoxide and titanium tetra chloride. A catalyst was used to control hydrolysis and condensation reactions. Acetic acid and double distilled water were used as reagents in the present study.

2.2. Synthesis of TiO₂ powders

5 ml of titanium tetra n-butoxide was dissolved in 8.5 ml of acetic acid. 26.6 ml of double distilled water was added drop wise to this mixture under constant stirring conditions. Titanium tetra n-butoxide, acetic acid and water are maintained in the molar ratio of 1:10:100. The solution was stirred for 8 h to get a clear transparent sol and allowed to dry at 100 °C after which it was annealed to specified temperature in air for 5 h. To prepare Ag doped TiO₂, the silver nitrate (5 mol%, 0.124 g) was added to the water and the above procedure was repeated.

2.3 Characterization

Powder XRD was used for identification of crystalline phases and for estimation of crystallite size. The XRD patterns were recorded in 2θ range of 20° to 80° by step scanning with 2θ increment of 0.05 and a scan speed of 1°/min employing Cu K_α radiation with wavelength of 0.15406 nm (Ultima-III, Rigaku, Japan). The average crystallite size of the samples was determined using Scherrer's equation (Klug and Alexander, 1954) considering full width at half maximum (FWHM) for the (101) diffraction peak of anatase phase as;

$$d = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

where, d is average crystallite size in nm, 0.9 is Scherrer constant, λ is wavelength of the X-ray (0.154 nm for Cu K_α radiation), θ is Bragg's diffraction angle (°) and β is broadening of the diffraction peak measured at half of its maximum intensity (FWHM in radians). Crystallite size 'd' and lattice strain 'ε' of anatase phase were separately determined from sinθ dependence of FWHM intensity β of the diffraction lines, according to the Williamson-Hall equation (Venkateswarlu et al., 2010);

$$\beta \cos \theta = \left(\frac{k\lambda}{d} \right) + 2\varepsilon \sin \theta \quad (2)$$

where, λ is the wavelength of Cu K_α radiation (0.154 nm). From the plots of βcosθ against sinθ for the sample, crystallite size 'd' is calculated from the intercept of the linear extrapolation and lattice strain 'ε' is determined from its slope. Details of determination of 'd' and 'ε' were reported in elsewhere (Klug and Alexander, 1954). The UV-Vis absorbance spectrum for the samples is recorded using Shimadzu (UV-1700) UV-Vis spectrophotometer. The measurement was taken in a wavelength range of 200-800 nm. The band gap energy (E_g) can be estimated by the conventional Tauc equation (Peiqiang et al., 2014).

2.4 Antibacterial studies

Antibacterial activity of pure TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ was examined by spread plate method (Sandhyarani et al., 2013). Gram negative *Escherichia coli* bacteria were used as model bacteria for the present study. Gram is the most familiar and renowned categorization of bacteria's, they can be either Gram positive or negative depending on the

composition of the bacteria cellular membrane (Gonzalez et al., 2012). Nutrient agar was used as source for culturing bacteria. 1 mg of each sample was mixed individually with 1 mL of phosphate buffer solution (pH 7.4) containing 1×10^5 cells/mL *Escherichia coli* in flat-bottom test tubes. Each tube was shaken at 200 rpm at 30 °C for 24 h. 100 μ L of shaken solutions were placed into Petri plates in duplicate and a nutrient medium agar was overlaid onto the inoculum, spread evenly in clockwise-anticlockwise directions and left undisturbed for the agar to solidify. After solidification, these plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The colony formation was examined and photographed.

2.5 Photocatalytic activity

In order to evaluate photocatalytic activity of the samples, decomposition behavior of MB in water was studied. 100 mL of 5×10^{-5} M concentration of MB was added to 0.15 g/L of sample and was dispersed under ultrasonic vibration for 5 min. The solution was kept in dark for 30 min under stirring to saturate the adsorption of MB into each sample and then the solution was irradiated under UV light. For UV irradiation, a UV lamp of 400 W was used at the distance of about 150 mm from the solution. MB degradation was monitored by collecting aliquots at increasing and equal time intervals. The aliquots were centrifuged and absorption spectra were recorded using UV-Vis spectrophotometer (UV-1700, Shimadzu, Japan). Concentration of MB in the solution was determined as a function of irradiation time from absorbance change at the wavelength of 664 nm, using the calibration curve determined in advance. Since the plots of logarithm of relative concentration of MB in the solution $\ln(C/C_0)$ against irradiation time were approximated to be linear, the slope of the linear relation, i.e., rate constant k , was determined on each sample and used as a measure of the photocatalytic activity of the sample.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 XRD analysis

Fig. 1(a) shows the XRD pattern of pure TiO₂. The XRD pattern shows the presence of the peaks at $2\theta=25.4^\circ$, 38.0° , 48.1° , 54.2° , and 62.4° , regarded as an attributive indication of anatase TiO₂, which is coincided with standard JCPDS card (PDF # 21-1272). The peaks are indexed as (101), (112), (200), (211) and (204) in the order of

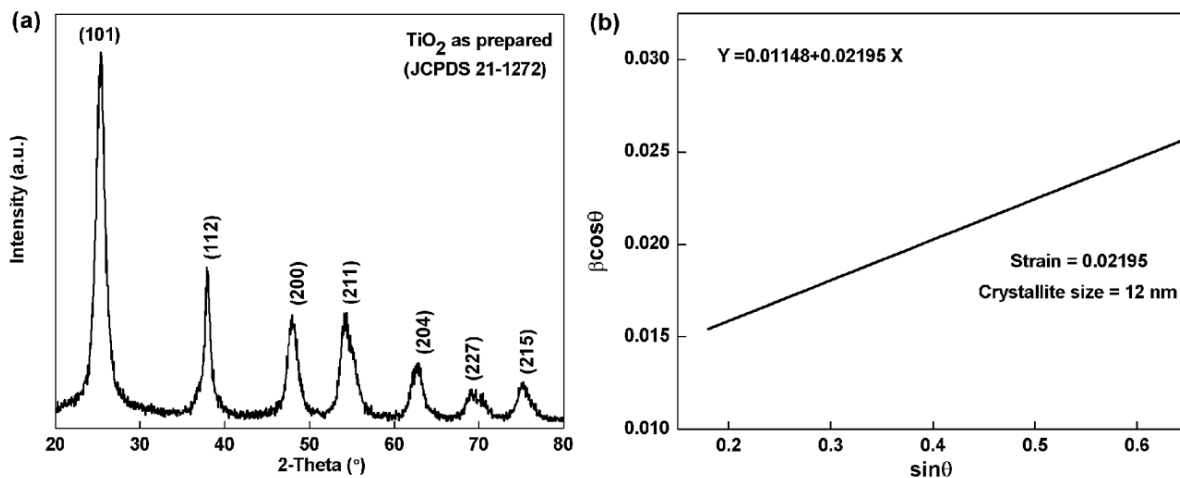


Fig. 1. (a) XRD pattern; (b) W-H plot of pure TiO₂.

increasing diffraction angles, respectively. The XRD results indicate that the as-synthesized TiO₂ powder has been predominantly crystallized into anatase phase. The values of strain and average crystallite sizes are estimated from

Williamson-Hall plot using X-ray peak broadening (Venkateswarlu et al., 2010). The plot between $\sin\theta$ and $\beta\cos\theta$ is shown in Fig. 1(b). The strain is estimated from the slope of the line which is 0.02195, and the crystallite size 'd' can be calculated from the intersection of the line with y-axis which is 12 nm. Fig. 2 shows the XRD pattern of as-synthesis Ag-TiO₂ and 500 °C annealed samples. The presence of anatase phase without any impurity phases such as, Ag or AgNO₃ confirms the complete doping of Ag in TiO₂ matrix. Also, it is inferred that the formed anatase phase is stable even at 500 °C. The average crystallite size 'd' is estimated from the broadening of XRD peaks using Scherrer equation from Eq. (1). The highest intensity peak (101) is used to calculate the crystallite size 'd' of the samples. The crystallite size for Ag-TiO₂ in as-synthesis condition and in 500 °C annealed condition is found to be 7 nm and 9 nm, respectively.

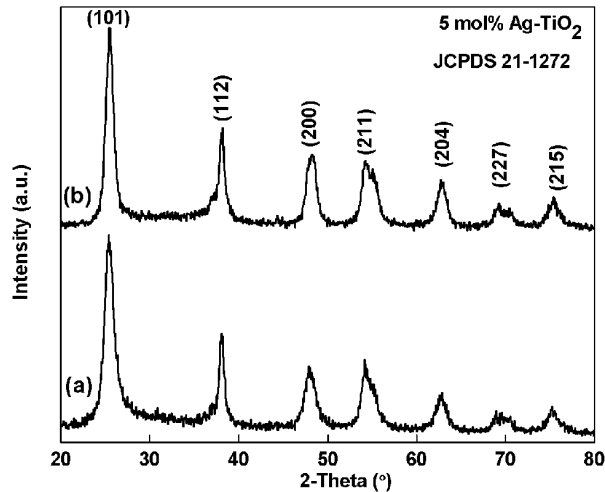


Fig. 2. XRD pattern of Ag-TiO₂ (5 mol%) in (a) as-synthesis; (b) annealed at 500 °C.

3.2 UV-Vis spectroscopy

It is well known that different materials absorb radiation of different wavelengths and the yield of photo generated electron-hole pair depends primarily on the intensity of incident photons with energy exceeding or equaling the TiO₂ band gap energy. Fig. 3(a) shows the UV-Vis spectra of pure TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples. It is shown from Fig. 3(a) that compared to pure TiO₂, the absorption edge shifts towards longer wavelengths for Ag-TiO₂ sample. This shift in absorption edge for Ag-TiO₂ is due to the introduction of the impurity levels with Ag doping. The optical band gap energy E_g was determined by using the Tauc equation (Peiqiang et al., 2014) by plotting $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus photon energy ($h\nu$) and extrapolating the linear portion to $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2} = 0$;

$$\alpha = K \frac{(h\nu - E_g)^2}{h\nu} \quad (3)$$

where, K is constant, $h\nu$ is the photon energy and E_g is the band gap energy for indirect transitions. The absorption co-efficient (α) can be calculated from the measured absorbance (A) using the following equation;

$$\alpha = \frac{2.303\rho 1000}{lCM} A \quad (4)$$

where, the density $\rho = 3.9 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$, molecular weight $M=79.9 \text{ g/mol}$, C = molar concentration of TiO₂ and l is the optical path length. The plots of $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus $h\nu$ for pure TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ are shown in Fig. 3(b). The intersection of the extrapolated linear portions gives the band gap energy (E_g). The linear nature of the plots above the absorption edge indicates that the fundamental optical transition in these materials is indirect. The estimated

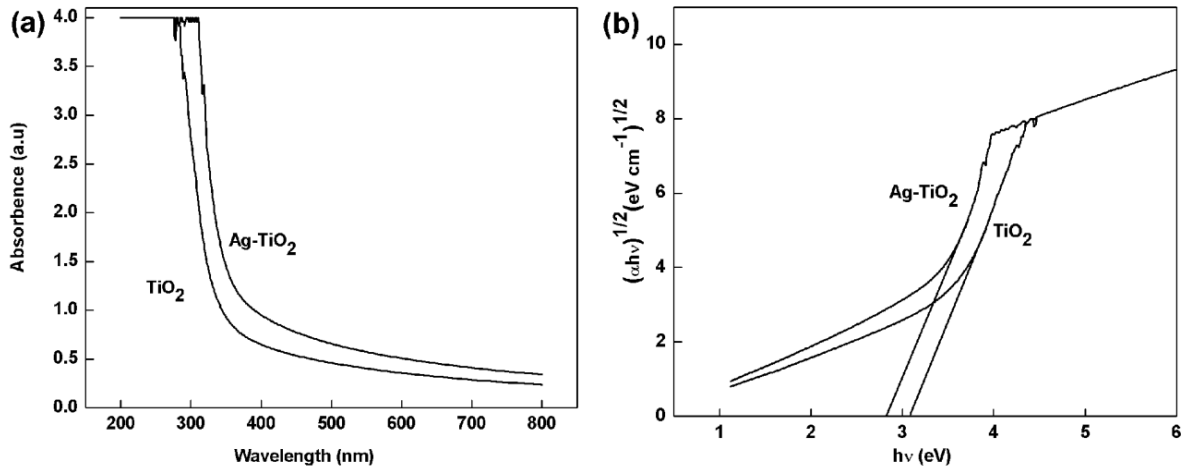


Fig. 3. (a) UV-Vis absorption spectra; (b) plot of $\alpha^{1/2}$ versus E_{phor} for indirect transition of TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples. Band gap energy E_g is obtained by extrapolation to $\alpha=0$.

band gap energy for pure TiO₂ is found to be 3.10 eV and for Ag-TiO₂, band gap energy is 2.90 eV. The result shows that 5 mol% Ag doping extends the absorbance spectrum of TiO₂ to longer wavelengths and reduced the band gap from 3.10 eV to 2.90 eV.

3.3 Antibacterial ability

The bactericidal activity of TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ was studied by spread plate method. The spread plate result of Ag-TiO₂ sample with 1×10^5 cells/mL of *Escherichia coli* were examined after 24 hours. For comparison, pure TiO₂ sample was also tested and the images are presented in Fig. 4. The results reveal that, Ag-TiO₂ sample shows complete inhibition of the bacterial growth under the present incubation condition of 24 h (Fig. 4), whereas, pure

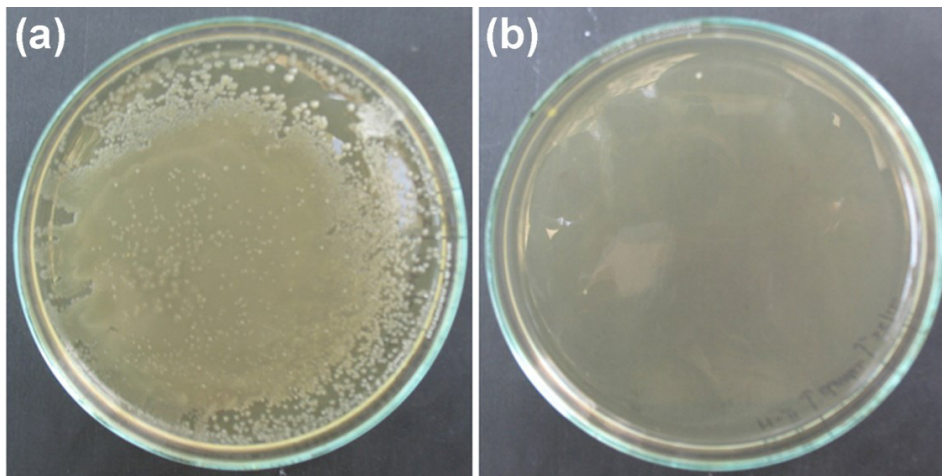


Fig. 4. Spread plate results of (a) pure TiO₂ (b) Ag-TiO₂ samples after 24 h with 1×10^5 cells/mL of *Escherichia coli*.

TiO₂ sample shows the presence of bacterial colonies. The enhancement of antibacterial property of Ag-TiO₂ compared to pure TiO₂ is mainly due to the following reason. When Ag-TiO₂ particles are dispersed in the growth

media, the Ag atoms present in these particles interact with the bacterial cells and adhere to the bacterial cell walls. The electrostatic forces between bacteria and Ag atoms may be the reason for their adhesion. Due to the excess number of carboxylic and other groups, the overall charge on the bacterial cell surface at biological pH values is negative (Thiel et al., 2007). Further, Djokic and Burrell (1998) reported that ionic Ag strongly interacts with thiol groups of vital enzymes and inactivates them and once treated with Ag ions the DNA loses its replication ability which results in cell death. Thus in our present study, the presence of Ag in TiO₂ significantly enhanced the antibacterial property of TiO₂.

3.4 Photocatalytic assessment

The photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ nanopowders was studied by the degradation of MB aqueous solution under UV light irradiation. Fig. 5(a) shows the variation of MB (10 ppm) degradation with TiO₂ at different annealing temperatures and at a fixed catalyst amount of 1.5 g/L. The highest photocatalytic degradation is observed for the sample annealed at 500 °C. Comparing with as-prepared TiO₂, TiO₂ annealed at 500 °C possesses excellent crystallinity. Further, the photocatalytic activity is slightly reduced when the sample is annealed at 800 °C. According to Ohtani et al., the high activity of TiO₂ photo catalyst should satisfy two requirements (Ohtani et al., 1997): large surface area for absorbing dye and high crystallinity to reduce photo-excited electron-hole recombination rate. In general, the crystallinity increases with annealing temperature, while the surface area decreases with temperature. In addition, annealing increases the crystallinity of TiO₂, thereby decrease in the content of amorphous TiO₂ and depress the photo excited electron-hole recombination; and thus increase in the photocatalytic activity. However annealing at very high temperatures increases the particle size and decreases the surface area and favors the phase transformation from anatase to rutile. Hence, an optimum annealing temperature is to be chosen to avoid these undesirable affects. Thus, TiO₂ sample annealed at 500 °C having high crystallinity (Fig. 1(a)) showed higher degradation rate of MB in the present study.

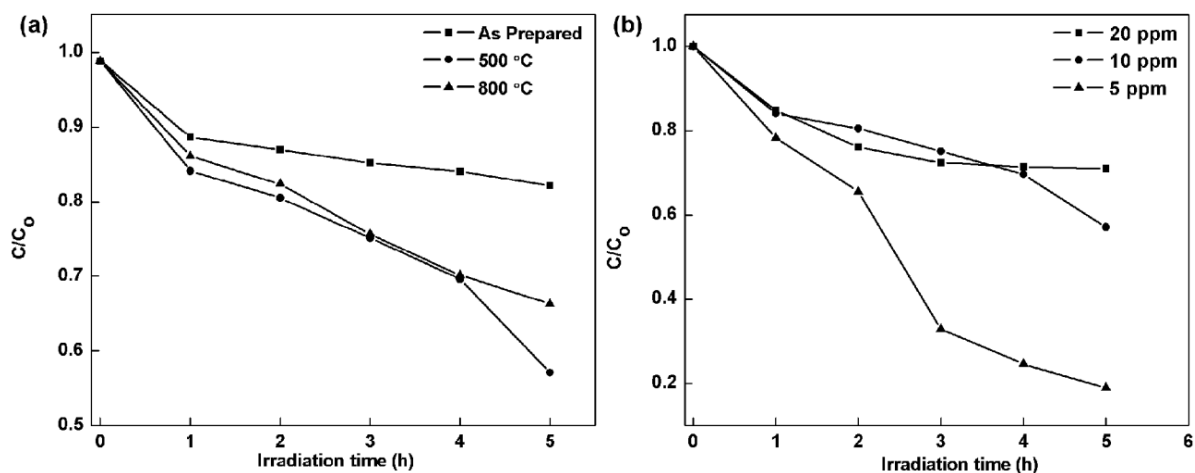


Fig. 5. (a) Photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ sample as-synthesized and annealed at different temperatures towards MB (10 ppm) under UV-light radiation with increasing irradiation time; (b) Effect of MB concentration on photo degradation rate of TiO₂ sample annealed at 500 °C (catalyst dosage 1.5 g/L).

Fig. 5(b) shows the effect of concentration of MB at a fixed catalyst amount (1.5 g/L) on the percentage of degradation of MB with 500 °C annealed TiO₂ under UV radiation. It is found that with an increase in the dye concentration from 5 ppm to 20 ppm, the degradation of MB decreases from 81% to 33%. The degradation efficiency is higher for lower MB concentration. At higher concentration of the dye, the light absorbed by the dye is more than that of the catalyst, and the light absorbed by the dye is not effective for the photocatalytic degradation. For a fixed catalyst dose, the active sites remaining the same, however, the number of dye ions accommodated in the

interlayer space increases and hence catalyst surface becomes saturated with the same number of dye ions. So, there is a decrease in percentage of degradation on the dye.

In order to study the photocatalytic activity of Ag-TiO₂, the MB degradation is studied with 5 ppm concentration and catalyst amount as 1.5 g/L and the obtained results are compared with pure TiO₂. From Fig. 6(a), it is observed that the % degradation increases with UV exposure time and the photocatalytic activity is improved with Ag doping in TiO₂. Pure TiO₂ shows 81% degradation on MB after 5 hours of UV exposure, whereas, Ag-TiO₂ sample shows 88% degradation for the same exposure time. The apparent rate constant has been chosen as the basic kinetic parameter for the different photo catalysts, since it enables to determine a photocatalytic activity independent of the previous adsorption period in the dark and the concentration of MB remaining in the solution. The apparent first-order kinetic equation $\ln(C_0/C) = k_{app}t$ is used to fit experimental data, where k_{app} is apparent rate constant, C is the solution-phase concentration of MB and C₀ is the initial concentration at t=0 (Matos et al., 1998). The variations in $\ln(C_0/C)$ as a function of irradiation time are given in Fig. 6(b). The apparent rate constants k_{app} is found to be 0.31 and 0.49 h⁻¹ for pure TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples, respectively.

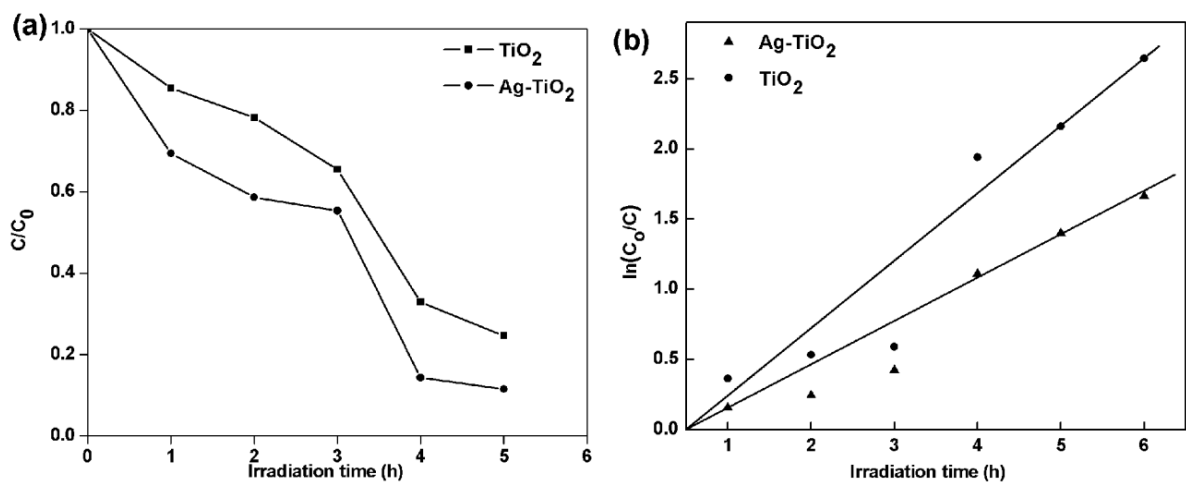


Fig. 6. (a) Effect of Ag doping on MB photo degradation (catalyst dosage 1.5 g/L, 5 ppm) and (b) Linear transformation $\ln(C_0/C)=f(t)$ of the kinetic curves of MB disappearance for TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples.

When a photon of UV light strikes the surface of TiO₂, a valence band electron moves to the conduction band, thus forming a positively charged hole in the valence band. These holes and electrons generate reactive oxygen species such as O₂⁻ and OH radicals, which attack dye molecules and lead to their degradation. The enhancement of MB degradation for Ag-TiO₂ may be due to its ability to trap electrons (Subbarao et al., 2003). This process reduces the recombination of charges and favors oxidation of dye. The reduction potential of Ag ion is suitably positioned for the effective photocatalytic reduction producing metallic Ag⁰ on TiO₂ surface. This is further evidenced by the slight color change of the catalyst into black. Thus, the presence of 5 mol% Ag significantly enhanced the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂.

4. Conclusions

Nanostructured pure TiO₂ and Ag doped TiO₂ powders were synthesized successfully by sol-gel method using titanium tetra n-butoxide as titanium precursor. XRD spectra confirmed the presence of anatase phase in both TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples with crystallite size varying from 6-15 nm. The crystallite size and crystallinity of both the samples were increased with annealing temperature. The UV-Vis studies showed the shift in the absorbance towards

longer wavelengths for Ag doped TiO₂. The band gap was found to be 3.1 eV for pure TiO₂ and 2.9 eV for Ag-TiO₂. The antibacterial activity of pure TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ is assessed by spread plate method against 10⁵ cells/mL of *Escherichia coli* bacteria after an incubation period of 24 h. Bacterial colonies were not observed in Ag-TiO₂ treated plates whereas, numerous bacterial colonies were observed in TiO₂ treated plates. Photocatalytic activity of both TiO₂ and Ag-TiO₂ samples was examined by decomposition of MB for 5 h under UV irradiation. It is found that the photocatalytic degradation depends on the catalyst crystallinity and dye concentration. The MB degradation is higher for the TiO₂ sample annealed at 500 °C compared to as-synthesized TiO₂. Further, the degradation is more for lower concentrations of the dye and it decreases with increase in the dye concentration. The photocatalytic degradation is higher for Ag-TiO₂ compared to pure TiO₂ samples and the photocatalytic inactivation of MB in presence of UV irradiation was observed to follow first order kinetics. This improved photocatalytic activity of Ag-TiO₂ samples may be due to a decrease in the recombination rate of photo generated charge carriers and decrease in the band gap from 3.1 eV to 2.9 eV.

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