

Synthesis, characterization and photocatalytic activity of 1D TiO₂ nanostructures

Julieta Cabrera, Hugo Alarcón, Alcides López, Roberto Candal, Dwight Acosta and Juan Rodríguez

ABSTRACT

Nanowire/nanorod TiO₂ structures of approximately 8 nm in diameter and around 1,000 nm long were synthesized by alkaline hydrothermal treatment of two different TiO₂ nanopowders. The first precursor was TiO₂ obtained by the sol-gel process (SG-TiO₂); the second was the well-known commercial TiO₂ P-25 (P25-TiO₂). Anatase-like 1D TiO₂ nanostructures were obtained in both cases. The one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures synthesized from SG-TiO₂ powders turned into rod-like nanostructures after annealing at 400 °C for 2 h. Conversely, the nanostructures synthesized from P25-TiO₂ preserved the tubular structure after annealing, displaying a higher Brunauer–Emmett–Teller surface area than the first system (279 and 97 m²/g, respectively). Despite the higher surface area shown by the 1D nanostructures, in both cases the photocatalytic activity was lower than for the P25-TiO₂ powder. However, the rod-like nanostructures obtained from SG-TiO₂ displayed slightly higher efficiency than the sol-gel prepared powders. The lower photocatalytic activity of the nanostructures with respect to P-25 can be associated with the lower crystallinity of 1D TiO₂ in both materials.

Key words | 1D TiO₂ nanostructures, hydrothermal treatment, photocatalytic activity

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INTRODUCTION

TiO₂ nanomaterial is well-studied and commonly used material for liquid and gas-phase applications due to its high performance as a photocatalyst for degradation of organics, water splitting and solar cells, among others (Ollis *et al.* 1991; Cowan *et al.* 2010; Yan & Zhou 2011; Ren *et al.* 2012). Under UV illumination, electrons from the TiO₂ valence band jump to the conductive band, leaving oxidant positive holes behind (Ibhadon & Fitzpatrick 2013). The electrons and holes diffuse to the surface of TiO₂ particles, where they can participate in oxidative-reduction processes (such as water oxidation, oxygen reduction, etc.). One of the main drawbacks of TiO₂ nanoparticles is the random pathway of the electrons during the photocatalytic reactions that may lead to hole-electron recombination, which increases with the presence of surface defects or trapping sites. The synthesis of particles with a large aspect ratio is an approach recently explored to increase the photoefficiency of TiO₂ (Lai *et al.* 2014). Over recent years, one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures (such as nanotubes, nanorods, nanowires, nanobelts, etc.) of inorganic materials have attracted considerable attention because they offer a larger

surface area in comparison to nanoparticles (Yamin *et al.* 2012). In the case of TiO₂, the nanotubes exhibit unique properties that may be beneficial for photocatalysis. These unique features include: (i) enhanced light adsorption due to the high ratio length/diameter, (ii) rapid and long-distance electron transport capability, (iii) large specific surface area, and (iv) ion exchange ability (Liu *et al.* 2014). Different routes have been developed in order to create TiO₂-based 1D nanostructures such as the assisted-template method (Wu & Yu 2004; Maiyalagan *et al.* 2006), electrochemical anodic oxidation (Neupane *et al.* 2011) and hydrothermal treatment (Wang *et al.* 2008; Nakahira *et al.* 2010; Asiah *et al.* 2013). Hydrothermal treatment of TiO₂ particles in alkaline solutions is one of the simplest techniques to produce 1D-layered titanate structures. It is a simple wet chemical process, more favourable for large-scale reaction and production of low-cost material for the formation of TiO₂ nanotubes-nanorods compared to other methods, such as surfactant-assisted templating (Adachi *et al.* 2003; Liu *et al.* 2014). The hydrothermal synthesis of TiO₂ nanotubes involves several steps where the structure of the

TiO₂ precursor changes completely. These steps include acid wash and thermal treatment. The nature of the TiO₂ used as the precursor in the alkaline hydrothermal synthesis affects the quality and properties of the final product (Liu et al. 2014). In this work, we report on the synthesis of rod and tube-like TiO₂ nanostructures created by hydrothermal synthesis using TiO₂ nanopowders synthesized in our laboratory by the sol-gel method and commercial TiO₂ P-25 as precursors. Their photocatalytic efficiency was compared by means of Rhodamine B (RhB) photocatalytic degradation.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

All reagents were used as received without further purification. Titanium isopropoxide, NaOH and HCl were purchased from Merck (New Jersey, USA). Commercial TiO₂ powder P25 was obtained from Degussa (Germany).

Synthesis and characterization of TiO₂ nanostructures

Nanotubes/nanorods were synthesized by hydrothermal treatment of 1 g of TiO₂ powder (commercial P25: P25-TiO₂, or sol-gel synthesized TiO₂: SG-TiO₂) in a 10 M NaOH solution at 130 °C for 18 and 24 h. After hydrothermal treatment, the obtained white powder was vacuum-filtered, washed with HCl solution for ionic exchange and then washed with distilled water until a neutral pH was reached. Finally, the samples were annealed at 400 °C for 2 h to crystallize the material.

In the synthesis of nanoparticles from the sol-gel method a colloidal solution was obtained by slowly adding drops of titanium isopropoxide to a vigorously stirred concentrated acidic solution (HCl 0.1 M) at room temperature. The resulting suspension was heated at 70 °C for 2 h to peptize the aggregates of particles and, in order to get the nanoparticles, it was auto-cleaved in a stainless steel chamber at 220 °C for 12 h. After the hydrothermal treatment, a transparent solution and a white precipitate was obtained. The white precipitate was washed and dried at 100 °C overnight in a dry oven.

The obtained nanostructures were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) in a Rigaku diffractometer (Rigaku Corp., Japan) using CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$). The morphology was studied by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM SUPRA 40 Carl Zeiss, Germany) and high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) using a JEOL JEM-2010F transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL Ltd, Japan) operating at 200 kV. TEM samples

were prepared by dispersing a small amount of the sample in ethanol with the help of an ultrasonic bath. Small droplets of the freshly prepared dispersion were placed onto a copper grid covered with carbon to improve the conduction of the electrons. In addition, the surface area was estimated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method using a Gemini VII 2390 instrument (Micromeritics, USA).

Measurement of photocatalytic activity

Photocatalytic efficiency for the degradation of RhB was carried out under the radiation of a 220 W OSRAM ultraviolet lamp (OSRAM, Germany), with a measured radiation intensity of 60 W/m² in the UV-A range. An aqueous solution with an initial volume of 150 mL was prepared with 0.05 g of catalyst and RhB 10 ppm, the solution was sonicated first for 30 min and then stirred in the dark for 30 min to ensure a good dispersion of TiO₂ particles and adsorption of RhB on the catalysts. Then, 4 mL samples of the suspension were taken just before illumination and after illumination at periods of 5 or 15 min. The samples were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 8 min using a 5804R Eppendorf Ultracentrifuge (Eppendorf, Germany) to separate the photocatalyst from the solution. The concentration of RhB in the solution was determined by UV-Vis spectroscopy. The evolution of the RhB concentration was determined as a function of the irradiation time from the change in absorbance at 564 nm. The efficiency of the nanotubes and nanorods was compared with their respective precursor TiO₂ powders.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 shows FE-SEM and TEM images of the SG-TiO₂ nanoparticles (NP). The images show that the NP displayed a radius of approximately 7 nm and formed relatively large and compact aggregates. Figure 2 shows the morphology and structure of the materials formed after 18 h of exposing the SG-TiO₂ powder to alkaline hydrothermal treatment. The images indicate that the NP turned to tube-like nanostructures with an average inner and external diameter of approximately 5.6 and 8 nm, respectively. After hydrothermal treatment, the samples were acid treated to replace Na⁺ by H⁺. Figure 2(b) shows that the tubular structure was conserved in spite of the acid treatment. Figure 2(c) shows the morphology and structure of the samples after annealing at 400 °C. The images clearly show that, as a consequence of annealing, the tube-like nanostructures turned

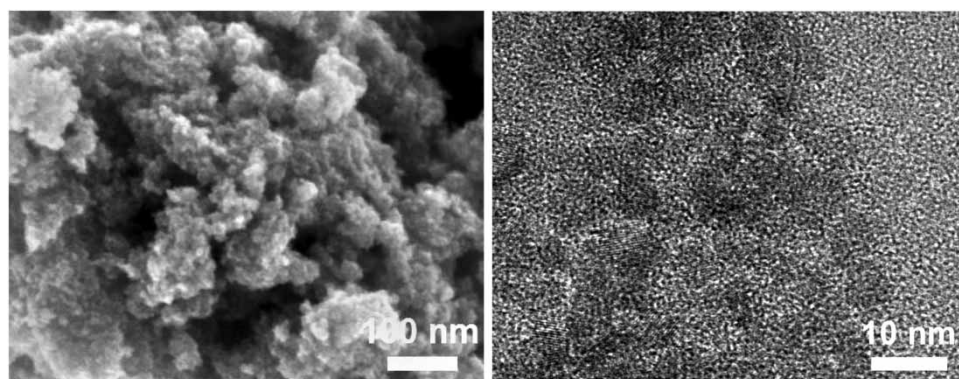


Figure 1 | FE-SEM and TEM images (left and right, respectively) for TiO₂ nanoparticles obtained by sol-gel method.

into short rod-like particles. Most of these particles remained attached to one another, resembling the original morphology of the tubes. These results suggest that during annealing, the structure of the tubes collapsed, cutting the tubes into smaller pieces but preserving in part their original morphology. Longer hydrothermal treatment was also performed, but no appreciable changes in morphology were detected. **Figure 2(d)** shows examples of tubular TiO₂ nanostructures obtained after 24 h of treatment.

Figure 3 shows TEM images of TiO₂ nanostructures obtained by alkaline hydrothermal treatment of P25-TiO₂ powder during 18 or 24 h, followed by acid exchange and 2 h annealing at 400 °C. As in the previous case, tubes were obtained in both hydrothermal treatment times (18 and 24 h). But in this case, the tubular 1D structure was maintained after annealing. The insets shown in **Figure 3** are diffraction patterns obtained by fast Fourier transform (DPFFT). The patterns showed well-defined points, some corresponding to (101) plane distances typical of anatase.

The growth mechanism of 1D TiO₂ nanostructures synthesized by alkaline hydrothermal method from TiO₂ nanoparticles is still under discussion. It was suggested that it takes place by the rolling of hydrogen titanate laminar structures during the ion exchange step (Kasuga *et al.* 1998; Capula 2007), but other authors suggest that the 1D structure forms during the treatment of TiO₂ in NaOH aqueous solution (Du *et al.* 2001; Zhang *et al.* 2003, 2010). Our results seem to be in agreement with the latter authors because the tubes were well-formed before the acid treatment was applied.

Figure 4 shows the XRD patterns of nanoparticles obtained by the sol-gel method and the products obtained after hydrothermal treatment for 18 h, with further acid treatment and the final product obtained after annealing at 400 °C for 2 h. The SG-TiO₂ NP used as precursors

showed an XRD pattern typical of low crystalline anatase. After hydrothermal treatment, the structure of the solid changed to another, displaying reflection peaks at 10, 24.5, 28.4 and 48.3 degrees 2 θ . These peaks can be assigned to the diffraction of sodium titanates with the chemical formula Na₂Ti_nO_{2n+1} ($n = 3, 6, 9$). In agreement with Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) N° 31-1329 and 33-1293, we could describe it as a mix of Na₂Ti₃O₇ and Na₂Ti₉O₁₉ designed as sodium titanates. After acid treatments, the features corresponding to titanate almost disappeared, being replaced by poorly defined peaks that may be associated with anatase. After the annealing process, only anatase the TiO₂ crystalline phase was observed since the samples showed well-defined peaks around 25.3, 37.8, 48.0 2 θ degrees, characteristic of (101), (004) and (200), respectively of anatase TiO₂. It should be noted that before annealing, the samples were poorly crystalline since the X-ray reflections were slightly defined. After annealing, the crystal structure of the samples was well defined, in agreement with the DPFFT analysis (**Figure 3**). The crystalline structures correspond mainly to anatase, although a small amount of brookite could be detected in all cases. By analyzing the width at half maximum of the reflections employing Scherrer's equation, in the direction of (101) plane in **Figure 4**, crystallite sizes about 5 and 16 nm around were found for the SG-TiO₂-precursor and for the rod-like structures, respectively. This result shows that the crystallite size increased when the rod-like shape structures were formed. **Table 1** shows the BET surface area values of the different samples. In the case of the TiO₂ nanostructures obtained from SG-TiO₂, there was a clear diminution of surface area as a consequence of the morphological transformation. These results suggest that the conversion from particles to nanorods occurred by a dissolution-precipitation process that involved

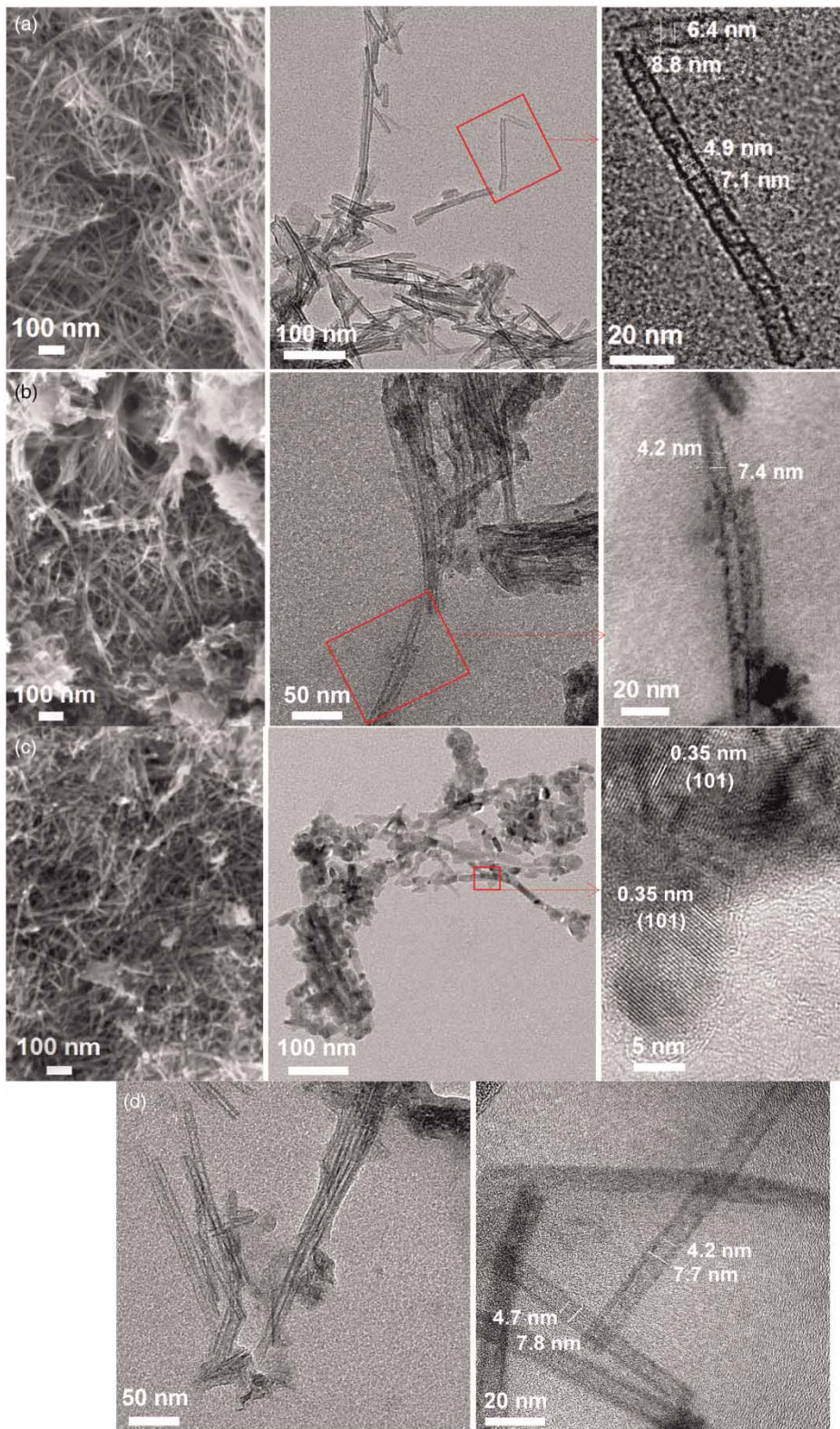


Figure 2 | FE-SEM and TEM images (left and right, respectively) of 1D nanostructures obtained from SG-TiO₂ powders, hydrothermally treated for 18 h (a), after acid treatment (b) and after annealing at 400 °C (c); TEM images of tubular TiO₂ nanostructures obtained after 24 h of hydrothermal treatment (d).

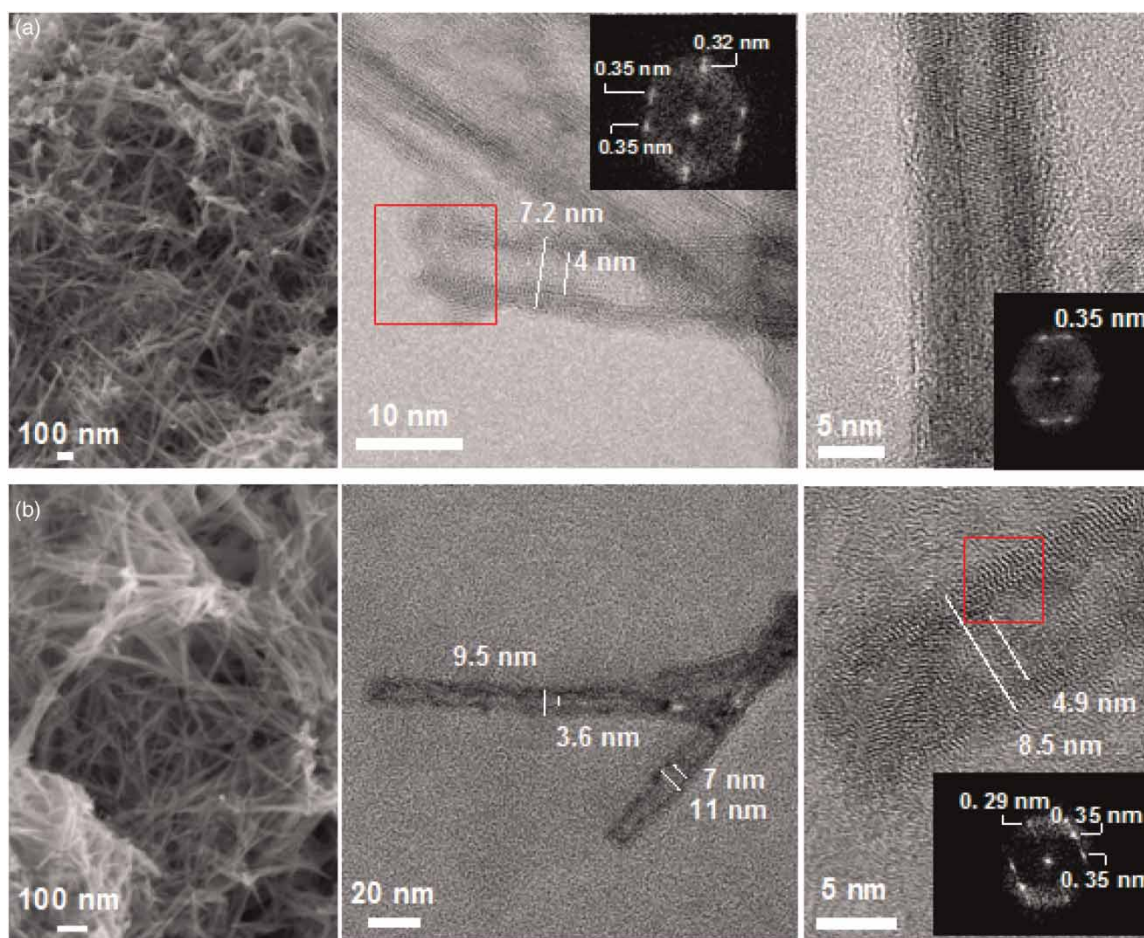


Figure 3 | FE-SEM and TEM images (left and right, respectively) of 1D nanostructures obtained from P25-TiO₂ powders hydrothermally treated for 18 h (a) and 24 h (b) with subsequent acid treatment and finally annealed at 400 °C. The insets are DPFFT of the area highlighted.

the transformation of TiO₂ to sodium titanate, followed by proton exchange to produce titanic acid and, finally, crystallization to anatase after thermal treatment. The crystalline structure evolved through all these steps, giving more crystalline compounds with a lower surface area.

Figure 5 shows XRD patterns of P25-TiO₂ powder and the TiO₂ nanostructures obtained after alkaline hydrothermal treatment, acid exchange and annealing at 400 °C. P-25 showed the typical reflection peaks corresponding to anatase and rutile. After hydrothermal treatment, the diffraction pattern shows peaks at 10, 24.5, 28.4 and 48.3 degrees 2θ. As discussed earlier, these features correspond to a mix of sodium titanate described by Na₂Ti₃O₇ and Na₂Ti₉O₁₉. After acid treatment, the intensity of 10 and 28.4 degree peaks was practically negligible, while the corresponding peak to 24.5 degrees increased to similar intensity as the 48 degree peak. These reflections are usually assigned as hydrogen titanates H₂Ti₃O₇ (Kolen'ko et al. 2006). It should be

noted that both products display better-defined peaks than in the previous case. The main crystalline phase of the final annealed product was also anatase, but in contrast to the rod-shaped structures obtained from SG-TiO₂, the crystallite size for nanotubes was in the 8–10 nm range, which was much less than the crystallite size of the P-25-TiO₂: 21.5 nm. In addition, as shown in Table 1, the specific surface area of the P25-TiO₂ powders is much lower than its corresponding 1D TiO₂ nanostructures. The P-25 seeds are more crystalline than the nanostructures obtained by hydrothermal treatment and even displayed some amount of rutile. This difference is due to the high temperature synthesis used in the preparation of P25-TiO₂. Clearly, the P25-TiO₂ particles were also exposed to dissolution-precipitation processes that lead to the disappearance of the rutile phase. The new solid phases displayed a more disorganized structure with lower crystallite sizes and higher surface area than the precursor powder. It is remarkable that in this system the nanotubes

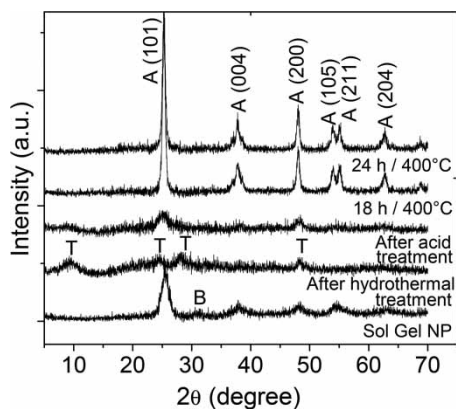


Figure 4 | XRD patterns of sol-gel nanoparticles (NP) and the product obtained from it after 18 h of hydrothermal treatment, sample with further acid treatment and finally annealed at 400 °C (18 h/400 °C). The final product obtained with 24 h of hydrothermal treatment is also shown (24 h/400 °C) (A = anatase, B = brookite, T = sodium titanate).

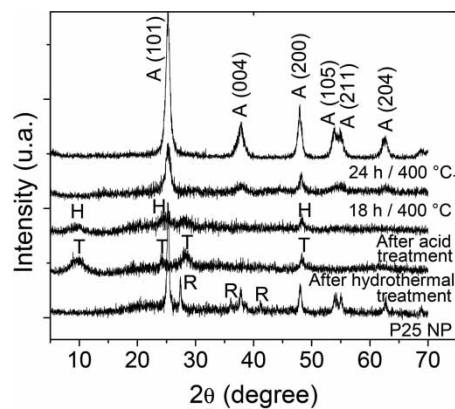


Figure 5 | XRD patterns of P25-TiO₂ powder and the product obtained from it after 24 h of hydrothermal treatment, sample with further acid treatment and finally annealed at 400 °C (24 h/400 °C). The final product obtained with 18 h of hydrothermal treatment is also shown (18 h/400 °C) (A = anatase, R = rutile, T = sodium titanate, H = hydrogen titanate).

Table 1 | BET surface area of the different samples

TiO ₂ nanostructures	Surface area BET (m ² /g)	TiO ₂ nanostructures	Surface area BET (m ² /g)
TiO ₂ NPs-Sol Gel	201	TiO ₂ P 25 NPs	60
1D Nanostructures 18 h/400 °C ^a	97	1D Nanostructures 18 h/400 °C ^a	279

^aHydrothermal treatment time/annealing temperature.

did not collapse after annealing, preserving the high surface area. Although the reasons are still not clear, it was reported that the thermal and structure stability depend on the type of precursor (Preda et al. 2013). The low thermal stability of the TiO₂ NP, may be a consequence of the presence of anatase seeds after acid washing. These seeds may trigger the crystallization of anatase, leading to the rearrangement and collapse of the structure.

The photocatalytic activities of the obtained samples were tested via degradation of aqueous RhB under UVA irradiation. It is important to note that in the literature it is very common to report the beginning of the degradation curve as 0% of degradation at 0 time. However, adsorption on the photocatalyst should be considered. In this case the degradation curve was drafted considering the initial decrease of RhB due to adsorption of the dye onto TiO₂ photocatalyst. As shown in Figures 6 and 7 before the irradiation ($t = 0$), an adsorption process of RhB onto the TiO₂ nanostructures was observed. The adsorption onto commercial P25-TiO₂ was measured to be 40% and 5 and 20% for final 1D structures obtained with 18 and 24 h of

hydrothermal treatment, respectively. Conversely, absorption was approximately 1 and 2% for samples obtained from SG-TiO₂ after 18 and 24 h of thermal treatment, respectively, and practically negligible for the SG-TiO₂ precursor. The adsorption amount could be ascribed to the high surface area of the TiO₂ nanotubes and nanorods.

Figure 6 shows the evolution of RhB concentration in UVA illuminated solution containing TiO₂ nanotubes obtained from P-25. The results indicate that the annealed nanotubes display much higher photocatalytic activity than the raw nanotubes. This phenomenon can be associated with the different nature of the TiO₂ nanotubes before and after annealing. Only after firing did the structure of the nanotubes become anatase (see Figure 5), which is the crystalline TiO₂ phase with well-known photocatalytic activity.

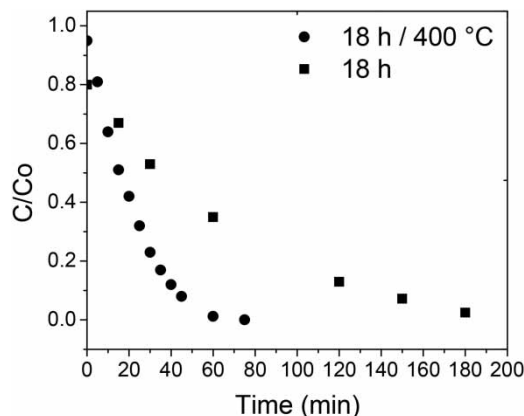


Figure 6 | RhB degradation for sample obtained from P25 hydrothermally treated for 18 h with further acid treatment (■) and after annealing process at 400 °C (●).

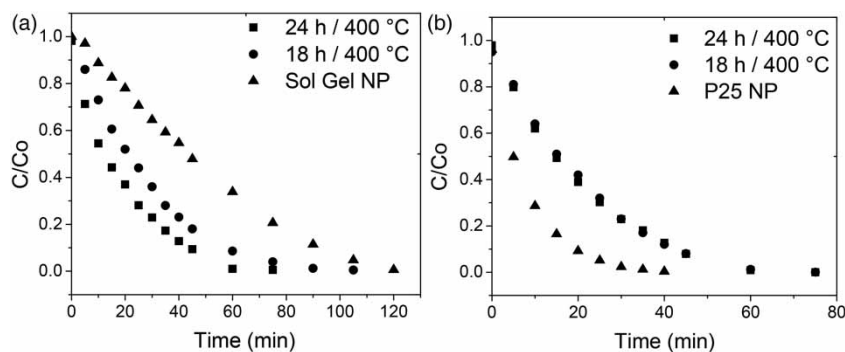


Figure 7 | Degradation of RhB solutions with sol-gel nanoparticles and the 1D nanostructures obtained from it (a) and P25 nanoparticles and the 1D nanostructures obtained from it (b).

Figure 7(a) shows the photocatalytic degradation of RhB in solutions containing SG-TiO₂ NP, and annealed 1D TiO₂ obtained from TiO₂-SG NP precursor. Clearly, the photocatalytic activity of the 1D TiO₂ samples is higher than that displayed by the precursor material, being more active than the sample exposed to longer hydrothermal treatment. This phenomenon can be a consequence of the different crystallite sizes displayed by the systems. It was reported that a highly crystalline structure leads to more active photocatalysts due to a diminution in the recombination of the photogenerated carriers (Liu *et al.* 2014). In this case, as shown in Figure 4, the annealed nanotubes displayed a well-crystallized anatase structure. Figure 7(b) allows comparison of the photocatalytic activity of P-25 with the activity of 1D TiO₂ obtained by hydrothermal treatment of P-25 followed by annealing. In this case, the precursor material displayed higher photocatalytic activity than the 1D TiO₂ structures, even though the 1D nanostructures had a larger surface area. This result may be a consequence of different phenomena. For instance, it was proposed that the presence of both crystalline phases (anatase and rutile) in the P25-TiO₂ particles may improve the photocatalytic response of this material (Su *et al.* 2011). Alternatively, the crystalline domains of the 1D TiO₂ nanostructures are quite small (6–11 nm) hindering the photo activity of the material. This effect may be a consequence of the presence of dangling bonds or distorted lattice structures that may act as electron-hole recombination sites (Henderson 2011). Moreover, the 1D nanostructures were not pure in morphology but were mixed with particles of different shapes and even amorphous TiO₂. Despite the 1D nanostructures showing lower photocatalytic activity than P25-TiO₂, these nanostructures displayed a reasonably good photocatalytic activity for RhB degradation since we achieved the complete degradation of a concentrate solution in 60–80 min

(shorter than reported by other authors (Zhang *et al.* 2010; Thennarasu *et al.* 2013)).

CONCLUSIONS

TiO₂ anatase 1D nanostructures, with high surface area and photocatalytic activity, were synthesized by hydrothermal treatment. The structure of the systems depended on the TiO₂ precursor powder used in the synthesis. P25-TiO₂ produced nanotubes that were not altered by the thermal treatment, but the structures produced from SG-TiO₂ collapsed after annealing at 400 °C. This phenomenon may be a consequence of the presence of anatase seeds in the TiO₂ nanotubes after acid washing. All the synthesized 1D TiO₂ nanostructures were effectively used in the photocatalytic degradation of Rhodamine B. The efficiency of the TiO₂ nanotubes as a photocatalyst was lower than that of P-25 (under similar conditions), although it was still high enough to be successfully used as a photocatalyst. It should be mentioned that the rod-like nanostructures displayed higher efficiency than those from the SG TiO₂ precursor. The lower photocatalytic activity of the nanostructures with respect to P25 can be related to the lower crystallinity of 1D TiO₂ in both materials and the absence of rutile as minor phase. Due to its photocatalytic activity, aspect ratio and tubular structure, this material is very attractive as a component for the synthesis of functional materials for environmental applications. For example, TiO₂ nanotubes could be used to prepare filtration membranes with self-cleaning properties under UVA illumination (preventing membrane fouling). TiO₂ nanotubes are also more easily filterable than NP and can be easily removed from solutions. Hence, the possibility to produce a photocatalytic material with different shapes makes

it more versatile for photocatalytic application by itself or in the form of composite materials.

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