# **CHAPTER 3**

# SYNTHESES AND CHARACTERIZATION OF MO<sub>X</sub> (M = M<sub>0</sub>, W AND V) NANORODS AND MS<sub>2</sub> (M=M<sub>0</sub> AND W) NANOSTRUCTURES

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Several synthetic approaches including electrochemical techniques, sonochemical approach, template mediated synthesis, bioligation, hydrothermal, wet organic and inorganic routes and thermal methods have been reported to fabricate 1D tungsten oxide nanostructures such as nanorods and nanowires (Polleux et al., 2005 & 2006; Lee et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2006; Li et al., 2003a; Liu et al., 2003). Growth of WO<sub>3-x</sub> nanorods on the tips of electrochemically etched tungsten filament was achieved by heat treatment of the tips in Ar and H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere (Gu et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2004). However, synthesis of such structure has been possible only in the presence of  $H_2$  atmosphere. The nanorods of  $WO_3$  have also been obtained by sonochemical method wherein Koltypin et al. have synthesized a mixture of WO<sub>2</sub>- $WO_3$  nanorods by ultrasound irradiation of  $W(CO)_6$  in diphenylmethane (Koltypin et al., 2002). Tungsten oxide nanorods could also be obtained from templated route by using CNTs and colloidal gas aphrons as templates (Satishkumar et al., 2000; Shankar et al., 2006; Abdullah et al., 2006). Therese et al., (2005) have adopted an organic amine assisted low temperature hydrothermal route for the synthesis of hexagonal WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods. Inorganic compounds such as Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, Rb<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> have been demonstrated as structure directing agents for the hydrothermal synthesis of 1-D WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods (Lou and Zeng, 2003; Gu et al., 2006; Xiao et al., 2007). Srivastava et al., (2006) have reported sol-gel method followed by dip coating to produce WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods. By altering the composition and concentration of solvent, it was shown

that different morphologies and phases of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods can be achieved (Choi *et al.*, 2005). A combination of sol-gel and alumina membrane as template has been reported for the synthesis of nanofibrils of WO<sub>3</sub> (Lakshmi et al., 1997). But, the method produces fibrils that are found to have a diameter and length of 200 nm and 50µm respectively and this is beyond the nanoregime. All of these reported efforts involve multistep processes and limited to the use of directing agents such as CNTs and M<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (M=Na, Rb and K). Hence, the synthesis would be tedious and requires careful removal of the structure directing agents to avoid contaminants. Moreover, sol-gel and hydrothermal methods proceed with a low yield. In order to overcome the difficulties mentioned, thermal method has been employed widely for the large scale synthesis of tungsten oxide nanorods/nanowires as they are simple, easy and free from catalysts and contaminants. Heat treatment of tungsten metal, such as, tungsten foil, tungsten wire or tungsten filament heated at 800 – 1600 °C (Guo et al., 2004; Shingaya et al., 2004; Rothschild et al., 2000, Liu et al., 2003; Klinke et al., 2005; Li et al., 2003b), tungsten powder heated at 950 °C under the Ar gas flow on ITO glass/tungsten substrate at 900 -1100 °C (Liao et al., 2006), thermal evaporation of tungsten or tungsten oxide powder (Baek et al., 2006; Baek and Yong, 2007), sublimation of WO<sub>3</sub> thin layer deposited on a mica substrate (Gillet *et al.*, 2005a & b) and tungsten hexacarbonyl heated at 700 °C (Park and Yong, 2005) have yielded 1-D WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods. All the above thermal methods related to 1-D tungsten oxide formation from the gaseous phase (vapor deposition) or thermal evaporation techniques are technically complex, require high temperature, harsh growth conditions, expensive experimental setup and complicated control processes. Recently, the single source molecular precursor route has opened a useful way for the synthesis of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods/nanowires by thermal decomposition method (Li et al.,

2002; Li *et al.*, 2003; Pol *et al.*, 2005). It offers the distinct advantage of simplified fabrication procedure and equipment as compared with the thermal evaporation or vapor deposition methods. However, multiple steps for the synthesis of both precursor and 1-D WO<sub>3</sub>, longer reaction time for precursor (6 days or 10h) and relatively higher pyrolysis temperature (750 °C) were required.

Nanostructures of molybdenum oxides in various forms were synthesized by solution method, by direct oxidation of Mo with and without catalysts at ambient temperature, electrodeposition, thermal evaporation and hydrothermal synthesis. Zhou et al. (2003a &b) have grown  $MoO_2$  nanowire arrays on Si substrate by heating a Mo boat to  $\sim$ 1100° C under a constant flow of argon for 60 min in a vacuum chamber. Further heat treatments to reduce or oxidize the obtained MoO<sub>2</sub> nanowires were carried out at different atmosphere and temperature to yield Mo and MoO<sub>3</sub>. The field emission properties have been investigated and it has been shown that the MoO2 nanowires exhibited better field emission properties than those of many other nanomaterials and hence constitute better candidate for vacuum microelectronic devices. Satishkumar et al (2000) have synthesized  $MoO_2$  nanorods by the reduction of  $MoO_3$  nanorods at 500° C for 48h where the MoO<sub>3</sub> nanorods were obtained by carbon nanotubes templated growth. However, the time required is long and also the diameter (150-300 nm) of the MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is beyond the nano regime i.e., above 100 nm. Zach *et al.*, (2000 & 2002) have employed ESED (electrochemical step edge decoration) method to form  $MoO_2$  nanowires on a highly oriented pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) and the method involves electrochemical deposition of MoO<sub>2</sub> from aqueous sodium molybdate solution. The deposited  $MoO_2$  can also be easily removed from the graphite. In this method,  $MoO_2$  has been used as the precursor to form metallic Mo on HOPG. Bowler et al., (2005) have also adopted the electrochemical deposition

method to form MoO<sub>2</sub> nanowires on HOPG. Ma et al., (2006) have followed thermal evaporation technique where Mo filaments where heated to ~1200° C for 30 min at a pressure of  $\sim 10$  Torr to form MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods on Si wafers. Magnetic properties of the  $MoO_2$  nanorods were studied and it revealed that they become soft magnetic materials at 10K, implying that the structural or magnetic transition occur at 10K. Molybdenum wire in the form of a spiral coil kept in a vacuum chamber was heated by applying voltage to deposit MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods on a Si substrate (Liu *et al.*, 2004 and Kumari et al., 2007). Synthesis of molybdenum oxide nanoparticles coated with carbon (MoO<sub>2</sub>/C) was carried out by Reaction under Autogenic Pressure at Elevated Temperature (RAPET) reaction at 700 °C for 3h using MoO(OMe)<sub>4</sub> as the precursor compound and to obtain the separated molybdenum oxide nanoparticles and carbon, a static magnetic field of 10 T was applied. (Pol et al., 2004). However, the method has not produced 1-D MoO<sub>2</sub> eventhough by using similar strategy 1-D WO<sub>3</sub> could be obtained. Hydrothermal treatment of ammonium molybdate with different surfactants followed by heat treatment at 400 C in Ar atmosphere for 6h yielded MoO<sub>2</sub> with different morphologies resulting in zero, one and two dimensional nanomaterials (Liang *et al.*, 2006a). The same group has also continued to study the Li intercalation behavior of the materials (Liang et al., 2006b).

Among the metal chalcogenides, syntheses of  $MoS_2$  and  $WS_2$  nanomaterials find significance as they exhibit several applications such as catalysts (Cheng *et al.*, 2006), electrochemical hydrogen storage devices (Cheng and Chen, 2006), materials for batteries (Dominko *et al.*, 2003), lubricants (Rapport *et al.*, 2005) and tips for scanning probe microscopes (Rothschild *et al.*, 1999). The syntheses of inorganic counterparts of carbon fullerenes and carbon nanotubes based on early transition metal chalcogenides were first reported by Tenne *et al.*, (1992), followed by several other groups (Remskar *et al.*, 1996; Remskar *et al.*, 2001; Margulis *et al.*, 1993). The syntheses of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes were carried out by treating the metal oxides in an atmosphere of forming gas (95% N<sub>2</sub> + 5% H<sub>2</sub>), followed by heating in a stream of H<sub>2</sub>S at elevated temperature with the production of considerable amounts of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> fullerenes (Feldman et al., 1995). In this method, the oxides are initially reduced to their suboxides, followed by their conversion to sulfides. Later, it has been shown that WS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes can also be synthesized by treating WO<sub>3-x</sub> nanowhiskers precursors in  $H_2S$  atmosphere (Rothschild *et al.*, 2000). In the methods above, metal oxides on treatment with  $H_2S$  produces metal trisulfides as the intermediate which then loses sulfur on annealing and crystallizes in the form of a disulfide nanotube or nanoparticle. Following this idea, metal sulfide nanotubes were also synthesized by employing sulfides as starting materials. By using ammonium thiomolybdates, such as (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> and (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>Mo<sub>3</sub>S<sub>13</sub> as precursors and aluminium oxide membrane as template, thermal decomposition was carried out to obtain nanofibers and nanotubules of MoS2 (Zelenski and Dorhout, 1998). Thermal decomposition of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>MoS<sub>4</sub> at 400 °C in an argon atmosphere was carried out to produce molybdenum trisulfides, which is then heated in a stream of H<sub>2</sub> at 1200-1300 °C to yield MoS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes (Nath, et al., 2001; Gloskovskii et al., 2006). Tian et al., (2004) have reported the syntheses of nanorods and nanotubes of  $MoS_2$  by a hydrothermal treatment using MoO<sub>3</sub> and KSCN as starting materials. Hydrothermal treatment of amine intercalated Li<sub>x</sub>MoS<sub>2</sub> lamella was reported for the synthesis of nanocoils and nanotubes of MoS<sub>2</sub> (Lavayen *et al.*, 2007).  $MoO_3$  or WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods have been used as precursors for the synthesis of  $MoS_2$  or  $WS_2$  by hydrothermal method (Lou and Zeng, 2002; Therese *et* al., 2005). Template method has also been reported for the synthesis of nanotubes of  $MoS_2$  by using alumina membrane (Santiago *et al.*, 2004).

#### 3.1.1 Mechanism for the formation of MS<sub>2</sub> from their oxides

The syntheses of metal sulfides from their respective trioxides have been reported for the synthesis of various nanostructures of molybdenum sulfides and tungsten sulfides. In all these reports, the sulfides are synthesized by heating the metal oxides first in a flowing H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere mixture and then in flowing H<sub>2</sub>S gas (Rothschild et al., 2000; Feldman et al., 1996). In the current study too, similar strategy has been adopted but the oxides are not taken as the starting materials but they are produced during the process. The synthesis of molybdenum or tungsten sulfide from the tetrabutylammonium molybdate or tungstate proceeds via the formation of oxide, followed by the treatment with H<sub>2</sub>S gas. Hence the reported mechanism for the sulfide formation from oxides hold good in this case too. According to the reports, the starting material, an oxide nanoparticle, reacts with the  $H_2S$  gas, which leads to the growth of a complete sulfide shell engulfing the entire oxide nanoparticle. Within a very short time hydrogen diffusion into (and oxygen diffusion out of) the nanoparticles lead to reduction of the oxide core. In the next stage of the reaction, sulfur diffuses into the core and slowly converts the remaining oxide into sulfide, which becomes hollow at the end of the process.

In the present study, syntheses of one-dimensional nanorods of metal oxides such as tungsten trioxides, molybdenum dioxides and mixed oxides of molybdenum and vanadium were carried out. The reactions were further continued by heat treatment of the obtained oxides in the  $H_2S$  atmosphere to give nanomaterials of metal sulfides such as tungsten disulfide and molybdenum disulfide.

#### 3. 2 Experimental

#### 3.2.1 WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

Tungsten trioxide nanorods have been synthesized by using tetrabutylammonium decatungstate as the precursor material. The starting material was prepared according to the work described elsewhere (Chemseddine et al., 1984). The typical procedure involved the precipitation of tetrabutylammonium decatungstate by adding an aqueous tetrabutyl ammonium bromide solution to a clear yellow solution of tungstic acid preformed using sodium tungstate and concentrated hydrochloric acid. The white precipitate was washed with boiling water and ethanol, filtered, dried and then recrystallized in hot dimethyl formamide to give yellow crystals. The thermogravimetric analysis revealed that the tetrabutylammonium cation content in the compound is 29.0% (theoretical value: 29.2%) and the decomposition temperature is around 450° C as reported (Chemseddine *et al.*, 1984). The synthesis of tungsten trioxide  $(WO_3)$ nanorods from tetrabutylammonium decatungstate  $((C_4H_9)_4N)_4W_{10}O_{32})$  was carried out as follows: The precursor compound (1 g) was taken in an alumina or quartz boat and loaded inside a tubular furnace and heated at 450° C at a heating rate of 25° C per min under Ar atmosphere for 3 h. This was followed by gradual cooling to room temperature to obtain a blue powder of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods. The total yield of the obtained material was 71% by weight (relative to the starting material). To further investigate the role of tetrabutylammonium (TBA) group on the morphology of WO<sub>3</sub>, an experiment was carried out in the absence of tetrabutylammonium ion. To achieve this,  $(NH_4)_{10}H_2W_{12}O_{42}.xH_2O$  was taken as the precursor and pyrolysed under similar experimental conditions that were employed for the formation of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods.

#### 3.2.2 MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods

Tetrabutylammonium hexamolybdate (( $C_4H_9$ )\_4N)\_2Mo\_6O\_{19} was used as the precursor material for the synthesis of MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The precursor material was synthesized as described elsewhere (Che *et al.*, 1979). In a typical procedure, acetic anhydride was added to sodium molybdate stirred in dimethyl formamide, followed by acidification with concentrated hydrochloric acid, resulting in heating of the solution. The hot solution was filtered and the yellow filtrate was precipitated with a solution of tetrabutylammonium bromide in dimethylformamide. The resulting salt was filtered, washed with ethanol and ether, and finally recrystallized from acetone. The resultant precursor was taken in a quartz boat and introduced inside a tubular furnace and heated at 400° C at a heating rate of 25° C per min under Ar atmosphere for 3 h. This was followed by gradual cooling to room temperature to obtain the MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods.

## 3.2.3 Mo<sub>x</sub>V<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub> nanorods

The nanorods of  $Mo_xV_yO_z$  were prepared by the thermal decomposition of  $(Bu_4N)_4[PMo_{10}V_2O_{40}]$ . The precursor was prepared as described by Nomiya *et al.*, (1997). The method involved a simple precipitation in which 10-Molybdo-2-vanadophosphoric acid (H<sub>5</sub>[PMo<sub>10</sub>V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>40</sub>]. 14H<sub>2</sub>O ) and tetrabutyl ammonium bromide (Bu<sub>4</sub>NBr) were used as the starting materials (Tsigdinos and Hallada, 1968). The orange solid formed was filtered and washed with water and then dried in a vacuum desiccator.

#### 3.2.4 MoS<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials

The synthesis of  $MoS_2$  nanomaterials was achieved from the tetrabutylammonium hexamolybdate as the precursor via the formation of  $MoO_2$  nanorods. The precursor, tetrabutylammonium hexamolybdate was taken in a quartz tube and loaded inside a tubular furnace and heated at 400° C in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere for 3h. It was then followed by heating at 550 ° C in  $H_2S$  atmosphere for 1h. It was then gradually cooled to room temperature to obtain the nanomaterials of molybdenum sulfide.

#### 3.2.5 WS<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials

The synthesis of WS<sub>2</sub> nanomaterials have been achieved from the tetrabutylammonium hexamolybdate as the precursor via the formation of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods. The precursor, tetrabutylammonium decatungstate was taken in a quartz tube and loaded inside a tubular furnace and heated at 450° C in N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere for 3h. It was then followed by heating at 750 ° C in H<sub>2</sub>S atmosphere for 1h. It was then gradually cooled to room temperature to obtain the nanomaterials of tungsten sulfide.

#### 3. 3 Characterization of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

# 3.3.1 TGA analysis of ((C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub>N)<sub>4</sub>W<sub>10</sub>O<sub>32</sub>)

Thermogravimetric analysis (Fig. 3.1) of tetrabutylammonium decatungstate (under Ar atmosphere at a scan rate of  $10^{\circ}$  C per min) shows a two step decomposition process in the region  $300 - 410^{\circ}$  C. A total weight loss of 29% (calculated value: 29.2%) has been observed and this corresponds to the weight of tetrabutylammonium group. Hence the two step decomposition can be attributed to stepwise decomposition of tetrabutyl ammonium cation of the salt. The percentage of remaining mass is 71%, which corresponds to  $10 \text{ WO}_3$ . This infers that at 450 °C, the cation have decomposed off from the precursor leading to the formation of tungsten trioxide nanorods.



Fig. 3. 1 Thermogravimetric analysis of the precursor, tetrabutylammonium decatungstate

#### 3. 3. 2 X-ray diffraction studies

Fig. 3.2 shows the XRD recorded for WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods synthesized by a single step pyrolysis of tetrabutylammonium decatungstate. All the peaks can be undisputedly indexed to monoclinic WO<sub>3</sub> (JCPDS: 75–2072). There are no peaks detected for other phases, indicating that single phase of WO<sub>3</sub> with high purity has been prepared. The average crystallite sizes of the nanorods was calculated by using Scherrer's formula

$$L = 0.89 \lambda / \beta \cos \theta,$$

where, L is the average crystallite size,  $\lambda = 0.15418$  nm for CuK<sub>a</sub>,  $\beta$  is the half maximum peak width and  $\theta$  is the diffraction angle in degrees. The average crystallite size values calculated along the (001), (020), (200), (021) and (220) planes have been found to be about 36, 27, 34, 39 and 33 nm, respectively.



Fig. 3. 2 X-ray diffraction pattern of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

#### 3. 3. 3 Raman analysis

The micro-Raman spectrum of the WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods (Fig. 3.3) shows well defined Raman bands at 269, 329, 703 and 813 cm<sup>-1</sup>. These bands match well with the fundamental modes of monoclinic WO<sub>3</sub> as reported earlier (Santato *et al.*, 2001). The Raman spectrum for the material shows characteristic O–W–O bending (259 and 334 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and the respective stretching modes (703 and 813 cm<sup>-1</sup>) of WO<sub>3</sub>.



Fig. 3. 3 Raman spectrum of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

# 3. 3. 4 SEM characterization

The typical images of the precursor compound, tetrabutylammonium decatungstate,  $((C_4H_9)_4)N)_4W_{10}O_{32}$  and the as synthesized WO<sub>3</sub> are presented in Fig. 3. 4a and b respectively. Fig 3.4a displays the side view of the precursor compound revealing a lamellar aggregation. Fig 3.4b presents the image of the as synthesized WO<sub>3</sub> showing the formation of nanorods in high yields. A magnified image of this has been given in Fig. 3.4c which clearly shows the rod like morphology of the as-synthesized WO<sub>3</sub>. The rods are polydispersed with a few hundred nanometers (100–500 nm) of length and 20–60 nm of width. Thus the findings indicate that the pyrolysis products are obtained from the ((C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub>)N)<sub>4</sub>W<sub>10</sub>O<sub>32</sub> microsheets and the synthesized material constitutes nanosized one dimensional tungsten oxide materials. Fig 3.4d displays the SEM image of the WO<sub>3</sub> obtained from the pyrolysis of ammonium paratungstate, (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>10</sub>H<sub>2</sub>W<sub>12</sub>O<sub>42</sub>.xH<sub>2</sub>O. It can be seen that the material is composed of irregular

particles of varying size with plate like morphology. From the SEM analysis, it is clear that rod like morphology can be obtained only when tetrabutylammonium group is present in the precursor compound.



Fig 3. 4 SEM images of (a) ((C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub>N)<sub>4</sub>W<sub>10</sub>O<sub>32</sub>), (b) and (c) WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods and (d) WO<sub>3</sub> from  $(NH_4)_{10}H_2W_{12}O_{42}.xH_2O$ 

# 3. 3. 5 TEM and HRTEM measurements

The morphology of WO<sub>3</sub> was further studied by TEM and HRTEM measurements. The TEM image (Fig. 5a) demonstrates the distribution of nanorods in high yields as observed from the SEM. Further, the dimensions of the nanorods calculated from the TEM images vary in the ranges of 130- 480 nm and 18 -56 nm of length and width, respectively. The high resolution TEM image of a nanorod is given in Fig. 3.5b. The lattice fringes calculated are about 0.37 nm and it corresponds to the interplanar spacing of (020) planes of monoclinic WO<sub>3</sub>. This observation agrees with the XRD results (JCPDS card no. 75- 2072) and indicates the growth of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods along (020) plane. The EDAX (Fig.3.6) results confirmed the presence of respective constituent elements in WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods. The copper signals originate from a copper supporting microgrid.



Fig. 3. 5(a) TEM and (b) HRTEM of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods



Fig. 3. 6 EDX of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

#### **3.3.6** Scheme for the formation of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

A schematic representation of the formation of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods is shown in Scheme.3.1. It shows the possible mechanism of tungsten trioxide nanorods The precursor material is composed of the cationic surfactant group formation. (tetrabutyl ammonium ion) and the anionic decatungstate ion, represented as octahedral units (Chemseddine et al., 1984). Formation of the precursor can be understood as follows: TBA<sup>+</sup> cations react with the tungsten oxide octahedra (Scheme 3.1a) and forms lamellar aggregates (also supported from the SEM image Fig 3.4a) of the  $((C_4H_9)_4N)_4W_{10}O_{32}$  in which the tungstate anions are encapsulated in the array of TBA groups. The TBA groups are suggested to behave as glue that holds the WO<sub>6</sub> octahedra together with spacing between different lamellar layers (Scheme 3.1b). In the crystallization process, surfactant molecules may serve as growth controllers, as well as agglomeration inhibitors, by forming an encapsulated layer. When heated at 450 °C for 2h, the structure directing, tetrabutylammonium group decomposes resulting in the formation of nanorods of WO<sub>3</sub> (Scheme 3.1c). The presence of tetrabutylammonium group in the precursor plays a vital role in the formation of nanorods. The hydrophilic head group of the surfactant binds to the  $W_{10}O_{32}^{4-}$  anions. During this process the hydrophobic tail groups form a shield outside the anionic octahedra which prevents their agglomeration. The presence of the surfactant coating is of key importance not only for hydrophilic stabilization of the octahedra, but also for controlling long range self-assembly in concentrated dispersions.



Scheme. 3. 1 Formation of WO<sub>3</sub> nanorods

# 3.4 Characterization of MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods

# 3.4.1 X-ray diffraction studies

In Fig.3.7, a representative XRD pattern for the as-synthesized molybdenum oxide nanorods is displayed. All the peaks can be indexed undisputedly to monoclinic MoO<sub>2</sub> [JCPDS no. 76-1807]. Diffraction peak of (011) is stronger when compared to all other peaks, indicating that the (011) is the major growth direction.



Fig. 3. 7 XRD of MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods

## **3.4.2 Transmission Electron microscopic studies**

A typical TEM image is shown in Fig.3.8a. The width and length of the nanorods are in the range of 20-50 nm and 5-10  $\mu$ m, respectively. Fig.3.8b represents the HRTEM image of a single MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorod with well defined lattice fringes. The interplanar spacing, d value calculated from this image is 0.34 nm corresponding to (011) planes of monoclinic MoO<sub>2</sub>. The EDX spectrum (Fig.3.9) shows that the nanorods are composed only of Mo and O. Thus the findings indicate that the as-synthesized materials are nanosized one-dimensional molybdenum oxide materials.



Fig. 3. 8 (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of MoO<sub>2</sub> nanorods



Fig. 3.9 EDX spectrum of MoO2 nanorods

## 3.4.3 Raman analysis

Raman spectrum of the as-synthesized  $MoO_2$  nanorods is given in Fig.3.10 which illustrates the appearance of Raman bands at 748, 582, 498, 468, 370, 230, 208 cm<sup>-1</sup>. These bands are in good agreement with the reported values for monoclinic  $MoO_2$  (Kumari *et al.*, 2007).



Fig.3.10 Raman spectrum of  $MoO_2$  nanorods

## 3.5 Characterization of Mo<sub>x</sub>V<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub> nanorods

The mixed oxides containing Mo and V prepared by the thermal decomposition of tetrabutylammonium phosphomolybdovanadate were characterized by powder XRD and electron microscopic studies.

## 3.5.1 XRD analysis

The XRD pattern of the as-synthesized material is shown in Fig.3.11. These peaks could be indexed to (020), (110), (120), (111), (121), (150), (210) and (002) diffraction planes of a single phase of MoO<sub>3</sub> with an orthorhombic crystal structure (JCPDS: 89-5108) and (110), (211), (310) diffraction planes of VO<sub>2</sub> (JCPDS: 76-0678) with a tetragonal crystal structure. The (224) peak of MoO<sub>3</sub> at 38.97° and (200) peak of VO<sub>2</sub> at 39.54° have overlapped to give a broad peak.



Fig. 3. 11 XRD of Mo<sub>x</sub>V<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub> nanorods

## 3.5.2 Electron microscopic studies

SEM image of as synthesized product is presented in Fig.3.12a. The image show that the product consists of bundles of  $Mo_xV_yO_z$  nanorods in high yield. The TEM image containing nanorods of 180-266 nm in length and a width of ~23 nm can be seen in Fig.3.12b. The EDAX spectrum (Fig.3.13) shows the peaks corresponding to the constituent elements, Mo, V and O of the nanorods.



Fig. 3.12 (a) SEM and (b) TEM images of  $Mo_xV_yO_z$  nanorods



Fig. 3.13 EDX spectrum of  $Mo_x V_y O_z$  nanorods

#### 3.6 Characterization of MoS<sub>2</sub>

#### 3.6.1 X-ray diffraction pattern

Fig.3.14 shows the typical X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the as-synthesized  $MoS_2$  nanotubes. It can be observed that all the diffraction peaks in the spectrum can be undisputedly indexed to the pure phase of  $MoS_2$  with a rhombohedral structure (JCPDS no: 77 – 0341). The peaks at 33.0° due to the (101) plane and 34.09° due to the (012) plane have overlapped to give a broad peak.



Fig. 3.14 XRD pattern of as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub>

## 3.6.2 Raman analysis

Raman spectrum of as-synthesized  $MoS_2$  is given in Fig.3.15 with the bands at 392 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 421 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 464 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The results obtained are compared with the recent reports on  $MoS_2$  nanotubes obtained by Virsek *et al.*, (2007) and the values obtained are in consistent with the reported values. It has been elucidated that the nanotubes

exhibits upshift when compared to the bulk  $MoS_2$ . The  $MoS_2$  in the current study too shows an upshift of bands to higher wavenumbers when compared to bulk  $MoS_2$  as observed in the literature.



Fig.3.15 Raman spectrum of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanorods

# 3.6.3 SEM and EDX

Fig.3.16a & b shows the representative scanning electron microscopy images of  $MoS_2$  samples. Fig.3.16a indicates that the as-synthesized  $MoS_2$  have tube like morphology in high yields. A magnified image of Fig.3.16a shows a nanotube of a few micrometers length and a diameter of ~ 75nm with a circular tip, marked with a circle. However, it also shows the presence of nanoparticles along the nanotube. In order to have a clear picture of this, TEM was also employed.



Fig.3.16 (a) & (b) SEM images of as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub>

#### 3.6.4 TEM of MoS<sub>2</sub>

The TEM images of MoS<sub>2</sub> in Fig.3.17a & b show that two types of nanostructures (nanoparticles and nanotubes) are formed. This observation is in consistent with the SEM results (Fig.3.16b) where in, the presence of both nanoparticles as well as nanotubes in the as-synthesized product could be evidenced. There are evidences for the formation of other nanostructures such as nanorods, nanofibers and nanoparticles during the synthesis of nanotubes (Nath et al., 2001; Tenne et al., 1992; Zelenski and Dorhout, 1998). In the synthesis that utilizes  $MoO_3$  as the precursor compound, MoO<sub>3-x</sub> is formed as the intermediate during reduction, followed by reaction with H<sub>2</sub>S to form  $MoS_2$ . In the current work, as the thermal decomposition of ((C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub>N)<sub>2</sub>Mo<sub>6</sub>O<sub>19</sub> produces MoO<sub>2</sub> directly, we have not provided any reducing atmosphere (forming gas). It has been shown that the starting material, reaction conditions such as temperature, inert gas to H<sub>2</sub> ratio etc., influence the morphology of the products. Fig.3.17a shows the formation of triangular nanoplatelets and  $MoS_2$ with an edge length of  $\sim$ 33 nm. Nanoplatets of MoS<sub>2</sub> were shown to have a high catalytic activity for hydrodesulfurization (Villarreal et al., 2007). The inset of Fig.3.17a shows the formation of octahedral nanoparticles but the edges are not clear. Polyhedral MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> (platelets) were also shown to have good potential as solid

state lubricants (Rapport *et al.*, 1997). Fig.3.17b is a representative nanotube of molybdenum sulfide with a diameter of ~ 63 nm and a length of more than 555 nm. The tip of the tube, marked by a circle, shows that the nanotube has an open end. Open ended MoS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes find important application in catalysis. Chen *et al* (2002) have shown that open ended MoS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes function effectively as catalysts for the methanation of CO and H<sub>2</sub> at a low temperature. This has lead to the finding that open ended MoS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes can be potential candidate for the conversion of global carbon oxides as well as catalysts for fuel cells to eliminate CO poisoning. Fig.3.17c &d also show the open end of the nanotubes. The nanotubes having a hollow core with an inner diameter of ~ 16 nm and a wall thickness of ~ 20 nm can also be observed. In order to have a clear view of this, HRTEM was also performed.



Fig. 3.17 (a), (b), (c) and (d) TEM images of as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub>

#### **3.6.5 HRTEM and EDX analysis**

The high resolution image (Fig.3.18a) reveals that the obtained tubular structures are exclusively multiwalled nanotubes. The outer diameter of the tube is ~ 70 nm with a wall thickness of ~ 16 nm. The image reveals the presence of layers with a spacing of 0.61 nm corresponding to the (003) planes of rhombohedral lattice of MoS<sub>2</sub>. This is in good agreement with the value obtained from the XRD data (JCPDS: 77 – 0341). Analysis by energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy shows the presence of Mo and S in the sample, with an atomic ratio of 1:2, confirming that the as-synthesized nanotubes as well as nanoparticles are only MoS<sub>2</sub>.



Fig. 3.18 (a) HRTEM and (b) EDX of as-synthesized MoS<sub>2</sub>

#### **3.7** Characterization of tungsten sulfide (WS<sub>2</sub>)

## 3.7.1 X-ray diffraction pattern

The X-ray diffraction pattern of the as-synthesized tungsten sulfide is given in Fig.3.19. The material exhibits reflections at planes corresponding to the rhombohedral WS<sub>2</sub> (JCPDS: 35-0651) with the (003) peak being intense among the other peaks. A broad peak at around 39° is due to the overlap of (104) peak at 38.67°

and (015) peak at 41.22°. Similarly the peaks at 48.36° and 51.85° have overlapped to give a broad peak.



Fig.3.19 XRD pattern of as-synthesized WS<sub>2</sub>

## 3.7.2 SEM and EDX

The SEM image (Fig.3.20a) of the as-synthesized WS<sub>2</sub> shows the presence of shorter nanorods as well as several hexagonal shaped particles. Unlike the other reports wherein nanotubes and fullerene-like nanoparticles of WS<sub>2</sub> were produced, the current method has yielded nanoplatelets of WS<sub>2</sub>. In their reports, when started with WO<sub>3</sub>, a reduction step is followed to produce WO<sub>3-x</sub> and then sulfidization has been proceeded to form WS<sub>2</sub>. It has been reported that when a reducing atmosphere is not introduced, only platelets of WS<sub>2</sub> are produced (Feldman *et al.*, 1998). In the current method, WS<sub>2</sub> is produced from ((C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub>N)<sub>4</sub>W<sub>10</sub>O<sub>32</sub>) via the formation of WO<sub>3</sub> but still a reduction step was not adopted before sulfidization. Hence as reported earlier, only platelets are formed. Nanoplatelets of WS<sub>2</sub> and MoS<sub>2</sub> have been proven experimentally as well as theoretically to have 'metallic-like' character and moreover

owing to their stability from energetics point of view, they have been identified as suitable candidates for future nanoelectronics (Seifert *et al.*, 2002; Bertram *et al.*, 2006). The EDX spectrum (Fig.3.20b) show the signals due to W and S in the 1:2 ratio.



Fig. 3.20 (a) SEM and (b) EDX of as-synthesized WS<sub>2</sub>

## **3.7.3 TEM and HRTEM analysis**

The TEM images of the WS<sub>2</sub> at different magnifications are given in Fig.3.21a & b which show the presence of two sort of nanomaterials: (i) short nanorods with dimensions of 20-40 nm in length and 8-20 nm in width and (ii) irregular shaped nanoparticles, closer to spherical shape with a diameter of ~20 nm and a few hexagons. This observation is in consistent with the SEM image of WS<sub>2</sub> (Fig.3.20a). The interplanar spacing, d, calculated from the HRTEM image (Fig.3.21c) is 0.61 nm, which corresponds to the (003) plane of rhombohedral WS<sub>2</sub> (JCPDS: 35-0651).



## 3.8 Summary

A simple and easy method based on thermal decomposition was adopted to fabricate 1-D nanorods of WO<sub>3</sub>, MoO<sub>2</sub> and Mo<sub>x</sub>V<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub>. The advantage of this method is the tunability of the metal precursor and the surfactant group. This aspect of the method can be exploited for the synthesis of a variety of transition metal oxide nanostructures. Syntheses of MoS<sub>2</sub> and WS<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were carried out by heat treatment of the metal oxide nanorods in H<sub>2</sub>S atmosphere at elevated temperature. The electron microscopic images of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanotubes show that they are formed with open ended tips which will make the material an efficient catalyst for various applications.

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