

The magnetic characterization of Fe doped TiO₂ semiconducting oxide nanoparticles synthesized by sol–gel method



M. Yeganeh^{a,*}, N. Shahtahmasebi^b, A. Kompany^b, M. Karimipour^c, F. Razavi^d, N.H.S. Nasralla^e, L. Šiller^f

^a Department of Physics, Kosar University of Bojnord, P.O. Box 94104455, Iran

^b Department of Physics, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

^c Department of Physics, Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan, Iran

^d Department of Physics, Brock University, Canada

^e Electron Microscope and Thin Film Department, Physics Division, 33 El Buhouth st., Dokki, 12622 Giza, Egypt

^f School of Chemical Engineering and Advanced Materials, Newcastle University, NE1 7RU, UK

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ABSTRACT

In this work Fe doped TiO₂ nanoparticles were synthesized at different Fe/Ti molar ratio from 1% to 5% by sol-gel technique. The post annealing of the samples was carried out at T=400, 600, and 800 °C. HRTEM of the samples revealed that the mean size of the nanoparticles increases from about 8 nm to about 100 nm as the annealing temperature increased. SQUID magnetometry of 1% and 5% Fe doped TiO₂ has shown mixed ferromagnetic and paramagnetic phases within the crystal while ferromagnetic order with T_c about 350 K was only observed in 5% Fe:TiO₂ sample annealed at T=800 °C. The oxygen vacancy mediated ferromagnetic (FM) interaction could be responsible for the observed FM.

1. Introduction

Functional properties of TiO₂ can be improved by a small amount of doping, and elements such Fe, Nb, Ta, V, Al, H, Cr, Zr and Ca are frequently used as dopants [1]. Since the radius of Fe³⁺ (0.64 Å) is similar to that of Ti⁴⁺ (0.68 Å), and Fe³⁺ might easily be incorporated within the crystal lattice of TiO₂, iron has been considered to be an appropriate candidate for doping [2]. In fact there is much interest in Fe-doped TiO₂ as it has potential applications in spintronic and magneto-optic devices [3,4].

Room temperature ferromagnetism in Co:TiO₂ (anatase) has been observed by Matsumoto et al. [3] and this opened up a new research activity in transition metal doped TiO₂ and other oxides. Giant magnetic moments have been observed by Orlov et al. [5] in dilute semiconductor titanium oxides thin film doped with Co and Fe. The origin of ferromagnetism in iron implanted rutile single crystals were also investigated by conversion electron Mössbauer spectroscopy (CEMS), zero-field-cooled (ZFC) and field cooled (FC) SQUID measurements [6].

Transition metal doped TiO₂ crystals have been prepared through many techniques: wet chemical synthesis [7], sol–gel method [8], thermal hydrolysis [9], sonochemical route [10], thermal plasma

synthesis by DC plasma jet using TiCl₄ and iron (III) acetylacetonate as precursor [11], RF plasma synthesis from metal mixtures [12] and oxidative pyrolysis of organometallic precursors in induction thermal plasma [13,14], ion-implantation [15], ion beam induced chemical vapor deposition (IBICVD) [16] and oxidative pyrolysis of liquid-feed metallorganic precursors in a radiation-frequency (RF) thermal plasma [13,17].

Wang et al. [18] prepared Fe(III)-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles by hydrothermal method to investigate the photo-electrochemical behaviors of the particles when Fe(III) content was as low as 0.5%. Chen et al. [19] produced nanocrystalline Fe-doped TiO₂ with size of 60–70 nm by a sol-gel technique to study the photocatalytic properties and the optimum content of Fe-doped was 0.05% (mass fraction).

The structural investigations on TiO₂ and Fe-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesized by laser pyrolysis at Fe/Ti atomic ratio of 0.07, 0.15 and 0.25 were performed by Alexandrescu et al. [13]. The photocatalytic activity of a sample of Fe doped TiO₂ nanoparticle synthesized by hydrothermal method were investigated by Jeong et al. [20]. The magnetic properties of Fe-doped TiO₂ milled in different milling atmospheres were studied by Lin et al. [21]. The Fe concentration was 4.468, 4.227 and 4.473 at% for the powders milled in argon, air and oxygen, respectively. However, they did not mention the size of the

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: mahboubeh.yeganeh@yahoo.co.uk (M. Yeganeh).

particles, but the VSM measurements showed the ferromagnetic behaviors for all the samples at room temperature with the enhanced magnetism as the concentration of oxygen vacancies increased (i.e. particle milled in Ar). Rodríguez-Torres et al. [22] prepared Fe doped TiO₂ anatase-type nanoparticles at 2.8 and 5.4 at% Fe by micro emulsion method and they concluded that while the samples have two magnetic component of paramagnetic Fe³⁺ ions and antiferromagnetically coupled Fe³⁺, but do not show the ferromagnetic order.

The nanocrystalline Fe-doped TiO₂ powders were prepared by Ma et al. [23] through a hydrothermal method to consider the photocatalytic activity of the powder. The Fe/Ti ratio was Fe/Ti=1, 2, 3, 4, 5 at%. The magnetic properties of nanoparticle iron-doped anatase TiO₂ were measured by Melghit et al. [24]. They estimated the amount of Fe in their prepared sample to be about 17 at% using the EDAX data taken at a number of selected areas throughout the sample. Their sample had a superparamagnetic state with a possibility of antiferromagnetism at low temperatures. Karimipour et al. [25] were also investigated the magnetic properties of Ni-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesized by sol-gel method and the presence of ferro-magnetic and antiferromagnetic interactions were observed in their samples. Crisan et al. [26] produced iron-doped TiO₂ nanopowder at 0, 0.5, 1, 2 and 5 wt% of Fe/Ti ratio by sol-gel technique to investigate the photocatalytic activity. They also measured room temperature magnetic susceptibility of the samples by VSM system and found that while the undoped TiO₂ sample was diamagnetic, the doped samples were paramagnetic. Oganisian et al. [27] studied magnetic properties of TiO₂ powders doped with 1, 5 and 10 mol% Fe prepared by sol-gel method. The post annealing temperature of their samples was 500 °C and the particles size were in the range 200–350 nm. They found that the sample with 1% Fe content has superparamagnetic dependence of magnetization, while the samples at 5% and 10% Fe revealed the paramagnetic behavior with the negative Weiss constant.

In this work, the Fe doped TiO₂ nanoparticles have been prepared at a wide variety of Fe/Ti molar ratio (1%, 3%, and 5%). The post annealing of the samples were taken place at different temperatures from 400 °C to 800 °C. It is desired to produce a sample with ferromagnetic order with a Curie temperature above room temperature. The advantage of this preparation technique is while the concentration of dopant can be controlled, the post annealing can be done at different ambient temperatures to tune the amount of oxygen vacancies in the prepared powder. Lin et al. [21] found that by increasing the oxygen vacancies the magnetism of the sample increases. Shimizu et al. [28] were also achieved the same results for the single crystal of Ni doped TiO₂ in which samples with less oxidic conditions shown stronger magnetic behaviors. In this work we study the effect of post annealing in air on the magnetization of Fe-doped TiO₂.

2. Experimental procedure

2.1. Synthesis of Fe doped TiO₂ nano-powders

A nano-powder of Fe doped TiO₂ was synthesized by the sol-gel method at different Ti/Fe mole ratio (1%, 3%, and 5%). The initial sol consists of Iron (III) Chloride 6-Hydrate, C₁₂H₂₈O₄Ti (Tetraisopropyl orthotitanate), ethanol, citrate acid and C₅H₈O₂ (Acetyl acetone). The sol was stirred and dissolved at 40 °C and then was refluxed at T=120 °C for 6 h. The development of polymerization and evaporation of the solvent achieved by further slowly heating of the resulting mixture at T=80 °C for 14 h in an open bath until a brown wet gel was obtained. Heating at this temperature causes the polymerization between citrate acid, acetyl acetone and complexes, and finally sol becomes more viscous as a wet gel. Finally, the wet gel is fully dried by direct heating on the hot plate at T=150 °C for 1 h. The resulting product is a black-brown porous gel as aerogel. Then the aerogel is ground to produce a precursor powder which is then post annealed at

400, 600 and 800 °C for 1 h (in air) and cooled down to room temperature.

2.2. Characterization of powders

The crystalline structure of the prepared powder at different doping concentrations and different annealing temperatures were examined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis utilizing a D8 Advance Bruker system using CuKα1 (λ=0.154056 nm) radiation and 2θ varying from 20° to 70°. JEOL 2100 F field emission gun transmission electron microscope (FEG TEM) operating at 200 keV is used to record HRTEM micrographs and electron diffraction patterns of the prepared nanopowders. The Fe doped TiO₂ nanopowders dispersed onto a holey carbon grid in order to be prepared for HRTEM analysis. A GATAN Tridiem spectrometer was used to extract chemical information from the same region as the diffraction pattern through electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS).

High-resolution X-ray photoemission spectroscopy is performed at the National Center for Electron Spectroscopy and Surface Analysis (NCESS), Daresbury Laboratory, UK with a rotating anode Al Kα (hν=1486.6 eV) X-ray source, a 7 crystal X-ray monochromator and a 300 mm mean radius spherical sector electron energy analyzer (Scienta ESCA 300) with parallel electron detection system. The measurements were carried out at the 10⁻⁹ Torr.

The magnetic behavior of the samples has been investigated by superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) magnetometry. The noise level is as low a 10⁻⁸ emu. The superconducting magnet, detection coils and SQUID are cooled to cryogenic temperatures by utilizing liquid helium. The magnetometer allows high sensitivity field cooling and zero field cooling experiments to be made in the temperature range 2–400 K.

3. Results and discussion

The XRD patterns of prepared nanoparticles at different doping concentrations and different annealing temperatures are shown in Fig. 1. The Fe doped TiO₂ nano-powders annealed at T=400 °C show both anatase and rutile structure with the dominance of anatase structure (see Fig. 1(a) and (d)). While the annealing temperature is increased to 600 °C the rutile phase becomes dominant over anatase phase (see Fig. 1(b) and (e)) and annealing temperature at T=800 °C causes the disappearance of the anatase structure and the samples show monostructure rutile phase (see Fig. 1(c) and (f)).

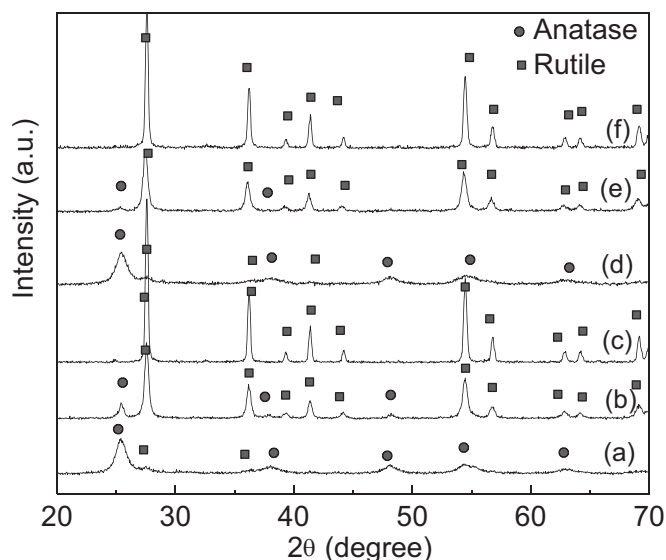


Fig. 1. The XRD patterns of the prepared samples.

Table 1

The XRD parameters and mean size of particles in different crystallography orientations at different annealing temperatures.

Dopant ratio (Fe/Ti)%	Annealing temperature (°C)	Crystalline structure	Phase composition (%)	a	b	c	Particle mean size (nm) By W-H plot	Lattice strain
1	400	Anatase	72.27	3.77600	3.77600	9.48600	11	0.00131441
		Rutile	27.73	4.59330	4.59330	2.95920		
1	600	Anatase	16.84	3.78300	3.78300	9.510	26	0.00076157
		Rutile	83.16	4.59330	4.59330	2.95920		
1	800	Rutile	100	4.59330	4.59330	2.95920	33	-0.00005141
5	400	Anatase	68.15	3.78520	3.78520	9.513	10	0.00086452
		Rutile	31.9	4.58000	4.58000	2.95000		
5	600	Anatase	11.45	3.78520	3.78520	9.513	23	-0.00068493
		Rutile	88.55	4.59330	4.59330	2.95920		
5	800	Rutile	100	4.59330	4.59330	2.95920	41	0.0007001

The diffraction peaks of iron or iron compounds such as Fe₂O₃ or Fe:TiO can not be observed which suggests the formation of an iron-titanium solid solution, where the Fe³⁺ is incorporated into the TiO₂ crystal structure substitutionally due to similar ionic radii (Ti (0.68 Å) and Fe (0.64 Å)). X-ray diffraction measurements also revealed that by increasing the temperature and the iron concentration, the TiO₂ phase changes from anatase to rutile crystal structure.

The phase contents of the powders were determined using Spurr and Myers method [29] according to the following equation:

$$X_A = 1 - X_R = (1 + 1.26 * I_{27.5} / I_{25.3})^{-1}$$

Where the subscripts (A) and (R) represent anatase and rutile respectively. I_{27.5} and I_{25.3} are the relative intensities of the rutile (110) peak at 2θ ~27.5° and the anatase (101) at 2θ ~25.3°. The results were summarized in Table 1 and it can be found that the rutile phase quantity is increased by increasing the annealing temperatures from 400 °C to 800 °C in agreement with previous literature [30–32] and as increasing the dopant concentrations from 1% to 5% the rutile content has increased.

The crystallite size value is calculated from Williamson and Hall (W-H) method [33,34] which accounts broadening of the diffraction lines due to crystallite size and lattice strain. The latter is arising from crystal imperfection and the distortion of the regular lattice [35].

In the W-H method, it is assumed that the size broadening and strain broadening are independent of each other. i.e. $\Delta_{hkl} = \Delta_A + \Delta_\epsilon = [K\lambda/\lambda \cos \theta_{hkl}] + [4\epsilon \tan \theta_{hkl}]$ and, $\Delta_{hkl} \cos \theta_{hkl} = [K\lambda/\lambda] + [4\epsilon \sin \theta_{hkl}]$ is the Williamson-Hall equation. The crystallite size is obtained from the intersection of the linear fit of the value of $\Delta_{hkl} \cos \theta_{hkl}$ as a function of $4 \sin \theta_{hkl}$ and the lattice strain ϵ is obtained from the slope of the fit. The results are summarized in Table 1. As reported by Choudhury et al. [36] by increasing the annealing temperatures, crystallite sizes are increased and cause the release of lattice strain [36].

According to the Table 1 the lattice strain is positive for the 1% dopant annealed at 400 and 600 °C and 5% annealed at 400 °C, indicating the tensile strain. Ti is 6 fold coordinated in anatase and rutile structures. Each titanium is bonded to 6 oxygen and each oxygen is bonded to 3 titanium while the anatase has more distorted structure than rutile. It means two of the titanium-oxygen bonds are much longer than the rest. Also the O–Ti–O bond angles deviates more from 90° in anatase in comparison to rutile. Therefore, by increasing the annealing temperature and phase transformation to rutile, the lattice strain decreases. As can be observed the lattice strain of the samples in this work is reduced by increasing the size of the crystallite and phase transformation to rutile. In 1% Fe dope TiO₂ annealed at 800 °C, in which the phase composition are totally rutile (see Table 1) the lattice strain is negative indicating compressive strain. The negative strain were also observed in nanoparticles of TiO₂ annealed at high temperature [37–39]. As described in Table 1 by increasing Fe concentration, the anatase to rutile transformation is facilitated and this can cause the negative lattice strain for the 5% Fe sample annealed at 600 °C. By

increasing the annealing temperature of 5% Fe doped sample to 800 °C, the lattice strain increases, which can be explained by the increasing the oxygen vacancies created by dopants at high temperature. This has been suggested by Diebold [40] who showed that the annealing at high temperature in UHV reduces the TiO₂ surface and creates point defects and following the donor-like surface defect states. Choudhury et al. [41] also observed that the significant amount of oxygen vacancies are created in vacuum annealed Fe doped TiO₂ nanoparticles.

The TEM images and the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of nano-particles at 1% and 5% Fe dopant and annealed at different temperatures were shown in Figs. 2 and 3. The SAED patterns illustrate a set of halo-rings and discrete spots corresponding to polycrystalline structure of the prepared nano-particles. As the annealing temperature was increased, the electron diffraction patterns are sharper and the spots become more distinguishable. From TEM results, it can be seen that the samples annealed at 400 °C are in particle size ranges from 6 to 11 nm. The particle size of the samples is increased from 22 to 30 nm upon annealing at 600 °C and from 50 to 100 nm upon annealing at 800 °C.

Banfield et al. [42–44] found that the prepared TiO₂ nanoparticles had anatase and /or brookite structures, which is transformed to rutile after reaching a certain particle size; once the rutile phase was formed, it grew much faster than anatase structure. Zhang and Banfield [42,44] established that for equally sized nanoparticles, the anatase phase was thermodynamically stable for sizes < 11 nm, brookite structure was stable for sizes between 11 and 35 nm, and rutile phase was stable for sizes > 35 nm. Therefore, the present results agree to the ones reported by Banfield et al. [42–44] in which the anatase phase is the dominant and stable phase when the particle size ranges from 6 to 11 nm but from particle size of 50 nm the rutile phase is the most dominant phase.

It has been shown by Li et al. [45] that anatase to rutile phase transformation only occurred in the temperature range from 973 to 1073 K and the particle size of both anatase and rutile phases increases as the temperature increases, but the growth rate is different and the rutile phase has a much higher growth rate than anatase phase. The anatase type to rutile type transformation after doping by iron is accelerated and shifted the transformation to lower temperature [9], which confirms our results in which the transformation of anatase to rutile phase has occurred at 600 °C by doping TiO₂ with 5% of Fe.

The EELS spectrum of the above samples is shown in Fig. 4. In EELS, titanium 2p electron is excited to the unoccupied state which is the lower unoccupied 3d state at threshold energy (the obtained spectra is due to the spin-orbit splitting into 2p_{3/2} (L₃) and 2p_{1/2} (L₂) levels, with a separation of 5.4 eV [46]). In general, four peaks (two doublets) were observed in literature [47] where the double peaks at lower energy loss comprises the Ti L₃ edge and the second ones at higher energy loss the Ti L₂ edge.

The molecular-orbital energy-level diagram for the Ti oxides is discussed in Ref. [47]. The interaction between the Ti 3d and oxygen 2p

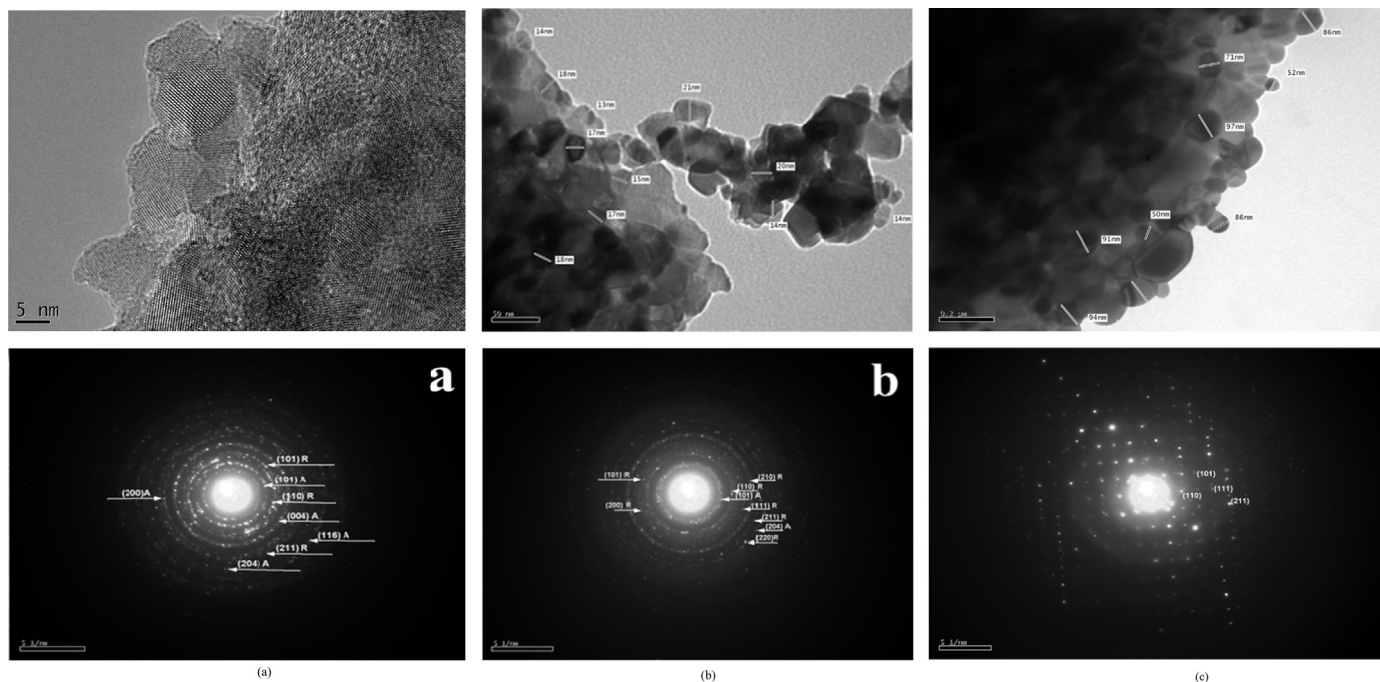


Fig. 2. HRTEM and electron diffraction patterns of 1% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at (a) 400 °C, (b) 600 °C and (c) 800 °C.

orbital causes the $2e_g$, $1t_{2g}$, $2t_{2g}$, and $3e_g$ MO levels, in which the $2e_g$, $1t_{2g}$ are bonding and the latter two are anti-bonding orbitals [48] and the σ bonds are due to the e_g orbital while the π bonds from t_{2g} orbitals. Also all levels placed below $2t_{2g}$ level are completely filled with electrons. As mentioned before the Ti $L_{3,2}$ lines are due to the transitions from the inner Ti $2p$ levels to the titanium $3d$ levels which the L_3 edge is due to transitions from $2p_{3/2}$ Ti level to the $2t_{2g}$ MO level and the peak b , which is due to transitions from the $2p_{3/2}$ Ti level to the $3e_g$ MO level [49] (the peak a and b [47] in Table 2). In Fig. 4 the peak a and b and also c and d reported in [47] can not be distinguished due to limited instrumental resolution, but the Ti L_3 and L_2 edge are observed at 458 and 463 eV, respectively for 1% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at 400 °C and at 461 and 466 eV for 5% Fe:TiO₂. (See

Table 2) which are in agreement to results in Ref. [47].

The O K edge consists two parts as reported [47]. The first part which is in the energy region between 529 eV and 535 eV (Peak labeled by A which is assigned to $O2p \rightarrow Ti 3d(t_{2g})$ and B to $O 2p \rightarrow Ti 3d(e_g)$ in Table 2 [47]) originated from transitions between oxygen $1s$ and $2p \sigma^*$ states that are hybridized with empty Ti $3d$ orbitals [50].

The second set of bands are due to transitions from oxygen $2p$ states that are hybridized with Ti $4s$ and $4p$ states [50] (presence of the peaks C, D, and E in Table 2).

A very small peak appeared in the Fe 5% doped TiO₂ annealed at 600 °C (and also at $T=400$ °C) at energy ~ 708 eV which is due to the L_3 absorption edge of Fe. As can be seen in Table 4 the energy position of EELS spectrum of our sample are in good agreement with energy

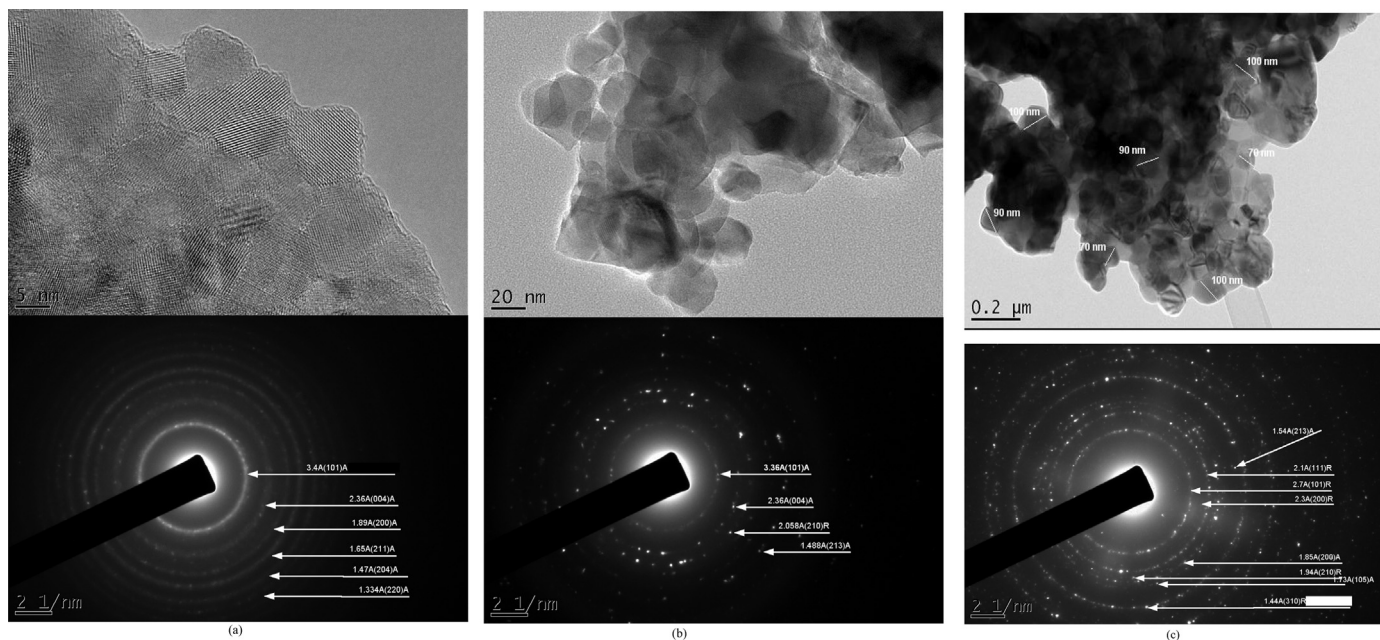


Fig. 3. HRTEM images of 5% Fe doped in TiO₂ annealed at (a) 400 °C, (b) 600 °C and (c) 800 °C.

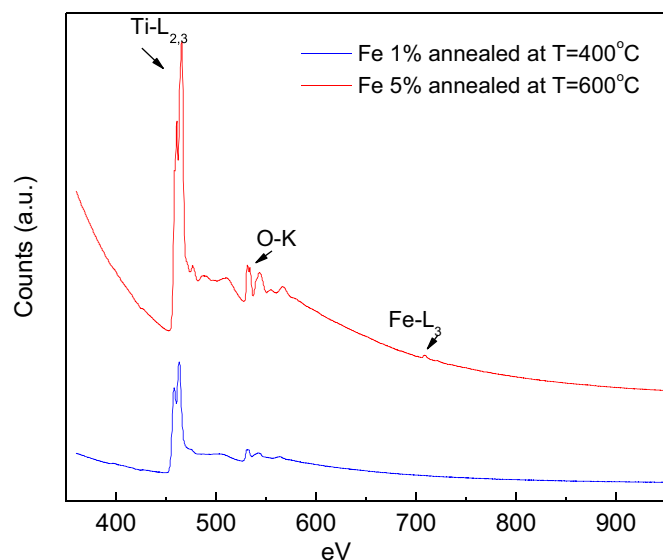


Fig. 4. EELS spectrum of 1% and 5% Fe doped TiO_2 annealed at 400 °C and 600 °C.

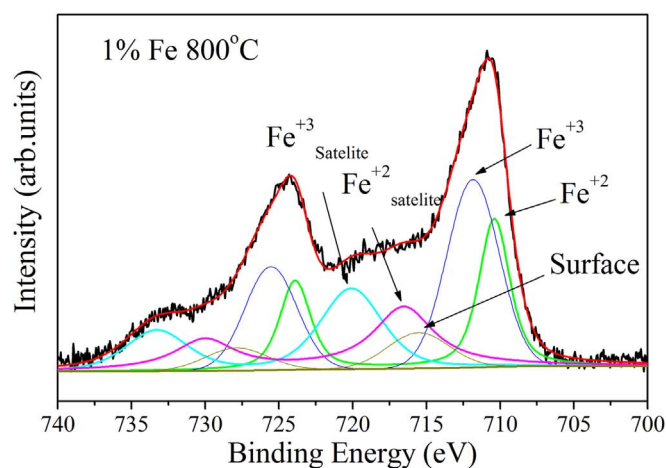
position reported by Stoyanov et al. [47] and references in there by considering the of energy resolution limitation in our studies.

The XPS spectra of Fe 2p of the 1% Fe and 5% Fe annealed at 800 °C are presented in Fig. 5. Curve fittings for these samples are based on a critical evaluation of the existing literatures and considering the multiplet splitting, surface and satellite structure contributions and the use of the doublet functions to fit Fe 2p spectra [51–54].

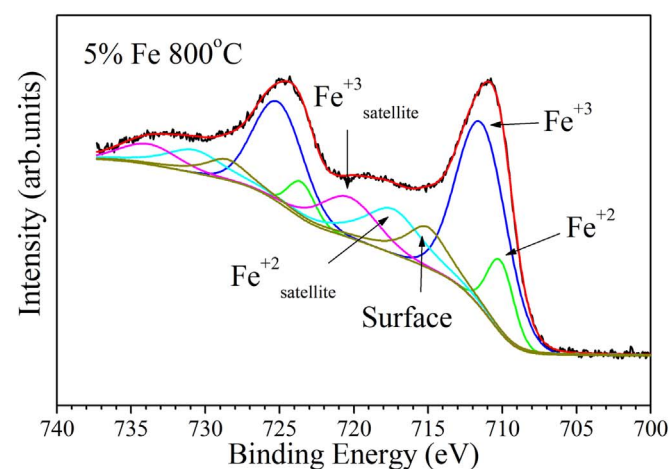
The Fe 2p spectrum of the 5% annealed at 400 °C was reported in our previous work [55]. As it can be seen in Fig. 5, the Fe ions are in mixed valence (Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+}) states, while at the surfaces of the nanoparticles, the Fe^{3+} ions are dominant. The observed spectra significantly different from the Fe 2p spectra of the metallic Fe in which the contribution of the metallic peaks in TiO_2 is at around 707 eV [56,57].

In Fe 2p spectra, the $2p_{3/2}$ peak exhibits an asymmetric tail at higher binding energy. This tail is assigned to the surface structures, which have different binding energies compared to that of the bulk structure [58]. The reason for this high-binding energy tail can be due to the decreased crystal field energy for the Fe-ions located at the surface (top two atomic layers) compared to those located within the bulk [59] (i.e. the coordination number for atoms in the surface is less than the number of atoms in the bulk). Therefore, the energy of the core levels of the surface atoms is different from that in the bulk. This is especially true in the case of high resolution XPS, as the volume contained in the first surface layer can be responsible for roughly half of the photoelectron signal, and even when the shift between the bulk and the surface is small it can be detected [60].

Fig. 6 present the Ti 2p of the 5% Fe annealed at different



(a)



(b)

Fig. 5. High resolution XPS core level and fittings of Fe 2p spectrum of the (a) 1% and (b) 5% Fe annealed at 800 °C.

temperature. The Ti 2p XPS peak position of the 1% and 5% are summarized in Table 3. It is noted that by increasing the annealing temperatures and the iron concentrations, the Ti 2p spectra of all Fe doped TiO_2 nanoparticle samples have small peak shifts to lower binding energy shift. The same trend was observed in the ferromagnetism study of doped and undoped TiO_2 by Santara et al. [56]. They attributed this negative shift to increasing amount of oxygen vacancy upon annealing and Fe^{3+} substitution to Ti^{4+} lattice site. In fact, by Fe^{3+} substitution to Ti^{4+} lattice site, additional oxygen vacancies are created to maintain the charge neutrality in the host TiO_2 crystal. These results are consistent with XRD data that show that by changing the calcination temperature and the iron concentration the crystal phase

Table 2

The Ti $L_{2,3}$ lines and O K-edge peak position observed in EELS spectrum and also from Ref. [47].

Sample	Ti $L_{2,3}$ edge peak position (eV)				O K-edge peak position (eV)				
	L_3		L_2		A	B	C	D	E
	a	b	c	d					
TiO_2 rutile [47]	458.3	460.0	~464	~466.3	531.1	533.7	~540.0	542.9	~545.6
TiO_2 anatase [47]	458.3	460.0	~464	~466.3	531.0	533.5	539.6	543.9	~545.3
	Ti $L_{2,3}$ edge peak position				O K-edge peak position				
	L_3		L_2						
1%Fe: TiO_2 T=400 °C	458		463		531	541			
5%Fe: TiO_2 T=600 °C	461		466		531	534	543	708	

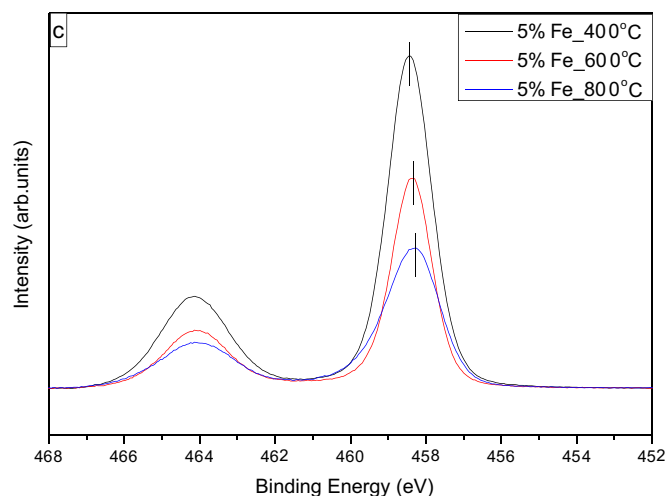


Fig. 6. High resolution XPS core level Ti 2p spectrum of 5%Fe doped TiO₂ calcined at 400 °C, 600 °C, and 800 °C.

Table 3

Binding energy (eV) for Ti 2p_{3/2} (with its spin-orbit splitting value) in 1%, and 5% Fe doped TiO₂ calcined at 400 °C, 600 °C, and 800 °C.

Iron concentration	Binding Energy (peak separation) (eV)		
	At 400 °C	At 600 °C	At 800 °C
1% Fe	458.7 (5.7)	458.5 (5.7)	458.1 (5.7)
5% Fe	458.4 (5.7)	458.4 (5.8)	458.3 (5.8)

and crystallite size are changed.

Fig. 7(A)–(D) shows the variation of magnetization as a function of external magnetic field H in the range 0–50 kOe for the 1% and 5% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at $T=400$ °C and 800 °C and the magnetic characterization were measured at 5 K.

At first glance it seems that the hysteresis loops measured at 5 K in Fig. 7 show the paramagnetic or superparamagnetic behavior of the material, but the enlarged hysteresis loops near the origin in insets of Fig. 7(A) and (B) (and also in Table 4), show that, when the applied field is reduced to zero, a small component of remanent magnetization still exists in these samples. A coercive field should be applied in order to have the zero magnetization. Since the soft magnets may have a hysteresis loop with a very small area, it may be concluded that the measured samples exhibit some evidence of ferromagnetic behavior.

The experimental M-H curves obtained at 5 K were fitted by utilizing the theory of the magnetism of the local moments:

$$M = NgJ\mu_B B_J(x)$$

in which N , g , J , and μ_B are the number of magnetic ions per gram, the Lande factor, total quantum number, and the Bohr magneton, respectively. $B_J(x)$ is the Brillouin function, where $x = gJ\mu_B H/k_B T$. The results were shown in Fig. 7(C) and (D) and, in the case of the 1% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=400$ °C, a good description of the data is obtained with the local moment Brillouin function and an effective magnetic moment of $\sim 4.9 \mu_B$ being obtained. Such a value is very close to the $5 \mu_B$ expected for isolated paramagnetic Fe³⁺ ions. Similar fits to the M-H curves of 1% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at 800 °C and 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=400$ °C were less successful but yielded effective magnetic moments of ~ 2.9 , $3.2 \mu_B$ respectively. The field-dependent magnetization curve of the 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=800$ °C had the poorest agreement with the isolated paramagnetic ion model, the fitted effective magnetic moment of $\sim 1.1 \mu_B$ not correctly describing the nature of this material.

The magnetization versus field plot measured at room temperature has been illustrated in Fig. 8. The magnetization data of the 5% Fe:TiO₂, annealed at 800 °C, recorded at 5 K and 300 K, were plotted

as function of H/T as shown in Fig. 9. The enlargement of the hysteresis loop near the origin in the inset of Fig. 9 represent that there is still a big coercivity field ~ 370 Oe (see also Table 4) at room temperature. Also, the fact that the magnetization data at two different temperatures do not appear to overlap on the H/T plot suggests the simple model of non-interacting paramagnetic or superparamagnetic magnetic system is not applicable to 5% Fe:TiO₂, annealed at 800 °C. Also, it can be observed that the value of the magnetization is reduced at higher annealing temperature ($T=800$ °C) compared to the annealing at $T=400$ °C.

Temperature dependence of magnetization was measured from 5 to 350 K in regimes zero-field-cooled (ZFC) and field-cooled (FC) in applied dc field of 25 Oe.

The ZFC and FC curves of 1% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at $T=600$ °C and 800 °C have been shown in Fig. 10(a) and (b) (inset). While the FC curve of the sample annealed at $T=600$ °C almost has coincided to ZFC curve for this sample, post-annealing at 800 °C (Fig. 10(b)) leads to slight divergence of the FC and ZFC curves. The same behavior was observed for the ZFC and FC curves of the 5% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at $T=600$ °C (Fig. 10(c) (inset)). The ZFC and FC curves of this sample deviate around 350 K. Akdogan et al. [61] observed almost the same feature in the ZFC and FC curves of the low doses of Co-implanted TiO₂ rutile and they attributed this rather unusual behavior to the coexistence of a weak ferromagnetic and a superparamagnetic phase.

The prepared 5% Fe doped TiO₂ and annealed at $T=800$ °C exhibited a steady drop in magnetic moment with increase in temperature, indicating magnetic order (Fig. 10(d)). These results can be explained by the fact that the precipitates become larger at higher post-annealing temperature [62]. As it can be seen the ZFC and FC curves of this sample are close together. Akdogan et al. [61] attributed this progression to the dominance of ferromagnetic phase in this sample.

It can be seen that all of the samples have additional paramagnetic components at low temperatures in which magnetization curves rapidly increases with decreasing temperature showing the paramagnetic behavior (Fig. 10), with a $1/T$ -like temperature dependence. It has been suggested by Shimizu et al. [28] that in these cases the two phases with the same crystal structure may be mixed.

As a result, it is considered that the magnetization does not saturate even at 5 K because of a considerable high field magnetic susceptibility and as it was mentioned before, this behavior as well as the increasing behavior of magnetization at low temperatures reveals that there may be paramagnetic component coexisting with ferromagnetic phase [28]. It is also interesting if one compares the magnetization of these samples to those reported recently by Melghit et al. [24]. They could achieved a maximum of magnetization of the sample at 12 kOe about 0.00015 (emu/g) at room temperature while the 5% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at $T=800$ °C has shown the magnetization of about 0.02 (emu/g) with the same parameters (field=12 kOe and room temperature).

In order to investigate the interactions among the Fe moments we have plotted the $(M/H)^{-1}$ or reciprocal of the susceptibility against temperature by using the data obtained in FC curves (see Fig. 11(a)–(d)). The linear, high temperature, fit curve illustrates the deviations from the Curie-Weiss law at lower temperatures. Extrapolation of the linear fits to zero achieved at about -55 , -233 , and -250 K for the 1% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=400$ and 800 °C and 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=600$ °C, respectively. The negative values of the Curie-Weiss temperature, θ , is an indication of the antiferromagnetic behavior of the interactions between the magnetic entities which its strength increases with the doping level as it was observed in [22], and also as the post annealing temperature is increased.

The fact that the samples of 1% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=400$ and 800 °C and 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at $T=600$ °C exhibit a $(M/H)^{-1}$ response which approaches zero at $T=0$ K, suggests that there is a component of the magnetic response that is following Curies law at the lowest temperatures, i.e. there is a non-interacting paramagnetic

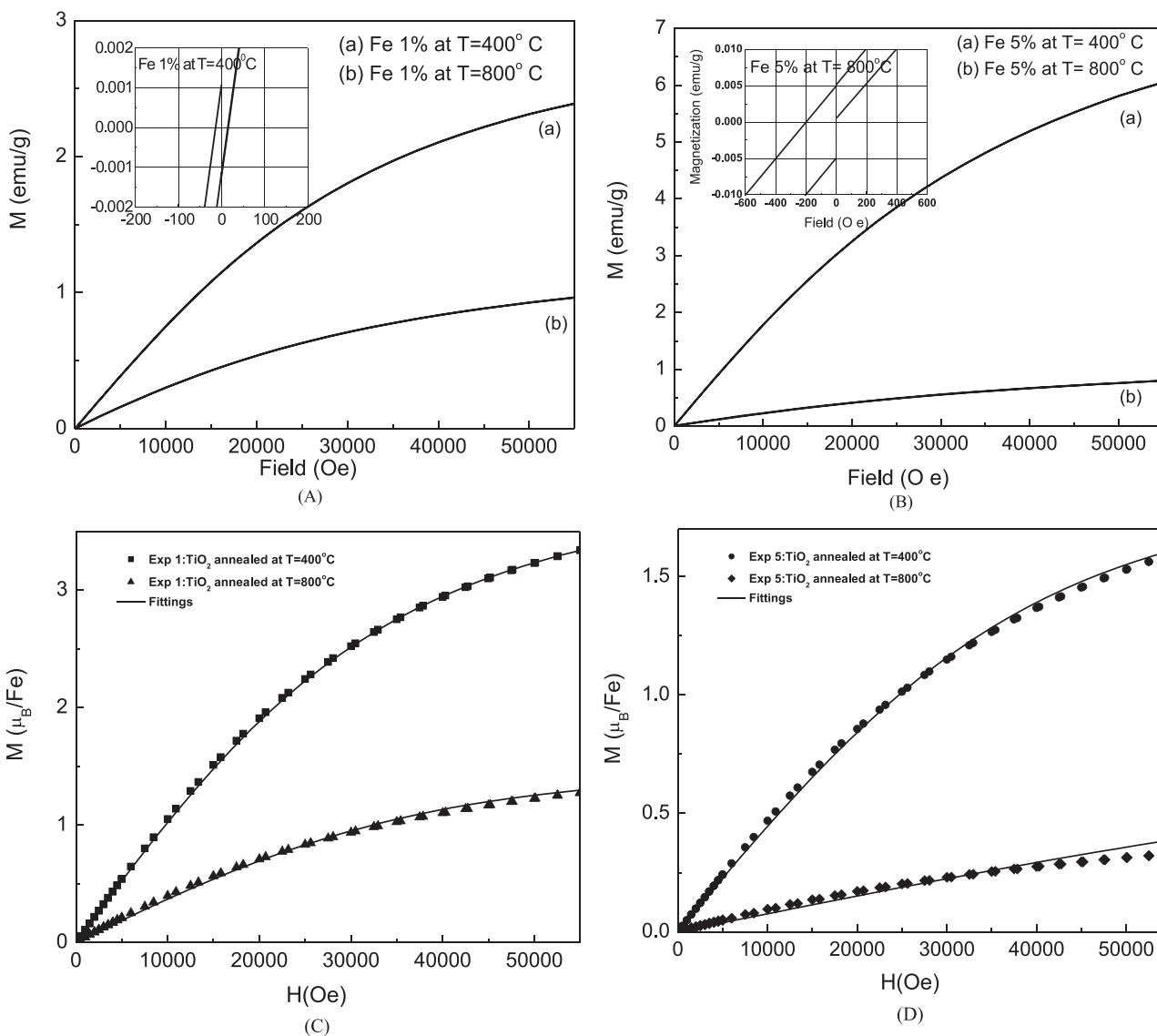


Fig. 7. Hysteresis loop of the (A) 1% and (B) 5% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at 400 °C and 800 °C. (C) and (D) M-H curves of the samples at 5 K. (Scatters show the experimental results and solid lines are the result of fitting as described in the text).

Table 4

The coercivity field and the remanence magnetization of the samples.

Impurity concentration	Annealed Temperature (°C)	T (K)	Coercivity field (Oe)	Remanence magnetization (emu/g)
Fe 1%	400	5	14	0.001
Fe 5%	800	5	200	0.005
Fe 5%	800	RT	370	0.0006

contribution. Note that the 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at T=800 °C shows a different magnetic character (see Fig. 10d), and is indicative of the existence of a ferromagnetic component with T_C > 350 K. A fit to the data is shown in Fig. 12 where it is assumed that an onset of ferromagnetic magnetic order can be described by a critical form and a Curie-Weiss function is used to describe the paramagnetic response observed at lower temperatures. In this case we obtain θ=0 K demonstrating that a non-interacting paramagnetic contribution dominates the low field/low temperature magnetic properties similar to the other samples investigated.

The origin of room temperature ferromagnetism (RTM) in TiO₂-based DMS is not clear and whether this behavior is an extrinsic i.e.

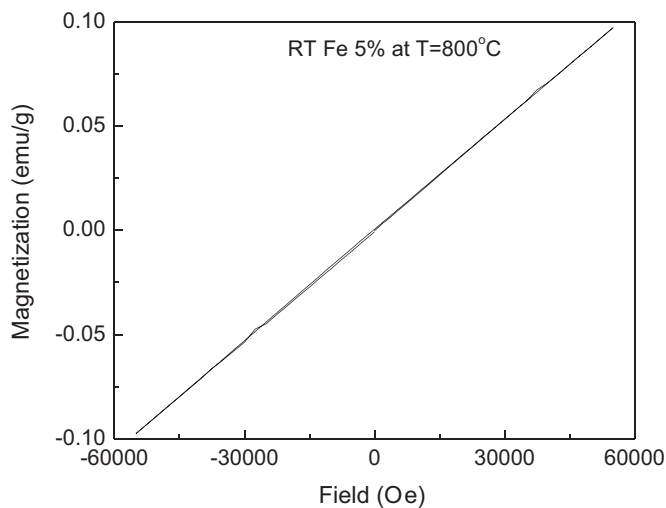


Fig. 8. Magnetization of 5% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at 800 °C at room temperature.

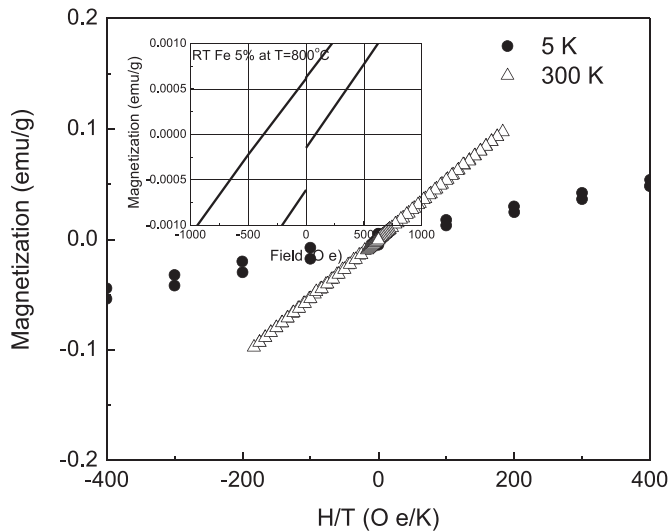


Fig. 9. Comparison of the magnetization measured at 5 and 300 K against H/T for 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at 800 °C. The inset of the figure shows the enlargement of hysteresis loops of this sample measured at 300 K near the origin.

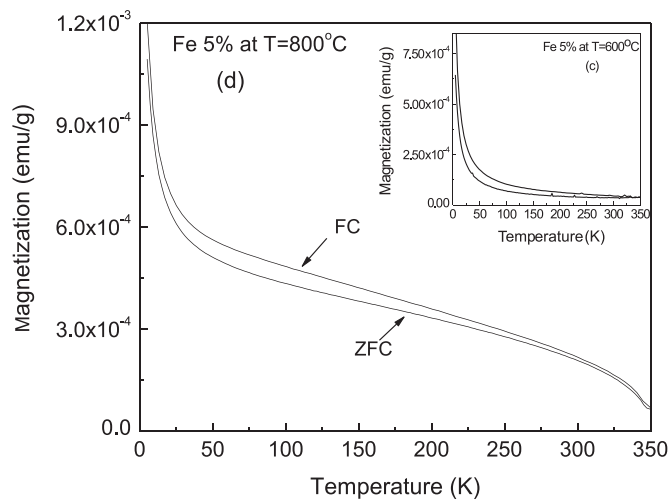
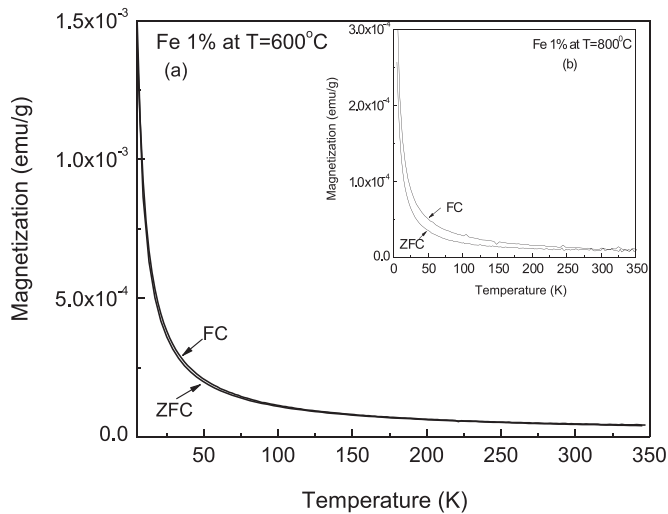


Fig. 10. FC and ZFC magnetization curves of Fe dope TiO₂.

caused by direct interaction between the local moments in magnetic impurity clusters or is an intrinsic due to exchange coupling between the spin of the carriers and the local magnetism is still debated.

In present work, we will not entirely rule out the possibility of the

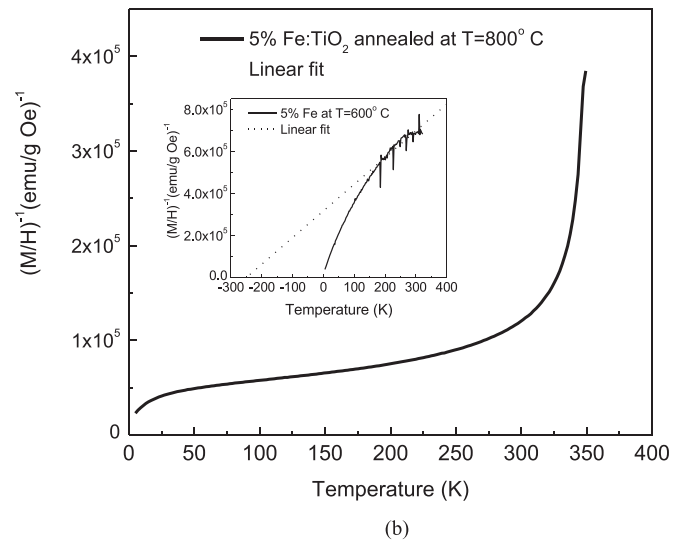
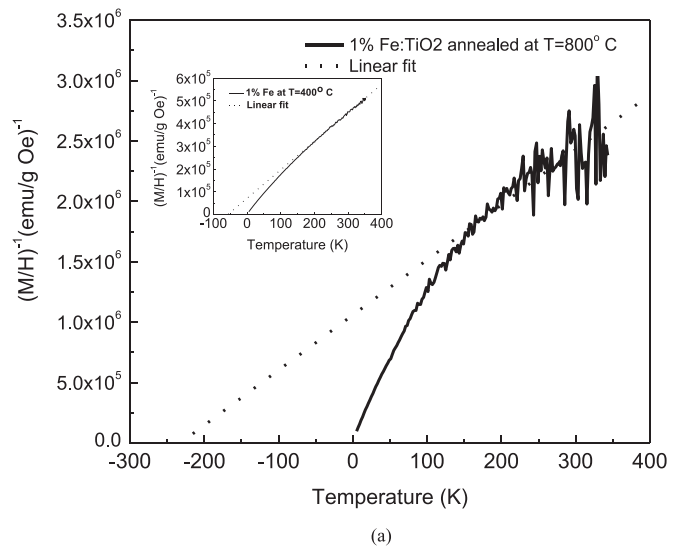


Fig. 11. $(M/H)^{-1}$ curves of the samples and the linear fits.

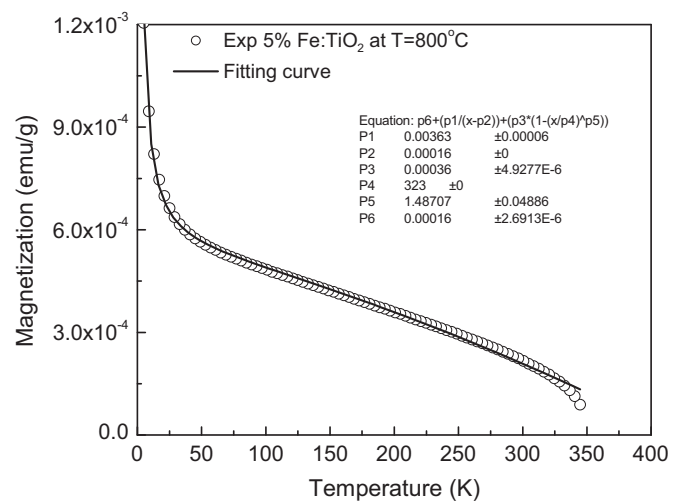


Fig. 12. Magnetization of 5% Fe doped TiO₂ annealed at 800 °C against temperature (hollow circles) and the fitted curve (solid line).

existence of ferromagnetic clusters or impurities in the doped TiO₂ lattice. However, the observation of the RTFM in the undoped TiO₂ system can verify the role of defects in FM ordering in TiO₂

nanostructures [63,64]. Santara et al. [56,65] illustrated the role of large concentration of oxygen vacancies for the observed RTFM in doped and undoped TiO₂ nanoribbons.

From the literatures, the observed ferromagnetism in Fe-doped TiO₂ is attributed to the existence of several possible mechanisms such as double exchange and super exchange coupling [66], Ruderman-Kittel-Kasuya-Yoshida (RKKY) [67] and coupling of bound magnetic polarons (BMPs) [68], etc. While the dominant mechanism is still unclear, but it can be seen that the defects, carriers and/or their coupling play the vital role in all these models.

Chen et al. [66] predicted that oxygen vacancy enhances ferromagnetism in the Fe doped TiO₂ through a shallow impurity state of a nearest-neighbor Fe–oxygen vacancy complex or by the capture of vacancy electrons by the Fe atoms and consequent enhancement of the FM double exchange. Coey et al. [68] proposed the observed ferromagnetic behavior in terms of bound magnetic polaron (BMP). The BMP can be created by the influence of columbic interaction of paramagnetic oxygen vacancies with single electron (F⁺ center) and the Fe³⁺ because of doping. In BMP model, the d-orbital of Fe³⁺ falls within the radius of F⁺ center and consequently, the magnetic spins interact with the donor spins. All the dopant ions within the polaronic radius interact ferromagnetically and the overlap of several BMPs can create the long-range ferromagnetism.

The coupling between the two Fe³⁺ dopant spins through the oxygen vacancy with the trapped electron (F⁺ center) leads to long-range FM ordering known as F-center exchange coupling. When one of the Fe³⁺ is far away from the oxygen vacancy, then antiferromagnetic interaction possibly occur by the existence of oxygen vacancies with two trapped electrons having 1s² configuration [68].

Santara et al. [56] pointed that the concentration of the dopant, the distribution of the dopant within the host lattice and energy level of the of the dopant can affect FM in Fe:TiO₂. The observed FM in Fe:TiO₂ samples were attributed most likely due to the exchange interaction between 3 d⁵ spins of Fe³⁺ and the 1s¹ spin of the F⁺-center.

Therefore, it can be concluded that both oxygen vacancy and Fe dopant and their charge distribution within the TiO₂ lattice play an important role in increasing the FM ordering and enhancement of FM in Fe:TiO₂ nanostructures.

4. Conclusions

As a result, several features of magnetic properties of Fe:TiO₂ can be seen. At low doping level of 1% Fe, the magnetic ions are further apart from each other and are leading to a weaker interaction. The magnetic moment of free Fe³⁺ is evaluated about 5.9 μ_B, while the magnetic moment of the 1% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at T=400 °C is about 4.9 μ_B. Also the lower magnetization values for 5% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at T=400 °C and 1% Fe:TiO₂ annealed at T=800 °C (3.2, and 2.9 μ_B) with respect to free Fe³⁺ ions is evaluated which reveals that spin correlations becomes prominent [22]. Observation of RTFM in the doped and undoped TiO₂ by Santara et al. [56] demonstrated the role of defects in FM ordering in TiO₂ nanostructures and shows that the oxygen vacancy mediates ferromagnetic (FM) interaction.

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