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# **Plasmonic gold-embedded TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films as photocatalytic self-cleaning coatings**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Transparent photocatalytic TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films hold great potential in the development of self-cleaning  
3 glass surfaces, but suffer from a poor visible light response that hinders the application under actual  
4 sunlight. To alleviate this problem, the photocatalytic film can be modified with plasmonic  
5 nanoparticles that interact very effectively with visible light. Since the plasmonic effect is strongly  
6 concentrated in the near surroundings of the nanoparticle surface, an approach is presented to embed  
7 the plasmonic nanostructures in the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix itself, rather than deposit them loosely on the surface.  
8 This way the interaction interface is maximised and the plasmonic effect can be fully exploited. In this  
9 study, pre-fabricated gold nanoparticles are made compatible with the organic medium of a TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-  
10 gel coating suspension, resulting in a one-pot coating suspension. After spin coating, homogeneous,  
11 smooth, highly transparent and photoactive gold-embedded anatase thin films are obtained.

12

13 *Keywords: Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR), photocatalysis, titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>), thin film, self-*  
14 *cleaning, gold, nanoparticles, stearic acid, water contact angle*

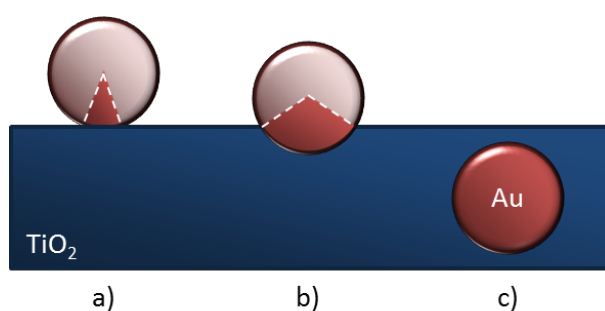
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## 1. Introduction

When TiO<sub>2</sub> is used in self-cleaning applications, it is usually deposited as a thin film that is capable of removing pollutants from the surface using (sun)light. The film thickness typically ranges from a few nanometres to several micrometres.[1–3] TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films can be deposited by a wide variety of methods, ranging from target sputtering over sol-gel deposition, thermal methods, vapour deposition techniques (PVD/CVD/ALD), anodic oxidation and plasma-assisted deposition processes.[4–11] In this work, the sol-gel method is selected because it is straightforward, affordable and it can be applied directly onto a wide variety of substrates using easy and low-cost techniques such as spin or dip coating.[3] Furthermore, this simple yet versatile sol-gel process is an ideal method to obtain thin film coatings of high transparency, which is a crucial parameter when applying self-cleaning films onto glass surfaces. One of the main constraints of photocatalytic self-cleaning materials on the market, is their limited solar-light response. Photocatalytic films based on unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> as the active ingredient are only activated by the UV-component of solar light, and thus only ca. 4-5% of the incident solar light spectrum is actually used effectively. [12,13]

To further improve the photocatalytic self-cleaning activity under solar light, we propose to modify the films by plasmonic nanoparticles embedded in the active layer. Surface plasmon resonance (SPR) is induced by incidence of photons of a resonant wavelength, which results in the collective oscillation of free electrons in the conduction band. This unique optical property of (noble) metal nanoparticles allows the concentration and manipulation of light at the nanoscale, which has resulted in different applications such as sensors, energy production, surface enhanced Raman spectroscopy and photocatalytic environmental remediation. [12,14] In contrast to traditional methods, where modification with plasmonic nanoparticles occurs by simply mixing, depositing or (photo-) impregnating them on the surface of the photocatalyst in a *multi*-step process,[15–22] here, the nanoparticles are first stabilised and mixed with the titanium precursor sol. Hence, this procedure provides a ‘one-pot’ coating suspension that can be readily applied. This is expected to facilitate a

1 homogeneous dispersion and stable embedment of the plasmonic nanoparticles throughout the  
2 resulting TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix. The additional advantage of fully embedding the nanoparticles into the  
3 photocatalytic TiO<sub>2</sub> film can be rationalised as follows: (i) under UV light irradiation electron-hole pairs  
4 are generated in the TiO<sub>2</sub> semiconductor, while the metal nanoparticles solely act as passive electron  
5 sinks, resulting in less recombination events.[23] (ii) On the other hand, previous research has also  
6 shown that for Au/TiO<sub>2</sub> composites under visible light illumination, direct “hot electron” injection from  
7 the excited plasmonic nanoparticles into the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> plays an important role,[24,25]  
8 as well as an increase of the electromagnetic near-field within a 3 nm radius surrounding the plasmonic  
9 nanoparticle, as investigated by Asapu *et al.*[26,27] Regardless of the excitation wavelength,  
10 maximising the direct contact interface between the nanoparticle and the semiconductor is of  
11 paramount importance for both of these electron and energy transfer processes. As a consequence,  
12 by partially or fully embedding the nanoparticles in the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix, the contact interface is increased  
13 substantially and may lead to considerably higher photocatalytic activities (Figure 1).[28,29] In  
14 addition, partially or fully embedding the nanoparticles in a rigid matrix is hypothesised to protect  
15 them from chemical corrosion, reshaping, agglomeration and detachment during post-treatment or  
16 photocatalytic testing, thereby adding to the stability of the entire composite system.[30,31]



17  
18 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the interfacial area through which charge transfer between the metallic nanoparticle  
19 and semiconductor can take place when (a) the nanoparticle is atop the semiconductor, (b) partially embedded and (c) fully  
20 embedded in the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix.

1 A vast amount of literature can be found on several synthesis procedures enabling the preparation  
2 of nanoparticles of different compositions, shapes and sizes, whether or not functionalised with  
3 specific ligands. In the proposed approach, the plasmonic metal nanoparticles are first prepared  
4 separately after which they are introduced in the sol-gel precursor solution (“*ex-situ*” method). This  
5 entails several advantages over an “*in-situ*” approach, where a metal salt precursor and TiO<sub>2</sub> precursor  
6 are mixed, simultaneously forming metal nanoparticles and TiO<sub>2</sub>. [32–35] In other words, the *ex-situ*  
7 method enables much more accurate and precise control over the nanoparticle properties, tailored to  
8 the envisaged application. [36] *In-situ* synthesis procedures on the other hand only enable limited  
9 control over the nucleation process and final nanoparticle size and shape. [33] The only difficulty that  
10 lies in the proposed strategy is that the plasmonic metal nanoparticles (typically prepared in an  
11 aqueous medium) have to be made compatible with the titania precursor coating sol (typically organic  
12 solvent based). One possible solution to this problem is proposed by Sonawane et al. [37] It involves  
13 complete condensation of a Ti-alkoxide precursor followed by re-dissolution in aqueous hydrogen  
14 peroxide to render it compatible with the aqueous nanoparticle colloids. In our work, the use of such  
15 harsh conditions is avoided by achieving the opposite: adapting the colloids to the coating sol. A similar  
16 strategy has been investigated by the group of Mulvaney, with the eye on gas-sensing applications. [33]  
17 The metal loadings used in that particular study are, however, quite high (ranging from 4 to 8 wt%)  
18 and no photocatalytic activity data have been collected. In the present work, thin TiO<sub>2</sub> films are  
19 modified with gold nanoparticles up to 3 wt% loading. The resulting effect on transparency is evaluated  
20 and the photocatalytic activity is measured by means of stearic acid degradation under simulated solar  
21 light, with the eye on real outdoor applications. This is a widely recognised model reaction as stearic  
22 acid is a representative of the group of organic fouling compounds that typically contaminate glass  
23 surfaces. [1,5,38] This study thus goes beyond the state-of-the-art of (photocatalytic) self-cleaning  
24 surfaces in that sense that currently commercially available photocatalytic self-cleaning materials can  
25 only utilise the UV-component of solar light. The goal is to expand the activity window towards the

1 entire solar spectrum. This would not only increase the efficiency for outdoor use, but could also  
2 enable the use of such surfaces under artificial (indoor) light.

## 3 **2. Methodology**

### 4 ***PVP stabilised gold nanoparticle synthesis***

5 Aqueous colloidal suspensions of Au nanoparticles were prepared using a modified Turkevich  
6 procedure [39] as described previously [20,40], but in a ten times higher concentration. In short, 10 mL  
7 of a 0.01 M H<sub>2</sub>AuCl<sub>4</sub>·3H<sub>2</sub>O (Sigma-Aldrich, >99.9%) was diluted so a total metal concentration of 1 mM  
8 was obtained in the final reaction volume. The solution was stirred vigorously and brought to boil after  
9 which 10 mL of a freshly prepared 1 wt% sodium citrate (Sigma-Aldrich, 99%) solution that acts as both  
10 the stabiliser and the reducing agent, was quickly added. After exactly 30 minutes of boiling, the  
11 resulting colloidal Au suspension was immediately cooled to room temperature.

12 A phase transfer of the nanoparticles from the aqueous phase to the organic phase is achieved  
13 by exchanging the sodium citrate with PVP (polyvinylpyrrolidone, Alfa Aesar, 10000 g mol<sup>-1</sup>). PVP was  
14 dissolved in water by ultrasonication (45 kHz) for 15 minutes. An appropriate amount of the PVP  
15 solution (2.5 mM) was added to the colloidal Au suspension so that 60 PVP molecules were provided  
16 per nm<sup>2</sup> nanoparticle surface. The solution was stirred at 600 rpm for 24 h at room temperature to  
17 ensure complete exchange of the stabilising agent.[41] The resulting PVP stabilised Au nanoparticles  
18 were finally centrifuged at 9000 rpm for 20 minutes, washed and re-suspended in absolute ethanol  
19 (Emplura, 99.5%). UV-VIS absorption spectra of the colloidal Au nanoparticle solutions were measured  
20 with a Shimadzu UV-VIS 2600 double beam spectrometer.

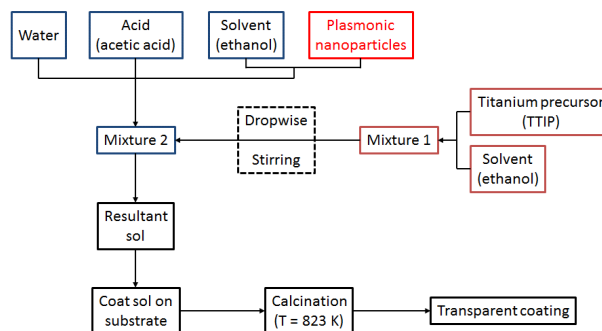
### 21 ***Preparation of plasmon modified thin films***

22 For the substrate preparation, low p-doped silicon wafers (15 mm x 30 mm) were cleaned  
23 ultrasonically in methanol and blown dry with compressed air. Borosilicate glass was used as glass

1 substrates (15 mm x 30 mm, Borofloat® 33) after cleaning for 15 min at room temperature in fresh  
2 piranha solution (7:3 v/v sulfuric acid (Chem-Lab, 95-97%):hydrogen peroxide (Chem-Lab, 30%)) and  
3 rinsing three times with bi-distilled water. The cleaned glass slides were stored in bi-distilled water and  
4 blown dry with compressed air just before spin-coating.

5           The (modified) titania sols were prepared by the hydrolysis of titanium(IV)isopropoxide (TTIP,  
6 Sigma-Aldrich, 97%) in the presence of acetic acid (Riedel-de Haën, 96%). A solution of TTIP and ethanol  
7 (0.05:1.64 molar ratio) (henceforth referred to as Mixture 1) was added dropwise (average drop  
8 volume  $0.021 \pm 0.005$  mL over 200 s) to a solution containing water, ethanol and acetic acid  
9 (1.07:1.31:0.34 molar ratio) (referred to as Mixture 2) under vigorous stirring. In the case of Au/TiO<sub>2</sub>  
10 thin film preparation, the ethanol part of Mixture 2 was replaced by a concentrated dispersion  
11 containing appropriate amounts of gold nanoparticles in ethanol. The exact concentration of the added  
12 Au NPs colloidal suspension was determined quantitatively using Spectroquant® analysis (NOVA 60,  
13 Merck) using a standard gold test kit (114 821). This way, sols were prepared with a nominal and actual  
14 gold loading of 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1 and 3 wt% (calculated and measured relative to the total amount of  
15 TiO<sub>2</sub>). The viscosity change of the formed sol was monitored with a Brookfield LVDV-I prime Digital  
16 Viscometer operated at a spindle speed of 12 rpm, to ensure all samples were spin coated at the same  
17 viscosity. Film deposition was achieved by spin coating both the glass and silicon substrates at 1000  
18 rpm for one minute at room temperature. Finally, the samples were calcined at 823 K for three hours  
19 at a heating rate of  $1 \text{ K min}^{-1}$ . The overall synthesis procedure is schematised in Figure 2.





1

2 **Figure 2.** Schematic representation of the used ex-situ synthesis procedure (nanoparticle synthesis is separated from sol-gel  
3 process) to obtain plasmon modified transparent thin films.

4 To evaluate the proposed procedure, it was compared with Sonawane’s sol-gel procedure. The sol-  
5 gels were prepared as reported by Sonawane *et al.* [32]. For the plasmon modified sol-gels,  
6 prefabricated non-PVP exchanged Au nanoparticles were used. Once the sol-gel had aged to the right  
7 viscosity, it was spin-coated onto clean silicon wafers and borosilicate substrates as previously  
8 described.

9 ***Characterisation of plasmon modified thin films***

10 Film thickness of the samples was measured using a J.A. Woollam M-2000 spectroscopic  
11 ellipsometer working in the UV-VIS spectrum. The data were fitted using the standard Cauchy  
12 model with CompleteEASE software. The optical model consisted of a substrate with the titania  
13 coating on top, parametrised with the Cauchy dispersion relation to fit the film thicknesses.

14 To confirm the crystal structure of TiO<sub>2</sub> formed during calcination, X-ray diffraction (XRD)  
15 patterns were measured with a Cu-tube (IuS-Cu<sup>HB</sup>, Incoatec) with a potential of 50 kV, a current of  
16 1 mA and a 2D detector (PILATUS200K, Dectris). The averaged signal comes from the titania  
17 coating scraped off a silicon wafer, measured for 38 min.

18 A Shimadzu UV-VIS 2501PC double beam spectrophotometer was used to measure the UV-VIS  
19 absorption spectra of the calcined titania films with different weight loadings of gold.

1 The transparency of the coatings was evaluated by measuring the loss in total integrated  
2 transmittance of combined simulated solar light (300 W Xe source (Oriel Instruments) equipped with  
3 an AM1.5 solar simulator, incident intensity of  $100 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ ) passing through the coated films and  
4 comparing this to unmodified Borofloat<sup>®</sup> as well as a commercial benchmark PilkingtonActiv<sup>™</sup>. The  
5 total integrated transmittance was measured directly at the sample with a calibrated Intensity  
6 spectrometer (Avantes Avaspec 3648).

7 The smoothness of the thin films on Borofloat<sup>®</sup> was verified by Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)  
8 using a Bruker Dimension Edge system and compared to uncoated Borofloat<sup>®</sup> as well as a commercial  
9 benchmark PilkingtonActiv<sup>™</sup>.

10 Original surfaces and in liquid nitrogen cryofractured cross-sections of Borofloat<sup>®</sup> samples were  
11 analysed by a Field Emission Gun – Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope (FEG-ESEM) equipped  
12 with an Energy Dispersive X-Ray (EDX) detector (FEI Quanta 250), using an accelerating voltage of 10-  
13 20 kV. All samples were coated with 20 nm of carbon prior to SEM-EDX analysis. A beam current of  
14  $\sim 0.5 \text{ nA}$  was used for the acquisition of backscattered electron (BE) images as well as EDX line scans.  
15 All EDX data analyses were performed by using the Aztec software package (Oxford Instruments).

16 The  $\text{TiO}_2$  film with embedded Au NPs was also spin-coated onto a Mo transmission electron  
17 microscopy (TEM) grid with a carbon film that underwent the same procedure as the other sol-gel  
18 coated substrates. An FEI Osiris electron microscope in the scanning transmission electron microscopy  
19 (STEM) mode was employed to image the sample using a high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF)  
20 detector at 200 kV. A Fischione tomography holder (model 2020) with a tilt range of  $\pm 79.5^\circ$  was used  
21 to tilt the  $\text{TiO}_2$  film allowing the observation of the cross-section and even underneath the film.

22 Water contact angle measurements with an Ossila contact angle goniometer and accompanying  
23 Ossila Contact Angle Measurement Software provided data on the wettability of the coatings. The  
24 angle of a drop of  $4 \mu\text{L}$  deionised water was recorded at 5 frames per second for 15 seconds of which

1 the last 2 seconds were used to analyse and average the equilibrated water contact angle. To study  
2 light-induced effects on hydrophilicity, these measurements were repeated under UVA irradiation  
3 ( $\lambda_{\max} = 350$  nm, provided by a fluorescent lamp, Philips Cleo 25 W, incident intensity of  $6.9 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ ).

#### 4 ***Evaluation of the self-cleaning activity***

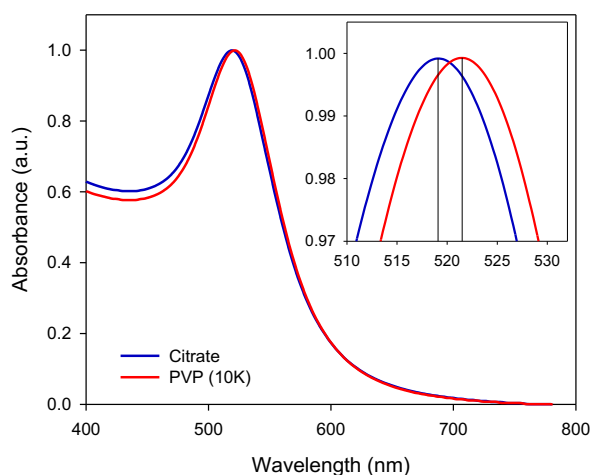
5 The photocatalytic self-cleaning test was conducted by means of a stearic acid degradation  
6 experiment, based on the method proposed by Paz *et al.*[1] In short, a layer of stearic acid was applied  
7 on top of the prepared thin films on the silicon wafers by spin coating  $100 \mu\text{L}$  of a  $0.25 \text{ wt}\%$  solution of  
8 stearic acid (Sigma-Aldrich,  $>98.5\%$ ) in chloroform (Sigma-Aldrich,  $>99.8\%$ ) at  $1000 \text{ rpm}$  for one minute.  
9 The resulting sample was dried at  $363 \text{ K}$  and subsequently allowed to equilibrate in the test  
10 environment for one hour. During the photocatalytic experiments, the samples were illuminated with:  
11 combined simulated solar light ( $300 \text{ W Xe}$  source (Oriel Instruments) equipped with an AM1.5 solar  
12 simulator, incident intensity of  $100 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ ) or UVA light ( $\lambda_{\max} = 350$  nm, provided by a fluorescent  
13 lamp, Philips Cleo 25 W, incident intensity of  $6.9 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ ). The corresponding irradiance spectra are  
14 given in Supporting Information Figure S1. Incident light intensity, photon fluxes and transmission  
15 measurements were performed with a calibrated intensity spectrometer (Avantes Avaspec 3648). The  
16 remaining surface coverage of stearic acid was measured using a Nicolet™ 380 (Thermo Fisher  
17 Scientific) FTIR spectrophotometer equipped with ZnSe windows. All spectra were recorded in the  
18 wavenumber range  $400\text{-}4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at a resolution of  $2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . For each measurement, eight spectra were  
19 averaged. The samples were placed at a fixed angle of  $9^\circ$  with the IR beam in order to minimise internal  
20 reflections. The stearic acid concentration is related to the integrated absorbance in the wavenumber  
21 range  $2800\text{-}3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , so that one unit of integrated area (in  $\text{a.u. cm}^{-1}$ ) corresponds to  $1.39 \times 10^{16}$   
22 stearic acid molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  as determined by a pre-established calibration curve ( $R^2 = 0.99$ ).[20] The  
23 initial stearic acid concentration in the experiments was typically around  $9 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ .

24

### 1        3. Results and Discussion

#### 2        PVP stabilised gold nanoparticles

3        Concentrated, aqueous gold suspensions were prepared based on the Turkevich method. The  
4        resulting colloidal solutions were dark red and showed a similar UV-VIS absorption spectrum to the  
5        100% Au suspensions described in earlier work, indicating that increasing the concentration has no  
6        effect on the final nanoparticle properties.[20,40] Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) confirmed  
7        that Au nanoparticles with a mean diameter of  $(16 \pm 4)$  nm are obtained with this method (Figure S4).  
8        An important step in the synthesis procedure described in Figure 2 is the proper stabilisation of the  
9        nanoparticles, so they can be used at high concentrations in an organic solvent. Sodium citrate only  
10       weakly stabilises the nanoparticles causing them to agglomerate in the presence of an organic solvent,  
11       thus a phase transfer step is required.[41–43] To achieve this, the sodium citrate was exchanged with  
12       PVP, as PVP stabilised nanoparticles are considerably more stable in organic media.[42,43] The effect  
13       of this exchange on the UV-VIS absorption spectrum can be observed in Figure 3. After ligand exchange,  
14       a small red shift of the plasmon peak is detected. This is in line with results obtained by Bastús *et al.*,  
15       who observed a similar red shift after ligand exchange with various surfactants.[44] This shift is  
16       ascribed to an increase in the hydrodynamic diameter (*i.e.* including coating material and solvation  
17       layer), caused by capping the nanoparticles with a bigger, bulky molecule like PVP.

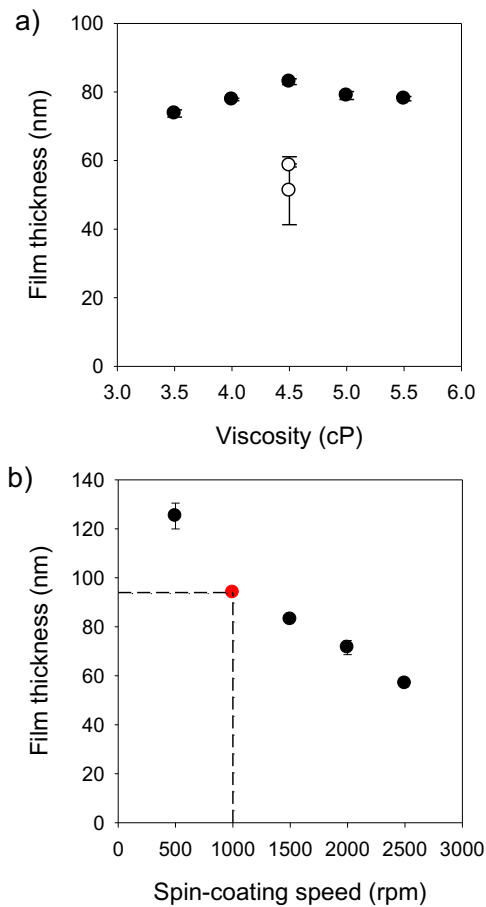


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2 **Figure 3.** Normalised UV-VIS absorption spectra of the colloidal gold nanoparticle suspensions before (blue curve) and after  
 3 (red curve) ligand exchange. In the inset, a small red shift of the absorption peak is apparent.

#### 4 **Coating characteristics**

5 The PVP stabilised nanoparticles were dispersed in ethanol and added to Mixture 2 to be  
 6 incorporated into the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix during the sol-gel process (Figure 2). Thin films were deposited on  
 7 both silicon wafers and glass substrates by spin-coating the resulting sols at the same viscosity.  
 8 Moderate variations in the coating sol viscosity show a negligible effect on the resulting film thickness  
 9 that was determined by means of ellipsometry and amounted to  $(78 \pm 3)$  nm on silicon wafers and  $(55$   
 10  $\pm 5)$  nm on glass substrates when spin coated at a spinning speed of 1500 rpm (Figure 4a). Altering the  
 11 spinning speed, on the other hand, obviously affects the resulting film thickness to a large extent  
 12 (Figure 4b). Based on these results, a spin-coating speed of 1000 rpm was selected for the plasmon  
 13 modified thin films, resulting in a layer thickness of 94 nm (Figure 4b, red circle).



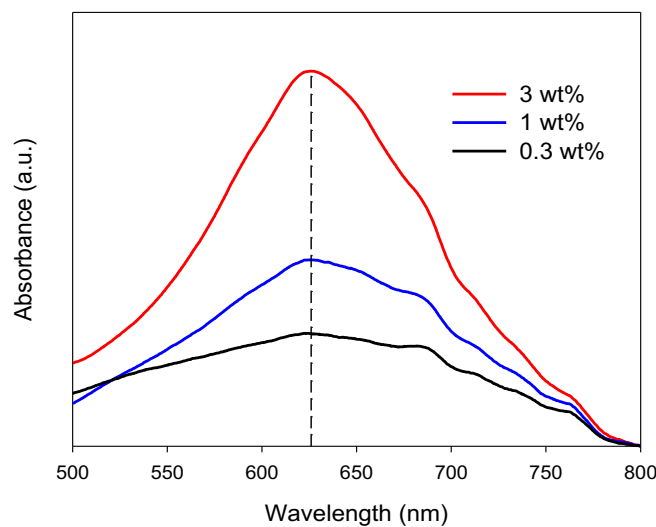
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2 **Figure 4.** Effect of (a) viscosity (spin-coated at 1500 rpm) and (b) spin-coating speed (viscosity fixed at 4.5 cP) on resulting film  
3 thickness. Filled circles correspond to silicon wafer substrates, open circles to glass substrates.

4 XRD spectra (Figure S2 in Supporting Information) confirm that the obtained crystal structure  
5 of the TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film is anatase as expected based on the applied calcination temperature. [45] It is  
6 expected that the organic PVP shell surrounding the gold nanoparticles is effectively removed upon  
7 oxidative calcination at 500°C, similar to what has even been observed for thick carbonaceous layers  
8 covered by TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films that were subjected to the same treatment. [46]

9 The absorption spectra of the final calcined TiO<sub>2</sub> films with embedded Au nanoparticles at  
10 incremental weight loadings up to 3 wt% show a clear red shift of the SPR band from 521.5 nm  
11 (colloidal suspension of PVP stabilised Au nanoparticles, Figure 3) to 626 nm for the embedded Au in  
12 TiO<sub>2</sub> films, Figure 5. This is a common effect that can be attributed to the higher refractive index of the

1 surrounding medium (TiO<sub>2</sub> instead of water).[33] Since the Au nanoparticles are expected to be largely  
2 embedded in the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix itself, the observed red shift is also considerably larger ( $\Delta = 104.5$  nm)  
3 compared to the one observed in earlier work, where the nanoparticles were only deposited on the  
4 TiO<sub>2</sub> surface and thus mostly surrounded by air as the dielectric medium ( $\Delta = 24$  nm). [20,40] For the  
5 0.1 wt% Au sample, no clear plasmon band could be observed. For the remaining metal loadings, the  
6 plasmon band becomes more apparent as the metal loading increases. No obvious broadening of the  
7 plasmon band, nor shift of the peak maximum is observed after introducing higher metal loadings,  
8 indicating the Au nanoparticles remain well dispersed and do not cluster in the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix, as will be  
9 confirmed by SEM and TEM analysis further down this work.

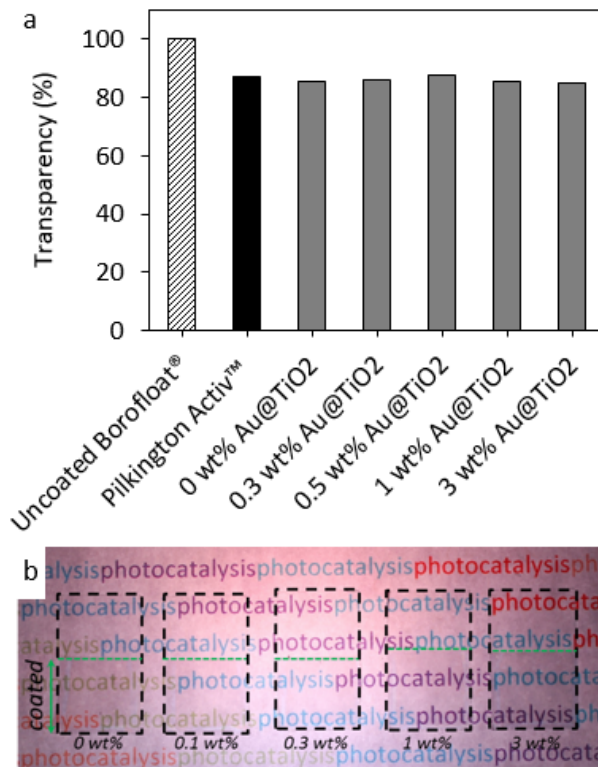


10  
11 **Figure 5:** Absorption spectra of the Au modified thin films with different loadings on glass calcined at 823 K. The dashed  
12 vertical line indicates the SPR band maximum at 626 nm.

13 In view of potential commercial applications, it is important to obtain transparent, solar light  
14 active films. The transparency of the coatings is therefore evaluated by measuring the relative loss in  
15 total integrated transmittance of AM1.5 simulated solar light passing through the coated films, relative  
16 to unmodified borosilicate glass (Figure 6a). Coating the glass slide with a thin, unmodified layer of  
17 TiO<sub>2</sub> reduces the overall transmittance of the sample by only 14%. Macroscopically, this can hardly be  
18 observed by the naked eye; only a slight colour difference of the coated glass is noticeable. At this

1 point, no actions have been undertaken to further improve the transparency of the TiO<sub>2</sub> film if needed.  
2 Lowering the film thickness could for instance already improve the transparency, but a trade-off with  
3 photocatalytic activity should be kept in mind. Combining TiO<sub>2</sub> with a low refractive index material like  
4 SiO<sub>2</sub> is another method that allows to control the optical properties of the resulting film.[3,47]  
5 However, this is outside the scope of the present study. Commercially available photocatalytic self-  
6 cleaning glass, PilkingtonActiv™, has a 13% transmittance reduction, indicating that a loss in  
7 transmittance of 14% is perfectly acceptable for the pure TiO<sub>2</sub>-coating in view of real applications.  
8 Embedment of stabilised plasmonic nanoparticles in the TiO<sub>2</sub> matrix up to 1 wt% induces no additional  
9 loss in transparency. For the highest metal loading of 3 wt%, a negligible additional loss in transparency  
10 of 1% with regard to the unmodified TiO<sub>2</sub> film is measured. This is a promising result as it indicates that  
11 adding gold nanoparticles only has a limited effect on the light transmitting properties of the resulting  
12 films. A photograph of the overall macroscopic appearance of the coated films is presented in Figure  
13 6 b.

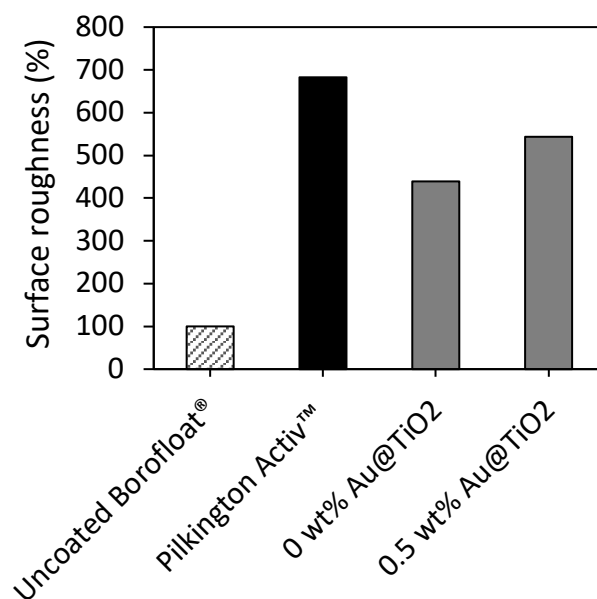




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2 **Figure 6.** a) Transparency relative to uncoated glass (dashed bar, set at 100%), for commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub>-based self-  
 3 cleaning glass PilkingtonActiv™ (black bar) and the newly developed coatings containing varying stabilised plasmonic Au  
 4 weight loadings from 0 – 3 wt% (grey bars); b) Photograph of the (half)-coated glass slides. Only the zone underneath the  
 5 green dashed lines is coated for easy comparison purposes. The photograph is taken by arranging the slides on a paper sheet  
 6 with the word 'photocatalysis' printed in multiple colours, that is deposited on the cover plate of a 30 W Flood Light LED  
 7 projector (TDII) set to the 'white light' modus.

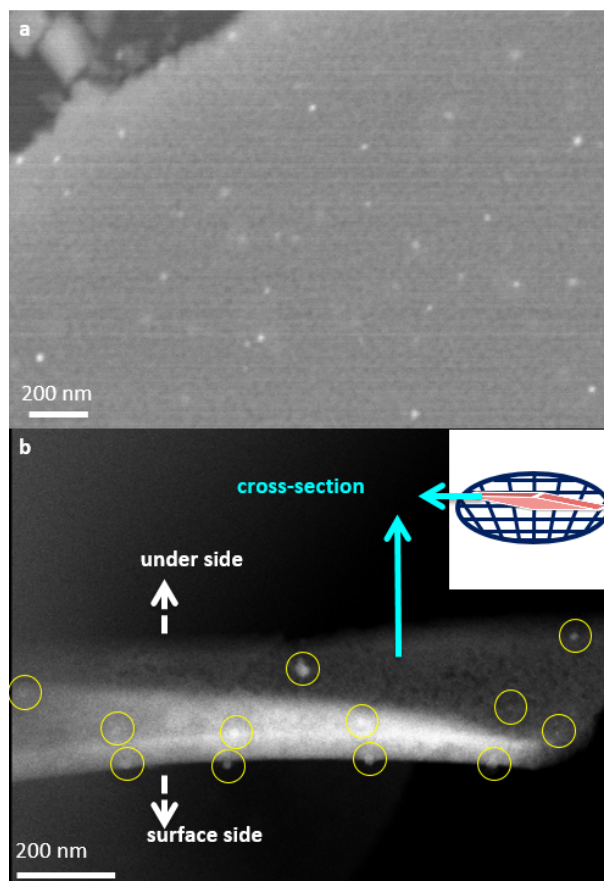
8 The average roughness factor ( $R_a$ ) of the coatings was determined by AFM measurements and  
 9 shows that a bare Borofloat® glass substrate has  $R_a = 0.23$  nm. The pure TiO<sub>2</sub> sample prepared with the  
 10 newly proposed method has  $R_a = 1.01$  nm, which is smoother than the commercial benchmark  
 11 PilkingtonActiv™ with  $R_a = 1.57$  nm. The plasmon-embedded thin films with a gold loading of 0.5 wt%  
 12 of Au NPs result in thin films with an  $R_a$  of 1.25 nm. When the surface roughness of the different coated  
 13 substrates is plotted relative to uncoated Borofloat® (Figure 7), it is clear that, even though the samples  
 14 are 4 to 5 times rougher compared to bare Borofloat®, they are still much smoother than commercially  
 15 available self-cleaning glass.



1

2 **Figure 7.** Surface roughness relative to uncoated glass (dashed bar, set at 100 %), for commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub>-based self-  
 3 cleaning glass PilkingtonActiv™ (black bar) and the newly developed coatings with pure titania and with 0.5 wt% stabilised  
 4 plasmonic Au in titania (grey bars).

5 The coating was investigated by backscattered electron imaging of cryofractured cross sections  
 6 and top views of coated silicon and Borofloat® substrates. The actual coating could not be visualised  
 7 in the cross-sections, because it was too thin to be clearly observed by SEM, although EDX  
 8 measurements on the edge of the fractured substrates clearly show the presence of a thin Ti-  
 9 containing layer (Figure S3). On the BE image of the top view of the coated Borofloat®, homogeneously  
 10 distributed small bright spots are visible corresponding to the Au NPs (Figure 8 a). It is important to  
 11 mention that under the given experimental conditions the entire depth of the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer is visualised  
 12 by means of BE imaging. The difference in brightness thus points at different degrees of embedment  
 13 of the NPs in the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer.



1

2 **Figure 8:** a) Top view of 0.5 w% Au TiO<sub>2</sub> coating on Borofloat® visualised with SEM at 10 kV and 100 000 times enlarged; b)  
 3 STEM-ADF image showing the distribution of Au NPs in a small piece of TiO<sub>2</sub> film coated on a Mo TEM grid, indicating the  
 4 existence of Au NPs (marked by the yellow circles) through the entire depth of the TiO<sub>2</sub> film.

5 In order to further investigate the distribution of the Au NPs throughout the thin film, a Mo  
 6 TEM grid with carbon film was spin-coated with the plasmon-embedded TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel, which was then  
 7 calcined and investigated by STEM-HAADF imaging. As the signal of the STEM-HAADF image is  
 8 approximately proportional to the square of the atomic number Z, the bright Au NPs can easily be  
 9 distinguished from the surrounding TiO<sub>2</sub> film (Figure 8 b). Discrete pieces of the TiO<sub>2</sub> film were found  
 10 on the Mo grid. Some of the TiO<sub>2</sub> pieces are not positioned parallel with the Mo grids, but at certain  
 11 angles with the grid, allowing tilting them to view the cross-section or even the bottom side of the TiO<sub>2</sub>  
 12 pieces. Figure 8b shows a small piece of TiO<sub>2</sub> film that has an intersecting angle of 17.7° with the Mo  
 13 grid. This film was tilted 72.3° to be parallel with the incoming electron-beam, so that a cross-section  
 14 of the TiO<sub>2</sub> film could be imaged. The TiO<sub>2</sub> piece is so small that the thickness of this piece in its  
 15 geometry still allows the penetration of the electron beam, thus enabling the visualisation of the Au

1 NPs. It is clear that there are Au NPs (marked by yellow circles) at different depths throughout the TiO<sub>2</sub>  
2 film. The nanoparticle size in the 0.5 wt% Au-embedded coating was found to be (16 ± 4) nm, as  
3 presented in the histogram Figure S4.

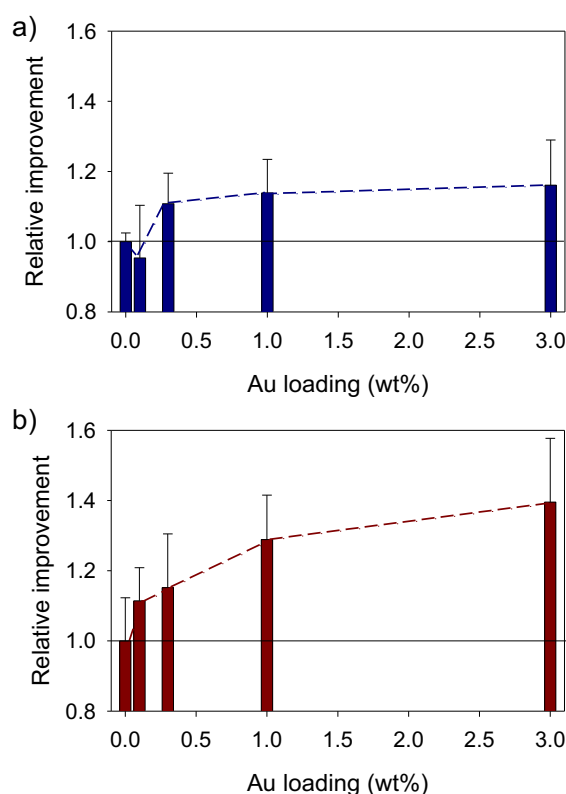
4 Contact angle measurements under dark conditions showed that pure TiO<sub>2</sub> coatings are  
5 characterised by a water contact angle of (15 ± 2)°, and for the 0.5 wt% Au-embedded TiO<sub>2</sub> coatings a  
6 similar contact angle of (14 ± 2)° is measured. When comparing this with uncoated Borofloat®  
7 substrates with a water contact angle of (23 ± 2)° and the commercial benchmark PilkingtonActiv™,  
8 with a measured water contact angle of (37 ± 6)°, the newly developed coatings are much more  
9 wetting. This hydrophilic nature is beneficial for the use of the coating in self-cleaning applications,  
10 since a wetting surface can wash off dirt more easily.[48] Titania is known to increase the surface  
11 hydrophilicity under UV irradiation.[49,50] This was also measured by means of water contact angles  
12 of (6.9 ± 0.8)° for pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, (5 ± 2)° for 0.5 wt% Au-embedded TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films, making the surfaces  
13 superhydrophilic. As a reference, for PilkingtonActiv™ the water contact angle dropped to (11 ± 1)°,  
14 while for uncoated Borofloat® there was no significant change (20 ± 2)°, as expected. Therefore, it may  
15 be concluded that both under dark and irradiated conditions, the developed coatings are more  
16 hydrophilic than the commercial reference sample, and the Au-containing films are slightly more  
17 wetting than the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films. Photographs of the water contact angle measurements are  
18 provided in Supporting Information Figure S5.

### 19 **Photocatalytic self-cleaning activity**

20 The photocatalytic activity of the films was evaluated by monitoring the degradation of stearic  
21 acid from the surface, a widely applied method for assessing the activity of self-cleaning materials as  
22 stearic acid is considered to be an adequate model compound for organic fouling.[1,5,20,38,51] Mills  
23 and Wang reported complete mineralisation of stearic acid to CO<sub>2</sub> with reaction intermediates that  
24 degrade faster than the original fouling compound for similar sol-gel based titania coatings.[51] The  
25 results of our experiments performed under both UVA and simulated solar light are presented in Figure

1 9. All measurements were performed in triplicate and for the ease of comparison, the relative  
2 improvement of the Au-modified films compared to the pristine reference is presented and calculated  
3 as the ratio of their respective formal quantum efficiencies (FQEs). Under pure UVA illumination (Figure  
4 9a), it can be seen that embedding gold nanoparticles into TiO<sub>2</sub> causes the photocatalytic activity to  
5 increase compared to the unmodified sample (up to 16% for the 3 wt% sample). The large contact  
6 interface between the embedded nanoparticles and TiO<sub>2</sub> is thought to improve the electron transfer  
7 efficiency from the excited semiconductor to the passive Au nanoparticle electron sinks. Under  
8 broadband solar light illumination (Figure 9b) a similar trend can be observed, where higher loadings  
9 lead to an increased activity relative to the unmodified sample. The relative improvement starts to  
10 saturate around 1 wt%, that can thus be considered to be an adequate loading from a cost-  
11 effectiveness point of view. Relative improvements up to 29% and 40% for the 1 wt% and 3 wt%  
12 samples, respectively, are achieved. It is clear that these improvements are much higher than the ones  
13 observed under pure UVA illumination (Figure 9 a *versus* b) and can therefore not be solely attributed  
14 to the UV part of the simulated sunlight. These results therefore support the hypothesis that a  
15 synergistic interaction occurs when dually exciting the plasmonic photocatalyst under solar irradiation  
16 (*i.e.* simultaneously exciting the semiconductor by UV light and the plasmonic nanoparticles by visible  
17 light).

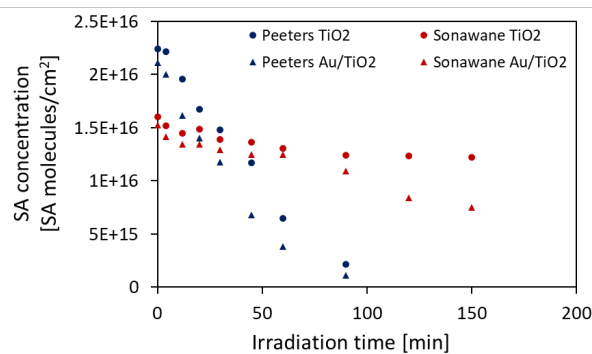
18



1

2 **Figure 9.** Relative improvement of the embedded Au/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples with different loadings with regard to the unmodified thin  
 3 film under (a) UVA and (b) AM1.5 simulated solar light illumination.

4 In order to compare the newly proposed method with an alternative available method from  
 5 literature, samples prepared according to Sonawane *et al.* have also been measured. It is observed  
 6 that they are less performant than the newly proposed method (Figure 10). The stearic acid  
 7 degradation rate of the Sonawane non-modified TiO<sub>2</sub> coated sample is  $3.7 \times 10^{11}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>,  
 8 which is 8% of the non-modified coatings of the proposed method, which reach a stearic acid  
 9 degradation rate of  $4.4 \times 10^{12}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The addition of gold nanoparticles into the Sonawane  
 10 sol-gel coatings increases the stearic acid degradation rate 2.5 times to  $8.3 \times 10^{11}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>,  
 11 which is still 6 times lower than the proposed method with a rate of  $4.9 \times 10^{12}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. When  
 12 comparing the new coating to the commercial benchmark PilkingtonActiv™ with a stearic acid  
 13 degradation rate of  $6.2 \times 10^{11}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> coatings performs 6 times better. The  
 14 Au-embedded coatings outperform the benchmark by nearly an entire order of magnitude.



1

2 **Figure 10:** Stearic acid degradation on silicon wafers coated with the proposed sol-gel method (Peeters, blue) and the existing  
 3 method by Sonawane et al. (Sonawane, red) for pure TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films (TiO<sub>2</sub>, dots) and TiO<sub>2</sub> thin films embedded with gold  
 4 nanoparticles (Au/TiO<sub>2</sub>, triangles).

5            Attempts have been made to evaluate the long-term stability of the prepared coatings by re-  
 6 testing 6-month-old samples. The relative improvement with respect to unmodified samples is well  
 7 retained, however, a fair one-on-one comparison of the absolute conversion rates could not be made  
 8 due to large differences in ambient temperature and relative humidity with regard to the initial  
 9 measurement conditions. Ongoing research focusses on an alternative strategy for evaluating the long-  
 10 term performance of the coatings under real life conditions, on which we hope to report very soon.

11            Compared to previous work on a broadband ‘rainbow’ plasmonic photocatalyst that absorbs  
 12 light over the entire UV-visible light range,[40] a twice as high efficiency improvement is obtained in  
 13 this work with the embedded gold nanoparticles. Although the ‘rainbow’ system was specifically  
 14 designed to perform well under actual solar light irradiation, an overall improvement of the FQE of  
 15 16% was obtained for 1.5 wt% mixed metal loading on the surface of P25, whereas in this work already  
 16 29% improvement has been measured for only 1.0 wt% of gold embedded thin films with a much  
 17 narrower plasmon resonance band. This is a clear indication that the embedment strategy is a  
 18 promising approach to maximise the interaction area between the photocatalytic support and the  
 19 plasmonic sensitiser. Improved wavelength tuning of the plasmonic nanostructures to better match  
 20 with the actual solar radiation spectrum is therefore expected to yield even higher enhancement  
 21 factors.

#### 1        **4. Conclusion**

2        A convenient strategy to obtain plasmon modified, transparent self-cleaning films based on an *ex-*  
3        *situ* sol-gel synthesis procedure is presented. Gold nanoparticles were prepared according to the  
4        Turkevich method, followed by a ligand exchange step to enable a phase transfer from an aqueous  
5        colloidal suspension to an organic medium. Finally, the stabilised gold nanoparticles were mixed  
6        directly with a titanium precursor during the sol-gel synthesis process, resulting in a one-pot  
7        coating suspension containing both the titania source as well as the plasmonic sensitiser. A  
8        transparent, smooth, superhydrophobic, homogeneous, anatase phase TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film with the  
9        stabilised gold nanostructures embedded in the film matrix and a layer thickness of 94 nm was  
10       obtained. A clear red shift of the SPR band was observed for embedded Au nanoparticles (626 nm)  
11       compared to the colloidal suspension of PVP stabilised Au nanoparticles (521.5 nm). BEI surface  
12       imaging hints towards homogeneously distributed Au nanoparticles throughout the TiO<sub>2</sub> film,  
13       which was confirmed by TEM measurements. All prepared films showed an increased efficiency  
14       toward stearic acid degradation compared to a pristine TiO<sub>2</sub> reference sample under both UVA and  
15       simulated solar light illumination (16% and 40%, respectively, for 3 wt% of embedded gold  
16       nanoparticles). The newly developed coatings also showed greater stearic acid degradation  
17       efficiency than the current commercial benchmark PilkingtonActiv™ and an alternative Au-  
18       embedded sol-gel based TiO<sub>2</sub> coating strategy proposed by Sonawane *et al.* [37] The present study  
19       shows that the improvement under simulated solar light cannot be solely attributed the UV part  
20       of the illumination spectrum, pointing at a synergistic effect of simultaneously exciting the  
21       plasmonic photocatalyst with both the UV and visible light components of solar irradiation. We are  
22       hopeful this strategy will facilitate the development of efficient solar light driven photocatalytic  
23       thin films for real life self-cleaning applications.

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