

Highly-dispersed nickel nanoparticles decorated titanium dioxide nanotube array for enhanced solar light absorption

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Abstract

Honeycomb titanium dioxide nanotube array (TiO₂-NTA) decorated by highly-dispersed nickel nanoparticles (Ni-NPs) has been grown under control on Ti foil by anodization and subsequent electrodeposition. The pore diameter and length of TiO₂-NTA, and the size and quantity of Ni-NPs can be controlled via modulating the variables of the electrochemical processes. It has been found that the pretreatment of TiO₂-NTA in the Cu(NO₃)₂ solution and further annealing at 450 °C in air could greatly improve the dispersion of the electrodeposited Ni-NPs. Absorption of the light in the solar spectrum from 300 to 2500 nm by the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA is as high as 96.83%, thanks to the co-effect of the light-trapping of TiO₂-NTA and the plasmonic resonance of Ni-NPs. In the water heating experiment performed under an illuminating solar power density of ~1 kWm⁻² (AM 1.5), the ultimate temperature over 66 °C and an overall efficiency of 78.9% within 30 min were obtained, promising for applications in photothermal conversion and solar energy harvest.

Keywords: titanium dioxide nanotube array; nickel nanoparticles; plasmonic resonance; light absorption; photothermal conversion

1. Introduction

Photo-thermal conversion, the direct way of solar utilization, is one of the key methods to harvest solar energy and has been widely studied in, for example, water steam generation [1-5], desalination [6-8], solar thermal power generation [9, 10], solar thermoelectric conversion [11, 12], and solar fuel production [13]. A highly efficient absorber is the crucial part of a solar collection system, which absorbs solar energy, converts it directly to thermal energy which is then absorbed by a heat transfer fluid. As of now, there are three types of mainstream photothermal conversion materials that have been proposed and studied, including the carbon-based materials, metallic plasmonic materials and semiconducting materials [14, 15, 16].

Up to now, various metal nanoparticles (e.g., Au-NPs [15], Ag-NPs [17], Al-NPs [6, 18] and In-NPs [7]) have been found excellent for light absorption and photothermal conversion based on the surface plasmonic resonance, a collective oscillation of free electrons in the metal stimulated by photons with the matching frequency [19]. Nevertheless, there are some barriers to large-scale applications. For instance, Au and Ag are noble metals, leading to a high cost, whilst Al-NPs and In-NPs with relatively chemical activity are usually prepared by a complex process, including vacuum deposition. In Ni-NPs, the transitions of sp-electrons and partially filled d-bands ($3d^8$) contribute to enhanced absorption in a broader spectral region [20-22], which is desired for harvesting solar energy [23, 24]. Although their light absorption capability is weaker than noble metal nanoparticles, Ni-NPs are a promising alternative for light absorption due to their low-cost as well as feasible and facile synthesis by various methods,

including chemical reduction and electrodeposition [25, 26].

TiO₂, a widely studied semiconductor with a wide band gap of ~3.2 eV, only responds to the ultraviolet (7% of total spectrum) and is usually served as the matrix or support in absorbing materials owing to the good stability, such as C-TiO₂ [27], CNT-TiO₂ [28] and Au-TiO₂ [29], where various rough or porous surface structures are designed to improve absorption by suppressing the surface reflection. Recently, micro/nano-porous structures with strong light absorption have been designed for solar harvesting due to the improved light-trapping effect of the geometrical interspace, where light goes through multiple reflections and scattering internally, and is absorbed gradually [30-32]. For example, an ultra-low reflectance of 0.045% was achieved on vertical carbon nanotube arrays. Besides, a series of raised micro-nano structures have been in situ fabricated by laser writing on Si [33], copper [34], titanium and tungsten surfaces [35], which all exhibit reflectance below 2.5%. For instance, a recent study demonstrated that the wedge-shaped TiO₂ array could absorb light in the whole solar spectrum [36].

Herein, we report the fabrication of the honeycomb-shaped TiO₂-NTA decorated with Ni-NPs on Ti foil by anodization and subsequent electrodeposition. The porous TiO₂-NTA not only provide the structure for light-trapping but also function as the support for 3-D distributed plasmonic Ni-NPs. The fabrication process is illustrated in Fig.1. Interestingly, Ni-NPs have been found to uniformly deposit on the TiO₂-NTA, and the optimized Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA hybrid exhibits a strong absorption in the solar spectrum of 0.3~2.5 μm, confirming the potential application of this unique hybrid for

harvesting solar energy.

2. Experimental Section

2.1 Preparation of TiO₂-NTA

Ti sheets (99.5% purity) were cut into desired sizes (e.g. 50×33×0.2 mm³), polished from coarse to fine on sand papers, ultrasonically cleaned in ethanol and dried in air. Adhesive tapes were used to cover the back of the Ti sheet so that only one side of the sheet with an area of 10 cm² was exposed to the electrolyte. Highly uniform and ordered amorphous TiO₂-NTA (a-TiO₂-NTA) were fabricated by a two-step anodization process [37]. All the anodization experiments were carried out at 25 °C in a conventional two-electrode cell with graphite as the cathode. The first-step was performed at 20, 40, 60, 80 V for 0.5 hr in the ethylene glycol electrolyte containing 0.7 wt% NH₄F, 6 vol% H₂O and 4 vol% H₃PO₄. The first-anodized a-TiO₂-NTA were washed in deionized water and the anodized film was taken off using an adhesive tape to expose the pre-patterned Ti substrate. The second-step anodization was performed in the identical electrolyte for 10~70 min, and the voltage was usually 20 V higher than the corresponding first-step. The samples were then washed in ethanol to remove the residual electrolyte and the adhesive tape was removed from the back of the anodized Ti sheet. Subsequently, the anodized Ti sheets were soaked into a 0.05 M Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O ethanol solution for 6 hr and annealed in air at 450 °C for 3 hr.

2.2 Preparation of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA

The Ni-NPs were deposited on the wall and surface of the TiO₂-NTA by electrodeposition under a constant current in a two-electrode cell containing 0.3 M

NiSO₄·7H₂O, 0.3 M H₃BO₃ and 0.1 g L⁻¹ lauryl sodium sulfate. In this cell, the cathode was the annealed Ti sheet, and the anode was graphite. The electrodeposition was carried out at 35 °C under a high current density of 30 mA cm⁻¹ for 0~100 s. Finally, the obtained black samples were washed in water, and dried at 80 °C in air.

2.3. Characterization of materials

The morphology of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA on the Ti substrate was characterized with a scanning electron microscope (SEM, PHILPS XL30TMP). The phase compositions of the samples were recorded by an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Xpert Pro MPD). The superficial elementary composition and chemical state were characterized by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, ESCALAB 250Xi). Optical properties (reflectance and absorptance) and band gap were measured by a UV-Vis and NIR spectrophotometer (Shimadzu 3600 UV/Vis and Shimadzu 2600 UV/Vis) incorporated with an integrating sphere. The overall thermal efficiencies of samples were investigated using an in-house designed water heating cell under the radiation (AM 1.5) of a solar simulator (LSP-X500A). The simulated sunlight irradiated on the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA side of the Ti sheet whose back side formed a part of the wall of the water heating cell containing 8.5 mL water.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Morphologies and structures

The digital photographs shown in Fig.2 were taken from the surfaces of the Ti sheet at the end of each step of polishing and cleaning (Fig. 2a), removing the first-anodized film (Fig. 2b), soaking and annealing (Fig. 2c), and depositing Ni-NPs (Fig. 2d). As

shown in Fig. 2b-2d, the gradual darkening of the sample indicates that light absorption would be enhanced seriatim. Typical SEM images of various samples are displayed in Fig. 2e-2h. The pre-patterned Ti substrate after using adhesive tape to remove the first-anodized film was shown in Fig. 2e. The uniform TiO₂ NTA samples with an assemble of unit cells with diameter of 150~200 nm were constructed after the two-step anodization (Fig. 2f). After annealing and constant current depositing, the sparse Ni-NPs with an average diameter of ~65 nm were deposited on the inner wall of each TiO₂-NTA (Fig. 2g). However, when the TiO₂ NTAs were soaked in the dilute Cu(NO₃)₂ solution before annealing, the densely packed Ni-NPs with clear contour profiles and decreased average diameter of ~40 nm were uniformly deposited on both the top and wall of each TiO₂-NTA (Fig. 2h).

Furthermore, compared to the reported works [38, 39], the as-prepared Ni-NPs are smaller in size and highly distributed on each TiO₂-NTA, which indicates that the soaking treatment played a key role in the formation of Ni-NPs. Moreover, we observed that when electrodeposition was carried out directly of the annealed Ti sheet without the TiO₂-NTA coating, the deposited Ni formed a continuous, smooth, and dense silvery coating. This change is markedly different from the granular and black Ni-NPs on the TiO₂-NTA. The cause may be that the higher resistance of the TiO₂-NTA reduced the growth rate and the final size of Ni-NPs [40], and the porous TiO₂-NTA offered more 3-D deposition sites for Ni-NPs to hinder the reunion of Ni-NPs [41].

The morphological features of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA, such as pore size, thickness (or the length of the nanotubes) and particle size and amount of Ni-NPs, are the

determinants for light absorption, which were investigated by finely controlling the electrochemical parameters. The diagram shown in Fig. 3a manifests that the pore size of TiO₂-NTA increases with the anodization voltage due to the enhanced electric field [42]. As shown in Fig. 3b, the thickness of TiO₂-NTA also increases with the anodization time, but the growth speed is slowing down. In Fig. 3c-3h, the average particle sizes of Ni-NPs with different deposition times are about 20, 30, 40, 60, 100 and 150 nm, respectively. It is obvious that the particle size and amount of Ni-NPs increase continuously as deposition time increases. As a result, the remaining pore size gradually shrinks and disappears eventually.

The XRD patterns of as-prepared and heat treated Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTAs are shown in Fig. 4a. The main ingredients of the sample dried at 80 °C are confirmed to be anatase-TiO₂ by the diffraction peaks at 25.3°, 37.8°, 48.0°, 53.9° and 55.0° (JCPDF No. 21-1272), metallic Ni at 44.5° and 76.4° (JCPDF No. 04-8050). The diffraction peaks at 35.1°, 38.4°, 40.2°, 53.0°, 62.9° and 70.6° belong to the substrate Ti (JCPDF No. 44-1294). There were no visible diffraction peaks of NiO in the XRD patterns if the sample was heated at temperatures lower than 250 °C, indicating that the metallic Ni is stable in air below 250 °C. When the temperature rose to 300 °C and 350 °C, the apparent diffraction peak at 43.2° for NiO (JCPDF No. 47-1049), as well as the enlarged diameter Ni-NPs shown in Fig.4b indicate that the Ni-NPs were oxidized and transformed to NiO. In later experiments, the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA were heated at 500 °C for 5 h in a reducing atmosphere containing 5% hydrogen. As shown in Fig.4c, in the reducing atmosphere, the Ni-NPs deposited on side wall of TiO₂-NTA grew up

due to the combination of smaller particles at high temperatures, whilst the Ni-NPs deposited on top of TiO₂-NTA were still spherical.

3.2 Light absorption

The light absorption abilities of the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA samples were measured via spectrophotometers with an integrating sphere and evaluated by absorptance and reflectance. The weighted solar absorptance (α) was calculated according to the measured reflection spectrum and standard solar radiation spectrum by the following equations [43]:

$$\alpha = \frac{\int_{0.3}^{2.5} \frac{\mu\text{m}}{\mu\text{m}} (1-R(\lambda)) I_{sol}(\lambda) d\lambda}{\int_{0.3}^{2.5} \frac{\mu\text{m}}{\mu\text{m}} I_{sol}(\lambda) d\lambda} \quad (1)$$

where λ is the wavelength, $R(\lambda)$ is the reflectance of per unit wavelength for the fabricated samples. $I_{sol}(\lambda)$ is the solar radiation intensity of per unit wavelength, according to the ISO standard 9845-1(1992) of AM 1.5. The band gap (or energy gap) of the different TiO₂ samples was calculated by the Kubelka-Munk equation of $F(R)=(1-R)^2/(2R)$, where R is the reflectance relative to BaSO₄ [44].

As shown in Fig. 5a, the polished Ti sheet showed the highest reflectance because of the well-polished surface and intrinsic low absorption of metallic Ti. Compared to the compact TiO₂ film on annealed Ti, the absorptance of TiO₂-NTA further increased as the porous surface captured more light. The lowest reflectance was observed on the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA sample due to the intensive additional absorption of Ni-NPs based on plasma resonance, which is a well-known effect of metal nanoparticles. Although it has been reported that CuO nanoparticles also exhibit the absorption, scattering and plasmon effect in the solar spectrum [45], the low content (~0.56 at% Cu from EDS but

invisible in SEM images) and the cover of Ni-NPs may lead to little absorption via CuO itself. As shown in Fig. 5b, the absorption cutoff wavelength (λ_1 and λ_2) of the TiO₂-NTA without and with soaking is respectively ~390 nm and 415 nm, and the TiO₂-NTA with soaking exhibits stronger absorption in the visible light region, but weaker in the ultraviolet region. The possible reason is that the CuO with a narrow band gap of ~1.7 eV has a strong absorption capacity in the visible region and may decrease the absorption of the TiO₂-NTA in the ultraviolet region due to the shielding effect. The Kubelka–Munk plots in the insert of Fig. 5b demonstrate the band gaps of 3.11 and 2.90 eV of the unsoaked and soaked samples, and the reduced bandgap of the latter may be originated from the Cu²⁺ doping of the substrate [46]. Compared to the unsoaked sample, the absorption of the Ni-deposited TiO₂-NTA with soaking is increased by ~5% (Fig. 5c), and the amount of the Ni-NPs is increased and the size is decreased (Fig. 2g and 2h), indicating that a small quantity of CuO resulted from the decomposition of the absorbed Cu(NO₃)₂ may enhance the absorption of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA by modulating the nucleation and changing the morphology of the Ni-NPs [47]. Furthermore, the competitive growth of between different Ni-NPs may restrain themselves to grow larger within the microscopic space of the TiO₂ nanotubes where electrolyte and Ni²⁺ supply was limited. As a result, the Ni-NPs with smaller size (~40 nm) and well distributed on the TiO₂-NTA, exhibited stronger light absorption in the band of 300~1200 nm, but a lower absorption in the middle to far infrared regions, which can be ascribed to the size-dependent resonance theory that the most intense absorption region of plasmonic metal particles depends on their size and shape, and the absorption band red shifts with the

increase of particle size and aspect ratio [48-51]. By the way, absorption region varies with the size of Ni-NPs, therefore the very many Ni-NPs with varying sizes could exhibit a broad light absorption region. Fig.5d shows the reflection spectra for the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different pore sizes. It can be seen that the absorption region and overall absorptance are approximately equal, indicating that the absorption for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA is not sensitive to the pore size. Although a larger TiO₂ nanotube can accommodate more Ni-NPs and capture more light for a single nanotube, the whole surface area and amount of loaded Ni-NPs are inversely proportional to the diameter of the pore. Therefore, the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA anodized at 60 V with the appropriate pore size of ~145 nm showed the highest absorptance.

The influence of the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA thickness on light absorption is demonstrated in Fig. 6a. Firstly, distinct fluctuations can be seen in the reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with thickness of 0.5 and 1.0 μm, which can be ascribed to the destructive and constructive interferences [52, 53]. Also, the overall absorptance increases with the thickness due to more thorough absorption in the longer optical path. Specifically, as the coatings became thicker, more Ni-NPs were deposited on the inner walls and more reflection and scattering occurred in the tubes, contributing to higher absorptance. Although the absorptance of the 2.5 μm thick coating was up to 97.24%, the coating would crimp and detach from the Ti substrate easily, likely because growth in thick Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA was likely uneven, and hence cause localized stress development. Therefore, an optimal thickness of 2 μm was set in the subsequent experiments.

As shown in Fig. 6b, the reflection spectra are shown for a series of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA anodized at 60 V for 50 min followed by electrodeposition at various times. With the extension of deposition time (less than 25 s), the amount and size of Ni-NPs increased gradually, due to the adequate nucleation and growth of the particles. The whole band absorptance increased with the increase of the number of Ni-NPs. The Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA obtained from deposition for 25 s displayed the highest absorptance of visible light and a maximum whole spectrum absorptance of 96.83%, which is comparative to that of the reported materials with similar porous structures, such as the Al-NPs@Al₂O₃-NTA (~96%), Au@Al₂O₃ (91%) and the Ni particles pigmented anodized aluminum (94-96%) [4, 29, 54]. However, when the deposition time was further prolonged (more than 25 s), the deposited Ni-NPs grew big enough to fill the pores. The pore size gradually decreased with the continuous deposition of Ni particles, and more light was reflected off the surface, rather than enter the nanotubes, leading to the deterioration of absorptance especially for the visible light (the color of the sample converted to yellow and white).

The Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA samples were further thermally treated at different temperatures and atmospheres. As shown in Fig. 6c, the absorptance did not decline when the temperature was lower than 250 °C, but significantly deteriorated at 300 °C, indicating that the metallic Ni-NPs with high light absorption could remain stable at 250 °C, but the nickel oxides formed at higher temperatures behaved poorly in light absorption. On the other hand, the substances such as black nickel compounds of

NiOOH and Ni₂O₃ may both exist in the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA and contribute to light absorption. In later experiments, the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA were heated at 500 °C in the reducing atmosphere containing 5% hydrogen. Consequently, the reflectance as shown in Fig. 6d attenuated slightly in the visible region and a little enhancement in the infrared region, probably due to the growth, fusion and aggregation of Ni-NPs at 500 °C. In summary, the high and deteriorated absorptances of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA without and with thermal oxidation indicate that the metallic Ni-NPs with sufficient number of free electrons are crucial to the high absorptance.

3.3 Photothermal conversion

To directly observe the photothermal conversion properties of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA, water heating experiments (shown as Fig. 7a and 7b) were performed. The samples were combined into plastic boxes with a volume of 3×3×1 cm³, in which 8.5 mL water with an initial temperature of 20.5±0.2 °C was filled up and a thermometer was inserted to monitor the temperature. In addition, the plastic boxes were thermally insulated by closed-cell foam to reduce heat loss. The light was provided by a solar simulator with standard radiation intensity of AM 1.5. The sample was irradiated vertically for 60 min, and the temperature variation was recorded every minute. As the thickness of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA is far less than that of the Ti sheet (~200 μm), all samples are approximately identical in thickness and thermal conductivity. Therefore, the heat generated at the top surface conducts to the Ti substrate and then to the water whose temperature can be detected to evaluate the average thermal efficiency (ATE). The ATE can be calculated by equation (2) [55],

$$\eta = \frac{C \times m \times \Delta T}{I \times S \times t} \quad (2)$$

where C is the specific heat capacity of water which is approximately $4200 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$, m the mass of water (ca. 8.5 g), ΔT the temperature rise, I the power density of the light source (1 kW m^{-2}), S the irradiated area of the sample (10 cm^2), and t the time for irradiation. Consider that the heating rates of all the samples decreased gradually and reached at the equilibrium temperature within 57 min, we calculated the overall PTEC of irradiation for 30 min and 57 min, respectively. Obviously, the ATE for 30 min was higher than that for 57 min because the thermal loss, particularly infrared radiation and conduction, also increased with the temperature.

In Fig. 7c and 7e, it is obvious that the polished Ti sheet demonstrated the lowest heating rate and ATE due to its high reflectance ($>40\%$). As the thickness of the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA increased, the heating rate and the equilibrium temperature also increased, and the 2 μm thick Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA showed the fastest heating and the highest equilibrium temperature ($66.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and ATE (78.9% for 30 min and 48.0% for 57 min), which can be positively correlated with the absorptance. In Fig. 7d and 7f, the heating rate, the equilibrium temperature and the overall PTCE are also positively correlated with the absorptance, and the 2 μm thick Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA obtained by 25 s deposition showed the highest ATE.

4. Conclusions

The Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA have been synthesized on the Ti substrate by anodization and electrodeposition. A pretreatment of the TiO₂-NTA in the ethanol solution of Cu(NO₃)₂ can significantly downsize the Ni-NPs and enhance light absorption by about

5%. The absorbance increases with the thickness of the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA, but is not sensitive to the pore size. Moreover, the size and amount of Ni-NPs have a significant influence on light absorption. Thanks to the light-trapping ability of the porous TiO₂-NTA and the surface plasmon resonance of Ni-NPs, a high absorbance of 96.83% in the solar spectrum from 300 to 2500 nm has been achieved. In the water heating experiment, the highest temperature over 66 °C and an overall efficiency of 78.9% within 30 min irradiation have been obtained, implying the potential applications of the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA in light-to-heat conversion and solar energy harvest.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Synthesis procedure for the Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA: (a) the original Ti sheet, (b) a-TiO₂-NTA fabricated by a two-step anodizing, (c) the Cu(NO₃)₂ solution soaked and annealed TiO₂-NTA, (d) the electrochemically deposited Ni-NPs on TiO₂-NTA, (e) the enlarged part of (d), showing the photothermal conversion mechanisms.

Fig.2. Optical photographs: (a) Ti sheet, (b) Ti sheet after removing the first-anodized film, (c) Annealed TiO₂-NTA, and (d) Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA. SEM images: (e) The pre-patterned Ti sheet, (f) TiO₂-NTA, (g) Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA without soaking and (h) Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with soaking in the Cu(NO₃)₂ solution. The inserts in (f), (g) and (h) are the corresponding enlarged top views.

Fig.3. (a) The average pore size of TiO₂-NTA under different anodization voltages. (b) The average thickness of TiO₂-NTA anodized at 60 V with various anodization times. SEM images of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different deposition times: (c) 6.25 s, (d) 12.5 s, (e) 25 s, (f) 50 s, (g) 75 s, (h), 100 s. The TiO₂-NTA in (c) and (h) were anodized at 60 V for 50 min.

Fig.4. (a) XRD patterns of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA treated in air at different temperatures. (b) SEM image of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA treated at 350°C. (c) SEM image of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA treated in H₂/Ar.

Fig.5. (a) Solar radiation spectrum and reflection spectra for different surfaces on Ti substrates. (b) Absorptance spectra and Kubelka–Munk plot (the insert) of TiO₂-NTA with and without soaking. (c) Reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with and without soaking. (d) Reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with a thickness of 2 μm and different pore sizes. The data in bracket is the weighted absorptance of the samples.

Fig.6. (a) Reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different thicknesses. (b)

Reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different Ni deposition times. (c) Reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different calcination temperatures. (d) Reflection spectra for Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with H₂ reduction.

Fig.7. (a) Optical photograph of the water heating device. (b) The water heating under illumination and the recorded water temperature. (c) Heating curves of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different thicknesses. (d) Heating curve of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA with different deposition times. (e) The ATE of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA in (c), the thickness of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA on pure Ti sheet is regarded as 0. (f) The ATE of Ni-NPs@TiO₂-NTA in (d).