

Studying the Mechanisms of Titanium Dioxide as Ultraviolet-Blocking Additive for Films and Fabrics by an Improved Scheme

Hongying Yang,¹ Sukang Zhu,¹ Ning Pan^{1,2}

¹Center of Physics of Fibrous Materials, Dong Hua University, Shanghai 200051, China

²Division of Textiles and Clothing, Biological and Agricultural Engineering Department, University of California, Davis, California 95616

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ABSTRACT: Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has good ultraviolet (UV)-blocking power and is very attractive in practical applications because of such advantages as nontoxicity, chemical stability at high temperature, and permanent stability under UV exposure, for example. Development of nanoscience and -technology provides new ways for better treatment for UV-resistant films and fabrics using TiO₂. However, the exact mechanisms of TiO₂ as a UV-blocking additive are still not very clear, and researchers hold different views on this issue. The aim of this investigation was to study systematically the mechanisms of TiO₂ as a UV-blocking additive for films and fabrics. To achieve this goal, the conventional scheme describing light interactions with fab-

rics was revised based on more recent progress in optical theory, and special experiments and analytic methods were used in the investigation. Several effects attributed to the nanoscale additives were identified. Moreover, detailed analyses based on the results yielded a few important suggestions useful in developing or improving both inorganic UV-blocking agents and the UV-protective films and textiles. © 2004 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. *J Appl Polym Sci* 92: 3201–3210, 2004

Key words: inorganic UV-blocking agents; additives; films; adsorption; light scattering

INTRODUCTION

More frequent reports of skin cancer have made people increasingly aware of the danger of prolonged exposure to ultraviolet (UV) rays, which account for about 6% of the terrestrial sunlight and, under excessive doses, is proved to cause erythema, certain skin cancers, keratitis, and cataracts. Textiles and sun-blocking creams are the common choices to shield against UV radiation, although UV radiation also weathers and degrades the textiles. Consequently, new UV-blocking agents have been developed to add to or to improve the UV-protective function of textiles, plastic films, and other related products.¹

There are both organic and inorganic UV blockers. The organic blockers are also called UV absorbers because they mainly absorb UV rays. Inorganic UV blockers are usually certain semiconductor oxides such as TiO₂, ZnO, SiO₂, and Al₂O₃, for example. Compared with the existing organic UV absorbers, the inorganic UV agents are more preferred because of their unique features including, among others, non-

toxicity and chemical stability under both high temperature and UV-ray exposure.

However, the mechanism of UV-blocking function of inorganic materials is so far not very clear and researchers hold different views concerning its nature. Take TiO₂, for example: some investigators believe that it provides good UV protection by reflecting and/or scattering most of the UV-rays through its high refractive index.^{2,3} Others believe that it absorbs UV radiation because of its semiconductive properties.^{4–6} Still others claim that, of a pile of TiO₂ powder, only the nanosize particles absorb UV radiation, whereas the submicrometer-size particles do very little.⁷ Given the mixed and often conflicting views, it appears desirable for a thorough investigation on the problem.

This article reports the systematic investigation of the exact mechanisms of TiO₂ as an inorganic UV-blocking additive for fabrics. To obtain more accurate results, an improved scheme on light-object interactions based on recent progress in optical theory was proposed, describing how fabrics or films react to the light illuminating on them. As shown below, this approach yields more informative data than do the conventional approaches and also has the potential to provide deeper understanding and thus improve the optical properties of textiles. Naturally, the new methods described in this article are applicable for studying

Correspondence to: S. Zhu (zusukang@dhu.edu.cn).

the mechanisms of other inorganic UV-blocking additives for fabrics.

EVALUATION OF UV-PROTECTIVE PROPERTY OF FABRICS

A UV-ray, like visual light (VIS), is a segment of the electromagnetic spectrum, with a wavelength ranging from 100 to 400 nm, and is conventionally subdivided into three bands: UVA (320 or 315 to 400 nm), UVB (290 to 315 or 320 nm), and UVC (100–290 nm). The terrestrial solar UV received consists of only UV with wavelength 290–400 nm because UVC and some UVB are absorbed by the stratospheric ozone in the earth's atmosphere.

In recent years, investigators and manufacturers have paid increasing attention to understanding the solar UV-protective properties of textiles. Several related standards have been published by Australia/New Zealand, Europe, and the United States, respectively.^{8–10} Among these standards, UPF, T_UVA, and T_UVB are the commonly adopted indices.

The so-called UV-protection factor (UPF) is defined as

$$\text{UPF} = \frac{\int_{290}^{400} E_{\lambda} S_{\lambda} d\lambda}{\int_{290}^{400} E_{\lambda} S_{\lambda} \cdot \tau_{\lambda} d\lambda} \quad (1)$$

where λ represents the wavelength in nm, E_{λ} is the relative erythemal effectiveness, S_{λ} is the solar UV spectral irradiance in $\text{W m}^{-2} \text{nm}^{-1}$ (data from Albuquerque, NM are used in this study), τ_{λ} is the spectral transmittance of the specimen, and $d\lambda$ is the wavelength increment in nm.

When $d\lambda$ is constant, three more indices can be calculated by

$$\begin{aligned} T_{\text{UVA}} &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{315}^{400} \tau_{\lambda} & T_{\text{UVB}} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{290}^{315} \tau_{\lambda} & T_{\text{VIS}} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{400}^{760} \tau_{\lambda} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where T_{UVA} , T_{UVB} , and T_{VIS} (in %) are the means of transmittance under UVA, UVB, and VIS (400–760 nm); and m , n , and k stand for the number of measurement points for UVA, UVB, and VIS, respectively.

In fact, the UPF value represents how much longer people can become exposed wearing clothing, versus not wearing it, until the skin develops reddening.

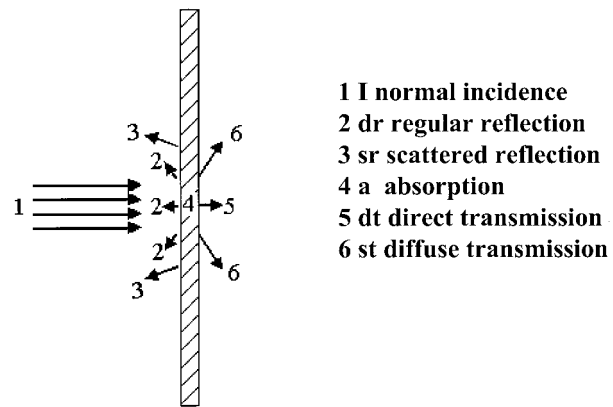


Figure 1 Model of fabric-light interactions.

AN IMPROVED SCHEME ON FABRIC AND LIGHT INTERACTIONS

Conventionally, a light illuminating on fabric was divided into three parts according to the resulting light distribution: reflection, absorption, and transmission. A more detailed division was made by subdividing the transmission part into a component that passes through the pores and a diffused or scattered component.¹ This description is useful in evaluating the optical properties of fabrics, but is not so useful in analyzing the origin of fabric optical properties. This article thus advocates an improved scheme based on optical theory, and this study focuses on both plastic films and textile fabrics.

In examining the interactions between light and fabrics, the incident light normally illuminating a fabric is divided as follows (see Fig. 1): part of the light turns into regular reflection (including specular and diffused reflection) at the interface, marked as dr ; another part a enters into the fabric and is absorbed by the material; some passes through the fabric with direction unchanged, recorded as dt ; whereas another part enters into the fabric and is scattered because of the uneven structure of the fabric and/or the additives in the fabric. Of the scattered light, the backward-scattered light generates the same effect as the reflection, termed scattered reflection sr , whereas the forward-scattered light also passes through the fabric; portions maintaining the same direction as that of the incident ray are recorded as dt ; the rest, deviating from the incident direction, are termed as diffused (or scattered) transmission st .

It can be seen that the improved scheme adds the factor of scattered light to the analysis, which is then subdivided into scattered reflection, direct transmission, and diffused transmission according to their final effects. In short, the normal incident light is eventually transferred into five portions, as follows: regular reflection, scattered reflection, absorption, direct transmission, and diffused transmission. As a matter of

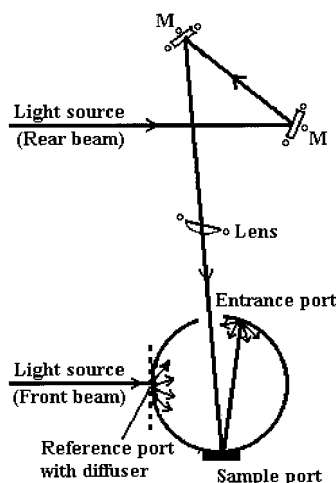


Figure 2 Light path of integrating sphere in Cary 500 spectrophotometer.

fact, scattering is an indispensable part of the interactions between a medium and light, and it plays an important role in determining the optical behavior of fabrics.

According to the new scheme, the following relations hold:

$$R = dr + sr \quad A = a \quad T = dt + st \quad I = R + A + T \quad (3)$$

where R is the total reflection, A is the absorption, T is the total transmission, and I is the incident ray, so that

$$\rho = R/I \quad \tau = T/I \quad s\tau = st/I \quad \alpha = A/I = 1 - \rho - \tau \quad (4)$$

where ρ is the reflectance, τ is the transmittance, $s\tau$ is the scattered transmittance, and α is the absorbance. Among these variables, ρ , τ , and $s\tau$ can be measured using a spectrophotometer with an integrating sphere, and α can then be calculated by eq. (4). Figure 2 shows the path of a Φ 110-mm integrating sphere in a Cary 500 spectrophotometer from Varian Technologies (Palo Alto, CA).¹¹

The new scheme as well as the characteristic features ρ , τ , $s\tau$, and α are fundamental in identifying and analyzing the contributions of various interactions between light and fabric containing TiO₂, so as to explore the true mechanisms of TiO₂ as a UV-shielding additive. Further, they are of great advantage, as shown later, in studying fabric optical behaviors to explore new methods in improving or adjusting the optical properties of fabrics.

EXPERIMENTAL

Materials and tests

Four commercial TiO₂ powders, B, D, H, and P were used in this study. To obtain reliable data, several

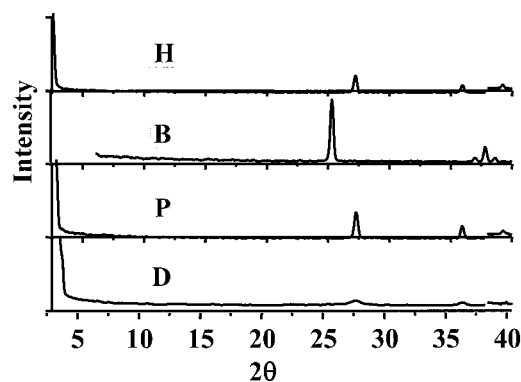


Figure 3 XRD patterns of TiO₂ of different types: H, B, P, and D.

important characteristics of the powders themselves were tested.

First, the crystallinities of the powders were determined through X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a DMAX/rB diffractometer (Rigaku Co., Tokyo, Japan). The XRD patterns are given in Figure 3 showing that D, P, and H are rutile TiO₂, whereas B is an anatase TiO₂.¹² Meanwhile, the diffraction peak of D is clearly broader than that of the others, and its mean diameter, calculated by using Scherrer's eq. (7), was about 32 nm. Second, using a nitrogen absorbance meter, model JB-1 (made in China), the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface areas of the powders were measured, ranging from 139, 11, 6.4, and to less than 1 m² g⁻¹ for D, P, B, and H, respectively. Under the assumption that the particles are spherical, their average diameters were thus calculated. D is about 32 nm in diameter, consistent with the result calculated by Scherrer's equation with the line broadening. B and P are in the submicrometer range, although B is slightly smaller than P; and H is at the micrometer scale. Meanwhile, the primary diameter of D was also mea-

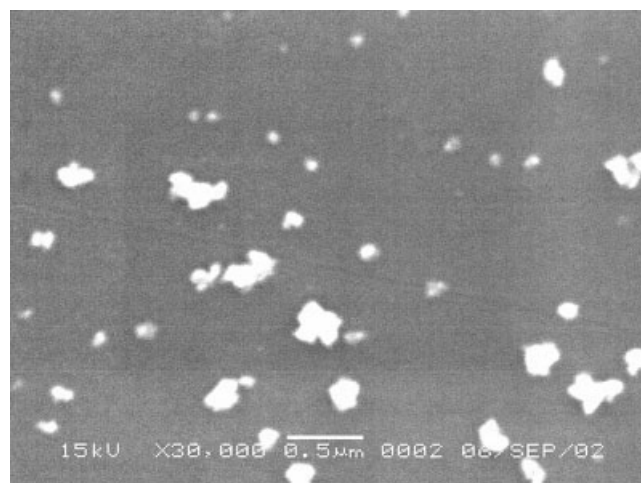


Figure 4 SEM micrograph of sample D.

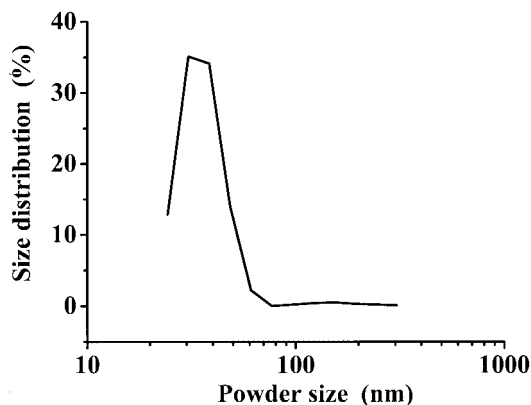


Figure 5 Size distribution of sample D in water.

sured by a scanning electron micrograph and is actually <100 nm (see Fig. 4). Furthermore, the size distribution by number for powder D in deionized water was analyzed by a Zetasizer3000HS (Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK) using the laser-diffraction method, shown in Figure 5. A test summary for the four powders is listed in Table I.

Additional materials were also used in this investigation, including a polymer binder from National Starch and Chemical (Berkeley, CA), marked as j below; an ordinary commercial organic UV absorber used as a reference, denoted as O, as well as some cotton fabrics are listed in Table II.

Preparation of the TiO_2 composite films

TiO_2 powders were dispersed in deionized water and stirred with ultrasonic agitation (20 kHz) for 5 min. Then, the binder j was mixed uniformly into a sol or suspension for 5 min by ultrasonic stirring as well. Certain amounts of these mixtures were applied onto a level glass sheet, and solidified into films at room temperature. The films were then peeled off carefully from the glass and placed into sample holders and cured under standard conditions for 24 h before testing. Table III provides details concerning all the films, and special care was taken during the preparation to ensure their consistency. The weight percentages in Table III represent the ratio of powder to the pure binder. The thickness of the films was about 0.1 mm, similar to the thickness of light fabrics.

Treatment of the tested fabrics

Three types of cotton fabrics, denoted as t, p, and g, respectively, in Table II, were used in the study. Fabrics t and p were finished white cotton fabrics without special whitening treatment to avoid the influence of the whitening agents; fabric g was of originally gray cotton and served as the untreated reference sample, which was dipped in water and then padded and dried so as to minimize the effect of water shrinkage. Fabrics t, p, and g were each given a simple UV-protective finishing in the lab: dipped in 2 wt% D or P aqueous suspension (dispersed uniformly by the ultrasonic method), then padded with about 100% pick-up and dried. Table II gives the specifications of the fabrics. The untreated and treated fabrics were balanced under standard conditions for 24 h before measurement.

Equipment and measurement^{13–16}

A Cary 500 spectrophotometer, with a Varian integrating sphere (Palo Alto, CA) mentioned earlier, was chosen to measure the UV-VIS interactions of the materials listed in Tables II and III. The following spectra were scanned between 200 and 800 nm with a 1-nm interval at room temperature, including the reflection spectra of the powders, and the reflection spectra, transmission spectra, and scattered transmission spectra of both films and fabrics.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

UV properties of TiO_2 powders

Figure 6 gives the reflectance spectra of the four TiO_2 powders. The absorption capacity and absorption ranges of powders can be obtained from their reflectance spectra. Clearly, all four TiO_2 powders—the nano- TiO_2 D, the submicron- TiO_2 B and P, and micron- TiO_2 H—absorb UV rays, which is in conflict with the conclusion from Zhang and Mou⁷ that submicron- TiO_2 absorbs virtually no UV rays.

In fact, the UV-absorption property is a natural attribute of TiO_2 , which can be explained by the solid band theory. TiO_2 is a kind of semiconductor oxide with a large band gap between its low-energy valence band and its high-energy conduction band. The band

TABLE I
Descriptions of the Four TiO_2 Powders

Feature	D	B	P	H
Appearance	White, puffed	White powder	White, with a little agglomeration	White, with some agglomeration
Crystal phase	Rutile	Anatase	Rutile	Rutile
Size grade	Nanosized	Submicron	Submicron	Micron

TABLE II
Specifications and Symbols of the Fabrics

Fabric specification	Thickness (mm)	Untreated	Treated with D	Treated with P
21 × 21, 108 × 58 white cotton twill	0.50	t	Dt	Pt
40 × 40, 64 × 72 white cotton plain	0.30	p	Dp	Pp
21 × 21, 83 × 48 gray cotton twill	0.55	g (dipped and padded with water, then dried)	Dg	Pg

gaps for rutile and anatase are 3.0 and 3.2 eV, respectively, corresponding to the absorption edges 413 and 388 nm.¹⁷ When TiO₂ is illuminated by light with energy higher than its band gaps (i.e., with wavelength shorter than the absorption edges), the electrons will absorb the energy of the photons and be excited to cross the band gap, so as to produce the pairs of electrons and holes. These excited electrons and holes will then result in two competing consequences: either combining with other holes or electrons, or being captured by the absorbents surrounding TiO₂ and initiating reduction and oxidation reactions. The former explains how the UV-protector TiO₂ functions, whereas the latter reveals the mechanism of TiO₂ as a light catalyzer.

Next, the differences in internal structure between rutile and anatase are reflected in their properties. For instance, the density of rutile (4.25 g/cm³) is higher than that of anatase (3.89 g/cm³), and the band gap of rutile is also narrower than that of anatase. As a result, rutile has much higher excited electron-hole recombination probability and substantially lower light-catalyzing activity than that of anatase. Thus, rutile is more suitable for being used as a UV blocker, whereas anatase is more suitable for being a light catalyzer.

In addition, the UV-blocking or light-catalyzing function can and should be altered through different surface modifications corresponding to different applications. For instance, without further modification it is known that anatase TiO₂ as a delusterant for synthetic fiber in fact accelerates the light degrading and weathering of the synthetic fiber.¹⁸

The absorption peaks of D, P, B, and H are estimated from Figure 6, by using the method proposed by Fochs,¹⁹ as 398, 384, 411, and 411 nm, respectively. The nano-TiO₂ D (rutile) exhibits more than 10-nm blue shift compared with that of the ordinary TiO₂. Meanwhile, among powders D, P, B, and H, the nano-

particle D shows the strongest absorption power, B the second strongest, followed by pigments P and H.

The strengthened absorption and blue shift of the absorption peak of nano-TiO₂ result from certain unique effects of nanomaterials, such as the quantum-size effect, nanoscale effect, and quantum field emission effect.⁷ Strengthened UV absorption is beneficial to UV blocking, whereas the blue shift of the absorption peak reduces absorption of UV-rays of longer wavelength and is thus undesirable for solar UV protection. Although the erythema hazard of long-wavelength UV is lower than that of short-wavelength UV, the former penetrates deeper into the skin and has an accumulating effect on the skin. Thus, when TiO₂ is used as a solar UV blocker, certain techniques should be adopted to generate a red shift to eliminate or offset the blue shift for better UV protection.

Functions of TiO₂ in films

TiO₂/binder composite films were used in this study, thus conferring several benefits. First, the films can be viewed as simplified substitutes for fabrics, removing the effect of porous and fuzzy fabric structures. Second, the internal structures of TiO₂/binder composite films are formed through simple physical mixtures, as evidenced from the derivative spectra of reflectance of D, j, and Dj shown in Figure 7; the edges of Dj corresponds to that of j or D, and no new peak formed; thus, the changes in optical properties of the composite film compared with that of pure binder film should be attributed solely to the additive TiO₂. Third, TiO₂/binder composite films can also reflect the effect of TiO₂ filling inside the matrix. Fourth, because the refractive index of the binder j (1.5 or so) is close to that of most fibrous materials (1.5–1.6), this avoids the otherwise complicity on light-scattering analysis. Finally, because the absorption peaks of binder j are

TABLE III
Films Prepared and Their Symbols

Symbol	j	Dj	Bj	Pj	Hj	Oj
Film composition	Binder	j + 2%D	j + 2%B	j + 2%P	j + 2%H	j + 2%O
Symbol	Dj1	Dj2	Dj3	Pj1	Pj2	Pj3
Film composition	j + 1%D	j + 2%D	j + 3%D	j + 1%P	j + 2%P	j + 3%P

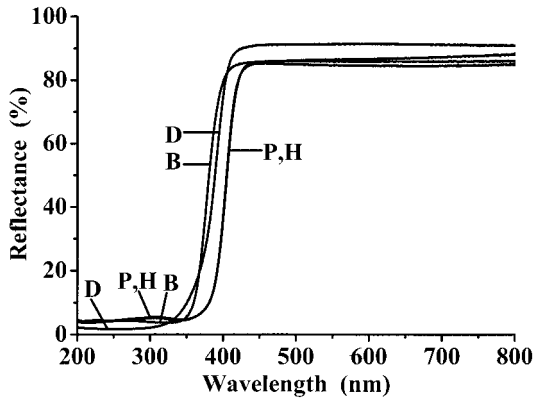


Figure 6 Reflectance spectra of four TiO₂ powders.

both shorter than 290 nm, it presents almost negligible interference in studying the optical properties of TiO₂ in the region of 290–760 nm.^{20,21}

Figure 8 shows the transmission (including the diffused transmission), the absorption, and reflectance spectra of the films. Within the band of UV, the four TiO₂ composite films show a significant decrease in transmittance, compared with that of the pure binder film *j* (i.e., TiO₂ exerts a considerable influence in improving the film's UV-blocking property). The reason becomes clear by analyzing both Figures 8 and 9. First, TiO₂ composite films have strong absorption in the band of 290–350 nm, with *Dj* having the strongest absorption among them. Next, in the band of 350–400 nm, besides absorption, composite films' strong scattering power also plays a role in reducing transmittance. The forwardly strong scattering can be demonstrated by the high ratio, $s\tau/\tau > 90\%$, for all TiO₂ composite films, whereas $s\tau/\tau$ values of the reference films *j* and *Oj* are only 7 and 8%, respectively, estimated from Figure 8. Note that the ratio $s\tau/\tau$ reflects the light transmission caused by scattering relative to the total. The backward scattering, on the other hand, increases light reflectance, which helps in blocking

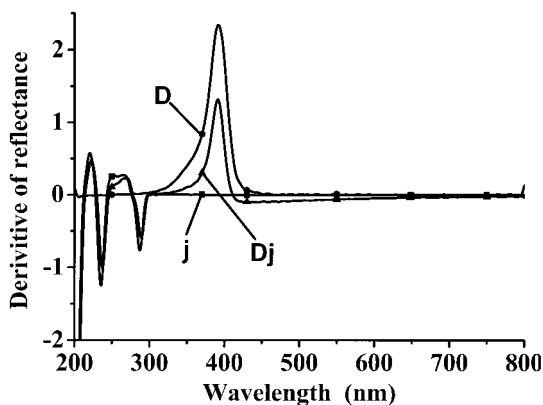
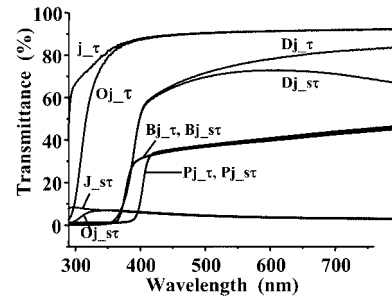
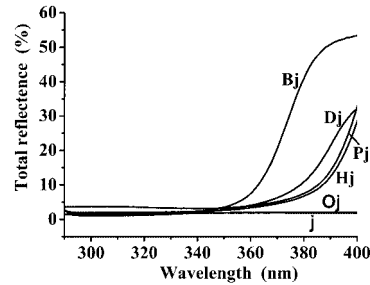


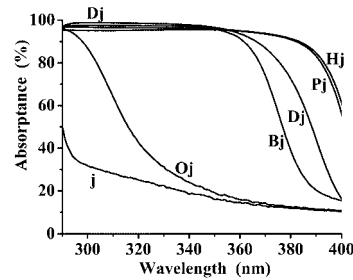
Figure 7 Derivative of reflectance of *j*, *D*, and *Dj*.



(a)



(b)



(c)

Figure 8 Spectra of films: (a) transmission and diffuse transmission spectra; (b) reflection spectra; (c) absorption spectra.

UV. Compared with pure film *j*, TiO₂ composite films have enhanced capacity in reflectance ρ from 6 to 28%, shown in Figure 9, whereas the organic UV composite film *Oj* shows little increase. In other words, TiO₂ composites gain their excellent UV-blocking power mainly from TiO₂'s UV-absorption capacity, in addition to some scattering/reflection effects in the long-wavelength band of weak UV absorption or even non-UV absorption for TiO₂.

As in the band of VIS, although all TiO₂ composite films show strong light scattering with $s\tau/\tau$ values $> 90\%$, estimated from Figure 8, the $s\tau/\tau$ for *Dj* is slightly smaller, indicating that nanopowders have weaker scattering power to VIS than the submicrometer-size and micrometer-size powders. Furthermore, *Dj* has the highest T_{VIS} among the four TiO₂ composite films, nearly transparent, whereas the T_{VIS} values of the other films are all $< 50\%$. In fact, the specimen *P* of only 1% additive reduces by half of the

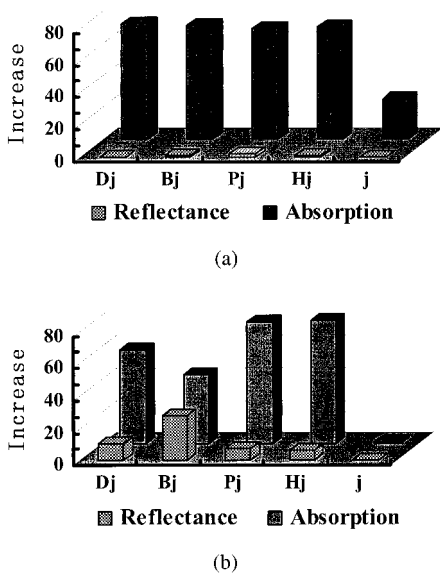


Figure 9 Increase in average reflectance and average absorbance of the composite films compared with the pure binder film: (a) in the band of 290–350 nm; (b) in the band of 350–400 nm.

T_{VIS} value compared with that of the pure binder film [see Fig. 10(a) and (b)²²]. These all agree with the light scattering theory and indicate that nanoparticles affect the film color far less than the ordinary scale particles. In addition, the UPF value of Dj1 is >50 and that of Pj2 is >30, which confirms the strong UV absorption power of nano-TiO₂.

According to theory, as light is transmitting in a nonhomogeneous medium, where the refractive index varies at different locations, light scattering will occur. When particles are dispersed in a film matrix, the scattering intensity depends on such factors as the content, the size (diameter *d*), and the relative refractive index of the particles to the matrix; the higher the relative refractive index, the more actively the light scatters.

When $d < 0.1\lambda$, the Rayleigh scattering theory becomes applicable; the scattering intensity is directly proportional to d^6 , and is inversely proportional to the number of particles. The intensity of backward scattering tends to be equal to that of the forward scattering. With the increase of *d*, the Mie theory is more relevant, given that the forward scattering becomes stronger and the backward scattering turns weaker. The total scattering intensity increases to the peak value when *d* reaches about $\lambda/2$, and then decreases with further increases of *d*.

Rutile TiO₂ has a very high refractive index of 2.76 at 589.3 nm wavelength, and 3.03 at 435.8 nm light.²³ The index peaks near the absorption boundary, then decreases sharply and remains low over the absorption band. Therefore, composite films with TiO₂ added

have high relative refractive index and cause strong light scattering in the nonabsorption bands such as VIS or near.

It is also easily understood that the scatter intensity to VIS of nanoparticles is far weaker than that of submicrometer-size particles (i.e., a smaller diameter *d* leading to weaker scatter intensity, less influence on film color, and higher scatter power in blocking light). However, when the diameter decreases to a certain degree, backward-scattering intensity starts to level off, whereas the light-catalytic activity will increase. Thus for TiO₂ UV protector, a particle scale that is too small will in fact abate its performance.

Functions of TiO₂ in fabrics

Figures 11, 12, and 13 present the transmission spectra, UPF values, absorption, and $R/(R + T)$ for fabrics t, p, and g, respectively.

It is easily seen in these figures that the untreated fabrics themselves can reflect, scatter, and absorb some UV, but not enough for desired protection. For instance, the UPF value for thick fabric t is 9 in Figure 11(b), only 3 for thin fabric p in Figure 12(b), and is 19 in Figure 13(b) for the gray fabric g, attributed to the sizing stuffs binding on the warp yarns and the natural pigments, lignins, on the cotton fibers absorbing some UV.

After treatment with TiO₂, either the nanosize (D) or the submicron-size (P), the UV-blocking properties of the fabrics improve greatly in all three indices. The

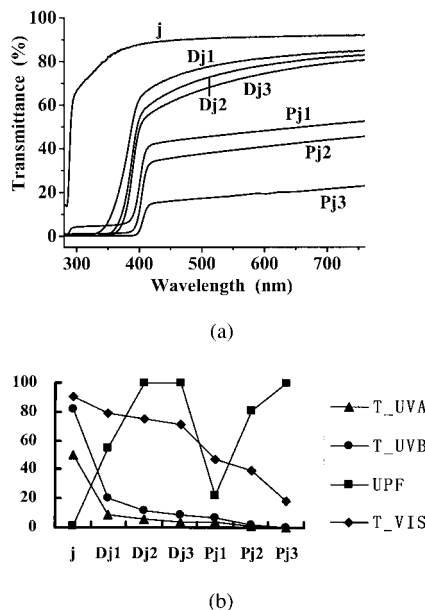


Figure 10 Comparison between composite films with different contents of TiO₂²²: (a) transmittance spectra for various samples; (b) other optical parameters for various samples. (UPF value is recorded as 100 once over 100.)

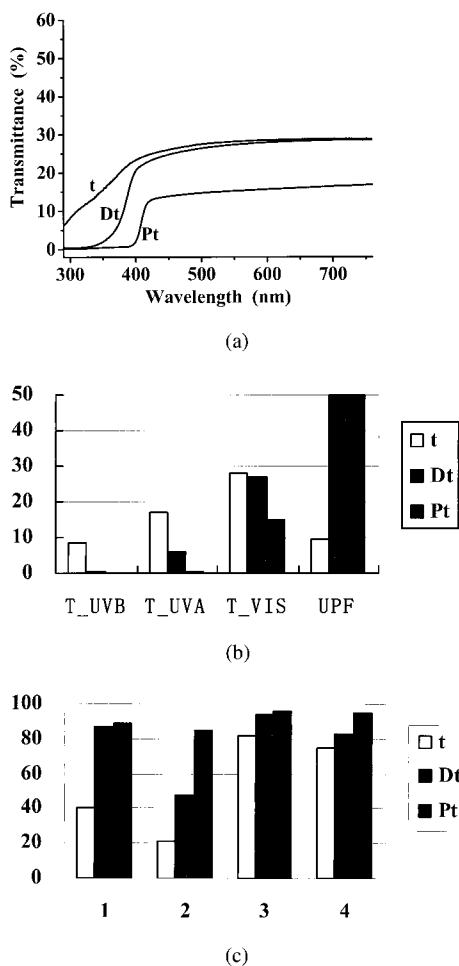


Figure 11 Comparison between untreated and treated white twill cotton (t): (a) transmittance spectra for untreated and treated samples; (b) important optical indices for untreated and treated samples; (c) other optical parameters for untreated and treated samples.

UPF values for the three types of the fabrics all exceed 50, and even the lowest UPF increases from 3 to 26 for the untreated fabric p. In the band of 290–350 nm, the absorption power of nano-TiO₂ is stronger than that of the pigment-TiO₂. The case is opposite in the band of 350–400 nm because of the blue shift at the absorption edge of nano-TiO₂. Direct transmittance ($\tau - s\tau$) values for treated fabrics are all smaller than those of their corresponding untreated fabrics. $R/(R + T)$ values of treated fabrics increase compared with those of the untreated fabrics, indicating a strengthening of the scattering/reflection effect [see the corresponding (c) parts of the figures for each fabric].

Meanwhile, the increase in scattering in treated fabrics with TiO₂ is not as remarkable as that in TiO₂ composite films because the uneven and porous fabric structures already provide some inherent scattering capacity. According to our calculation, $s\tau/\tau$ values for untreated fabrics are above 90%, whereas the $s\tau/\tau$ ratio for the pure film j is even below 10%. Therefore,

similar to the conclusion discussed earlier (see experimental section), the improvement of UV-blocking function for the treated fabrics results to a great degree from the UV absorption of TiO₂, and the scattering and reflection exert only a marginal effect, less than that in the films.

In addition, the gray fabric g treated with D has a higher UPF value than that treated with P. On the one hand, it is attributed to the stronger UV absorption of D; on the other hand, it reflects the better affinity of D toward fabrics and particularly toward the sizing stuffs (binders). This is beneficial for normal UV-protective finishing, which needs some binders to bond TiO₂ better to fabrics. In fact, during the process of UV-protective finishing, we have found that D had much better affinity to fabrics than P, and P in fact easily fell off the fabrics. This confirms that nanoparticles possess better affinity to fabrics than those of larger scale because of their huge surface area to volume ratio and high surface energy.

When comparing the optical property in the VIS band in the corresponding (b) parts of the figures

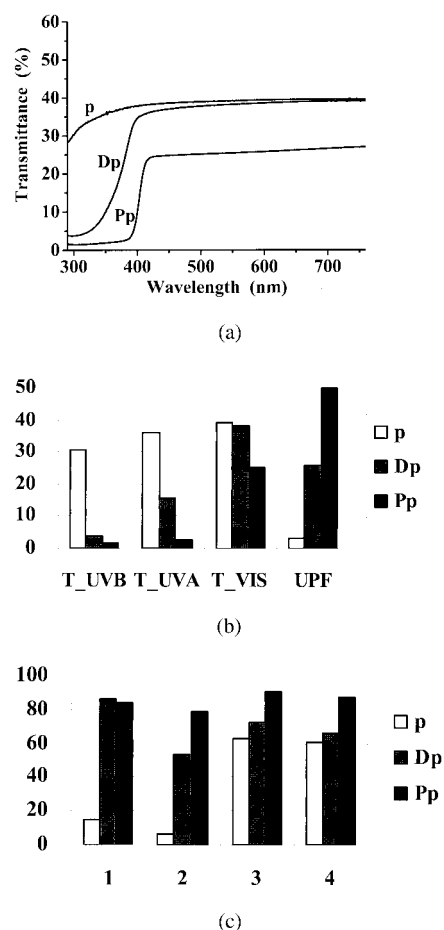


Figure 12 Comparison between untreated and treated white cotton plain (p): (a) transmittance spectra for untreated and treated samples; (b) important optical indices for untreated and treated samples; (c) other optical parameters for untreated and treated samples.

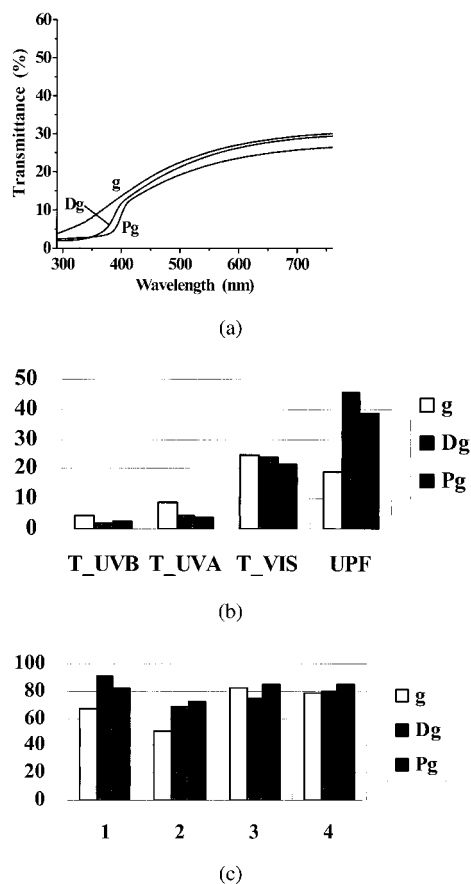


Figure 13 Comparison between untreated and treated gray cotton twill (g): (a) transmittance spectra for untreated and treated samples; (b) important optical indices for untreated and treated samples; (c) other optical parameters for untreated and treated samples (1, average absorbance in the band of 290–350 nm; 2, average absorbance in the band of 350–400 nm; 3, average $R/(R + T)$ in the band of 290–350 nm; 4, average $R/(R + T)$ in the band of 350–400 nm). UPF value is recorded as 50 once over 50.²⁴

(taking T_{VIS} value for example), fabrics treated with D show little difference from their corresponding untreated fabrics, whereas fabrics treated with P reduce their T_{VIS} values to about one third of those of the corresponding untreated fabrics. Actually, fabrics treated with D show little change in appearance, whereas fabrics treated with P present a visible whitening effect, attributed to the white pigment.

CONCLUSIONS

1. As the experimental results show, regardless of the particle sizes, TiO₂ clearly absorbs UV radiation, which can be explained by the solid band theory. This is different from the previous view that submicron-TiO₂ absorbs little UV. Also, TiO₂ works as a UV-blocking additive mainly through UV absorption, and the scattering and

reflection mechanisms are significant only in the band where TiO₂ has either weak or nonabsorption, although TiO₂ has a higher refractive index than that of most other semiconductors. Therefore, it can be expected that other inorganic semiconductor oxides with UVA and UVB absorption capability, like ZnO, should have a similar function mechanism to that of TiO₂ when used as UV-ray blockers for fabrics.

2. Because of its stronger UV absorbance, nanoscale TiO₂ exhibits better UV-blocking capacity than that of the pigment TiO₂; moreover, it also exerts very little influence, when embedded, on matrix color because of its much weaker scattering intensity to VIS than that of pigment TiO₂. The nanoscale TiO₂ also presents good affinity to fabrics because of its very large specific surface area and high surface energy and activity. However, the blue shift of the absorption edge of nano-TiO₂ is disadvantageous when used as a solar UV protector because it reduces the absorption of UVA near VIS. Nevertheless, these nanoscale effects provide new ways for inorganic UV-blocking agents like TiO₂ to work more effectively in textiles. Of course, other effects of nano-TiO₂ on textiles, such as fabric hand, breath capacity, and so forth, should be given further study.
3. From this study, some useful knowledge has been attained in developing inorganic UV blockers for UV-protective textiles. First, for UV protector nano-TiO₂ it is desirable to strengthen the red shift and offset the blue shift phenomena for more effective solar UV protection. Second, all inorganic UV-blocking agents with the same UV-protective mechanism as that of TiO₂ can work well both exteriorly and interiorly for ordinary UV-protective fabrics, but will not work for camouflage fabrics that require high UV reflectance. Third, when deciding the optimal size of TiO₂ as a UV protector, we should consider both its UV-absorption property and its scattering characteristics. It is biased to selecting the optimal diameter only by light-scattering equations, as done in Wu et al.²⁴ Fourth, although the scatter effects of TiO₂ exhibit only a marginal effect on fabrics' UV-blocking function, this differentiates TiO₂ from organic UV absorbers. The existing models for predicting the UV-protective effects of fabrics treated with organic UV absorbers are thus not applicable for fabrics with TiO₂.
4. Based on the interactions of fabric to light, the improved model in this study, elucidating in great detail how fabric reacts to light, is more informative and useful in analyzing the UV-blocking mechanisms of TiO₂. The new model

and the analyzing method are also applicable for investigating the mechanism of other inorganic UV-blocking additives for fabrics. Furthermore, the new model is more robust for studying the optical properties of fabrics, analyzing the factors involved, and exploring new methods for further improvement.

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