

NANOMATERIALS

Nanoscale materials are defined as a set of substances where at least one dimension is less than approximately 100 nanometers. A nanometer is one millionth of a millimeter - approximately 100,000 times smaller than the diameter of a human hair. Nanomaterials are of interest because at this scale unique optical, magnetic, electrical, and other properties emerge. These emergent properties have the potential for great impacts in electronics, medicine, and other fields.



Nanomaterial (For example: Carbon nanotube)

Some nanomaterials occur naturally, but of particular interest are engineered nanomaterials (EN), which are designed for, and already being used in many commercial products and processes. They can be found in such things as sunscreens, cosmetics, sporting goods, stain-resistant clothing, tires, electronics, as well as many other everyday items, and are used in medicine for purposes of diagnosis, imaging and drug delivery.

Engineered nanomaterials are resources designed at the molecular (nanometre) level to take advantage of their small size and novel properties which are generally not seen in their conventional, bulk counterparts. The two main reasons why materials at the nano scale can have different properties are increased relative surface area and new quantum effects. Nanomaterials have a much greater surface area to volume ratio than their conventional forms, which can lead to greater chemical reactivity and affect their strength. Also at the nano scale, quantum effects can become much more important in determining the materials properties and characteristics, leading to novel optical, electrical and magnetic behaviours.

Nanomaterials are already in commercial use, with some having been available

for several years or decades. The range of commercial products available today is very broad, including stain-resistant and wrinkle-free textiles, cosmetics, sunscreens, electronics, paints and varnishes. Nanocoatings and nanocomposites are finding uses in diverse consumer products, such as windows, sports equipment, bicycles and automobiles. There are novel UV-blocking coatings on glass bottles which protect beverages from damage by sunlight, and longer-lasting tennis balls using butyl-rubber/nano-clay composites. Nanoscale titanium dioxide, for instance, is finding applications in cosmetics, sun-block creams and self-cleaning windows, and nanoscale silica is being used as filler in a range of products, including cosmetics and dental fillings.

Advances in Nanomaterials

The history of nanomaterials began immediately after the big bang when Nanostructures were formed in the early meteorites. Nature later evolved many other Nanostructures like seashells, skeletons etc. Nanoscaled smoke particles were formed during the use of fire by early humans. The scientific story of nanomaterials however began much later. One of the first scientific reports is the colloidal gold particles synthesised by Michael Faraday as early as 1857. Nanostructured catalysts have also been investigated for over 70 years. By the early 1940's, precipitated and fumed silica nanoparticles were being manufactured and sold in USA and Germany as substitutes for ultrafine carbon black for rubber reinforcements.

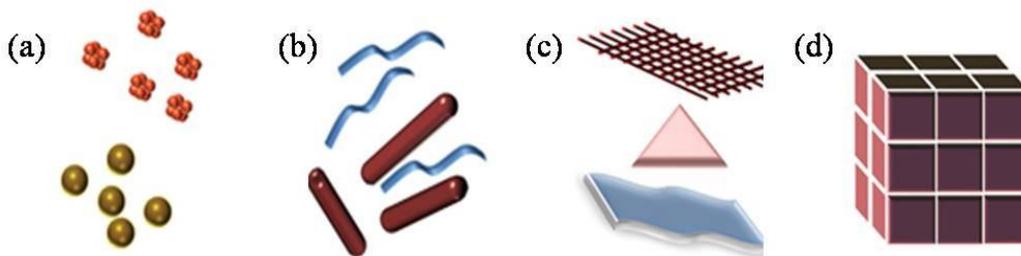
Nanosized amorphous silica particles have found large-scale applications in many every-day consumer products, ranging from non-dairy coffee creamer to automobile tires, optical fibers and catalyst supports. In the 1960s and 1970's metallic nanopowders for magnetic recording tapes were developed. In 1976, for the first time, nanocrystals produced by the now popular inert-gas evaporation technique was published by Granqvist and Buhrman. Recently it has been found that the Maya blue paint is a nanostructured hybrid material. The origin of its color and its resistance to acids and biocorrosion are still not understood but studies of authentic samples from Jaina Island show that the material is made of needle-shaped palygorskite (clay) crystals that form a superlattice with a period of 1.4 nm, with intercalates of amorphous silicate substrate containing inclusions of metal (Mg) nanoparticles. The beautiful tone of the blue color is obtained only when both these nanoparticles and the superlattice are present, as has been shown by the fabrication of synthetic samples.

Today nanophase engineering expands in a rapidly growing number of structural and functional materials, both inorganic and organic, allowing to manipulate mechanical, catalytic, electric, magnetic, optical and electronic functions. The production of nanophase or cluster-assembled materials is usually based upon the creation of separated small clusters which then are fused into a bulk-like material or on their embedding into compact liquid or solid matrix materials. e.g. nanophase silicon, which differs from normal silicon in physical and electronic properties, could be applied to macroscopic semiconductor processes to create new devices. For instance, when ordinary glass is doped with quantized semiconductor "colloids," it becomes a high performance optical medium with potential applications in optical computing.

Classification of Nanomaterials

Nanomaterials have extremely small size which having at least one dimension 100 nm or less. Nanomaterials can be nanoscale in one dimension (eg. surface films), two dimensions (eg. strands or fibres), or three dimensions (eg. particles). They can exist in single, fused, aggregated or agglomerated forms with spherical, tubular, and irregular shapes. Common types of nanomaterials include nanotubes, dendrimers, quantum dots and fullerenes. Nanomaterials have applications in the field of nano technology, and displays different physical chemical characteristics from normal chemicals (i.e., silver nano, carbon nanotube, fullerene, photocatalyst, carbon nano, silica).

According to Siegel, Nanostructured materials are classified as Zero dimensional, one dimensional, two dimensional, three dimensional nanostructures.



Classification of Nanomaterials (a) 0D spheres and clusters, (b) 1D nanofibers, wires, and rods, (c) 2D films, plates, and networks, (d) 3D nanomaterials.

Nanomaterials are materials which are characterized by an ultra fine grain size (< 50 nm) or by a dimensionality limited to 50 nm. Nanomaterials can be created with various modulation dimensionalities as defined by Richard W. Siegel: zero (atomic clusters, filaments and cluster assemblies), one (multilayers), two (ultrafine-grained overlayers or buried layers), and three (nanophase materials consisting of equiaxed nanometer sized grains) as shown in the above figure.

These materials have created a high interest in recent years by virtue of their unusual mechanical, electrical, optical and magnetic properties. Some examples are given below:

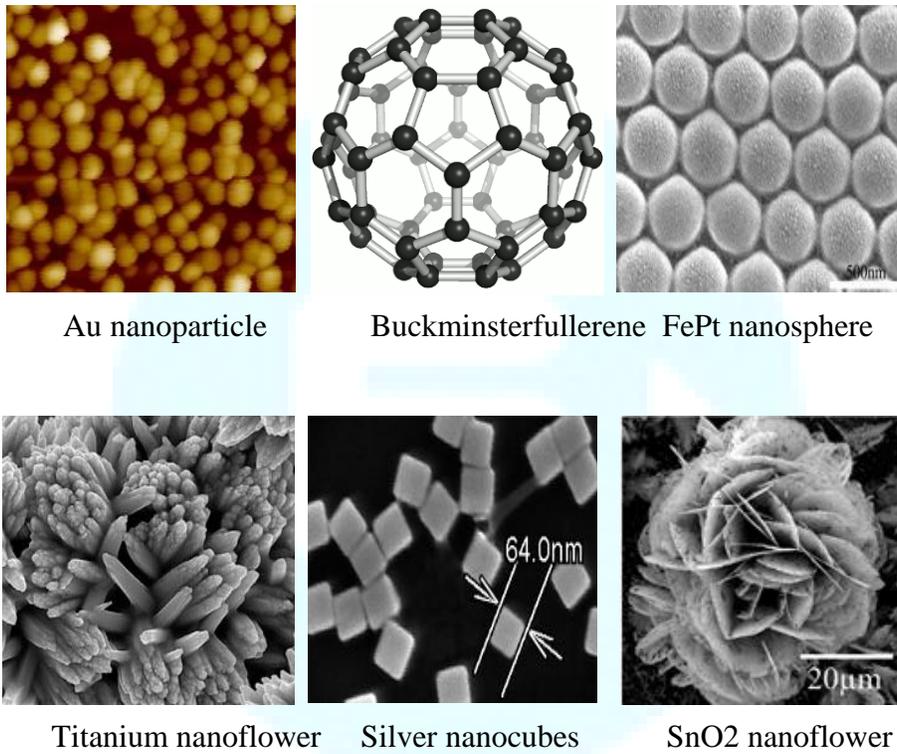
- (i) Nanophase ceramics are of particular interest because they are more ductile at elevated temperatures as compared to the coarse-grained ceramics.
- (ii) Nanostructured semiconductors are known to show various non-linear optical properties. Semiconductor Q-particles also show quantum confinement effects which may lead to special properties, like the luminescence in silicon powders and silicon germanium quantum dots as infrared optoelectronic devices. Nanostructured semiconductors are used as window layers in solar cells.
- (iii) Nanosized metallic powders have been used for the production of gas tight materials, dense parts and porous coatings. Cold welding properties combined with the ductility make them suitable for metal-metal bonding especially in the electronic industry.
- (iv) Single nanosized magnetic particles are mono-domains and one expects that also in magnetic nanophase materials the grains correspond with domains, while boundaries on the contrary to disordered walls. Very small particles have special atomic structures with discrete electronic states, which give rise to special properties in addition to the superparamagnetism behaviour. Magnetic nanocomposites have been used for mechanical force transfer (ferrofluids), for high density information storage and magnetic refrigeration.
- (v) Nanostructured metal clusters and colloids of mono- or plurimetallic composition have a special impact in catalytic applications. They may serve as precursors for new type of heterogeneous catalysts (Cortex-catalysts) and have been shown to offer substantial advantages concerning activity, selectivity and lifetime in chemical transformations and electrocatalysis (fuel cells). Enantioselective catalysis was also achieved using chiral modifiers on the surface of nanoscale metal particles.
- (vi) Nanostructured metal-oxide thin films are receiving a growing attention for the realization of gas sensors (NO_x , CO, CO_2 , CH_4 and aromatic hydrocarbons) with enhanced sensitivity and selectivity. Nanostructured metal-oxide (MnO_2) finds application for rechargeable batteries for cars or consumer goods. Nanocrystalline silicon films for

highly transparent contacts in thin film solar cell and nano-structured titanium oxide porous films for its high transmission and significant surface area enhancement leading to strong absorption in dye sensitized solar cells.

(vii) Polymer based composites with a high content of inorganic particles leading to a high dielectric constant are interesting materials for photonic band gap structure.

Examples of Nanomaterials

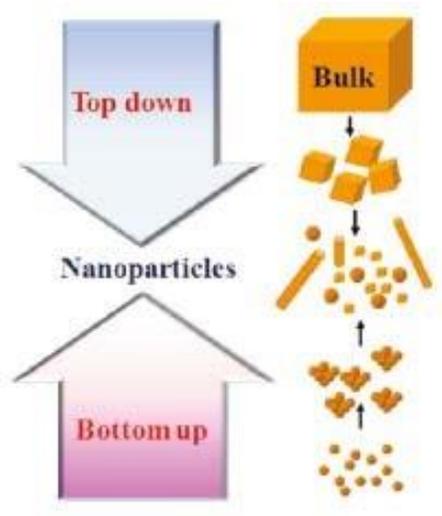
Nanomaterials (gold, carbon, metals, meta oxides and alloys) with variety of morphologies (shapes).



Nanomaterials with a variety of morphologies

Nanomaterial - synthesis and processing

Nanomaterials deal with very fine structures: a nanometer is a billionth of a meter. This indeed allows us to think in both the ‘bottom up’ or the ‘top down’ approaches (Fig. 5) to synthesize nanomaterials, i.e. either to assemble atoms together or to dis-assemble (break, or dissociate) bulk solids into finer pieces until they are constituted of only a few atoms. This domain is a pure example of interdisciplinary work encompassing physics, chemistry, and engineering upto medicine.



Schematic illustration of the preparative methods of nanoparticles.

Methods for creating nanostructures

There are many different ways of creating nanostructures: of course, macromolecules or nanoparticles or buckyballs or nanotubes and so on can be synthesized artificially for certain specific materials. They can also be arranged by methods based on equilibrium or near-equilibrium thermodynamics such as methods of self-organization and self-assembly (sometimes also called bio-mimetic processes). Using these methods, synthesized materials can be arranged into useful shapes so that finally the material can be applied to a certain application.

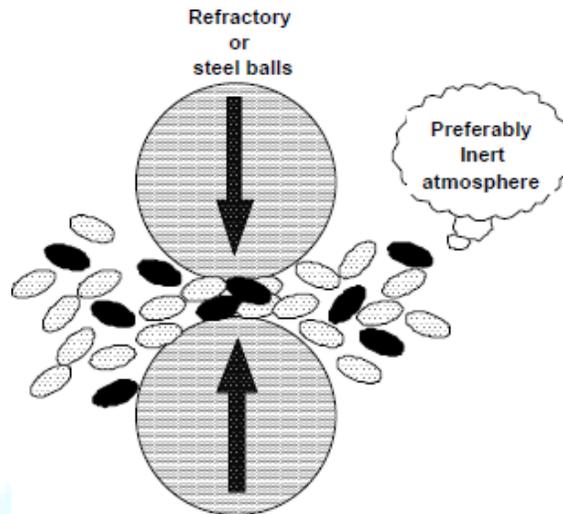
Mechanical grinding

Mechanical attrition is a typical example of 'top down' method of synthesis of nanomaterials, where the material is prepared not by cluster assembly but by the structural decomposition of coarser-grained structures as the result of severe plastic deformation. This has become a popular method to make nanocrystalline materials because of its simplicity, the relatively inexpensive equipment needed, and the applicability to essentially the synthesis of all classes of materials. The major advantage often quoted is the possibility for easily scaling up to tonnage quantities of material for various applications. Similarly, the serious problems that are usually cited are;

1. contamination from milling media and/or atmosphere, and
2. to consolidate the powder product without coarsening the nanocrystalline microstructure.

In fact, the contamination problem is often given as a reason to dismiss the method, at least for some materials. Here we will review the mechanisms presently believed responsible

for formation of nanocrystalline structures by mechanical attrition of single phase powders, mechanical alloying of dissimilar powders, and mechanical crystallisation of amorphous materials. The two important problems of contamination and powder consolidation will be briefly considered.



Schematic representation of the principle of mechanical milling

Mechanical milling is typically achieved using high energy shaker, planetary ball, or tumbler mills. The energy transferred to the powder from refractory or steel balls depends on the rotational (vibrational) speed, size and number of the balls, ratio of the ball to powder mass, the time of milling and the milling atmosphere. Nanoparticles are produced by the shear action during grinding.

Milling in cryogenic liquids can greatly increase the brittleness of the powders influencing the fracture process. As with any process that produces fine particles, an adequate step to prevent oxidation is necessary. Hence this process is very restrictive for the production of non-oxide materials since then it requires that the milling take place in an inert atmosphere and that the powder particles be handled in an appropriate vacuum system or glove box. This method of synthesis is suitable for producing amorphous or nanocrystalline alloy particles, elemental or compound powders. If the mechanical milling imparts sufficient energy to the constituent powders a homogeneous alloy can be formed. Based on the energy of the milling process and thermodynamic properties of the constituents the alloy can be rendered amorphous by this processing.

Wet Chemical Synthesis of Nanomaterials

In principle we can classify the wet chemical synthesis of nanomaterials into two broad groups:

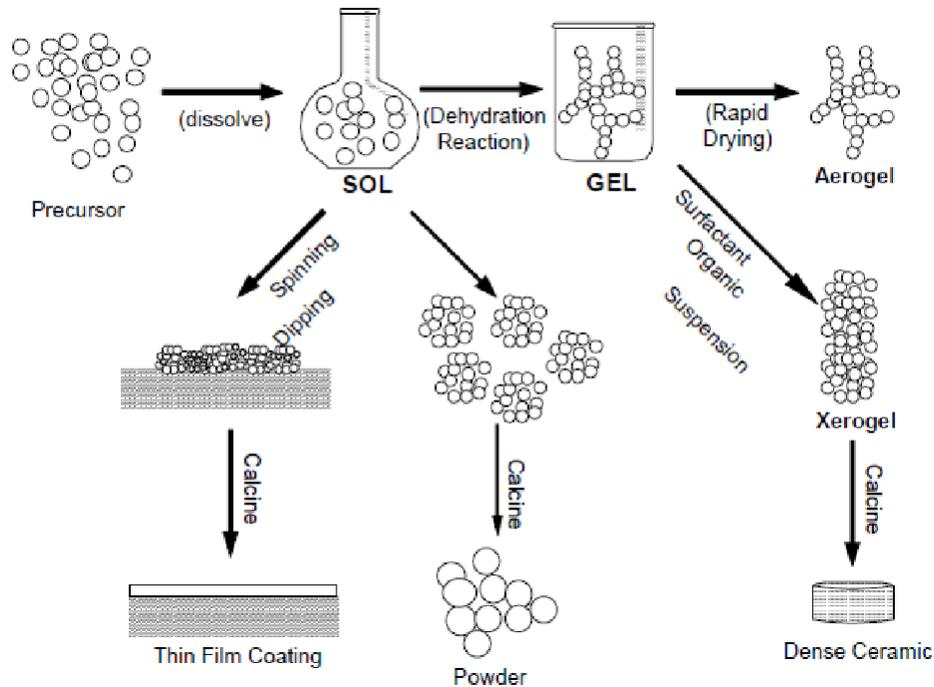
3. The top down method: where single crystals are etched in an aqueous solution for producing nanomaterials, For example, the synthesis of porous silicon by electrochemical etching.
4. The bottom up method: consisting of sol-gel method, precipitation etc. where materials containing the desired precursors are mixed in a controlled fashion to form a colloidal solution.

Sol-gel process

The sol-gel process, involves the evolution of inorganic networks through the formation of a colloidal suspension (**sol**) and gelation of the sol to form a network in a continuous liquid phase (**gel**). The precursors for synthesizing these colloids consist usually of a metal or metalloid element surrounded by various reactive ligands. The starting material is processed to form a dispersible oxide and forms a sol in contact with water or dilute acid. Removal of the liquid from the sol yields the gel, and the sol/gel transition controls the particle size and shape. Calcination of the gel produces the oxide. Sol-gel processing refers to the hydrolysis and condensation of alkoxide-based precursors such as $\text{Si}(\text{OEt})_4$ (tetraethyl orthosilicate, or TEOS). The reactions involved in the sol-gel chemistry based on the hydrolysis and condensation of metal alkoxides $\text{M}(\text{OR})_z$ can be described as follows:



Sol-gel method of synthesizing nanomaterials is very popular amongst chemists and is widely employed to prepare oxide materials. The sol-gel process can be characterized by a series of distinct steps.



Schematic representation of sol-gel process of synthesis of nanomaterials.

1. Formation of different stable solutions of the alkoxide or solvated metal precursor.
2. Gelation resulting from the formation of an oxide- or alcohol- bridged network (the gel) by a polycondensation reaction that results in a dramatic increase in the viscosity of the solution.
3. Aging of the gel (Syneresis), during which the polycondensation reactions continue until the gel transforms into a solid mass, accompanied by contraction of the gel network and expulsion of solvent from gel pores. Ostwald ripening (also referred to as coarsening, is the phenomenon by which smaller particles are consumed by larger particles during the growth process) and phase transformations may occur concurrently with syneresis. The aging process of gels can exceed 7 days and is critical to the prevention of cracks in gels that have been cast.
4. Drying of the gel, when water and other volatile liquids are removed from the gel network. This process is complicated due to fundamental changes in the structure of the gel. The drying process has itself been broken into four distinct steps: (i) the constant rate period, (ii) the critical point, (iii) the falling rate period, (iv) the second falling rate period. If isolated by thermal evaporation, the resulting monolith is termed a *xerogel*. If the solvent (such as water) is extracted under supercritical or near super critical conditions, the product is an *aerogel*.

5. Dehydration, during which surface-bound M-OH groups are removed, thereby stabilizing the gel against rehydration. This is normally achieved by calcining the monolith at temperatures up to 800°C.
6. Densification and decomposition of the gels at high temperatures ($T > 800^\circ\text{C}$). The pores of the gel network are collapsed, and remaining organic species are volatilized. The typical steps that are involved in sol-gel processing are shown in the schematic diagram below.

The interest in this synthesis method arises due to the possibility of synthesizing nonmetallic inorganic materials like glasses, glass ceramics or ceramic materials at very low temperatures compared to the high temperature process required by melting glass or firing ceramics.

The major difficulties to overcome in developing a successful bottom-up approach is controlling the growth of the particles and then stopping the newly formed particles from agglomerating. Other technical issues are ensuring the reactions are complete so that no unwanted reactant is left on the product and completely removing any growth aids that may have been used in the process. Also production rates of nano powders are very low by this process. The main advantage is one can get monosized nano particles by any bottom up approach.

Gas Phase synthesis of nanomaterials

The gas-phase synthesis methods are of increasing interest because they allow elegant way to control process parameters in order to be able to produce size, shape and chemical composition controlled nanostructures. Before we discuss a few selected pathways for gas-phase formation of nanomaterials, some general aspects of gas-phase synthesis needs to be discussed. In conventional chemical vapour deposition (CVD) synthesis, gaseous products either are allowed to react homogeneously or heterogeneously depending on a particular application.

5. In homogeneous CVD, particles form in the gas phase and diffuse towards a cold surface due to thermophoretic forces, and can either be scrapped of from the cold surface to give nano-powders, or deposited onto a substrate to yield what is called '*particulate films*'.
6. In heterogeneous CVD, the solid is formed on the substrate surface, which catalyses the reaction and a dense film is formed.

In order to form nanomaterials several modified CVD methods have been developed. Gas phase processes have inherent advantages, some of which are noted here:

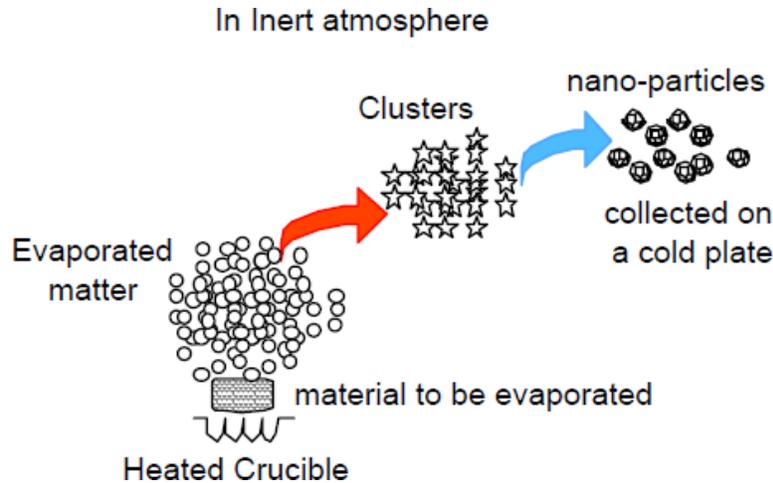
- An excellent control of size, shape, crystallinity and chemical composition
- Highly pure materials can be obtained
- Multicomponent systems are relatively easy to form
- Easy control of the reaction mechanisms

Most of the synthesis routes are based on the production of small clusters that can aggregate to form nano particles (condensation). Condensation occurs only when the vapour is supersaturated and in these processes homogeneous nucleation in the gas phase is utilised to form particles. This can be achieved both by physical and chemical methods.

Furnace

The simplest fashion to produce nanoparticles is by heating the desired material in a heat-resistant crucible containing the desired material. This method is appropriate only for materials that have a high vapour pressure at the heated temperatures that can be as high as 2000°C. Energy is normally introduced into the precursor by arc heating, electron-beam heating or Joule heating. The atoms are evaporated into an atmosphere, which is either inert (e.g. He) or reactive (so as to form a compound). To carry out reactive synthesis, materials with very low vapour pressure have to be fed into the furnace in the form of a suitable precursor such as organometallics, which decompose in the furnace to produce a condensable material. The hot atoms of the evaporated matter lose energy by collision with the atoms of the cold gas and undergo condensation into small clusters via homogeneous nucleation. In case a compound is being synthesized, these precursors react in the gas phase and form a compound with the material that is separately injected in the reaction chamber. The clusters would continue to grow if they remain in the supersaturated region. To control their size, they need to be rapidly removed from the supersaturated environment by a carrier gas. The cluster size and its distribution are controlled by only three parameters:

- 1) the rate of evaporation (energy input),
- 2) the rate of condensation (energy removal), and
- 3) the rate of gas flow (cluster removal).

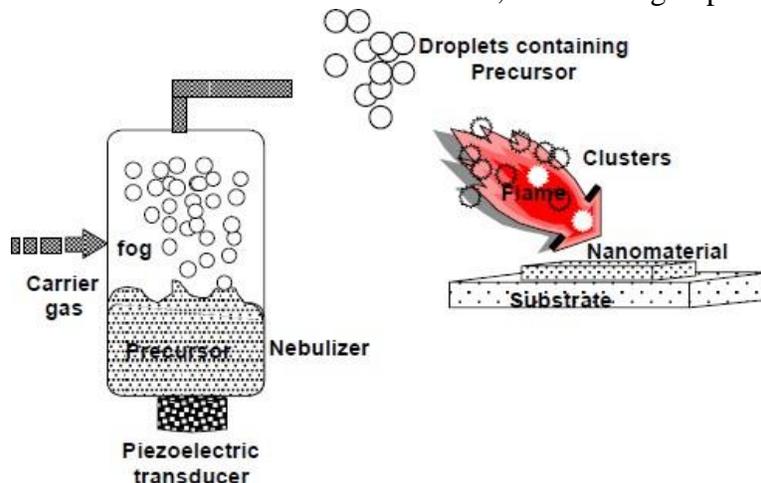


Schematic representation of gas phase process of synthesis of single phase nanomaterials from a heated crucible

Because of its inherent simplicity, it is possible to scale up this process from laboratory (mg/day) to industrial scales (tons/day).

Flame assisted ultrasonic spray pyrolysis

In this process, precursors are nebulized and then unwanted components are burnt in a flame to get the required material, eg. ZrO_2 has been obtained by this method from a precursor of $Zr(CH_3CH_2CH_2O)_4$. Flame hydrolysis that is a variant of this process is used for the manufacture of fused silica. In the process, silicon tetrachloride is heated in an oxy-hydrogen flame to give a highly dispersed silica. The resulting white amorphous powder consists of spherical particles with sizes in the range 7-40 nm. The combustion flame synthesis, in which the burning of a gas mixture, e.g. acetylene and oxygen or hydrogen and oxygen, supplies the energy to initiate the pyrolysis of precursor compounds, is widely used for the industrial production of powders in large quantities, such as carbon black, fumed silica and titanium dioxide. However, since the gas pressure during the



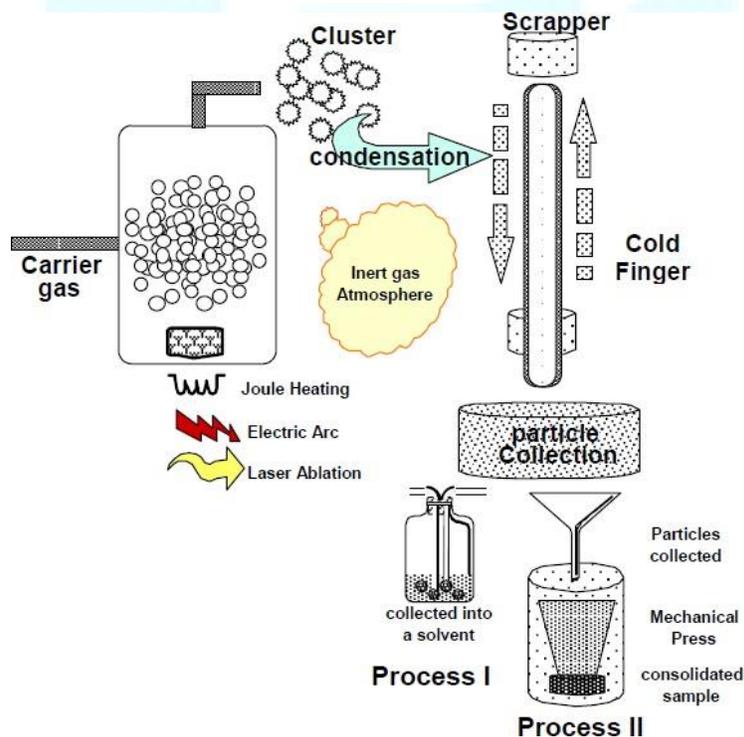
reaction is high, highly agglomerated powders are produced which is disadvantageous for subsequent processing. The basic idea of low pressure combustion flame synthesis is to extend the pressure range to the pressures used in gas phase synthesis and thus to reduce or avoid the agglomeration. Low pressure flames have been extensively used by aerosol scientists to study particle formation in the flame.

Flame assisted ultrasonic spray pyrolysis

A key for the formation of nanoparticles with narrow size distributions is the exact control of the flame in order to obtain a flat flame front. Under these conditions the thermal history, i.e. time and temperature, of each particle formed is identical and narrow distributions result. However, due to the oxidative atmosphere in the flame, this synthesis process is limited to the formation of oxides in the reactor zone.

Gas Condensation Processing (GPC)

In this technique, a metallic or inorganic material, e.g. a suboxide, is vaporised using thermal evaporation sources such as crucibles, electron beam evaporation devices or sputtering sources in an atmosphere of 1-50 mbar He (or another inert gas like Ar, Ne, Kr). Cluster form in the vicinity of the source by homogenous nucleation in the gas phase and grow by coalescence and incorporation of atoms from the gas phase.



Schematic representation of typical set-up for gas condensation synthesis of nanomaterials followed by consolidation in a mechanical press or collection in an appropriate solvent media.

The cluster or particle size depends critically on the residence time of the particles in the growth system and can be influenced by the gas pressure, the kind of inert gas, i.e. He, Ar or Kr, and on the evaporation rate/vapour pressure of the evaporating material. With increasing gas pressure, vapour pressure and mass of the inert gas used the average particle size of the nanoparticles increases. Lognormal size distributions have been found experimentally and have been explained theoretically by the growth mechanisms of the particles. Even in more complex processes such as the low pressure combustion flame synthesis where a number of chemical reactions are involved the size distributions are determined to be lognormal.

Originally, a rotating cylindrical device cooled with liquid nitrogen was employed for the particle collection: the nanoparticles in the size range from 2-50 nm are extracted from the gas flow by thermophoretic forces and deposited loosely on the surface of the collection device as a powder of low density and no agglomeration. Subsequently, the nanoparticles are removed from the surface of the cylinder by means of a scraper in the form of a metallic plate. In addition to this cold finger device several techniques known from aerosol science have now been implemented for the use in gas condensation systems such as corona discharge, etc. These methods allow for the continuous operation of the collection device and are better suited for larger scale synthesis of nanopowders. However, these methods can only be used in a system designed for gas flow, i.e. a dynamic vacuum is generated by means of both continuous pumping and gas inlet via mass flow controller. A major advantage over convectional gas flow is the improved control of the particle sizes. It has been found that the particle size distributions in gas flow systems, which are also lognormal, are shifted towards smaller average values with an appreciable reduction of the standard deviation of the distribution. Depending on the flow rate of the He-gas, particle sizes are reduced by 80% and standard deviations by 18%.

The synthesis of nanocrystalline pure metals is relatively straightforward as long as evaporation can be done from refractory metal crucibles (W, Ta or Mo). If metals with high melting points or metals which react with the crucibles, are to be prepared, sputtering, i.e. for W and Zr, or laser or electron beam evaporation has to be used. Synthesis of alloys or intermetallic compounds by thermal evaporation can only be done in the exceptional cases that the vapour pressures of the elements are similar. As an alternative, sputtering from an alloy or mixed target can be employed. Composite materials such as Cu/Bi or W/Ga have been synthesised by simultaneous evaporation from two separate crucibles onto a rotating collection device. It has been found that excellent intermixing on the scale of the particle size can be obtained.

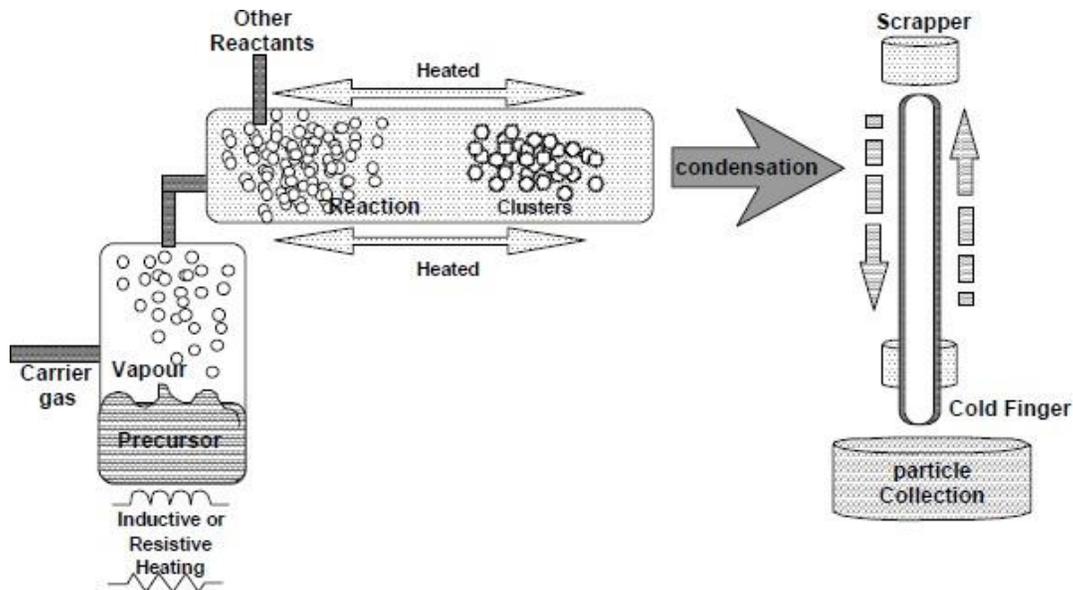
However, control of the composition of the elements has been difficult and reproducibility is poor. Nanocrystalline oxide powders are formed by controlled postoxidation of primary nanoparticles of a pure metal (e.g. Ti to TiO₂) or a suboxide (e.g. ZrO to ZrO₂). Although the gas condensation method including the variations have been widely employed to prepared a variety of metallic and ceramic materials, quantities have so far been limited to a laboratory scale. The quantities of metals are below 1 g/day, while quantities of oxides can be as high as 20 g/day for simple oxides such as CeO₂ or ZrO₂. These quantities are sufficient for materials testing but not for industrial production. However, it should be mentioned that the scale-up of the gas condensation method for industrial production of nanocrystalline oxides by a company called nanophase technologies has been successful.

Chemical Vapour Condensation (CVC)

As shown schematically in Figure, the evaporative source used in GPC is replaced by a hot wall reactor in the Chemical Vapour Condensation or the CVC process. Depending on the processing parameters nucleation of nanoparticles is observed during chemical vapour deposition (CVC) of thin films and poses a major problem in obtaining good film qualities. The original idea of the novel CVC process which is schematically shown below where, it was intended to adjust the parameter field during the synthesis in order to suppress film formation and enhance homogeneous nucleation of particles in the gas flow. It is readily found that the residence time of the precursor in the reactor determines if films or particles are formed. In a certain range of residence time both particle and film formation can be obtained.

Adjusting the residence time of the precursor molecules by changing the gas flow rate, the pressure difference between the precursor delivery system and the main chamber occurs. Then the temperature of the hot wall reactor results in the fertile production of nanosized particles of metals and ceramics instead of thin films as in CVD processing. In the simplest form a metal organic precursor is introduced into the hot zone of the reactor using mass flow controller. Besides the increased quantities in this continuous process compared to GPC has been demonstrated that a wider range of ceramics including nitrides and carbides can be synthesised. Additionally, more complex oxides such as BaTiO₃ or composite structures can be formed as well. Appropriate precursor compounds can be readily found in the CVD literature. The extension to production of nanoparticles requires the determination of a modified parameter field in order to promote particle formation instead of film formation. In addition to the formation of single phase nanoparticles by CVC of a single precursor the reactor allows the synthesis of

1. mixtures of nanoparticles of two phases or doped nanoparticles by supplying two precursors at the front end of the reactor, and
2. coated nanoparticles, i.e., n-ZrO₂ coated with n-Al₂O₃ or vice versa, by supplying a second precursor at a second stage of the reactor. In this case nanoparticles which have been formed by homogeneous nucleation are coated by heterogeneous nucleation in a second stage of the reactor.



A schematic of a typical CVC reactor

Because CVC processing is continuous, the production capabilities are much larger than in GPC processing. Quantities in excess of 20 g/hr have been readily produced with a small scale laboratory reactor. A further expansion can be envisaged by simply enlarging the diameter of the hot wall reactor and the mass flow through the reactor.

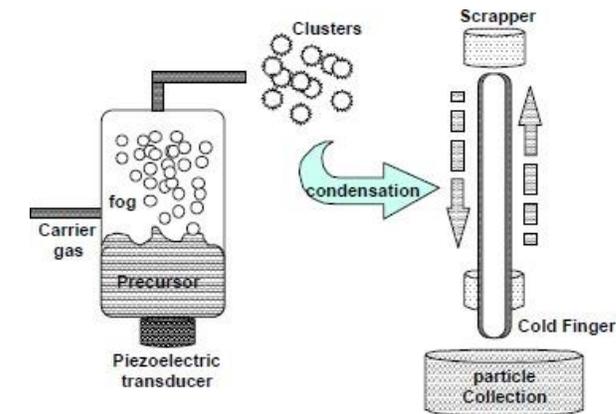
Sputtered Plasma Processing:

In this method is yet again a variation of the gas-condensation method excepting the fact that the source material is a sputtering target and this target is sputtered using rare gases and the constituents are allowed to agglomerate to produce nanomaterial. Both dc (direct current) and rf (radio-frequency) sputtering has been used to synthesize nanoparticles. Again reactive sputtering or multitarget sputtering has been used to make alloys and/or oxides, carbides, nitrides of materials. This method is specifically suitable for the preparation of ultrapure and non-agglomerated nanoparticles of metal.

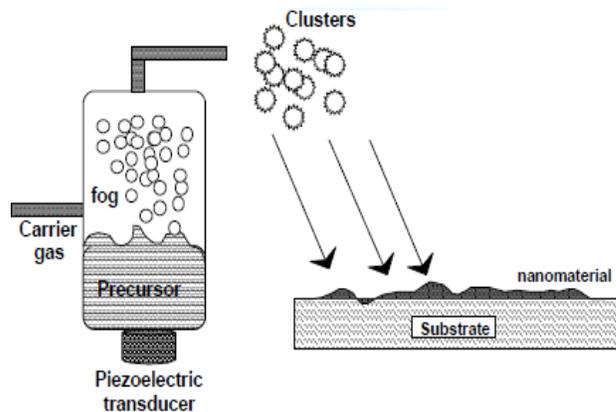
Microwave Plasma Processing

This technique is similar to the previously discussed CVC method but employs plasma instead of high temperature for decomposition of the metal organic precursors. The method uses microwave plasma in a 50 mm diameter reaction vessel made of quartz placed in a cavity connected to a microwave generator. A precursor such as a chloride compound is introduced into the front end of the reactor. Generally, the microwave cavity is designed as a single mode cavity using the TE₁₀ mode in a WR975 waveguide with a frequency of 0.915 GHz. The major advantage of the plasma assisted pyrolysis in contrast to the thermal activation is the low temperature reaction which reduces the tendency for agglomeration of the primary particles. This is also true in the case of plasma-CVD processes. Additionally, it has been shown that by introducing another precursor into a second reaction zone of the tubular reactor, e.g. by splitting the microwave guide tubes, the primary particles can be coated with a second phase. For example, it has been demonstrated that ZrO₂ nanoparticles can be coated by Al₂O₃. In this case the inner ZrO₂ core is crystalline, while the Al₂O₃ coating is amorphous. The reaction sequence can be reversed with the result that an amorphous Al₂O₃ core is coated with crystalline ZrO₂. While the formation of the primary particles occurs by homogeneous nucleation, it can be easily estimated using gas reaction kinetics that the coating on the primary particles grows heterogeneously and that homogeneous nucleation of nanoparticles originating from the second compound has a very low probability. A schematic representation of the particle growth in plasma's is given below:

Particle precipitation aided CVD:



(1)



(2)

Schematic representation of (1) nanoparticle, and (2) particulate film formation

In another variation of this process, colloidal clusters of materials are used to prepare nanoparticles. The CVD reaction conditions are so set that particles form by condensation in the gas phase and collect onto a substrate, which is kept under a different condition that allows heterogeneous nucleation. By this method both nanoparticles and particulate films can be prepared. An example of this method has been used to form nanomaterials eg. SnO₂, by a method called pyrosol deposition process, where clusters of tin hydroxide are transformed into small aerosol droplets, following which they are reacted onto a heated glass substrate.

Laser ablation

Laser ablation has been extensively used for the preparation of nanoparticles and particulate films. In this process a laser beam is used as the primary excitation source of ablation for generating clusters directly from a solid sample in a wide variety of applications. The small dimensions of the particles and the possibility to form thick films make this method quite an efficient tool for the production of ceramic particles and coatings and also an ablation source for analytical applications such as the coupling to induced coupled plasma emission spectrometry, ICP, the formation of the nanoparticles has been explained following a liquefaction process which generates an aerosol, followed by the cooling/solidification of the droplets which results in the formation of fog. The general dynamics of both the aerosol and the fog favours the aggregation process and micrometer-sized fractal-like particles are formed. The laser spark atomizer can be used to produce highly mesoporous thick films and the porosity can be modified by the carrier gas flow rate. ZrO_2 and SnO_2 nanoparticulate thick films were also synthesized successfully using this process with quite identical microstructure. Synthesis of other materials such as lithium manganate, silicon and carbon has also been carried out by this technique.

Properties of Nanomaterials

Nanomaterials have the structural features in between of those of atoms and the bulk materials. While most microstructured materials have similar properties to the corresponding bulk materials, the properties of materials with nanometer dimensions are significantly different from those of atoms and bulk materials. This is mainly due to the nanometer size of the materials which render them: (i) large fraction of surface atoms; (ii) high surface energy; (iii) spatial confinement; (iv) reduced imperfections, which do not exist in the corresponding bulk materials.

Due to their small dimensions, nanomaterials have extremely large surface area to volume ratio, which makes a large to be the surface or interfacial atoms, resulting in more “surface” dependent material properties. Especially when the sizes of nanomaterials are comparable to length, the entire material will be affected by the surface properties of

nanomaterials. This in turn may enhance or modify the properties of the bulk materials. For example, metallic nanoparticles can be used as very active catalysts. Chemical sensors from nanoparticles and nanowires enhanced the sensitivity and sensor selectivity. The nanometer feature sizes of nanomaterials also have spatial confinement effect on the materials, which bring the quantum effects.

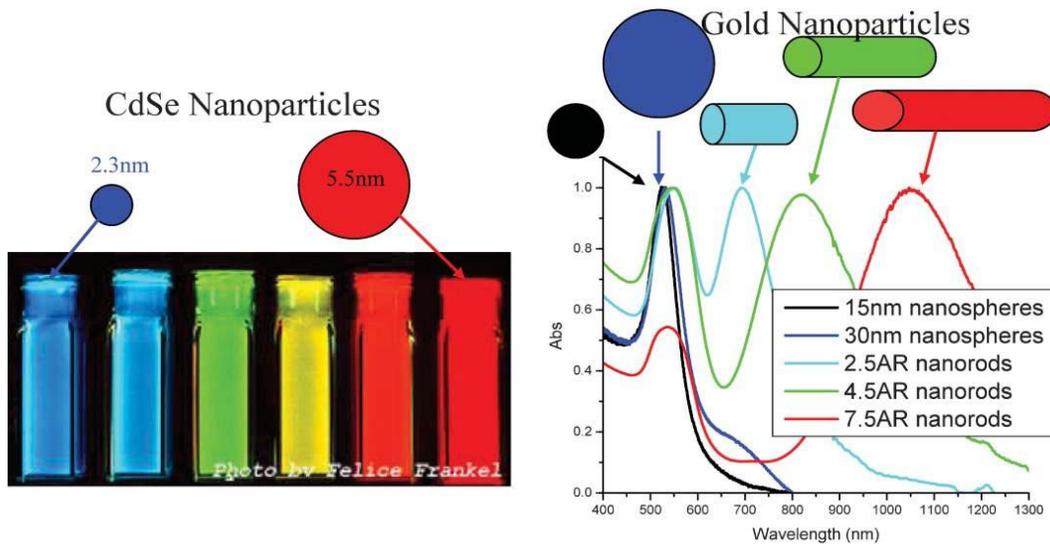
The energy band structure and charge carrier density in the materials can be modified quite differently from their bulk and in turn will modify the electronic and optical properties of the materials. For example, lasers and light emitting diodes (LED) from both of the quantum dots and quantum wires are very promising in the future optoelectronics. High density information storage using quantum dot devices is also a fast developing area. Reduced imperfections are also an important factor in determination of the properties of the nanomaterials. Nanostructures and Nanomaterials favors of a self-purification process in that the impurities and intrinsic material defects will move to near the surface upon thermal annealing. This increased materials perfection affects the properties of nanomaterials. For example, the chemical stability for certain nanomaterials may be enhanced, the mechanical properties of nanomaterials will be better than the bulk materials. The superior mechanical properties of carbon nanotubes are well known. Due to their nanometer size, nanomaterials are already known to have many novel properties. Many novel applications of the nanomaterials rose from these novel properties have also been proposed.

Optical properties

One of the most fascinating and useful aspects of nanomaterials is their optical properties. Applications based on optical properties of nanomaterials include optical detector, laser, sensor, imaging, phosphor, display, solar cell, photocatalysis, photoelectrochemistry and biomedicine.

The optical properties of nanomaterials depend on parameters such as feature size, shape, surface characteristics, and other variables including doping and interaction with the surrounding environment or other nanostructures. Likewise, shape can have dramatic influence on optical properties of metal nanostructures. Fig. () exemplifies the difference in the optical properties of metal and semiconductor nanoparticles. With the CdSe semiconductor nanoparticles, a simple change in size alters the optical properties of the

nanoparticles. When metal nanoparticles are enlarged, their optical properties change only slightly as observed for the different samples of gold nanospheres in fig. (). However, when an anisotropy is added to the nanoparticle, such as growth of nanorods, the optical properties of the nanoparticles change dramatically.



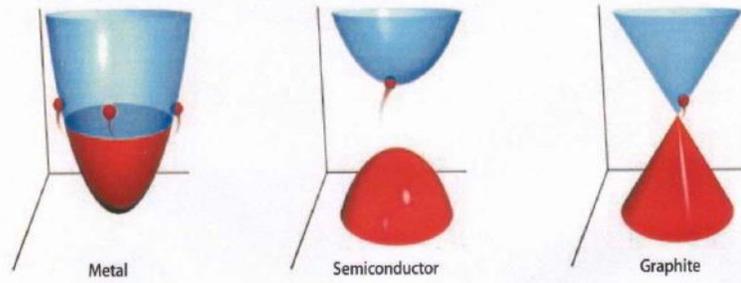
Fluorescence emission of (CdSe) ZnS quantum dots of various sizes and absorption spectra of various sizes and shapes of gold nanoparticles

Electrical properties

Electrical Properties of Nanoparticles” discuss about fundamentals of electrical conductivity in nanotubes and nanorods, carbon nanotubes, photoconductivity of nanorods, electrical conductivity of nanocomposites. One interesting method which can be used to demonstrate the steps in conductance is the mechanical thinning of a nanowire and measurement of the electrical current at a constant applied voltage. The important point here is that, with decreasing diameter of the wire, the number of electron wave modes contributing to the electrical conductivity is becoming increasingly smaller by well-defined quantized steps.

In electrically conducting carbon nanotubes, only one electron wave mode is observed which transport the electrical current. As the lengths and orientations of the carbon nanotubes are different, they touch the surface of the mercury at different times, which provides two sets of information: (i) the influence of carbon nanotube length on

the resistance; and (ii) the resistances of the different nanotubes. As the nanotubes have different lengths, then with increasing protrusion of the fiber bundle an increasing number of carbon nanotubes will touch the surface of the mercury droplet and contribute to the electrical current transport.



Electrical behavior of naotubes

Mechanical properties

“Mechanical Properties of Nanoparticles” deals with bulk metallic and ceramic materials, influence of porosity, influence of grain size, superplasticity, filled polymer composites, particle-filled polymers, polymer-based nanocomposites filled with platelets, carbon nanotube-based composites. The discussion of mechanical properties of nanomaterials is, in to some extent, only of quite basic interest, the reason being that it is problematic to produce macroscopic bodies with a high density and a grain size in the range of less than 100 nm. However, two materials, neither of which is produced by pressing and sintering, have attracted much greater interest as they will undoubtedly achieve industrial importance.

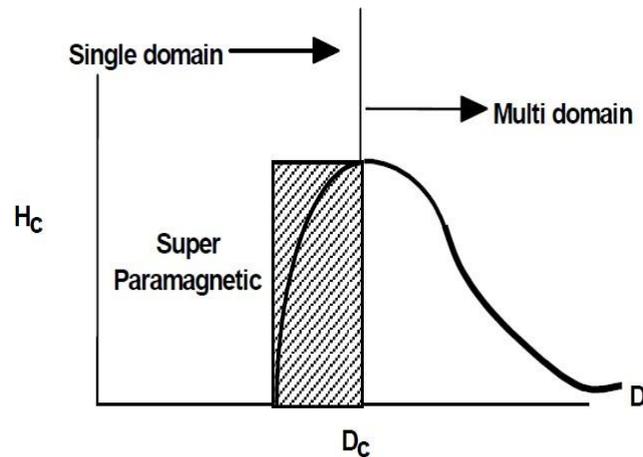
These materials are polymers which contain nanoparticles or nanotubes to improve their mechanical behaviors, and severely plastic-deformed metals, which exhibit astonishing properties. However, because of their larger grain size, the latter are generally not accepted as nanomaterials. Experimental studies on the mechanical properties of bulk nanomaterials are generally impaired by major experimental problems in producing specimens with exactly defined grain sizes and porosities. Therefore, model calculations

and molecular dynamic studies are of major importance for an understanding of the mechanical properties of these materials.

Filling polymers with nanoparticles or nanorods and nanotubes, respectively, leads to significant improvements in their mechanical properties. Such improvements depend heavily on the type of the filler and the way in which the filling is conducted. The latter point is of special importance, as any specific advantages of a nanoparticulate filler may be lost if the filler forms aggregates, thereby mimicking the large particles. Particulate-filled polymer-based nanocomposites exhibit a broad range of failure strengths and strains. This depends on the shape of the filler, particles or platelets, and on the degree of agglomeration. In this class of material, polymers filled with silicate platelets exhibit the best mechanical properties and are of the greatest economic relevance. The larger the particles of the filler or agglomerates, the poorer are the properties obtained. Although, potentially, the best composites are those filled with nanofibers or nanotubes, experience teaches that sometimes such composites have the least ductility. On the other hand, by using carbon nanotubes it is possible to produce composite fibers with extremely high strength and strain at rupture. Among the most exciting nanocomposites are the polymer-ceramic nanocomposites, where the ceramic phase is platelet-shaped. This type of composite is preferred in nature, and is found in the structure of bones, where it consists of crystallized mineral platelets of a few nanometers thickness that are bound together with collagen as the matrix. Composites consisting of a polymer matrix and defoliated phyllosilicates exhibit excellent mechanical and thermal properties.

Magnetic properties

Bulk gold and Pt are non-magnetic, but at the nano size they are magnetic. Surface atoms are not only different to bulk atoms, but they can also be modified by interaction with other chemical species, that is, by capping the nanoparticles. This phenomenon opens the possibility to modify the physical properties of the nanoparticles by capping them with appropriate molecules. Actually, it should be possible that non-ferromagnetic bulk materials exhibit ferromagnetic-like behavior when prepared in nano range. One can obtain magnetic nanoparticles of Pd, Pt and the surprising case of Au (that is diamagnetic in bulk) from non-magnetic bulk materials. In the case of Pt and Pd, the ferromagnetism arises from the structural changes associated with size effects.



Magnetic properties of nanostructured materials

However, gold nanoparticles become ferromagnetic when they are capped with appropriate molecules: the charge localized at the particle surface gives rise to ferromagnetic-like behavior.

Surface and the core of Au nanoparticles with 2 nm in diameter show ferromagnetic and paramagnetic character, respectively. The large spin-orbit coupling of these noble metals can yield to a large anisotropy and therefore exhibit high ordering temperatures. More surprisingly, permanent magnetism was observed up to room temperature for thiol-capped Au nanoparticles. For nanoparticles with sizes below 2 nm the localized carriers are in the 5d band. Bulk Au has an extremely low density of states and becomes diamagnetic, as is also the case for bare Au nanoparticles. This observation suggested that modification of the d band structure by chemical bonding can induce ferromagnetic like character in metallic clusters.

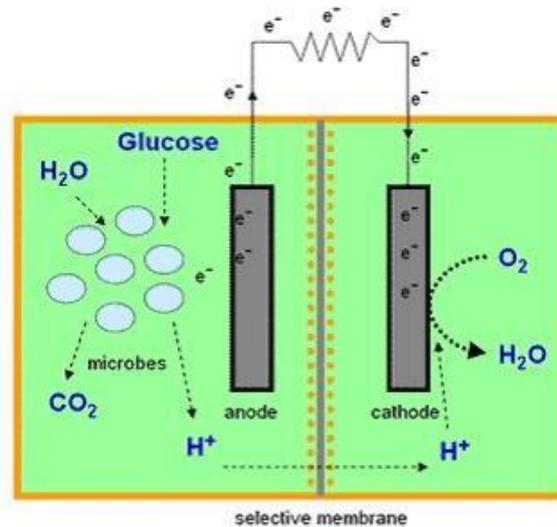
Selected Application of nanomaterials

Nanomaterials having wide range of applications in the field of electronics, fuel cells, batteries, agriculture, food industry, and medicines, etc... It is evident that nanomaterials split their conventional counterparts because of their superior chemical, physical, and mechanical properties and of their exceptional formability.

Fuel cells

A fuel cell is an electrochemical energy conversion device that converts the chemical energy from fuel (on the anode side) and oxidant (on the cathode side) directly into electricity. The heart of fuel cell is the electrodes. The performance of a fuel cell electrode can be optimized in two ways; by improving the physical structure and by using more active electro catalyst. A good structure of electrode must provide ample surface area, provide maximum contact of catalyst, reactant gas and electrolyte, facilitate gas transport and provide good electronic conductance. In this fashion the structure should be able to minimize losses.

Carbon nanotubes - Microbial fuel cell



Schematic representation of microbial fuel cell

Microbial fuel cell is a device in which bacteria consume water-soluble waste such as sugar, starch and alcohols and produces electricity plus clean water. This technology will make it possible to generate electricity while treating domestic or industrial wastewater. Microbial fuel cell can turn different carbohydrates and complex substrates present in wastewaters into a source of electricity. The efficient electron transfer between the microorganism and the anode of the microbial fuel cell plays a major role in the performance of the fuel cell. The organic molecules present in the wastewater possess a certain amount of chemical energy, which is released when converting them to simpler molecules like CO_2 . The microbial fuel cell is thus a device that converts the chemical energy present in water-soluble waste into electrical energy by the catalytic reaction of microorganisms.

Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) have chemical stability, good mechanical properties and high surface area, making them ideal for the design of sensors and provide very high surface area due to its structural network. Since carbon nanotubes are also suitable supports for cell growth, electrodes of microbial fuel cells can be built using of CNT. Due to three-dimensional architectures and enlarged electrode surface area for the entry of growth medium, bacteria can grow and proliferate and get immobilized. Multi walled CNT scaffolds could offer self-supported structure with large surface area through which hydrogen producing bacteria (e.g., *E. coli*) can eventually grow and proliferate. Also CNTs and MWCNTs have been reported to be biocompatible for different eukaryotic cells. The efficient proliferation of hydrogen producing bacteria throughout an electron conducting scaffold of CNT can form the basis for the potential application as electrodes in MFCs leading to efficient performance.

Catalysis

Higher surface area available with the nanomaterial counterparts, nano-catalysts tend to have exceptional surface activity. For example, reaction rate at nano-aluminum can go so high, that it is utilized as a solid-fuel in rocket propulsion, whereas the bulk aluminum is widely used in utensils. Nano-aluminum becomes highly reactive and supplies the required thrust to send off pay loads in space. Similarly, catalysts assisting or retarding the reaction rates are dependent on the surface activity, and can very well be utilized in manipulating the rate-controlling step.

Phosphors for High-Definition TV

The resolution of a television, or a monitor, depends greatly on the size of the pixel. These pixels are essentially made of materials called "phosphors," which glow when struck by a stream of electrons inside the cathode ray tube (CRT). The resolution improves with a reduction in the size of the pixel, or the phosphors. Nanocrystalline zinc selenide, zinc sulfide, cadmium sulfide, and lead telluride synthesized by the sol-gel techniques are candidates for improving the resolution of monitors. The use of nanophosphors is envisioned to reduce the cost of these displays so as to render high-definition televisions (HDTVs) and personal computers affordable to be purchase.

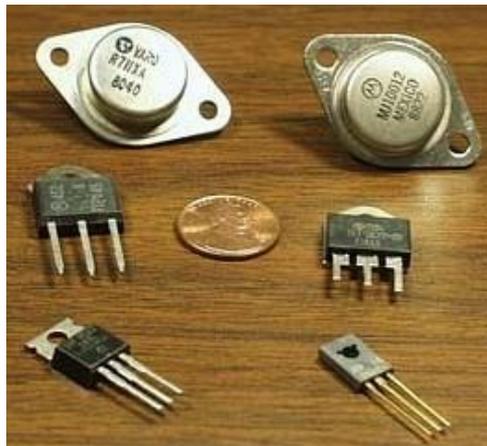
Next-Generation Computer Chips

The microelectronics industry has been emphasizing miniaturization, whereby the circuits, such as transistors, resistors, and capacitors, are reduced in size. By achieving a significant reduction in their size, the microprocessors, which contain these components, can run much faster, thereby enabling computations at far greater speeds. However, there are several technological impediments to these advancements, including lack of the ultrafine precursors to manufacture these components; poor dissipation of tremendous amount of heat generated by these microprocessors due to faster speeds; short mean time to failures (poor reliability), etc. Nanomaterials help the industry break these barriers down by providing the manufacturers with nanocrystalline starting materials, ultra-high purity materials, materials with better thermal conductivity, and longer-lasting, durable interconnections (connections between various components in the microprocessors).

Example: Nanowires for junctionless transistors

Transistors are made so tiny to reduce the size of sub assemblies of electronic systems and make smaller and smaller devices, but it is difficult to create high-quality junctions. In particular, it is very difficult to change the doping concentration of a material over distances shorter than about 10 nm. Researchers have succeeded in making the junctionless transistor having nearly ideal electrical properties. It could potentially operate faster and use less power than any conventional transistor on the market today. The device consists of a silicon nanowire in which

current flow is perfectly controlled by a silicon gate that is separated from the nanowire by a thin insulating layer. The entire silicon nanowire is heavily n-doped, making it an excellent conductor. However, the gate is p-doped and its presence has the effect of depleting the number of electrons in the region of the nanowire under the gate. The device also has near-ideal electrical properties and behaves like the most perfect of transistors without suffering from current leakage like conventional devices and operates faster and using less energy.



Silicon nanowires in junctionless transistors

Elimination of Pollutants

Nanomaterials possess extremely large grain boundaries relative to their grain size. Hence, they are very active in terms of their chemical, physical, and mechanical properties. Due to their enhanced chemical activity, nanomaterials can be used as catalysts to react with such noxious and toxic gases as carbon monoxide and nitrogen oxide in automobile catalytic converters and power generation equipment to prevent environmental pollution arising from burning gasoline and coal.

Sun-screen lotion

Prolonged UV exposure causes skin-burns and cancer. Sun-screen lotions containing nano-TiO₂ provide enhanced sun protection factor (SPF) while eliminating stickiness. The added advantage of nano skin blocks (ZnO and TiO₂) arises as they protect the skin by sitting onto it rather than penetrating into the skin. Thus they block UV radiation effectively for prolonged duration. Additionally, they are transparent, thus retain natural skin color while working better than conventional skin-lotions.

Sensors

Sensors rely on the highly active surface to initiate a response with minute change in the concentration of the species to be detected. Engineered monolayers (few Angstroms thick) on the sensor surface are exposed to the environment and the peculiar functionality (such as change in potential as the CO/anthrax level is detected) is utilized in sensing.

Green chemistry

Green chemistry is the approach in chemical sciences that efficiently uses renewable raw materials, eliminating waste and avoiding the use of toxic and hazardous reagents and solvents in the manufacture and application of chemical products. Green chemistry takes into account the environmental impact and seeks to prevent or lessen that impact through several key principles outlined below.

Principles of Green Chemistry

Green Chemistry aims to eliminate hazards right at the design stage. The practice of eliminating hazards from the beginning of the chemical design process has benefits for our health and the environment, throughout the design, production, use/reuse and disposal processes.²⁹ Practitioners of Green Chemistry strive to protect the environment by cleaning up toxic waste sites and by inventing new chemical methods that do not pollute and that minimize the consumption of energy and natural resources. In 1998, two US chemists, Dr. Paul Anastas and Dr John Warner outlined Twelve Principles of Green Chemistry to demonstrate how chemical production could respect human health and the environment while also being efficient and profitable.³⁰ Guidelines for developing Green Chemistry technologies are summarized in the “**Twelve Principles of Green Chemistry**,” shown in the following.

1. It is better to prevent waste than to treat or clean up waste after it is formed.

It is most appropriate to carry out a synthesis by following a pathway so that formation of waste is minimum or absent. One type of waste product common and often avoidable is the starting material or reagent that remains unreacted. The well known saying “Prevention is better than cure should be followed”.

2. Synthetic methods should be designed to maximize the incorporation of all the materials used in the process into the final product.

If one mole of the starting material produces one mole of the product, the yield is 100%. However, such a synthesis may generate significant amount of waste or by product which is not visible in the above calculation. Such a synthesis, even though gives 100% yield, is not considered to be green synthesis.

In order to find, if a particular reaction is green, the concept of atom economy was developed by Berry Trost of Stanford University. This considers the amount of starting materials incorporated into the desired final product. Thus by incorporation of greater amounts of the atoms contained in the starting materials (reactants) in to the formed products, fewer waste by products are obtained. In this way, using the concept of atom economy along with ideas of selectivity and yield, “greener” more efficient synthesis can be developed. The atom economy for a reaction can be calculated using the

following equation:



$$\frac{\text{Percent atom economy} \times 100\%}{\text{Molecular weight of desired product}} = \frac{\text{Molecular weight}}{\text{Molecular weights of all reactants}} \times 100\%$$

To illustrate the benefits of atom economy, consider the synthesis of ibuprofen. In the former process, developed in the 1960s, only 40% of the reactant atoms were incorporated into the desired ibuprofen product; the remaining 60% of the reactant atoms found their way into unwanted by-products or waste that required disposal. The new method requires fewer reaction steps and recovers 77% of the reactant atoms in the desired product. This 'green' process eliminates millions of pounds of waste chemical by-products every year, and it reduces by millions of pounds the amount of reactants needed to prepare this widely used analgesic.

3. Whenever practicable synthetic methodologies should be designed to use and generate a substance that poses little or no toxicity to human health and the environment.

Wherever practicable, synthetic methodologies should be designed to use and generate substances that pose little or no toxicity to human health and the environment. Redesigning existing transformations to incorporate less hazardous materials is at the heart of Green Chemistry.

4. Chemical products should be designed to preserve efficiency of function while reducing toxicity.

The designing of safer chemical is now possible since there have been great advances in the understanding of chemical toxicity. It is now fairly understood that a correlation exist between chemical structure e.g. presence of functional groups and the existence of toxic effects. The idea is to avoid the functionality related to the toxic effect. Chemical properties of a molecule, such as water solubility, polarity etc. so that they can manipulate molecules to the desired effects.

5. The use auxiliary substances (e.g. solvents, separating agents) should be made unnecessary wherever possible and innocuous when used.

An auxiliary substance is one that helps in manufacture of a substance, but does not become an integral part of the chemical. Such substances are used in the manufacture, processing at every step. Major problem with many solvents is their volatility that may damage human health and the environment. Even processes like recrystallisation require energy and substances to change the solubility. The problem of solvents has been overcome by using such solvents which do not pollute the environment. Such solvents are known as green solvents. Examples include liquid

carbon dioxide (supercritical CO₂), ionic liquid water. Even reactions have been conducted in solid state. For example the condensation reaction of orthoesters with o-phenylenediamines in presence of KSF clay under solvent free conditions using microwave.

Many solvents used in traditional organic synthesis are highly toxic. The Green Chemistry approach to the selection of solvents has resulted in several strategies. One method that has been developed is to use supercritical carbon dioxide as a solvent

.Supercritical carbon dioxide is formed under conditions of high pressure in which the gas and the liquid phases of carbon dioxide combine to a single –phase compressible fluid that becomes an environmentally benign solvent (temperature 31°C, 7280 kPa, or 72 atmospheres). Supercritical CO₂ has remarkable properties .It behaves as a material whose properties are intermediate between those of a solid and those of a liquid .The properties can be controlled by manipulating temperature and pressure .Supercritical CO₂ is environmentally benign because of its low toxicity and easy recyclability. Carbon dioxide is not added to the atmosphere; rather, it is removed from the atmosphere for use in chemical processes. It is used as a medium to carry out a large number of reactions that would otherwise have many negative environmental consequences. It is even possible to perform stereoselective synthesis in supercritical CO₂.

Some reactions can be carried out in ordinary water, the most green solvent possible. Recently, there has been much success in using near-critical water at higher temperatures where water behaves more like an organic solvent .Eckert and Liotta were able to run Friedel-Crafts reactions in near –critical water without the need for the acid catalyst AlCl₃, which is normally used in large amounts in these reactions. In the past 5 years, many new ionic liquids have been developed with a broad range of properties. By selecting the appropriate ionic liquid, it is now possible to carry out many types of organic reactions in these solvents. In some reactions, a well –designed ionic solvent can lead to better yields under milder conditions than is possible with traditional solvents.

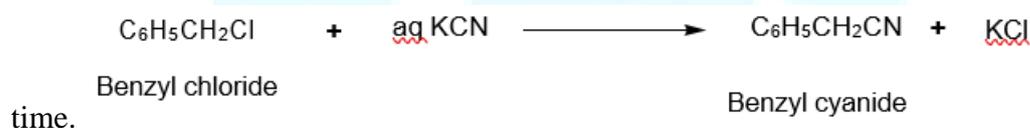
Another approach to making organic chemistry greener involves the way in which a reaction is carried out ,rather than in the selection of starting material, reagents, or solvents. Microwave technology can be used in some reactions to

provide the heat energy required to make the transformation go to completion. With microwave technology, reactions can take place with less toxic reagents and in a shorter time, with fewer side reactions, all goals of Green Chemistry. Microwave technology has also been used to create supercritical water that behaves more like an organic solvent and could replace more toxic solvents in carrying out organic reactions.

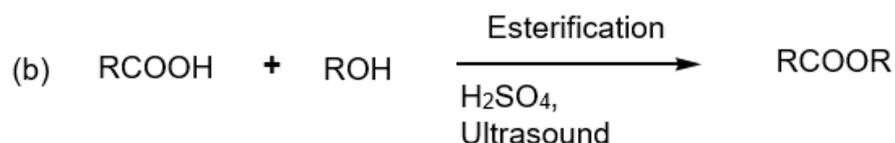
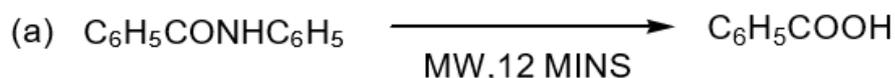
Another Green Chemistry approach is the use of a catalyst which facilitates transformations without the catalyst being consumed in the reaction and without being incorporated in the final product. Therefore, use of catalyst should be preferred whenever possible.

6. Energy requirements should be recognized for their environmental and economic impacts and should be minimized.

Energy generation, as we know has a major environmental effect. The requirement of energy can be kept to a base minimum in certain cases by the use of a catalyst. For example in conversion of benzyl chloride into benzyl cyanide if we use phase transfer catalyst, the conversion goes to completion in a very short



Conventionally, we have been carrying reaction by heating on wire gauze, in oil bath or heating mantels. It is now possible that the energy to a reaction can be supplied by using microwaves, by sonication or photo chemically. Simple examples are,



7. A raw material or feedstock should be renewable rather than depleting, whenever technically and economically practicable.

Non reversible or depleting sources can exhausted by their continual use.

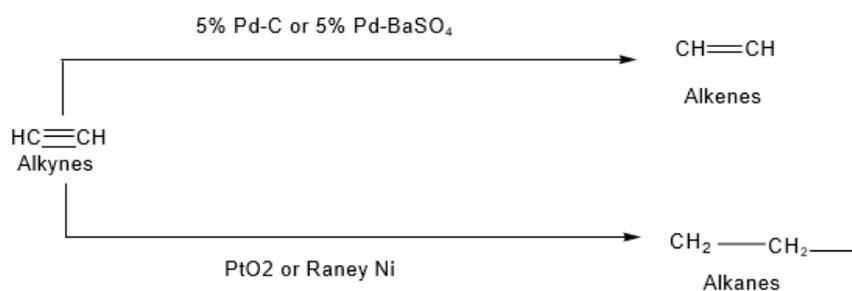
So these are not regarded as sustainable from environmental point of view. The starting materials which are obtained agricultural or biological processes are referred to as renewable starting materials. Substances like carbon dioxide (generated from natural sources or synthetic routes like fermentation etc) and methane gas (obtained from natural sources such as marsh gas, natural gas etc) are available in reasonable amounts and so are considered as renewable starting material. Methane, a constituent of biogas and natural gas can easily be converted into acetylene by partial combustion. Acetylene is a potential source of number of chemicals such as ethyl alcohol, acetaldehyde, vinyl acetate etc.

8. *Unnecessary derivatization (blocking group, protection, deportation, temporary modification of physical/chemical processes) should be avoided whenever possible.*

A commonly used technique in organic synthesis is the use of protecting or blocking group. These groups are used to protect a sensitive moiety from the conditions of the reaction, which may make the reaction to go in an unwanted way if it is left unprotected. This procedure adds to the problem of waste disposal.

9. *Catalytic reagents (as selective as possible are superior to stoichiometric reagents.*

The catalyst as we know facilitates transformation without being consumed or without being incorporated into the final product. Catalysts are selective in their action in that the degree of reaction that takes place is controlled, e.g. mono addition v/s multiple addition. A typical example is that reduction of triple bond to a double bond or single bond.



In addition to the benefits of yield and atom economy, the catalysts are helpful in reducing consumption of energy. Catalysts carry out thousands of transformation before being exhausted.

10. Chemical products should be designed so that at the end of their function they do not persist in the environment and break down into innocuous degradation products.

It is extremely important that the products designed to be synthesized should be biodegradable. They should not be persistent chemicals or persistent bio accumulators. It is now possible to place functional groups in a molecule that will facilitate its biodegradation. Functional groups which are susceptible to hydrolysis, photolysis or other cleavage have been used to ensure that products will be biodegradable. It is also important that degradation products do not possess any toxicity and detrimental effects to the environment. Plastic, Pesticides (organic halogen based) are examples which pose to environment.

11. Analytical methodologies need to be further developed to allow for real time, in process monitoring and control prior to the formation of hazardous substances.

Methods and technologies should be developed so that the prevention or minimization of generation of hazardous waste is achieved. It is necessary to have accurate and reliable reasons, monitors and other analytical methodologies to assess the hazardous that may be present in the process stream. These can prevent any accidents which may occur in chemical plants.

12. Substances and the form of a substance used in a chemical process should be chosen so as to minimize the potential for chemical accidents, including releases, explosions and fires.

The occurrence of accidents in chemical industry must be avoided. It is well known that the incidents in Bhopal (India) and Seveso (Italy) and many others have resulted in the loss of thousands of life. It is possible sometimes to increase accidents potential inadvertently with a view to minimize the generation of waste in order to prevent pollution. It has been found that in an attempt to recycle solvents from a process (for economic reasons) increases the potential for a chemical accident or fire.