



Role of TiO₂/ZnO Nanofillers in Modifying the Properties PMMA Nanocomposites for Optical Device Applications

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Abstract

In the present study, ZnO and TiO₂ nanofillers with different concentrations are integrated into the PMMA matrix on the glass substrate using a cost-effective spin coating technique. XRD investigations show the maximum crystalline complexity of 24.56% crystallinity with a rise in filler concentration up to $x = 10$ wt%. SEM and EDS studies signify the homogenous distribution and compatibility of nanofillers in the host PMMA matrix. Raman spectroscopy demonstrates the influential transition peak identified at 840 cm⁻¹ for an optimized filler concentration of $x = 10$ wt%. The C=O and C–O of host PMMA are out of plane bending with an estimated PED of $64\eta_{C=O} + 16\eta_{C-O}$, indicating a pivotal role in filler and matrix complex formulation. Optical studies show enhancement in transmittance with a rise in filler concentration up to 10 wt%, offering a maximum value of nearly 85%. The course also emphasizes the solid antireflection nature with a decreased bandgap value to 1.94 eV. The observed upsurge in optical conductivity suggests the number of free charges present in the nanocomposite films. The increase in optical conductivity with a reduced energy bandgap of these PMMA/(15 – x) ZnO (x)TiO₂ shows a promising contender for optical device applications.

Keywords PMMA · Nanofillers · Raman spectroscopy · Optical studies · TiO₂ · ZnO

1 Introduction

In recent years, integrating one dimension, two dimensions, three-dimensional, and their combination as nanofillers into the polymer matrix has become a sustainable route to

enhancing the host polymer's physical and chemical properties. The main reasons for using nanofillers have a large surface to volume ratio, which increases the number of fillers–matrix interactions, thus increasing the overall material properties effects. However, specific challenges such as interface and compatibility between the nanofiller and matrix need to be addressed to obtain the desired properties. Further, optimized integration would enhance the optical, electrical, and mechanical properties of the nanocomposites. Thus, this optimized integration would open up new avenues for applications in electronics, optical, medical devices, etc. (Hong et al. 2009; Agarwal et al. 2014; Aboulouard et al. 2020; Bai et al. 2014).

In recent years, PMMA is the most favorable matrix material out of many synthetic and natural polymers due to its versatile physio-chemical properties such as light-weight, higher softening point, shatter-resistant, high impact strength, dimension stability, wear as well as scratch resistance (Huda et al. 2019; Mauro et al. 2017). Further, PMMA is compatible with nanosize materials and is relatively easy to achieve uniform nanofiller dispersion

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in the matrix. Apart from these, PMMA has extraordinary resistance to hot sunshine exposure, and its properties will not change with time. Hence, PMMA is an appropriate host material in the antireflection coating (ARC) owing to its overall thermal stability ($-70\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to $100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), a refractive index of 1.49 with a reasonable degree of compatibility, and highly effective reflectance generating demands in the field of solar photovoltaic devices. Apart from these, PMMA films are utilized for constructing Light bulbs, car window panels, and mobile phones in which aids enhance light-producing capacity.

Furthermore, it is often utilized to fabricate lights due to its transparency and optical characteristics (Alsaad et al. 2019). Therefore, it is anticipated that the synthesis of distinctive characteristics of PMMA with nanofillers in specific well-designed composites would lead to materials of keen interest from conceptual as well as technical standpoints. The transparent thermoplastic polymers Poly (methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) have valuable features, cheap costs, and investigation of PMMA filled with metal oxide nanocomposites have become continuous research (Kobayashi et al. 2009; Lim et al. 2005; Kumar et al. Aug 2009). Although the dielectric stability for PMMA-ceramic composites (Purova et al. 2015; Su et al. 2014; Basahel et al. 2012) is modest, it substantially has a lower dielectric loss. Therefore, PMMA, when filled with nanofillers such as TiO_2 (Titanium oxide), ZnO (Zinc Oxide), nurture the hybrid nanocomposites finding numerous applications in the field of biomedical, solar, optoelectronic devices, and many more.

There are multiple reports on the preparation of PMMA-ZnO and PMMA TiO_2 nanocomposite thin films by different coating techniques (Stefanescu et al. 2010; Mauro et al. 2016; Khan 2015). Hence, PMMA filled with these two unique nanoparticles has distinct and exciting features that drive us to examine and comprehend their creation and development mechanisms and track the crucial loading quantity. The spin coating technique is employed in many preparation methods due to its simple process and cost-effective approach to obtain uniform coating on the substrate. Filling of host PMMA matrix with TiO_2 (Titanium oxide) and ZnO (Zinc Oxide) nanofillers using spin coating method is unique and proliferates the enactment of both physical and chemical properties of PMMA nanocomposites.

The present work emphasizes the preparation of PMMA-ZnO: TiO_2 hybrid nanocomposites using a spin coating method with varied concentrations of ZnO and TiO_2 nanofillers. We have attempted in many experiments to identify the appropriate proportion of ZnO and TiO_2 nanofillers in a PMMA matrix to improve the characteristics compared to host PMMA polymers. Furthermore, the systematic investigation of the structural and optical

properties has explored the possibility of nanocomposites for optical device applications.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Synthesis of ZnO Nanoparticles

Zinc nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), Titanium tetra isopropoxide (TTIP), Poly (methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) having a molecular weight of 3,50,000 g/mol are procured from Sigma Aldrich, Germany, 1,2-Dichloroethane procured from Merck, India. The zinc nitrate hexahydrate is mixed with 350 mL deionized water stirred continuously using a magnetic stirrer at 300 rpm for 1 h. The mixture is treated with ammonia (25%) until the solution evolved from turbid to clear. The resultant concentrate was refluxed for 4 h under vigorous stirring for the formation of ZnO nanoparticles. The settled product is centrifuged and washed repeatedly until the pH value of the filtrate is 7. The obtained product is dried in air at $400\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 4 h, yields ZnO nanopowder (Mauro et al. 2017).

2.2 Synthesis of TiO_2 Nanoparticles

The synthesis of anatase TiO_2 nanoparticles is done using TTIP hydrolysis in 2-propanol with myristic acid as a capping agent employing an adjusted sol-gel process (Mardare and Rusu 2004). A 5 ml of TTIP is mixed with a 30 ml solution of 2-propanol for a molar ratio of 1:6 concerning myristic acid. The stirring rate of 500 rpm is carried out for 4 h until a white milky sol is obtained. The obtained sol solution is kept in the air for one day to undergo the gelation process. The white gel was filtered using Watmann Nylon filter paper, and the residue is washed until the pH of the filtrate reduces to a neutral value. The obtained white moisture substance is dried at $200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 10 h, yield TiO_2 nanoparticles.

2.3 Substrate Cleaning

Out of many substrates cleaning methods, we have adopted the organic solvent process. Initially, a glass substrate of length 2.9 cm, width 1.2 cm, and thickness 1.2 mm was taken and washed with soap water. Further, the substrate is degreased using 1-propanol and kept for sonication in probe ultrasonicator for 20 s over 20 times with the interval of 20 s having the power of each pulse 35%. Further, it is sonicated using methanol and followed by acetone for 10 min, respectively. The substrate is then washed with deionized water and then again placed in a beaker filled with deionized water and sonicated again, as mentioned

above. Finally, the substrate is dried overnight in a dust-free oven maintained at 50 °C.

2.4 Film Coating

1.6 g of PMMA is dissolved in 80 ml of 1,2-Dichloroethane solution. Later, remnant viscous PMMA is filled with $(15 - x)$ ZnO and (x) TiO₂ nanoparticles for $x = 0, 1, 5, 7.5, 10, 14,$ and 15 wt%. The filled nanoparticle PMMA solvent is sonicated for 10 s over ten times with an interval of 90 s at a temperature of 40 °C with 35% sonication power using probe ultrasonicator (PKS500FM, PCI analytics, India) for getting uniform dispersion. The solvent is coated onto a clean glass substrate using a spin coating unit (Model: HO-TH-05, HOLMARC Opto-Mechatronics Pvt Ltd, India). Further, 130 μ L final solution is drop coated onto the glass substrate. The spin rate was kept at 2000 rpm with the acceleration of 2000 rpm, and time adjusted for 60 s. The coated samples are then heat-treated overnight, keeping in an oven at 50 °C. PMMA is a hydrophilic polymer that might absorb water from the atmosphere, affecting its physical properties. Thus, the prepared PMMA nanocomposite wrapped in a silver foil and are stored in a vacuum desiccator and used for further characterization.

2.5 Material Characterization

The film thickness was estimated using the Dektak stylus profilometer (Bruker). The average thickness of the deposited nanocomposites on the glass substrate is ~ 235 nm. The crystal structural analyses are done using 3rd generation Empyrean, Malvern Panalytical Multipurpose X-ray Diffractometer. Raman spectroscopy analysis is done by using WiTec alpha 300, Germany. Optical properties are carried out using Shimadzu UV visible Spectrometer. The structural images are obtained by Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) EVO 18 model and ALTO 1000 cryo attachment.

3 Result and Discussion

3.1 XRD Studies

Figure 1 represents the X-ray diffraction pattern of PMMA/ $(15 - x)$ ZnO (x) TiO₂ for $x = 0, 1, 5, 7.5, 10, 14,$ and 15 filler weight percentage concentration. The prominent broad peaks observed at $2\theta = 20^\circ\text{--}30^\circ$ (crystalline peak) refer to the host PMMA matrix, and a broad peak indicates the formation of low dimension crystallites size. The addition of nanofillers into the PMMA matrix shifts the PMMA peaks toward the lower angle up to $x = 10$

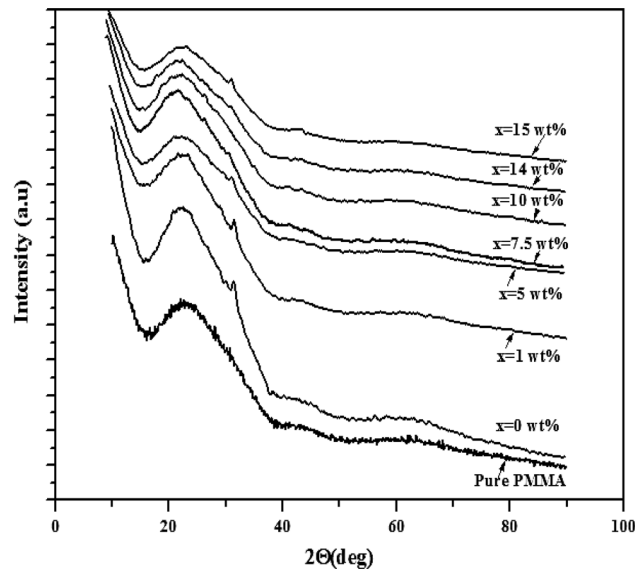


Fig. 1 X-ray diffraction pattern of PMMA: $(15 - x)$ ZnO (x) TiO₂ for $x = 0, 1, 5, 7.5, 10, 14,$ and 15 filler weight percentage concentration

wt%, indicating the enhancement in crystalline properties. The presence of less intense peaks indicates the amorphous predominant nature of nanocomposites.

Crystallite sizes of the embedded nanoparticles forming a complex conformation are estimated using the Debye–Scherrer formulation (Khanna et al. 2007),

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

where k is a constant having value equal to 0.9, which depends on the shape of the crystal and corresponding crystallographic planes, D is the average size or crystallite size of the particles, λ is the wavelength of x-rays, β is the full width at half maximum of X-ray profile, and θ is the Bragg angle. The percentage crystallinity of the PMMA nanocomposites is calculated using XRD patterns (Zidan 2003),

$$\% \text{ Crystallinity} = \frac{(\text{total area of crystalline peaks})}{(\text{total area of all peaks})} \quad (2)$$

The micro strain produced in the PMMA entanglement on nanofiller producing a complex conformation is estimated using the relationship (Bhajantri et al. 2006),

$$\varepsilon = (\beta \cos \theta / 4) \quad (3)$$

The dislocation density (δ) produced in the PMMA matrix filled with nanofillers are calculated using relation (Vos and Dhelsen 1979),

$$\delta = 1/D^2 \quad (4)$$

Table 1 represents the calculated crystalline parameters of PMMA: $(15 - x)$ ZnO(x)TiO₂ for a different

Table 1 XRD parameters of PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ for 'x' nanofiller concentration

Filler concentration (x)	Crystallinity %	Crystallite size D (nm)	Microstrain ε (mm)	Dislocation density δ (10^{16} lines/m ²)	N(10^{17} m ⁻²)
Pure PMMA	11.62	5.023	7.235	3.96	18.51
0 wt%	15.23	8.345	3.953	1.435	11.14
1 wt%	18.35	8.765	3.342	1.301	10.61
5 wt%	21.98	9.819	2.913	1.037	9.473
7.5 wt%	23.12	10.676	2.478	0.878	8.713
10 wt%	24.56	12.647	2.183	0.625	7.355
14 wt%	22.61	11.328	2.233	0.780	8.211
15 wt%	23.33	11.953	2.336	0.700	7.782

composition. Table 1 specifies the upsurge in the crystallite size up to $x = 10$ wt%; after that, it decreases. The rise in crystalline parameters is due to PMMA entanglement, with the added nanofillers forming a strong, complex configuration. Conversely, the dislocation density decreases with an increase in nanofiller percentage composition.

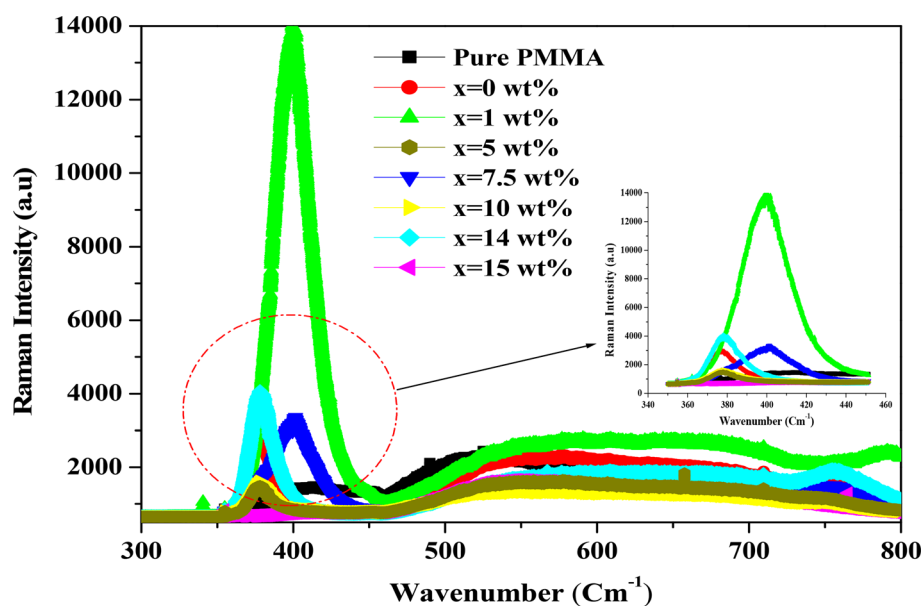
3.2 Raman Spectroscopy Studies

The Raman active vibrational modes of PMMA loaded with the desired loading nanofillers are analyzed in the range 300–800 cm^{-1} (Williamson and Smallman 1956). The band has demonstrated some significant improvement in loaded nanocomposites, indicating that the addition of 'x' amount of ZnO and TiO₂ nanofillers modifies PMMA/(15 - x) crystalline structure ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites. The same is replicated in Fig. 2, signifying a broad range of peaks witnessed from 470 to 800 cm^{-1} refers to

C–C as well as C–O is in-plane bending stretching vibrations of PMMA nanocomposites. The peak begins to appear from 482 cm^{-1} that indicates the nanofiller binds with host PMMA weak C–C and C–CH₃ are in-plane bending (β) with calculated potential energy distribution (PED) for each normal mode $70\beta_{\text{C-C}} + 12\beta_{\text{C-CH}_3}$ (Giri et al. 2007). The slight increase in filler concentration for $x = 1$ wt%, the prominent vibrational peak observed at 395 cm^{-1} , refers to PMMA medium C–O, and C=O bonds are out of plane bending (η) PED associated with every normal mode is $62\eta_{\text{C-O}} + 14\eta_{\text{C=O}}$ (Khan 2015).

Further, enhancement in filler concentration up to $x = 10$ wt% the shifts the peaks heading toward the lower wavelength indicates the complex formation of nanofillers on PMMA's C–O and C=O bond, making it out of plane bending with PED of every normal mode $55\eta_{\text{C-O}} + 11\eta_{\text{C=O}}$. The prominent transition peak witnessed at 840 cm^{-1} for optimized filler concentration $x = 10$ wt%

Fig. 2 Raman spectra of PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites for different filler concentration



refers to C=O and C–O out of plane bending with an estimated PED of $64\eta_{C=O} + 16\eta_{C-O}$. The Raman shift observed in nanocomposites spectra may be a structural disorder, impurities, oxygen deficiency in addition to phonon confinement. The change in peaks toward lower-order indicates the growth in bond length transpired due to ZnO and TiO₂ nanofillers' expansion on the PMMA matrix, forming a complex conformation, thereby improving its crystalline parameters as quantified in XRD studies. Thus, changes observed in Raman spectra authorize the structural modification of PMMA after the incorporation of ZnO and TiO₂ nanoparticles.

3.3 Optical Studies

Figures 3 and 4 explore the optical absorption and transmittance spectra for specific TiO₂ and ZnO composition in the PMMA matrix. Further, Fig. 5 shows the direct bandgap spectra of pure PMMA and PMMA/(15 – x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites filler proportion $x = 0, 1, 5, 7.5, 10, 14,$ and 15 wt%. The absorption coefficient of PMMA nanocomposites was found to be negligible within the bandgap zone. However, its intensity increases with a decrease in wavelength. The negligible absorption co-efficiency of these hybrid nanocomposites demonstrates their appropriateness as the window layer of solar cells within the spectrum's visible portion. The transmittance spectra of filled PMMA/(15 – x) ZnO (x) TiO₂, compared with pure PMMA, shows an enhancement in transmittance with a rise

in filler concentration up to 10 wt% delivering a maximum value of nearly 85%. This high transmittance may be due to nanofillers' percentage loading, size, and spatial distribution in the host PMMA matrix (Rosemal et al. 2010).

The study also shows that the filling of above 10 wt% nanofillers decreases the transparency substantially compared to the pure PMMA. It is evident from the graph that the clarity found its enhancement at higher wavelengths when compared to the lower wavelength region. The enhancement in the transmission is due to the increase in the complex configuration of the particle size of PMMA bonded by nanoparticles up to $x = 10$ wt%. The same is observed in XRD results, suggesting that transmission transpires when the particle size increases (Chang et al. 2011). This high transparency PMMA/(15 – x)ZnO (x) TiO₂ finds applicable in optical materials in optoelectronic devices.

Its optical absorption bandgaps are dictated from the UV–visible spectra by converting the spectra into Tauc's plots using frequency-dependent absorption coefficient provided by Mott and Devis (Mott and Devis 1979; Mott 1993). Therefore, plotting the absorption coefficient $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ with photon energy $(h\nu)$ at ambient temperature has been seen as linear curve effectiveness. Such a direct action reflects the natural permissible transformations somewhere between the valence band and conduction band. The table compares the energy bandgap (E_g) for different filler concentrations of performance enhancers. The observed lower E_g of 1.91 eV for filler $x = 10$ wt% percent is

Fig. 3 Absorbance spectra of PMMA/(15 – x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites for different filler concentration

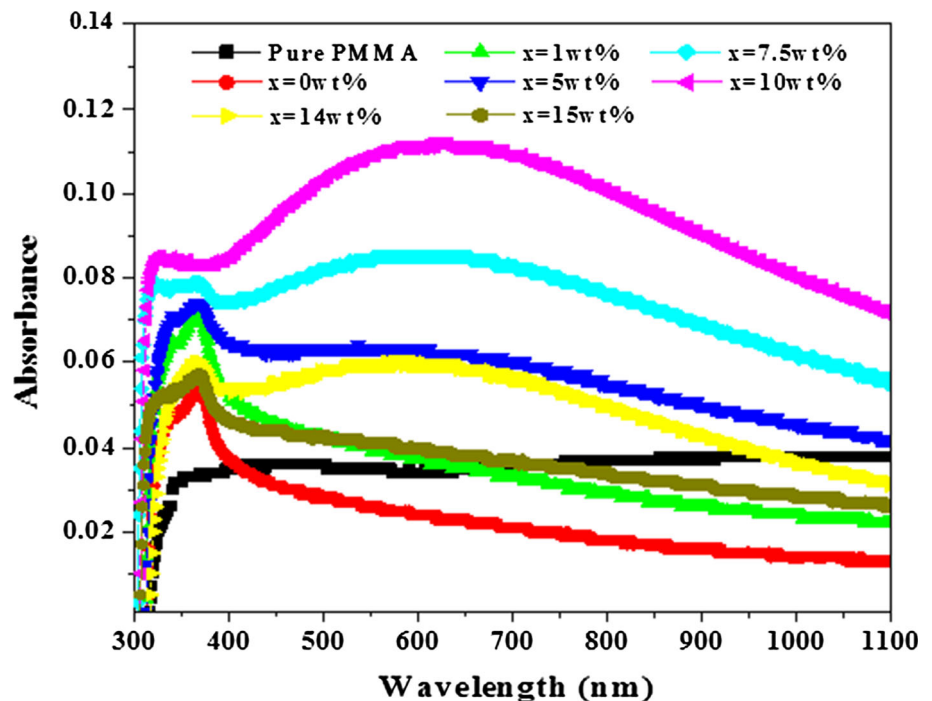


Fig. 4 Transmission spectra of PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites for diverse filler concentration

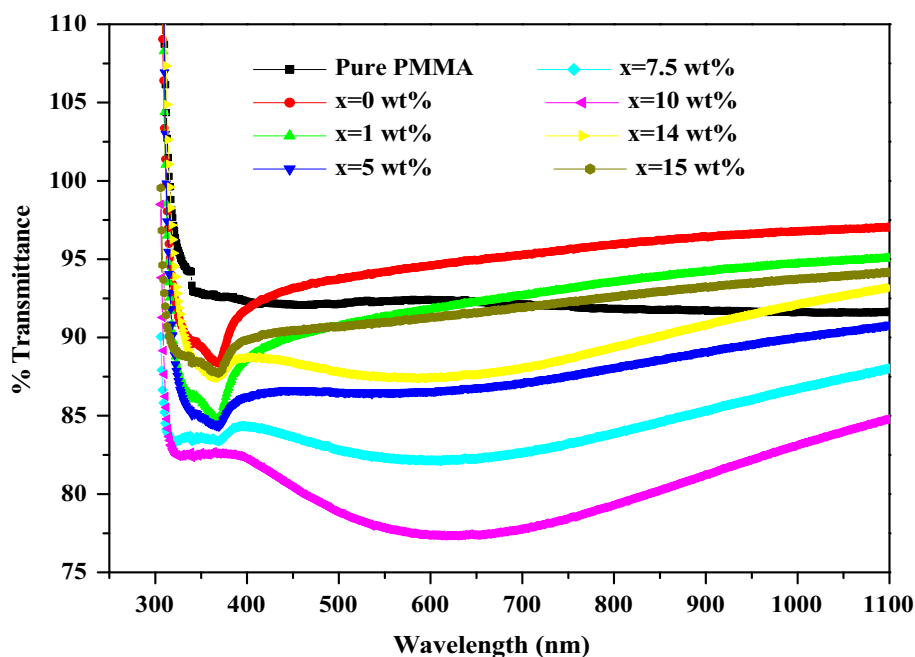
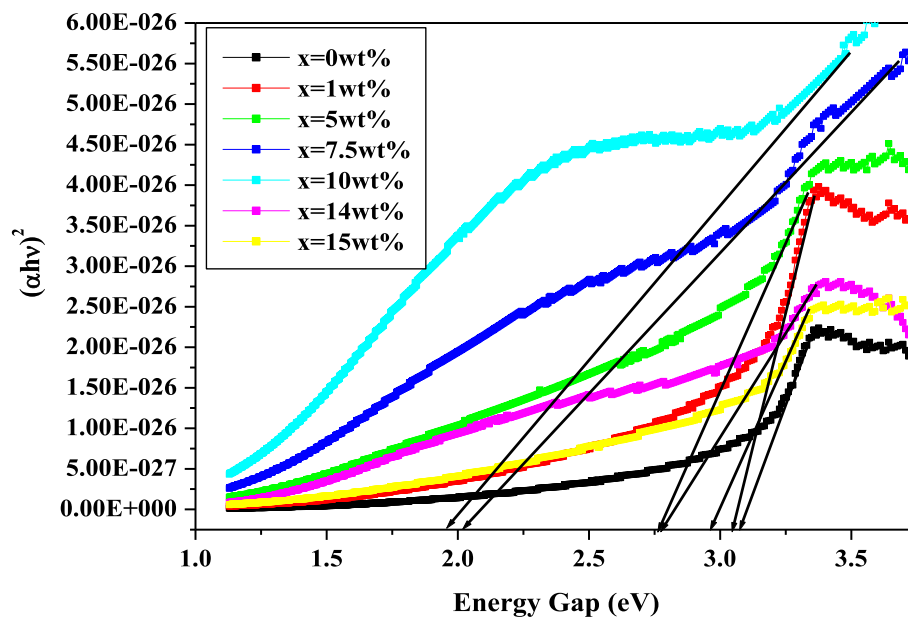


Fig. 5 Energy band gap of PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites for different filler concentration



directly linked to the local complex formation between the interpenetrating PMMA chain and incorporated nanofillers. The ZnO/TiO₂ spin-coated thin membranes have a minimal optical 1.91 eV energy difference which is highly transparent and may be utilized for UV protection and solar panels. Nanofillers TiO₂ and ZnO introduced in the matrix form complexes with PMMA interpenetrating sporadic coils culminating in departed molecular mobility to create an interactive configuration. The nanofiller's critical volume generates a continuous network inside the hybrid polymer nanocomposite (Tauc 1972; Selim et al. 2005). This makes an isolated conduction transition in the

percolation filler composition. Such influences improve the crystallinity of PMMA/(15 - x)ZnO (x) TiO₂ while significantly reducing the energy gap. The decline in E_g with the proliferation in Ti filler percentage ($x = 10$ wt% concentration) is due to Ti substitution in place of Zn in the lattice of ZnO in the PMMA matrix (Patil et al. 2009).

The presence of high reactive titanium-terminated anatase surface having declined energy bandgap less than 2 eV reduces the bandgap of PMMA nanocomposites up to the filler level $x = 10$ wt% (Dette et al. 2014). The Ti²⁺ ions incorporate into the PMMA matrix also substitute the Zn²⁺, creating double ionized oxygen vacancies or

incorporation as interstitials, thereby decreasing the energy bandgap. The extinction coefficient is calculated using the relation (Rouaramadan and Hasan 2013),

$$k = \frac{\alpha \lambda}{4\pi} \quad (5)$$

where α is the absorption coefficient of the PMMA nanocomposites. The coefficient of extinction in Fig. 6 shows a dispersion pattern reflecting the Sellmeier relation. The extinction coefficient originates from light absorption whenever the photon wavelength is more extensive or equivalent to the grain scale. The advantages of dispersing the grains improve with the rise in nanofillers concentration, often attributed to the increased grain size and added nanoparticle density.

The Skin depth shown in Fig. 7 represents the reduction in electromagnetic waves' intensity, subsequently itinerating a particular unit thickness (Al-Ammar et al. 2013).

$$\chi = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi k} \quad (6)$$

where λ refers to a wavelength of the photon, besides K is the extinction coefficient. The energy needed for the photon to infiltrate PMMA/(15 - x)ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposite matrix evaluates optical conductivity, which can be measured using the relation,

$$\sigma = \frac{\alpha n c}{4\pi} \quad (7)$$

The number of free charges inside the PMMA filled nanocomposite matrix is evaluated from optical conductivity

(Abdul-Gader 2013). Figure 8 indicates the enhancement in free charges up to optimum filler concentration $x = 10$ wt% and above the optical conductivity decreases.

Figure 8 also shows the optical conductivity of the synthesized PMMA nanocomposites improves in the higher energy zone and further heightens in the visible region due to free charges absorbing the photon energy (Choudhary and Nayak 2019). Further, toward the IR region, the optical conductivity decreases. This may be due to the trapping of photon energy in the free carries binds its motion inside the PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ hybrid nanocomposites. For optimum filler concentration of $x = 10$ wt%, the optical conductivity is maximum both in UV and the visible region, making the material for optical devices applications.

3.4 SEM and EDS Studies

Figure 9 extol the SEM image designating the surface characteristics of PMMA:(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ polymeric films for efficient load composition at room temperature of $x = 10$ weight percentage. The SEM photograph is limited to 4000X magnification, which leads to the creation of the micro-crack in the images. Figure 9 gives the streamlined dispersion of TiO₂ and ZnO nanofillers in a typically designed PMMA monomer. The average dimension of ZnO nanofillers is 77 nm, and TiO₂ is 112 nm. The intercalation shows well, enacts the involvement of nanofillers in the composites materials. The formation of complex conformation between the PMMA host chain and ZnO/TiO₂ nanocomposites enhances the

Fig. 6 Variation of extinction coefficient with the wavelength for PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites for different filler concentrations

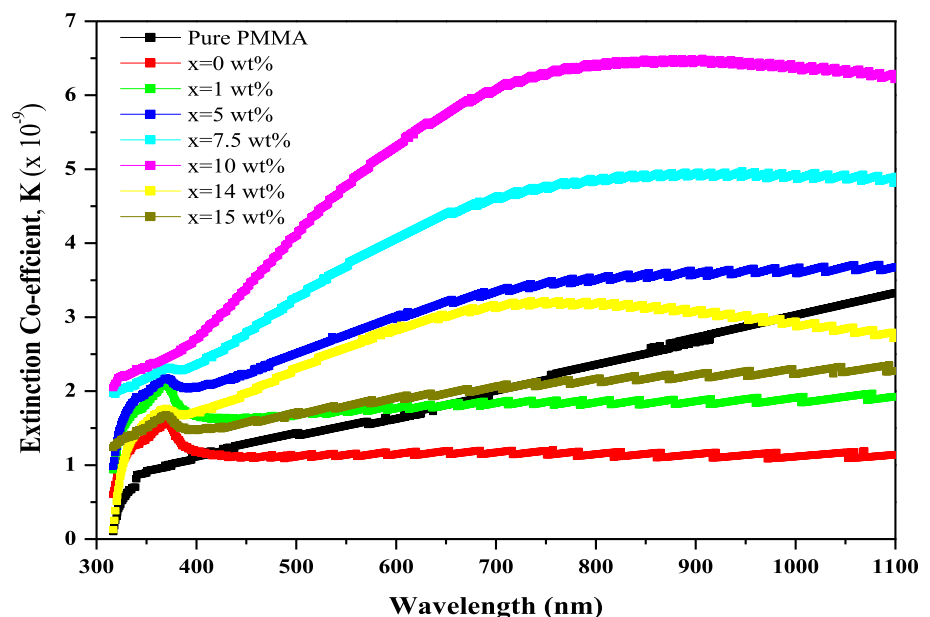


Fig. 7 Variation of skin depth with the wavelength for PMMA filled nanocomposites

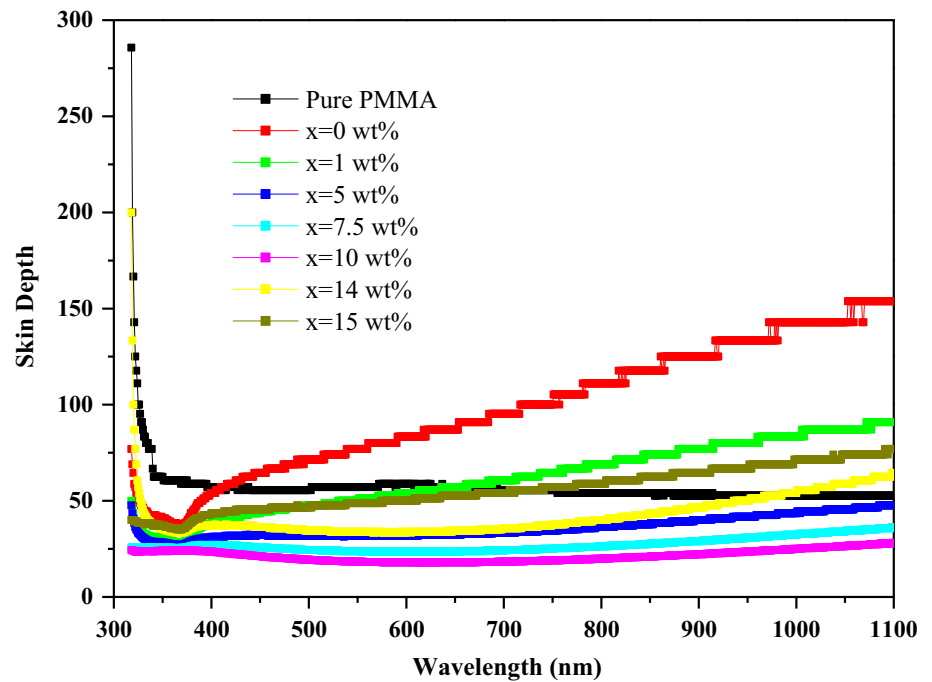
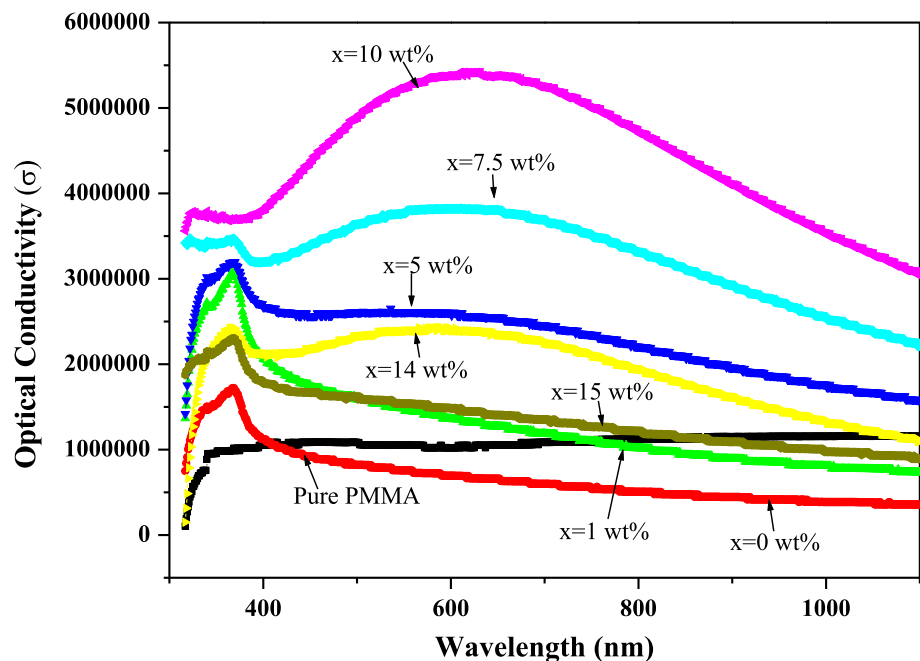


Fig. 8 Variation of optical conductivity with wavelength for PMMA/(15 - x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ nanocomposites



microstructural variation observed in Fig. 9. A non-uniformity of the size arose in a few areas owing to conglomeration that significantly reduces higher surface energy enamored by isolated nano-sized fillers. Aside from these, the host PMMA matrix exhibits a standardized uniform dispersion of the inorganic nanofillers (Shetty et al. 2019).

EDS analysis gives the basic structure and uniform distribution of nanofillers TiO₂ and ZnO in host polymer

PMMA. Initially, the PMMA nanocomposite films were sputtered primarily by using gold ions to resist the artifacts created above the film surface. Figure 10 identifies the proportion of nano-sized TiO₂ and ZnO nanofillers distributed in the PMMA nanocomposites.

SEM performed elemental mapping of nanofillers to confirm the dispersion of Ti, Zn, S, and O in the surface of the PMMA nanocomposites. Figure 11 shows the elemental mapping in various colors such as O (green), Zn

Fig. 9 SEM image of PMMA filled with $x = 10\text{wt}\%$ of $(15 - x)$ ZnO and (x) TiO₂ nanofillers

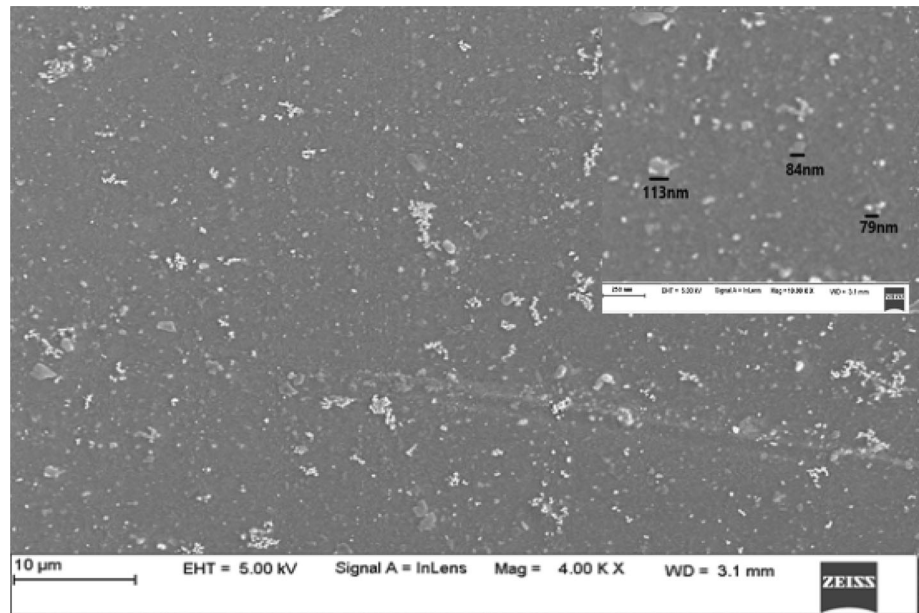
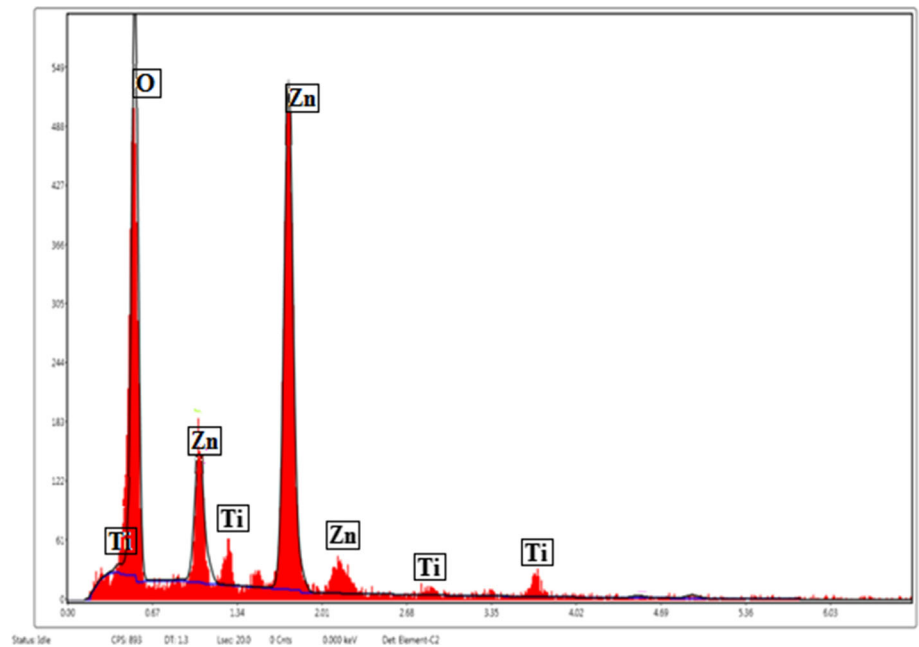


Fig. 10 EDS graph indicating the distribution of nanofillers in the PMMA matrix for $x = 10\text{wt}\%$



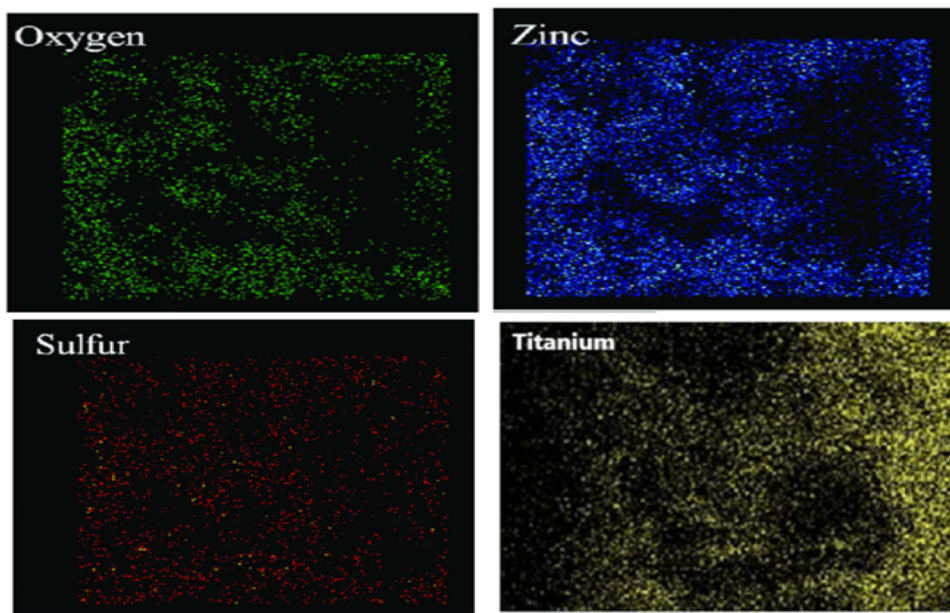
(blue), Ti (brown), and S (red), respectively. The elemental mapping also signifies the homogenous distribution of nanofillers in the PMMA nanocomposites.

4 Conclusion

A simple spin coating method is successfully employed to obtain PMMA: $(15 - x)$ ZnO (x) TiO₂ hybrid nanocomposites. The transformation of thin layer nano-hybrid film on a glass substrate was analyzed for morphological, functional, and chemical effects. XRD studies indicate that

nanoparticles' addition into the PMMA matrix shifts the PMMA peaks toward the lower angle. An increase in the crystalline peak for $x = 10 \text{ wt}\%$ indicates the enhancement in crystalline properties. The FESEM shows the compatibility and homogenous distribution of added nanofillers ZnO and TiO₂ with the host PMMA matrix. The Raman spectroscopy identifies the shifts in the peaks heading toward the lower wavelength indicate the complex formation of nanofillers on PMMA's C–O and C=O bond, making it out of plane bending with PED of every normal mode $55\eta_{\text{C-O}} + 11\eta_{\text{C=O}}$. The prominent transition peak witnessed at 840 cm^{-1} for optimized filler concentration

Fig. 11 The elemental mapping of nanofillers in the PMMA matrix for $x = 10\text{wt}\%$ filler concentration



$x = 10 \text{ wt}\%$ refers to C=O and C–O out of plane bending with an estimated PED of $64\eta_{\text{C=O}} + 16\eta_{\text{C-O}}$. The transmittance spectra of UV–visible spectroscopy of filled PMMA/(15 – x) ZnO (x) TiO₂ compared with unfilled PMMA shows an enhancement in transmittance in filler concentration up to 10 wt% offering a maximum value of nearly 85% and decreased energy gap of 1.91 eV. The optical conductivity found maximum in UV and the visible region for optimum filler concentration of $x = 10 \text{ wt}\%$ makes the material PMMA/(15 – x)ZnO(x) TiO₂ for applications in optical devices.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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