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Novel phosphorus-doped graphitic-carbon nitride (P-C₃N₄) modified vertically aligned TiO₂ nanotube arrays (NTs) were designed and synthesized. They can significantly enhance the conduction and utilization of photogenerated charge carriers of TiO₂ NTs. The heterostructure was successfully fabricated through a three-step process: electrochemical anodization and wet-dipping followed by thermal polymerization. The prepared P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs exhibit enhanced light-absorption characteristics and improved charge separation and transfer ability, thus resulting in a 3-fold photocurrent (1.98 mA cm⁻² at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl) compared with that of pure TiO₂ NTs (0.66 mA cm⁻² at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl) in 1 M NaOH solution. The prepared P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs photoelectrodes also present excellent photocatalytic and photoelectrocatalytic capabilities in the degradation of methylene blue (MB). The kinetics rate of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs in photoelectrocatalytic process for MB is 2.7 times that of pristine TiO₂ NTs. Furthermore, the prepared sample was used as a photoanode for solar-driven water splitting, giving a H₂ evolution rate of 36.6 µmol h⁻¹ cm⁻² at 1.0 V vs RHE under simulated solar light illumination. This novel structure with the rational design for visible light response shows potential for metal free materials in photoelectrochemical applications.

semiconductors.

investigated to improve the photoresponse of TiO₂ NTs in the

visible region through the formation of a heterostructure coupling TiO_2 with the above-mentioned narrow band gap

Graphitic carbon nitride $(g-C_3N_4)$ is a new kind of non-metallic

 π -conjugated polymeric materials with a band gap of 2.7 eV, as

reported by Wang et al. in 2009.33 Many reports have

demonstrated that it is able to produce hydrogen or oxygen from water splitting and organic degradation under visible light

irradiation.33-35 Especially, g-C₃N₄ possesses superior reduction

ability due to the high potential of the conduction band (-1.42 V

vs Ag/AgCl, pH 6.6),³⁶ which makes it a fine material to couple

with TiO₂ for efficient charge transfer and separation. However,

in spite of the advantages of this metal free material as an

excellent semiconductor, the poor adaption of the material

interfaces and grain boundary effects hinder its electric charge

transport.³⁷⁻⁴⁰ To overcome this challenge, chemical doping is

adopted as an effective strategy to improve the performance by

modifying their electronic structure and surface properties. Recently, phosphorus-doped $g-C_3N_4$ (P-C₃N₄) was developed by a co-condensation strategy. As a result, the electronic

features of P-C₃N₄ were altered by this heteroatom doping,

providing better electric conductivity up to 4 orders of

magnitude.⁴⁰ Based on previous studies, a novel heterostructure

will be designed in this study by modifying TiO₂ NTs in-situ

with phosphorus-doped graphitic carbon nitride ($P-C_3N_4$). The

heterojunction built between P-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ NTs is expected

not only to benefit light absorption, but also to improve

separation of photogenerated electrons and inhibit the electron-

Introduction

Highly ordered, vertically oriented TiO₂ nanotube arrays (TiO₂ NTs) obtained by Ti metal anodization have attracted wide interest because of their impressive properties. Various applications of TiO₂ NTs have been explored in such fields as pollutants degradation,¹⁻⁵ sterilization,^{6, 7} water splitting,⁸⁻¹² dye-sensitized solar cells ¹³⁻¹⁶ and gas sensors.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ Compared with traditional TiO₂ nanocrystal-based nanofilms, the unique structure of nanotube arrays provides convenience for the separation and transfer of photo-generated charges and possesses higher photon collection efficiency.^{9, 20} However, the practical application of TiO₂ NTs is significantly hindered by its wide band gap (3.2 eV for anatase), which limits the photoresponse of TiO₂ to the UV region ($\lambda < 385$ nm, less than 5% of the solar spectrum). Recently, semiconductors with narrower band gaps, such as CdS,²¹⁻²³ CdSe^{24, 25},^{24, 25} Cu₂O,^{26, 27} Fe₂O₃,^{28, 29} AgBr,³⁰ ZnFe₂O,³¹ and Fe₂TiO₅ ³² were

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which hole pair recombination, can enhance the photoelectrochemical activity of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs significantly. Methylene blue (MB) will be used as the model pollutant for photocatalytic and photoelectrocatalytic degradation reactions to evaluate the photoelectrochemical capability of the as-prepared P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs photoelectrodes under solar light irradiation. Moreover, P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs will be employed as photoanode for photoelectrochemical water splitting under solar light illumination. Detailed analysis is given subsequently.

Experimental Section

Chemicals

All the chemicals are used as received without further treatment. Ammonium fluoride $[NH_4F]$ (>99.99%), dicyandiamide [CN] (>99.9%), 2-aminobenzonitrile [ABN] (>99.9%), 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate [BmimPF₆] (>99.9%) were purchased from Aladdin. Ethylene glycol [EG] (>99.5%) was obtained from Scharlan and methylene blue [MB] (>99%) was procured from Sigma. MilliQ water (deionized water, 18 M Ω) was used for the preparation of all the solutions.

Photoelelctrodes preparation

TiO₂ NTs were fabricated by a two-step anodization process. Prior to anodization, the Ti foils were first degreased by sonicating in acetone, ethanol and DI water, respectively, followed by drying in air stream for 30 minutes. The anodization process was carried out in a conventional twoelectrode system with the Ti foil as the anode and a Pt foil as the cathode. The electrolyte consisted of 0.5 wt% NH_4F and 2 vol% water in EG solution. All the anodization process was carried out at room temperature of 25 °C. In the first-step anodization, the Ti foil was anodized at 60 V for 60 min, and then the as-grown nanotubes layer was ultrasonically removed in 1 M HCl solution. The produced Ti foil then underwent the second anodization at 60 V for 30 min, producing a nanoringnanotube structure. After the two-step anodization, the prepared TiO₂ NTs samples were cleaned with DI water and dried with nitrogen gas for 30 minutes. Then the anodized TiO₂ NTs samples were annealed in air at 450°C for 2 h with a heating rate of 2°C min⁻¹ for phase conversion from amorphous to crystalline.

P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs were prepared by a facile wet-dipping method (Scheme 1). CN and ABN were used as precursors to produce graphitic carbon nitride. The incorporation of phenylene groups produced by ABN into g-C₃N₄ can improve the p-electron delocalization in the conjugated system, and thus changes the intrinsic optical and electronic properties of the resulting CN-ABN polymers, resulting in much enhanced photo-response compared with pristine g-C₃N₄.⁴¹ BmimPF₆ was added into the solution as a phosphorous source. In a typical synthetic procedure, the prepared TiO₂ NTs were dipped into solution containing the precursor (CN: ABN: BmimPF₆ = 100: 1: 1) with desired concentration (1 to 5 mg mL⁻¹). After 12 h dipping saturation, the electrode was taken out of the solution

and dried in a nitrogen gas stream for 30 minutes. Afterwards, the electrode was heated to 540°C in an argon atmosphere with a heating rate of 2.3° C min⁻¹ and kept at this temperature for another 2 h to produce P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs heterostructure. For comparison, some pure TiO₂ NTs were also treated under the same conditions.

Characterization

Surface morphologies of TiO2 NTs and P-C3N4/TiO2 NTs were examined by Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM, JEOL 6700F). The structure and shape of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs were also examined by a High Resolution Transmission Electron Microscope (HRTEM, JEOL JEM2010F), combining with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) for the determination of element composition. The accelerating voltage was 200 kV in each case. X-ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis was conducted by X-Ray diffractometer (PANalytical, X'pert Pro) equipped with a Cu Ka radiation source (wavelength of 1.54 Å), mainly for the study of structural properties of crystalline materials in modified thin films. The diffractograms were recorded with a 20 range of $10 \sim 80^{\circ}$ with a normal scan speed of 0.05° s⁻¹. Xray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) was recorded on a PHI 5600 (Physical Electronic, USA) equipped with an Al monochromatic X-ray source. C 1s line at 284.6 eV was used as the calibration reference before each measurement. UV-vis Diffuse Reflectance Spectra (DRS) were recorded on a Shimadzu UV-2500PC UV-vis spectrometer with a diffuse reflectance accessory, and BaSO₄ was used as the reference sample (100% reflectance). Photoluminescence spectra (PL) were measured at room temperature of 25 °C on a Shimadzu RF-5301 PC spectrometer using a 325 nm excitation light. **Photoelectrochemical Test**

Photoelectrochemical measurements were performed using a conventional three-electrode cell system and an electrochemical workstation (PGSTAT 100, Autolab, Netherlands). The prepared electrode was employed as the working electrode. Meanwhile, a saturated Ag/AgCl electrode and a platinum electrode served as the reference and counter electrode, respectively. All the potentials were referred to the saturated Ag/AgCl unless otherwise stated. Some 1 M NaOH was used as



Scheme 1 Synthesis procedure of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs photoelectrode

the electrolyte. A 300 W high-pressure Xenon short arc lamp (Newport) was used as the simulated solar light source to provide a light intensity of 100 mW cm⁻², which was calibrated prior to every photoelectrochemical test using a calibrated Si photodiode. I-V curves were measured at a scanning rate of 50 mV s⁻¹. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was documented in the frequency range of 0.01 to 10^5 Hz with an AC voltage amplitude of 10 mV at a bias of 0 V (vs the Ag/AgCl) in 1 M NaOH solution.

Photoelectrochemical performance test

Photoelectrocatalytic degradation of MB was performed in a standard three-electrode configuration and an electrochemical workstation (PGSTAT 100, Autolab, Netherlands). P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs photoelectrode was employed as the working electrode, Pt foil as the counter electrode, and a saturated Ag/AgCl as the reference electrode. A 300 W high-pressure Xenon short arc lamp (Newport) was used as the simulated solar light source to provide a light intensity of 100 mW cm⁻². All the experiments were performed using 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ as the electrolyte with magnetic stirring. The initial concentration of the MB aqueous solution was 10 mg L⁻¹. The changes in MB concentration were monitored by measuring the maximal absorption at $\lambda = 664$ nm using an UV-vis spectrophotometer (Unico UV-2102 PC, USA). Photoelectrochemical water splitting reaction for hydrogen and oxygen production was conducted in a three electrode system where the reaction vessel was connected to a glass-closed gas-circulation system. The reaction solution was maintained at room temperature using a flow of cooling water during the reaction. The evolved gases were analyzed using a gas chromatograph (GC, Tianmei GC-7900T) equipped with a thermal conductive detector. All the data were obtained after repeating the same experiments for at least 3 times with insignificant difference observed.

Results and discussion

Figure 1A presents the top-down SEM image of TiO₂ NTs after the second anodization. The nanorings structure on the top is uniform in a large scale, with a smooth surface observed. Typical top-view and side-view images of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs were displayed in Figure 1B and inset, respectively, indicating that P-C₃N₄ was dispersed uniformly without blocking the channels. The pore diameter of TiO2 NTs became smaller after P-C₃N₄ modification, revealing a tube-in-tube structure formed after P-C₃N₄ deposition. The length of NTs was determined as around 5 µm, which can guarantee an effective light absorption and efficient charge separation.^{42, 43} The microscopic structure of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs heterostructure was further investigated by TEM and HRTEM. Figure 1C is a typical TEM image of the TiO₂ NTs after the modification of P-C₃N₄, showing that the P-C₃N₄ formed from thermal polymerization is dispersed on the inner walls of the TiO2 NTs, which is consistent with the FESEM images. After P-C₃N₄ thermal polymerization, the TiO₂ NTs still show good crystallization (Figure 1E). The observed lattice plane is 0.351 nm, which is consistent with (101) plane of anatase TiO₂. Moreover, an obvious boundary of P-C₃N₄ layer and TiO₂ layer is revealed in Figure 1F. TEM-EDX mapping spectrum (SI, Figure S1) presents a uniform distribution of titanium, oxygen, carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus, demonstrating the presence of P-C₃N₄. In addition, the TEM line-EDX (Figure 1D) clearly shows that there is considerable inner diffusion of the elements across the interface over P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs structure. Moreover, there is a concentration gradient of Ti and O in the walls of nanotubes, with the average distribution of C and N in the inner walls of nanotubes, demonstrating uniform dispersion of P-C₃N₄ in the inner wall.

The elemental compositions and chemical status of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs were further analyzed by XPS. The XPS survey spectrum (Figure 2A) of the $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs confirmed the existence of Ti, O, C, N and P elements. Figures 2 B-C indicate the presence of Ti 2p and O 1s in the prepared samples with corresponding peaks at 459.0 eV and 464.8 eV for Ti 2p, and 530.1 eV for O 1s. It is notable that after $P-C_3N_4$ deposition, a small negative shift (ca. 0.15 eV) of Ti $2p_{3/2}$ can be identified, which is due to the electron transfer from P-C₃N₄ to TiO₂ NTs, indicating a heterojunction formed successfully between TiO₂ and P-C₃N₄. Figure 2D shows the high-resolution C 1s XPS spectra of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs. As can be seen from this figure, the C 1s peak at 284.6 eV can be ascribed to carbon and defectcontaining sp²-hybridized carbon atoms present in graphitic domains. The C 1s peak at 286.1 eV is assigned to the C-C bond in the turbostratic CN structure. The peak at 288.1 eV is



Figure 1 SEM images of pristine TiO_2 NTs (A) and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs (B); representative TEM images (C, D) and line-EDX of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs (D); HRTEM images of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs showing the good crystallinity of TiO₂ (E, inset is corresponding SAED) and interface between TiO₂ and P-C₃N₄(F)

A Ti: •

Anatase: •

g-C3N4: ∇



Figure 2 XPS survey spectrum (A) and corresponding core levels of Ti 2p (B), O 1s (C), C 1s (D), N 1s (E) and P 2p (F) of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs

ascribed to the sp³ C-N bond of the sp³ bonded composition. Figure 2E shows the high-resolution N 1s XPS spectra of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs. The asymmetrical and broad features of the observed N 1s XPS peaks suggest the coexistence of distinguishable models. The main N 1s peak at the binding energy of 399.0 eV can be assigned to sp²-hybridized nitrogen (C-N-C). The two weak peaks at about 399.8 and 401.1 eV can be attributed to tertiary nitrogen (N-(C)₃) and amino functional groups having a hydrogen atom (C-N-H), respectively.⁴⁴ The presence of the N-(C)₃ groups confirms the polymerization of dicyandiamide. The existence of amino functional groups suggests that the g-C₃N₄ product prepared by pyrolysis of dicyandiamide was incompletely condensed, which is consistent with the previous reports.44, 45 Moreover, the area ratio of N-(C)3 and C-N-H peaks also suggests that the degree of condensation reaction and the molar percentage are about 85% and 15%, respectively. Also, the structural details on the incorporation of P into the g-C₃N₄ scaffold were obtained with XPS measurements (Figure 2F). The P 2p binding energy peaks of P-C₃N₄ are centered at 134.0 eV, which is typical for a P-N coordination, while that of pristine TiO₂ NTs shows negligible contributions.40

The crystal structure of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs heterostructure was revealed by XRD analysis (Figure 3A). For comparison, the XRD patterns from pure TiO₂ NTs and P-C₃N₄ bulk are also shown. All peaks in the curve can be well-indexed by TiO₂ anatase phase (JCPDS No. 71-1167) and Ti metal phase (JCPDS No. 44-1294), which are originated from the TiO₂ NTs





Figure 3 (A) XRD patterns of TiO₂, P-C₃N₄ and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂; (B) DRS spectra of TiO₂ and P-C₃N₄ modification with different precursor solutions

and Ti substrate, respectively. Compared to the TiO₂ NTs, the XRD pattern of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs shows that there are two additional peaks at 13.2° and 27.6° corresponding to the (110) and (200) crystal planes of g-C₃N₄, respectively.

DRS spectra obtained from the pure TiO₂ NTs show that TiO₂ primarily absorbs ultraviolet light with a maximum absorption wavelength of around 360 nm, which is ascribed to the charge transfer process from the valence band formed by the 2p orbital of the oxide anions to the conduction band formed by the $3d_{12g}$ orbital of the Ti⁴⁺ cations. The as-prepared P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ decorated TiO₂ NTs are denoted as P-C₃N₄-X/TiO₂ (with X being precursor concentration). It is notable that with the increase in precursor concentration, the absorption in the visible region of P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs increased significantly, revealing the excellent light absorption ability of g-C₃N₄ under visible light illumination. The result indicates that visible-light absorption of the TiO₂ NTs is obviously enhanced by introducing P-C₃N₄.

Figure 4 shows the *J*-V curves of photocurrent density versus the applied potential for the TiO₂ NTs, and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs prepared under different concentrations. It is obvious that the maximum photocurrent density of 1.98 mA cm⁻² (P-C₃N₄-3/TiO₂ NTs) is obtained at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl for the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs electrode, while only 0.66 mA cm⁻² for pure TiO₂ NTs is observed. This result indicates that the separation rate of photogenerated holes and electrons increased due to the formation of a heterostructure. It is notable that although light absorption of P-C₃N₄-5/TiO₂ is a little higher than that of P-C₃N₄-3/TiO₂, the formed thick and dense P-C₃N₄ layer blocks some light absorption of TiO₂ NTs (as indicated



Figure 4 Photoelectrochemical properties of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs and TiO_2 NTs photoelectrodes: (a) *J*-V collected with a scan rate of 20 mV s⁻¹ in the dark and under illumination; (b) photoconversion efficiency as a function of the applied potential

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by the decreased light absorption in the UV region of DRS spectra) and hinder the electron transport ability of TiO_2 NTs. Thus, P-C₃N₄-3/TiO₂ gives the optimal photocurrent.

The photoconversion efficiency of the $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ photoelectrode was calculated using the following equation (1): where η is the photoconversion efficiency, I is the photocurrent density (mA cm⁻²), J_{light} is the incident light irradiance (mW cm⁻ ²), E_{rev}^{0} is the standard reversible potential which is 1.23 V vs. RHE, and V is the applied bias potential vs RHE. Figure 4B presents the plots of the photoconversion efficiency vs. applied bias potentials. The optimal photoconversion efficiency can be up to 0.71% at -0.3 V vs Ag/AgCl for P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs, while pristine TiO₂ NTs can only achieve photoconversion efficiency of 0.23% at -0.35 V vs Ag/AgCl. Furthermore, photoelectrochemical stability of prepared samples was also demonstrated by testing their chopped transient photocurrent density versus time at 0 V (SI, Figure S3). It is clearly that nearly no decrease of photocurrent was observed for all the prepared samples. Especially, P-C₃N₄-3/TiO₂ generated the highest photocurrent of 1.96 mA cm⁻² among all the samples, which was around 3.0 times greater than the values obtained on TiO₂ NTs.

In order to explore the effect of incorporation of phenylene groups from ABN into g-C₃N₄, DRS spectra of g-C₃N₄ prepared from different precursors of CN and CN: ABN = 100: 1 were provided for comparison (SI, Figure S4). As one can see, after introduction of ABN, optical absorption of the resulted CN-ABN_{0.01} was enhanced in the visible region, which benefits photo-response due to the improvement of π -electron delocalization in the formed CN-ABN co-polymer.⁴¹

Furthermore, we compared $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ using CN and $CN-ABN_{0.01}$ as different precursors. Clearly, much enhanced light absorption both in UV and visible regions can be observed after the incorporation of phenylene groups when using $CN-ABN_{0.01}$ as precursors (SI, Figure S5), which is beneficial to improved PEC performance of the produced $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$. The prepared $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs with $CN-ABN_{0.01}$ as precursors exhibit much higher photocurrent than that with CN only. At 0 V vs Ag/AgCl, $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs (CN-ABN_{0.01}) show 40% enhancement of photocurrent than that of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs from CN only (1.4 mA cm⁻² at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl) (SI, Figure S6) To identify the roles of $g-C_3N_4$ and P doping in the formed P- C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs (without P doping) and $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs were evaluated by EIS and PL (Figure 5). Comparing typical EIS Nyquist plots of the



Figure 5 (A) EIS responses of pristine $TiO_2 NTs$, $g-C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs$ and $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs$ under dark and with solar light illumination; (B) PL spectra of $TiO_2 NTs$, $g-C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs$ and $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs$ with excitation light wavelength of 325 nm at room temperature

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TiO₂ NTs, g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs under dark and light irradiation, one can see that both of the radiuses of the arc on the EIS Nyquist plots of the g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs in the dark are much lower than that of pristine TiO₂ NTs. This indicates that the charge transfer resistance decreases after the modification of g-C₃N₄ and P-C₃N₄. The decrease in resistance reveals that the wet-dipping and polymerization technique employed here gives rise to a good interaction between C₃N₄ (both g-C₃N₄ and P-C₃N₄) and the TiO₂ NTs (with better ohmic contacts), and consequently leads to an efficient and fast charge transfer path from the C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs heterojunction to the Ti substrate. Under light irradiation, the arc radius on the EIS Nyquist plot of the P- C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs is still much smaller than those of pristine TiO₂ and g-C3N4/TiO2, which indicates an effective separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and fast interfacial charge transfer to the electron donor/electron acceptor after TiO₂ NTs is modified by P-C₃N₄ under light irradiation. These results show that after P doping, produced P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs exhibit enhanced charge separation ability than pristine g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs, which is due to significantly enhanced electric conductivity by introduction of P heteroatoms. From PL spectra, one can see that the photoluminescence intensities of TiO₂ NTs decrease with the modification of the g-C₃N₄, and it further decreased after P doping, which reveals that the addition of heterojunction and introduction of P heteroatoms decreases the density of the charge recombination for luminescence. The formed P-C₃N₄ can act as traps to capture the photo-induced electrons from TiO2 NTs, and thus effectively inhibit the recombination of electron-hole pairs, leading to much enhanced photoelectrochemical activity than g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ and pristine TiO₂ NTs (SI, Figure S7).

To gain more in-depth understanding of the charge-transport properties of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ and pristine TiO_2 NTs, the electron recombination kinetics of these two types of NTs were further investigated by monitoring the transient open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) as a function of time upon turning off the illumination. Under open-circuit conditions, electrons accumulate within the nanostructured semiconductor films following solar light irradiation and shifting the apparent Fermi level to negative potentials. Once the illumination is stopped, the accumulated electrons are slowly discharged because they are scavenged by redox species in the electrolyte. The electron density in the conduction band decays sharply due to charge recombination, with the V_{oc} decay rate directly determined by the recombination rate. Figure 6A depicts the V_{oc} decay as a



Figure 6 (A) Open circuit potential of the pristine TiO_2 and P- C_3N_4/TiO_2 NTs under simulated solar light irradiation. (B) The corresponding electron lifetimes as a function of open circuit potential

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function of time measured on the pristine and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs anodes. It is evident that the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs electrode has a significantly slower V_{oc} decay rate than that of pristine TiO₂ NTs, suggesting slower recombination kinetics in P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs. Based on the V_{oc} decay rate, the lifetime of photogenerated electrons (τ_n), i.e. the average time that the photogenerated electrons exist before they recombine, can be calculated by the following expression: $\tau_n = -(k_BT/e)(dV_{oc}/dt)^{-1}$ (2)

where $k_{\rm B}$ is Boltzmann's constant, T the temperature, and e the elementary charge. The calculated $\tau_{\rm n}$ is plotted in Fig. 6B as a function of V_{oc} for the two types of anodes. It is observed that $\tau_{\rm n}$ of the P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs is longer than that of pristine TiO₂ NTs. The extended $\tau_{\rm n}$ observed in P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs compared with that of TiO₂ NTs may be attributed to surface defects, which act as adsorption sites benefiting charge carrier transportation.

Methylene blue (MB) was selected as a target pollutant to evaluate the photocatalytic performance of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ heterostructure. Figure 7A presents MB removals in various degradation processes, i.e. the photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) process, the photocatalytic (PC) process, the electrochemical (EC) process, the direct photolysis and dark control processes. As shown in Figure 7, 92.8% of MB removal rate was obtained after 60 min of PEC process, while only 52% and 1.8% of MB were removed in PC and EC process within the same time, respectively. The kinetic constant is 0.040 min⁻¹ for PEC process, 2.4 times of that in PC process (0.017 min⁻¹). The PEC removals of MB on P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs and TiO₂ NTs were also performed and the results are shown in Figure 7B. About 92.8% MB was removed on P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs after only 60 min, with a corresponding kinetic constant being 0.040 min⁻¹, 2.7 times of that of TiO₂ NTs. The results show that P-C₃N₄, as a charge collector, can improve the charge transfer and separation in a PEC process.

Figure 8A shows the TOC removal efficiency during MB degradation over $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs and TiO_2 NTs. For $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs, the initial TOC value of MB is 4.77 mg L⁻¹, which reduced to 2.16 mg L⁻¹ after 1 h degradation, and further decreased to only 1.07 mg L⁻¹ at 2 h reaction. The TOC removal efficiency was 77.6%, nearly 3 times of that observed for pure TiO₂ NTs (26.3%), demonstrating better mineralization ability of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs as a photocatalyst than pure TiO₂ NTs. The stability of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs was tested by degrading MB with the same electrode for 5 consecutive times. During 5



Figure 7 (A) Degradation of MB solutions by different processes with the as-prepared $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs electrode (B) Degradation of MB solutions by TiO₂ and prepared $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ with the bias of 0.5 V under solar light illumination (light intensity is 100 mW cm⁻²)



Figure 8 (A) TOC removal efficiency of MB on TiO₂ and P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ during PEC degradation process at different time; (B) Removal efficiency of MB with one P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs photoelectrode for 5 consecutive times over 60 min (0.5 V vs Ag/AgCl, light intensity is 100 mW cm⁻²)

repeated PEC cycles, the MB removal efficiency remained almost unchanged (Figure 8B), indicating good stability of P- C_3N_4/TiO_2 photoelectrode when applied as an anode for degradation of pollutants. Additionally, the produced OHunder solar light illumination over P- C_3N_4/TiO_2 was captured using DMPO and recorded by ESR spectra at ambient temperature in an aqueous dispersion (SI, Figure S9). Four characteristic peaks of DMPO-OH- with intensity 1:2:2:1 can be clearly observed showing that efficient hydroxyl radicals were produced on P- C_3N_4/TiO_2 under solar light irradiation, while no peaks observed in dark. The results display that hydroxyl radicals can be generated efficiently on the prepared samples under solar light, which is beneficial to MB removal and mineralization with high efficiency.

It is important to directly examine the evolution of H_2 and O_2 for the prepared samples in a PEC water-splitting process. For this purpose, photoelectrocatalytic water splitting reaction for hydrogen and oxygen production was conducted in a three electrode system under vacuum atmosphere. The evolved gases were sampled and injected into a gas chromatograph in-situ for quantitative analysis. The results showed that under simulated solar light irradiation H_2 was evolved on the surface of electrode with a generation rate of 36.6 µmol h⁻¹ within the testing period of 5 h (Figure 9). The photocurrent was also given in the inset of Figure 9, demonstrating excellent stability of the prepared sample in aqueous solution. Additionally, even after 6 months storage, the prepared samples show nearly the same performance as observed from the chopped *J*-V current under solar



Figure 9 Time courses of hydrogen evolution for the $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs and TiO_2 NTs electrodes at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl under illumination of simulated solar light

light (SI, Figure S11), showing good chemical stability of $P-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ NTs in the air.

Conclusions

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P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs was successfully synthesized by a facile method: electrochemical anodization and wet-dipping followed by a thermal polymerization. The prepared P-C₃N₄/TiO₂ NTs showed a remarkably enhanced photocurrent and improved photoconversion efficiency due to better charge separation and collection efficiency under solar light irradiation. Also, it showed much improved performance photoelectrocatalytic degradation of MB, with 2.7 times of degradation kinetic rate and 3.0 times TOC removal efficiency of pristine TiO₂, respectively. The prepared sample was further used for H₂ evolution, achieving a generation rate of 36.6 μ mol h⁻¹ cm⁻² at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl with excellent stability up to 5 h. The composite materials are expected to have promising applications in photocatalysis, solar cells and other light harvesting devices.

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