RSC Advances



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This Accepted Manuscript will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/advances

ARTICLE

Accepted 00th January 2012

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

Biomimetic synthesis of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag nanosheet Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x composites with high visible-light photocatalytic performance Received 00th January 2012,

Zhen Wei Tong,^{ad} Dong Yang,^{bc} Yuan Yuan Sun,^{bd} and Zhong Yi Jiang*^{ad}

In order to more efficiently utilize the solar energy, the semiconductor-based nanocomposites with high visible–light response have attracted much interest in recent years. In this study, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet with high visible–light photocatalytic performance has been synthesized *via* a biomimetic strategy under mild conditions. Firstly, TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs) about 10 nm in diameter are loaded on the C_3N_4 nanosheet by the arginine–enabled biomimetic mineralization. Then, Ag NPs about 5 nm in size nucleate and grow on the TiO₂ surface using 3–(3, 4–dihydroxyphenyl) propionic acid as an anchor and a reducer to form the TiO₂–Ag heterojunction. The resultant $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet exhibits significantly higher photoelectric conversion efficiency and photodegradation activity than pure C_3N_4 and C_3N_4/TiO_2 under visible–light irradiation. Moreover, the loading amount of Ag nanocrystals can be readily regulated by changing the AgNO₃ concentration. Both TiO₂ and Ag play critical roles for the enhanced photocatalytic activity of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheets. The band match of TiO₂ with C_3N_4 is in favour of the separation of photo–generated carriers in C_3N_4 , and the surface plasmon resonance effect of Ag nanocrystals induces the electron excitation in TiO₂ NPs under visible light. This study offers a facile approach for the cost-effective and environmentally benign synthesis of high-efficiency photocatalysts.

Introduction

In the past few decades, the significant upsurge of visible–light photocatalysis has generated increasing attention due to its potential application in the environment and energy fields.¹⁻³ Since Antonietti and co–workers reported the optical property, electronic structure, and photocatalytic activity of C_3N_4 in 2009,⁴ much effort has been focused on the application of C_3N_4 in the energy conversion, hydrogen and carbon dioxide storage and purification of contaminated water because of its visible–light driven bandgap (2.69 eV) and suitable conduction band position.⁵⁻⁷ Moreover, C_3N_4 , as a novel photocatalytic material, demonstrates higher thermal and chemical stability than various conventional visible–light photocatalysts, such as metal sulphide and N–doped TiO₂. However, C_3N_4 exhibits a high recombination rate of photo–generated electron/hole pairs and the limited quantum efficiency (3.5 % at 420-460 nm), which restrict its wide application in the photocatalysis.⁸ In order to solve these problems, the C_3N_4 –based composite material is becoming a burgeoning research area. Until now, many nanocomposites of C_3N_4 with other materials, such as oxides, ^{9,10} sulphides,^{11,12} carbon materials,^{2,13} and metals,¹⁴ have been prepared for harvesting the high photocatalytic performance. For example, Liu *et al.* fabricated a C_3N_4 /carbon nanodot composite, which demonstrated an overall solar energy conversion efficiency of 2.0% for photocatalytic solar water splitting.²

In the previous study, the C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet was prepared by a facile biomimetic approach under relative mild conditions, and exhibited high degradation efficiency for RhB under simulated–sunlight irradiation.¹⁵ However, their visible–light photocatalytic performance needs to be further improved, since TiO₂ nanoparticles in the composite cannot be excited by visible light. It is well–known that the heterojunction of wide–bandgap semiconductor with noble metals including Ag, Au, and Pt *et al.* can apparently enhance the visible–light absorbance (accounting for 43% of solar spectrum) by the surface plasmon resonance (SPR) photosensitization and inhibit the recombination of photo–generated carriers by the Schottky barrier formed between semiconductor and noble metal simultaneously.^{1,16,17} Moreover, it was found that the noble metal can excite adjacent semiconductors *via* enhanced electric field amplitude.^{16,18} Ag is one of the most promising noble metals for extensive application owing to its relative low cost, inherent antibacterial activity, and facile preparation. Therefore, it may be a good idea by using Ag nanocrystals to further improve the photocatalytic performance of C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheets. More recently, Chen *et al.*¹⁹ constructed the $g-C_3N_4/Ag/TiO_2$ microsphere with enhanced visible–light photocatalytic performance, in which Ag NPs were photodeposited as the interlayer between $g-C_3N_4$ (as the outer layer with 4% mass ratio) and the synthetic condition is not mild due to the

involvement of chemical solvents. It is desirable to develop a biomimetic strategy for the synthesis of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanocomposites with the structure in favour of visible–light absorption and utilization.

In the present study, a $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ composite system based on a grafted nanosheet structure (commonly used in the graphene composite catalysts) has been first synthesized by a biomimetic strategy. The C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet was first prepared by the arginine–enabled biomimetic mineralization, and then loaded Ag nanoparticles assisted by 3-(3, 4-dihydroxyphenyl) propionic acid (diHPP) to form the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet under mild conditions. DiHPP can link to the TiO₂ surface *via* the bi–dentate chelation of catechol group with Ti⁴⁺, and act as both an anchor and a reducer to *in situ* nucleate and grow Ag nanocrystals on the TiO₂ surface under ambient conditions.^{20,21} The morphology and structure of the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet were characterized, and the photoelectric and photocatalytic performance of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet were investigated. Moreover, a tentative photocatalytic mechanism was also proposed.

Experimental

Synthesis of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$

Graphite–like C_3N_4 powders were prepared according to the literature.²² In specific, melamine (10.0 g) was put into an alumina crucible with a cover, and calcined at 550 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 2.5 °C min⁻¹ in air in a muffle furnace. The resulting yellow product $g-C_3N_4$ was collected and ground into powder for further synthesis. The C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet was prepared by a biomimetic method reported in our previous work.¹⁵ In brief, $g-C_3N_4$ (0.560 g) was added into deionized water (5 mL), and sonicated for 10 min. Then, arginine solution (pH=7.0) (20 mL, 0.3 mol L⁻¹) was mixed with the C_3N_4 suspension under magnetic stirring for 3 h at room temperature. After adding Ti–BALDH (1 mL, 0.25 mol L⁻¹) solution into the suspension and stirring for 30 min, the composite of $g-C_3N_4$ loaded with amorphous TiO₂ was fabricated, which is denoted as $g-C_3N_4/am-TiO_2$. The $g-C_3N_4/am-TiO_2$ precipitate was collected by centrifugation, washed with deionized water, and freeze–dried in a vacuum freeze drier for 8 h. After calcining $g-C_3N_4/am-TiO_2$ at 480 °C for 2 h with a rate of 5 °C min⁻¹, the C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet was prepared finally.

Fifty milligram as-prepared C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet was mixed with deionized water (10 mL) under magnetic stirring. Then, diHPP solution (2 mL, 2 mg mL⁻¹) was added in the suspension and vigorously stirred for 30 min, which is superfluous for saturatedly adsorbing on the surface of C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet. The C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet modified by diHPP was centrifuged, washed with deionized water to remove unadsorbed diHPP, and re-dispersed in deionized water (10 mL). Subsequently, AgNO₃ solution (10 mL) was added to the suspension and kept stirring for 24 h at room temperature, during which its color changed from yellow to gray. The product was then isolated by centrifugation, washed and freeze-dried for 8 h. At last, five samples were prepared in the AgNO₃ solution with different concentrations (0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, and 5.0 mmol L⁻¹), which are denoted as $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-X$ (X=0.5, 1, 2, 3, 5), respectively. The amount of loading Ag in the nanosheets is 0.91%, 2.06%, 3.81%, 5.37% and 8.76%, tested by ICP later. For comparison, the C_3N_4/Ag nanosheet (C_{Ag+} =3 mmol L⁻¹) was also prepared under the same conditions except substituting C_3N_4 nanosheet for C_3N_4/TiO_2 . In addition, a physically mixed sample (denoted as PMS) was also prepared by mixing about 70 wt % C_3N_4/Ag with 30 wt % TiO₂ nanoparticles (Fig. S1a).

Characterization

High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) and energy dispersive X-ray analysis spectroscopy (EDS) were conducted at 90 K using a JEOL-2011 equipped with a Bruker X-flash silicon drift detector (SDD) at 200 kV. The crystal form of these samples was characterized by X-ray diffraction spectroscopy (XRD) with a Rigaku D/max 2500V/PC X-ray diffractometer (Cu K α , λ = 0.154 nm, 40 kV, 200 mA). Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) was measured on a Nicolet-560 spectrometer. The chemical status and element composition of the sample were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Perkin-Elmer PHI 1600 ESCA with monochromatized Mg K α radiation (1253.6 eV). The diffuse-reflectance spectrum (DRS) was recorded with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (U-3010, Hitachi) equipped with an integrating sphere, using BaSO₄ as the reference. Thermo-gravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed with a Perkin-Elmer TG/DTA thermo-gravimetric analyzer by heating from 20 to 800 °C at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ in air atmosphere.

Photoelectrochemical measurements

To measure the photocurrent generation response and the electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS), the film electrodes of photocatalysts were firstly prepared. The doctor-blade technique was employed to prepare the film on the F-doped tin oxide (FTO) coated glass substrate (2 cm×2 cm). The slurry consisting of 30 mg sample, 1 drop of Triton X-100 and 1 drop of acetylacetone were deposited on the substrate twice. The active area of the film was ca. 1.0 cm^2 . After coating, the films were sintered in air at 380 °C for 1 h. Photoelectrochemical measurements were carried out using an electrochemical workstation (CHI 660C Shanghai Chenhua) in a standard three-electrode cell system. The resultant electrode was employed as the working electrode. Meanwhile, a platinum wire electrode and a saturated Ag/AgCl electrode served as the counter and reference electrode, respectively. A 0.1 mol L⁻¹ KCl aqueous solution was employed as the electrolyte. The working electrode was irradiated by a 300 W Xe lamp (PLS-SXE300). The EIS was operated at open circuit potential. The generated photocurrent was recorded by a computer-controlled potentiostat. The amplitude of the sinusoidal wave is 5.0 mV and the frequency range examined is from 100 kHz to 0.1 Hz.

Photocatalytic activity

Photocatalytic activities of as-prepared samples were evaluated by the degradation of RhB (10 mg L⁻¹) and MB (7.46 mg L⁻¹) in aqueous solution under 500 W Xe lamp (Beijing AuLight Technology Co.) with a cutoff filter (λ >420 nm), respectively. The light intensity was determined to be 0.15 mW cm⁻² at 420 nm by using a UV-A radiometer (Photoelectric Instrument Factory, Beijing Normal University, model UV-A). Fifteen milligram photocatalysts were dispersed in 25 mL dye solution in a 50 mL quartz tube. Prior to irradiation, the

RSC Advances

suspension was magnetically stirred for 30 min in the dark to ensure that the photocatalyst surface was saturated with organic dyes. Every irradiation interval, 2.0 mL suspension was sampled, and the dye concentration was analyzed with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Hitachi, U-3010) at the maximal absorption wavelength of dye.

To investigate the role of photo-generated radical species in the photocatalytic degradation of dye, a series of controlled experiments were further performed. Three radical scavengers including methanol (1: 15/v: v), disodium ethylenediaminetetraacetate (EDTA, 10 mmol L⁻¹) and benzoquinone (1 mmol L⁻¹) were added into the reaction system to investigate the specific reactive specie \cdot OH, h⁺ and \cdot O₂⁻ involved in the RhB degradation over C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag photocatalyst, respectively. Furthermore, the changes of UV-Vis absorption spectra of RhB over C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag photocatalyst were tested to confirm the RhB degradation pathway.

Results and Discussion

Journal Name



Scheme 1. The synthetic procedure for C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag nanosheet photocatalyst.

Scheme 1 illustrates the schematic diagram for the synthetic procedure of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet composites by a biomimetic strategy. At first, bulk graphite C_3N_4 (g- C_3N_4) is synthesized by calcining the melamine at high temperature. Then, arginine molecules are adsorbed on the bulk g– C_3N_4 surface and inserted in the g– C_3N_4 layers *via* the electrostatic interaction, which can induce the hydrolysis and polycondensation of titanium precursor (Ti–BALDH) to form TiO₂ nanoparticles at room temperature. The obtained g– C_3N_4 /am–TiO₂ composite is treated at high temperature for the g– C_3N_4 delamination and TiO₂ crystallization simultaneously, thus resulting in the formation of C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet. Afterwards, C_3N_4/TiO_2 is suspended in an aqueous solution of diHPP, a kind of environmentally–friendly organic molecule, and then its colour changes from white to orange gradually, apparently suggesting the successful adsorption of diHPP on the C_3N_4/TiO_2 surface. It is inferred that the diHPP is preferentially adsorbed on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles *via* the bi–dentate chelation of catechol group with Ti⁴⁺.^{16,23} Subsequently, the diHPP–functionalized C_3N_4/TiO_2 is dispersed in the AgNO₃ solution, in which the diHPP acts as both an anchor and a reducer to *in situ* nucleate and grow Ag nanocrystals on the C_3N_4/TiO_2 surface.²¹ After stirring for 24 h, the suspension colour changes from orange to grey, indicating the generation of Ag nanocrystals. Finally, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet composite is synthesized.

Morphology and structure





Fig. 1 TEM images of (a) g-C₃N₄/am-TiO₂, (b) C₃N₄/TiO₂ and (c) C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag-3; (d) HRTEM image of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag-3 sample.



Fig. 2 STEM-EDX mapping of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag-3 nanosheet.

As illustrated in Fig. 1a, the $g-C_3N_4/am-TiO_2$ appears as a bulk material before thermal treatment; while the C_3N_4/TiO_2 exhibits a nanosheet structure, in which many nanoparticles uniformly distribute on the C_3N_4 nanosheet (Fig. 1b).¹⁵ Moreover, the C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanosheet has some nanopores, likely arising from the decomposition of its unstable area during the thermal treatment.²⁴ The thickness of pure C_3N_4 nanosheet is determined to be about 1.762 nm (about five layers) *via* AFM analysis (Fig. S2), which should be close to that of C_3N_4/TiO_2 . Figure 1c demonstrates a typical TEM image of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$, in which many nanoparticles disperse on the C_3N_4 nanosheet. From its HRTEM photo (Fig. 1d), two lattice fringes about 0.35 and 0.24 nm can be distinctly identified, in agreement with the spacing of (101) plane of anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS NO. 21–1272) and (111) plane of cubic Ag (JCPDS NO. 04–0783), respectively. These TiO₂ nanoparticles are about 10 nm in size, and intimately graft onto the C_3N_4 support; while most of Ag nanoparticles about 5 nm in size grow on the TiO₂ and C_3N_4 surfaces. It is worthy of noting that a heterojunction structure can be clearly observed between TiO₂ and Ag (red box in Fig. 1d). It is known that the diHPP molecules tend adsorb on the TiO₂ surface *via* the strong chelation effect between TiO₂ and diHPP, and then induced the formation of well–crystallized Ag nanoparticles.²¹ Therefore, most of Ag nanoparticles form the heterojunction with TiO₂ in the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$, the STEM–EDS element mapping was conducted. From Fig. 2, it can be seen that the N and Ti elements are present at the bottom with a uniform lateral intensity, while the Ag element distributes on the outer surface with a lower intensity. This result further confirms that TiO₂ nanoparticles anchor on the C_3N_4 nanosheet, and Ag nanoparticles tend to gather around TiO₂.



Fig. 3 XRD patterns of pure C₃N₄, C₃N₄/TiO₂, C₃N₄/Ag and C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag samples.

In order to investigate the composition and crystallographic structure of as-prepared C_3N_4 /TiO₂/Ag samples, the XRD was performed (Fig. 3). In the XRD curve of pure C_3N_4 , the peak at 27.3° is attributed to the (002) plane of C_3N_4 , which origins from the interlayer stacking of the conjugated aromatic system;²⁵ while the peak at 12.9° is indexed as the (100) plane of tri-s-triazine.²⁶ Two peaks at 24.9° and 38.1° are detectable in all of samples containing TiO₂,²⁷ which are the characteristic peaks of anatase TiO₂. Compared with that of C_3N_4 /TiO₂, the XRD patterns of C_3N_4 /TiO₂/Ag exhibit a new peak at 44.1°, which can be assigned to the (200) plane of cubic Ag crystal. Since the loading amount of TiO₂ and Ag nanoparticles on the C_3N_4 nanosheet is low, their diffraction peaks are weak.





Fig. 4 XPS spectra of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag: (a) survey scan spectrum and high-resolution spectra of (b) N1s, (c) C 1s, (d) Ti 2p and (e) Ag 3d.

The XPS was carried out to further determine the element composition and analyze the chemical status of various elements in the as-prepared $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ samples. The C, N, O, Ti, and Ag elements can be found in the survey scan XPS spectrum of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ -3 (Fig. 4a), and the high-resolution XPS spectra of N 1s, C 1s, Ti 2p, and Ag 3d were shown in Fig. 4b–e. The high-resolution N 1s curve can be deconvolved into two peaks at 398.8 and 400.9 eV by using Gaussian–Lorentzian peak fitting (Fig. 4b). The former originates from the sp²-hybridized N (C–N=C), while the latter can be attributed to the tertiary N (N–(C)₃).¹⁹ Both of them consist of the heptazine heterocyclic ring C_6N_7 , the basic substructure unit of C_3N_4 . There are two main peaks at 284.8 and 288.0 eV in Fig. 4c, which can be ascribed to the sp³-hybridized C–C bond and sp²-hybridized C in the triazine ring (N–C=N), respectively.²⁴ The high-resolution Ti 2p curve (Fig. 4d) also demonstrates two peaks at 459.0 and 464.9 eV, which belong to the Ti 2p3/2 and Ti 2p1/2 orbits, respectively, indicating the presence of Ti^{4+.28} As demonstrated in Fig. 4e, the Ag 3d spectrum has two peaks at 367.1 and 373.1 eV, belonging to the Ag 3d5/2 and Ag 3d3/2 orbits, respectively. The splitting of Ag 3d doublet about 6 eV confirms that the Ag element is present as Ag⁰ in the C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag sample.²⁹ It is noted that compared to those of bulk Ag⁰ materials (368.3 eV for Ag 3d5/2 and 374.3 eV for Ag 3d3/2), these two peaks exhibit a negative shift. It is deduced that some electrons may transfer from TiO₂ to metallic Ag through the Ag–TiO₂ heterojunction, resulting in the binding energy shift of Ag 3d.

Photoabsorption and photoelectric performance



Fig. 5 (a) DRS of C_3N_4 , TiO₂, C_3N_4 /TiO₂ and C_3N_4 /TiO₂/Ag-3 and (b) their corresponding plots of $[F(R\infty)hv]1/2$ versus hv.

Figure 5a illustrates the DRS of pure C_3N_4 , TiO₂, C_3N_4/TiO_2 and $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$. It is clear that pure TiO₂ only absorbs UV light, while other three samples containing C_3N_4 can absorb the light from UV through visible range up to 460 nm. In the visible region, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$ exhibits obviously higher absorption intensity than pure C_3N_4 and C_3N_4/TiO_2 , which can be assigned to the SPR effect of Ag nanocrystals.^{17,30} Moreover, the absorption edge of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$ has an apparent red–shift in comparison with those of pure C_3N_4 and C_3N_4/TiO_2 . The band gap energy (E_g) of the sample can be estimated approximatively from a plot of [$F(R_{\infty})hv$]^{1/2} versus hv (Fig. 5b), where R, h and v are the reflectance coefficient, Planck's constant and the light frequency, respectively. The band gaps of pure C_3N_4 , TiO₂, C_3N_4/TiO_2 and $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$ are evaluated to be 2.70, 3.16, 2.66 and 2.54 eV, respectively. The result indicates that the incorporation of Ag nanocrystals can not only enhance the visible–light absorption of C_3N_4/TiO_2 but also narrow its band gap.



Fig. 6 (a) Transient photocurrent response and (b) EIS Nyquist plot of pure $g-C_3N_4$, C_3N_4/TiO_2 and $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$ under simulated-sunlight irradiation.

Photocurrent responses of pure C_3N_4 , C_3N_4/TiO_2 and $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag^{-3}$ electrodes were measured to assess their photo-generated electron efficiency. As shown in Fig. 6a, a fast and uniform photocurrent response is clearly observed for each switch–on and –off event on three electrodes under simulated–sunlight irradiation. Compared with pure C_3N_4 , the C_3N_4/TiO_2 exhibits a higher photocurrent response. This is caused by the conduction band match of TiO₂ with C_3N_4 , which accelerates the efficient electron–hole separation of C_3N_4 . After the introduction of Ag nanocrystals, the photocurrent response of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ elevates again, which is about 1.8 and 2.5 times higher than those of C_3N_4/TiO_2 and C_3N_4 , respectively. A relatively high dark current is also observed in $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ -3 due to the conductivity of Ag, which is also reported in other literature.¹⁷ Additionally, EIS measurement was carried out and the EIS data were simulated using an equivalent model to investigate the charge transfer resistance of photo–generated carriers on these three film electrodes under simulated–sunlight irradiation. As can be seen from Fig. 6b, the arc radii of three samples are in the order of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag^{-3} < C_3N_4/TiO_2 < C_3N_4$. It is known that the arc radius of EIS Nyquist plot reflects the reaction rate occurring at the electrode surface. Usually, the sample has a low charge transfer resistance, when the arc radius of its EIS Nyquist plot is small. Therefore, the charge transfer resistance of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ electrode is lower than those of C_3N_4/TiO_2 and C_3N_4 , in consistence with the photocurrent performance.

Photocatalytic performance



Fig. 7 Photocatalytic degradation curves of RhB over pure C₃N₄, C₃N₄/Ag, C₃N₄/Ai₂, PMS (70 wt% C₃N₄/Ag and 30 wt% TiO₂) and C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag-3 under visible–light irradiation; (b) Effect of Ag content on the photocatalytic activity of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag.

The photocatalytic degradation of RhB was used to evaluate the photocatalytic activity of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheets under visible–light irradiation (>420 nm). The blank test confirms that RhB is only slightly degraded within 80 min in the absence of photocatalyst (Fig. 7a), indicating that the self-photolysis effect can be almost neglected. Before light irradiation, the mixed solution of RhB and photocatalyst was stirred for 0.5 h in the dark to reach the adsorption equilibrium. It is well–known that an appropriate adsorption of dye on the photocatalyst surface is beneficial to its degradation.³¹ The C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag nanosheet can decompose almost all RhB molecules within 80 min, which is remarkably higher than those of the single–, two–component and PMS samples. The kinetic study exhibits that the photocatalytic degradation of RhB over these photocatalysts belongs to the quasi–first–order kinetics. The reaction rate constant (*k*) of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag–3 is 2.18 h⁻¹, which is about 7.8 and 5.2 times higher than that of C₃N₄ and C₃N₄/TiO₂, respectively. This result can be attributed to the synergistic effect of the extended light absorption spectrum and increased light absorption intensity *via* the SPR effect of Ag NPs, the efficient electron-hole separation between matched semiconductors, and the nanosheet structure with high specific surface area (110 m² g⁻¹)

showed in Fig. S3a). Since the reactive conditions are different, the activities of composite photocatalysts with the similar structure to $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ reported in the literatures are only compared roughly. As listed in Table 1, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet prepared in this work has the better or comparative visible–light photocatalytic activity, compared with other composites.

The effect of Ag content on the photocatalytic activity of $C_3N_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{Ag}$ nanosheets was also investigated. As illustrated in Fig. 7b, the degradation efficiency of RhB first increases and then declines with increasing the Ag content, and the $C_3N_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{Ag}-3$ has the highest degradation efficiency in all five samples. This result is same as the changing trend of their photoluminescence spectra (Fig. S3b), which can be assigned to the balance between the SPR effect and the recombination of photo–generated carriers. When the Ag content increases, the absorbance intensity of $C_3N_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{Ag}$ in the visible region enhances due to the SPR effect, resulting in the augment of photocatalytic activity. However, excess Ag nanocrystals are declined to act as the recombination centre of photo–generated carriers, thus lowering the photocatalytic activity. In order to investigate the versatility of this kind of materials, the photocatalytic degradation of MB was also conducted under the similar conditions (Fig. S4). It is found that the $C_3N_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{Ag}$ nanosheet possesses the excellent photocatalytic activity for MB, and the changing trend is the same as that of RhB with the increase of Ag content. The $C_3N_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{Ag}$ nanosheet has good photocatalytic activity in all samples, which can degrade 87% MB within 120 min. This result suggests that the $C_3N_4/\text{TiO}_2/\text{Ag}$ nanosheet has good photocatalytic ability for degrading dyes with different molecular structures and properties.

Catalyst	Degradation efficiency	Light source	$C_{catalyst} (mg mL^{-1})$	$C_{dye} (mg L^{-1})$	Ref
g-C ₃ N ₄ /Ag/TiO ₂ microspheres	6h, 100%	300 W (λ>420 nm)	1	MO, 13.5	19
Ag@C ₃ N ₄ core-shell	5h, 100%	500 W (λ>420 nm)	0.5	MB, 3.74	17
C ₃ N ₄ /BiPO ₄ core-shell	6h, 85%	500 W (λ>420 nm)	0.5	MB, 3.74	10
g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ nanosheets	5h, 80%	300 W (λ>420 nm)	1	RhB, 10	15
N-ZnO/C ₃ N ₄ core-shell nanoplates	60 min, 100%	300 W (λ>420 nm)	0.25	RhB, 5	34
Co ₃ O ₄ -porous C ₃ N ₄	30 min, 100%	300 W (without filter)	0.5	RhB, 5	25
g-C ₃ N ₄ /nanocage ZnS	90 min, 90%	500 W (λ>400 nm)	0.43	RhB, 5	12
g-C ₃ N ₄ /ZnO	5 h, 72%	11 W (UV light)	0.5	MB, 10	9
g- C ₃ N ₄ /rGO	75 min, 100%	1000 W (λ>400 nm)	1.6	RhB, 5	13
Au/g-C ₃ N ₄	2.5 h, 93%	500 W (λ>400 nm)	3.0	MO, 10	14
C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ /Ag nanosheet	80 min, 100%	500 W (λ>420 nm)	0.6	RhB, 10	this work

Table 1. Comparison with other photocatalytic systems





Fig. 8 Effect of pH value on the photocatalytic degradation efficiency of C₃N₄/TiO₂/Ag-3.

In order to optimize the photocatalytic condition, the effect of pH value of RhB solution on the photocatalytic activity of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ was investigated using $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ -3 as a model. Fig. 8 presents the photocatalytic degradation plots of RhB solution with different pH values (4.2 (without adjustment), 6.0, 8.0, and 10.0). With increasing the pH value, the degradation rate of RhB first increases and then decreases, and the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ -3 demonstrates the highest activity at pH 6.0. The influence of pH on the dye degradation process is mainly attributed to the surface charge variation of photocatalyst and dye molecules.³¹ It is known that the point of zero charge (pH_{pzc}) of TiO₂ is at about pH 5.5 and RhB is a cationic dye molecule. The pH change can influence the electric properties of TiO₂ surface and RhB, and then affect the adsorption of RhB molecules onto the TiO₂ surface,³² an important step for the photocatalytic oxidation to take place. When pH<5.5, the TiO₂ surface brings the positive charge and repulses RhB molecules with same charge, thus inhibiting the adsorption of RhB onto the TiO₂ surface shibits a low photocatalytic activity at low pH value. When pH>5.5, the TiO₂ surface. Therefore, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet exhibits a low photocatalytic activity at low pH value. When pH>5.5, the TiO₂ surface. Therefore, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet exhibits a low photocatalytic activity at high pH value in comparison with that at low pH value. However, the negative charge on the TiO₂ surface can repulse OH⁻ at the same time, thus supressing the •OH production. As a result, the photocatalytic activity of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ decreases gradually with the increase of pH value at pH > 6.^{32,33}

Photocatalytic mechanism



Fig. 9 (a) Effect of different scavengers on the photocataltic degradation of RhB over $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$; (b) UV-vis spectrum changes of RhB over $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag-3$ during the photocatalytic process.

To uncover the photocatalytic mechanism of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$, a radical trapping experiment was performed to explore the reactive radical species involved in the photocatalytic process. It is well-known that three reactive radicals containing h⁺, •OH, and •O²⁻, are produced during the photocatalytic process, which act as the important roles in the degradation of organic pollutants.³⁴ Thereby, three chemicals including benzoquinone, EDTA and methanol were employed as the scavenger of •O²⁻, hole and •OH, respectively. As presented in Fig. 9a, the photocatalytic activity of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ is considerably suppressed by EDTA and methanol, while slightly inhibited by benzoquinone. This result indicates that the h⁺ and •OH are the main reactive species involved in the RhB degradation over $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$, while the •O²⁻ is produced only a few during the photocatalytic process. It was further proved by the UV–vis spectrum change of RhB during the photocatalytic degradation process over $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ –3. From Fig. 9b, it can be seen that the absorption peak gradually shifts from 553 to 498 nm with the prolongation of reaction time. This result indicates that the *N*-de-ethylation process is the main degradation process of RhB. In detail, this process can produce the intermediates with different numbers of N–ethyl groups, which are removed sequentially from the

parent RhB molecules, leading to the absorption peak of RhB blue shift; further confirming that the •OH is the major reactive radical species.^{35,36}



Scheme 2 Schematic diagram for the photocatalytic mechanism of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ under visible–light irradiation.

On the basis of above results, a tentative photocatalytic degradation mechanism of RhB over the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet is proposed in Scheme 2. Under visible-light irradiation, the C_3N_4 nanosheet absorbs the visible light and then is excited. The generated electrons can react with O_2 adsorbed on the C_3N_4 nanosheet to produce O_2^- , thus oxidizing RhB further or transferring into the CB of TiO₂. The generated holes can only degrade the RhB molecules directly, because the VB potential of C_3N_4 (+1.57 eV vs. NHE) is more negative than the standard redox potential of $E(OH/OH^{-}) = +1.99 \text{ eV}$ (vs. NHE), causing that the holes in the VB of C_3N_4 cannot oxidize OH⁻ to generate OH. At the same time, Ag nanocrystals generate intense electric fields on their surface at the plasmon frequency under visible-light irradiation,¹⁶ which induces the electron transition of adjacent TiO₂ from VB to CB, keeping the holes in the VB of TiO₂.¹⁶ The holes in the CB of TiO₂ have more positive potential to oxidize OH⁻ and generate active OH radicals with powerful oxidization capability, thereby degrading the RhB molecules adsorbed on the TiO_2 surface. Meanwhile, these holes can also transfer into the VB of C_3N_4 nanosheet and further degrade the RhB molecules. The photo-generated electrons react with O_2 adsorbed on the TiO₂ surface to produce $\bullet O_2^-$, together with the electrons transferred from the CB of C_3N_4 nanosheet. In addition, the presence of the heterojunction between Ag and TiO₂ facilitates the electron transfer and then inhibits the recombination of photo-generated carriers. During the photocatalytic process, Ag nanocrystals may lose electron and turn to Ag⁺ due to the SPR effect, which releases to the reactive solution subsequently.²⁰ However, the degradation efficiency of RhB over $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ only reduces from 94.5% to 90.3% after 4 recycles (Fig. S5), indicating that the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet is chemically stable and mechanically robust during the photocatalytic process. Therefore, the conversion of Ag to Ag⁺ does not almost influence the stability of $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheets.

Conclusion

In this study, the $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet with excellent photoelectric and photocatalytic performances has been synthesized *via* a biomimetic strategy under mild conditions. In the prepared $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet, TiO_2 nanoparticles about 10 nm in size are dispersed uniformly on the C_3N_4 nanosheet, and Ag nanocrystals about 5 nm in diameter grow around the TiO_2 and form the heterojunction structure with TiO_2 . During the biomimetic synthetic process, the diHPP molecules act as both an anchor and a reducer for the *in situ* nucleation and growth of Ag nanocrystals on the C_3N_4/TiO_2 surface. The $C_3N_4/TiO_2/Ag$ nanosheet demonstrates much higher photocatalytic activity than its single– and two–component counterparts under visible light, which is attributed to the band match of C_3N_4 with TiO_2 and the SPR effect and inhibiting effect for photo–generated carriers of Ag nanocrystals. Hopefully, this study may offer some inspiration for the design and green synthesis of semiconductor-based nanocomposites with enhanced visible–light photocatalytic activity.

Acknowledgements

This work is supported by National Science Fund for Distinguished Young Scholars (21125627) and the Program of Introducing Talents of Discipline to Universities (No. B06006).

Notes and references

^a Key Laboratory for Green Technology, School of Chemical Engineering and Technology, Tianjin University, Tianjin 300072, China. Fax: 86-22-27406646. Tel: 86-22-27406646. E-mail: zhyjiang@tju.edu.cn.

^b Key Laboratory of Systems Bioengineering of Ministry of Education, School of Chemical Engineering and Technology, Tianjin University, Tianjin 30072, China

^c School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Tianjin University, 300072 Tianjin, China

^d Collaborative Innovation Center of Chemical Science and Engineering (Tianjin), Tianjin 300072, China

RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript

Page 11 of 11

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [details of any supplementary information available should be included here]. See DOI: 10.1039/b000000x/

- 1 H. Dotan, O. Kfir, E. Sharlin, O. Blank, M. Gross, I. Dumchin, G. Ankonina and A. Rothschild, Nat. Mater. 2013, 12, 158–164.
- 2 J. Liu, Y. Yang, N. Y. Liu, Y. Z. Han, X. Zhang, H. Huang, Y, Lifshitz, S. T. Lee, J. Zhong and Z. H. Kang, *Science* 2015, 347, 970–974.
- 3 C. C. Chen, W. H. Ma and J. C. Zhao, Chem. Soc. Rev. 2010, 39, 4206–4219.
- 4 X.C. Wang, K. Maeda, A. Thomas, K. Takanabe, G. Xin, J. M. Carlsson, K. Domen and M. Antonietti, Nat. Mater. 2008, 8, 76-80.
- 5 X. C. Wang, S. F. Blechert and M. Antonietti, ACS Catal. 2012, 2, 1596–1606.
- 6 H. L. Wang, L. S. Zhang, Z. G. Chen, J. Q. Hu, S. J. Li, Z. H. Wang, J. S. Liu and X. C. Wang, Chem. Soc. Rev. 2014, 43, 5234– 5244.
- 7 H. Tong, S. H. Ouyang, Y. P. Bi, N. Umezawa, M. Oshikiri and J. H. Ye, Adv. Mater. 2012, 24, 229-251.
- 8 J. J. Zhu, P. Xiao, H. L. Li and S. A. Carabineiro, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 2014, **6**, 16449–16465.
- 9 Y. J. Wang, R. Shi, J. Lin and Y. F. Zhu, Energ. Environ. Sci. 2011, 4, 2922–2929.
- 10 C. S. Pan, J. Xu, Y. J. Wang, D. Li and Y. F. Zhu, Adv. Funct. Mater. 2012, 22, 1518–1524.
- 11 J. Fu, B. B. Chang, Y. L. Tian, F. N. Xi and X. P. Dong, J. Mater. Chem. A 2013, 1, 3083–3090.
- 12 J. Wang, P. Guo, Q. S. Guo, P.G. Jönsson and Z. Zhao, *CrystEngComm* 2014, 16, 4485–4492.
- 13 Y. B. Li, H. M. Zhang, P. R. Liu, D. Wang, Y. Li and H. J. Zhao, Small 2013, 9, 3336-3344.
- 14 N. Y. Cheng, J. Q. Tian, Q. Liu, C. J. Ge, A. H. Qusti, A. M. Asiri, A. O. Al-Youbi and X. P.Sun, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2013, 5, 6815–6819.
- 15 Z. W. Tong, D. Yang, T. X. Xiao, Y. Tian and Z. Y. Jiang, Chem. Eng. J. 2015, 260, 117–125.
- 16 K. C. Awazu, M. Fujimaki, C. Rockstuhl, J. J. Tominaga, H. Murakami, Y. Ohki, N. Y. Yoshida and T. Watanabe, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2008, 130, 1676–1680.
- 17 X. J. Bai, R. L. Zong, C. X. Li, D. Liu, Y. F. Liu and Y. F. Zhu, Appl. Catal. B 2014, 147, 82-91.
- 18 M. K. Kumar, S. Krishnamoorthy, L. K. Tan, S. Y. Chiam, S. Tripathy and H. Gao, ACS Catal. 2011, 1, 300–308.
- 19 Y. F. Chen, W. X. Huang, D. L. He, Y. Situ and H. Huang, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2014, 6, 14405-14414.
- 20 D. Yang, Y. Y. Sun, Z. W. Tong, Y. Tian, Y. B. Li and Z. Y. Jiang, J. Phys. Chem. C 2015, 119, 5827-5835.
- 21 K. C. L. Black, Z. Liu and P. B. Messersmith, Chem. Mater. 2011, 23, 1130-1135.
- 22 P. Niu, L. Zhang, G. Liu and H. M. Cheng, Adv. Funct. Mater. 2012, 22, 4763-4770.
- 23 S. Bahri, C. M. Jonsson, C. L. Jonsson, D. Azzolini, D. A. Sverjensky and R. M. Hazen, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2011, 45, 3959– 3566.
- 24 W. J. Ong, L. L. Tan, S. P. Chai and S. T. Yong, Chem. Commun. 2015, 51, 858-861.
- 25 J. D. Hong, S. M. Yin, Y. X. Pan, J. Y. Han, T. H. Zhou and R. Xu, Nanoscale 2014, 6, 14984–14990.
- 26 Y. Q. Shi, S. H. Jiang, K. Q. Zhou, C. L. Bao, B. Yu, X. D. Qian, B. B. Wang, N. N. Hong, P. Y. Wen, Z. Gui, Y. Hu and R. K. K. Yuen, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2013, 6, 429–437.
- 27 X. C. Wang, J. C. Yu, H. Y. Yip, L. Wu, P. K. Wong and S. Y. Lai, Chem. Eur. J. 2005, 11, 2997–3004.
- 28 X. J. Wang, W. Y. Yang, F. T. Li, Y. B. Xue, R. H. Liu and Y. J. Hao, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 2013, 52, 17140-17150.
- 29 C. Liu, D. Yang, Y. Jiao, Y. Tian, Y. G. Wang and Z. Y. Jiang, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2013, 5, 3824–3832.
- 30 Y. Y. Wen, H. M. Ding and Y. K. Shan, Nanoscale 2011, 3, 4411-4417.
- 31 A. N. Ejhieh and M. K. Shamsabadi, Chem. Eng. J. 2013, 228, 631-641.
- 32 U.G. Akpan and B.H. Hameed, J. Hazard. Mater. 2009, 170, 520-529.
- 33 M. Pelaez, N. T. Nolan, S. C. Pillai, M. K. Seery, P. Falaras, A. G. Kontos, P. S. M. Dunlop, J. W. J. Hamilton, J. A. Byrne, K. O'Shea, M. H. Entezari and D. D. Dionysiou, *Appl. Catal. B.* 2012, **125**, 331–349.
- 34 S. Kumar, A. Baruah, S. Tonda, B. Kumar, V. Shanker and B. Sreedhar, Nanoscale 2014, 6, 4830–4842.
- 35 P. X. Lei, C. C. Chen, J. Yang, W. H. Ma, J. C. Zhao and L. Zang, Environ. Sci. Technol. 2005, 39, 8466-8474.
- 36 H. B. Fu, S. C. Zhang, T. G. Xu, Y. F. Zhu and J. M. Chen, Environ. Sci. Technol. 2008, 42, 2085–2091.