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1 **Isotype Heterostructure of Bulk and Nanosheets of Graphitic**
2 **Carbon Nitride for Efficient Visible Light Photodegradation of**
3 **Methylene Blue**

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Abstract

20

21 Nanosheets of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ were prepared by ultrasonic treatment of aqueous dispersed bulk C_3N_4 for
22 10 h. The nanosheets have comparatively larger surface area ($121 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) than that of bulk C_3N_4
23 ($18 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$). Bulk C_3N_4 prepared by direct heating of Urea has a band gap of 2.74 eV, whereas the
24 nanosheets of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibited an enlarged band gap of 2.97 eV. The isotype heterostructure is
25 fabricated by solid-state mixing of bulk and nanosheets of C_3N_4 followed by ultrasonic treatment
26 for dispersion. The heterostructure shows an effective band gap of 2.62 eV with an average
27 charge carrier lifetime of 21 ns, which is longer than that of bulk (13.2 ns) or nanosheets (17.4
28 ns) of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The heterostructure exhibits significantly higher visible light photocatalytic
29 activity in the degradation of methylene blue (MB) over bulk or nanosheets of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The
30 superior photocatalytic performance of heterostructure is ascribed to band-bending at the
31 interface that promotes molecular exciton dissociation and facilitates facile separation of charge
32 carriers at the interface. From the results of photocatalysis, it is speculated that the
33 photogenerated $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals in conjunction with $\cdot\text{H}$ atom take part in photocatalysis by N-
34 deethylation followed by aromatic ring cleavage of MB molecule.

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41 1. Introduction

42 Heterogeneous photocatalysis based on TiO₂ has been researched for a few decades, owing to its
43 stable photochemical reactions in the detoxification of air/water pollutants and H₂ generation by
44 water splitting by utilizing UV part of solar spectrum.^{1,2} Practical applications of TiO₂ are
45 substantially compromised by its wide band gap with limited or no visible absorption. Recently,
46 a metal free polymeric semiconductor, graphitic carbon nitride (*g*-C₃N₄), has drawn immense
47 interest because of its promising applications in H₂ generation, photodegradation of organic
48 pollutants, and possible optoelectronic applications.³⁻⁵ The basic unit of *g*-C₃N₄ is tri-*s*-triazine
49 unit (or *s*-heptazine) with strong C-N covalent bond, and the layers in *g*-C₃N₄ are connected *via*
50 van der Waals interaction.^{6,7} The electronegativity difference between C and N in the *s*-heptazine
51 ring could possibly results in the opening up of a band gap in *g*-C₃N₄, and as reports predict the
52 measured bulk band gap of *g*-C₃N₄ is ~2.7 eV with valence and conduction band edge
53 comprising of N 2*p* lone pair orbital and C 2*p* orbital, respectively.^{8,9} The preparation method of
54 *g*-C₃N₄ is simple and involves pyrolysis of nitrogen rich precursors, *viz.*, cyanamide, thiourea,
55 urea at different processing temperatures.¹⁰ Although the thermally processed *g*-C₃N₄ shows
56 visible light photocatalytic activity, it exhibits less surface area, only marginal absorption in
57 visible region and suffer from high probability of bulk recombination of photoexcited charge
58 carriers.¹¹ Ultrathin nanosheets of *g*-C₃N₄ are fabricated by liquid phase exfoliation in solvents *n*-
59 methyl pyrrolidone, 2-propanol, water, etc.¹² The nanosheets have tunable absorption and
60 prolonged carrier lifetime, but shows an enlargement in band gap with respect to bulk C₃N₄.^{13,14}
61 As such, for practical applications, the optical absorption in *g*-C₃N₄ should be improved with
62 narrowed band gap and prolonged lifetime of charge carrier separation. This is indeed achieved
63 by introducing heteroatoms (B,S,O) and constructing heterostructures with other semiconductors

64 (e.g. ZnO) with interface mediated charge carrier separation.^{4,15,16} In case of doping, control of
65 doping is a necessary step; otherwise dopants itself may act as carrier recombination center. In
66 contrast, in case of hybridization with inorganic semiconductors proper band alignment and
67 interface formation is essential for efficient charge separation.

68 Zhang *et al.*¹⁷ developed a metal free isotype heterostructure by the pyrolysis of mixtures
69 of thiourea (S, N, C source) and urea (C, N source). The as-formed heterostructure exhibited
70 very high photocatalytic activity because of different band alignment at the interface promoting
71 charge separation. Dong *et al.*¹⁸ constructed type I and type II isotype heterostructure with
72 different band alignment at the interface, and studied the influence of band bending and charge
73 carrier separation on the effective photocatalytic removal of NO pollutant from air. The benefit
74 of constructing heterostructure of *g*-C₃N₄ with graphene or other metal oxides has also been
75 considered useful for several energy and environmental applications.¹⁹ In the present study, we
76 have developed an isotype heterostructure starting with the same urea precursors. Initially, bulk
77 *g*-C₃N₄ is prepared by thermal condensation of urea. The product is subjected to aqueous phase
78 ultrasonication treatment to yield nanosheets of *g*-C₃N₄. Bulk and nanosheets of *g*-C₃N₄ are
79 mixed by solid-state mixing and ultrasonically treated to obtain isotype-heterostructure of *g*-
80 C₃N₄. Bulk, nanosheet and heterostructure samples are characterized with XRD, FTIR, UV-vis,
81 photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopic techniques. Aqueous exfoliated C₃N₄ nanosheets exhibit
82 very good photodegradation of MB, because of its high surface area and largely separated charge
83 carriers than that of bulk C₃N₄. Interestingly, heterostructure shows impressively higher
84 absorption in visible region due to effectively lower band gap, and prolonged separation of
85 charge carriers with excellent photocatalytic activity as compared to bulk or nanosheets of *g*-
86 C₃N₄.

87 2. Experimental details

88 2.1 Preparation of bulk, nanosheets and isotype heterostructure of g-C₃N₄

89 (a) **Preparation of bulk g-C₃N₄**: For the preparation of C₃N₄, 10 g of Urea was taken in a
90 beaker and heated until it is completely dry. The dried white powder was grounded in an
91 agate mortar and taken in a silica crucible covered with a lid. The crucible with powder was
92 calcined at 570 °C for 3 h. The heating rate was 5 °C/min and the cooling rate was 10 °C/min.
93 The resultant powder is yellowish in color and is labeled as BCN (bulk carbon nitride).

94 (b) **Preparation of graphitic carbon nitride nanosheet**: We have adopted aqueous phase
95 exfoliation method for the preparation of carbon nitride nanosheet.²⁰ 500 mg of bulk
96 graphitic carbon nitride was taken in a beaker with 100 mL water. The solution was stirred
97 for 1 h and then transferred to a simple bath ultrasonicator. The solution was ultrasonicated
98 for 10 h. During ultrasonication the surrounding water is warmed up. To maintain the
99 temperature near room temperature, ice cubes are added to water at regular intervals of time.
100 Aqueous dispersed carbon nitride nanosheet was centrifuged at 5,000 rpm. The supernatant
101 was again centrifuged at 18,000 rpm to obtain graphitic carbon nitride nanosheet. The sample
102 was labeled as NCN (nanosheets of g-C₃N₄)

103 (c) **Preparation of homo-composite (isotype heterostructure) of g-C₃N₄**: Isotype
104 heterostructure was formed by the combination of BCN and NCN. For the preparation, equal
105 weight ratio (1:1) of BCN and NCN was grounded in an agate mortar. Solid state mixing in
106 agate mortar was continued for 1 h. The mixture of BCN and NCN was transferred to a
107 beaker. Then 100 mL H₂O was added to the beaker and stirred for 1 h. The stirred mixture
108 was then transferred to an ultrasonicator and ultrasonicated for 1 h. After ultrasonication the
109 mixture was naturally dried at 70 °C. This as-prepared sample was labeled as BCN-NCN.

110 2.2 Characterization details

111 High resolution X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern was obtained in a Bruker D8 focus AXS X-ray
112 diffractometer equipped with a Cu K α source of $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$. Morphology of prepared nanosheet
113 was monitored in ZEOL JEM 200 kV transmission electron microscope. Fourier transform
114 infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) was performed in a Nicolet I-410 FTIR spectrophotometer using
115 KBr pellet. N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm was obtained at 77 K in a Quantachrome iQ
116 autosorb analyzer. For the determination of surface area and pore size distribution from the
117 isotherm, we followed multipoint Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method and Barrett–Joyner–
118 Halenda (BJH) model, respectively. UV-vis diffuse reflectance (DRS) spectra were recorded in
119 Shimadzu 2450 UV-vis spectrophotometer. Steady state photoluminescence (PL) spectra were
120 recorded in Fluoromax-4 (Horiba Scientific) spectrophotometer. Time resolved
121 photoluminescence (TRPL) analysis was carried out in picosecond time resolved luminescence
122 spectrometer (Edinburg Instruments, Model: FSP920). TRPL data was obtained by exciting the
123 sample at 375 nm.

124 **2.3 Photocatalytic activity study:** Photodegradation of methylene blue (MB) by *g*-C₃N₄ was
125 studied by monitoring the decrease in the initial concentration of MB solution on exposure to
126 visible light (250 W) for different time intervals. Photocatalytic reaction was performed by
127 dispersing 30 mg of *g*-C₃N₄ catalyst in 100 mL MB solution with an initial MB concentration of
128 8 mg/L. Before visible light exposure, MB solution with catalyst was stirred in dark for 45 min.
129 This allowed complete adsorption of dye molecule on the *g*-C₃N₄ surface and equilibrated the
130 adsorption-desorption process on the catalyst surface. Absorption measurement of blank and
131 catalyst loaded MB solution was measured in absence of light. The reactant solution was then
132 placed at a distance of 5 cm from the visible light source (390-730 nm). Light exposure on the

133 MB solution was continued for 90 min. After each 15 min interval, 10 mL of the MB solution
134 was taken out and centrifuged. The suspension was kept for absorption measurement in a UV-vis
135 spectrophotometer. Decrease in the maximum absorption of MB at 664 nm with irradiation time
136 indicates decomposition of MB. We also performed photocatalytic test for blank MB solution
137 without any catalyst for same irradiation time of 90 min. The degradation (D) of MB can be
138 calculated by using following the equation:

$$139 \quad \%D = \frac{C_0 - C_t}{C_0} \times 100, \quad (1)$$

140 Where C_0 is initial concentration of dye solution and C_t is concentration of MB after irradiation
141 of time t.

142 **2.4 Photocatalyst reusability test**

143 The stability of g-C₃N₄ as a photocatalyst was tested by repeating the photocatalytic process of
144 recovered photocatalyst. After the initial photocatalytic reaction, the centrifuged product of the
145 catalyst (as mentioned in photocatalytic activity study above) was recovered and dried at 50 °C,
146 and then re-dispersed in fresh MB solution. The photocatalytic reaction was started and after
147 each cyclic run the catalyst was recovered, dipped in fresh MB solution and irradiated for 90
148 min. The concentration change of MB was measured with UV-vis spectroscopy at its ~664 nm
149 absorption peak. The process was repeated for 3 times. We tested XRD pattern of the catalyst
150 after the 3rd photocatalytic run and compared it with that of the pure catalyst to observe any
151 degradation in the catalyst quality after catalytic reaction.

152 **2.5 Radical trapping experiment**

153 Presence of active radical species and their role on photocatalysis was tested by trapping
154 the active radicals by using some sacrificial agents. Ammonium oxalate (AO), tert-butanol (t-
155 BA) and *p*-benzoquinone (BQ) were used as hole (h^+), hydroxyl radical scavenger ($\cdot OH$) and
156 superoxide radical ($O_2^{\cdot -}$) scavenger, respectively. The experimental procedure involves addition
157 of 1 mM of scavengers to catalyst-dye solution (30 mg, 8 mg/L) in 100 mL beaker. For each of
158 the quenchers (tert-BA, AO and BQ) three experiments were conducted. The MB-catalyst-
159 quencher was then exposed to visible light for different irradiation time, and the changes in the
160 concentration of MB were monitored at 664 nm in a UV-vis spectrophotometer.

161 3. Results and discussion

162 3.1 Structural studies:

163 XRD pattern of BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN are shown in Fig. 1. The samples display an intense
164 (002) diffraction peak at $2\theta = 27.25^\circ$. This peak corresponds to interlayer stacking of aromatic
165 CN unit with $d = 3.27 \text{ \AA}$.^{4,8} Interestingly, the enhancement of (002) peak intensity in NCN
166 demonstrates an improvement in crystallinity after liquid exfoliation of BCN. There is a slight
167 shift in (002) peak position from 27.25° in BCN to 27.74° in NCN, with a corresponding
168 lowering of stacking distance from $d = 3.27 \text{ \AA}$ to $d = 3.21 \text{ \AA}$. There is, however, a lowering in
169 (002) peak intensity in BCN-NCN with a corresponding d -spacing of 3.23 \AA . The lowering of
170 peak intensity is possibly due to the conjugation of two systems (BCN and NCN) with different
171 degree of crystallinity. All the samples display another low intensity diffraction peak at $2\theta =$
172 13.5° , corresponding to in-plane ordered tri-*s*-triazine (*s*-heptazine) units having crystalline plane
173 (100).^{3,4,8} As observed from Fig. 1, there is no obvious change in the intensity or position of this
174 peak in NCN and in BCN-NCN. For the (100) peak, the interlayer spacing of $d = 6.75 \text{ \AA}$

175 specifies hole-to-hole distance of the nitride pores in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ or intraplanar size of tri-*s*-triazine
176 unit.³ The basic unit structure of graphitic $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is shown in inset of Fig. 1.

177 Morphological features of BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN are shown in Fig. 2. TEM images
178 of BCN (Fig. 2a) show thick layered structures, which seems to get thinner in NCN with porous
179 structures (Fig. 2b). The honeycomb like porous structures are formed by the release of NH_3 and
180 CO_2 gases during condensation of urea. Initially soft bubbles are formed on calcination,
181 indicating the starting of the release of these gases from urea. These bubbles finally burst out and
182 forms porous structures of C_3N_4 on condensation of urea.²¹ TEM images of NCN obtained at
183 different locations show thick and thin region of the layers (Fig. 2c). As evident from Fig. 2d,
184 there are overlapping layers of BCN and NCN in the heterostructure constituting of bulk (BCN)
185 and nanosheets (NCN) of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Fig. 2e shows another TEM image taken at a different location
186 of the BCN-NCN sample. The image contains two regions, and we suppose that the thick BCN
187 layers covers up few portion of thin NCN layers. The high resolution image taken on another
188 location shows some folded structure and porous sheet (see Fig. 2f). Formation of paper-fold
189 structure in the nanosheets of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has been reported by Dong *et al.*²²

190 Chemical structures of BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN are further investigated with FTIR
191 (see Fig. 3a). The samples show an intense absorption band at 808 cm^{-1} corresponding to
192 breathing mode of aromatic ring of carbon nitride.²³ Absorption bands at $1200\text{-}1600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are
193 assigned to typical symmetric stretching, asymmetric vibrations of C-N-C and C-NH-C units in
194 aromatic ring.^{12,13,22} The broad absorption bands at $3000\text{-}3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are attributed to uncondensed
195 primary amine ($-\text{NH}_2$) or an imine ($-\text{CH}=\text{NH}$) and absorbed hydroxyl groups.²³ Fig. 3b shows the
196 N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherm of the samples. The surface area of BCN, NCN and BCN-

197 NCN determined from the isotherm by multipoint BET method are 18 m²/g, 121 m²/g and 62
198 m²/g, respectively.

199 3.2 Optical studies

200 Changes in optical properties of bulk, nanosheets and heterostructure of g-C₃N₄ are
201 investigated with UV-vis absorption spectroscopy. As depicted in Fig. 4, in comparison to BCN
202 the absorption edge is blue shifted in NCN. The UV absorption edge of BCN-NCN is slightly
203 extended to the visible region. Interestingly, NCN and BCN-NCN contain additional absorption
204 in visible region (between 450-700 nm) which is otherwise absent in BCN. The maximum
205 absorption in the ultraviolet (UV) region involves $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ electronic transition, and the second
206 narrow absorption in UV is due to $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition.^{24,25} This $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition is found to be
207 responsible for the visible absorption at 450-700 nm. Several such $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions are possible
208 in g-C₃N₄ involving N 2p lone pair orbital (n), and these transitions favor distortion of planarity
209 of *s*-heptazine ring of g-C₃N₄.^{14,26} Chen *et al.* have discussed the redistribution of electron
210 density resulting from the distortion of heptazine ring, and the distortion of the ring favor several
211 $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ optical transitions (shown inside in Fig. 4a).¹⁴ The band gap of each sample is determined
212 by plotting $(Ah\nu)^{1/2}$ vs. $h\nu$, where A is the absorbance. The plotted graph is shown in Fig. 4b and
213 the resulting band gap values are presented in Table 1. The indirect band gap of BCN (2.74 eV)
214 is enlarged to 2.97 eV in NCN. In NCN the stacking distance of the layers decreases and the
215 layers are densely packed. Considering this, the enlargement in band gap in NCN can be
216 attributed to quantum confinement of electrons.¹³ The heterostructure BCN-NCN has an
217 effective band gap of 2.62 eV, and the observed effective band gap could be due to the band edge
218 shift caused by the electronic coupling of BCN and NCN. We speculate that different extent of
219 electronic coupling between BCN and NCN at the interface in the heterostructure and possible

220 band bending at the heterostructure interface could have resulted in the observed reduction in the
221 effective band gap of BCN-NCN.

222 PL spectra of BCN, NCN and BNC-NCN are displayed in Fig. 4c. BCN displays a single
223 broad emission peak at 490 nm. This peak is blue shifted to 465 nm in NCN. BCN-NCN has an
224 emission peak at 483 nm, which is near the emission peak of BCN. These emissions could be
225 assigned to $\pi^* \rightarrow n$ transition.^{24,25,27} The shift in the peak position results from the change in the
226 packing of the layered structures in the samples that allows electron-hole recombination of π^*
227 electrons with holes in the n orbitals (e.g. n_1, n_2, n_3 etc.), which is in conformity with the results
228 of UV-vis spectroscopy. Merschjann *et al.* attributed the $\pi^* \rightarrow n$ emission to molecular exciton
229 generated in the *s*-heptazine ring.²⁸ The efficiency of charge carrier recombination giving rise to
230 the excitonic emission would possibly be different in BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN. To understand
231 the carrier recombination dynamics, we performed time resolved photoluminescence (TRPL)
232 measurements of the samples. Fig. 4d shows the TRPL curves for different samples. It is found
233 that the tri-exponential fitting can best fit the experimental decay curves and the decay
234 components (τ_1, τ_2, τ_3) and relative amplitudes of the decay species (A_1, A_2, A_3) are shown in
235 Table 1. As it is seen in Table 1, first decay component (τ_1) is prolonged in NCN and BCN-
236 NCN as compared to that in BCN, but the relative percentage of these species are lower than
237 BCN. Consideration of second decay component (τ_2) of carrier lifetime with their relative
238 abundance reveal that the corresponding value increases in NCN and BCN-NCN as compared to
239 BCN. Impressively, the third component of lifetime (τ_3) and percentage amplitude of this
240 component (A_3) increases from 18.8 ns (19 %) in BCN to 23.3 ns (25 %) and 26.8 ns (32 %) in
241 NCN and BCN-NCN, respectively. The average lifetime (t_{av}), determined using the formula

242 $t_{av} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 A_i \tau_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^3 A_i \tau_i}$, increases from 13.2 ns in BCN to 17.4 ns in NCN and raises to 21 ns in BCN-

243 NCN. The different decay components of carrier lifetime and their relative abundance in the
244 three samples could be linked with bulk or thin layered structures as well as presence of buckling
245 sites, presence of terminal groups and localized states linked with nitrogen or carbon related
246 defects.^{13,25,27,29} The longest decay components, its high abundance and the longest average
247 lifetime in BCN-NCN could be associated with the interface mediated carrier separation process
248 in the heterostructure formed between BCN-NCN. Possibly the band bending at the interface of
249 the heterostructure formed between BCN and NCN provides the driving force for the efficient
250 carrier separation and long carrier lifetime.

251 3.3 Photocatalysis study

252 The photocatalytic activities of BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN are evaluated by monitoring
253 the changes in the maximum absorption at 664 nm for an aqueous MB solution under visible
254 light. Fig. 5a shows the absorption spectra of MB as blank solution as well as in presence of
255 catalyst BCN-NCN. Before irradiation, both blank and catalyst loaded MB solution are stirred in
256 dark for 45 min for adsorption-desorption equilibration. When light is turned off (dark reaction)
257 and the absorption of MB is measured, blank MB shows only negligible decrease in initial
258 concentration, whereas MB solution in presence of BCN-NCN displays a substantial decrease in
259 initial concentration (Fig. 5b). After turning on the light source and subjecting the solution to
260 visible light irradiation, a remarkable decrease in concentration of MB solution is observed for
261 BCN-NCN as compared to BCN or NCN. Impressively, the direct decomposition of MB in
262 absence of photocatalyst is not detected. The decrease in initial concentration of MB in each case

263 is shown in Fig. 5b. The trend in the photocatalytic activities follows the trend: BCN-NCN>
264 NCN> BCN. Fig. 5c shows the linear relationship of $\ln\left(\frac{C_t}{C_0}\right)$ vs. irradiation time (t), and the
265 calculated values of rate constants are shown in Fig. 5d. It can be seen from Fig. 5d, about 92 %
266 of MB is photodegraded by BCN-NCN over irradiation for 90 min with associated rate constant
267 (k) of 0.037 min^{-1} , while 83 % is photodegraded by NCN for the same irradiation time with rate
268 constant of 0.020 min^{-1} . MB removal over BCN is 54 % with the lowest k value of 0.010 min^{-1} .

269 Electron collection in g-C₃N₄ could be taken place by two pathways: self-sensitization of
270 MB under visible light in which photoexcited electrons in MB are transferred to CB of g-C₃N₄,
271 and the other being direct excitation of electrons to CB of C₃N₄ under visible light.³⁰ Wide band
272 gap semiconductor, such as TiO₂, which does not absorb visible light, self-sensitized
273 decomposition of organic dyes under visible light is prominent. However, g-C₃N₄ has band gap
274 that lies in the visible region of solar spectrum. Therefore, direct photoexcitation of electrons to
275 CB in g-C₃N₄ is feasible, which further supports the fact that g-C₃N₄ mediated photodegradation
276 of MB is dominating rather than self-sensitized degradation of MB. From the results, we attempt
277 to provide some explanations for the observed differences in the photocatalytic activity of BCN,
278 NCN and BCN-NCN in the degradation of MB. We will try to explain the possible pathways that
279 could provide an idea of the differences in the photodegradation of MB in each of the samples. In
280 case of BCN, as it has bulk structure, presence of large numbers of stacked layers could be
281 expected, and the photoexcited carriers might undergo facile bulk recombination before reaching
282 to the surface. Those carriers which could migrate to the catalyst surface could interact with less
283 numbers of adsorbed MB dye molecule (because of the least surface area in BCN). Therefore, a
284 reduction in photocatalysis is expected. On the other hand, NCN has a sufficiently large surface
285 area and the numbers of available surface carriers are expected to be high on the surface because

286 of the lowering of bulk recombination. Therefore, a large percentage of freely available carriers
287 are available on the surface to interact with sufficient numbers of adsorbed MB molecule. Even
288 though the surface area of BCN-NCN is lower than that of NCN, the high photocatalytic activity
289 in BCN-NCN can be associated with its visible absorbing band gap and mostly due to the
290 sufficiently prolonged carrier lifetime mediated by heterostructure interface.

291 Stability of photocatalyst is of paramount importance when practical applications of
292 photocatalysts are concerned. Stability study was performed by recycling of photocatalytic
293 degradation of MB on the catalysts surface for three times under visible light. We performed
294 stability test for BCN-NCN as it exhibited highest photocatalytic activity. As Fig. 6a shows,
295 there is no obvious photoactivity loss of MB after 3rd cycle. XRD pattern of the sample of un-
296 irradiated BCN-NCN and that of the irradiated sample recovered after 3rd photocatalytic run is
297 recorded, and as Fig. 6b clearly demonstrates there is no significant change in the diffraction
298 pattern of BCN-NCN after the stability test. The small change in intensity of (002) peak can be
299 ascribed to the presence of adsorbed MB molecule on C₃N₄ and π - π interaction between them,
300 which after 3rd cyclic test minutely affects its crystallinity, confirming that BCN-NCN is quite a
301 stable photocatalyst in terms of its practical applications.

302 High photocatalytic activity of BCN-NCN may be caused by the presence of available
303 carriers and formation of active radical species. Irradiation of MB-(BCN-NCN) solution under
304 visible light will excite electrons from N 2*p* to C 2*p* with electrons on conduction band (CB) and
305 holes in valence band (VB). Since the catalyst is dispersed in aqueous MB solution, the CB
306 electrons would be able to reduce O₂ adsorbed on C₃N₄ surface to form superoxide radical (O₂^{•-}).
307 The photogenerated holes in VB, however, are expected to form hydroxyl radical ([•]OH) by
308 reacting with H₂O. For confirmation of the reactivity of different radicals and carriers on the

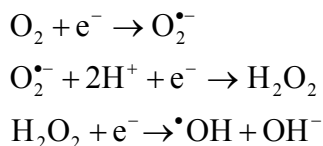
309 photocatalysis, we used trapping experiments (TE) by adding few radical scavengers (SV) in the
310 MB solution catalyzed by the stable photocatalyst BCN-NCN. For the experiment, tert-butanol
311 (t-BA) is used as hydroxyl scavenger ($\cdot\text{OH}$), ammonium oxalate (AO) and *p*-benzoquinone
312 (BQ) for scavenging hole (h^+) and superoxide radical ($\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$), respectively.³¹⁻³³ It is seen in Fig. 7a
313 that there is slight reduction in the degradation due to the addition of t-BA, indicating
314 participation of less numbers of $\cdot\text{OH}$ on MB degradation. Photodegradation is slightly suppressed
315 on adding AO to the MB solution, implying that holes play an active role in the MB
316 decomposition. There is a dramatic decrease in MB removal on adding BQ in the solution,
317 suggesting that $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ is the most active radical species leading to the degradation of MB. The
318 results are quite reflected in Fig. 7b. In absence of any scavengers (SV), MB degradation by
319 BCN-NCN is 92 %, while on adding BQ as $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ scavengers the degradation of MB drops down
320 to 31 %.

321 3.4 Mechanism of photocatalytic degradation

322 The band edge positions (VB and CB) of BCN-NCN are of much significance to understand the
323 interface formation, band bending and the mechanism of charge carrier separation, as well as
324 formation of $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. There are several reports on the band edge potential (VB
325 and CB) of g- C_3N_4 in bulk and nanosheets, which is based on the results of electron spectroscopy
326 measurement of potential with respect to SHE (standard hydrogen electrode), and theoretical
327 calculations.³⁴⁻³⁸ These reports have speculated that on modification of bulk structure of C_3N_4 to
328 few layered nanosheets the structure gets distorted, resulting in relative shifting in CB and VB
329 edge position. For bulk and nanosheets, the CB edge potentials are found to be in between (-0.78
330 to -1.49 V) and VB between (1.3 to 1.86 V). Yang *et al.* observed a downward shifting of CB

331 edge potential from -1.49 V in bulk to -1.40 V in nanosheets of g-C₃N₄.¹² Li *et al.* observed a
332 downward shifting of CB edge potential from -1.23 V to -0.88 V and VB edge shifting from 1.31
333 V to 1.86 V in bulk and nanosheets, respectively.³⁶ Based on these results, we have provided a
334 schematic band diagram (Fig. 8a-b) to show the band edge positions BCN-NCN heterostructure
335 with respect to vacuum level as well as with reference to standard hydrogen electrode (SHE).³⁴⁻³⁸
336 Fig. 8a depicts a schematic of the conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) edge positions
337 in the heterostructure for the corresponding band gap values of 2.74 eV and 2.97 eV for BCN
338 and NCN, respectively. Fig. 8b shows the band diagram of heterostructure with reference to SHE
339 and the associated redox potential for $\cdot\text{OH}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{O}_2/\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$. Because of different band
340 alignment of VB and CB in the heterostructure, the electrons can move from CB of BCN to CB
341 of NCN. Similarly, holes can migrate from VB of NCN to VB of BCN. The field at the interface
342 provides the driving force in the facile separation of charge carriers, which finally become
343 available to interact with O₂ or H₂O to form O₂^{•-} and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. If we consider the CB edge
344 potential in between the above mentioned values of potential, the CB edge potential is more
345 positive than the standard redox potential of O₂/O₂^{•-} (-0.33 V vs. SHE). Therefore, superoxide
346 radical can be easily formed in this process. Considering the VB edge potentials having the
347 reported values, the position of holes in VB is at lower potential than the standard redox potential
348 of $\cdot\text{OH}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (+2.27 V).³⁴⁻³⁸

349 Both trapping experiment and band edge potentials of electrons in CB confirm that O₂^{•-}
350 has major contribution in the photodegradation of MB. Superoxide radicals (O₂^{•-}) are, however,
351 unstable in aqueous solution and readily transforms to $\cdot\text{OH}$. Formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$ from superoxide
352 radical (O₂^{•-}) occurs by multiple oxygen reduction reaction as shown below.³⁹



353
354 The generated hydroxyl radicals have the propensity to react with most of the organic
355 compounds by direct electron transfer, H abstraction, etc.

356 We now propose a mechanism for the degradation of MB by hydroxyl radical on the
357 surface of BCN-NCN. It might be considered that the strong adsorption of MB on C_3N_4 could be
358 due to strong π - π interaction between MB and C_3N_4 that strongly held the dye-solid together.
359 Besides, MB is a cationic dye molecule and g - C_3N_4 has delocalized π electrons in the s -heptazine
360 ring, and also contains terminal N atom with lone pair of electrons. Therefore, there is a
361 possibility of strong cationic-anionic columbic interaction between MB with g - C_3N_4 nanosheet at
362 the solid-dye interface. There are different stages of degradation of whole MB molecule. In MB,
363 the terminal N- CH_3 groups which have the lowest binding energy (B.E) of 70.8 kcal/mol is first
364 attacked by $\bullet\text{OH}$ radical.⁴⁰⁻⁴³ In the second step $\bullet\text{OH}$ radicals can attack the C-S⁺=C bond
365 (B.E~76 kcal/mol) and transform this to C-S(=O)-C.⁴¹ This transformation facilitates opening up
366 of the central aromatic ring by cleavage of N-C and S-C bond. Finally the functional groups are
367 detached and the aromatic ring is destroyed to form the final degradation products.

368

369 4. Conclusion

370 In conclusion, bulk, nanosheets and isotype heterostructure composed of g - C_3N_4 exhibit tunable
371 absorption and photoluminescence properties. Compared to bulk, nanosheets of C_3N_4 have
372 sufficiently larger surface area with free charge carriers. Though the heterostructure shows lower
373 specific surface area than that of the nanosheets, it has a reduced effective band gap and

374 prolonged charge carriers lifetime. These modified forms of carbon nitride, *viz.* nanosheets and
375 heterostructure, show improved photocatalytic activity in the degradation of MB under visible
376 light. Significant improvement in the photocatalytic activity in the heterostructure is due to the
377 suitably matching valence and conduction band levels that promote facile separation of
378 photogenerated electrons and holes, making the carriers available for photochemical reaction. It
379 is the photogenerated conduction band electrons in the heterostructure that facilitates the
380 formation active radical species $\cdot\text{OH}$ by oxygen reduction reaction, which finally interact with
381 functional groups and aromatic ring of MB molecule and decompose it. The development of low
382 cost heterostructure of g-C₃N₄ for efficient visible light photocatalysis will enable wide spread
383 applications of g-C₃N₄ in various emerging applications.

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487 **Figure Captions:**

488

489 **Figure 1:** XRD pattern of BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN. Inset shows the s-heptazine unit of *g*-
490 C₃N₄.

491 **Figure 2:** TEM images of (a) BCN (b,c) NCN and (d-f) BCN-NCN heterostructure.

492 **Figure 3:** (a) FTIR spectra and (b) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm of BCN, NCN and BCN-
493 NCN.

494 **Figure 4:** (a) UV-vis absorption spectra of different samples with inset showing electronic
495 transitions involving N 2p and C 2p orbital. (b) Band gap determination of samples BCN, NCN
496 and BCN-NCN using Tauc plot. (c) Steady state photoluminescence spectra of the samples at an
497 excitation of 375 nm. (d) Time resolved photoluminescence spectra of the samples excited at 375
498 nm and monitored at emission wavelength 490 nm (BCN), 465 nm (NCN) and 483 nm (BCN-
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501 different time intervals of light irradiation. (b) Photodecomposition study of MB solution without
502 (blank MB) and with catalysts (BCN, NCN, BCN-NCN) and in presence (light on) and absence
503 (light off) of visible light. (c) Plot of $\ln\left(\frac{C_t}{C_0}\right)$ vs. irradiation (t) along with straight line fit to
504 determine rate constants (min⁻¹). (d) Comparison of percentage of MB degraded (% D) and the
505 associated rate constant for different samples.

506

507 **Figure 6:** (a) The photochemical stability of BCN-NCN in the photodegradation of MB with
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512 (SV) t-BA ([•]OH), AO (h⁺) and BQ (O₂^{•-}). (b) Degradation of MB is suppressed in presence of
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514 **Figure 8:** (a) Schematic showing band diagram of BCN, NCN and the heterostructure relative to
515 vacuum level. (b) Schematic of the electron-hole separation at the interface in heterostructure on
516 exposure of the MB-Catalyst to visible irradiation. Band edge positions of heterostructure and
517 redox potential of [•]OH/H₂O and O₂/O₂^{•-} with respect to standard hydrogen electrode (SHE)
518 potential are indicated.

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525 **Table 1.** Summary of the band gap calculated from Tauc plot and lifetime of charge carriers in
 526 BCN, NCN and BCN-NCN

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| Sample | Band gap (eV) | Lifetime of carriers | | | t_{av} (ns) |
|---------|---------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|
| | | τ_1 (ns) (A_1 %) | τ_2 (ns) (A_2 %) | τ_3 (ns) (A_3 %) | |
| BCN | 2.74 | 1.03 (43) | 4.3 (38) | 18.8 (19) | 530 |
| NCN | 2.97 | 1.34 (33) | 5.5 (42) | 23.3 (25) | 531 |
| BCN-NCN | 2.62 | 1.60 (27) | 7.1 (41) | 26.8 (32) | 532 |

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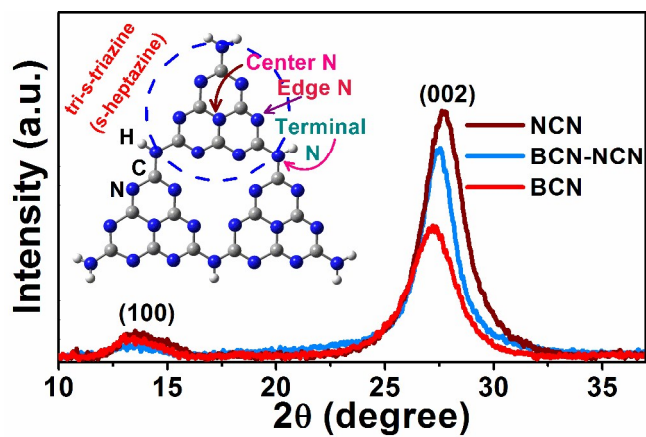
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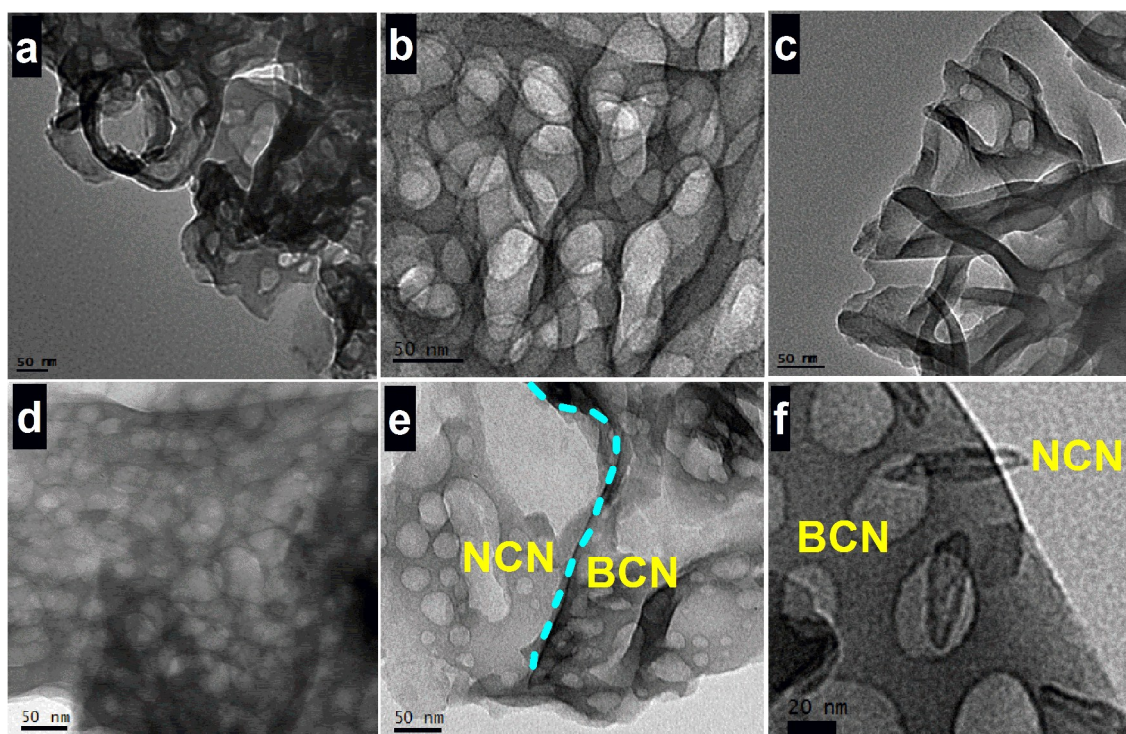
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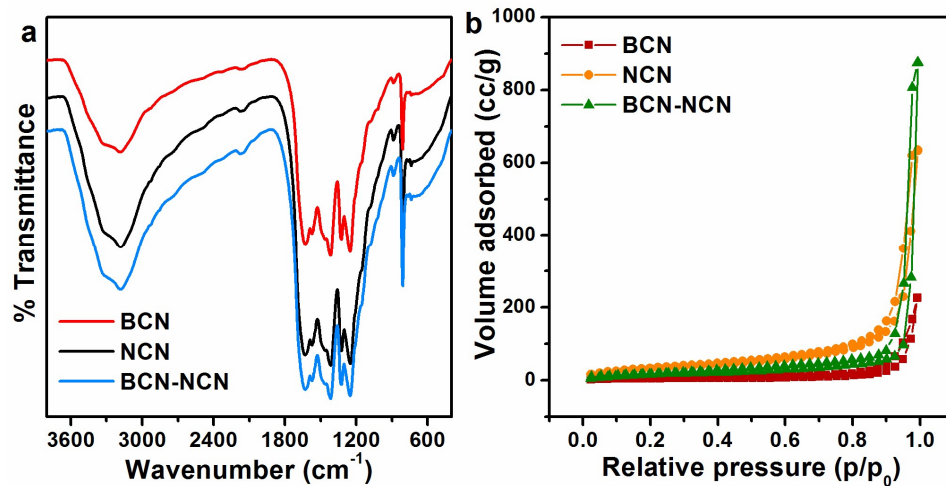
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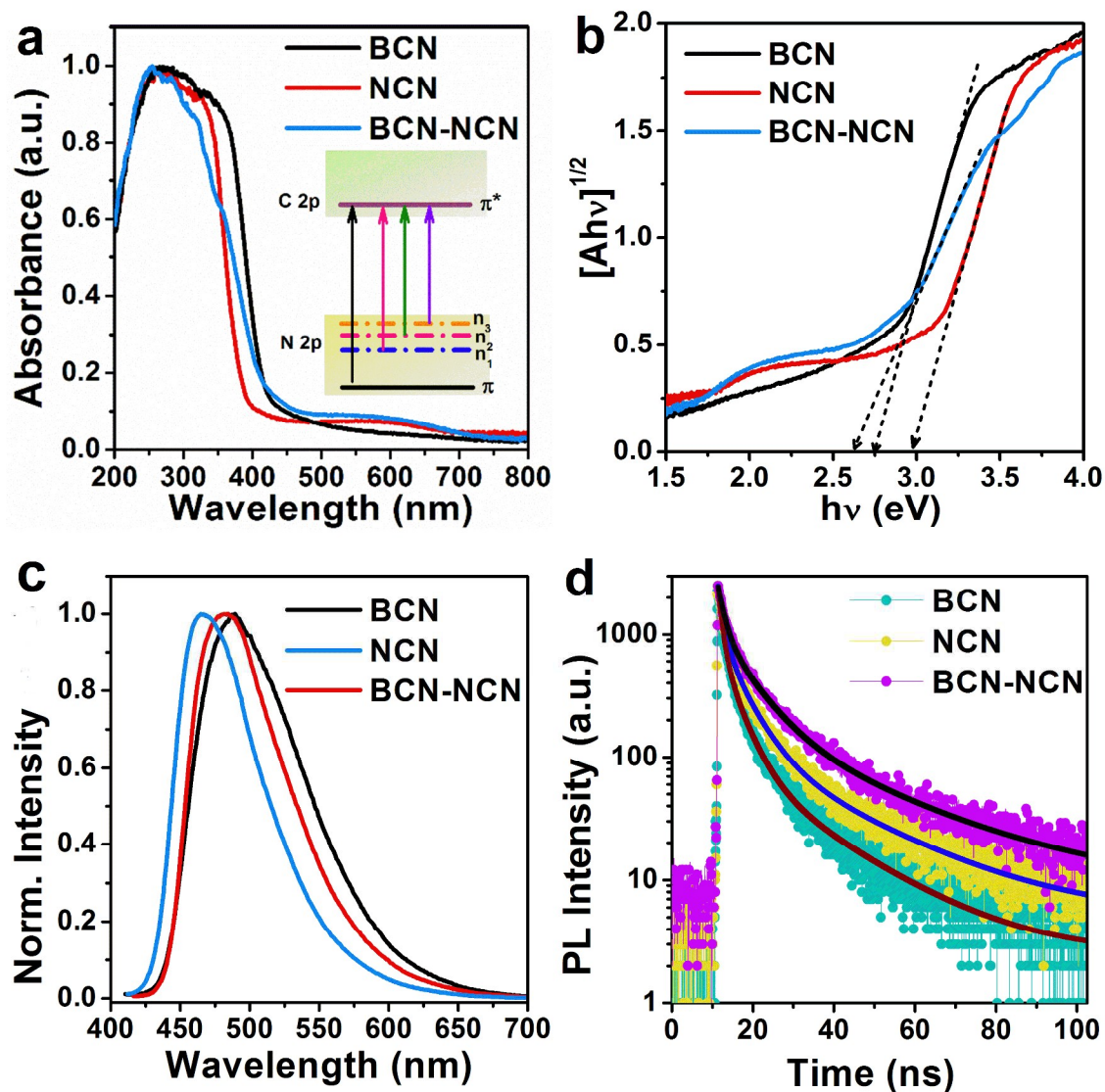
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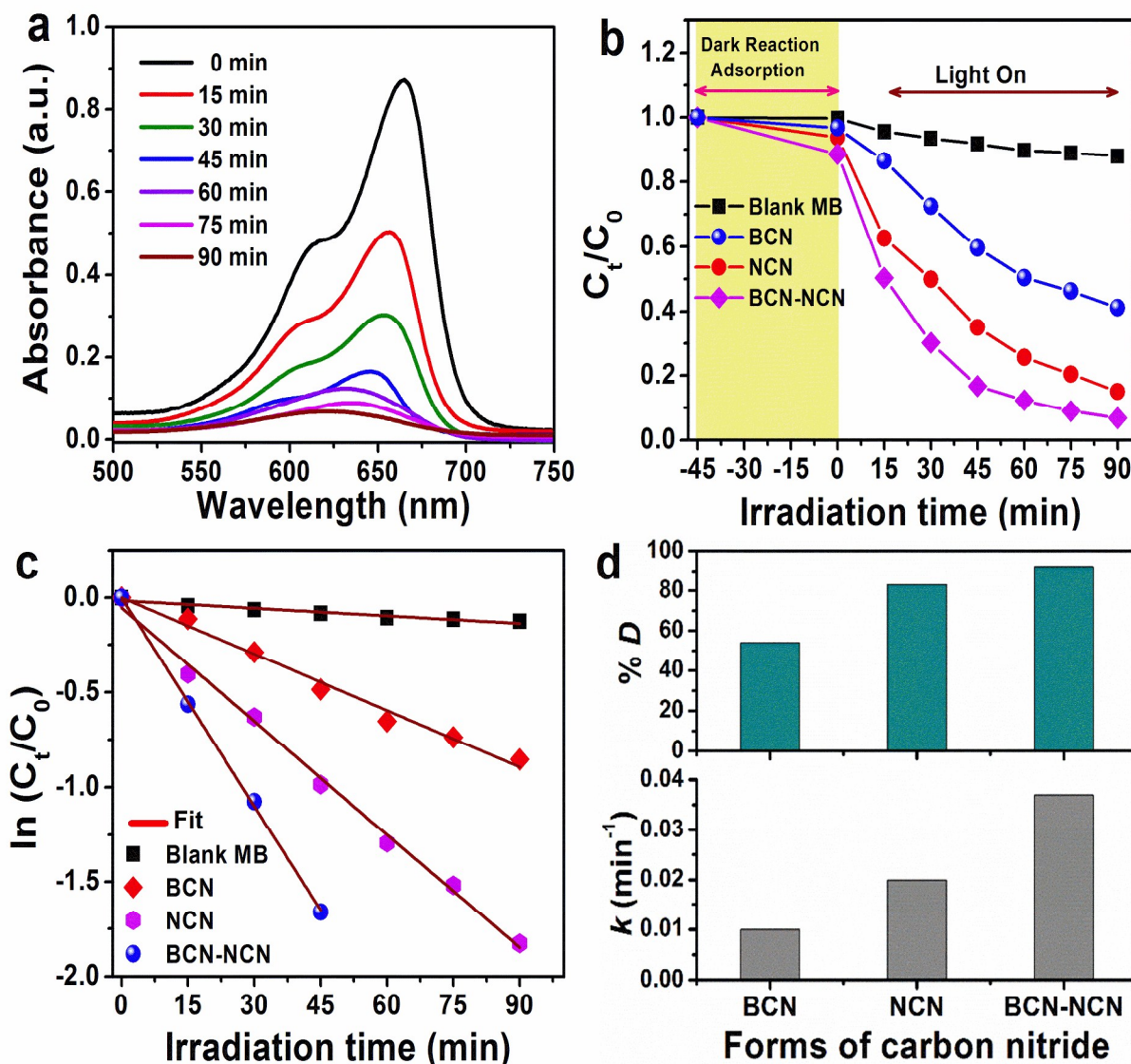
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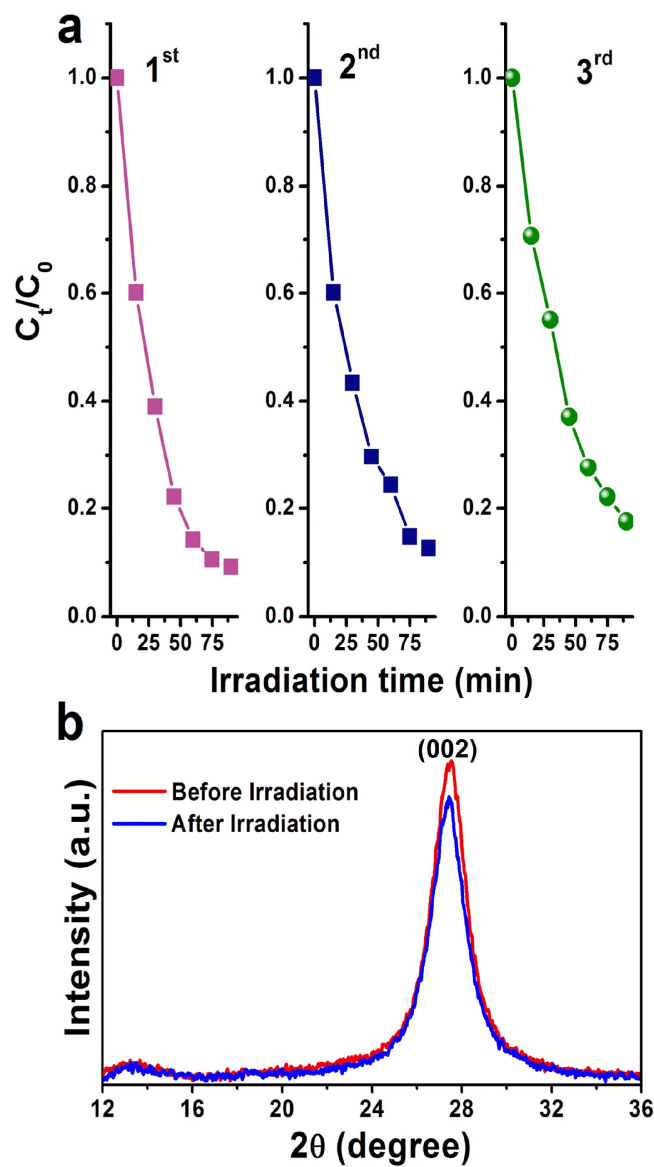
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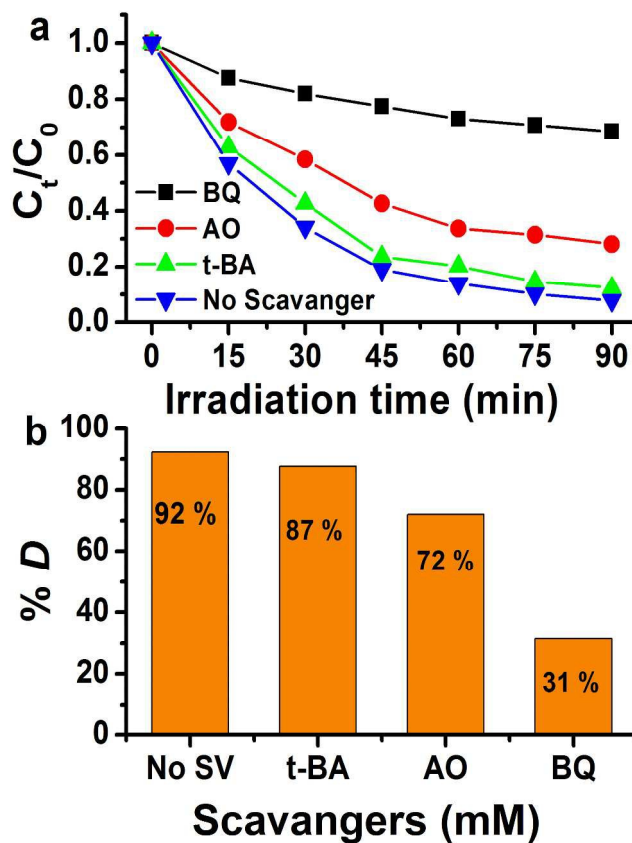
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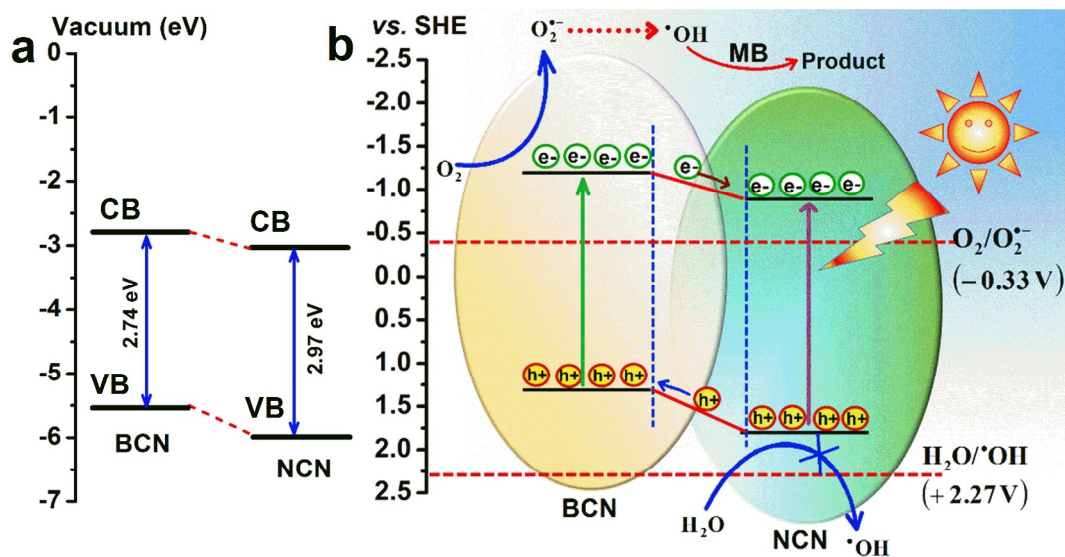


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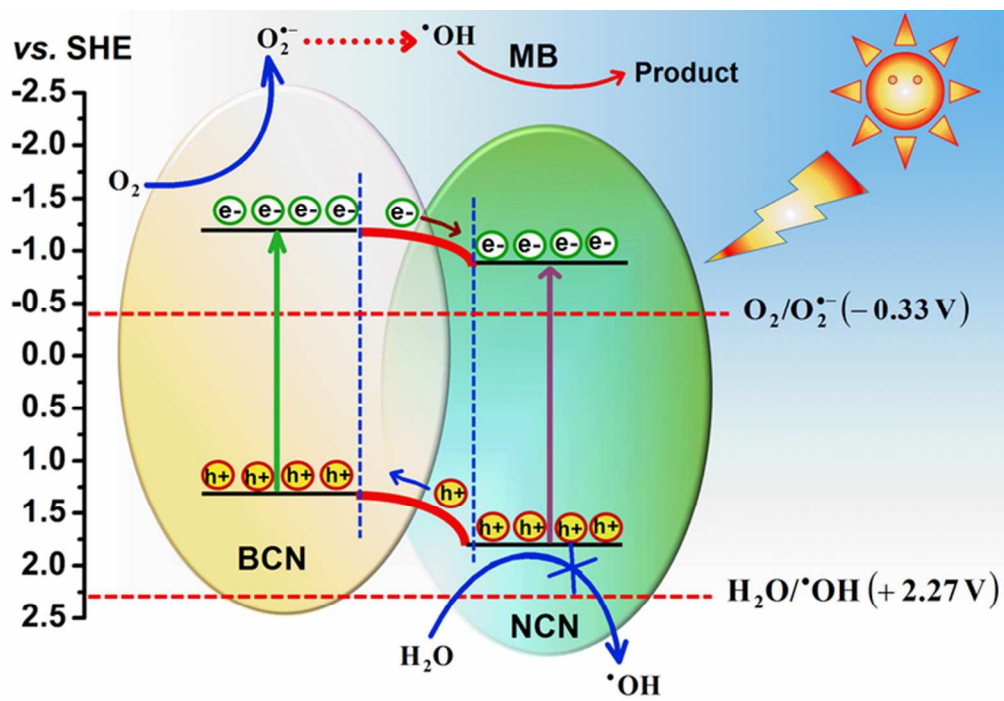
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