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Inorganic-Organic Hybrid with Enhanced Photocatalytic
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Journal:	<i>Inorganic Chemistry Frontiers</i>
Manuscript ID	QI-RES-01-2019-000020.R1
Article Type:	Research Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	07-Feb-2019
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Received 00th January 20xx,
Accepted 00th January 20xx

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

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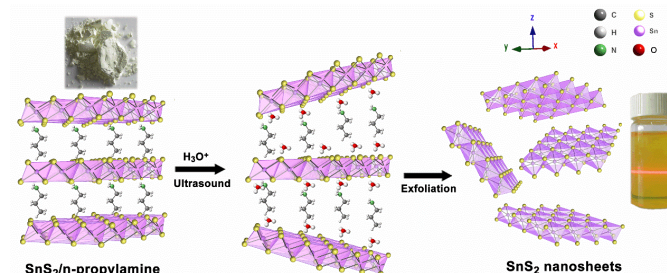
Atomic-scale thin two-dimensional materials have promising application prospect in photocatalysis due to their large reactive sites, short carrier diffusion distances and high charge separation properties. In this paper, SnS₂ nanosheets of several atomic layer thickness and dominating {001} facets are prepared with the liquid-exfoliation method using a SnS₂/n-propylamine inorganic-organic hybrid precursor. They become semi-metallic when the thickness is reduced to 30 Å, possess effective charge separation due to much shorter diffusion length in [001] direction as evidence from the prolonged photoluminescence lifetime, and exhibit largely improved photocatalytic activity for Cr(VI) reduction under the visible light irradiation, with a rate constant six-fold larger that of bulk SnS₂.

Introduction

Photocatalytic method, due to its environmentally friendly and economically advantages, is considered a green technology for the degradation of environmental pollutants¹. Large optical absorption, adequate reactive sites, short carrier diffusion distances and high charge transport and separation properties are believed to be very important for effective photocatalysis²⁻⁴. SnS₂, an inexpensive, non-toxic, and relatively stable material with a peculiar CdI₂-type layered structure consisting of a S-Sn-S triple layer^{5,6}, has a narrow band gap of 1.91 ~ 2.4 eV and has been studied as a promising semiconductor for photocatalytic water splitting⁷ and CO₂ reduction⁸, photoelectrochemical water splitting⁹, chemical sensing¹⁰, photodetectors¹¹, etc. Cr(VI) ions are frequently reported in our daily drinking water resources. They are highly toxic and induce various severe diseases such as bladder, skin, kidney and liver cancers¹². It is therefore important to remove Cr(VI) ions from various environments¹³. SnS₂ nanoflowers and nanoyarns have been found with good activity for photoreduction Cr(VI) ions in waste water¹⁴, and efficiency can be improved by constructing various heterostructures such as SnS₂/SnO₂¹⁵. However, low efficiency is commonly observed due to the poor charge transport and low separation rate of photogenerated electrons and holes in SnS₂¹⁶.

¹⁷. Thus, it is critical to develop ways in overcome such problems in order to use SnS₂ for that application.

Two-dimensional (2D) materials own many desirable merits for photocatalysis, potentially with one dominating high-energy facets, large surface areas, short carrier diffusion distances and high charge separation properties¹⁸. Those expected advantages have been observed in many semiconductor photocatalysis, such as BiVO₄¹⁹, CdS²⁰, C₃N₄^{21,22}, SnX₂ (X = S, Se)^{6,23}, BiOI²⁴ and BiOBr²⁵.



Scheme 1. A schematic illustration of the exfoliation of bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine into few-layer SnS₂ nanosheets, hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity.

In this paper, thin SnS₂ nanosheets are prepared with a liquid-exfoliation method from a SnS₂/n-propylamine inorganic-organic hybrid precursor, as illustrated in Scheme 1. In general, 2D materials can be obtained through the exfoliation of inorganic-organic hybrids that are composed of few or single-layered inorganic targeting slabs sandwiched by the single-layer organic molecule via coordinated bonds²⁶⁻²⁸. The inserting organic molecule can be removed by ion exchange method^{29,30}. For this study, a bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine inorganic-organic hybrid is prepared first and then exfoliated into 2D SnS₂ in diluted nitric acid solution. Thin SnS₂ nanosheets are obtained with a thickness of 3.1 nm. The short thickness allows effective

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charge separation across the nanosheets, and increases the photocatalytic activity for Cr (VI) ion reduction.

Results and discussion

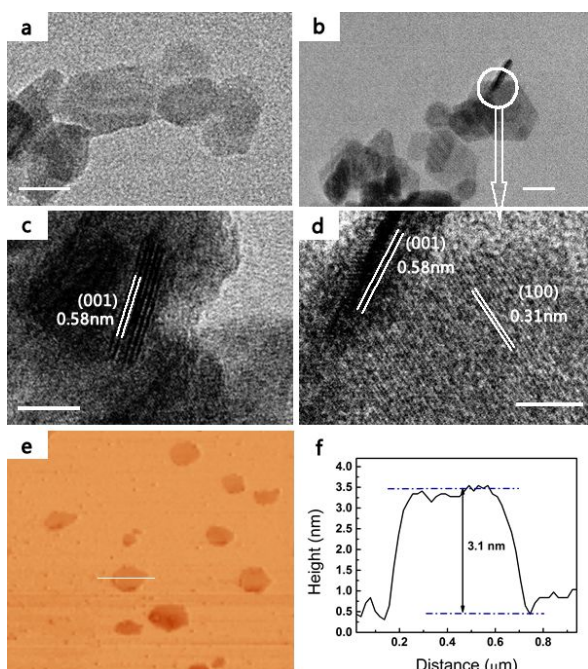


Fig. 1. TEM (a, b), HRTEM (c, d) images, AFM image (e) and the corresponding height profile (f) for SnS₂ nanosheets. The scale bars are 50 nm in (a, b), and 10 nm in (c, d).

SnS₂ nanosheets with {001} facet and 20 ~ 100 nm width were obtained as shown in Fig. 1 a and b after exfoliating the SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid precursor of a nanosheet morphology (Fig. S1). The lattice spacing of 5.8 Å in the HRTEM image shown in Fig. 1c was indexed to the orientation-preferred (001) plane of SnS₂. The thickness of the large exfoliated SnS₂ nanosheets was about 3.1 nm based on the height profile of the AFM image shown in Fig. 1e and f. SnS₂ nanosheets were successfully obtained from the SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid using most of the proton acid, such as acetic acid, H₂SO₄, HCl and HNO₃. Among them, the nitric acid had the highest efficiency. The SnS₂

nanosheet dispersion was stable over several days and showed a typical Tyndall effect (Fig. S2). In addition, thin WO₃ nanosheets (Fig. S3) were also obtained with the n-propylamine intercalation-exfoliation, indicating the potential wide applicability of this method in producing 2D materials.

The prepared bulk SnS₂ had a XRD pattern well matching the typical diffraction peaks of the 2T-type hexagonal SnS₂ (JPCDS, 83-1706) with the interlamellar spacing $d = 5.86 \text{ \AA}$ (Fig. 2). SnS₂ nanosheets had much weaker but similar typical diffraction peaks compared to bulk SnS₂. The interlamellar spacing shifted to $d = 5.78 \text{ \AA}$ based on the diffraction peak at $2\theta = 15.3^\circ$. The SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid had a strong diffraction peak appears at $2\theta = 8.6^\circ$ due to the insertion of n-propylamine between the SnS₂ layers^{31,32} and the interlamellar spacing $d = 10.27 \text{ \AA}$ of the (001) facet of SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid (Fig. S1). The disappearance of the diffraction peaks of the hybrid indicated that the n-propylamine has been eliminated from the formed nanosheets.

The infrared spectra of n-propylamine, SnS₂/n-propylamine and SnS₂ nanosheets were given in Fig. 2b. The SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid had weaker vibration bands of -CH₃, -CH₂, and -NH₂ (curve 2) compared with pure n-propylamine (curve 3). Those vibration bands disappeared in SnS₂ nanosheets (#1) which had a broad band at 548 cm⁻¹ from the Sn-S band vibration³³ and wide -OH vibration bands from the water adsorbed on the surface.

In the XPS spectra, nitrogen peak was only detected in the survey spectra of the SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid (Fig. 3a), further showing that the SnS₂ nanosheets were fully exfoliated from the hybrid. The two main characteristic peaks of C 1s core-level spectra of the hybrid (Fig. 3b) were ascribed to the graphitic carbon (sp² carbon, 284.6 eV), C-NH₂ bonds (286.2 eV)³⁴. The N 1s core-level of the hybrid had two peaks at 399.9 and 401.7 eV from the Sn-N³⁵ and C-NH₂ bonds³⁶, respectively, which were barely visible in SnS₂ nanosheets (Fig. 3c). The Sn 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2} peaks in the hybrid were located at 486.5 eV and 494.9 eV^{33,37}, lower than that in the SnS₂ nanosheets (Fig. 3d). Meanwhile, the S 2p peaks of the hybrid, reflecting to S-Sn bond^{33,37}, shifted to lower energies (161.4 and 162.6 eV) than those in SnS₂ nanosheets (161.7 and 162.8 eV, Fig. 3e).

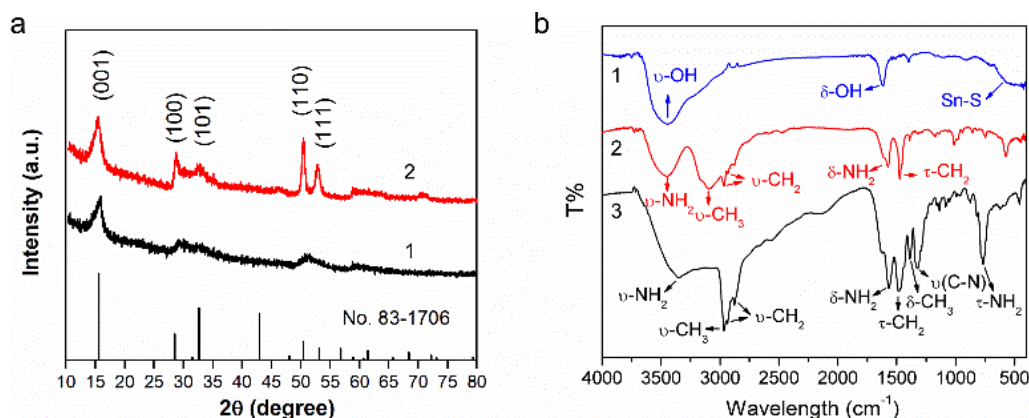


Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns of (1) SnS₂ nanosheets and (2) bulk SnS₂, (b) FTIR spectra of (1) few-layer SnS₂ nanosheets, (2) bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine, and (3) n-propylamine.

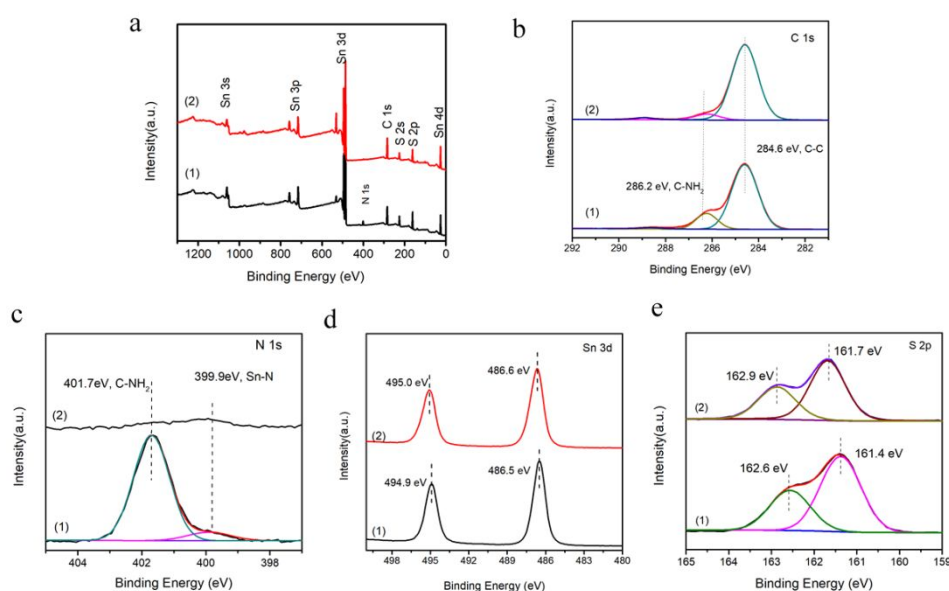


Fig. 3. XPS spectra of the as-synthesized samples: (a) the survey spectrum, (b) the high resolution of C 1s, (c) N 1s, (d) Sn 3d and (e) S 2p spectra. (1) SnS₂/n-propylamine, (2) SnS₂ nanosheets. (Replot all the graphs: all the graphs should have the same size and should be plotted from high energy to low energy (b-e).)

The decrease of the binding energy between Sn with S in the hybrid was due to the formation of Sn-N bond between n-propylamine in SnS₂ layers. These results confirmed that n-propylamine combined well with the bulk SnS₂ via Sn-N chemical bonds and exfoliation in diluted acid solution effectively remove n-propylamine between layers in forming SnS₂ nanosheets.

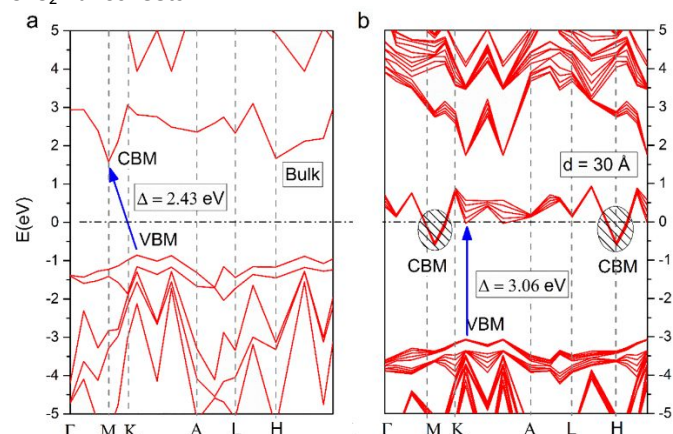


Fig. 4. Band structures calculated from first-principles density functional theory (DFT) for bulk (a) and SnS₂ nanosheet (b) with the thickness = 30 Å (b) along [001] direction. The Fermi level was set at E = 0 eV.

We calculated the electronic property of SnS₂ (beyond geometry) using the Heyd-Scuseria-Ernzerhof (HSE06) hybrid density functional³⁸. Indirect to direct bandgap transition may occur when transition metal dichalcogenides undergo a change from bulk to a quasi 2D state³⁹. As shown in Fig. 4, when the thickness of SnS₂ nanosheets in [001] direction was reduced to 30 Å, both the conduction and valence bands moved downward (Fig. 4), along with the valence-band maxima (VBM) located close to K. The CBM of SnS₂ nanosheets was below the fermi level (shadow region), showing semi-metallic state from semiconductor, consistent with the recent prediction of bilayer SnS₂ under a sufficient perpendicular electrical field⁴⁰. The occupancy in conduction band intensely reduced the transition probability from VBM to CBMs, resulting in a vertical direct transition at CBM that became the main optical band gap, with the value increased from 2.43 eV to 3.06 eV. This was consistent with the optical bandgap based on the UV-vis measurements and the observed fluorescence results in the following section.

The optical absorption properties of bulk SnS₂, SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid, and few-layer SnS₂ nanosheets were shown in Fig. 5. The SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid only absorbed below ~450 nm, due to intercalation of n-propylamine. However, bulk SnS₂ and SnS₂ nanosheets displayed a wide absorption in the visible light region, where SnS₂ nanosheets absorbed much less than bulk SnS₂. The optical band gaps

estimated from the UV-vis diffuse reflection spectra were 2.13 eV for bulk SnS₂ and 2.35 eV for SnS₂ nanosheets, as shown in Fig. 5(b), consistent with those in the literature (1.91–2.35 eV)^{33, 37, 41, 42}. The larger band gap of SnS₂ nanosheets was likely due to the quantum confinement effects occurring on the (001) orientation of the SnS₂ nanosheets with 3.1 nm thickness, consistent with the DFT calculation results. As the layer thickness decreases, the extent of quantum confinement effect increases, as does the blue shift in their band-edge absorption. When n-propylamine intercalated between layers of SnS₂, similarly to SnS₂ single layer dispersed in n-propylamine, hybrid has the strongest quantum confinement effect. Thus, SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid had a largest band gap of 3.05 eV. The similar results of large blue shift of their band-edge absorption were found in the hybrid of ZnS(butylamine)⁴³, ZnSe(butylamine)²⁶, and ZnS(ethylenediamine)_{0.5}⁴⁴.

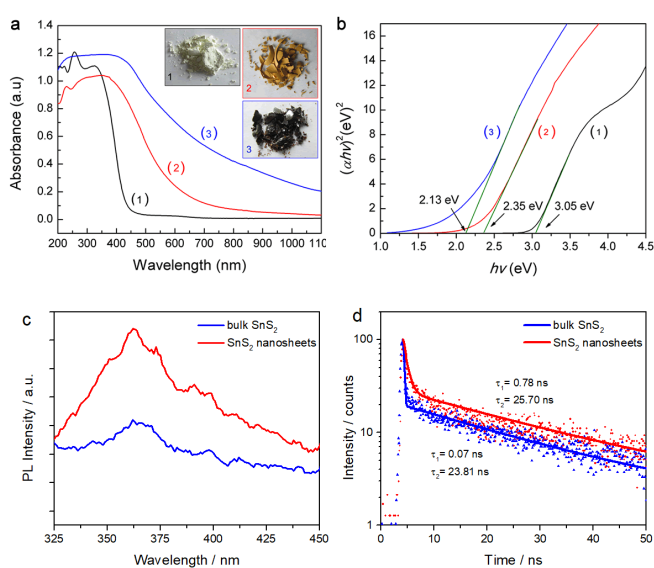


Fig. 5. (a) UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra and (b) bandgap energies of (1) SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid, (2) SnS₂ nanosheets, and (3) bulk SnS₂, (c) steady-state and (d) time-resolved PL of bulk SnS₂ (blue) and SnS₂ nanosheets (red) at room temperature.

TABLE 1. Decay times measured around the PL peak from time-resolved PL for bulk and nanosheet SnS₂ at room temperature.

SnS ₂	τ_1 (ns)	τ_2 (ns)	β_1 (%)	β_2 (%)	χ^2
bulk	0.07	23.81	12.2	87.8	2.2
nanosheets	0.78	25.70	11.2	88.2	1.3

Some literatures reported that SnS₂ had a PL peak at 360 nm⁴⁵, others observed weak PL peak (due to the indirect bandgap nature of SnS₂) near optical bandgap at 550 nm, with single exponential decay (0.25–3.0) ns⁴⁶. Here both bulk SnS₂ and nanosheets only showed PL peaks around 360 nm, as shown in Fig. 5c. The peak energy was located at 3.4 eV, likely reflecting the recombination of the electrons in the higher-lying conduction band with the holes in valence band. Compare to the bulk, SnS₂ nanosheets enhanced the PL intensity by a factor

of 4. As the PL intensity was proportional to the corresponding density of excited states (DOEs). With the decrease of semiconductor dimension, the high-lying DOEs grew remarkably and showed much stronger optical absorption, due to the quantum confinement effect in [001] direction. The time-resolved PL showed that both bulk SnS₂ and nanosheets (Fig. 5d) had bi-exponential decays with the fast component (τ_1) and the slow component (τ_2). For the SnS₂ nanosheets, the fast component decay time (τ_1) was 0.78 ns, a 11-fold increase compared to the bulk, while the slow decay time (τ_2) appeared unchanged. The prolonged lifetime indicated the effective charge separation in SnS₂ nanosheets, likely due to the much shorter diffusion length in [001] direction.

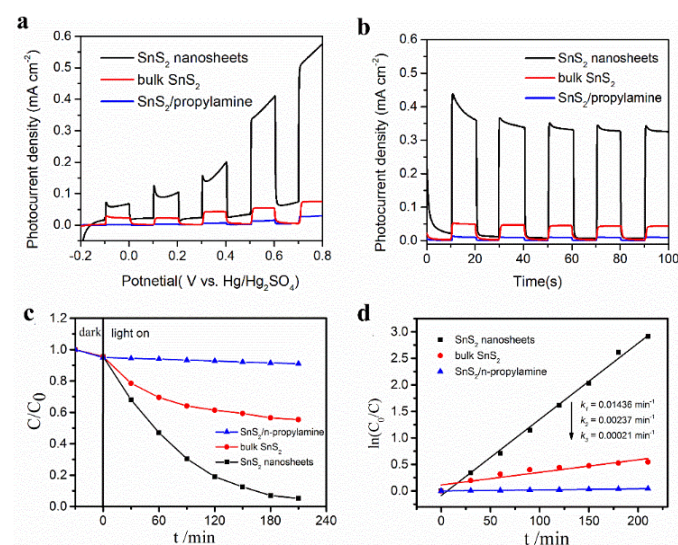


Fig. 6. The PEC performance of SnS₂ nanosheets, bulk SnS₂, SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid, (a) linear sweep voltammograms from -0.2 – 0.8 V vs. Hg/Hg₂SO₄, (b) chronoamperometry at 0.6 V vs. Hg/Hg₂SO₄, (c) Photocatalytic reduction and (d) kinetic linear simulation curves of 100 mg/L Cr(VI) with (1) bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid, (2) bulk SnS₂, (3) SnS₂ nanosheets.

Fig. 6 showed PEC performance under dark and sunlight irradiation. SnS₂ nanosheets film displayed the photocurrent density of 0.4 mA/cm² at 0.6 V, about 10 and 40 times of the bulk SnS₂ (0.04 mA/cm²) and the bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid (0.01 mA/cm²), respectively. The enhancement was likely from the efficient transport and separation of photogenerated carriers in SnS₂ nanosheets. All the photocurrent density-time (i-t) curves displayed a good stability during the 100 seconds test (Fig. 6b).

The photocatalytic activity was evaluated through photocatalytic reduction conversion of Cr(VI) under visible light irradiation without using a sacrificial reagent. As shown in Fig. 6c, SnS₂ nanosheets ($S_{\text{BET}}=64.3 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$) had the highest photocatalytic activity with 96.5% Cr(VI) reduction within 210 min, followed by bulk SnS₂ ($S_{\text{BET}}=9.8 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$) with ~48.3% Cr(VI) reduction, and bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid with only reduced ~5.9% Cr(VI) reduction. The kinetic analyses shown in Fig. 6d indicated that the Cr(VI) reduction was through a pseudo-first-order reaction model^{47, 48}, seen from the good

linear relationships between $\ln(C_0/C)$ and time. The rate constant of SnS₂ nanosheets ($K_1 = 0.01436 \text{ min}^{-1}$) was about 6-fold bigger than that of bulk SnS₂ ($K_2 = 0.00237 \text{ min}^{-1}$), showing a superior photocatalytic performance in Cr(IV) reduction. We also found that the ability of photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange by SnS₂ nanosheets was significantly improved. As shown in Figure S6, the rate constant of few-layers SnS₂ nanosheets ($K_c = 0.1337 \text{ min}^{-1}$) is about 4.4 times of bulk SnS₂ ($K_b = 0.0302 \text{ min}^{-1}$). We compare the photocatalytic reduction of hexavalent chromium using SnS₂ as photocatalysts in literatures. A brief summary lies in the Table S1 and illustrates in the Fig. S7. It is observed the atomic-scale thin SnS₂ nanosheets prepared in this work have the highest photocatalytic activity in the reported SnS₂ for Cr(VI) reduction. Their high specific areas, and quantum confinement effects within the several-nanometers-thick sheets could offer a much more active site and enhance the efficiency of the electron-hole separation in [001] direction, hence SnS₂ nanosheets have sharp performance in catalytic activity.

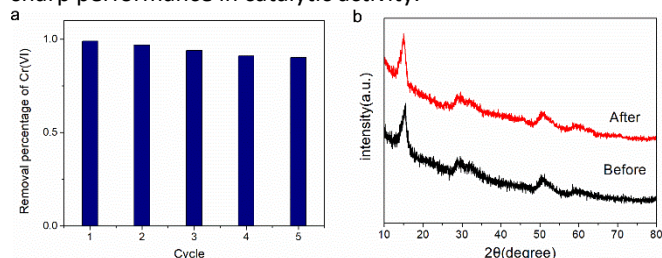
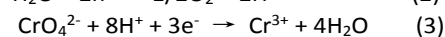
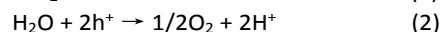
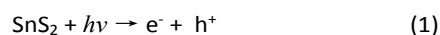


Fig. 7 (a) Recycling experiment for photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in presence of the SnS₂ nanosheets and (b) XRD pattern of the SnS₂ nanosheets before and after five recycling experiment.

The recyclability of SnS₂ nanosheets for reduction of Cr(VI) were investigated (Fig. 7a). After 5 cycles, the photocatalytic efficiency of Cr(VI) reduction of SnS₂ nanosheet was maintained at 90%, and the XRD pattern (Fig. S7b) shows no significant change, indicating SnS₂ nanosheets has good reusability and structural stability for Cr(VI) photocatalytic reduction.

The mechanism of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) by SnS₂ nanosheets is similar to by TiO₂ semiconductor⁴⁹, but they are a little different. As for TiO₂, two reaction of O₂ photoreduction and Cr(VI) photoreduction would occur simultaneously for the conduction band of TiO₂ (-0.43 V vs. NHE) is more negative than E(O₂/·O₂) (-0.33 V vs. NHE) and E(Cr⁶⁺/Cr³⁺) = 0.55 V (vs. NHE), respectively^{50, 51}. While, the conduction band of SnS₂ is -0.32V (vs. NHE)⁵², which is between E(O₂/·O₂) and E(Cr⁶⁺/Cr³⁺). Thus, under the illumination, the photogenerated electrons on SnS₂ surface do not have enough ability to reducing O₂, it directly combined with Cr(VI) to produce Cr(III). So, the mechanism of photocatalytic reduction of Cr(VI) in SnS₂ nanosheet is proposed as follows. At first electron-hole pairs produced in photocatalyst under illumination (eq. 1). Subsequently, the electrons and holes migrate to the surface of the SnS₂ nanosheets in [001] direction to participate in redox reactions. Holes take part in the reaction of the oxidation of H₂O (eq. 2) and H⁺ is generated. Meanwhile, electrons can directly reduce Cr(VI) to Cr(III) (eq. 3).



Conclusions

In summary, SnS₂ nanosheets with exposing {001} facets and approximately 3.1 nm thick are synthesized with the liquid-exfoliation method from a bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid precursor. They exhibit superior photocatalytic activity in reduction of Cr(VI) compared to bulk SnS₂, likely due to the effective charge separation. Meanwhile, this work demonstrates a promising solution-based approach for developing 2D materials with very small thickness.

Experimental

Bulk SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid material was synthesized by solvothermal method. SnCl₄·5H₂O (1 mmol), thioacetamide (4 mmol) and n-propylamine (16 mL) were added into a 40 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and reacted at 160 °C for 2 days. After the reaction, the autoclave was cooled to room temperature naturally. The white precipitates were collected by centrifugation, washed with distilled water and absolute ethanol several times, and finally dried in vacuum overnight.

25 mg SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid was dispersed in 10 mL 3 M HNO₃, and sonicated in an ice-water bath for 1 h to obtain a yellow suspension, which was centrifuged to collect the precipitates that was then washed with distilled water, absolute ethanol for several times, in order to completely remove the HNO₃. Subsequently, the yellow precipitates were dispersed in absolute ethanol, sonicated for 5 min, and centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant was finally collected by pipette and centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 15 min. Finally, SnS₂ nanosheets were collected after centrifuging the supernatant and drying in vacuum oven at 60 °C for 24h.

For a comparison, bulk SnS₂ was synthesized based on an established procedure⁵³. Briefly, 2 mmol SnCl₄·5H₂O and 15 mmol thioacetamide were mixed in 40 mL distilled water, reacted in a 75mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave at 160 °C for 12 h.

The crystal structure was characterized with X-ray diffraction (XRD, PANalytical X'Pert PRO) with Cu Kα radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å). The microstructures were examined with transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL, JEM-2100F), and atomic force microscopy (AFM, NT-MDT, Ntegra Prima SPM). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on a simultaneous thermal analysis (Waters (TA), SDF-Q600), where the SnS₂/n-propylamine hybrid was loaded into a platinum pan and heated with a ramp rate of 10 °C/min from room temperature to 800 °C in nitrogen atmosphere. Infrared spectra were taken using a Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (Nicolet iS10, Thermo Fisher), diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) using UV-VIS spectrometer (PE, Lambda 750) with BaSO₄ as the reference, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) using a Thermo Electron ESCALAB 250Xi system. The Brunauer-

Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area was measured by nitrogen adsorption with Quantachrome Nova 1200. Steady-state photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured on a spectrofluorophotometer (RF-5301PC, Shimadzu Corp). PL lifetime using a picosecond time-resolved fluorescence spectrometer, where the excitation wavelength was produced from an optical parametric amplifier (OPA-800-CF, Spectra Physics) pumped by a regenerative amplifier (800 nm, ~126 fs, Spitfire, Spectra Physics), a photon counting camera (Hamamatsu Photonics, C5680) was equipped for photon detection, the excitation energy was about 100 nJ / pulse, and the samples were spin-dropped on the indium tin oxide (ITO) glasses (1 cm × 1 cm). All the PL tests were performed at room temperature.

Photoanodes were fabricated as follows. The samples were dispersed in 5 mL ethanol (0.5 mg/mL), spin-dropped on the 1 cm × 1 cm indium tin oxides (ITO) glass at 600 rpm for 30 s, and heated at 60 °C for 1 h. The photoelectrochemical (PEC) tests were conducted in a conventional three-electrode system with an electrochemical workstation (CHI860) under irradiation of 590 W Xe lamp (Oriol instrument, 91192-1000, Newport), where the potential swept rate was set to 10 mV/s, 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ solution, platinum wire and saturated Hg/Hg₂SO₄ electrode as the electrolyte, counter and reference electrodes, respectively.

The photocatalytic reduction of aqueous Cr (VI) ions (50 mg/L) was conducted under a 300 W Xe lamp irradiation (PLS-SEX300, Perfect Light, λ>420 nm). 50 mg catalysts were suspended in a glass flask (200 mL) containing 100 mL K₂Cr₂O₇ aqueous solution. Before illumination, the suspensions were stirred for 30 min in the dark to ensure establishment of Cr (VI) adsorption equilibrium. The concentration of the Cr(VI) concentration was determined with the diphenylcarbazide colorimetric method⁵⁴.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (21363006, and 21503051), Natural Science Foundation of Guangxi Province (2016GXNSFAA380121, 2016GXNSFAA380219, 2018GXNSFAA138108), X. C. appreciates the support from the U.S. National Science Foundation (DMR-1609061), and the College of Arts and Sciences, University of Missouri-Kansas City

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