

Preparation of WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composites with enhanced photocatalytic hydrogen production performance

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Abstract

Tungsten trioxide was prepared by a hydrothermal method, and $WO_3/g-C_3N_4$ composite photocatalysts were prepared in two steps by hydrothermal synthesis and muffle furnace calcination. The hydrogen production experiment was carried out using $g-C_3N_4$ and $WO_3/g-C_3N_4$ composites under simulated visible light irradiation. The samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), field emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM), ultraviolet–visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) and Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) analysis. It was found that $WO_3(H_2O)_{0.333}$ prepared by hydrothermal treatment is nanorod-like and forms an effective combination with lamellar g- C_3N_4 . The hydrogen production rate of the optimal sample is 224.4 µmol/h, which is twice that of pure $g-C_3N_4$. The addition of tungsten trioxide improves the separation efficiency of photogenerated electron–hole pairs and contributes to the improvement in the photocatalytic performance. This is of great significance to the application of modified $g-C_3N_4$.

1 Introduction

More and more researches have been devoted to the clean and renewable method of photocatalytic hydrogen production since it was discovered by Honda and Fujishima [1]. A variety of catalysts, including high molecular polymers, metal oxides, and sulfides, are synthesized to find more efficient and more active photocatalysts by coupling, introduction of defects, and deposition of precious metals [2–7].

Conventional catalysts such as TiO_2 absorb sunlight mainly in the ultraviolet region, which is a small part of sunlight [8, 9]. In 2009, Wang et al. developed a nonmetallic covalent compound defined as $g-C_3N_4$. He realized the visible light decomposition of hydrogen and explained the mechanism of its photocatalysis [10]. In addition to its visible light response, $g-C_3N_4$ could obtain a larger specific surface area after specific treatment [11]. However, the photogenerated electron-hole pairs can exist for a short period of time and quickly recombine. And there are few active sites and low activity of $g-C_3N_4$ [12–14]. To overcome these short boards, a lot of researches have been invested. Jiang

Feng Zhou zhoufeng@dlmu.edu.cn et al. doped g- C_3N_4 nanosheets with phosphorus and introduced carbon defects to increase its light absorption, which greatly improved the photocatalytic hydrogen production rate [15]. Jing et al. reported mineral acid or phosphoric acid etching of g- C_3N_4 nanosheets to increase the number of active sites, which greatly improved the photocatalytic hydrogen production rate [16]. On the other hand, to reduce the recombination of photogenerated electron and hole pairs, heterojunction composite photocatalysts have been widely synthesized [17–20].

WO₃ has a large forbidden bandwidth and can be designed to form a heterojunction with other materials. There are some reports with different treatments on WO₃/g-C₃N₄ heterojunction photocatalysts [21, 22]. Yu et al. prepared an ultrathin two-dimensional WO₃/ g-C₃N₄ composite heterojunction photocatalyst. This Z-scheme system effectively improved the photocatalytic activity of pure g-C₃N₄ [23]. Tahir et al. prepared a WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composite photocatalyst. The main reason for the increased photocatalytic hydrogen production activities was that it has extended the light absorption [24]. In addition to its reducing hydrogen production, the WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composite photocatalyst can also be used to degrade the organic pollutants such as ciprofloxacin, fuchsin and tetracycline [21, 25, 26].

In this paper, WO₃ was prepared by a hydrothermal method, and a WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composite was synthesis by mixing WO₃ and melamine as precursors. To find the

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optimal ratio by changing the amount of WO_3 addition, the mechanism of photocatalytic performance improvement of the WO_3/g - C_3N_4 composites is analyzed and discussed.

2 Experimental

2.1 Materials

All analytical grade chemicals, melamine, methanol, sodium tungstate ($Na_2WO_4 \cdot H_2O$), and chloroplatinic acid ($H_2PtCl_6 \cdot 6H_2O$) were used without further purification.

2.2 Synthesis of WO₃ nanorods

First, 1 g of Na₂WO₄·H₂O was weighed and sonicated in 70 ml of deionized water for 30 min until fully dissolved. After diluting concentrated hydrochloric acid to 4 mol/l, it was added dropwise to the aqueous solution of sodium tungstate to adjust the pH to 1. The solution was transferred to a polytetrafluoroethylene reaction vessel, heated to 180°C, incubated for 24 h and then cooled to room temperature with the furnace. Finally, the obtained sample was washed several times with deionized water and absolute ethanol and dried at 60 °C for 12 h.

2.3 Synthesis of WO₃/g-C₃N₄ nanoarchitecture

Fifteen milligrams of tungsten trioxide was weighed and added to 20 ml of alcohol, and 2.4 g of melamine was weighed, added to the above solution for 1 h and then magnetically stirred for 3 h. After the above solution was placed in an oven and dried at 60 °C, the obtained solid was placed in a crucible, heated to 550 °C in a muffle furnace at a rate of 10 °C/min and allowed to cool to room temperature after 3 h of incubation. According to the amount of tungsten trioxide added to the melamine, the obtained composite samples were labeled as WGx, where x represents x mg tungsten trioxide added.

2.4 Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were characterized with a Rigaku-DMAX Ultima⁺ diffractometer equipped with cobalt target. The scan range was from 10° to 90° , respectively. The microscopic morphology was observed using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (SUPRA 55 SAPPHIRE). Optical properties were analyzed using an ultraviolet–visible spectrophotometer (DRS, TU-1901), respectively. The functional group of the composite samples and the bond between WO₃ and g-C₃N₄ were analyzed using a FT-IR spectrometry (PerkinElmer Frontier spectrometer). The specific surface

area test (BET) was analyzed with a WBL-810-type specific surface area and void fraction analyzer.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Structure characterization

The XRD data of $g-C_3N_4$ WO₃ and composite samples are shown in Fig. 1. For WO₃, the diffraction peaks correspond to $(0\ 2\ 0)\ (0\ 0\ 2)\ (2\ 2\ 0)\ (2\ 2\ 2)$ and $(2\ 2\ 2\ 4)$ facets at 16.40°, 26.74°, 32.79°, 42.80° and 65.61°, respectively, and their lattice spacing can be attributed to 0.63 nm, 0.39 nm, 0.32 nm, 0.25 nm and 0.17 nm. The diffraction peak corresponds to $(0\ 0\ 2)$ facet of g-C₃N₄ at 31.83°, while the diffraction peak corresponds to the $(1\ 0\ 0)$ facet at 14.94°, respectively. The hydrothermally prepared WO₃, which is $WO_3(H_2O)_{0.333}$, is provided with water of crystallization corresponding to PDF card 87-1203, and the WO₃ powder is dehydrated when it is calcined with melamine. In the composite sample from which the crystallization water was removed, the phase of WO_3 still appeared. The disappearance of $(1 \ 1 \ 1)$ crystal face at 21.023° was probably due to the removal of the water of crystallization. Meanwhile, since the characteristic peak of $g-C_3N_4$ is at 14.94° and 31.83°, the composite sample has a superposition of the characteristic peaks at these two places, and with the increase in WO₃, the superposition effect of g-C₃N₄ is gradually weakened, and the characteristic peak of WO₃ gradually increases.

The functional group of the composite samples and the bond between WO₃ and $g-C_3N_4$ were detected with the Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. 2, the peaks of the composite samples are similar to those of $g-C_3N_4$ and the peaks at 1238, 1316, 1461 and 1640 cm⁻¹



Fig. 1 XRD patterns for $g-C_3N_4$ and WO_3 nanosheets and their composites



Fig. 2 FT-IR spectra of g-C₃N₄, WG25 and WG30

can be attributed to C–N. The peak at 809 cm⁻¹ is related to s-triazine [27, 28]. However, the composite samples showed a shift at the 1238, 1316, and 809 cm⁻¹ positions. The blueshift at 1238 and 1316 cm⁻¹ was due to the N atom in the g-C₃N₄ bonding with the more electronegative O atom in WO₃, and the force constant increased so that the absorption moved toward the high wavenumber direction. Because s-triazine produces a conjugation effect, the bond length becomes shorter and the peak shifts toward a higher wavenumber, so another blueshift occurs at 809 cm⁻¹. The shift in the functional groups demonstrates the formation of chemical bonds between tungsten trioxide and g-C₃N₄ in the composite.

Figure 3 displays the ultraviolet–visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy of pure $g-C_3N_4$ and the WO₃/ $g-C_3N_4$ composites. It can be observed in Fig. 3a that the absorption of visible light by the composite samples significantly improved after the addition of tungsten trioxide. More importantly, as can be seen in Fig. 3b, the forbidden band width of the composite samples did not greatly increase with the addition of tungsten trioxide and remained similar to that of $g-C_3N_4$, which could increase the partial absorption of visible light.

The forbidden band width can be calculated by the following empirical formula [29]:

$$E_{\rm g} = 1240/\lambda_{\rm g},\tag{1}$$

where λ_g is the maximum absorption edge of the sample. According to this equation, the bandgap energies of g-C₃N₄, WO₃, WG15, WG20, WG25 and WG30 are 2.74 eV, 3.19 eV, 2.74 eV, 2.75 eV, 2.79 eV, and 2.80 eV, respectively. The valence band potential and conduction band potential of the WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composite samples can be calculated by the following equations [30, 31]:

$$E_{\rm VB} = X - E_X + 0.5E_{\rm g},\tag{2}$$

$$E_{\rm CB} = E_{\rm VB} - E_{\rm g},\tag{3}$$

where X is the electronegativity of the semiconductor, $X = (X(A)^a X(B)^b)^{1/(a+b)}$ [32]. The X value for WO₃ is 6.59 eV. E_X is the reduction potential of water (4.5 eV). The sample bandgap, valence band potential and conduction band potential obtained by calculation are shown in Table 1. The E_g of g-C₃N₄ and WO₃ was assumed to be 2.74 eV and 3.19 eV. The E_{CB} of WO₃ and g-C₃N₄ was assumed to be 0.49 eV and - 1.14 eV. The E_{VB} of WO₃ and g-C₃N₄ was determined to be 3.68 eV and 1.60 eV.

Table 1 The bandgap, VB and CB of WO₃ and $g-C_3N_4$

Sample	Bandgap (eV)	VB (eV)	CB (eV)
WO ₃	3.19	3.68	0.49
g-C ₃ N ₄	2.74	1.60	- 1.14



Fig. 3 a UV–Vis spectra of g-C₃N₄ and the WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composites and b corresponding bandgap information for g-C₃N₄ and WG25

The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) analysis of $g-C_3N_4$ and the composites were detected with nitrogen adsorption–desorption analysis. Figure 4 shows the adsorption–desorption isotherm curves of $g-C_3N_4$ and WO₃ and their pore size distribution. The specific surface areas of the composite samples are similar. The pore volume distribution of WG25 is 0.0008 cm³/g, which is approximately twice the pore volume of pure $g-C_3N_4$, and a larger pore volume can provide more reactive sites for the production of hydrogen.

3.2 Morphological characteristics

SEM can observe the morphology of a material from the microscopic view and judge the size of a material. Figure 5a–c shows the SEM images of $g-C_3N_4$, pure tungsten trioxide nanorods and the composite samples, respectively. As shown in Figure 5a–c, $g-C_3N_4$ is in the form of a sheet, the tungsten trioxide is in the form of rods, and the WO₃ nanorods are inserted in the $g-C_3N_4$ layer. A tight junction

is appeared at the interface between WO₃ and g-C₃N₄. This effective contact surface shortens the moving distance of the photogenerated electrons and ensures the transmission efficiency of electrons between the interfaces, which is more conducive to the transfer of electrons. The results of EDS mapping are shown in Fig. 6a–e. The existence of C, N, O, W and their distribution characteristics can be clearly observed. The WO₃ nanorods were inserted into the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. All the elements were evenly distributed.

As shown in Fig. 7a, $g-C_3N_4$ has a two-dimensional sheet distribution with wrinkles. Figure 7b is a TEM image of WO₃, and the rod structure of WO₃ can be more clearly seen in the figure. Figure 7d is a partial enlarged view of Fig. 7c, and it is apparent that WO₃ nanorods are well attached to the surface of $g-C_3N_4$ layer. The lattice spacings inside WO₃ are 0.387 nm and 0.31 nm, which can be attributed to the (0 0 2) and (0 4 0) planes, respectively. The data are consistent with previous reports. The $g-C_3N_4$ nanosheets have no



Fig. 4 Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherm curves of the composite: **a** WG25 and **b** g- C_3N_4 . The insets show the BJH pore-radius distribution of WO₃ and g- C_3N_4 .



Fig. 5 SEM images of $g-C_3N_4$ (a), WO₃ nanorods (b) and WO₃/ $g-C_3N_4$ composite samples (c)



Fig. 6 Elemental mapping of a WG30 and b-e the corresponding elemental mapping images of C, N, O and W



Fig. 7 TEM images of $g-C_3N_4$ (a) and WO₃ (b) and HRTEM images of WG30 (c, d)

obvious crystal lattice, which is due to the poor crystallinity of $g-C_3N_4$ and is consistent with the existing literature reports.

3.3 Photocatalytic activity

To detect the rate of hydrogen production, a xenon lamp was used to simulate sunlight, methanol was used as a sacrificial agent and chloroplatinic acid as a promoter. The amount of hydrogen produced was measured every half an hour. As shown in Fig. 8, pure WO₃ did not detect significant hydrogen production because its conduction band position was more positive than H⁺ of water. Pure $g-C_3N_4$ had obvious hydrogen production activity. With the addition of WO₃, the hydrogen production of the composites was greatly improved. In particular, the optimal sample WG25



Fig. 8 Comparison of the H2-generation activities of the as-prepared samples under xenon lamp irradiation



Fig. 9 Z-scheme mechanism over $WO_3/g-C_3N_4$

had the highest hydrogen production rate of 224.4 μ mol/h, its activity was approximately twice as high as that of the pure g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. With the further increase of WO₃, the hydrogen production rate of the composite samples was rather reduced, because too much WO₃ reduced its light response.

3.4 Mechanism discussion

Figure 9 shows the photocatalytic mechanism. When sunlight is irradiated onto $g-C_3N_4$, the electrons on the valence band of the $g-C_3N_4$ nanosheets are excited and transferred to the conduction band. The E_{CB} of WO₃ and the E_{VB} of $g-C_3N_4$ were determined to be 0.49 eV and 1.60 eV. Since the conduction band of WO₃ is close to the valence band of $g-C_3N_4$, the electrons photogenerated by WO₃ are easily combined with the holes of $g-C_3N_4$ during the transfer process. Meanwhile, the holes of WO₃ are captured by hydroxide to generate hydroxyl radicals, and the hydroxyl radicals are transferred to the surface of the catalyst to oxidize methanol into water and CO₂. The photogenerated electrons transferred to the g-C₃N₄ conduction band reduce H⁺ to hydrogen. When a Z-scheme heterojunction is formed by adding g-C₃N₄ to WO₃, its oxidative and reductive properties are both improved [33].

4 Conclusions

In summary, WO₃ was prepared by a hydrothermal method, and a WO₃/g-C₃N₄ composite was synthesized by hydrothermal synthesis and muffle furnace calcination using Na₂ WO₄•H₂O and melamine as precursors. The addition of WO₃ significantly increased the hydrogen production rate of the composite sample, and the optimal activity of WG25 reached 224.4 µmol/h. With the further increase of WO₃, the hydrogen production rate of the composite sample was rather reduced, because too much WO₃ reduced its light response. XRD, EDS, FT-IR and TEM results further confirmed the presence of a Z-scheme heterojunction mechanism. This is of great significance to the application of modified g-C₃N₄.

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