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Electronic materials

Controlled fabrication of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays: a visible-light-responsive and environmentalfriendly electrode for photoelectrocatalytic degradation of bisphenol A

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ABSTRACT

Photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) oxidation is a promising method in water treatment due to the synergistic effect of photocatalytic (PC) oxidation and electro-oxidation. Up to now, developing visible-light-responsive, efficient and environmental-friendly electrode for PEC degradation application is still a challenge. In this work, novel and environmental-friendly $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays as an electrode were investigated for PEC degradation of bisphenol A (BPA). TiO₂ nanowire arrays provide a direct electron pathway, $g - C_3N_4$ serves as a stable and environmental-friendly visible light sensitizer, and effective charge spatial separation can be achieved across the well-matched core–shell interface. Compared with TiO₂ nanowire arrays, TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays exhibit higher PC and PEC performance. The photocurrent response of the TiO₂ nanowire arrays is enhanced about two times after C_3N_4 shell deposition. And the PEC performance of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays is significantly enhanced, which is one time higher than that of $TiO₂$ (under 1.0 V external potential). The enhancement of PEC performance of $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays after C_3N_4 modification can be attributed to the synergistic photoelectric effect, well-matched interface and efficient charge separation induced by the type-II $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ band alignment. Moreover, the intermediate products of BPA degradation by PEC oxidation were analyzed by gas chromatography– mass spectrometry and five specific products were identified, and then two possible pathways for BPA degradation by PEC process were proposed.

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Introduction

With the development of the industrialization, the environment pollution has become one of the major concerns of the international community. Photocatalytic (PC) oxidation is considered as a promising way to degrade environment pollutant due to its high oxidation ability and broad compound applicability [\[1](#page-9-0), [2\]](#page-9-0). As an enhanced photocatalysis technique, photoelectrocatalytic (PEC) oxidation has been proven to be an efficient method that can greatly enhance the PC oxidation activity by exploiting the synergism between PC oxidation and electro-oxidation [[3–8\]](#page-9-0). Moreover, photocatalyst immobilized on a conductive substrate as an electrode is more practical than that in a powdery form for industrial application.

 $TiO₂$ is the most widely used photocatalyst due to its high oxidation ability, high resistance to photocorrosion, high chemical stability, non-toxic and low cost $[9-11]$. However, the low quantum efficiency, poor visible light response and separation problems greatly limit the large-scale industrial application of $TiO₂$ nanoparticles [[9\]](#page-9-0). Many kinds of $TiO₂$ films on various substrates were used to replace $TiO₂$ nanoparticles as photocatalyst. Compared with $TiO₂$ film, $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays as one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures are expected to have higher photocatalytic activity due to their large surface-to-volume ratios, rapid charge transport and recyclable characteristics $[12-14]$. To extend the application of $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays, considerable efforts have been devoted to improve the photogenerated charge separation efficiency and extend the light response range, such as element doping [\[15](#page-10-0), [16\]](#page-10-0), noble metal deposition [[17,](#page-10-0) [18](#page-10-0)] and semiconductor coupling [\[19–24](#page-10-0)].

Coupling $TiO₂$ nanowires with another narrow bandgap semiconductor is an effective way to utilize visible light and enhance photocatalytic activity. Currently, chalcogenide materials (such as CdS, CdSe and ZnSe) are preferred and mostly used narrow bandgap semiconductor to combine with $TiO₂$ nanowires due to their visible light absorption ability and suitable band position [\[19–22](#page-10-0)]. However, chalcogenide materials always suffer photocorrosion and instability in the PEC reaction, leading to a leakage of heavy metal, which is harmful to environmental remediation. Therefore, it is urgent to develop a visible-light-responsive, efficient and environmental-friendly electrode for PEC degradation application. Graphitic carbon nitride $(g-C_3N_4)$ with a bandgap of 2.7 eV is the most stable allotrope of carbon nitride and is a metal-free semiconductor [[25,](#page-10-0) [26\]](#page-10-0). It has attracted extensive scientific interest due to its high chemical stability and visible light absorption ability. $G-C_3N_4$ has been widely employed in the degradation of dye, phenol and other pollu-tants [[27,](#page-10-0) [28](#page-10-0)]. Coupling $g - C_3N_4$ with wide bandgap semiconductors with more positive conduction band is an effective way to fabricate efficient and visiblelight-responsive photocatalysts. Many $g-C_3N_4$ -based composites such as ZnO/C_3N_4 [\[29](#page-10-0)], Bi_2WO_6/C_3N_4 [[30\]](#page-10-0), $\text{ZnWO}_4/\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ [\[31](#page-10-0)] have been reported and shown enhanced photocatalytic performance. The combination of $TiO₂$ and $g-C₃N₄$ may be an ideal system to achieve an enhanced charge separation and transfer due to the matched band alignment between $TiO₂$ and $g-C₃N₄$. Moreover, the visible-light-responsive capacity, chemical stability and environmental-friendly structure make $g-C_3N_4$ an excellent candidate in PEC degradation application. Actually, some $TiO₂/g-C₃N₄$ combination works were developed and shown promising results [\[32–35](#page-10-0)]. Zhu and co-workers synthesized a C_3N_4/TiO_2 hybrid photocatalyst with highly improved photocatalytic activity via a ball milling method [[34\]](#page-10-0). Wang and co-workers synthesized a macro-/mesoporous $g - C_3N_4/TiO_2$ composite and found that $g-C_3N_4/TiO_2$ presented a higher photocatalytic activity than pure $TiO₂$ and $g-\text{C}_3N_4$. The enhanced photocatalytic performance was attributed to the heterojunction between $TiO₂$ and $g - C_3N_4$, as well as the high surface area [\[32](#page-10-0)]. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no report regarding the fabrication and application of $TiO₂/g-C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays electrode in the PEC degradation although it has many unique merit in environmental application. Moreover, the core–shell structure with proper band alignment and well-matched interface can achieve the selective isolation of charge carriers by spatial separation of electrons and holes across the core–shell interface, thus suppressing the charge recombination.

Herein, we report our efforts in fabricating $TiO₂/g C_3N_4$ (denoted as TiO_2/C_3N_4) core–shell nanowire arrays and exploring the application of this $TiO₂/$ C3N4 electrode in PEC degradation of bisphenol A (BPA). These $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays were synthesized via a hydrothermal method followed by a chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method. Ti O_2 nanowire arrays provide a direct electron pathway, and $g - C_3N_4$ serves as a photo-sensitizer; the type-II band alignment and the wellmatched core–shell structure of $TiO₂$ and $g-C₃N₄$ can facilitate the photogenerated charge separation and transfer. BPA was chosen as a model pollutant to investigate the PC and PEC activity of as-prepared samples. BPA is one of the priority endocrine disrupting compounds which should be monitored and controlled due to its large-scale production and extensive applications. Many research reports point out that even very low level of BPA may cause infertility as well as breast, ovarian and testicular cancer of human and wildlife [[36,](#page-10-0) [37](#page-10-0)]. TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays show superior BPA degradation activity than pure $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays. The effect of external potential on PEC degradation of BPA, the identification of BPA degradation intermediate products and the possible degradation pathway were systematically investigated.

Experimental

Preparation of the $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays and $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays

Preparation of $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays: The $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays on a carbon cloth were prepared using a hydrothermal method according to a previous report [\[38](#page-10-0)]. Firstly, the carbon cloth was cleaned by sonication in acetone and methanol, subsequently rinsed with deionized (DI) water and finally dried in a nitrogen stream. The carbon cloth was placed within a sealed Teflon reactor (200 mL), containing 100 mL of toluene, 10 mL of tetrabutyl titanate, 10 mL of titanium tetrachloride (1 M in toluene) and 10 mL of hydrochloric acid (37 wt%). The Teflon reactor was kept in an oven at 180 $^{\circ}$ C for 22 h. After cooling down to room temperature, the carbon cloth was taken out, then rinsed with ethanol and DI water, and finally annealed in air at 500 \degree C for 2 h.

Preparation of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays: Deposition of $g-C_3N_4$ onto the TiO₂ nanowire was performed by a CVD process, and melamine was used as a precursor. Firstly, 2.0 g melamine was added in the bottom of a ceramic crucible with a cover, and a carbon cloth with pre-grown $TiO₂$ nanowire was placed on the upper position of the crucible. Then, the crucible was heated at 550 \degree C for

4 h with a temperature rise rate at $5^{\circ}C/m$ in in a muffle furnace. After cooling down to room temperature, the as-prepared samples were rinsed with ethanol and DI water to remove the $g - C_3N_4$ attaching to the carbon cloth. In the bottom of the crucible, $g - C_3N_4$ powders can also be obtained.

Characterization

X-ray diffraction patterns were measured by X-ray diffraction with Cu Ka radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å) on a Shimadzu XRD 6000 diffractometer. Morphologies of the as-prepared photocatalysts were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). SEM images were investigated with a FEI Quanta 200F microscope at an accelerating voltage of 30 kV. TEM and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) were performed on a JEOL JEM-2100 microscope with an accelerating voltage of 120 kV. The UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) was obtained by a UV–vis spectrophotometer (Hitachi U-4100) with the integration sphere diffuse reflectance attachment, using $BaSO₄$ as the reference. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were carried out on a K-Alpha XPS instrument. The concentration of BPA during the reaction was examined by a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on a Agilent 1200 UPLC system with the following conditions: column, 100 mm BEH C18 column; detector, UV detector operated at 280 nm; mobile phase, 1 mL/min of methanol and water (70/30, v/v ; injection volume of BPA, 5 µL. The intermediate products of the PEC degradation of BPA were identified by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC/MS) on a Bruker (ACION TQ, USA) combined with an Agilent DB (30 \times 0.25 mm, 0.25 µm) quartz capillary column and an electron impact (EI) detector (70 eV). The initial temperature of column oven was 40 \degree C and held for 1 min; then, it increased up to 280 °C with a heating rate of 15 °C/min and held for 8 min. The temperatures were set as follows: injection port, 260 °C; interface, 250 °C; ion source, 230 °C. Helium was used as a carrier gas with a flow rate of 1 mL/min.

Photoelectrocatalysis experiments

The photoelectrochemical measurements and PEC reactions were performed in a rectangular reactor using a CHI 660E (Shanghai, China) electrochemical workstation. A standard three-electrode cell system was used in the photoelectrochemical measurements and PEC reactions, including a Pt counter electrode, a working electrode $(TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays, active area of 2×2 cm²) and a reference electrode (a saturated calomel electrode, SCE). The $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays electrode was irradiated with visible light obtained from a 300 W Xe lamp (PLS-SXE300C/300CUV, Perfect Light, Beijing) with 420-nm cutoff filter. The average visible light intensity was 100 mW cm^{-2} . An electrolyte solution with a concentration of 0.1 mol L^{-1} Na₂SO₄ was used in the photoelectrochemical measurements. Photocurrent responses were investigated at 0.0 V (with reference to the SCE) under light-on and lightoff cycles. The electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) were performed in the frequency range of 100 kHz–0.01 Hz with an amplitude of the sinusoidal wave of 5 mV. The PC and PEC performance of the as-prepared samples was measured by the removal of BPA (with an initial concentration of 10 mg L^{-1}) in 200 mL $\mathrm{Na}_2\mathrm{SO}_4$ (0.1 mol L^{-1}) solution. The main oxidative species in the PEC process of the $TiO₂/$ C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays were detected through trapping experiment by addition of hole scavenger (methanol), hydroxyl radical scavenger (tert-butyl alcohol, t-BuOH) and superoxide radical scavenger (benzoquinone, BQ).

Results and discussion

Catalyst characterization

Figure [1a](#page-4-0) shows the two-step fabrication process of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays grown on carbon cloth. Firstly, the $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays were grown on the carbon cloth substrate by hydrothermal method. Then, the C_3N_4 shell was deposited on the surface of $TiO₂$ nanowires via CVD method using melamine as a precursor. The XRD patterns of $TiO₂$, C_3N_4 and TiO_2/C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays are shown in Fig. [1](#page-4-0)b. Diffraction peaks appearing in the pure $TiO₂$ nanowires can be well indexed to the rutile TiO₂ (JCPDS.21-1276). Pure C_3N_4 shows two

characteristic peaks at 12.9 and 27.3° , which can be attributed to the interplanar separation (100) and the stacking of the conjugated aromatic system (002) (JCPDS 87-1526) [[39,](#page-11-0) [40](#page-11-0)]. The TiO_2/C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays exhibit all the characteristic peaks of rutile TiO₂, suggesting that the crystal phase of TiO₂ does not change after deposited with C_3N_4 shell. It is worth to point out that the peak of (002) planar of $g - C_3N_4$ at 27.3° overlaps with the (110) planar peak of rutile $TiO₂$. Nevertheless, the characteristic peaks of $g - C_3N_4$ at 12.9° can be observed in the XRD pattern of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays, indicating that the $g - C_3N_4$ was successfully deposited on the $TiO₂$ nanowires. The optical properties of the $TiO₂$, C_3N_4 and TiO_2/C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays were examined by UV–vis DRS spectra, and the results are shown in Fig. [1](#page-4-0)c. Pure $TiO₂$ nanowires show a sharp absorption edge rise at around 410 nm, which corresponds to a band gap of 3.0 eV. The pure C_3N_4 displays a characteristic absorption rise at around 550 nm, corresponding to a band gap of 2.3 eV. Compared with that of pure $TiO₂$, the absorption edge of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ nanowires was extended to the visible light range due to the presence of C_3N_4 , which is beneficial for the solar energy utilization.

The structural morphology of TiO₂ and TiO₂/C₃N₄ nanowire arrays was examined by SEM analysis (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0). Figure [2](#page-4-0)a, b shows the SEM images of $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays grown on the carbon cloth. The inset of Fig. [2](#page-4-0)a is pure carbon cloth. As can be seen, the high-density and orderly $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays were grown uniformly on the carbon cloth. These $TiO₂$ nanowires with smooth surface are about 30–50 nm in diameter (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)b). The CVD method was performed to deposit the C_3N_4 shell on the pre-grown $TiO₂$ $TiO₂$ $TiO₂$ nanowires. Figure $2c$ shows a large-scale SEM image of the $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays, which indicates that the structure of $TiO₂$ nanowires do not obviously change after C_3N_4 deposition. From the high-magnification SEM image of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ nanowire (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)d), a shell deposited on the surface of the $TiO₂$ nanowire can be clearly observed. The surfaces of the $TiO₂$ nanowires become rough, and the diameters of the $TiO₂$ nanowires increase up to the range of 80–100 nm after deposited with C_3N_4 . As can be seen, the high-density and orderly $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowires were successfully synthesized.

The HRTEM images of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowires confirm that $TiO₂$ nanowire is covered by

Figure 1 a Fabrication process of TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays; **b** the XRD patterns of TiO₂, C₃N₄ and TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays; c the UV–vis DRS spectra of TiO₂, C₃N₄ and TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays.

Figure 2 SEM images of TiO₂ nanowire arrays (a, b) and TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays (c, d); inset of (a): the pure carbon cloth.

a thin layer of C_3N_4 (Fig. S1). The diameter of TiO_2 nanowire is about 30 nm, which is consistent with the SEM results. And the measured interplanar spacing of TiO₂ is 0.325 nm, which matches well with the rutile TiO₂ (110) plane. The measured interplanar spacing of 0.320 nm in the deposition layer is

correlated with the (002) crystal planes of C_3N_4 , further confirming the deposition of C_3N_4 .

The XPS measurement was performed to investigate the surface composition and chemical states of $TiO₂$ and $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ nanowire arrays. Figure 3 shows the XPS survey spectra and magnified spectra of N 1s, C 1s, Ti 2p and O 1s. As can be seen from Fig. $3a$, TiO₂ nanowire arrays are composed of C, Ti, O, whereas $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays are composed of C, Ti, O and N, indicating the formation of C_3N_4 in the TiO₂/C₃N₄ nanowire arrays. In the magnified N 1 s spectra of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ nanowire arrays (Fig. 3b), a broad peak extending from 395 to 406 eV can be observed. Three peaks can be distinguished to be centered at 398.3, 400.3, 404.0 eV, respectively. The main peak at 398.3 eV can be attributed to the sp^2 -hybridized nitrogen (N-C=N), indicating the presence of sp^2 -bonded C_3N_4 . The other two peaks at 400.3 and 404.0 eV can be assigned to the nitrogen in tertiary $N-(C)$ ₃ groups and the charging effects $[41, 42]$ $[41, 42]$ $[41, 42]$ $[41, 42]$. Figure 3c shows the C 1s features of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays. The peak at 284.1 eV is assigned to the C–C group due to the carbon contamination. And the peak at 288.0 eV is attributed to the N–C=N group in the graphitic C_3N_4 [[39,](#page-11-0) [40\]](#page-11-0). From the Ti 2p spectrum of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ nanowire arrays (Fig. 3d), two peaks at binding energy of 458.3 eV (Ti $2p_{3/2}$) and 464.0 eV (Ti $2p_{1/2}$) can be observed [[43\]](#page-11-0). As can be seen from Fig. 3e, the O 1s peak at binding energy of 529.6 and 531.2 eV can be attributed to the O^{2-} in the sample and the –OH group of water molecules on the surface of the sample, respectively [\[44](#page-11-0)]. The XPS spectra further confirm the presence of the C_3N_4 .

Photoelectrochemical properties

Photoelectrochemical experiments were carried out in a standard three-electrode system. The photocurrent responses of TiO₂ nanowire arrays and TiO₂/ C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays were investigated with light-on and light-off cycles at a bias potential of 0 V versus SCE electrode, and the results are shown in Fig. [4](#page-6-0)a. Fast and steady photocurrent responses are observed for each light-on and light-off cycle in $TiO₂$ and $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ electrodes, indicating that the electrodes have good chemical stability and photo-stability. The photocurrent response of carbon cloth was also investigated for comparison, and no photocurrent response can be observed. Under visible light irradiation, the photocurrent density of the pure $TiO₂$ is 0.0025 mA/cm^2 . Meanwhile, the photocurrent density of the TiO_2/C_3N_4 is 0.0075 mA/cm², which is three times of that of pure $TiO₂$. The photocurrent

Figure 3 XPS survey spectra of TiO₂ and TiO₂/C₃N₄ nanowire arrays (a); magnified spectra of **b** N 1s peaks, **c** C 1s peaks, **d** Ti 2p peaks and **e** O 1s peaks of TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays.

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Figure 4 Photocurrent responses (a) and EIS Nyquist plots **b** of TiO₂ nanowire arrays and TiO₂/C₃N₄ core–shell nanowire arrays under visible light irradiation, $\lambda > 420$ nm.

enhancement of the $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ electrode suggests a higher charge separation efficiency, which is beneficial for the BPA PC and PEC degradation process. EIS is a powerful approach to investigate the resistance of the electrodes, which indicates the charge separation process in electrodes [[9,](#page-9-0) [45\]](#page-11-0). Figure 4b displays the EIS Nyquist plots of the TiO₂ and TiO₂/C₃N₄ electrodes with and without visible light irradiation. The radius of the arc in the EIS spectra indicates the charge separation and transfer resistance at the electrode; the smaller the radius, the higher the charge separation efficiency [\[9](#page-9-0), [30,](#page-10-0) [45](#page-11-0)]. The $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ electrodes show smaller radius of the arc than pure $TiO₂$ with and without visible light irradiation, suggesting an improved charge separation and transfer process in $TiO₂/C₃N₄$. The results of photoelectrochemical characterization indicate that the C_3N_4 modification can effectively enhance the photogenerated charge separation efficiency of the $TiO₂$ nanowires.

Enhancement of PC and PEC activity

The BPA PC and PEC degradation experiment was performed under visible light irradiation ($\lambda \ge 420$ nm). Figure [5a](#page-7-0) shows the PC and PEC activity of TiO₂, C₃N₄ and TiO₂/C₃N₄, and the apparent rate constant k is shown in the inset graph. As is well known, the PC and PEC degradation processes obey pseudo-first-order kinetics; the slope of the linear line in the plots of $ln(C/C_0)$ of BPA versus irradiation time (t) represents the apparent rate constant k [[46,](#page-11-0) [47\]](#page-11-0). The electro-oxidation of BPA at 1.0 V versus SCE electrode and visible light photolysis (in the absence of the photocatalyst) were performed as references. As can be seen, the visible light photolysis (in the absence of the photocatalyst) has no obvious effect on BPA removal. The $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ shows much higher PEC activity than pure $TiO₂$ and $C₃N₄$. The rate constant k of PEC degradation of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ under 1.0 V external potential is 0.00411 min^{-1} , which is one time higher than that of pure $TiO₂$ $(0.00203 \text{ min}^{-1})$. Moreover, the reaction rate constant k of PEC degradation of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ is larger than the sum of the electro-oxidation and PC degradation, suggesting a synergetic effect between electro-oxidation and PC degradation in the PEC process. The effect of the external potential on the PEC degradation of BPA of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ was investigated, and the results are shown in Fig. [5b](#page-7-0). As can be seen, the PEC activity first increases and then decreases with the increasing external potential. The $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core– shell nanowire arrays present highest PEC activity (apparent rate constant $k = 0.01041$ min⁻¹) at external potential of 2 V. When the external potential is higher than 2 V, the high external potential may induce fast electro-polymerization of BPA, which would block the current transfer and destroy the synergetic effect of the system, leading to a decreased PEC activity.

Identification of intermediate products and the possible degradation pathway

The identity of the intermediate products from the degradation of BPA was monitored by HPLC and GC–MS. The intermediate products are shown in

Figure 5 Comparison of electro-oxidation, PC and PEC degradation rate of BPA a ($\lambda \ge 420$ nm, external potential = 1.0 V), and comparison of the degradation rate of BPA over $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays under different external potentials $(\lambda > 420$ nm).

Table S1, and the possible BPA degradation pathway in PEC process is proposed in Fig. 6. Five main intermediates were identified as 3-pentanone, p-isopropenyl phenol, 1-(4-benzyl alcohol) ethanone, (1,1'phenyl) ethylene and (2-methyl-1-phenyl-1-propenyl) benzene. Based on these intermediates, the possible degradation pathway of BPA was proposed, including dehydroxylation, cleavage of C–C bonds, elimination reactions and oxidation [[48,](#page-11-0) [49](#page-11-0)]. As can be seen from Fig. 6, the degradation of BPA in PEC process can be divided into two possible pathways according to the bonds broken and the previously reported results [\[48](#page-11-0), [49](#page-11-0)]. The first one is dehydroxylation; the bonds connecting two hydroxyl groups with aromatic rings in BPA are first cleaved, leading to the formation of (2-methyl-1-phenyl-1-propenyl)

Figure 6 Proposed BPA degradation pathway by $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays.

benzene. Then, (2-methyl-1-phenyl-1-propenyl) benzene is subsequently oxidized to form (1, 1'-phenyl) ethylene. Furthermore, the C–C bond connecting the two aromatic rings is vulnerable because of the two electron-donating hydroxyl groups. Therefore, the second pathway is the cleavage of the C–C bond connecting two aromatic rings in BPA, resulting in the formation of p-isopropenyl phenol. The p-isopropenyl phenol can be degraded to p-hydroxyacetophenone. These intermediates are further oxidized to generate 3-pentanone, which can be further oxidized by radicals.

Mechanism of enhancement of PEC activity

The identification of main oxidative species is important to reveal the mechanism of the synergistic effect of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$. Generally, three oxidative species, hydroxyl radical, hole and superoxide radical, are hypothesized to be involved in photocatalysis reaction. The main oxidative species were detected through the trapping experiments by adding hole

Figure 7 Plots of photogenerated carriers trapping on PEC process by $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ under 2.0 V external potential and visible light irradiation ($\lambda \ge 420$ nm).

scavenger (methanol) [[50\]](#page-11-0), hydroxyl radical scavenger (t-BuOH) [\[29](#page-10-0), [51](#page-11-0)] and superoxide radical scavenger (BQ) [[43\]](#page-11-0), respectively. The results are shown in Fig. 7. The addition of a scavenger of superoxide radicals (BQ) obviously decreases the PEC activity of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$, indicating that superoxide radicals are the main oxidative species in the BPA degradation. The addition of methanol and t-BuOH reduces the PEC activity of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ in a certain extent, suggesting that hole and hydroxyl radical are part of oxidative species.

Based on the above results, a schematic diagram of the possible mechanism of the charge transfer process of the $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire array is shown in Fig. 8. The position of valance band (VB) and conduction band (CB) of C_3N_4 is higher than that of $TiO₂$ according to the reported results [[33\]](#page-10-0). The

suitable valence band and conduction band position of TiO₂ and C_3N_4 can form a type-II structure, which can lead to a spatial separation of the electrons and holes on TiO₂ and C₃N₄ heterojunction [\[52](#page-11-0)], resulting in an enhanced charge separation efficiency. The $TiO₂$ itself cannot be excited by visible light, but C_3N_4 can absorb visible light to generate electrons and holes. Therefore, under visible light irradiation, the excited electrons of the CB of C_3N_4 would inject into the CB of $TiO₂$ due to the type-II structure. The electrons would be subsequently driven to the counter electrode by the external potential, leaving the holes on the C_3N_4 shell, resulting in an improved charge separation and transfer process. The electrons and holes would subsequently react with water and oxygen to produce active superoxide and hydroxyl radicals. The holes and radicals would participate in the degradation of BPA and its intermediate products, leading to a visible light activity of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays. Moreover, the synergistic effect of PC and electro-oxidation can further enhance the activity of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$. The applied external potential not only can enhance the charge separation efficiency by driving the electrons to the counter electrode, but also can directly degrade the BPA.

Conclusions

In summary, novel $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays were successfully prepared via a hydrothermal method followed by a CVD method. $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays served as a working electrode, which was applied to PEC degradation of $BPA. TiO₂$ nanowire arrays provide a direct electron

Figure 8 Schematic diagram of the possible mechanism of the charge transfer process of the TiO_2/C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays under visible light irradiation.

pathway, $g - C_3N_4$ serves as a stable and environmental-friendly visible light sensitizer, and effective charge spatial separation can be achieved across the well-matched core–shell interface. The TiO_2/C_3N_4 core–shell nanowire arrays exhibit higher PC and PEC performance than $TiO₂$ nanowire arrays. The PEC performance of $TiO₂/C₃N₄$ core–shell nanowire arrays is enhanced by one time after C_3N_4 modification. The enhancement of PEC BPA degradation performance of TiO₂ nanowire arrays after C_3N_4 modification originates from the photoabsorption enhancement and efficient charge separation induced by the type-II band alignment. The synergetic effect between electro-oxidation and PC degradation in PEC process can further improve the degradation of BPA. Two possible degradation pathways of BPA were proposed, including dehydroxylation, cleavage of C–C bonds and oxidation. We believe that this contribution might provide a promising way to construct visible-light-driven $TiO₂$ -based heterostructure photocatalysts.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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