

Enhanced photocatalytic activity by the construction of a TiO₂/carbon nitride nanosheets heterostructure with high surface area via direct interfacial assembly

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ABSTRACT

A TiO₂ heterostructure modified with carbon nitride nanosheets (CN-NSs) has been synthesized via a direct interfacial assembly strategy. The CN-NSs, which have a unique two-dimensional structure, were favorable for supporting TiO₂ nanoparticles (NPs). The uniform dispersion of TiO₂ NPs on the surface of the CN-NSs creates sufficient interfacial contact at their nanojunctions, as was confirmed by electron microscopy analyses. In comparison with other reported metal oxide/CN composites, the strong interactions of the ultrathin CN-NSs layers with the TiO₂ nanoparticles restrain their re-stacking, which results in a large specific surface area of 234.0 m²·g⁻¹. The results indicate that the optimized TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid exhibits remarkably enhanced photocatalytic efficiency for dye degradation (with *k* of 0.167 min⁻¹ under full spectrum) and H₂ production (with apparent quantum yield = 38.4% for λ = 400 ± 15 nm monochromatic light). This can be ascribed to the improved surface area and quantum efficiency of the hybrid, with a controlled ratio that reaches the appropriate balance between producing sufficient nanojunctions and absorbing enough photons. Furthermore, based on the identification of the main active species for photodegradation, and the confirmation of active sites for H₂ evolution, the charge transfer pathway across the TiO₂/CN-NSs interface under simulated solar light is proposed.

1 Introduction

Due to the growing energy and environmental crisis, much attention has been focused on exploring highly

efficient photocatalysts that can promote the direct use of abundant solar energy resources to drive reactions.

As a typical inorganic semiconductor photocatalyst, TiO₂ has been widely investigated in the fields of

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sunlight-driven pollutant decomposition and energy conversion because of its strong oxidizing power, high thermal/chemical/photo- stability, low cost, non-toxicity, etc. However, it suffers from a limited solar light absorption, and low quantum efficiency [1, 2]. The coupling of photocatalysts with narrow bandgap semiconductors is considered to be a competitive strategy to extend its light response into the visible range, and reduce the charge recombination losses [3, 4]. Graphitic carbon nitride (CN) has been recently identified as a superior candidate for this owing to its visible light driven bandgap (~2.7 eV), and suitable band-edge positions matching with those of TiO₂. There are many reports regarding TiO₂/CN heterostructures constructed by hydrothermal, calcination, and impregnation strategies [5–9]. For instance, the CN-hybridized TiO₂ obtained in our previous work exhibited an enhanced photocatalytic performance under UV and visible light, as a result of charge carriers efficiently transferring at the heterojunction interface, and CN sensitization for visible light harvesting [10].

It should be noted that CN in composites is usually a bulk material with an extremely low specific surface area (e.g. 3.7 m²·g⁻¹ from melamine, and 9.2 m²·g⁻¹ from dicyandiamide), and less active sites; therefore, its photocatalytic activity is significantly restricted [11–13]. When constructing heterostructures, the low surface area of bulk CN does not allow for enough contact to occur with the TiO₂ crystals for efficient charge carrier transport. Hao et al. reported that the surface area of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ was increased to 70.2 m²·g⁻¹ when a macro/mesoporous structure was fabricated [5]. Jiang et al. designed TiO₂ yolk-shell spheres coupled with bulk CN to improve its specific surface area. The optimized catalyst (TCN-2.0), however, possessed a surface area of 93 m²·g⁻¹, even though the pure TiO₂ spheres had a surface area as high as 157 m²·g⁻¹ [6]. In addition, weak van der Waals interactions between the layers slowed down the electron transfer, which led to a high recombination rate of photogenerated electron (e⁻)-hole (h⁺) pairs, and the low electrical conductivity of bulk CN materials [14].

As an analogue of graphite, the CN polymer possesses a stacked two-dimensional (2D) structure that can be exfoliated into 2D nanosheets (CN-NSs) of few atomic layers [15–18]. Similar to graphene oxide, the

liquid-phase exfoliation process improves the specific surface area and water-dispersibility of CN catalysts, making them a promising substrate-support for nanoparticles (NPs) [19]. In addition, owing to the notable merits of 2D π -conjugated materials, the graphene-analogue structure gives rise to an increased conductivity and charge carriers transport [17, 18].

At present, few reports have dwell on the construction of TiO₂ crystals on CN-NSs. Most recently, Han et al. synthesized graphitic CN-NSs hybridized N-doped TiO₂ nanofibers (GCN/NT NFs) via an electrospinning process, combined with a modified heat-etching method. The hybrid, with an increased surface area of 47.3 m²·g⁻¹ and under simulated solar light, presented a highly efficient photocatalytic H₂ production rate and degradation activity [20]. Li et al. reported a seed-induced solvothermal approach to grow TiO₂ nanostructures on g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. The hybrid, with an optimum surface area of 102 m²·g⁻¹, exhibited enhanced photocatalytic activity towards methyl orange and phenol degradation under visible light [21]. Tong et al. developed a biomimetic method for fabricating g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ nanosheets with an enlarged surface area (109 m²·g⁻¹) and enhanced photocatalytic activity toward the degradation of organic pollutants [22]. In actuality, it has been reported that the surface area can be much higher when the supporting metal oxide crystals are placed on other 2D materials, for example MoS₂ and graphene, which had surface areas of 186 and 199.8 m²·g⁻¹, respectively [23, 24].

Although the liquid-phase exfoliation method successfully yields ultrathin CN-NSs of few atomic layers, the isolated CN layers can only maintain their original morphology in aqueous solutions. When the hydrosol is dried into the powders needed for the heterogeneous photocatalysis, the isolated layers are inclined to re-stack into a bulk structure, and therefore a dramatic decrease in the specific surface area is observed [17]. In the present study, we developed a direct interfacial assembly strategy to construct well-contacted 0D/2D TiO₂/CN-NSs heterostructures. The sheet-like morphology of the CN-NSs was partly preserved in the composite powders, presumably due to the uniform dispersion of the nano-sized TiO₂ NPs on their surface. This intimate contact between them hinders the re-stacking of the exfoliated CN-NSs layers.

To the best of our knowledge, among the reported metal oxide/CN composites, the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid reported here, with a controlled ratio, possesses the highest specific surface area, with a value of 234.0 m²·g⁻¹. The optimized hybrid behaves as a highly efficient photocatalyst towards dye degradation and H₂ production under simulated solar light. Furthermore, the synergetic effect between TiO₂ and the CN-NSs was investigated in detail. This work provides a facile route for constructing semiconductor/CN-NSs heterostructures for their potential use in solar energy driven reactions.

2 Experimental

2.1 Synthetic procedure

Bulk CN was prepared by directly heating dicyandiamide to 550 °C in a muffle furnace, and at a heating rate of 15 °C·min⁻¹. This temperature was maintained for 4 h. The ultrathin CN-NSs were obtained by a liquid-phase exfoliation method. First, 300 mg of bulk CN powder were dispersed in 30 mL of concentrated sulfuric acid, under stirring, for 12 h. The resulted aqueous suspension was diluted to 100 mL water, and then treated by ultrasonication for 2 h. Thereafter, the mixture was centrifuged and washed with water until its pH reached 7.0. The resulting precipitate was diluted to 30 mL water, and treated by ultrasonication for another 2 h. Lastly, the CN-NSs colloid was separated from the residual unexfoliated bulk materials by centrifugation. The mass concentration of the CN-

NSs was calculated to be 1.0–1.2 mg·mL⁻¹ from several repeated experiments.

The TiO₂ NPs were synthesized via a soft-chemical process based on the well-established method described in our previous work [25]. In brief, 3 mL of titanium tetra-n-butoxide were mixed with 22 mL of absolute ethanol, and then the solution was added dropwise into 30 mL of deionized water, under vigorous stirring. After this addition, the suspension was kept stirring at 70 °C for about 50 min to obtain a condensed solution. Subsequently, 70 mL of a 0.055 M HNO₃ aqueous solution were added, and the mixture was continuously stirred at 70 °C for 4 h under airproof conditions. Then, a 1.0 M NaOH solution was added to cause the sedimentation of the hydrosol. The precipitate was collected by centrifuging, washing, and re-dispersing into 100 mL of water with a mass concentration of TiO₂ NPs of 5.8–6.7 mg·mL⁻¹.

To achieve the uniform dispersion of the TiO₂ NPs on the CN-NSs, an interfacial assembly strategy was proposed here, as illustrated in Fig. 1. First, a stoichiometric weight ratio of TiO₂ and CN-NSs hydrosols were mixed and diluted to 30 mL with deionized water. The obtained colloids were sonicated for 3 h. This process was crucial for the formation of sufficient interfacial interaction between TiO₂ and the CN-NSs. Thereafter, the mixture was heated to 70 °C and stirred in a fume hood for 4 h. The solvent evaporation brought about the further assembly between the TiO₂ NPs and CN-NSs layers. Finally, the powder catalysts were collected by vacuum drying at 60 °C for 4 h, and milled into ultrafine powders. By

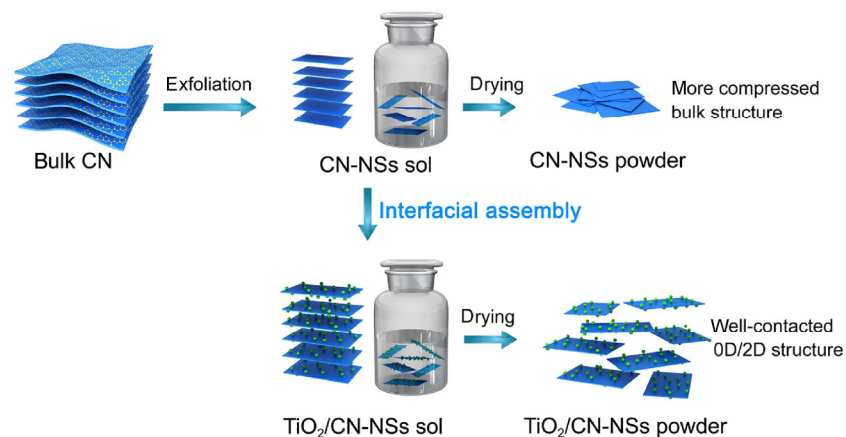


Figure 1 Schematic plot of the preparation of the TiO₂/CN-NSs heterostructure via the interfacial assembly strategy.

varying the mass proportion of TiO₂ to CN-NSs, a series of TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrids were synthesized, and labeled as TiO₂/CN-NSs (1:3), TiO₂/CN-NSs (1:1), TiO₂/CN-NSs (3:1), and TiO₂/CN-NSs (9:1). The TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid that is frequently described in this work has the default ratio value of 3:1.

2.2 Characterization

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained using a Tecnai G2 F30 (FEI, Holland) apparatus. Atom force microscopy (AFM) images were obtained with a SPM9700 AFM. Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer spectrum 1000 with a KBr pellet. The X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) patterns were obtained with an X' Pert PRO instrument using a Cu K α radiation source with $\lambda_{\text{Cu}} = 0.15418$ nm. The nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms were conducted at 77 K on a Micrometrics ASAP2000 system using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method. The chemical composition and binding energy of the samples were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, AXIS-ULTRA DLD-600W). The binding energy (BE) shifts were corrected by setting the C 1s level to 285.0 eV, as an internal standard, to compensate for the surface-charging effect during the data acquisition. The thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) were performed on a Mettler Toledo TGA/SDTA851e at a heating rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹, from room temperature to 800 °C, under an air atmosphere. The UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the samples were recorded on a Varian Cary 5E spectrophotometer. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the samples were measured on a fluorescence spectrometer (Hitachi F-7000).

2.3 Evaluation of the photocatalytic performance

The photocatalytic activities of the photocatalysts were measured by the degradation rate of rhodamine B (RB), and the evolution rate of H₂ under simulated solar light. A 300-W Xe lamp was used as the simulated solar light source. This lamp was positioned 25 cm away from the reactor. For the degradation tests, 5.0 mg of the photocatalyst were suspended in 10 mL of an aqueous solution containing 26 mg·L⁻¹ of RB. Before irradiation, the suspensions were stirred for 40 min

in the dark to establish an adsorption–desorption equilibrium. At scheduled irradiation time intervals, the suspension was sampled to measure any changes in the maximum absorption (c/c_0) of the RB absorption spectra. For the H₂ evolution test, the Pt loaded photocatalysts were prepared as follows. First, 0.1 g of the TiO₂/CN-NSs catalyst was suspended in a mixture consisting of 90 mL of distilled water and 10 mL of methanol, in a reaction cell, using a magnetic stirrer. Then, 0.5 wt.% Pt loaded TiO₂/CN-NSs photocatalysts were prepared by the standard photoreduction deposition method using a H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O aqueous solution. The photoreaction was performed in 100 mL of an aqueous suspension containing 50 mg of the catalyst, and 50 mM of ascorbic acid (AA) as a sacrificial reagent. The reactor was irradiated from the top after removing any residual air. The evolution of H₂ was analyzed with an online gas chromatographer (GC, SP6890, TCD detector, 5 Å molecular sieve columns, and Ar carrier). The apparent quantum yield (AQY) was calculated by Eq. (1) under monochromatic light irradiation obtained from the corresponding band-pass filter (for example, $\lambda = 400 \pm 15$ nm).

$$\text{AQY}(\%) = \frac{2 \times \text{number of evolved H}_2 \text{ molecules}}{\text{Number of incident photons}} \times 100\%$$

2.4 Electrochemical and photoelectrochemical measurements

The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and photocurrent were measured with a CHI650E electrochemical workstation (Chenhua Instruments, Shanghai, China) using a standard three-electrode system, which employed a platinum wire as the counter electrode, and a Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference electrode. First, 2 mg of sample powder were dispersed ultrasonically in 1 mL of water. Then, 75 μL of the resulting suspension was dip-coated on 10 mm \times 10 mm piece of indium-tin oxide (ITO) glass electrode. After that, the electrode was dried in air at room temperature to eliminate any water, and heated to 60 °C to form a modified ITO electrode. The EIS was measured in a 0.1 M KCl solution containing 5 mM Fe(CN)₆³⁻/Fe(CN)₆⁴⁻ at the open circuit potential. A 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution was used as the electrolyte for the photocurrent measurements.

2.5 Trapping tests and detection of reactive oxygen species (ROS)

To investigate the synergetic effects between the TiO_2 and CN-NSs, trapping experiments were conducted to measure the contribution of the active species to the photocatalytic reaction. The scavengers used were 1 mM tert-butanol (t-BuOH) for $\cdot\text{OH}$, 1 mM EDTA-2Na for h^+ , and 0.3 mM benzoquinone (BQ) for O_2^- . The specified scavenger was added to the photocatalyst suspensions prior to the addition of the RB solution.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Morphology and structure

The microscopic morphologies of the pristine CN,

CN-NSs, TiO_2 , and hybrid were investigated by TEM and AFM observations. As shown in Fig. 2(a), pristine bulk CN displayed a stacked layered structure, at the micrometer scale. After exfoliation, the CN-NSs in the hydrosol presented a semi-transparent sheet-like morphology, suggesting an ultrathin thickness (Fig. 2(b)). As measured by AFM, the randomly selected NSs mostly possessed a planar size of several hundred nanometers, and a thickness of 1.4–2.3 nm, corresponding to 4–7 atomic layers (Figs. 2(c) and 2(d)). The pure TiO_2 hydrosol was composed of extremely small nanoparticles with a diameter of 4–8 nm (Fig. 2(e)). When introducing the CN-NSs, the ultrafine TiO_2 NPs were uniformly dispersed on the surface of the CN-NSs by interfacial assembly (Fig. 2(f)). The lattice fringe of the particles supported on the surface of the CN-NSs was measured to be 0.35 nm, and assigned

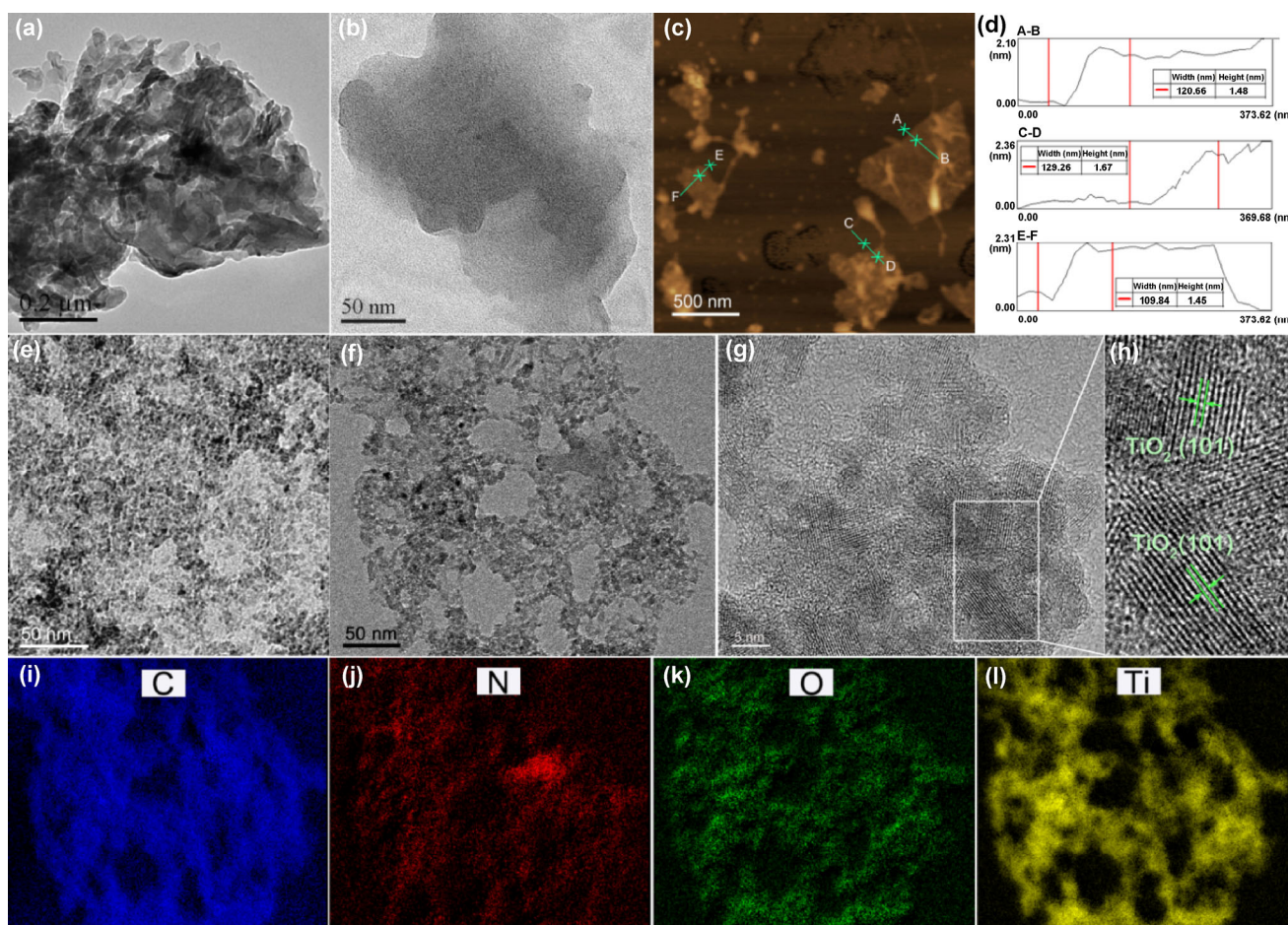


Figure 2 TEM images of (a) bulk CN, and (b) exfoliated CN-NSs hydrosol catalyst. (c) AFM image and (d) corresponding cross-sectional analysis of the CN-NSs hydrosol. (e) TEM image of the TiO_2 hydrosol. (f) TEM and (g) and (h) HRTEM images of the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrids. (i)–(l) Elemental mapping images.

to the crystallographic spacing of the (101) crystal plane of anatase TiO_2 (Figs. 2(g) and 2(h)) [26, 27]. The elemental mapping images in Figs. 2(i)–2(l) identified the formation of a well-contacted 0D/2D heterostructure with highly dispersed $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ nanojunctions that would facilitate the fast charge carrier transfer during the photocatalytic reaction. In this way, the exfoliated CN-NSs functioned as an ideal 2D substrate, similar to graphene, for supporting metal or metal oxide crystals.

The presence of CN and TiO_2 in the hybrid was also confirmed by the FTIR spectra. The strong characteristic absorption bands of the CN networks were observed in all CN-based materials. This means that the exfoliation and TiO_2 coupling did not alter the typical molecular structure of CN (Fig. 3). The peaks in the region from 1,200 to 1,700 cm^{-1} were attributed to the feature-distinctive stretching modes of tri-s-triazine derivatives, such as trigonal ($\text{N}-(\text{C})_3$), from the full condensation, and bridging of C-NH-C from the incomplete condensation [16]. The sharp peak at 810 cm^{-1} belongs to the breathing mode of the tri-s-triazine units. The broad band between 3,000 and 3,600 cm^{-1} belongs to N-H stretches of the terminal amino groups from incomplete condensation [28]. For the pure TiO_2 and $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrid, the broad absorption band at 400–1,000 cm^{-1} corresponds to the Ti-O-Ti stretching vibrations [29]. The additional band between 3,000 and 3,600 cm^{-1} was caused by the adsorbed hydroxyl species on the surface. The FTIR signal of the tri-s-triazine units in the hybrid, marked by a red circle, was overlapped by the strong Ti-O-Ti

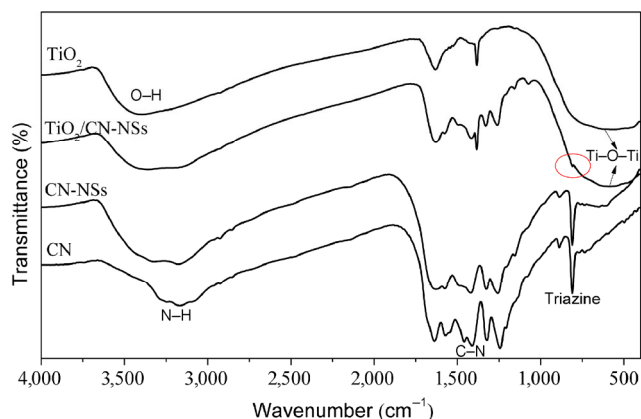


Figure 3 FTIR spectra of bulk CN, CN-NSs, $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ (3:1), and TiO_2 .

stretching. The typical absorption bands of CN and TiO_2 skeletons are observable in the hybrid, suggesting the successful synthesis of the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ composite.

The influence of exfoliation and TiO_2 coupling on the crystal structure of CN materials was examined by XRD, as shown in Fig. S1 (in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)) and Fig. 4. Bulk CN displayed two typical diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 12.8^\circ$ and 27.4° , which were attributed to the (100) in-plane repeating motifs of the tri-s-triazine units, and (002) interlayer stacking of the π -conjugated aromatic system, respectively [30]. When bulk CN was exfoliated into ultrathin NSs, the (100) in-plane diffraction almost disappeared. This can be ascribed to the decreased planar size by the exfoliation process. Meanwhile, a sharp decrease in the diffraction intensity at 27.4° indicated a significant weakening of the interlayer stacking of CN after exfoliation (Fig. S1 in the ESM) [31, 32]. Actually, the (002) diffraction signals of ultrathin CN-NSs with few atomic layers should disappear, or turn to a flat peak, similar to the (002) peak of exfoliated graphene sheets [33, 34]. Hence, it can be deduced that some exfoliated layers are inclined to re-stack into a bulk structure during the water evaporation preparation of the powders [17]. The TiO_2 crystals displayed a pure anatase phase with a crystal size of 5.7 nm, which was calculated by the Scherer's equation, and is consistent with the TEM observations. The diffraction signals of CN and TiO_2 can be observed

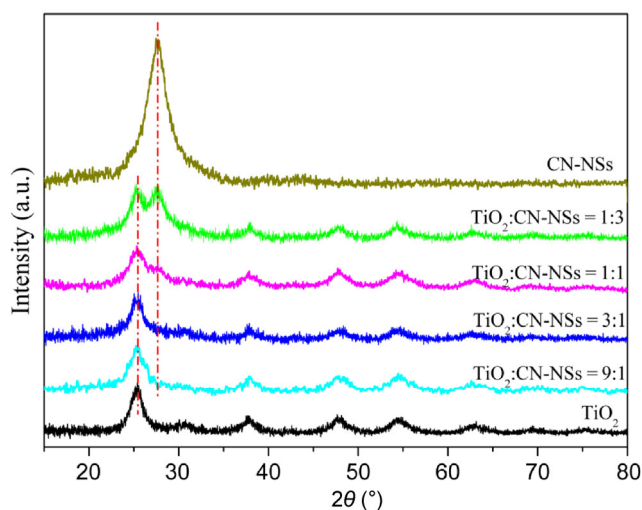


Figure 4 XRD patterns of CN-NSs, TiO_2 , and $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrids with different weight ratios.

in the hybrids with low TiO₂ content (TiO₂/CN-NSs = 1:3), indicating their coexistence (Fig. 4). With the increase of TiO₂ content, the diffraction peak at 27.4° became less pronounced, and gradually disappeared. That is to say, when assembling TiO₂ NPs on the surface of CN-NSs, the interfacial contact between them may restrict the re-stacking of the exfoliated CN-NSs layers during their drying to powder-like samples.

To get an insight into the restriction of the layers re-stacking by the embedded TiO₂ NPs, a BET analysis was carried out. Figure 5 displays the nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms, and pore-size distributions of the as-prepared samples. The isotherms of all samples were type IV according to the IUPAC classification, indicating the existence of mesopores (Fig. 5(a)) [35]. These mesopores mainly originated from the primary aggregation of crystals. The isotherm profile of CN had the typical H3 hysteresis loops [36], while the profiles of TiO₂ and the hybrids had typical H2 hysteresis loops at the relative pressure ($P/P_0 = 0.4–0.8$) [37]. This means that the hybrids possessed similar ink-bottle pores as those of the TiO₂ NPs, with a narrow pore-size distribution in the range of about

2–7 nm (Fig. 5(b)). The values of the specific surface area were calculated and compared in Table 1. The TiO₂ NPs possessed a large surface area of 194.6 m²·g⁻¹ because of their small crystallite size, and good dispersibility. The bulk CN that was prepared by directly heating dicyandiamide had an extremely low surface area of 12.4 m²·g⁻¹. Although in our previous work we improved the surface area of CN to a value of 87.7 m²·g⁻¹ by thermal exfoliation [38], herein the surface area of the CN-NSs powders after such liquid-phase exfoliation process decreased to 2.0 m²·g⁻¹ [39], which is a value much lower than that of other 2D materials like graphene [40]. The result demonstrates that the ultrathin CN layers cannot maintain their 2D morphology and high surface area when they are dried into powders. It seems that the exfoliated fragments re-stacked into a more compressed structure, in contrast to the pristine bulk material, as illustrated in Fig. 1. It should be noted that the surface area of the CN-NSs dramatically increased with the amount of TiO₂ coupling, and then slightly decreased at higher ratios. The hybrids where the ratio of TiO₂ to CN-NSs was 9:1 achieved the largest surface area value of 234.0 m²·g⁻¹, which is much higher than that of other reported

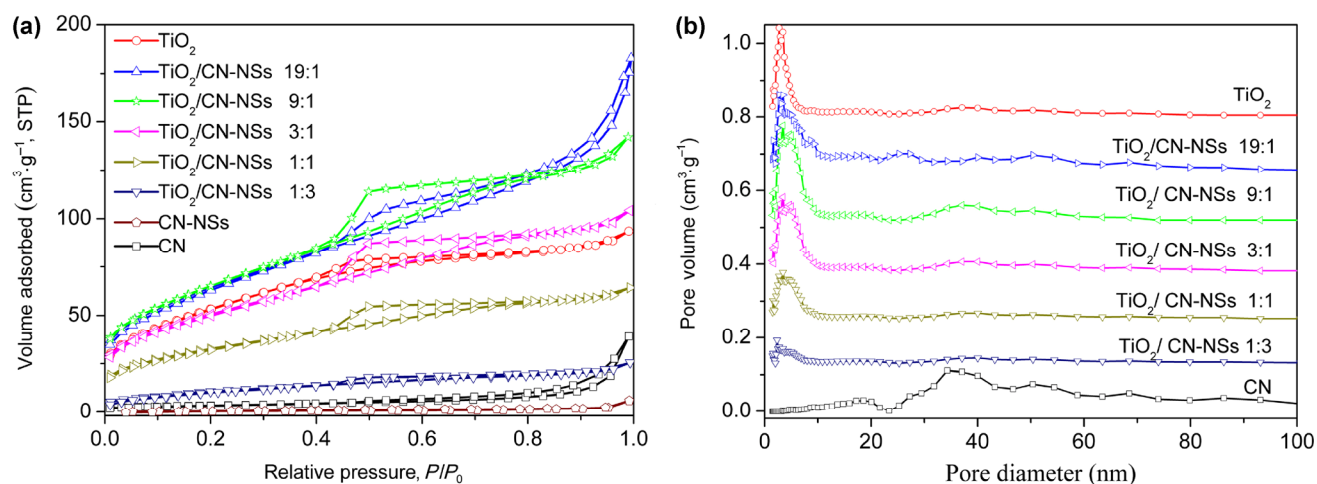


Figure 5 Nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms, and pore-size distributions of the as-prepared samples.

Table 1 Specific surface area of CN, CN-NSs, TiO₂, and TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrids with different weight ratios

Samples	CN	CN-NSs	TiO ₂	TiO ₂ /CN-NSs hybrids				
				1:3	1:1	3:1	9:1	19:1
S_{BET}^a (m ² ·g ⁻¹)	12.4	2.0	194.6	40.0	116.5	181.7	234.0	223.9

^aThe surface area values were calculated from the N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms at 77.3 K using the BET equation.

metal oxide/CN composites [5–9, 20–22]. During their interfacial assembly, the ultrathin CN-NSs were uniformly covered by ultrafine TiO₂ NPs to form strong interactions, instead of existing as isolated ultrathin layers. Therefore, the interfacial interactions between them efficiently hindered the re-stacking of the exfoliated ultrathin CN-NSs layers into a bulk structure, resulting in the significantly enlarged specific surface area.

The XPS technique was introduced to discover the electronic interactions between the CN-NSs and TiO₂ in the hybrid, in additions to the chemical states of the elements. The survey spectra demonstrate that all elements of CN and TiO₂ are present in the hybrid (Fig. S2 in the ESM). The high-resolution XPS spectra of C, N, Ti, and O in the as-obtained samples are compared in Fig. 6. In comparison to bulk CN, no obvious shifts in the binding energy of the C 1s and N 1s core electrons were observed in the CN-NSs, suggesting that the exfoliation did not alter their chemical environments (Figs. 6(a) and 6(b)). The C 1s spectra displayed three peaks at 285.0, 286.4, and

288.5 eV, which were assigned to the adventitious carbon reference for calibration, C–NH– species, and sp²-hybridized carbon (N–C=N) in the heterocycles, respectively [41, 42]. Interestingly, TiO₂ coupling caused a shift of 0.2 eV towards a higher binding energy for N–C=N (Fig. 6(a)). Such shift verified the strong electronic interaction with TiO₂, leading to a decrease in the electron intensity of the carbon atoms [43, 44]. It is well known that the interaction at the hetero-junction interface is favorable for the stability and activity of the catalysts [45]. After curve fitting, the N 1s spectra were divided into three peaks at 399.0, 400.0, and 401.1 eV, corresponding to sp²-hybridized N (C–N=C) inside triazine rings, bridging N in form of N–(C)₃, and N bonded with H (C–N–H), respectively [41, 42]. Similar to C 1s, the N 1s peaks of the hybrid shifted to a higher binding energy (Fig. 6(b)). The Ti 2p spectrum of TiO₂ displayed two distinct peaks at 458.6 and 464.3 eV with a spin-orbital doublet splitting of 5.7 eV, confirming the chemical state of +4 in TiO₂ (Fig. 6(c)) [46]. When supported on the CN-NSs, the higher locations of the Ti 2p peaks in the hybrid were

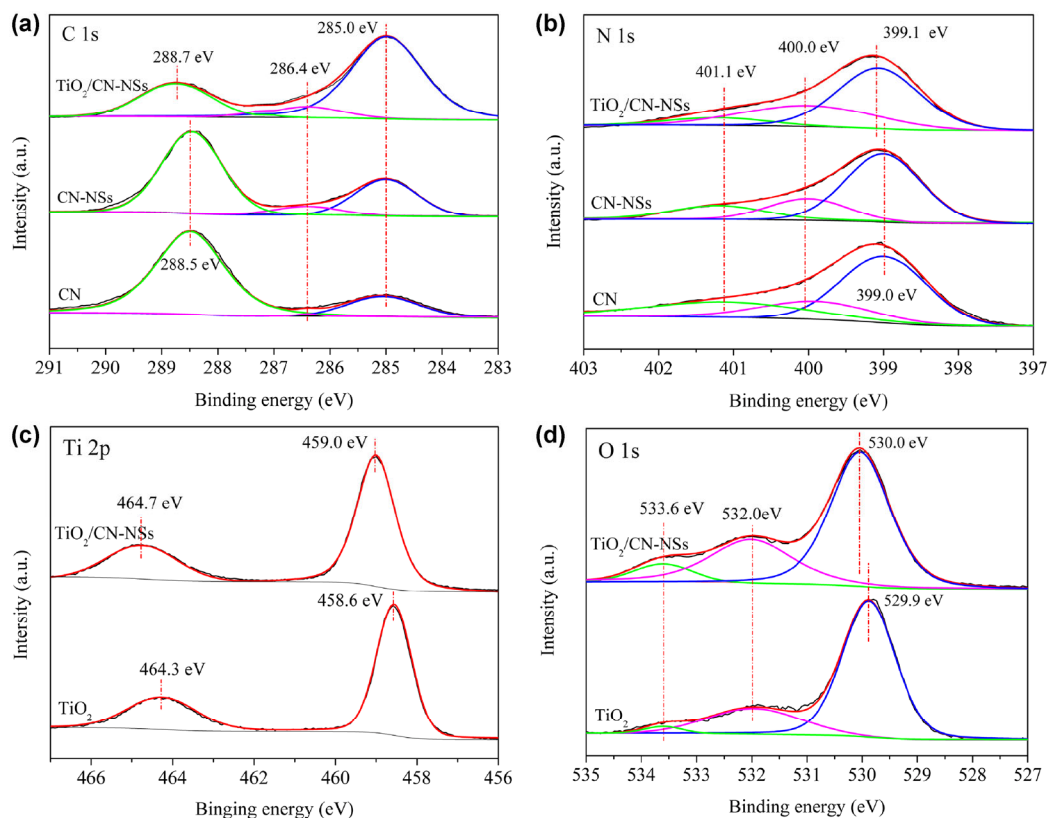


Figure 6 High-resolution XPS of (a) C 1s, (b) N 1s, (c) Ti 2p, and (d) O 1s in bulk CN, CN-NSs, TiO₂, and the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid.

also induced by the strong interfacial interactions decreasing the electron intensity of the Ti atom [47]. The absence of Ti–C and Ti–N signals indicated that there were no chemical bonds formed between the CN-NSs and TiO₂ during the assembly [21]. The high-resolution XPS of O 1s is provided in Fig. 6(d). In contrast to pure TiO₂, besides the shift of the Ti–O binding energy to 530.0 eV, the much stronger intensity of O–H at 532.0 eV, and adsorbed O₂ at 533.6 eV, implies that oxygen-containing groups were more readily bounded on the surface of the hybrid. The abundant oxygen-containing groups on the catalyst's surface may facilitate the production of ROS in the system, giving rise to the improvement of the photocatalytic efficiency [48, 49]. Based on the above characterizations, the influence of TiO₂ incorporation on the CN-NSs structure during the synthesis process is schematically illustrated in Fig. 1.

The elemental composition of the samples could not be accurately measured by XPS because the adventitious graphitic carbon was introduced to calibrate the binding energy and the size of the TiO₂ NPs was larger than the detected depth of XPS. TGA was performed to confirm the real content of CN in the hybrid. Upon heating in air, the initial weight loss of 1.7% that occurred between room temperature and 100 °C came from the evaporation of surface-bound water (Fig. S3 in the ESM). The following weight loss of 26.2%, which occurred from 100 to 550 °C, was attributed to the combustion of CN-NSs [8]. Thus, the weight proportion of CN-NSs in the hybrid was determined to be 26.7%, which is close to the theoretical value of 25%.

3.2 Optical, electrochemical, and photoelectrochemical properties

UV–vis DRS was conducted to assess the optical absorption performance of the materials. Pristine CN had an absorption edge at 455 nm (Fig. 7(a)). The bandgap energy was estimated to be 2.80 eV from the converted Tauc plot as a function of photon energy (Fig. 7(b)). Clearly, the exfoliated CN-NSs showed an obvious blue shift of ~25 nm, corresponding to a larger bandgap of 2.97 eV, due to the quantum confinement effect. In contrast to pure TiO₂, the CN-based materials exhibited a strong visible light absorption. The bandgap

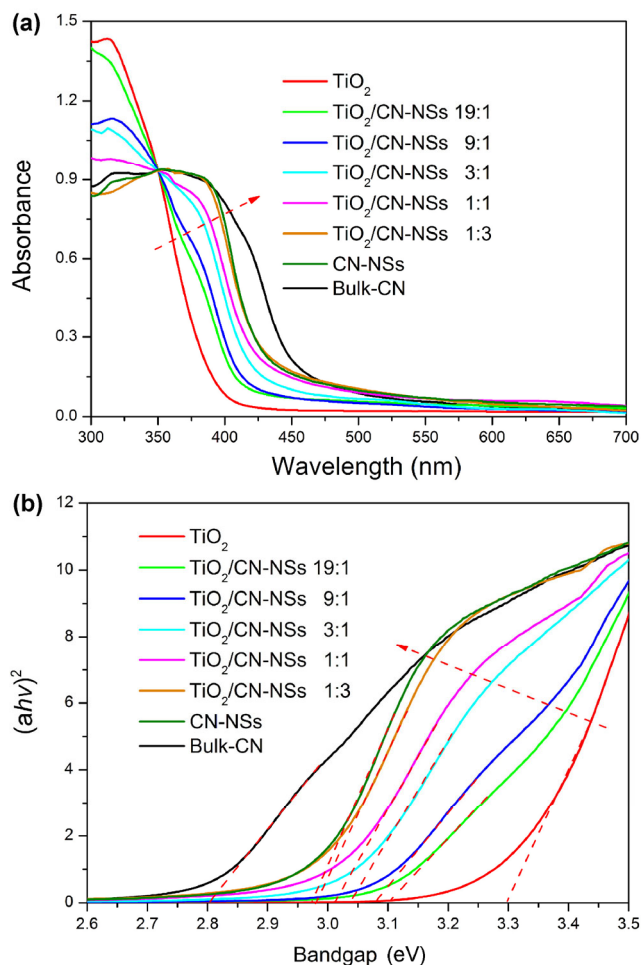


Figure 7 (a) UV–vis DRS of bulk CN, CN-NSs, TiO₂, and TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid. (b) The converted Tauc plot of $(ah\nu)^2$ versus photon energy ($h\nu$).

energy values of the hybrids fell between those of TiO₂ and the CN-NSs. This can be attributed to the interactions between them [50]. When the content of CN-NSs was increased, the absorption edge stepwise shifted to a longer wavelength, indicating that the introduction of the CN-NSs brought about a wider light absorption. In addition, the hybrid possessed stronger optical absorption intensity within the UV region than CN and the CN-NSs owing to the larger absorption coefficient of TiO₂. Thus different regions in the solar spectrum can be more efficiently absorbed by the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid, which favors photocatalysis under solar light. The influence of exfoliation and TiO₂ coupling on the optical properties of CN was studied by the PL spectra (Fig. 8). The emission band of the CN-NSs also displayed a blue shift, as compared with bulk CN [15–17]. It is noticeable that the CN-NSs

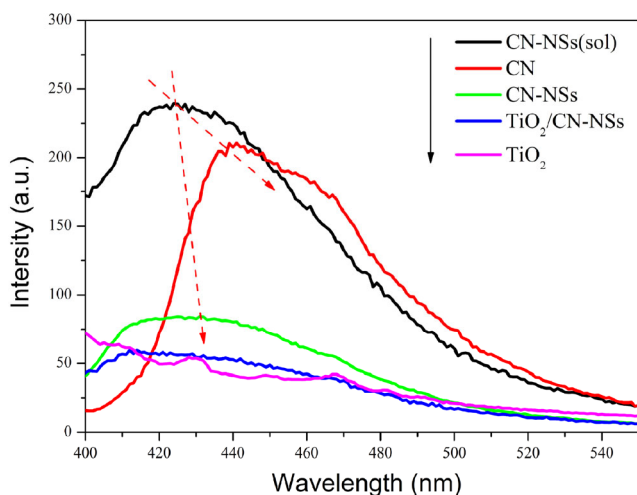


Figure 8 PL spectra of bulk CN, CN-NSs, TiO_2 , and the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrid under a 360 nm excitation. For these measurements, all samples were prepared by dispersing the powders in water to form suspensions, with the exception of the CN-NSs(sol) sample, which was measured directly using hydrosol.

hydrosol (CN-NSs(sol)) exhibited more blue shift and stronger PL emission than the CN-NSs powder. Such difference implies that the acid etching produced more surface defects and drying induced the ultrathin layers to reassemble into a bulk structure with the self-repairing of surface defects. The greatest PL quenching was achieved when TiO_2 NPs assembled on the CN-NSs layers, indicating the reduced recombination loss of photogenerated e^-h^+ pairs by the efficient charge transfer between them [51].

The improved charge carrier separation of the CN-NSs by the embedded TiO_2 NPs can be further verified by EIS and photocurrent measurements. The diameter of the semicircle at high frequencies in Fig. 9(a) represents the electron-transfer resistance (R_{et}) across the electrode/electrolyte. The Nyquist plot of the CN-NSs(sol) displayed decreased semicircles as compared to CN, indicating that a more efficient charge transfer occurred in the nanosheets than in the bulk material. A similar tendency was obtained in the photocurrent transient response (Fig. 9(b)). Compared with CN, a much stronger photocurrent signal was observed when the TIO electrode was directly coated with the CN-NSs(sol). However, both the conductivity and photocurrent response dramatically decreased in the CN-NSs powders, which again evidenced that the CN-NSs layers reassembled into a bulk structure during their drying. The lowest R_{et} in

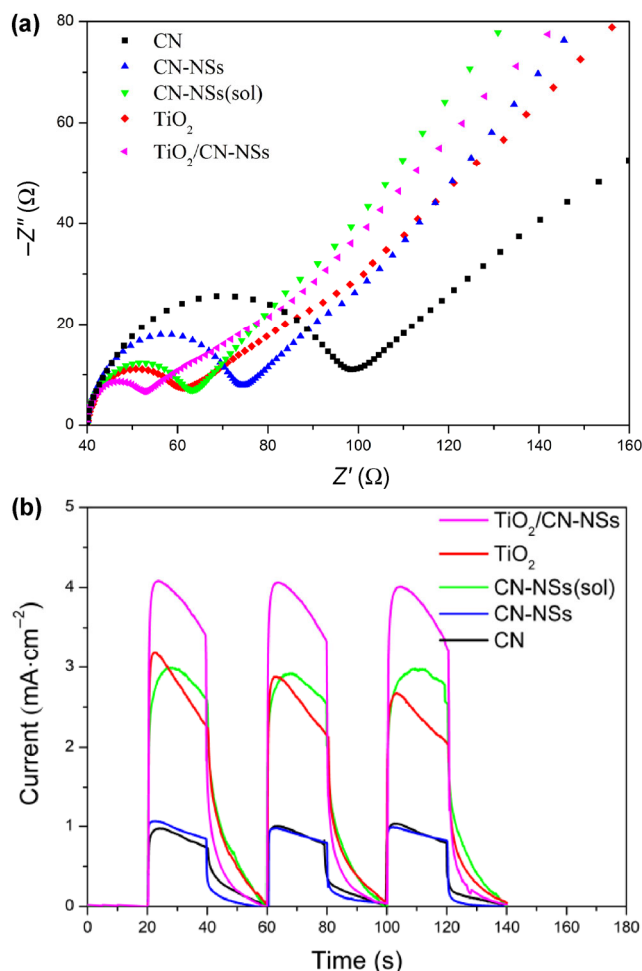


Figure 9 (a) EIS and (b) photocurrent response of bulk CN, CN-NSs, CN-NSs(sol), TiO_2 , and the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrid.

the hybrid suggests that the formation of nanojunctions at the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ interface effectively reduced the resistance of charge transport. The intensity of the photocurrent in the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrid was about 4.1 times that in CN, and 1.4 times that in TiO_2 . Such dramatic enhancement can be ascribed to the efficient separation of the photogenerated charge carriers between TiO_2 and the CN-NSs.

3.3 Photocatalytic activity and stability

Organic pollutants have widely existed in industrial processes, and have caused a series of serious environmental problems. Herein, RB dye was introduced as a target pollutant to evaluate the photocatalytic activity of the catalysts under simulated solar light irradiation. As shown in Fig. 10(a), the degradation of the RB dye was negligible in the absence of

photocatalyst, indicating that it is a relatively stable structure against direct photolysis. The adsorption capability and concentration of the residual dye molecule (c_0 in Y axis of Fig. 10(a)) were measured after the adsorption–desorption equilibrium. It is well known that a large surface area can provide more possible reactive sites for adsorbing dye molecules. In addition, the aromatic regions of the dye and catalyst are favorable for non-covalent adsorption by π – π stacking [52]. Hence, the hybrid possessed the highest adsorption capacity among all powder catalysts (Fig. S4 in the ESM). The adsorption capacity of the CN-NSs powder catalyst was not as high as that of the sol catalyst, presumably due to the re-stacking of the exfoliated layers during drying. A similar decrease in

the photocatalytic activity of the CN-NSs powder catalyst is observed in Fig. 10(a). Although the sol catalyst exhibited a high efficiency for RB degradation, its difficulty in recycling severely restricts its practical application from an economic consideration. Fortunately, the incorporation of TiO_2 NPs brings about a significant enhancement in the photocatalytic efficiency of the CN-NSs powder catalyst under full spectrum irradiation. A similar phenomenon was observed in the photocatalytic reaction under UV, or visible light, irradiation (Fig. S5 in the ESM). The photodegradation curves under the full spectrum irradiation were fitted according to the pseudo-first-order kinetic model, $\ln(c_0/c) = kt$ (Fig. 10(b)).

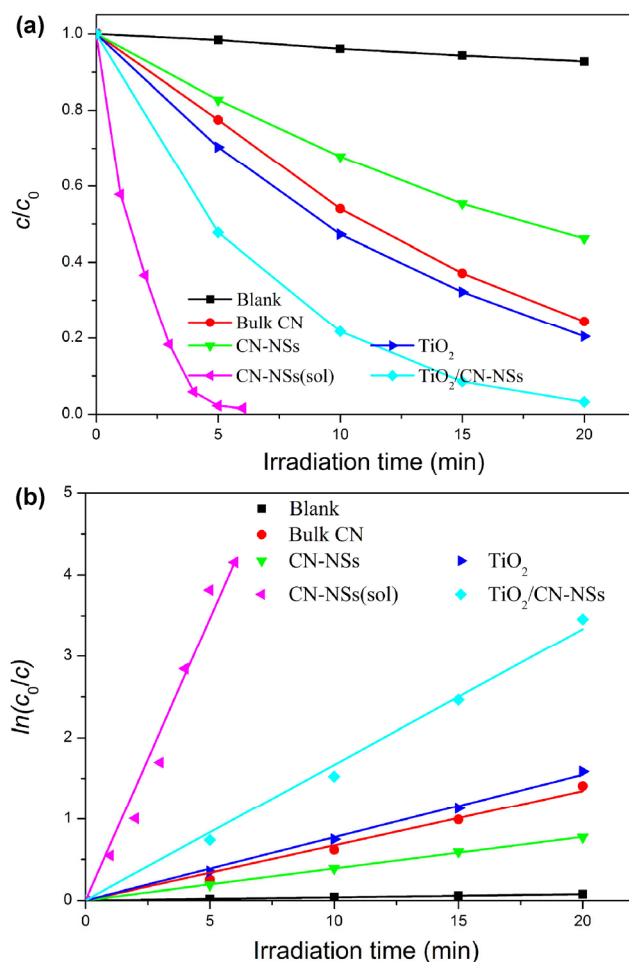


Figure 10 (a) Photocatalytic reaction curves and (b) the corresponding first-order plots of the as-prepared samples for RB degradation under simulated solar light irradiation. The CN-NSs(sol) sample was directly used by keeping the same concentration as the other catalysts.

The rate constant k values were calculated and are given in Table S1 in the ESM. The k of the $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ hybrid was 0.167 min^{-1} , which is a 2.5 and 2.2 folds enhancement over CN and TiO_2 , respectively. In the presence of TiO_2 , the interaction with the CN layers formed at the interface generated sufficient nanojunctions to hinder the re-stacking of the 2D nanosheets. Thus, the enlarged surface area of the as-obtained hybrid not only allowed access for the dye molecules to the surface, but it also promoted the transfer of the surface carriers across the interface. Combined with the above optical and photoelectrochemical analysis, it can be deduced that the enhancement in photocatalytic performance can be attributed to the enlarged surface area by the well-contacted interface, and the improved charge separation by the well-matched band structure.

Photocatalytic water splitting has been extensively investigated as a promising approach for converting intermittent solar energy to clean and renewable hydrogen fuels. The H_2 production efficiency was evaluated using the Pt-loading samples of CN, CN-NSs(sol), CN-NSs, TiO_2 , and $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CN-NSs}$ (Fig. 11(a)). The loading of Pt NPs on TiO_2 displayed a H_2 production rate of $376.3 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, which is a value close to that of CN ($327.7 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), under full spectrum irradiation. The H_2 production activity obviously increased in the exfoliated CN-NSs(sol) system (i.e. loading Pt NPs on the hydrosol materials, and then drying to powders), while it seriously deteriorated in the case of directly loading Pt on the dried powders. The great difference also suggests that the incorporation

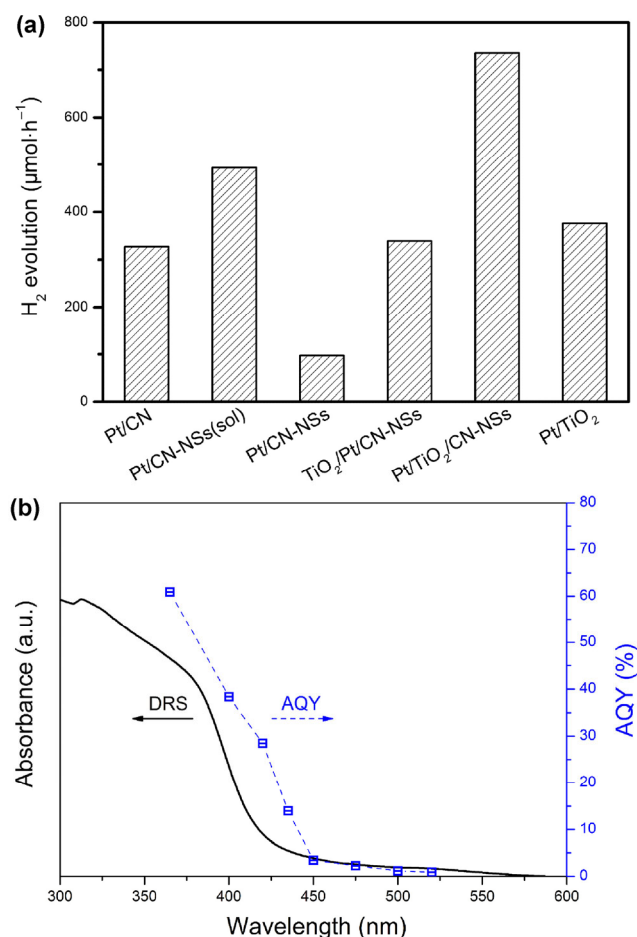


Figure 11 (a) Photocatalytic H₂ production rate for CN, CN-NSs(sol), CN-NSs, TiO₂, and TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrids under full spectrum irradiation. (b) Wavelength-dependent AQY of H₂ production by the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid using the corresponding band-pass filters of $\lambda \pm 15$ nm. The UV-vis DRS is overlapped for comparison. Experimental conditions: a 100 mL suspension containing 50 mg of catalyst (0.5 wt.% Pt) and 50 mM AA.

of Pt NPs had some influence on the restriction of interlayer stacking. The TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid exhibited the highest H₂ production rate of 735.8 μmol·h⁻¹ per 50 mg catalyst. The efficiency was much higher than the reported rate by GCN/NT NFs (8,931.3 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹) under simulated solar light [20]. The tendency of the wavelength-dependent AQY curve of the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid was similar to its UV-vis DRS (Fig. 11(b)). The hybrid had a high quantum yield of 60.9% at 365 ± 15 nm. Especially under irradiation with visible light at 400 ± 15 nm, the AQY was calculated to be as high as 38.4%. The main reason for such significant improvement may come from the sufficient amount of TiO₂/CN-NSs nanojunctions,

which created more electrons transfer channels for charge separation. Further evidence is presented in the controlled experiments regarding the Pt-free photocatalysis, and the location of the Pt loading. Without Pt as co-catalyst, single-component systems such as CN and TiO₂ exhibited extremely low H₂ evolution rates [53]. Interestingly, the hybrid displayed a higher degree of enhancement in comparison to the changes in the Pt loading system (Fig. S6 in the ESM). When the Pt NPs were loaded onto the CN-NSs before coupling with TiO₂, the H₂ production rate become much lower, which indicated that the incorporation of Pt blocked the electron transfer channels between TiO₂ and CN-NSs. Moreover, the influence of the loading order of Pt NPs implies that the active sites for H₂ production were on the TiO₂ NPs instead of the CN-NSs. That is to say, the H₂ molecules were most likely to be produced by the electrons on the conduction band (CB) of the TiO₂ NPs that were directly generated within TiO₂, or transferred from the CB of CN-NSs.

Since the interaction at TiO₂/CN-NSs interface contributes a lot to the improved photocatalytic performance, the efficiency may be dependent on the incorporation ratio of TiO₂ to CN-NSs. The photoactivity of the hybrid increases with the TiO₂ content at first and then decreases when the weight ratio of TiO₂ to CN-NSs is higher than 3:1 (Fig. S7 in the ESM). The consistent results are obtained from both RB degradation and H₂ production. Based on the above analysis, the hybrid at the ratio of 9:1 possesses the largest surface area, while the pristine CN can harness the photons in the widest light region. However, the best photocatalytic performance is achieved in the hybrid with a weight ratio of TiO₂ to CN-NSs as 3:1. This suggests that an appropriate balance between absorbing enough photons for charge generation and producing sufficient nanojunctions for charge separation is reached at this optimal ratio.

Besides the activity, the stability of the photocatalysts is crucial for composite structure because of the possible leakage of one component from another. Figure 12 displays the cyclic activity of TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid photocatalyst within several consecutive runs. There is no significant loss in photocatalytic activity after each cycle, suggesting that the strong interfacial

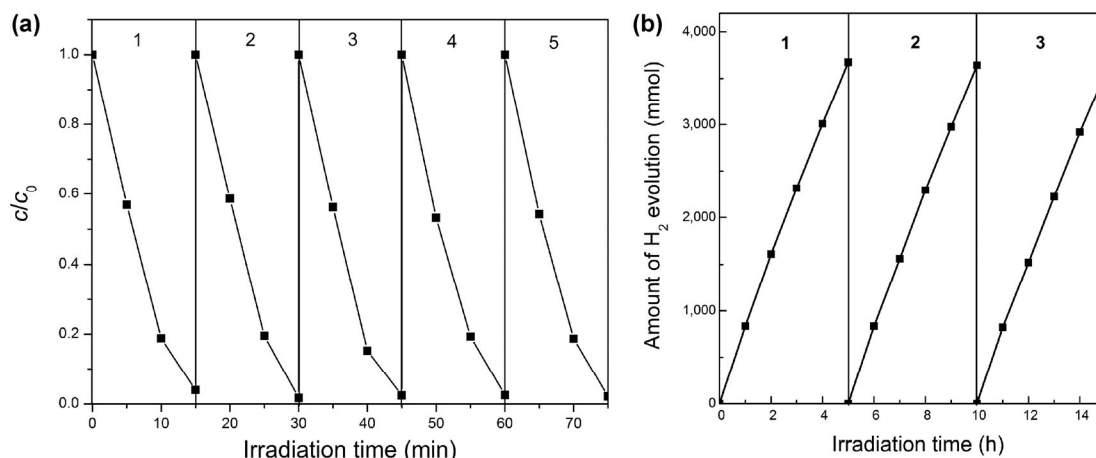


Figure 12 (a) Cycle photocatalytic behaviors towards RB degradation, and H_2 production using the $TiO_2/CN-NSs$ hybrid under full spectrum irradiation.

interaction between TiO_2 and CN-NSs benefits the stable heterostructure. As further evidence, the analysis of XRD, FTIR, and TEM of the fresh and used hybrid photocatalyst are compared in Figs. S8–S10 in the ESM. No obvious difference in absorption bands demonstrates the stable chemical structure throughout the whole reaction.

3.4 Photocatalytic mechanism of $TiO_2/CN-NSs$ heterostructure

A lively discussion on the synergetic effect between CN and TiO_2 has appeared in the literature. For instance, several groups reported a Z-scheme mechanism under UV light. In their system, the photoinduced e^- transferred from the CB of TiO_2 to the valence band (VB) of CN, while the e^- and h^+ were kept in the CB of CN, and VB of TiO_2 , respectively [8, 9, 54]. On the other hand, there are some reports that illustrate a different charge transport pathway, i.e. the photoinduced e^- transferring from CN(CB) to TiO_2 (CB), and the h^+ transferring from TiO_2 (VB) to CN(VB) [10, 20, 22]. To reveal the photocatalytic mechanism of the $TiO_2/CN-NSs$ hybrid from this synthetic system, trapping experiments were conducted by adding individual scavengers to the photocatalytic reaction. The scavengers used were t-BuOH for $\cdot OH$, BQ for O_2^- , and EDTA-2Na for h^+ (Fig. 13). The degradation rate decreased slightly with the addition of t-BuOH, revealing the least contribution of $\cdot OH$ in the $TiO_2/CN-NSs$ hybrid. The addition of EDTA-2Na caused

an obvious interference with the RB degradation. Moreover, the photocatalytic reaction was remarkably inhibited in the absence of BQ. From this it can be concluded that h^+ and O_2^- were the main active species, with an order of $O_2^- > h^+$, during the photodegradation process. Generally, the O_2^- species originated from the reduction of the dissolved O_2 by the photoinduced e^- [55]. The $\cdot OH$ radicals were produced by the oxidation of adsorbed OH^- . Because CN(VB) had a more negative potential than $\cdot OH/OH^-$, only the photogenerated h^+ in TiO_2 (VB) were capable of oxidizing the adsorbed OH^- into $\cdot OH$, according to their potential locations. Therefore, the identification of weak contributions of $\cdot OH$ radicals explains the location of holes on CN(VB).

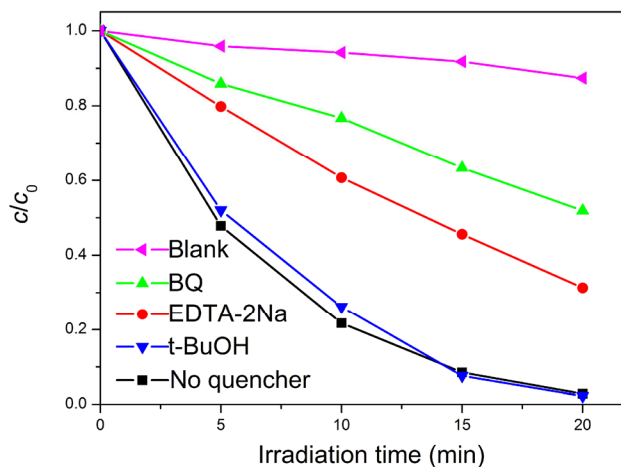


Figure 13 Trapping test of the photogenerated active species in the $TiO_2/CN-NSs$ hybrid.

For comparison, the results of the trapping experiments over CN and TiO₂ catalysts were presented in Fig. S11 in the ESM. The O₂^{•-} generated by CN had a major contribution toward the degradation of RB, whereas the h⁺ occurring in the TiO₂ system was more responsible than O₂^{•-} and [•]OH for the reaction. The difference of the main active species between CN and TiO₂ may arise from the much weaker oxidation ability of CN(VB), in comparison with TiO₂(VB) [21]. It is noted that the photocatalytic efficiency of CN displayed a great improvement with the addition of EDTA-2Na, suggesting that the capture of h⁺ reduced the recombination loss of the photoinduced e⁻. Although the content of TiO₂ (73.3% from TGA result) was dominant in the hybrid, the contributions of the active species are inconsistent with pure TiO₂. The lesser contributions of h⁺ and [•]OH in the hybrid photocatalyst also suggest the immigration of h⁺ from TiO₂(VB) to the CN-NSs(VB) at the junctions. Combined with the results of the Pt location for H₂ production, it is convincing to propose the following charge transfer pathway in the hybrid system (Fig. 14). Both the CN-NSs and TiO₂ can absorb the simulated solar light to produce charge carriers. Owing to the matched band structure, the photogenerated e⁻ of CN-NSs(CB) readily transferred to the TiO₂(CB), while the h⁺ migrated from the TiO₂(VB) to the CN-NSs(VB). Thus the recombination of the photogenerated e⁻-h⁺ pairs was sufficiently reduced, leaving more e⁻ in the TiO₂(CB) to react with the dissolved O₂, and more h⁺ in the CN-NSs(VB) to directly oxidize the dye molecules. Apparently, the RB degradation depends more on the former reaction because of the relative

weak oxidization ability of CN-NSs(VB). In the case of water splitting, the transferred e⁻ was collected by the Pt NPs on the TiO₂ to produce H₂ molecules.

4 Conclusions

In summary, we have developed a direct interfacial assembly strategy for the construction of TiO₂ heterostructures modified with CN-NSs. First, TiO₂ NPs of a size of 4–8 nm were uniformly dispersed on the surface of the CN-NSs. In contrast to the serious re-stacking in the single-component CN-NSs system, the strong interaction with TiO₂ effectively hindered the re-stacking of the 2D nanosheets when the samples were dried to powders for the heterogeneous photocatalysis. Consequently, and as far as we know, among the reported metal oxide/CN composites, the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid with a controlled ratio possesses the highest specific surface area with a value of 234.0 m²·g⁻¹. The evaluation of the photocatalytic activity indicates that the composite with the optimal ratio of TiO₂ to CN-NSs of 3:1 showed a remarkably enhanced performance due to the enlarged surface area and improved charge separation. The rate constant *k* for the RB degradation was calculated to be 0.167 min⁻¹, which is a 2.5 and 2.2 folds enhancement over CN and TiO₂, respectively. The H₂ production rate was as high as 735.8 μmol·h⁻¹ per 50 mg catalyst. The hybrid yielded an impressive AQY value of 38.4% at 400 ± 15 nm. The composite structure displayed a good stability with no obvious deactivation during the cyclic photocatalytic reactions. Furthermore, a possible mechanism of the TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid from this

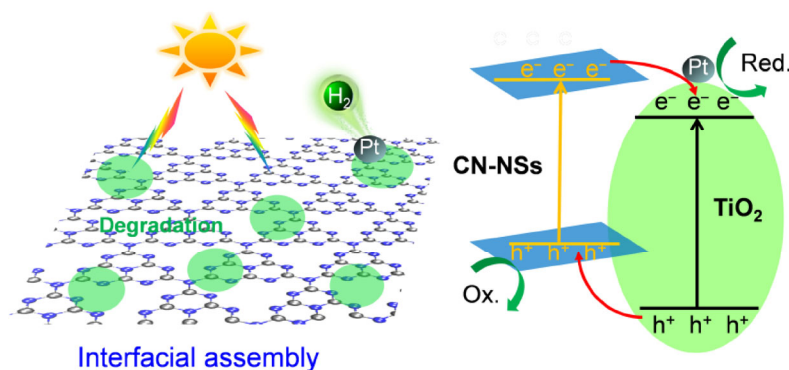


Figure 14 The structure and possible photocatalytic mechanism of a TiO₂/CN-NSs hybrid as a bifunctional catalyst for dye degradation and H₂ production.

synthetic system was proposed based on the trapping test and Pt loading order. The h^+ and O_2^- were the main active species, with an order of $O_2^- > h^+$, for the RB degradation. The production of H_2 molecules most likely occurred on the surface of TiO_2 . Overall, this work not only provides a facile approach for constructing semiconductor/CN-NSs heterostructures with a well-contacted interface, but it also highlights the superiority of CN-NSs as a promising substrate for diverse applications.

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Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material (XRD patterns, XPS survey spectra, TGA curve, adsorption capacity comparison, photocatalytic activity for TiO_2 /CN-NSs hybrid with different weight ratio, FTIR spectra of the cycled photocatalyst, trapping test, and a list of degradation rate constants) is available in the online version of this article at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12274-017-1453-2>.

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