Solid-state Synthesis of Composite Structures of Various Cu(I)-based Oxides with $g-C_3N_4$ for Harvesting Solar Energy

Dilshad Masih, Bushra Luzon, Yuanyu Ma, and Sohrab Rohani*

Department of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering, University of Western Ontario, London, ON, Canada

Corresponding author

Sohrab Rohani, Department of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering, University of Western Ontario, London, ON, Canada, Tel: +1 (519) 661-4116; E-mail: srohani@uwo.ca

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Abstract

Development of novel materials for an efficient harvesting of solar energy towards applications in environment and energy sectors is an important area of research. A metal-free polymeric material, g- C_3N_4 is modified with three Cu(I)-based oxides namely Cu_2O , $CuVO_3$, and Cu_3VO_4 to extend the absorption of the solar spectrum. The composite structures are synthesized by a facile one-step solid-state reaction under inter atmosphere and atmospheric pressure. The amounts of loadings of Cu(I)-based oxides onto g- C_3N_4 is varied from 2 wt.% to 10 wt.%. Powder XRD patterns showed that the graphitic structure of carbon nitride is maintained upon the construction of hybrid structures with Cu(I) oxides. SEM images show the textural transformation of the bulk structure of g- C_3N_4 into nanosheets upon thermal retreatment. FT-IR spectra further confirmed the stability of g- C_3N_4 observed in the XRD patterns. In comparison with the pristine g- C_3N_4 the DR-UV-Vis spectra of the modified solid powders demonstrated a clear red shift in the absorption towards higher wavelength and their better prospects in harvesting solar energy. Tauc plots derived from the DR-UV-Vis spectra showed a narrowing of the direct-allowed band gap upon modifications with Cu(I)-based oxides. The composites showed moderate activity in photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B under irradiation from a solar simulator.

Keywords: Cu(I)-based Oxides, g-C₃N₄, Composites, Visibleactive, Photocatalysis

Introduction

Photocatalysis is an important area of research to combat with the environmental challenges and for the production of renewable energy and chemicals. A polymeric metal-free semiconductor, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) has quickly turn out to be an important material in photocatalysis [1-3]. Research on the development of photocatalysts materials, mainly TiO, began with the findings of Fujishima and Honda in 1972 [4]. Lately, polymeric semiconductor g-C₂N₄ is getting increased attention as a photocatalyst material. Since the first reports in 2009, this metal-free semiconductor, g-C₃N₄ has been attracting enormous attention [5]. The bulk, pale yellow color g-C₃N₄ is a p-type semiconductor with band gap size of ~2.7 eV. For the highly desired photocatalytic water splitting and H, generation reaction, the valence and conduction band gap positions of g-C₂N₄ sandwich both oxygen and hydrogen evolution potentials, making it an important material for further investigations. However, separation of photoexcited electron-hole pairs is an intrinsic problem with $g-C_3N_4$ and an active area of research on its modifications [1,2]. Furthermore, the position for absorption of visible light is just on the borderline with UV light. Therefore, the coupling of g-C₃N₄ with other suitable semiconductors is important for efficient separation of electron-hole pairs and for harvesting a wider spectrum of solar energy [1,2].

Doping, dye-sensitization, and fabrication of heterostructures are the main approaches for extending absorption and enhancing the separation of electron-hole pairs [3]. Moreover, bandgap engineering of g-C₃N₄ with suitable plasmonic materials also helps in photocatalysis. Here in this study, we are investigating on g-C₃N₄ combinations with Cu(I)-based oxides for the fabrication of efficient and stable photocatalyst systems. Cu(I)-based materials have important applications in catalysis and in harvesting solar energy [6,7]. The simplest Cu(I) oxide, Cu₂O recently attracted attention due to its non-toxic nature, low-cost, abundance and simple fabrication process [8]. However, Cu(I) oxidation state is prone to both oxidation and reduction under the applied conditions. Therefore, various approaches have been applied to preserve the Cu(I) state. Synthesis of multimetal oxides of Cu(I) is one of the important strategies in gaining stability of the species [9,10]. Modifications of g-C₃N₄ with Cu₂O have been reported for photocatalytic applications [11-15]. Besides, a core-shell structure of Cu₂O and g-C₃N₄ is active as a sensor material [16]. Some ternary composites including Cu₂O and g-C₃N₄ have also been investigated [17-20]. Mainly, fabrications of Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions were carried out in a number of steps, via a chemical reduction of Cu(II) on g-C₃N₄.

Stability of Cu(I) oxidation state under the working conditions is a serious issue, as Cu(I) oxide is easily reduced to Cu(0) metal or get oxidized to Cu(II) oxide, and all the three oxidation state (0, I, II) may co-exist in a ternary composite; Cu-Cu₂O-CuO [19]. In order

to overcome the instability of cuprous oxide, it has been mixed with other metal oxides to increase the strength of the Cu-O bond [7,10]. Among all the Cu(I)-based multimetal oxides with Group-V metals, especially, novel properties of CuVO3 makes it a potential semiconductor in solar cell applications [10]. Furthermore, CuVO, has high-intensity resonant bands in the visible range, with a broad absorption edge compared to the other two materials. Solid-state synthesis of semiconducting compounds of Cu(I) and Group-V oxides; CuVO₃, CuNbO₃, and Cu₅Ta₁₁O₃₀ were reported earlier [10]. The temperature for the synthesis of CuVO₃ is the lowest (550 °C) and suitable for its in-situ synthesis and fabrication of heterojunction with g-C₃N₄ [10,21,22]. On the other hand, high-temperature requirements for the synthesis of CuNbO₃ and Cu₅Ta₁₁O₃₀ at 900 °C and 1100 °C, respectively, are unsuitable for their in-situ growth on g-C₃N₄ [10]. Another semiconductor of Cu(I) vanadate with an increased ratio of copper, Cu₃VO₄ is synthesized at around 550 °C, making it suitable for fabrication of heterojunction with g-C₃N₄ [23,24]. V_2O_5 is also hybridized with g- C_3N_4 for interesting visible light driven photocatalytic properties [25]. However, no reports exist on the g-C₃N₄ modifications with Cu(I)-based multimetal oxides with vanadium (CuVO₃, and Cu₃VO₄). In an effort to make visible-light active photocatalyst systems, we investigated on a facile one-step solid-state fabrication of g-C₃N₄ composites with various Cu(I)-based oxides; Cu₂O, CuVO₃, and Cu₃VO₄.

Materials and Methods

Reagent grade melamine ($C_3H_6N_6$; 99%, Aldrich), Cu_2O (98%; Aldrich), and V_2O_5 (99.2%; Alfa Aesar) as-received from the manufacturers are used for the synthesis of composite photocatalyst materials. An aqueous phase of rhodamine B (99%; Acros) is used as a model organic pollutant for the photocatalytic degradation studies.

Synthesis of materials

Pure phase bulk g-C $_3$ N $_4$ is synthesized from thermal treatment of melamine powder under static air in an alumina crucible with a cover. Solid-state reactions were carried out at different temperatures and an optimized reaction condition is, 550 °C for 4 h. Yellow powder product, g-C $_3$ N $_4$ is received upon thermal treatment of melamine. Thermal etching of bulk g-C $_3$ N $_4$ into its nanosheet structure is carried out under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h for comparing with hybrid structures of Cu(I)-based oxide(s) and g-C $_3$ N $_4$.

For the synthesis of composite materials, as-prepared bulk g- C_3N_4 is thoroughly mixed with an appropriate amount of Cu(I)-based semiconductor precursor(s). Thus prepared physical mixture is taken in an alumina boat and closed in a reactor connected with argon gas. The reactor system is placed in the muffle furnace and heated to the required temperature under inert atmosphere. Thermal treatment of bulk g- C_3N_4 has been reported for its conversion into nanosheets. Therefore, as a control, bulk g- C_3N_4 in the absence of Cu(I)-based oxides is also heated under same inert conditions.

(1) $\text{Cu}_2\text{O/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$: For the solid-state synthesis of a heterojunction of simple Cu(I) oxide, Cu_2O and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, the precursors are homogenized in a mortar with a pestle. A red-brown commercial sample of Cu_2O is mixed well with an as-prepared yellow sample of bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The concentration of Cu_2O loaded onto $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is varied from 2 wt.% to 10 wt.%. A mixture of precursors is taken in an alumina boat and thermally treated under flowing Ar to construct a heterojunction between Cu_2O and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The physical mixture is heated in a muffle furnace to the reaction temperature ranging from

200 °C to 550 °C for 2 h using a ramping rate of 4 °C min⁻¹. By the end of the solid-state reaction, the reactor is naturally cooled yet under flowing Ar gas. Once the temperature is normalized to room temperature the product is taken out and ground to a fine powder for further use.

(2) $\text{CuVO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$: Solid-state synthesis of pure phase CuVO_3 from a 1:1 molar mixture of Cu_2O and V_2O_5 is carried out following a report study [10]. For the construction of a heterojunction of CuVO_3 and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, the precursors are homogenized in a mortar with a pestle. Required molar concentrations of a red-brown sample of Cu_2O and a yellow sample of V_2O_5 are mixed well with an as-prepared yellow sample of bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. For the composite, $\text{CuVO}_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, a physical mixture of precursors is taken in an alumina boat and thermally treated under flowing Ar gas. All the samples with various concentrations of 2 wt.% to 10 wt.%. CuVO_3 loaded onto $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ are heated in a muffle at 550 °C for 2 h using a ramping rate of 4 °C min⁻¹. The flow of Ar gas is continued during natural cooling of the reactor. By the end, the product is taken out and ground to a fine powder for further use.

(3) $\mathrm{Cu_3VO_4/g\text{-}C_3N_4}$: Solid-state synthesis of pure phase $\mathrm{Cu_3VO_4}$ from a 3:1 molar mixture of $\mathrm{Cu_2O}$ and $\mathrm{V_2O_5}$ is carried out following a report study [24]. For the construction of a heterojunction of $\mathrm{Cu_3VO_4}$ and $\mathrm{g\text{-}C_3N_4}$, the precursors are homogenized in a mortar with a pestle. Required molar concentrations of a red-brown sample of $\mathrm{Cu_2O}$ and a yellow sample of $\mathrm{V_2O_5}$ are mixed well with an as-prepared yellow sample of bulk $\mathrm{g\text{-}C_3N_4}$. For the composite, $\mathrm{Cu_3VO_4/g\text{-}C_3N_4}$, a physical mixture of precursors is taken in an alumina boat and thermally treated under flowing Ar gas. All the samples with various concentrations of 2 wt.% to 10 wt.%. $\mathrm{Cu_3VO_4}$ loaded onto $\mathrm{g\text{-}C_3N_4}$ are heated in a muffle at 550 °C for 2 h using a ramping rate of 4 °C min⁻¹. The flow of Ar gas is continued during natural cooling of the reactor. By the end, the product is taken out and ground to a fine powder for further use.

Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns for powder samples are recorded on a Rigaku diffractometer, model MiniFlex operating at 40 kV and 50 mA. XRD patterns in the 2-theta range of 5-80 degree are recorded using Cu Kα radiation. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analyses g-C₃N₄ and composite samples are performed to study the changes in the textural properties. Powder samples are spread on a carbon tape pasted onto an aluminum alloy mounts and observed under the microscope. Images are recorded on a highperformance Hitachi S-3400N microscope. Fourier transformed infrared (FT-IR) spectra are measured on a Bruker spectrometer, model Vector 22. IR spectra of powder samples are measured with attenuated total reflectance (ATR) mode. Optical spectra are recorded on a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, model UV-3600) with a diffuse reflectance (DR) attachment. Powder material is pressed in a sample holder and DR-UV-Vis spectra are recorded in the range of 220-800 nm.

Photocatalytic Testing

Photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B is examined in a glass beaker with a solar simulator light shining from the top. 100 mg of catalyst powder is suspended in water and mixed with an adequate concentration of rhodamine B. Total volume of aqueous solution is 100 ml and it is stirred with a bar magnet at 300 rpm under dark for 30 min. A small aliquot of the mixture is taken out to assess the

dye sorption on solid powder. Then the reaction mixture is exposed to light from the solar simulator, adjusted to 1 sun illumination. At regular intervals, samples are drawn from the reaction mixture to examine the photodegradation of organic dye. The reaction mixtures are centrifuged for separating solid and liquid phases. The amount of rhodamine B in the aqueous phase is optically analyzed on a Cary UV-Vis spectrophotometer, model 100 Bio.

Results and Discussion Physicochemical Properties

The graphitic g-C₃N₄ structure is maintained in all the pure and modified samples as indicated by diffraction patterns and supported with FT-IR and DR-UV-Vis spectra. The bulk g-C₂N₄ is synthesized from the solid-state conversion of melamine at 550 °C (Figure 1a). Two characteristics diffraction peaks (100) and (002) for the pure g-C₂N₄ appeared around 2-theta position of 13.10 and 27.60 (Figure 1). The main XRD peak at 27.60 is due to graphite-like stacking of the C₃N₄ layers [26]. Before analyzing the physicochemical properties of g-C₃N₄ modified with Cu(I)-based oxides it is important to understand any changes in the lonely g-C₃N₄ under the reaction conditions. XRD patterns and FT-IR spectra of bulk g-C₂N₄ and after its thermal treatment under Ar flow at 550 °C for 2 h are presented in Figure 1. The main (002) diffraction peak of the bulk g-C₂N₄ decreased more than 50% upon thermal re-treatment indicating the conversion of bulk into more like nanosheet structure. FT-IR spectra also demonstrated clear changes in the intensity upon transformation of bulk g-C₂N₄ into nanosheets. In contrast to a decreased intensity of diffraction peaks, an enhancement in the all the vibrational stretching is observed for the nanosheet structure of g-C₃N₄. These changes in the physicochemical properties of upon conversion of bulk g-C₃N₄ into nanosheets are a reference point when describing results of the composite materials.

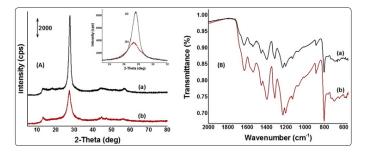


Figure 1: (A) XRD patterns, and (B) FT-IR spectra of bulk g-C₃N₄ (a) and after its thermal treatment under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h for conversion into nanosheets (b).

Representative SEM images of bulk g-C₃N₄ and after its thermal retreatment for textural conversion into nanosheets are shown in Figure 2. SEM image of bulk g-C₃N₄ exhibited irregular and intergrown large particles (Figure 2A). Thermal treatment of bulk g-C₃N₄ has been reported for its textural conversion into nanosheet structure [27],[28]. Figure 2B depicts an SEM image of thermally treated bulk g-C₃N₄, and after its conversion into the flake-like structure. These visual changes observed in the SEM images further confirmed the thermal transformation of the bulk structure into nanosheets as examined in the XRD and FT-IR investigations.

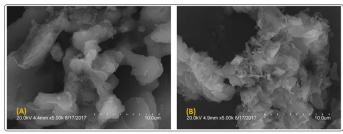


Figure 2: SEM images of (A) bulk g-C₃N₄, and (B) after its thermal treatment under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h for conversion into nanosheets.

XRD patterns of pristine g-C₃N₄ with 0% to 10% Cu+Cu₅O mixtures thermally treated under inert conditions are shown in Figure 3. As demonstrated by the XRD patterns in Figure 3A, the graphitic structure is maintained under the reaction conditions. For a low amount (2% Cu+Cu₂O) mixture with g-C₃N₄, no visible diffraction peaks are seen for the metal/metal oxide(s). With an increased loading (5% Cu+Cu,O), small diffraction peak features appeared beyond 40 degrees. Further enhanced diffraction peaks are noticed in the 10% Cu₂O and the g-C₃N₄ mixture heated under Ar flow. Cu(I) state is unstable and prone to various redox behaviors and co-existence of multiple states under the applied reaction conditions. Inert conditions of this solid-state reaction conditions led to a partial reduction of Cu₂O to metallic Cu as seen in the XRD patterns. Reduction of Cu(I) to metallic copper, Cu(0) has been reported in the earlier studies on the construction of heterojunctions [13,20]. In the case of the Cu₂O/g-C₂N₄ composite structure containing metal oxide as a major component, essentially, no crystalline graphitic carbon nitride signature peaks are seen in the XRD patterns [15]. In the previous studies, hybrid structures of Cu₂O with g-C₃N₄ were prepared mainly via a chemical reduction process of Cu(II) precursor [11-13,20,29]. Furthermore, various ternary composites have been investigated to gain enhanced stability of the catalyst material, Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄, and separation of photoexcited electron-hole pairs [17,30].

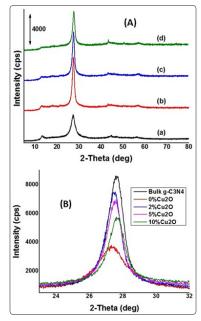


Figure 3: (A) XRD patterns and (B) main (002) diffraction peak of pure g-C₃N₄ (a), and its mixture with 2% Cu₂O (b), 5% Cu₂O (c), and 10% Cu₂O thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

In the absence of Cu₂O, bulk g-C₃N₄ clearly showed a transformation into the nanosheet structure as observed from a drastic decrease in the (002) peak intensity (Figure 3B). This decrease of the main peak intensity may come from the decreased stacking of sheets as noted in the case of thermal treatment of pure g-C₃N₄. In addition, a decrease in the main peak intensity is noted in the hybridized materials. For all the various mixtures of bulk g-C₃N₄ and Cu₂O treated under an inert atmosphere, the decrease in (002) peak intensity is not pronounced as it is observed for the pure g-C₃N₄ the (Figure 3B). The main peak intensity of main diffraction peak of g-C₃N₄ is decreasing with increased loading of CuVO, but it is never lower than the intensity level achieved in the absence of the multimetal oxide whereupon the bulk structure is converted into nanosheets. Hence, the presence of metal oxide decreases the conversion of bulk g-C₃N₄ into nanosheets. A sequential decrease in the intensity of (002) diffraction peak of g-C₂N₄ upon increasing the Cu+Cu₂O loading from 2% to 10% may originate for the composite structures with a limited delamination of graphitic sheets. A sequential decrease in the peak intensity of graphitic structure has been recorded with an increased loading of Cu₂O+Cu [13,20]. In addition to the reaction conditions for the formation of Cu₂O, the concentration of its precursor was found important in controlling oxidation state of copper.

Structural studies of g-C₃N₄ modified with 0% to 10% CuVO₃ prepared from thermal treatment of 1:1 mixture of Cu₂O:V₂O₅ under inert conditions are shown in Figure 4.

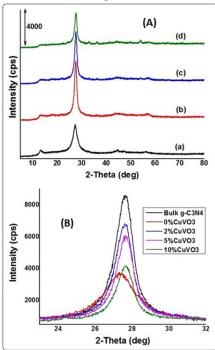


Figure 4: (A) XRD patterns and (B) main (002) diffraction peak of pure g-C₃N₄ (a), and its mixture with various amounts of Cu₂O+V₂O₅ (1:1) corresponding to; 2% CuVO₃ (b), 5% CuVO₃ (c), and 10% CuVO₃ (d) thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

Similar to the heat treatment of the g-C₃N₄ mixtures with plain Cu₂O, XRD patterns showed that the graphitic structure is maintained during the formation of composites with multimetal oxide (CuVO₃) under Ar flow (Figure 4A). For g-C₃N₄ hybridized with 2% CuVO₃, diffraction peaks from the multimetal oxide are hardly visible in the pattern. Upon increasing the loading to 5%, some specific diffraction

peaks for CuVO₃ appeared in the hybrid material, mainly in between 30–40 degrees. So, both g-C₃N₄ and CuVO₃ are keeping their structures upon the construction of heterojunction. Next, a further increase in the loading of CuVO₃ to 10% demonstrated clear peaks in the composite material. Interestingly, no XRD peaks from the reduction to metallic Cu are seen for the 1:1 mixture of Cu₂O:V₂O₅ and g-C₂N₄ heated under an inert atmosphere. On the other hand, clear diffraction peaks of metallic Cu are observed in the case of plain Cu₂O heated in the presence of g-C₃N₄, under Ar flow (Figure 3A). Hence, Cu₂O preferentially reacted with V₂O₅ towards the formation of CuVO₃ and remained stable as Cu(I) in the multimetal oxide. While a partial reduction of Cu(I) oxidation state to Cu(0) is observed when heating a mixture of Cu₂O and g-C₂N₄. This gain in thermal stability of Cu(I) oxidation state under inert conditions for the composite of multimetal oxide (CuVO₃) and g-C₃N₄ may be interesting in its catalytic applications.

Thermal treatment of bulk g-C₃N₄ under an inert atmosphere in the absence of any metal oxide(s), clearly showed a transformation into nanosheets, with a low regularity of the layered structure (Figure 2A). A decrease in the main diffraction peak intensity of g-C₂N₄ in the composite may come from its decreased concentration. Essentially, even a small concentration of metal(s) and the oxide(s) that are heavy compared with the nonmetallic base material, g-C₃N₄ may have a severe impact in denting the intensity of the main diffraction peak. As shown in Figure 4B, the composites of CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄ showed a similar trend of (002) diffraction as it is observed in the case of Cu+Cu₂O/g-C₂N₄ (Figure 3B). For the same level of metal oxide(s) loading e. g. 10% of CuVO₃ or Cu+Cu₂O, g-C₃N₄ composite with the former showed an understandably enhanced reduction in the (002) intensity. Therefore, parallel to the observations for the composite with Cu+Cu₂O, the presence of multimetal oxide decrease the conversion of bulk g-C₃N₄ into nanosheets.

Powder XRD patterns of pure g-C₃N₄ and its mixture with various amounts of Cu₂O+V₂O₅ (3:1) corresponding to loadings of 2% to 10% of Cu₃VO₄ by thermal treatment under Ar flow are presented in Figure 5. Similar to the other composites i. e. Cu+Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄ and CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄, X-ray studies of g-C₃N₄ hybrids with Cu₂VO₄ showed that the graphitic structure is maintained during the formation of composites (Figure 5A). For g-C₃N₄ composite with 2% Cu₃VO₄, diffraction peaks from the multimetal oxide are not seen in the pattern. However, with an increase of Cu₃VO₄ from 2% to 5%, specific diffraction peak features started to appear in the XRD pattern. A further increase of Cu₃VO₄ to 10% demonstrated clear diffraction peaks of the multimetal oxide in the composite material. Thus, similar to other Cu(I)-based hybrids, both g-C₃N₄, and Cu₃VO₄ are keeping their crystalline structures upon the construction of heterojunction. Interestingly, similar to CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄, no reduction of Cu(I) to metallic Cu is observed in the XRD pattern even for a 3:1 mixture of Cu₂O:V₂O₅ and g-C₃N₄ heated under an inert atmosphere. On the contrary, the formation of metallic Cu is observed in the case of plain Cu₂O heated with g-C₃N₄ under Ar flow (Figure 3A). Hence, Cu₂O preferentially reacted with V₂O₅ towards the formation of multimetal oxides, CuVO₃ and Cu₃VO₄, and remained stable as Cu(I). On the other hand, the oxidation state of Cu(I) is lowered to Cu(0) in the case the thermal treatment of a mixture of Cu₂O and g-C₂N₄. This gain in thermal stability of Cu(I) state under inert conditions for the composite of Cu₃VO₄ (and CuVO₃) with g-C₃N₄ may be interesting in its catalytic applications.

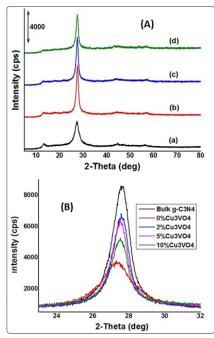


Figure 5: (A) XRD patterns and (B) main (002) diffraction peak of pure g-C₃N₄ (a), and its mixture with various amounts of Cu₂O+V₂O₅ (3:1) corresponding to; 2% Cu₃VO₄ (b), 5% Cu₃VO₄ (c), and 10% Cu₃VO₄ (d) thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

As discussed above, the thermal treatment of bulk g-C₃N₄ under inert atmosphere transformed the bulk material into nanosheets (Figure 1A). Additionally, a decrease in the main diffraction peak intensity of g-C₃N₄ in the composite materials may come from its decreased concentration as demonstrated for CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄. A similar behavior of (002) diffraction is observed for the Cu₃VO₄/g-C₃N₄ composite, as shown in Figure 5B. In conclusion, during the thermal heating of g-C₃N₄ under inert atmosphere its extensive conversion to nanosheets is realized when pure, but, decreased by the presence of plain Cu₂O or Cu₂O+V₂O₅ mixtures.

The vibrational spectra of the pristine g-C₃N₄ and its mixtures with Cu₂O alone or mixtures of Cu₂O+V₂O₅ thermally treated under Ar flow are presented in Figure 6. FT-IR spectra for the bulk g-C₃N₄ and upon its thermal conversion into nanosheets is shown in Figure 1B with a clear enhancement of the intensity of IR active bands. Prominent signatures of IR sensitive functional groups are seen in the range of 1700 cm⁻¹ to 700 cm⁻¹. The presence of IR bands around 1635 cm⁻¹ and 1240 cm⁻¹ is illustrating stretching vibrations of C=N and C-N groups, respectively. For the s-triazine ring mode, a sharp band appeared at 805 cm⁻¹ along with a low-intensity feature around 1465 cm⁻¹. The g-C₂N₄ modified with Cu(I)-based oxides by an in-situ method essentially maintained its functionalities as demonstrated by FT-IR spectra in Figure 6. The intensity of IR bands of g-C₃N₄ showed a relative decrease after all the modifications with semiconductor oxides and confirm the decreased formation of nanosheets. In comparing with the pure material, a change in the environment for the modified g-C₃N₄ caused a smaller difference in electronegativity of CN groups, hence decreased the strength of IR bands. Importantly, the strength of IR bands showed a sequential decrease against an increase in the concentration of Cu(I)-based oxides in the composites structures.

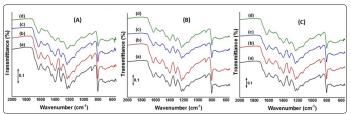


Figure 6: FT-IR spectra of pure g-C₃N₄ (a) and its mixture with; (A) 2% Cu₂O (b), 5% Cu₂O (c), 10% Cu₂O (d), (B) various amounts of Cu₂O+V₂O₅ (1:1) corresponding to; 2% CuVO₃ (b), 5% CuVO₃ (c), and 10% CuVO₃ (d), and (C) various amounts of Cu₂O+V₂O₅ (3:1) corresponding to; 2% Cu₃VO₄ (b), 5% Cu₃VO₄ (c), and 10% Cu₃VO₄ (d) thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

The optical spectra for pure g-C₃N₄ and after its modification with a mixture of Cu+Cu₂O are shown in Figure 7A. The absorption edge for g-C₃N₄ is laying at around 460 nm and further confirmed on the purity of g-C₃N₄ characterized by XRD and FT-IR. After g-C₃N₄ modifications with cuprous oxide, the main features of optical spectra are similar to those of the pure material. However, the absorption edge is shifted towards higher wavelength demonstrating an enhanced absorbance of the visible light. In addition to a red-shift of the optical spectra for the hybridized material, the baseline also shifted upwards indicating surface defects in the composites. Hence, the optical properties of the composites with Cu+Cu₂O demonstrated better prospects in photocatalysis under solar irradiation. Overall, modifications of g-C₃N₄ with cuprous oxide demonstrated an extended absorption of the solar spectrum. Tauc plots derived from the DR-UV-Vis spectra are shown in Figure 7B. Pristing g-C₃N₄ and modified materials are found with direct allowed bandgap type. The size of the bandgap is shrinking upon increased loading of Cu+Cu₂O in the hybrid semiconductor. For the pure g-C₃N₄, the bandgap size is around 2.79 eV (Table 1). The bandgap size decreased to 2.68 eV for the modified material, 2% Cu+Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄. With the increase of Cu+Cu₂O to 10%, the bandgap (2.34 eV) is further extended towards higher wavelength and found suitable for harvesting solar energy. As expected for hybridization of g-C₃N₄ with Cu₂O, previous studies have also reported on the monotonous shortening of the bandgap size of the composites with an increased loading of the later [11], [14].

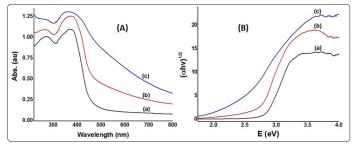


Figure 7: (A) Optical spectra and (B) Tauc plots of pure g- C_3N_4 (a) and its mixture with 2% Cu_2O (b), 10% Cu_2O (c) thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

The solid-state DR-UV-Vis spectra of the pure g-C₃N₄ and after its hybridization with CuVO₃ are presented in Figure 8A. The absorption edge of g-C₃N₄ (460 nm) is shifted towards higher wavelength side after modifications with CuVO₃. A homogeneous structure of CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄ is illustrated from the optical spectra in Figure 8A, and further confirmed the purity of g-C₃N₄ characterized by XRD and FT-IR. After the modifications of g-C₃N₄ with CuVO₃, the main

features of optical spectra are similar to those of the pure material, the absorption edge is shifted towards higher wavelength demonstrating an enhanced absorbance of the visible light. A sequential increase in the concentration of 0% to 10% CuVO₂ loaded in the g-C₂N₄, the bandgap is sequentially narrowed down as depicted in Table 1. However, in addition to a red-shift in the optical spectra of the hybridized material, the baseline is also shifted upwards indicating surface defects in the composites. Hence, the optical properties of the composites with CuVO, demonstrated better prospects in photocatalysis under solar irradiation. Overall, modifications of g-C₂N₄ demonstrated an extended absorption of the solar spectrum. Tauc plots derived from the DR-UV-Vis spectra demonstrated direct allowed bandgap type for CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄ (Figure 8B). The size of the bandgap is narrowed upon increased loading of CuVO, in the hybrid semiconductor. The bandgap size of pure g-C $_3$ N $_4$ (2.79 eV) is decreased to 2.74 eV upon modification with 2% CuVO₃. Similar to the observations for the various loadings of Cu+Cu₂O (2% to 10%), sequentially, the bandgap decreased from 2.68 eV (5\% CuVO₃) to 2.59 eV (10\% CuVO₃) with further extending the g-C₂N₄ absorption towards higher wavelength for harvesting solar energy. In comparison with bare Cu₂O (2.0) eV), a considerably shrinking of the optical bandgap size has been reported for the multimetal oxide, CuVO, (1.4 eV) from both the experimental and computational investigations [7,10]. Hence, the fabrication of heterojunctions of CuVO₃ with g-C₃N₄ illustrated a systematic decrease of the bandgap size with an increased loading of the multimetal oxide (Table 1).

Table 1: Bandgap size of $g-C_3N_4$ and afters its modifications with various Cu(I)-based semiconductors determined from Tauc plots derived from optical spectra

#	Material	Band gap† (eV)
1	Pure g-C ₃ N ₄	2.79
2	2%Cu+Cu ₂ O/g-C ₃ N ₄	2.68
3	10%Cu+Cu ₂ O/g-C ₃ N ₄	2.34
4	2%CuVO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	2.74
5	5%CuVO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	2.68
6	10%CuVO ₃ /g-C ₃ N ₄	2.59
7	2%Cu ₃ VO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄	2.71
8	5%Cu ₃ VO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄	2.64
9	10%Cu ₃ VO ₄ /g-C ₃ N ₄	2.51

†The band gap determined from Tacu plot is the direct allowed type.

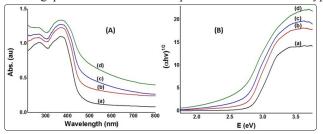


Figure 8: (A) Optical spectra, and (B) Tauc plots of pure g- C_3N_4 (a) and its mixture with various amounts of $Cu_2O+V_2O_5$ (1:1) corresponding to; 2% $CuVO_3$ (b), 5% $CuVO_3$ (c), and 10% $CuVO_3$ (d) thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

The optical spectra of g-C₃N₄ powder modified with Cu₃VO₄ are shown in Figure 9A. Similar to the behaviors of Cu+Cu₂O and

CuVO, modified g-C₂N₄ samples, the absorption edge (460 nm) is shifted towards higher wavelength side after modifications with Cu₃VO₄. A homogeneous structure of Cu₃VO₄/g-C₃N₄ is illustrated from the optical spectra in Figure 9A, and further confirmed characterizations by other techniques. After g-C₃N₄ modifications with Cu₃VO₄, the main features of optical spectra are similar to that of the pure material, the absorption edge is shifted towards higher wavelength demonstrating an enhanced absorbance of the visible light. For a sequential increase in the Cu₂VO₄ concentration from 0% to 10% loaded in the g-C₃N₄, the bandgap size is shrinking as depicted in Table 1. However, in addition to a red-shift of the optical spectra for the hybridized material, the baseline also shifted upwards indicating surface defects in the composites. Hence, the optical properties of the composites with Cu₂VO₄ demonstrated favorable properties in harvesting solar irradiation. Both, pristing g-C₂N₄ and Cu₂VO₄ modified materials are found having a direct allowed bandgap type as determined from Tauc plots of the DR-UV-Vis spectra (Figure 9B). The size of the bandgap is narrowing down upon increased loading of Cu₂VO₄ in the hybrid semiconductors. Similar to the modifications with Cu+Cu₂O and CuVO₂, the bandgap size is decreased from 2.79 eV for 0% Cu, VO, to 2.51 eV upon modification with 10% Cu₃VO₄, thus, extending the absorption towards higher wavelength for harvesting solar energy. A monotonous widening of the absorption spectrum of Cu₃VO₄/g-C₃N₄ composites towards the visible side, with an increased loading of the multimetal oxide, is attributed to its small optical bandgap size, 1.2 eV [7,24].

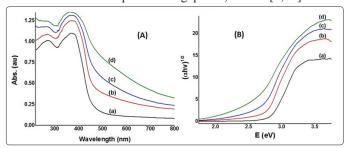


Figure 9: (A) Optical spectra, and (B) Tauc plots of pure $g-C_3N_4$ (a) and its mixture with various amounts of $Cu_2O+V_2O_5$ (3:1) corresponding to; $2\% Cu_3VO_4$ (b), $5\% Cu_3VO_4$ (c), and $10\% Cu_3VO_4$ (d) thermally treated under Ar flow at 550 °C, 2 h.

Photocatalytic Efficiency

Photocatalytic properties are tested for the degradation of rhodamine B in the aqueous phase. For the dye stability check, rhodamine B solution of the same concentration as mixed with photocatalysts is exposed to light from the solar simulator, 1 sun illumination. Essentially, no photolysis of rhodamine B is observed under the experimental conditions. Before exposing the suspension to the light, sorption of dye on the powder catalyst is equilibrated by stirring under dark. A small aliquot is taken out every 30 min to quantify the amount of dye in the liquid phase. Before recording the UV-Vis spectra, liquid, and solid phases are separated by centrifuge. Under dark, no appreciable decrease in rhodamine B is noticed for any of the materials applied in this study (Figure 10). After equilibrating the dye adsorption for 30 min, the suspension is exposed to the light from a solar simulator operating at 1 sun illumination. Upon shining light, a decrease in the dye concentration is observed for all the materials demonstrating their photocatalytic activity. Loading of a moderate amount of Cu₂O (~1.5 wt.%) on g-C₃N₄ has been reported for an enhanced photocatalytic activity [11]. Therefore, here in this study, the composites of Cu(I)-based oxides/g-C₃N₄

loaded with a similar amount of metal oxide(s) (2 wt.%) are used in the photocatalytic activity tests.

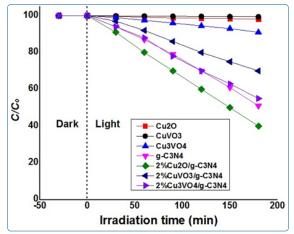


Figure 10: Solar light-driven photodegradation of aqueous phase rhodamine B over all the various semiconductor catalyst materials.

As shown in Figure 10, pure Cu₂O and CuVO₃ are almost inactive for the photodegradation of rhodamine B under the experimental conditions. Cu₂VO₄ depicted a slight efficiency with about 9% photodegradation of the dye upon solar light irradiation for 180 min. In comparison with a low activity of pure phase Cu(I)-based oxides, unmodified g-C₃N₄ demonstrated a moderate photocatalytic activity. For the same time (180 min) of irradiation with simulated solar light, then about 49% of rhodamine B is decomposed over this polymeric semiconductor, g-C₃N₄. Photocatalytic tests over all the composites of g-C₃N₄ with 2% to 10% of various Cu(I)-based oxides are performed under 1 sun illumination. Among all the composites, a low concentration (2%) of Cu(I) oxide semiconductor is found more active for photodegradation of rhodamine B. Therefore, photocatalytic results only for the best composite materials are shown in Figure 10. Composites of g-C₃N₄ with multimetal oxide des (CuVO, and Cu, VO,) are relatively less active compared with simple oxide (Cu₂O). 2% CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄ showed the least activity among all the composites, with only about 30% photodegradation of rhodamine B in 180 min. Next, 2% Cu₃VO₄/g-C₃N₄ demonstrated a moderate photocatalytic activity and about 45% of the organic dye is decomposed up, on solar light irradiation for 180 min. The best photocatalytic performance is realized over 2% Cu+Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄. About 60% of rhodamine B is destroyed under the experimental conditions. Importantly, the catalyst materials remained stable under the experimental situation and showed steady performance in repeated runs. Hence, fabrication of heterojunction of Cu(I)-based oxide with g-C₂N₄ is effective in harvesting solar energy for the photodegradation of environmental pollutant.

Important to note that the Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄ composite contacting metallic Cu species is helpful for the separation of photoexcited charges and demonstrated the best photocatalytic activity among all the materials employed in this study. An enhanced photoactivity of a hydrothermally synthesized composite of Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄ having a presence of reduced metal component has been reported for the degradation of organic pollutant [13]. Essentially, all the composites

of Cu(I)-based oxides/g-C3N4 are effective towards harvesting visible light from the solar spectrum, however, Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄ with Cu(0) exhibited an enhanced photocatalytic efficiency because of improved separation of photoexcited charges. Therefore, further modifications of the composites for an effective separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs may strengthen the scope of their applications in environment and energy sectors.

In the reported studies, Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄ based composite structures have been tested for the photocatalytic evolution of hydrogen from water splitting, oxidation of CO, and degradation of organic pollutants [11-15,17,20,29,30]. In comparison with individual components, a ternary composite, Cu₂O-TiO₂/g-C₃N₄ exhibited a high photocatalytic efficiency for discoloration of organic dyes in the presence of hydrogen peroxide [17]. Photocatalytic oxidation of CO was attributed to a synergetic effect between g-C₃N₄ and Cu₂O with an improved dispersion of the metal oxide particles [29]. For all the various composites reported for Cu₂O and g-C₃N₄, an overall enhancement of the photocatalytic efficiencies have been demonstrated compared with bare semiconductors. In addition to the positive impact of heterojunction formation between Cu₂O and g-C₃N₄, the formation of metallic Cu species was found favorable for the separation of charges and consequently exhibiting improved photocatalytic properties [13]. Furthermore, the presence of reduced graphene oxide in the composite structure of Cu₂O/g-C₂N₄ facilitated the charge separation and efficiency towards the photocatalytic reaction [30]. In addition to the efficient photocatalytic properties of g-C₃N₄ heterojunctions with Cu₂O, its composite with V₂O₅ has been reported for enhanced photodegradation of rhodamine B under visible light [25].

A schematic of the efficient harvesting of solar energy for the composites compared with bare g-C₂N₄ is illustrated in Figure 11. In principle, the fabrication of a heterojunction of semiconductors is beneficial towards an enhanced separation of photoexcited electronhole pairs. The optical properties clearly demonstrate a red-shift with an enhanced absorption of visible-light of the solar spectrum. The concentration of Cu(I)-based semiconductors is the guiding factor in making these composites suitable and efficient for harvesting solar energy. As shown the schematic, transfer of electrons and holes in between two semiconductors of a heterojunction helps in avoiding their recombination (Figure 11). Therefore, a suitable pair of semiconductor materials joined in a heterojunction are indeed making together an efficient photocatalytic system. Beside electronic properties, the transformation of textural properties may positively impact the photocatalytic activity of the composite. Essentially, the photocatalytic efficiency is increased with an increased availability of photoexcited electrons and holes at conduction band and valence band, respectively. Furthermore, in comparison with its individual components, a composite structure may gain stability against the most prone photocorrosion reaction on the surface of the materials, under the experimental conditions. Overall, this approach of developing novel heterojunctions is leading towards practicable photocatalytic systems to combat the environmental and energy issues. Cu(I)-based heterojunctions with g-C₃N₄ fabricated via solid-state approach are potential candidates for various catalytic applications of harvesting solar energy.

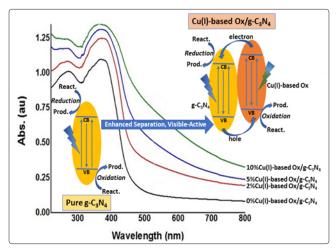


Figure 11: A schematic in the backdrop of optical spectra for the generation of photoexcited electron-hole pairs and their use at conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) for photoreduction and photooxidation processes, respectively. In comparison with pure $g-C_3N_4$, an enhanced photoactivity and separation of electron-hole pairs is illustrated on the composite(s), Cu(I)-based oxide(s)/g-C3N4.

Conclusions

The composite structures of g-C₃N₄ with Cu(I)-based oxides are successfully fabricated via a facile solid-state route. An in-situ synthesis of multimetal Cu(I)-based oxides, CuVO₂ and Cu₂VO₄ along with their simultaneous composite formation with g-C₃N₄ are realized under inert conditions. In the presence of a second metal, the multimetal oxide of Cu(I)-based material helped in gaining stability of cuprous species in the composite structures. Hence, except for the reduction of Cu(I) observed in Cu₂O/g-C₃N₄, all the other composites (CuVO₃/g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃VO₄/g-C₃N₄) showed an enhanced stability of cuprous species. The physicochemical properties of the heterojunctions illustrated on the dispersion of the inorganic oxides onto $g-C_3N_4$. In contrast to the thermal conversion of the bulk pure $g-C_3N_4$ into nanosheets, the presence of Cu(I)-based oxides hindered the textural transformation. All the heterojunctions of inorganic-organic semiconductors demonstrated the direct allowed type of bandgap. Essentially, the bandgap size is narrowed down in all the composite, hence, making the modified materials suitable for harvesting solar energy. All the hybrid materials showed photodegradation of aqueous phase rhodamine B under the simulated solar light while pure Cu(I)-based oxides are mainly inactive. Further modifications are required for improving the separation of photoexcited electron-hole pairs, and consequently enhancing the photoactivity.

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