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Three-dimensional graphitic carbon nitride belt network for enhanced visible light photocatalytic hydrogen evolution

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Three-dimensional (3D) network-like graphitic carbon nitride nanobelt (g-C₃N₄ NB) was facilely achieved by hydrothermal treatment of bulk g-C₃N₄ in a medium strong oxalic acid solution (1M, pH 0.89). The conduction (CB) and valence band (VB) level position was upraised from -0.90, +1.86 eV for bulk g-C₃N₄ to -0.92, +1.92 eV respectively for g-C₃N₄ NB networks with enhanced redox ability. With optimized Pt loading of 3%, g-C₃N₄ NB networks showed an excellent visible-light photocatalytic H₂ production activity (1360 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹), which was 10.9 times higher than that of optimized 2% Pt@bulk g-C₃N₄ (124.7 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹) with triethanolamine as a sacrificial agent. Furthermore, Pt@g-C₃N₄ NB exhibited a considerable rate of H₂ evolution of 33.3 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, much higher than 1.79 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ for Pt@bulk g-C₃N₄ in distilled water without any sacrificial agents, revealing a great potential of photocatalytic overall water splitting. This outstanding performance not only originated from unique 3D nanostructure and prolonged electron lifetime, but also electronic structure modulation and improved redox capacities of CB and VB. The pH effect of hydrothermal conditions on g-C₃N₄ molecular structure, chemical elelment, optical properties and catalytic performance was expounded. This study demonstrates a facile and environment-friendly strategy to design highly efficient g-C₃N₄ catalysts for potential applications in solar energy photocatalytic water splitting.

Introduction

Increasing enormous fossil energy consumption has driven human to seek highly efficient catalysts with the purpose of converting sustainable solar energy into renewable, green and carbon-free hydrogen fuel via hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) from photocatalytic water splitting.^{1,2} In the multitudinous semiconductor catalysts, $g-C_3N_4$ as a fascinating metal-free visible-light responsive photocatalyst has aroused extensive concern owing to its unique features including abundance, cheapness, nontoxicity, stability and chemical tenability.^{3,4} However, the pristine $g-C_3N_4$ prepared by thermal condensation of nitrogen-rich organic precursors still suffers from unsatisfactory photocatalytic efficiency due to its bulky structure, poor light absorbance, rapid recombination of charge carriers and inadequate catalytic sites.^{5,6} In this regard, numerous modification approaches have been proposed to promote its catalytic performance including electronic structure modulation,^{7,8} crystal-structure engineering,⁹ nanostructure design¹⁰⁻¹² and heterostruction construction.^{13,14}

Nanostructure strategy is considered as one of facile, diverse, flexible and efficient approaches to obtain g-C_3N_4

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photocatalyst with morphological features, unique electronic structures, strong optical response and functional surface properties.^{12,15} The photocatalytic HER at catalyst/water interface highly depend on the size, morphology, and surface property of catalysts.^{16,17} As we all know, one-dimension (1D) material has unique advantages in electron transfer along prescribed direction and far away from agglomeration compared with 2D sheets.^{18,19} 3D structure from assembly of 1D units possesses the biggest light capacity, largest surface area, maximum exposure of active sites, and least mass transportation resistance.^{20,21} In the nanostructure engineering strategy family, template-assistance approach, top-down strategy and solvothermal technology have been perceived as representative and effective means to prepare multidimensional g-C_3N_4 nanostructures. $^{\rm 22,23}$ However, the use of hazardous fluoride-contained reagents, shortage of template species and side effect of carbon residues limit template approach application.^{24,25} In comparison, soft solution-processing approach allows for the bottom-up design of g-C₃N₄ structure in a one-pot manner by solution assembly, crystallization, and covalent cross-linking chemistry. $^{\rm 23,26}$ Only relying on structure-controlled technique is insufficient and the modulation of energy-band configuration of $g-C_3N_4$ is needed to strengthen light absorption and redox potentials.²⁷ The control of morphology and modulation of energy band position in one step process has been rarely studied up to now.

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In this study, the 3D network-like morphology of $g-C_3N_4$ NB could be facilely obtained in hydrothermal treatment of bulk $g-C_3N_4$ in a medium strong oxalic acid solution (1mol/L, pH 0.89). At first, $g-C_3N_4$ molecules were tailored by proton in the -N(C)₃ bond position, then small molecular weight $g-C_3N_4$ were spontaneously self-assembly into 3D network-like nanobelt structure (Scheme 1). Furthermore, the modulation of energy-band position was synchronously achieved by introducing oxygen-contained functional groups to $g-C_3N_4$ and quantum confinement effect. Meanwhile, insightfully understanding nanoarchitectural g- C_3N_4 formation mechanism, optical properties and effect of various oxidized state on catalytic performance was expounded systematically in N₂H₄ (pH 13.72, 80 vol%), NH₃·H₂O (pH 11.35, 20 wt%) and distilled water (pH 6.86) experiments, respectively. In particular, 3D network-like g-C₃N₄ NB exhibited preeminent visible-light photocatalytic HER, as well as powerful redox capacity, both in triethanolamine (TEOA) solution and pure water overall splitting. This study demonstrates a facile and environment-friendly strategy to design to develop highly-efficient g-C₃N₄.



Scheme 1. Illustration for the formation mechanism of $g-C_3N_4$ nanobelt network.

Experimental

Chemicals

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Melamine $(C_3H_6N_6)$ was purchased from Tianjin Damao Chemical Reagent. Oxalic acid $(H_2C_2O_4)$ was bought from Tianjin Gaungfu Chemical Reagent. Chloroplatinic acid $(H_2PtCl_6 \cdot H_2O)$, standard KMnO₄ solution (0.02M), potassium biphthalate $(C_8H_5KO_4)$ were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent. Tri-ethylamine (TEOA, $(C_2H_5)_3N$), H_2O_2 (ca. 30 wt%) solution, potassium iodide (KI, 0.4M) hydrazine hydrate $(N_2H_4, 80 \text{ vol\%})$ solution and concentrated ammonia solution (NH₃·H₂O, 20 wt%) were all purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. All the reagents analysis graded and without purification. Distilled water was used in the whole experiment process.

bulk parent g-C₃N₄ preparation

Five grams of melamine powder in an alumina crucible were heated to 550°C from room temperature in a tube furnace at a heating rate of 2.5°C/min under ambient pressure in air, and kept for 4 h at 550°C. The light yellow $g-C_3N_4$ sample was

obtained after natural cooling and then ground into powder g- $C_3 N_{{\mbox{\tiny d}}}.$

Preparation of g-C₃N₄ nanobelt network.

Firstly, a suspension of bulk g-C₃N₄ (0.46 g) in 50 mL of saturated H₂C₂O₄ solution (pH=0.89, 1.0M) was stirred for 12 hours at room temperature following vigorous sonication for 4 hours. Then, the suspension above after removal of solid at the bottom was subjected to hydrothermal treatment in an oven at 160°C for 24 h. The solid in the suspension was separated by centrifugation, then washed with distilled water, ethanol absolute and acetone for three times, and finally dried at 80°C for 24 h. The obtained $g-C_3N_4$ nanobelts were abbreviated as g-C₃N₄ NB (51% in yield). Additionally, highly oxidized carbon nitride nanofibers (OCN NF, 7.2% in yield), highly oxidized carbon nitride nanocluster (OCN NC, 9.3% in yield) and g-C₃N₄ nanoneedles (g-C₃N₄ NN, 65% in yield) were prepared under the same conditions as in $g-C_3N_4$ NB preparation only using N₂H₄ (pH=13.72, 80 vol%), concentrated NH₃·H₂O (pH=11.35, 20 wt%) and distilled water (pH=6.86) to replace H₂C₂O₄, respectively.

Pt@g-C₃N₄ preparation

Pt was in situ photodeposited on the g-C₃N₄ samples in 10 vol% triethanolamine and H₂PtCl₆ solution using a full arc light (λ > 300 nm) for 2 h. Before irradiation, the system was bubbled with nitrogen for 30 min to remove the air ensuring the reaction system in an inertial condition. The Pt content was adjusted with H₂PtCl₆ concentration and reaction time and determined by inductively coupled plasma (ICP, PE5300DV).

Characterization

The morphologies and chemical composition characterization of the $g-C_3N_4$ samples were performed using powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) with Cu-Ka radiation (Rigaku, Smartlab), Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra on a Nicolet 380 (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (JEOL, JEM-2100F), field emission scanning electron S-4800), microscopy (FE-SEM) (Hitachi, and X-rav photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) with Al-Ka radiation (Thermo Fisher Scientific, England). The specific surface areas were determined by Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method with N₂ adsorption at 77 K (BELSORP-mini II). The UV-vis diffuse-reflectance spectra (DRS) were performed on a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Cary 300, Varian) with an integrating sphere. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra at zero bias potential were recorded with Hitachi F-7000 fluorescence spectrophotometer. The time-resolved transient photoluminescence (TRPL) spectrum was performed using Hamamatsu universal streak camera C10910. The chemical element compositions were analyzed by energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) mapping on a Tecnai G2 F20 S-TWIN atomic resolution analytical microscope. The photocurrents of the samples were carried out on a CHI 660C electrochemical analyzer (CHI Inc., USA) in 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution using a three-electrode configuration with a sample-deposited fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) electrode as the photoanode, a platinum wire as the counter electrode, and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference electrode. All the samples were analyzed under room temperature without bias potential. A 300 W xenon arc lamp with lighting wavelength range of 320-780 nm (Perfectlight, PLS-SXE 300C, China) was used as light source.

Photocatalytic hydrogen production tests

The photocatalytic hydrogen evolution experiments were performed in an 80 mL sealed quartz flask at 5 °C temperature. A 300 W xenon arc lamp with a 420 nm wavelength cutoff filter (Perfect light, PLS-SXE 300C, China) was used as a visible light source to trigger the photocatalytic reaction. The Xe lamp was positioned 20 cm away from reactor with focused intensity of 160 mW·cm⁻². In a typical photocatalytic experiment, 20 mg of photocatalysts were dispersed in an 80 mL aqueous solution containing 10 vol% triethanolamine (TEOA) or in distilled water without any sacrificial agents. Before irradiation, the system was bubbled with nitrogen for 30 min to remove the air ensuring the reaction system in an inertial condition. The hydrogen was analyzed by gas chromatography (Shimazu GC2010) equipped with a thermal conductive detector (TCD) and a 5 A molecular sieve column, using nitrogen as the carrier gas.

Results and discussion

The SEM images of g-C₃N₄ samples are shown in Fig. 1. The bulk parent g-C₃N₄ seriously agglomerated together (Fig. 1a). Obviously, the bulky structure was against light absorption, charge transport and mass transportation. ^{14,15} When hydrothermal treatment in N₂H₄ solution (pH=13.72), NH₃·H₂O solution (pH=11.35), distilled water (pH=6.86) and saturated H₂C₂O₄ solution (pH=0.89), OCN NF (Fig. 1b), OCN NC (Fig. 1c), g-C₃N₄ NN (Fig. 1d) as well as g-C₃N₄ NB network (Fig. 1e and f) were obtained, respectively. It is noted that 3-D g-C₃N₄ belt network nanostructure was for the first time fabricated without template assiatance. The unique 3-D network-like nanostructure is in favour of harvesting light, possessing large surface and decreasing mass transfer resistance.

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Fig. 1 SEM images of (a) bulk g-C₃N₄, (b) OC₃N₄ NF, (c) OCN NC, (d) g-C₃N₄ NN and (e-f) g-C₃N₄ NB.

The g-C₃N₄ samples were further characterized by FTIR and XRD spectra (Fig. 2). As shown in FTIR spectra (Fig. 2A), all g-C₃N₄ samples displayed typical absorption bands of g-C₃N₄ at 1572 and 1632 cm⁻¹ for C=N stretching, at 1253, 1320 and 1425 cm⁻¹ for aromatic C-N stretching, and at 810 cm⁻¹ for the deformation of tri-s-triazine ring modes. ^{12,13} Compared with bulk g-C₃N₄, all g-C₃N₄ samples showed stretching vibration of C-O at about 1080 cm⁻¹ and broad stretching vibration of hydroxyl (O-H) at 3100-3300 cm^{-1, 26,28} indicative of the introduction of O-contained functional groups. Additionally, both OCN NF and OCN NC exhibited obvious stretching vibration of -NH₂ groups at 3400 cm⁻¹ and bimodal coupled vibration of C=O at 1750 cm⁻¹ and 1786 cm⁻¹. ^{27,29}

In the XRD patterns (Fig. 2B), compared with other $g-C_3N_4$ samples, $g-C_3N_4$ NB showed much lower diffraction peak intensity at 27.5° (002) assigned to interlayer stacking of $g-C_3N_4$ sheets, ^{30,31} implying few layer structure (also confirmed by the TEM result in Fig. 3b). The 13.1° (100) peak was typical inter-planar distance between nitride pores in $g-C_3N_4$, ^{32,33} while the peak in $g-C_3N_4$ NB and $g-C_3N_4$ NN moved to lower diffraction angle with larger in-plane distance. However, more additional impure peaks appeared in OCN NC, especially in OCN NF, declaring other carbon nitride oxidation mixture existence in addition to bulk pristine $g-C_3N_4$. ^{27,29,34} The possible oxidation mechanism of $g-C_3N_4$ in H⁺ (I) and OH⁻ (II) hydrothermal process was proposed in Scheme 2. Under

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alkaline condition, OH⁻ ions attacked the C atoms with low density of electric charge. Resultantly, the bond deformation of C-N occurred and new primary amine or C=O groups formed. Owing to the destruction of trs-s-triazine, there are a series of deeply oxidized carbon nitride mixtures in addition to pristine g-C₃N₄. In acidulous condition, H⁺ ions preferred to attack bridging N atoms with rich electrons, and then OH⁻ from dissociation of water molecules attacked C atoms adjacent to bridging N atoms. Thus, C-N bond and –OH formed with NH₃ release which was suffocating when opening the reactor lid.

According to the photocatalytic activity of these photocatalysts, g-C₃N₄ NB showed the highest photocatalytic hydrogen production. So the structure of g-C₃N₄ NB was further investigated. Fig. 2C-F show the XPS survey results of bulk g-C₃N₄ and $g-C_3N_4$ NB. High-resolution C1s for $g-C_3N_4$ NB shows the standard reference carbon (284.53 eV) and the sp²-bonded C in N=C(-N)₂ (288.09 eV) (Fig 2D) which is well consistent with that of bulk $g-C_3N_4$.³⁵⁻³⁶ The deconvolution of the N 1s XPS signals for g- C_3N_4 NB shows three peaks with binding energies of 398.54, 399.66 and 401.00 eV from sp²-hybridized N in C-N=C groups, tertiary nitrogen N-(C)₃ and the N-H bond in g-C₃N₄, respectively (Fig 2E).³⁷ O 1s signals show a broad peak at about 531.24 eV corresponding to N-C-O (Fig 2F).^{38,39} After hydrothermal treatment, O 1s peak intensity proportional to oxygen content distinctly enhanced more than two fold (Table S1), indicating oxygen-containing functional groups existence in g-C₃N₄ NB.^{40,41}



Fig. 2 FTIR spectra (A) and XRD patterns (B) of (a) bulk parent g- C_3N_4 , (b) OCN NF, (c) OCN NC, (d) g- C_3N_4 NN, and (e) g- C_3N_4 NB; XPS spectra (C-F) of bulk g- C_3N_4 and g- C_3N_4 NB.

The TEM images show that the $g-C_3N_4$ nanobelts with a width from 10 to 50 nm and an overlong micron level connected to each other to form a network (Fig. 3a). The HR-TEM image indicated a

single or few layer characteristic of nanobelt without edge line gradient (Fig. 3b). Nanobelts were characteristic of overlong, ultrathin and homogeneous shapes with extremely large length to diameter ratio. The distinctive networks composed of 1D ultrathin nanobelts would greatly enhance light harvesting, photo-induced carrier transport and fast mass transfer as well as possess abundant active sites for boosting interface reaction rate.^{20,21} The EDX and elemental mapping analysis evidenced the existence of C, N and O elements in g-C₃N₄ NB (Fig. 3d and e).

The photocatalytic HER performance greatly correlated with the specific surface area of catalysts.⁴² As shown in Fig. 4 and Table 1, the specific surface areas were 62.7, 42.4, 35.2, 32.5 and 7.0 m²/g for g-C₃N₄ NB, OCN NF, OCN NC, g-C₃N₄ NN and bulk g-C₃N₄ respectively. The highest specific surface area of g-C₃N₄ NB should result from its unique 3-D network structure composed of ultrathin nanobelts. Clearly, the high specific surface area of g-C₃N₄ NB could offer sufficient reactive sites and accelerate the mass transfer of reactants.



Scheme 2. Proposed oxidation mechanism of $g-C_3N_4$ in H^+ (I) and OH^- (II) solution.



Fig. 3 (a) TEM image of $g-C_3N_4$ NB, (b) HRTEM image of $g-C_3N_4$ NB, (c) dark field FESEM-TEM image of $g-C_3N_4$ NB, (d) EDX spectrum of the indicated area by the yellow box in (c), and (e) elemental mappings of the selected area by blue box in (c).

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As shown in DRS spectra (Fig. 5A), compared with bulk g-C₃N₄, all of g-C₃N₄, especially for g-C₃N₄ NB exhibited obvious blue shifts of absorption edges. The blue shift should be attributed to quantum size confinement⁴³ and the introduction of oxygen-contained groups into g-C₃N₄ which decreased the conjugation length. The band gaps of these g-C₃N₄ materials were calculated using the following formula:

α = A(hv – Eg)^{n/2}/hv

where α is the absorption coefficient, A is a constant, h is the Planck's constant, Eg is band energy, v is the frequency of the incident light, and n is equal to 1 for the direct transition. The calculated bandgap energies were 3.04, 3.02, 2.88, 2.84 and 2.76 eV for OCN NF, OCN NC, g-C_3N_4 NN, g-C_3N_4 NB and bulk g-C_3N_4 (inset in Fig. 5A).

The valence band X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (VB XPS) was used to further investigate the band gap between g-C₃N₄ NB and bulk g-C₃N₄. Fig. 5B illustrates that the VB of g-C₃N₄ NB positively shifted from +1.86 eV of bulk g-C₃N₄ to +1.92 eV. N2p orbital energy contributes to the main energy of VB for g-C₃N₄, thus, VB up-shifting phenomenon was mainly ascribed to O2p orbital energy higher than that of N2p. According to the band gaps of 2.84 eV for g-C₃N₄ NB and 2.76 eV for bulk g-C₃N₄ calculated from DRS results, the CB level of g-C₃N₄ NB and bulk parent g-C₃N₄ were -0.92 eV and -0.90 eV, respectively. Undoubtedly, more negative CB and positive VB could be endowed more powerful redox ability of g-C₃N₄ NB.



Fig.4 BET N_2 adsorption/desorption isotherms of bulk g-C₃N₄, OCN NF, OCN NC, g-C₃N₄ NN, and g-C₃N₄ NB.

Table 1 Specific surface area of samples.

Samples	bulk g-CN	g-CN NB	g-CN NN	OCN NC	OCN NF
area (m²/g)	7.0	62.7	32.5	35.2	42.4

Photocurrent is useful for revealing the efficiency of the separation of photoexcited electrons and holes (Fig. 5C). The g-C₃N₄ NB exhibited a photocurrent density of 0.67 μ A cm⁻², much higher than 0.20 μ A cm⁻² for bulk g-C₃N₄, 0.41 μ A cm⁻² for g-C₃N₄ NN, 0.18 μ A cm⁻² for OCN NC and 0.11 μ A cm⁻² for OCN NF. The low photocurrent intensities of OCN NC and OCN NF implied less excited electrons, possibly resulting from the serious destruction of heptazine ring during hydrothermal process in alkaline solution consistent with FTIR and XRD records. That is to say, by alkaline hydrothermal treatment in concentrated alkaline N₂H₄ or NH₃·H₂O

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The light-triggered charge separation/recombination rates of the samples were further investigated by photoluminescence (PL) spectra (Fig. 6). Obviously, the change of fluorescence emission wavelength of the samples was consistent with that of absorption wavelength. Both g-C₃N₄ NB and g-C₃N₄ NN exhibited almost equal light absorption capacity to bulk g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 5A), but lower PL intensity than bulk $g-C_3N_4$ (Fig. 6a), indicative of reduced recombination of photogenerated charge carriers in g-C₃N₄ NB and g-C₃N₄ NN. It is noted that both OCN NF and OCN NC showed lower PL intensity than bulk $g-C_3N_4$ (Fig. 6a), which could be explained by the fact that less electrons were excited in OCN NF and OCN NC, resulting from low light absorption capacity (Fig. 5A). The fluorescence decay curves exhibited deviation from the third order exponential decay and g-C₃N₄ NB showed slower decay kinetics in contrast to bulk g-C₃N₄, meaning longer lifetime of charge carriers in $g-C_3N_4NB$ (Fig. 6b).



Fig. 5 (A) DRS spectra of the samples, (B) VB XPS spectra of bulk g- C_3N_4 and g- C_3N_4 NB, and (C) photocurrent responses of the samples: (a) bulk g- C_3N_4 , (b) OCN NF, (c) OCN NC, (d) g- C_3N_4 NN and (e) g- C_3N_4 NB.

Table 2 summarizes the fluorescence decay changes. The shortest lifetime of 0.78 ns in bulk g-C₃N₄ increased up to 1.17 ns in g-C₃N₄ NB while its percentage of charge carriers decreased from 41.52% to 34.48%. Both the secondary lifetime and percentage of charge carriers augmented from 4.61 ns and 48.16% in bulk g-C₃N₄ to 5.70 ns and 55.58% in $g-C_3N_4$ NB. What's more, the longest lifetime of 26.14 ns in bulk lengthened to 36.82 ns in $g-C_3N_4$ NB at a small cost of the shortening percentage only by 0.37%. After multiexponential fitting, the radiative lifetimes of bulk g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄ NB were 1.43 ns and 2.67 ns, respectively. The time-resolved fluorescence illuminates that the radiative lifetime of charge was distinctly prolonged with the transformation from bulk $g-C_3N_4$ to g- C_3N_4 NB. The lifetime prolongation of charge carriers acted as an indispensable role in improving photocatalytic reactions before recombination.44,45 It is believed that the increased lifetime of charge carriers is associated with electron transport improvement and electronic structure change induced by quantum confinement effect or/and electron-drawing effect of oxygen-contained functional groups.

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Fig. 6 (a) Fluorescence emission spectra of the samples and (b) time-resolved fluorescence excited by the incident light of 330 nm over bulk $g-C_3N_4$ and $g-C_3N_4$ NB.

Table 2 Dynamics analysis of emission decay of bulk g-C_3N_4 and g-C_3N_4 NB.

Samples	A ₁ [%]	τ₁[ns]	A ₂ [%]	τ ₂ [ns]	A ₃ [%]	$\tau_{3}[ns]$	$\tau_{A}[ns]$
bulk g- C₃N₄	41.52	0.78	48.16	4.61	10.32	26.14	1.43
g-C₃N₄ NB	34.48	1.17	55.58	5.70	9.95	36.82	2.67

Fig. 7a presents HER of g-C₃N₄ NB with different Pt loading under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm) using TEOA as sacrificial agent. The g-C₃N₄ NB without Pt as cocatalyst showed negligible H_2 production, while the g-C₃N₄ NB catalysts with Pt as cocatalyst exhibited significantly enhanced H₂ generation. With increasing Pt loading from 1 to 3%, the HER rate over Pt@g-C₃N₄ NB obviously increased. When further increasing Pt loading to 4 wt%, the HER rate decreased. The low HER rate over low Pt loading (1 or 2 wt%) should be due to less active sites while HER decrease over higher Pt loading (4 wt%) may be for the fact that excessive cocatalyst blocked photo-excited electrons transfer and reduced active site exposure due to highly overlapping each other.^{46,47} For bulk g- C_3N_4 , the optimized Pt loading is 2 wt% with an HER production rate of 0.12 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ (Fig. S1). The HER rate over 3 wt% Pt@ g-C₃N₄ NB reached 1.36 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ which is 10.9 times higher than that for 2 wt% Pt@bulk g-C₃N₄.

Fig. 7b shows the photocatalytic HER efficiencies over different photocatalysts with 3wt% Pt. The average H₂ production rate over $g-C_3N_4NB$ was 1.36 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, higher than 0.57 mmol g⁻¹·h⁻¹ over g-C₃N₄ NN, 0.11 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ over bulk g-C₃N₄, 0.09 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ over OCN NC, and 0.06 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ over OCN NF. Poor catalytic activity of OCN NF and OCN NC inferior to that of bulk g-C₂N₄ indicated active unit tri-s-triazine was deeply destroyed into inactive fragments in hydrothermal alkalic solution, while acid and neutral environment enhanced it activity seen in Scheme 2. The recoverability is also an important consideration for its practical application of one photocatalyst. The photocatalytic activity stability of Pt@g-C₃N₄ NB was evaluated by recycling the photocatalyst towards HER. After five cycles lasting 25 hours, the H₂ production rates remained highly stable under visible light illumination (Fig 7c). The apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) for Pt@ g-C₃N₄ NB reached to 12% at 420 nm (see the calculation in Supplementary Information). The high H₂ production rate and AQE presents one of the best HER performances of g-C₃N₄-based photocatalysts (Table S2). Noteworthily, without using any sacrifice agents, Pt@g-C₃N₄ NB displayed a considerable rate of H₂

production of 33.3 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ under visible light irradiation, 18.6 times higher than 1.79 μ mol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ for Pt@bulk g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 7d). Meanwhile, the H₂O₂ production rates are 3.48 μ mol·L⁻¹·h⁻¹ in the former and 0.29 μ mol·L⁻¹·h⁻¹ in the latter (Fig. S3), implying the potential of overall water splitting.



Fig. 7 (a) HER of g-C₃N₄ NB loaded with Pt, (b) 3 wt% Pt@g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts, (c) cycling runs of 3 wt% Pt@g-C₃N₄ NB and (d) HER in distilled water without any sacrificial agents (λ >420 nm). Reaction condition in (a-c): 10 vol% TEOA under visible light irradiation (λ >420 nm).

The photocatalytic HER mechanism over Pt@g-C₃N₄ NB under visible light illumination is proposed as Scheme 3. Under irradiation, the electrons in the valence band (VB) of g-C₃N₄ were excited to its conduction band (CB), and then transfered to Pt for protons reduction. The generated holes in the VB (+1.92 eV) more forcefully oxidized TEOA and H₂O molecule into oxidation products, such as H₂O₂, than that of bulk (+1.86 eV). The more negative CB level of g-C₃N₄ NB (-0.92 eV) than that of bulk parent g-C₃N₄ (-0.90 eV) enhanced the reduction ability of g-C₃N₄ NB. Obviously, the 3D network-like architecture not only maximally boosted light harvesting and offered more active sites but also reduced mass transfer at catalytic interface.

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Scheme 3 Illustration of proposed charge transfer in $Pt@g-C_3N_4$ NB under visible-light irradiation.

Conclusions

In this study, a 3D g-C₃N₄ nanobelt network was facilely achieved by hydrothermal treatment of bulk g-C₃N₄ in saturated H₂C₂O₄ solution. Furthermore, the modulation of electronic structure with enhanced redox ability was achieved by introducing oxygen-contained groups to g-C₃N₄ NB. The g-C₃N₄ NB networks showed a high visible-light photocatalytic HER activity and AQE. Notedly, g-C₃N₄ NB networks displayed a considerable rate of H₂ production in water without using sacrifice agent. This study demonstrates a facile and environment-friendly strategy to design highly-efficient g-C₃N₄ catalysts for potential application in solar energy photocatalytic water splitting.

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Graphical abstract

