

Nature-Inspired Environmental “Phosphorylation” Boosts Photocatalytic H₂ Production over Carbon Nitride Nanosheets under Visible-Light Irradiation

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Abstract: Inspired by the crucial roles of phosphates in natural photosynthesis, we explored an environmental “phosphorylation” strategy for boosting photocatalytic H₂ production over g-C₃N₄ nanosheets under visible light. As expected, a substantial improvement was observed in the rate of H₂ evolution to 947 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$, and the apparent quantum yield was as high as 26.1 % at 420 nm. The synergy of enhanced proton reduction and improved hole oxidation is proposed to account for the markedly increased activity. Our findings may provide a promising and facile approach to highly efficient photocatalysis for solar-energy conversion.

Hydrogen (H₂) production by the use of a photocatalyst and solar energy is an ideal solution to global energy and environmental issues and therefore attracts enormous interest.^[1] Unfortunately, the rational design and development of a low-cost, sustainable, and efficient visible-light photocatalyst continues to be a serious challenge in this field. Graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), first discovered by Liebig and termed “melon” (C₆N₉H₃), with a graphitic π -conjugated stacking structure consisting of tri-s-triazine repeating units, has recently emerged as an attractive metal-free photocatalyst because of the well-suited band positions for photocatalytic H₂ production under visible-light.^[2] To improve the H₂-evolution activity of g-C₃N₄, numerous modifications of its synthesis have already emerged, including nanostructure design,^[2d-f,h-k,3] molecule incorporation,^[4] and element doping.^[5] In particular, as motivated by the intriguing chemistry of graphene, the preparation of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets

has attracted considerable attention, because it has been predicted that the unique properties of such two-dimensional (2D) polymeric semiconductors would be fully exploited in these materials to maximize photocatalytic activity.^[2a,d,3a,6] It has been demonstrated that g-C₃N₄ nanosheets with an anisotropic structure can help to guide charge transfer along the in-plane direction to facilitate the separation of electron–hole pairs and subsequent photocatalysis.^[2d,e] Moreover, they were reported to possess more favorable band structures for water splitting relative to bulk g-C₃N₄.^[2a,d] Despite these pioneering successes, the activity of g-C₃N₄ for photocatalytic H₂ generation is still moderate.

In this study, natural photosynthesis gave us much inspiration to address this issue. In plants, the light-dependent reactions of photosynthesis occur in thylakoid membranes. As the primary components of thylakoid membranes, phosphates (phospholipids) are known to play vital roles in both transferring electrons in electron-transport chains and pumping protons to drive adenosine triphosphate synthesis during the light-dependent reactions.^[7] Meanwhile, at the stage of the “dark” reactions of photosynthesis, some phosphates function directly as mediators to participate in carbon fixation and finally convert solar energy into chemical energy in the form of sugars.^[7a] This process is known as the Calvin cycle. Hence, we were inspired to explore an environmental “phosphorylation” strategy that could mimic phosphate-involving natural photosynthesis to improve the photocatalytic H₂ production of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. Remarkably, the optimum addition of a phosphate (K₂HPO₄) to the reaction system boosted the H₂-generation rate to 947 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ under visible light, and an extremely high apparent quantum yield (AQY) of 26.1 % was observed at a wavelength of (420 \pm 14.5) nm. To the best of our knowledge, this AQY value is the highest reported for a g-C₃N₄-based photocatalyst (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information). As evidenced by (photo)electrocatalytic analysis and theoretical calculations, this significant improvement in H₂ production relies on the synergy of enhanced proton reduction and improved hole oxidation. More importantly, the phosphate was confirmed to indeed play roles resembling those in natural photosynthesis: as a proton pump to facilitate the proton transfer in reaction solutions, and as a mediator that participates directly in proton reduction, thus leading to a Calvin-cycle-like H₂-evolution pathway.

In this study, g-C₃N₄ nanosheets (CN-NS) were prepared by a modified “bottom-up” dicyandiamide-blowing strategy.^[8] Bulk g-C₃N₄ (CN) was also prepared as a reference by the direct polymerization of dicyandiamide.^[2a,b] In sharp contrast

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Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW
under <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/anie.201505802>.

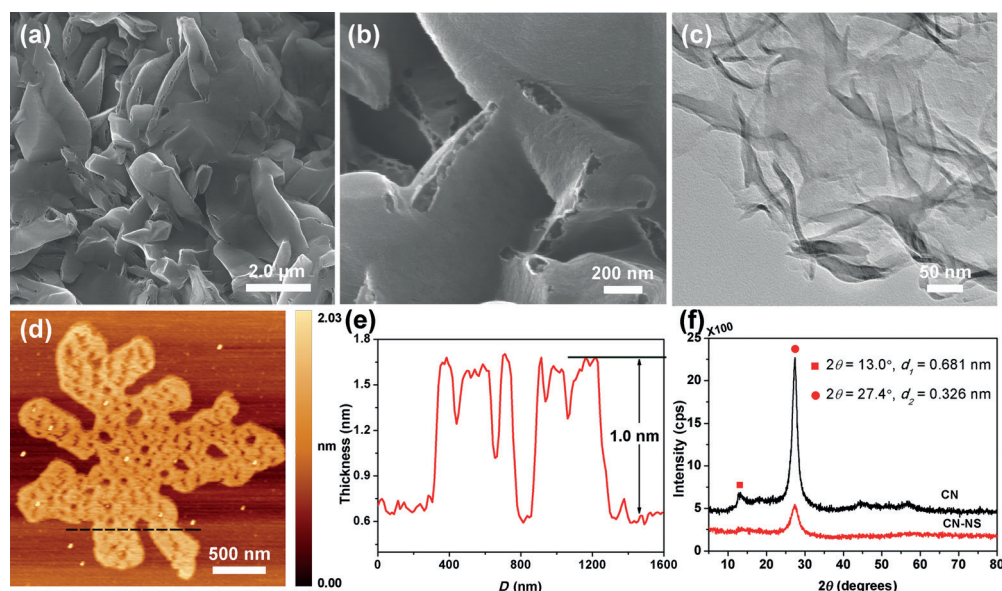


Figure 1. a, b) SEM and c) TEM images of CN-NS. d) Representative DFM image and e) the corresponding height profile determined along the dashed line in (d), revealing a uniform thickness of the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets of about 1.0 nm. f) XRD patterns of CN-NS and bulk CN.

to the dense, stacked lamellar texture of bulk CN (see Figure S1b in the Supporting Information), CN-NS were shown by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) to be a loose architecture integrated by g-C₃N₄ nanosheets with many wrinkles and irregular holes (Figure 1a,b; see also Figure S1a). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images further revealed the silklike structure of CN-NS (Figure 1c; see also Figure S2). Dynamic force microscopy (DFM) of a giant g-C₃N₄ nanosheet indicated that it had a uniform thickness of 1.0 nm, which correspond to about three atomic carbon nitride layers (Figure 1d,e).^[9] X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns (Figure 1f) and Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy (see Figure S3a) demonstrated that CN-NS show the same crystal and chemical structures as bulk CN. From the UV/Vis spectra, CN-NS were found to absorb visible light with a band gap of 2.77 eV (see Figure S3b).

In a procedure similar to a previously reported method, we examined H₂ production over CN-NS under visible-light irradiation with a Pt cocatalyst and triethanolamine (TEOA) as a hole scavenger.^[2b] As expected, CN-NS exhibited superior H₂-evolution activity in comparison with bulk CN (Figure 2a). This higher activity might be attributed to the higher surface area and the lower electron-hole-recombination rate in CN-NS (see Figure S3c,d).^[4,8] However, the most striking result was that the H₂ evolution was strongly accelerated when K₂HPO₄ (0.20 mol) was added to the CN-NS photocatalytic system. After irradiation for 2 h, the quantity of H₂ gas evolved was about 1.9 mmol, which much exceeds the amount of the catalyst (0.28 mmol). Furthermore, the turnover number (TON) with respect to the number of Pt atoms was calculated to be 247 (please see the Supporting Information for details). These results clearly indicate that the reaction proceeds catalytically.^[1a] The influence of the amount of K₂HPO₄ added on H₂ production was further investigated. The optimal amount of K₂HPO₄ in the

present photocatalytic system was demonstrated to be 0.20 mol, which led to a H₂-production rate of 947 μmol h⁻¹ (ca. 19000 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹; 50 mg of CN-NS; Figure 2b). A further increase in the amount of K₂HPO₄ added led to a slight decrease in activity, which may be caused by changes in the pH value of the solution or the surface state of the CN-NS. The details of this effect are still under investigation.

Under the optimal conditions, the wavelength-dependent apparent quantum yield (AQY) of H₂ evolution over CN-NS was shown to distinguish whether the activity was

driven by the light-excited electrons in the CN-NS or not. The AQY decreased as the wavelength of the monochromatic light increased, and it qualitatively tracked the characteristic absorption of the CN-NS (Figure 2c). This result suggests that the H₂ production is primarily induced by the photocatalysis of CN-NS.^[2c] At (380 ± 18) nm, CN-NS gave a peak AQY of 45.7%. Moreover, even under visible-light irradiation at (420 ± 14.5) nm, the AQY still reached 26.1%, which is much greater than previously reported values (the highest previously reported value is 9.6%; see Table S1). Comparisons of light absorption, crystal structure, and elemental composition between the as-prepared and the post-reaction CN-NS revealed no obvious change during the photocatalytic reaction (see Figures S5 and S6), thus suggesting good stability of the CN-NS. When methanol or Na₂S was used as the sacrificial agent or the CN-NS catalyst was changed to bulk C₃N₄ or other semiconductors (such as TiO₂, CdS), much improved H₂ yields were also observed after the addition of HPO₄²⁻ (see Figure 2d and Figure S7), thus confirming the generality of this strategy.

The addition of K₂HPO₄ (0.20 mol) to the normal reaction solution (10 vol% aqueous TEOA) not only led to an increase in the ion concentrations (K⁺ and HPO₄²⁻) but also led to a decrease in the pH value from 10.86 to 10.14 as a result of neutralization between K₂HPO₄ (a typical amphoteric salt, acting as an acid) and TEOA (a typical organic base), both of which have been demonstrated to be critical for the photocatalysis.^[10] However, the question still remained as to which factors play the dominant roles in enhancing H₂ production under the present conditions. H₂ production in a pH-adjusted TEOA solution (pH 10.14) was first examined. Although the low pH value was beneficial for proton reduction, slightly decreased activity was observed in comparison with the reaction without K₂HPO₄ (see Figure S8). This result implies that the markedly enhanced H₂ production

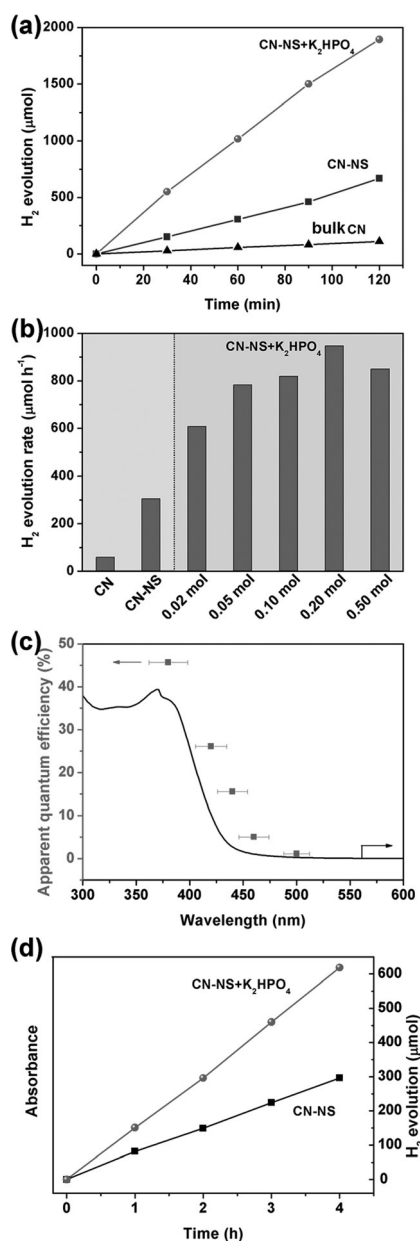


Figure 2. a) H₂ production over CN-NS in aqueous solutions of TEOA. b) Rates of H₂ production from TEOA solutions with different amounts of K₂HPO₄. c) Wavelength-dependent apparent quantum yield (AQY) of H₂ evolution over CN-NS in a TEOA solution containing K₂HPO₄ (0.20 mol). d) H₂-evolution performance in aqueous solutions containing methanol. "CN-NS + K₂HPO₄" in (a, d) indicates that H₂ production was performed in the presence of K₂HPO₄ (0.20 mol). (Light source: 300 W xenon lamp with an L40 cutoff filter.)

cannot be attributed to the decrease in the pH value. We then examined H₂ production in the presence of KCl (0.4 or 0.6 mol). In both cases, very limited enhancement of activity was observed (see Figure S9), thus clearly suggesting a negligible effect of both K⁺ ions and the ion strength on H₂ evolution over CN-NS. When the pH value of these KCl-containing solutions was further adjusted to 10.14 with HCl, we were surprised to observe decreased H₂-evolution rates. These combined results indicate that the low pH value

adversely affects H₂ production in the present system; it is likely that the oxidative half-reaction of sacrificial agents, as induced by valence-band holes, is suppressed at low pH values.^[10c,11] By excluding the effects of the pH value, K⁺ ions, and ion strength, we therefore speculate that it is HPO₄²⁻ ions that boost H₂ evolution over CN-NS. Direct evidence to support this conclusion is also the observation that variations in the concentration of HPO₄²⁻ are consistent with the trend in the photocatalytic activity (see Figure S10).

To verify that generated H₂ essentially originates from H₂O rather than HPO₄²⁻, we conducted isotope tracer analyses with D₂O on a gas chromatograph/mass spectrometer system. Considering the fast H-D exchange of TEOA with D₂O, we used methanol and Na₂S as sacrificial agents in the tests instead of TEOA. Both experiments confirmed the formation of D₂ (see Figure S11). Owing to H-D exchange between D₂O and HPO₄²⁻, a small quantity of HD was also observed.^[12] These results clearly indicate that water is the hydrogen source for H₂ evolution during the above photocatalytic reactions. Because PO₄³⁻ does not contain H⁺ but can be converted into HPO₄²⁻ through an ionization equilibrium with H₂O, H₂ production in the presence of K₃PO₄ instead of K₂HPO₄ was also investigated (see Figure S12). As expected, enhanced activity was also observed, which offers additional support to our above conclusion.

Since only slight changes in the pH value of the reaction solution were observed after the addition of K₂HPO₄, the well-discussed non-Nernstian band-edge-shift mechanism to explain enhanced H₂ production over semiconductor photocatalysts seems not to be applicable to the present case.^[10] Excluding the possibility of the photodecomposition of HPO₄²⁻ to H₂ (see Figure S13) and an influence from interface interaction between CN-NS and K₂HPO₄ (see Figure S14), we therefore speculate that the HPO₄²⁻ environment may exert a direct influence on the surface redox reaction. (Photo)electrocatalytic analysis was employed to investigate the origin of the markedly enhanced H₂-evolution performance with HPO₄²⁻.^[10b] Generally, semiconductor photocatalytic H₂ evolution is considered to occur on the surface of loaded cocatalysts (Pt in this case) by proton reduction (see Figure S15).^[13] Therefore, by using Pt as the working electrode, we first examined linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) of the electrocatalytic H₂ evolution to simulate the proton-reduction pathway on platinum-loaded CN-NS during the photocatalysis. As shown in Figure 3 a, a reduction current with an onset at nearly 0 V (versus a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE)) was observed, thus indicating that the H₂-evolution reaction occurred on the Pt surface.^[14] Furthermore, when the amount of K₂HPO₄ added was increased from 0 to 0.20 mol, the current density increased by a factor of more than 10 at 0.3 V, thus suggesting that added K₂HPO₄ is capable of effectively promoting H₂ evolution on the Pt surface. To rule out an effect of the pH value, experiments were also performed at the same pH value of 10.14 with different amounts of K₂HPO₄, and consistent results were also obtained (see Figure S16). According to a report by Kreuer and co-workers, such a promotion in H₂ evolution might be partly attributed to the increased proton conductivity: the addition of HPO₄²⁻ can

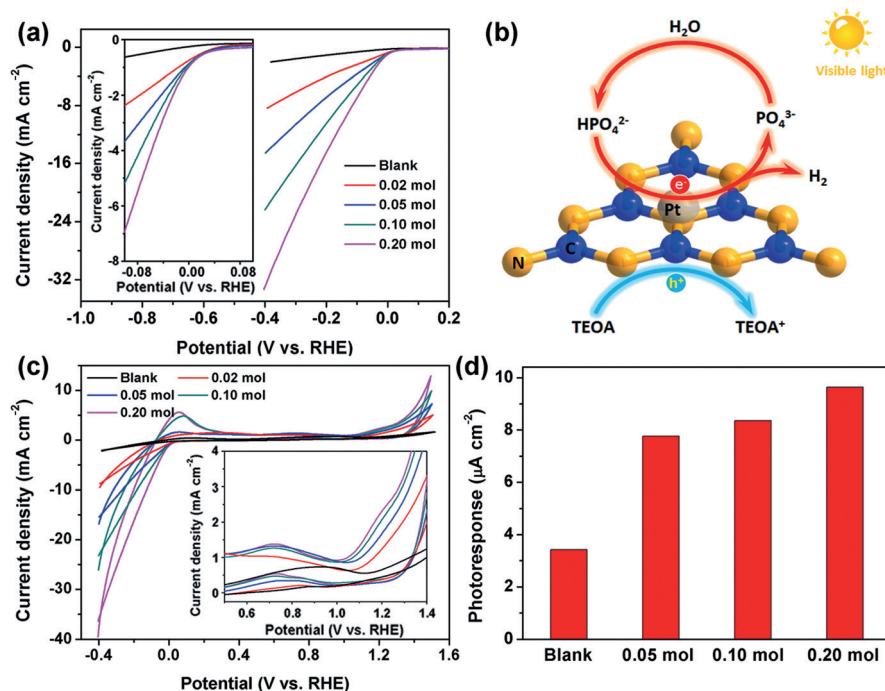


Figure 3. a) Electrochemical H₂ evolution on Pt electrodes in electrolytes containing different amounts of K₂HPO₄. The inset shows the enlarged LSV curves in the potential range of -0.1 to 0.1 V. b) Schematic illustration of photocatalytic H₂ evolution under the proposed proton-reduction mechanism involving HPO₄²⁻. c) Voltammograms obtained at Pt electrodes for TEOA solutions with and without K₂HPO₄. The inset shows the TEOA-oxidation peaks. d) Net oxidation photocurrent density for TEOA on CN-NS electrodes with different amounts of K₂HPO₄. (The net photoresponse in this case was obtained by subtracting the dark current from the total photocurrent. Visible-light source: 500 W xenon lamp equipped with an L40 cutoff filter.)

lead to the formation of hydrogen-bonded chains of HPO₄²⁻, which can function like the proton pump in natural photosynthesis to facilitate proton transport in the reaction solution.^[15]

Free-energy diagrams calculated for H₂ evolution from H₂O and HPO₄²⁻ (see Figure S17) clearly showed that HPO₄²⁻ is much more advantageous for the creation of H₂, as evidenced by the larger decrease in free energy than with H₂O. LSV also showed that the addition of HPO₄²⁻ leads to a more positive onset potential for H₂ evolution (see Figure S18). These results imply that, apart from serving as a carrier of protons to facilitate H₂ evolution, HPO₄²⁻ is also likely to be a mediator that participates directly in the photocatalytic reaction, thus giving rise to a new proton-reduction pathway (Figure 3b): HPO₄²⁻ instead of H₂O provides the H⁺ to react with photogenerated electrons and subsequently produce H₂ and PO₄³⁻ on the surface of Pt cocatalysts (see Figure S15).^[13] As demonstrated by the energy calculations and LSV results, this process is more effective than direct H₂ evolution from H₂O, thus possibly making an additional contribution to the enhancement of photocatalytic efficiency. Because the solution pH values were found to be slightly decreased after the photocatalytic reaction (see Figure S19), it could be speculated that after H₂ evolution from HPO₄²⁻, the formed PO₄³⁻ immediately combined with H⁺ from H₂O to regenerate HPO₄²⁻ and finally complete the proton-reduction cycle (Figure 3b).

Clearly, this process shows many similarities to the Calvin cycle in natural photosynthesis for carbon fixation.

The influence of adding K₂HPO₄ on TEOA oxidation was investigated by voltammetry. An irreversible oxidation peak was observed at 0.97 V (vs. RHE; see Figure S20a), which could be associated with the oxidation of TEOA.^[16] Importantly, as the amount of K₂HPO₄ added increased, the oxidation current density increased, the peak gradually shifted to a more negative potential (0.72 V), and a second oxidation peak appeared at 1.2 V (Figure 3c; see also Figure S21).^[16b] These results suggest that the oxidation of TEOA can be promoted efficiently by K₂HPO₄. To better simulate the oxidation reaction occurring in the photocatalytic system, we prepared CN-NS thin films and used them as working electrodes in these photoelectrocatalytic TEOA-oxidation tests (see Figure S22). The net oxidation photocurrent density of TEOA with different amounts of K₂HPO₄ is shown in Figure 3d. It is apparent

that the photocurrent density increases as the amount of K₂HPO₄ increases, thus proving that, in the presence of K₂HPO₄, the oxidation of TEOA by the photoexcitation of CN-NS can also be enhanced. This feature would be beneficial for the fast consumption of holes in excited CN-NS and the suppression of e⁻/h⁺ recombination and should consequently improve the photocatalytic efficiency. We therefore propose that the substantial improvement in photocatalytic H₂ generation over CN-NS might be a result of the synergy of enhanced proton reduction and improved TEOA photooxidation in the presence of HPO₄²⁻.

In summary, we have demonstrated that an environmental modulation inspired by a natural photosystem, namely, the use of a phosphate environment (precisely, the presence of HPO₄²⁻ ions) can lead to a significant enhancement in photocatalytic H₂ production over CN-NS under visible light. For example, with the optimal addition of HPO₄²⁻, a high H₂ evolution rate of 947 μmol h⁻¹ was observed, with an apparent quantum yield of approximately 26.1% at (420 ± 14.5) nm: the highest value reported for a carbon nitride photocatalyst. This improvement relies on the synergy of enhanced proton reduction and improved TEOA photooxidation, as evidenced by (photo)electrocatalytic analysis and theoretical calculations. As a mimic of natural photosynthesis, this strategy of environmental “phosphorylation” could potentially be applied to other semiconductor systems (see Figure S7) and provide a facile approach to efficient photo-

catalysis, such as H₂ production, CO₂ photoreduction, and photoelectric conversion.

Acknowledgements

This research received financial support from the World Premier International Research Center Initiative (WPI Initiative) on Materials Nanoarchitectonics (MANA), MEXT (Japan), and the National Basic Research Program of China (973 Program, 2014CB239301).

Keywords: energy conversion · graphitic carbon nitride · hydrogen production · photocatalysis · photosynthesis

How to cite: *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2015**, *54*, 13561–13565
Angew. Chem. **2015**, *127*, 13765–13769

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Received: June 24, 2015

Revised: August 15, 2015

Published online: September 21, 2015