

**Enhanced Photocatalytic Degradation of Industrial Dye by
g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ Nanocomposite: Role of Shape of TiO₂**

**A Dissertation submitted
In
partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of**

**Master of Science
in
Chemistry**

by

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**THAPAR INSTITUTE
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**SCHOOL OF CHEMISTRY & BIOCHEMISTRY
THAPAR INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY
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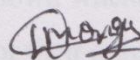
CERTIFICATE

Acknowledgement

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled “**Enhanced photocatalytic degradation of industrial dye by C_3N_4/TiO_2 nanocomposite: Role of shape of TiO_2** ” is an authentic record of my work carried out as requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Science in Chemistry at Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala under the supervision of Dr.Soumen Basu, Associate Professor, School of Chemistry & Biochemistry, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala during July’ 2016 to July’ 2018. No part of the matter embodied in this report has been submitted to any other university or institute for the award of any degree.

I would like to express my gratitude to all the Teaching Faculty of the department for their cooperation and guidance.

I would also like to express my gratitude to Mr. Akansha Mehta, Mr. Anshu Mishra, Ms. Shagun Kaur, Mr. Sarbajit and Ms. Anchal who never turned me down whenever I approached them for any kind of help. Also thanks to all the research scholars for their cooperation.



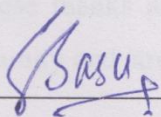
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Divya Monga

It is certified that the above statement made by the student is correct to the best of my/our knowledge and belief.

I would like to express my thanks to my family and friends who have always supported me and have been a source of strength and inspiration to me during the entire period of the work.

All these thanks are, however, only fraction of what is due to almighty for granting me an opportunity to successfully accomplish this project.



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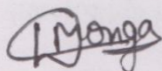
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Abstract

Enhanced photodegradation of RhB dye by using synthesized g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ nanocomposite having different shapes of TiO₂, showing role of shape of TiO₂ in photodegradation has been demonstrated in this present work. As TiO₂ has a wide band gap of 3.2 eV and utilize energy of radiations of only UV region of light, so has some limitations as a photocatalyst. To improve the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂ we have incorporated g-C₃N₄, a visible light active photocatalyst. The TiO₂ nanoparticles with different shapes (Nanorods, Nanospheres, and Nanotubes) were prepared by different methods. The g-C₃N₄ was prepared by pyrolysis of Urea. The g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ composites were prepared by stirring g-C₃N₄ and pre-synthesized TiO₂ nanoparticles. The ratio of g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ nanoparticles is 1:1. On performing photocatalytic experiment we have found that the degradation of RhB dye under visible light irradiation has been increased remarkably upon incorporation of g-C₃N₄ with different shapes of TiO₂. Also, shape of TiO₂ has a remarkable effect in photodegradation. The best degradation performance of ~97% was obtained from g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorods) composite. Although, degradation efficiency of composite of other shapes of TiO₂ (Nanospheres and Nanotubes) with g-C₃N₄ were also found to be greater than that of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (P25) composite. Results from UV-Vis absorption study, X-ray Diffraction studies, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy suggest that the improvement in photocatalytic activity of composite is due to decrease in band gap energy and increased light absorption in visible region. Also there is an increase in electron hole separation efficiency due to effectual interfacial transfer of electron between g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ (NR, NS, NT) of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ composites. The BET surface area analyzer, HRTEM, FESEM and Electron Diffraction studies with Color mapping indicate successful incorporation of g-C₃N₄ with TiO₂ in the composites. Results from scavenger study indicate that electron and superoxide ions act as main reactive species in photodegradation of RhB dye by the composite.

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List of Abbreviations and Symbols

1.	BOD	Biological Oxygen Demand
2.	BET	Brunauer-Emmett-Teller
3.	RhB	Rhodamine B
4.	AOPs	Advanced Oxidation Processes
5.	eV	Electron Volt
6.	nm	Nanometer
7.	°C	Degree Celsius
8.	g-C₃N₄	Graphitic Carbon Nitride
9.	TTIP	Titanium tetraisopropoxide
10.	MB	Methylene Blue
11.	LED	Light Emitting Diode
12.	EDX/EDS	Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
13.	Θ	Theta
14.	Min	Minutes
15.	M	Molar
16.	N	Normal
17.	h	Hours
18.	g	Gram
19.	λ	Wavelength
20.	λ_{max}	Maximum wavelength
21.	K	Kelvin
22.	m²g⁻¹	Meter square per gram
23.	μm	Micrometer
24.	μL	Micro litre
25.	ppm	Parts per million

26.	mL	Millilitre
27.	MW	Molecular Weight
28.	NR	Nanorods
29.	NT	Nanotubes
30.	NPs	Nanoparticles
31.	NS	Nanospheres
32.	%	Percentage
33.	BJH	Barrett– Joyner–Halenda
34.	kV	KiloVolt
35.	FESEM	Field Emission Scanning electron microscope
36.	mg	Miligram
37.	cm	Centimeter
38.	STP	Standard Temperature and Pressure
39.	HRTEM	High Resolution Transmission electron microscope
40.	UV-Vis	Ultraviolet-Visible
41.	W	Watt
42.	XRD	X-ray diffractometer
43.	XPS	X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
44.	a.u.	Arbitrary Units

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Now a day, saving water is most important to save our planet and future of mankind. The world is achieving new heights with the development of science, technology, society and mankind but at the cost of our important resources. Environmental disorders are one of the results of this rapid growth is out of which pollution of air, water etc. is a big problem. Human activities have caused a great harm to our natural resources e.g. water. There seems to be a crisis of the freshwater resources due to their fast depletion. Water pollution is a worldwide problem therefore removal of pollutants from water is the necessitous and for this developing a cost effective and environmentally safe method is a challenging task [1].

People working for water purification and environment are concerned for our water resources constituting both groundwater and polluted wastewaters. For this, now water quality norms now become very strict against the hazardous pollutants in many countries. Now a day, with increasing revolution in science and technology there is a high demand in industries for newer chemicals to be used to control water pollution [2].

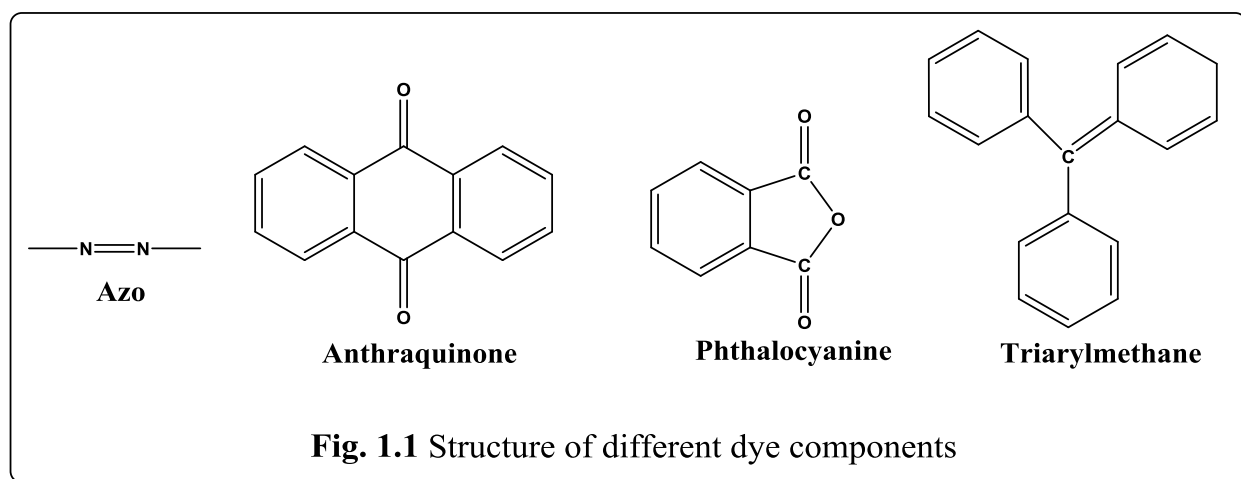
1.1 Dyes

Use of synthetic dyes is prominent in almost all fields of the consumer goods sector [3]. Worldwide there is production of about 45000 tons of organic dye yearly, greater than 11% of its is lost as effluvium in water bodies [4]. There are wide range of activities in a textile industry from preparation of textile material to its dyeing and finishing. All these activities are highly polluting and also consume large amount of energy and water [5]. The effluents from these processes are usually harmful, highly colored, mutagenic or carcinogenic. Substantial environmental hazards are caused by these waste waters because of their strong colors greater chemical oxygen demand (80% is because of supplementary dyeing agents like starch and $C_2H_3NaO_2$ and 20% is due to dyes) and complex chemical nature of effluents [6]. The dyes affect photosynthesis by changing the absorption and reflection of sunlight on the water. Also there are

other quality indicators such as biological oxygen demand (BOD) that are also important to evaluate the water quality.

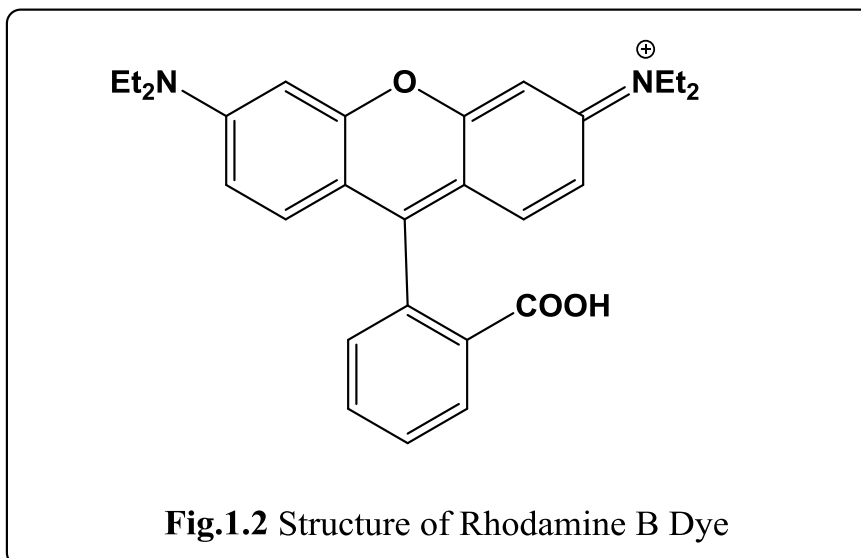
On basis of the chromophores present in them, these dyes were divided in 20-30 groups. Some important are phthalocyanine, anthraquinone, triarylmethane dyes and azo (mono, di, tri and ploy) azo dyes [3] (Figure 1).

Textile dyestuffs can be grouped into 10 categories or classes: Basic Dyes, Acid Dyes, Direct Dyes, Vat Dyes, Mordant Dyes, Reactive Dyes, Azoic Dyes, Disperse Dyes, Sulphur Dyes, and Pigment Dyes [7].



1.1.1 Rhodamine B Dye

Rhodamine B (RhB), one of the most commonly used dyes is extensively used for industrial purposes, such as paint, paper, printing and dyeing, leathers etc. Rhodamine B is an example of basic dye [8]. RhB is a good water tracer fluorescent and is extensively used as a colorant in food, paper and textiles industry [9]. It is harmful for animals and human beings, and causes skin irritation, respiratory tract and eye infections. It also causes the carcinogenicity, neurotoxicity and developmental disorders in living beings [10]. The λ_{max} of RhB Dye comes near 555nm.



One of the major problems with the dyes is that they are exceptionally stable in sun light and also during washing. Also they oppose the effect of microbial attack. So that, they aren't degraded easily and they are not readily removed from wastewater by frequently used effluent treatment systems [11].

1.2 Conventional Effluent Treatment Method

1.2.1 Physical Methods: Physical methods of separation are use to separate some heavy materials and others easily separable materials from the wastewater. These methods involve [5]:

- i. **Filtration**
- ii. **Coagulation-Flocculation**
- iii. **Adsorption**
- iv. **Ion Exchange**

1.2.2 Chemical Methods: Chemical methods involve degradation and removal of various dyes, metal ions etc. from wastewater [5].

- i. **Ozonation**
- ii. **Chemical oxidation**
- iii. **Advanced Oxidation Processes (Photochemical and Photocatalytic)**

- iv. Fenton's Reaction
- v. Electrochemical oxidation

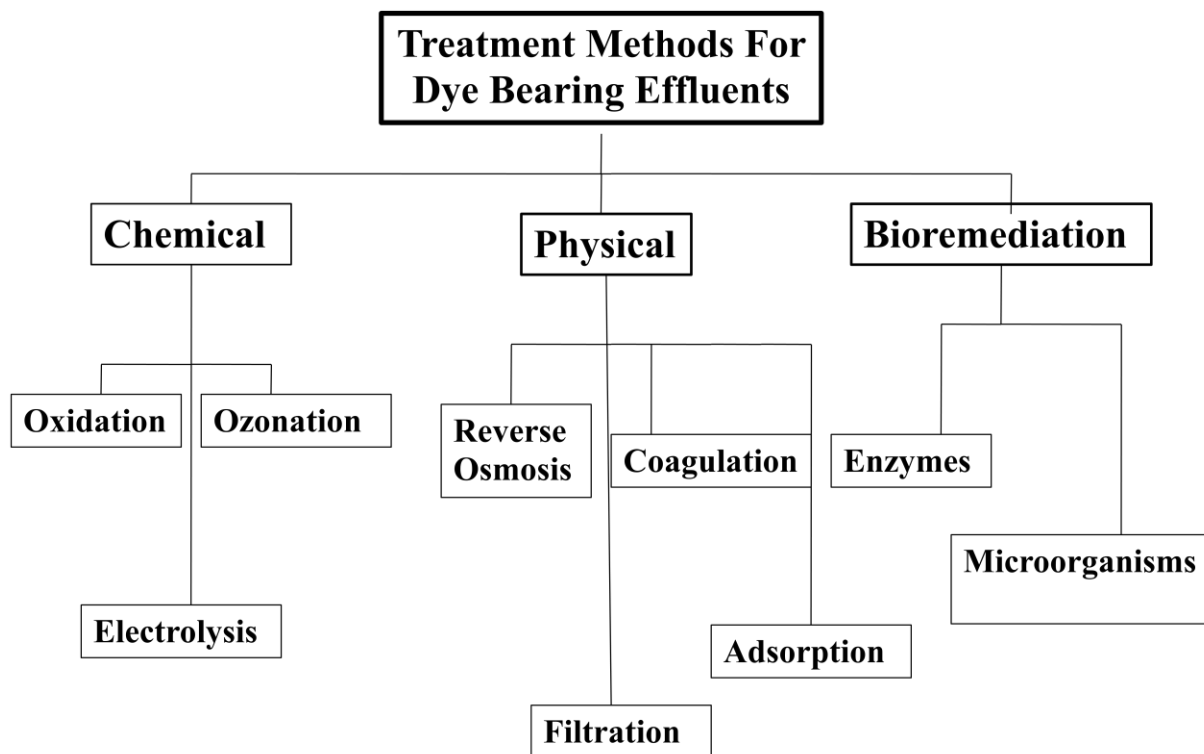


Fig.1.3An overview of methods for treatment of dye bearing effluents

1.2.3 Bioremediation: Use of microbes for degradation of organic pollutants is called bioremediation.

For degradation of organic pollutants from water, AOP's [12] have been appearing to be most effective for near complete degradation [13, 14]. In Advanced Oxidation Process, the technique which has great capability for degradation of organic pollutants is semiconductor photocatalysis. There are many advantages of AOP's over other conventional oxidation processes, like (1) degradation process requires only solar or near UV-light, (2) no requirement of addition of any other chemicals, (3) complete mineralization of the pollutants, and (4) works at room temperature [15, 16].

1.3 TiO₂ Nanoparticles as Photocatalyst

Semiconductors such as TiO₂ or ZnO are commonly used as catalytic agents because of their low costs, high stability, high efficiency and very less toxicity [17]. TiO₂ is a powerful photocatalyst because of its high oxidizing power, long-term photostability, and non-toxicity. The organic pollutants can be degraded into less toxic and easily biodegradable compounds of low molecular weight by using TiO₂ catalyst [18, 19]. The physical, structural and chemical properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles determine some of its specific applications. Rutile, anatase and brookite are the three crystalline phases of TiO₂. The thermodynamic stable state is rutile, while the anatase and brookite are metastable states. The phase crystallite size, structure, pore structure, and specific surface area of TiO₂ determine its photocatalytic activity. [5].

One further important advantage of TiO₂ is the fact that the process of photocatalysis can be powered by natural sunlight also, thus significantly reducing the electrical power requirements and lowering the operating costs [20]. Nano-TiO₂ can photocatalytically oxidize organic compounds, when used with light. Different types of nanomaterials can be prepared from TiO₂, including nanoparticles, nanotubes, nanorods, nanowires, nanospheres and mesoporous and nanoporous TiO₂ containing materials [21].

1.4 Limitation of TiO₂ as Photocatalyst

To some extent, the worldwide technological use of TiO₂ is compelled by its wide band gap of ~3.2 eV, and for photocatalytic activation, it shows low efficiency in utilizing sunlight as it require irradiation of UV light [20]. Due to the following limitations of TiO₂: 1) less adsorption ability of hydrophobic pollutants; 2) difficulty of separation and recovery; and 3) high aggregation tendency, some of the practical applications were also hindered [22]. Only radiations having wavelength of less than 390 nm can be utilized by TiO₂, this makes only 5% of solar light. This is because of its wide band gap [23].

1.5 Incorporation of g-C₃N₄

To increase the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂, we need a photocatalyst which is powerful and visible light-active like graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), a polymeric semiconductor. Due to its potential application in photochemistry, g-C₃N₄ has attracted concentration of researchers [24,

25]. This organic semiconductor can be used as a promising photocatalyst activated under visible light irradiation. Because of its simple and easy synthesis, high physicochemical stability, fascinating electronic band structure and “earth-abundant” nature, it is extensively used as a photocatalytic material. The energy band-gap of carbon nitride was estimated to ~ 2.7 eV by Wang et al, which is very less than band gap of TiO_2 particles [26, 27]. Urea was found as the economical source for production of carbon nitride (C_3N_4) nanosheets. Urea can be converted into carbon nitride by pyrolysis [28]. Therefore, to attain the enhanced light harvesting capacity and enhanced charge separation of TiO_2 , it is suitable to couple g- C_3N_4 with TiO_2 semiconductor [29]. Many ideas were proposed to unite the great photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 nanoparticles and the high surface area with good electron/hole transfer capability of g- C_3N_4 , to form g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ nanocomposite (a new efficient photocatalyst) [30, 31].

1.6 Thesis Objectives

For comparative study we have prepared a series of catalysts having g- C_3N_4 combined with different shapes of TiO_2 (like nanorods, nanospheres, and nanotubes and DegussaP25) and its activities are compared with the photocatalytic activity of C_3N_4 and P25 alone.

The composite's structure and composition was characterized and evaluated using X-ray Diffraction (XRD), Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) isotherms, Energy Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS). Oxidation state of elements was determined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The surface morphology was studied by using High Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HRTEM) and Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM). Photocatalytic efficiency of the prepared photocatalysts was determined by studying the degradation of Rhodamine B dye under visible light irradiation.

Mechanism of the degradation is determined by Scavenger study. Also, the effect on the photocatalytic activity by different catalyst concentration and pH of dye solution and reusability of catalyst was investigated.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

An immediate problem facing humanity is the lack of clean and accessible water. Water covers about 70% of earth's surface, however out of this only 1% is suitable for human consumption [Shiklomanov et al., 2000]. The world's water supply is under considerable stress due to increasing industrialization, increasing demand, and a decreasing supply due to pollution. This can be a threat to our health and environment. It has become the matter of our social and economic concern [Chen, D. & Ray, A. K., 1999].

Textile industry is one of the rapidly developing industrial sectors. It is a remarkable contributor to many national economies; encircle both small and large-scale operations worldwide. Dyestuffs and other trading colorants have come out as an interest of environmental remediation attempts [Nasr et al., 1996].

Textile industries release these untreated effluents which are highly coloured and contain significant amount of contaminants in it that pollute water bodies. These effluents are visible in water even when present at very low concentration and also degradation products of these dyes are often carcinogenic (Kim et al. 2003). To remove these pollutants from wastewater many methods have been described some of them are adsorption, membrane filtration, precipitation, coagulation/flocculation, ultrasonic, ion exchange, flotation, electrolysis, mineralization, advanced oxidation processes and chemical reduction. However, these approaches often involve complicated procedures (Cheima Fersi and Mahmoud Dhahbi 2008).

The technologies which are presently used to degrade the dye in contaminated water includes the following processes 1.primary (adsorption, flocculation), 2.secondary (biological methods), and 3.chemical processes (like chlorination, ozonization) [More et al., 1989; Patil and Shinde et al., 1988]. However these methods are non-destructive, because they give rise to new type of pollution by only transferring the non-biodegradable matter into slime, which require further treatment [Chaudhuri and Sur, 2000; Arslan et al., 2000; Stock et al., 2000].

So some other techniques like Advanced Oxidation Process(AOP) has gain attention from various different sectors of scientific community as it produces remarkably less residuals as compared to the classical methods and is easy to handle. Amongst the several techniques utilized in the AOP approach are the radiation induced degradation of dyes [Vahdat et al., 2010; Mohamed et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2008; Dajka et al., 2003], UV photolytic technique [Elmorsi et al., 2010; AlHamedi et al., 2009 ; Gul and YildIrIm, 2009] and photocatalytic approach [Raufet al., 2010; Xu et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2009; Bukallah et al., 2007; Habibi and Talebian, 2007] which are under main consideration.

2.1 Treatment of Organic Dyes

An excellent method for treatment of environmentally toxic materials is the Advanced Oxidation Process (Daghrir et al., 2013). Observing dye instability for the first instance by the photocatalytic reduction of Methylene Blue dye to the leuco form in the presence of an illuminated inorganic semiconductor TiO_2 and CdSb was reported by Pamfilov et al., (1969) and Yoneyama et al., (1972) respectively.

Many attempts have been investigated to degrade the organic dye photochemically from wastewater. The photoreduction of Methyl Orange to a hydrazine derivative in presence of colloidal TiO_2 and photoinduced transfer of electron from TiO_2 to Methyl Orange ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 470$ nm) results in the bleaching of the dye, this was reported by Brown and Darwent, (1984a & b). However in the late 1990s the field legitimately “took off”. As documented by more than 2000 publications [Blake, 2001], fundamental and applied research on this area in all over the world has been performed extensively during the last twenty years.

The photocatalytic degradation process has appeared as a versatile and potentially influential technique for dealing with the problem of different types of dye containing wastewater. A number of research groups have dealt with the photocatalytic reduction of these dyes in the presence of UV or visible light with very good results [Davis et al., 1994; Vinodgopal et al., 1996; Zhang et al., 1998].

2.2 Semiconductor Photocatalysts

Akihiko Kudo and Yugo Miseki synthesize heterogeneous photocatalyst materials with different metal ions like Ti^{4+} , Zr^{4+} , W^{6+} for water splitting in 2008. Direct splitting of water by an oxide semiconductor ($In_{1-x}Ni_xTaO_4$) photocatalyst under irradiation of visible light is shown by Zhigang Zou et al. 2001. In 2008, Peng Wang et al. showed that in visible light, Ag@AgCl can act as a highly active and stable catalyst for photodegradation. Solid Solution of GaN:ZnO is a good photocatalyst for Water Splitting under visible light [Kazuhiko Maeda et al. 2005].

In many photocatalytic studies commercially accessible samples of TiO_2 (Degussa P-25) have been widely used [Rajeshwar et al., 2008]. The photoreactivity of Degussa P25 TiO_2 works the best in environmental applications (Martin 29 et al., 1994a & b). Because of its (i) reasonably well defined nature (i.e. BET surface area of 55 for anatase : rutile 70:30% mixture) $15\text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$ typically nonporous and 30 nm crystallite sizes (0.1 μm diameter) aggregates and (ii) a significantly greater photocatalytic activity as compared to other easily available samples of TiO_2 [V.Brezová et al., 1997].

The decolourization of some reactive textile dyes namely Procion Brilliant Magenta M-B (PBM), Procion Brilliant Orange M-2R (PBO), and Procion Brilliant yellow M-4G (PBY) reported by Sivakumar and Shanthi, (2001) using different grades of TiO_2 semiconductor (CDH, DEGUSSA and CERAC) as catalyst under sunlight and concluded that TiO_2 (Degussa P-25) was better than any other grade.

It was explained on the basis of the slow electron-hole recombination in case of Degussa P25. Zielinska et al., (2003, 2001) reported less activity of Tytanpol A11 than Degussa P25 for the photocatalytic decomposition of various organic dyes (Acid Black, Direct Green 99, Reactive Red 198, Acid Blue 7 and Reactive Black 5). This is due to different physical properties of the two titania materials. Bouanimba et al., (2011) compared the efficiency of P25-Degussa and PC500-Millennium photocatalysts and reported the higher efficiency of TiO_2 P25 than TiO_2 from Millennium for the degradation of Bromophenol blue.

Nano- TiO_2 modified with folic acid has the ability kill cells when photoinduced is revealed by Lai and Lee in 2009. Li et al. in 2012 synthesized TiO_2 codoped with nonmetal (like carbon) and metal ions (like molybdenum) by hydrothermal treatment processes. Heat treated TiO_2 can act as

a photocatalyst and its photocatalytic activity was investigated by Devi and Krishnaiah in 1999 by the photodegradation of two azo dyes (p-Hydroxy-azo-benzene and p-Aminoazo-benzene).

Decomposition of aspirin by immobilized polymeric TiO₂ is prepared and characterized by Mukherjee et al. in 2013 under UV and visible light. (Neppolian et al., 2002) investigated the photocatalytic degradation of three trading textile dyes with different structures using TiO₂ (Degussa P25) photocatalyst in aqueous solution under solar irradiation as a function of COD reduction.

Heterogeneous photocatalysis uses semiconductors as a photocatalyst. There are different photocatalysts utilized in this process, among them TiO₂ has been shown to have the highest effectiveness in removing harmful compounds (Mehrotra and Ray et al., 2003).

2.3 Different shapes of TiO₂ semiconductor

As different shapes of TiO₂ have different properties, so different shapes of TiO₂ have been prepared and their activities were observed. TiO₂ nanotubes were synthesized and characterized by Shahrara Afshar and Moones Hakamizadeh in 2008, they have prepared TiO₂ nanotubes from different precursors namely nanopowder anatase TiO₂, TiO₂ (Degussa P25) and industrial anatase TiO₂ (COSMO) by two treatments: hydrothermal and chemical.

Poulomi Roy et al. 2011 synthesized TiO₂ nanotubes by simple electrochemical oxidation of metallic titanium reactants and its properties and applications were also studied. In 2005, Sangjin Han et al. synthesize highly crystalline TiO₂ nanocrystals at low-temperature and study their application for photodegradation. They have prepared different types of TiO₂ nanocrystals from the same precursor titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) by using different additives and applying different conditions.

JJ Chao et al. 2011 report hydrothermal synthesis of TiO₂ nanorod arrays by titanium butoxide as titanium source on transparent conducting substrates. Zewei Yang et al. 2015 showed Crystal-Controlled synthesis of TiO₂ Nanorods via hydrothermal method. They also show that rutile and brookite are highly efficient photocatalysts. Similarly, Jiarui Huang et al. 2015 report simple synthesis of porous TiO₂ nanospheres and also studied their photocatalytic activity.

In 2017, Xiaojia Li, Mingming Zou and Yang Wang report Synthesis of Mesoporous Anatase TiO₂ Nanospheres by Soft-Template method and showed its enhanced photoactivity. N. Santhosh et al. 2017 synthesize microwave-assisted hydrothermally prepared mesoporous TiO₂ nanospheres. They also have many applications in dye sensitized solar cells.

2.4 Graphitic Carbon Nitride (g-C₃N₄)

Due to application of Graphitic carbon nitride in photochemistry, it has attracted a lot of attention in recent years. S. C. Yan et al. 2009 prepared fabricated g-C₃N₄ by directly heating Melamine and its photodegradation performance was also determined. Activity of g-C₃N₄ as photocatalyst has become recognizable in recent years. S. C. Yan et al. 2010 prepared Boron-Doped g-C₃N₄ and use it for photodegradation of RhB and methyl orange dyes under irradiation of visible light. Shaowen Cao and Jianguo Yu* in 2014 showed Hydrogen Generation from g-C₃N₄ based photocatalyst.

2.5 Composite of g-C₃N₄ with TiO₂

Composite of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ were prepared by Xifeng Lu, Qilong Wang, and Deliang Cui in 2010. They hydrolyze g-C₃N₄ precursors and Ti(OC₄H₉)₄ in nitrogen atmosphere at room temperature. Hongjian Yan and Haoxin Yang in 2010 reported evolution of H₂ by photocatalysis with prepared TiO₂/g-C₃N₄ nanocomposites under visible light irradiation.

g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ hybrid structures synthesized by simple impregnation method when used for the degradation of phenol under UV irradiation showed good photocatalytic activities [C. Miranda et al., 2013]. Na Yang et al. 2011, synthesize N-doped TiO₂/C₃N₄ composite. They first hydrolyze TiCl₄ and C₃N₄ at different weight ratios and then heated the hydrolysis product to get the composite. The composite showed enhanced photocatalytic properties. Kai Dai et al. 2014 reported degradation of organic pollutants by facet coupled g-C₃N₄/surface-fluorinated TiO₂ nanosheets heterojunction under visible LED light irradiation.

CHAPTER 3

Materials and Methodology

3.1 Materials and Reagents:

Reactive Rhodamine B dye ($C_{28}H_{31}ClN_2O_3$, $\lambda_{max} = 555nm$) was purchased from LOBA CHEMIE PVT. LTD. and is used without any further treatment. Degussa P25 was purchased from Evonik Industries (Hanau, Germany). All other chemicals that were used in experiment are of analytical grade. Urea (Ultrapure CH_4N_2O) was purchased from Spectrochem Pvt. Ltd. Mumbai. Titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (USA), Pluronic P₁₂₃ polymer (PEG-PPG-PEG) was Sigma Aldrich (USA), Titanium (IV) butoxide was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (USA).

3.2 Methodology:

3.2.1 Preparation of g-C₃N₄: Firstly, 12g of urea dissolved in 50 ml of water was taken in a crucible and placed in a hot air oven for 12 hours for recrystallization. After recrystallization, place this urea in an aluminum crucible and covered with aluminum foil to prevent sublimation of urea, and then heat it at 550 °C for 2 hours at 10 °C/ min rise in temperature in a muffle furnace [32]. Using a mortar-pestle, the resulting g-C₃N₄ (orange-yellow colored) was grounded into a fine powder. This g-C₃N₄ can be used for experimental purpose without any further treatment.

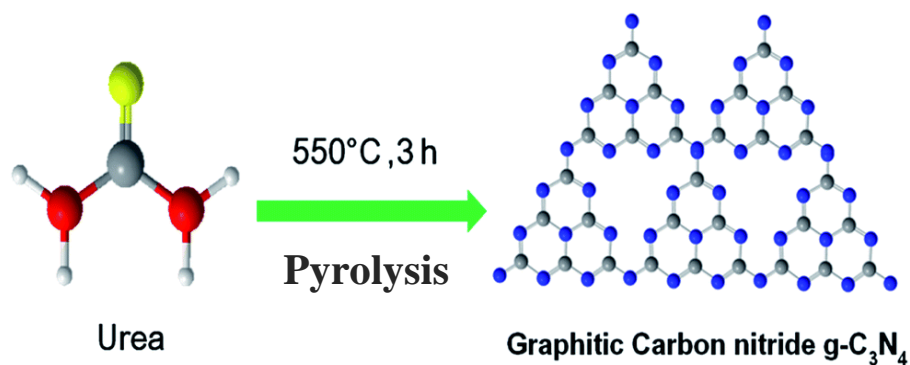


Fig.3.1 Synthesis of graphitic carbon nitride from urea by pyrolysis

Preparation of different shapes of TiO₂ (nanorods, nanotubes, nanospheres):

3.2.2 Preparation of TiO₂ Nanorods: 20ml of titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP) was added in 100ml of an aqueous solution of 1M acetic acid containing 4g of pluronic P₁₂₃ (PEO₂₀PPO₇₀PEO₂₀) at room temperature. P₁₂₃ controls the hydrolysis and condensation of TTIP precursor. The resulting reaction mixture was stirred for 24 hours and the product was retrieved by filtration. To remove the excess P₁₂₃ polymer the powdery product was washed with excess of ethanol and dried at 85⁰C for 2 hours to get final TiO₂ nanorods [33].

3.2.3 Preparation of TiO₂ Nanotubes: 0.5 g of Degussa P25 were treated with 50 ml of 10N NaOH solution and refluxed in an oil bath at 130⁰C for 20 and 72h with stirring. After treatment and cooling, the product was washed with ethanol, deionised water, 0.1or 1N HCl and then again with deionised water respectively. The product is then dried in a hot air oven for 2-3h at 80⁰C. The dried product is then crushed with a mortar pestle to get powdered TiO₂ nanotubes [34].

3.2.4 Preparation of TiO₂ Nanospheres: They are prepared by template synthesis approach. Firstly 1ml of titanium butoxide is mixed in 22.2 ml of ethylene glycol and stirred vigorously for 8 hours at room temperature. This mixture was poured quickly in a conical flask containing 100ml acetone, 1.5ml distilled water and 0.4ml acetic acid. Stir the mixture at room temperature for 3 hours to form titanium glycolate spheres. Now, these spheres were stirred for 8 hours at 70⁰C to produce TiO₂ nanospheres and they were washed many times with distilled water and then dry it in a hot air oven at 100⁰C [35].

3.2.5 Preparation of nanocomposite of g-C₃N₄ with TiO₂ (nanorods, nanotubes, nanospheres and P25):

0.1g of TiO₂ (nanorods, nanotubes, nanospheres or P25) was added in 10ml of ethanol and stirred for 1hour. After stirring, 0.1g of g-C₃N₄ (ratio of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ is 1) was incorporated into the solution and firstly sonicate this mixture for about 30 minutes and then stir the reaction mixture for 3 hours at room temperature. Wash the products with distilled water after stirring and then dried at 60⁰C in a hot air oven for 5-6 hours. All the composites were prepared in same manner [6].

3.3 Catalyst characterization

X-Ray Diffraction analysis (XRD) of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) catalyst was performed using X-ray diffractometer having Ni filtered Cu K α radiations ($\lambda = 0.1504$ nm) at 30°C. BET surface area analyzer of Autosorb-1, Quantachrome Instruments, USA was used to analyze surface area of the compounds, at -196 °C. To get a clean surface for adsorption isotherm the samples were first pretreated at 523 K. Barrett– Joyner–Halenda (BJH) model was observed to calculate the pore size distribution from N₂ desorption isotherms. High Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HRTEM) and Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM) has been carried out for the detailed structural analysis of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) catalyst through using a ZEISS, by the accelerating at a voltage of 5kV. To analyze the oxidation state and chemical composition of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) catalyst XPS was used. XPS spectrometer (KRATOS Axis 165 Shimadzu, UK) was used to obtain the XPS spectra of the g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) photocatalyst through Mg K α radiations of 1252.6 eV at 75 W.

3.4 Photocatalytic study

Add 2 mg of catalyst (desired amount) in aqueous solution of Rhodamine B Dye (5ml of 5ppm) and stir the solution in complete dark for 20 minutes to establish adsorption-desorption equilibrium. Irradiate the reaction solution of all the prepared catalyst with visible light at different time intervals upto 80 minutes. Now, filter the catalyst using 0.45- μ m nylon filters. UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Specord- 205 Analytik Jena) was used to observe the change in dye concentration (absorbance) [36]. To calculate the photodegradation efficiency following formula is used:

$$R = \{(C_0 - C) / C_0\} \times 100 = \{(A_0 - A) / A_0\} \times 100$$

Where C₀ and C are the concentration and

A₀ and A are the absorbance of Rhodamine B dye at 0 and t reaction time, respectively.

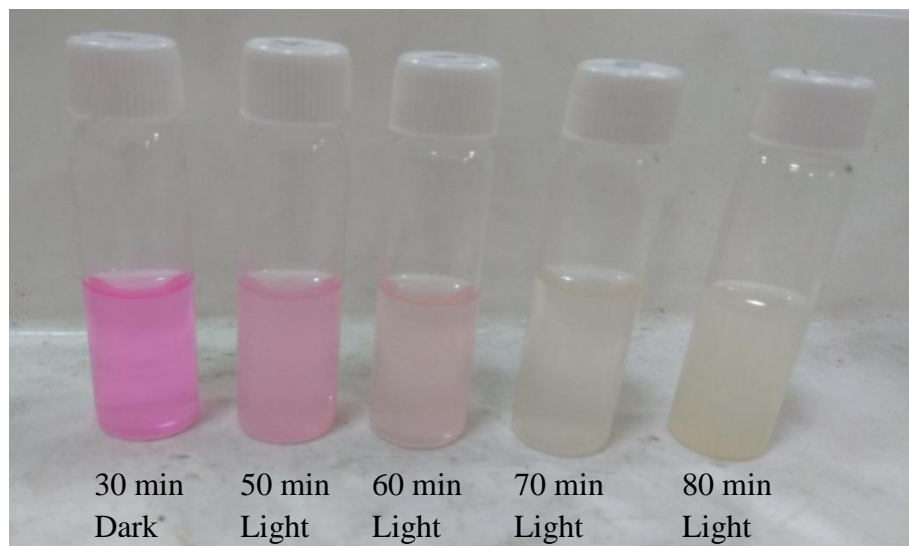


Fig. 3.2 Showing Rhodamine B Dye after 30 minutes of dark adsorption, followed by 50, 60, 70, and 80 minutes of photodegradation respectively.

CHAPTER 4

Results and discussion

4.1 Characterization of catalysts

4.1.1 Nitrogen adsorption/desorption analysis

The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) isotherm of the different shapes TiO_2 and $\text{TiO}_2/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ catalysts is shown in Fig.4.1.1a. and 4.1.1b. The isotherms of all other samples shows that they possess Langmuir type IV isotherm indicating mesoporous nature of nanocomposites whereas $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (nanorods) nanocomposite isotherm shows that it possess Langmuir type II isotherm indicating microporous nature of the composite.

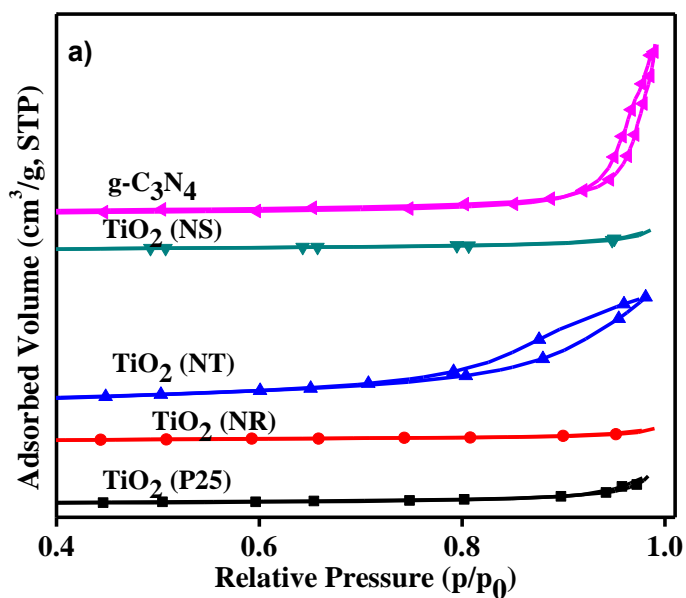


Fig. 4.1.1a BET adsorption isotherm of TiO_2 (P25), $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and Different Shapes of TiO_2 (NR, NT, and NS)

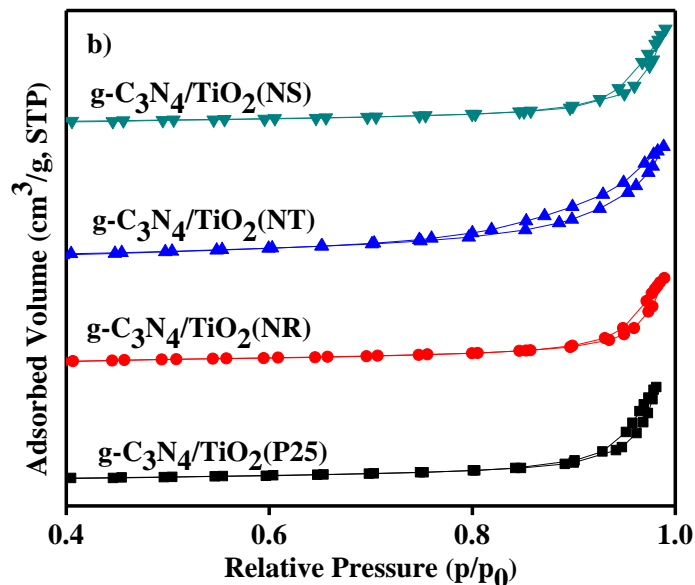


Fig.4.1.1b BET adsorption isotherm of composite of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with TiO_2 (P25) and different shapes of TiO_2 (NR, NT and NS).

The values of pore volume, specific surface area and mean pore diameter of as-prepared $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (nanorods, nanotubes and nanospheres) catalysts are given in Table 4.1.1. It is observed from the data that pore volume and surface area of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ catalysts tend to increase upon incorporation of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ on TiO_2 as compared to pore volume and surface area of TiO_2 alone.

Table 4.1.1 Specific surface area, mean pore diameter, and pore volume of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, TiO_2 (P25) and composites of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (P25, NR, NT and NS)

	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	TiO_2 (P25)	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (P25)	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (NR)	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (NT)	$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (NS)
Specific surface area (m^2/g)	68.941	30.73	69.001	126.1	137.18	81.196
Mean Pore Diameter (nm)	40.555	13.757	25.598	10.358	14.896	9.3487
Pore Volume (cm^3/g)	0.8217	0.1481	0.4046	0.4311	0.5125	0.4687

BJH plots illustrate the pore size distribution of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (nanorods, nanotubes, nanospheres) nanocomposites Fig.4.1.1(c and d).

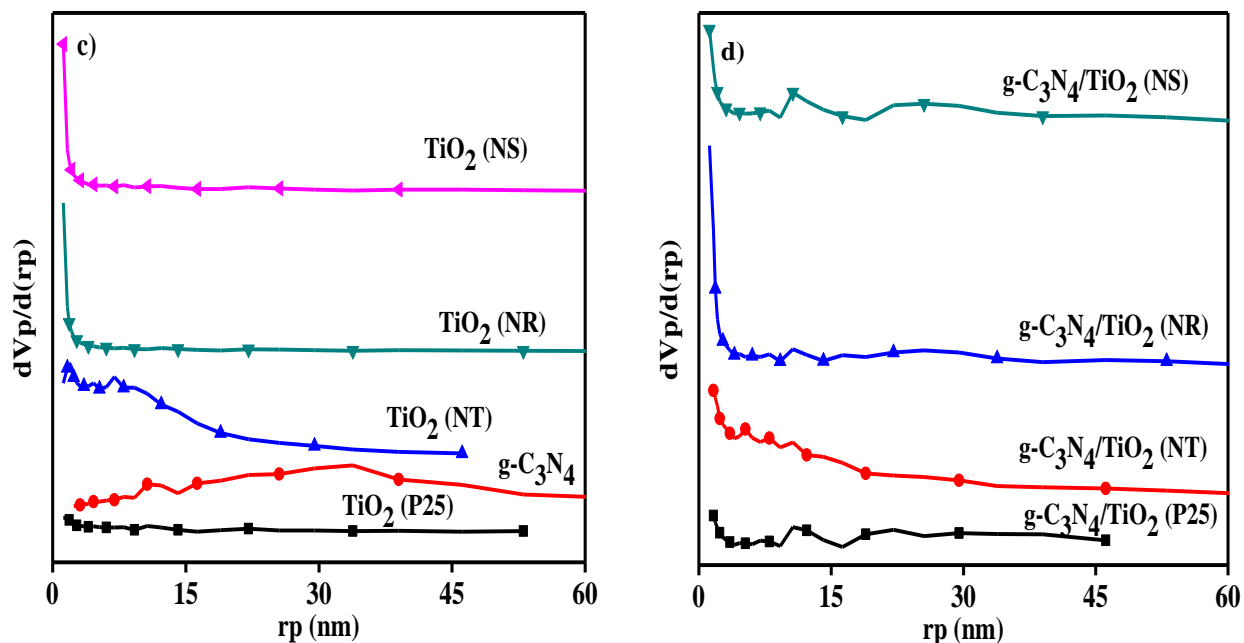


Fig. 4.1.1(c and d) BJH pore size distribution curve for g-C₃N₄, TiO₂ (P25, NR, NS and NT) and composite of g-C₃N₄ with TiO₂ (P25, NR, NS and NT)

4.1.2 XPS of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) nanocomposite:

The XPS spectra of the g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) nanocomposite are shown in Fig. 7. In Fig.4.1.2e the XPS spectrum of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR), shows that the sample primarily consists of Ti, O, C, and N elements. The spectrum of C1s in Fig. 4.1.2b shows two peaks, one at 284.23 eV corresponds to the adventitious carbon whereas other peak at 287.8 eV corresponds to N-C=N coordination in g-C₃N₄. Spectra of N1s in Fig.4.1.2c also shows two peaks, one at 398.17 eV belongs to C=N-C bonding while other at 399.71 eV corresponds to N-(C)₃. The high resolution spectrum of O1s in Fig.4.1.2a shows two peaks, one main peak of high intensity attributing to the Ti-O bond at around 531.3 eV, and a small peak of lesser intensity which is due to O-H bond of water molecules (or due to Ti-O-H bond) around 533 eV. Fig.4.1.2d shows the Ti2p spectrum with two peaks, one at a binding energy of 458.33 eV which belongs to the Ti 2p_{3/2} and other at 464.13 eV, which belongs to Ti 2p_{1/2}.

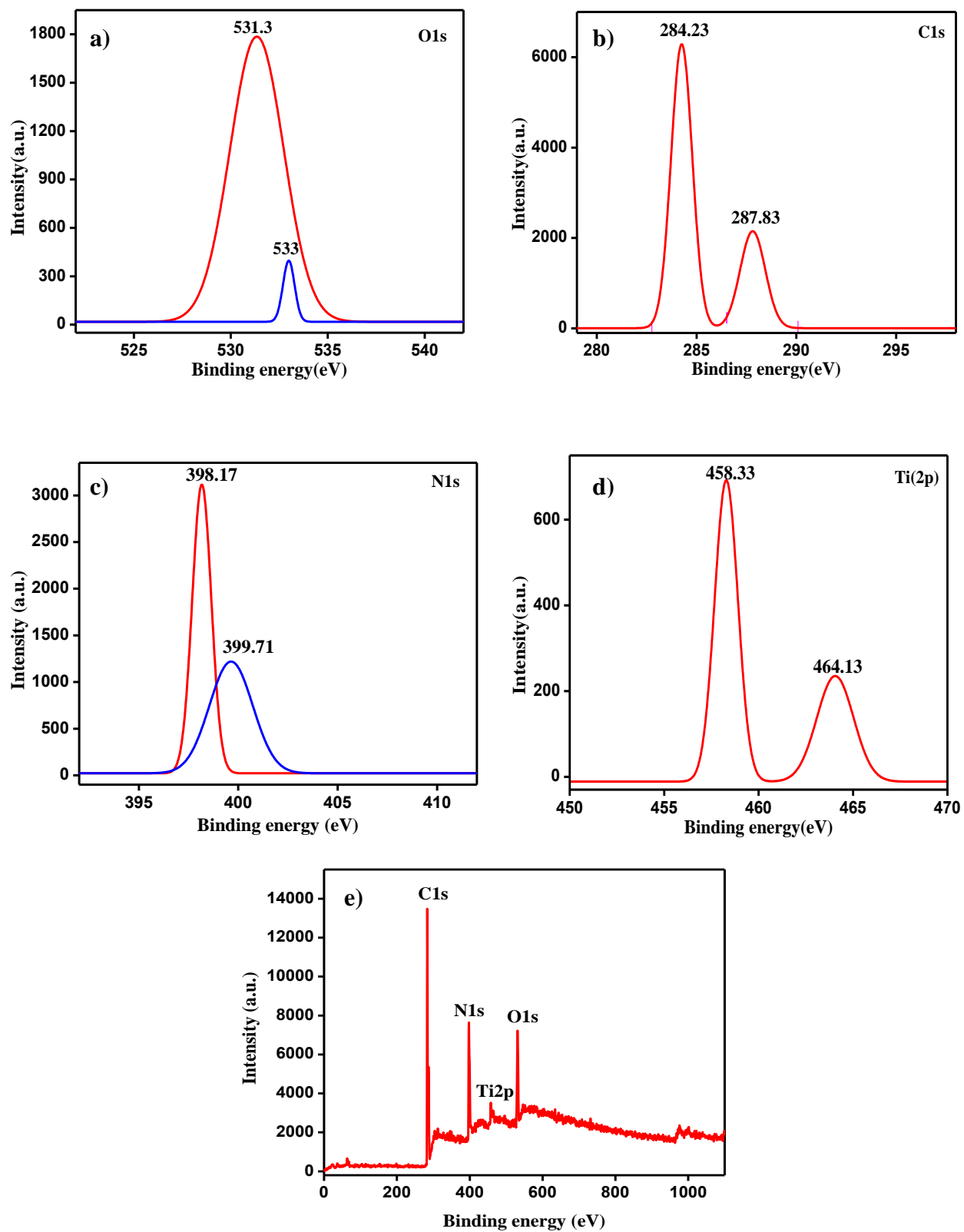


Fig. 4.1.2(a-e) High Resolution XPS Spectrum of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (NR) catalyst a) O1s, b) C1s, c) N1s, d) Ti2p and e) survey spectra of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (NR) nanocomposite

4.1.3 FESEM, HRTEM and ED analysis:

FESEM and HRTEM micrographs of g-C₃N₄/ TiO₂ (nanorods) nanocomposite are exhibited in Fig. 4.1.3(a-d), respectively. It can be seen that smaller nanoparticles of g-C₃N₄ assemble these TiO₂ nanorods (Figure 4.1.3b). Fig.4.1.3a. Indicate that there is a lamellar texture of g-C₃N₄ with smooth surface. There was strong anchoring of TiO₂ nanoparticles onto the g-C₃N₄ that during the sample preparation for TEM analysis, ultrasonication can't remove these nanoparticles from the g-C₃N₄ surface, indicating the efficient incorporation of g-C₃N₄ on TiO₂ nanorods. Fig.4.1.3b shows presence of thread like nanorods. Fig.4.1.3c shows TEM image of TiO₂ nanorod having width of 17.35 nm. The ED results in Fig.4.1.3d confirm the successful incorporation of g-C₃N₄ on TiO₂ as well as the purity of the nanocomposites.

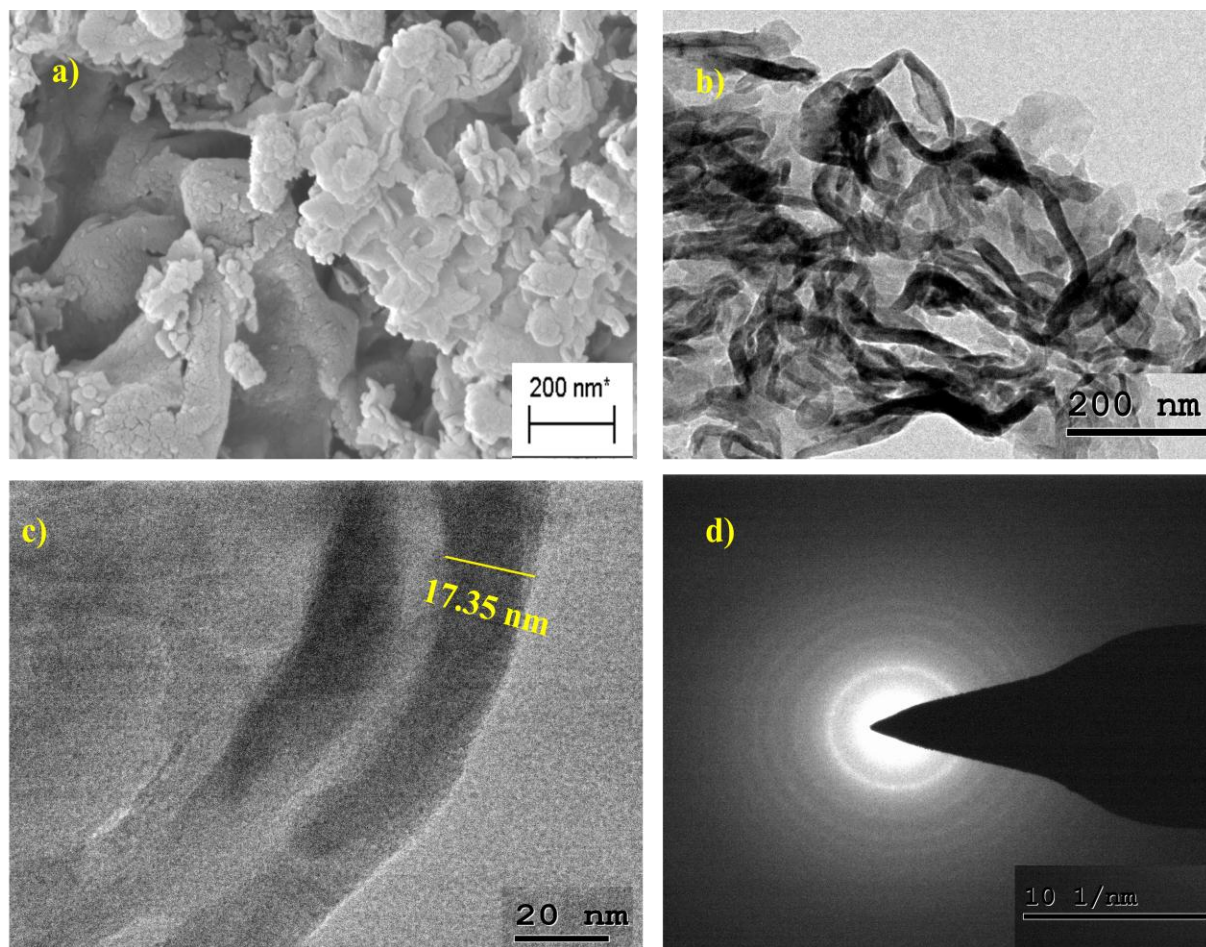


Fig. 4.1.3(a-d) FESEM, HRTEM and ED micrographs a) FESEM image, b) and c) HRTEM images of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂(Nanorods) at 200nm and 20nm respectively, and d) ED image of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂(Nanorods) Composite.

4.1.4 Electron Diffraction Spectroscopy and Elemental mapping spectra.

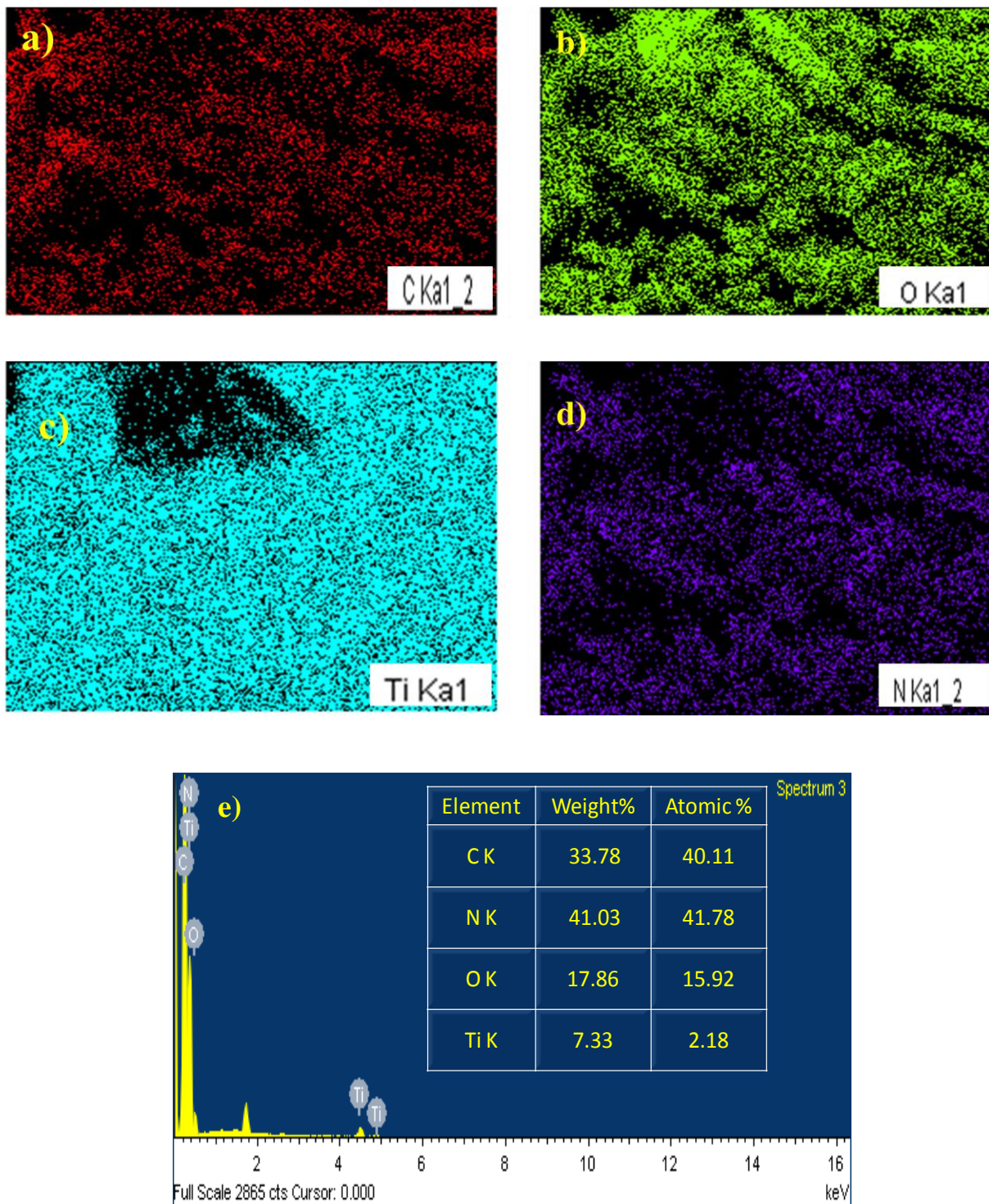


Fig.4.1.4 (a-e) EDS and Elemental mapping spectra of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorods) composite

Color mapping shows homogenous distribution of all the elements over the catalyst surface. The ED spectra also confirm the presence of all the elements in the g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) composite.

4.1.5 X-Ray Diffraction Spectroscopy

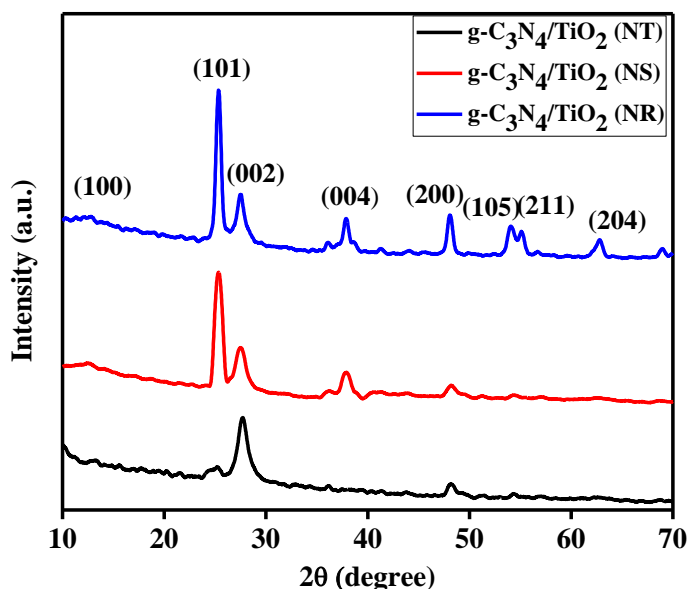


Fig. 4.1.5 XRD spectra of composite of g-C₃N₄ with TiO₂ (NT, NS, and NR)

Fig. 4.1.5 shows X-ray diffraction patterns of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NT, NS, and NR) photocatalysts. The characteristic diffraction peaks of the TiO₂ observed at 2θ ~25.5°, 37.6°, 48.3°, 54.1°, 55.3° and 62.6° that correspond to (101), (004), (200), (105), (211) and (204) diffraction planes (JCPDS card No. 21-1272). Peaks corresponding to g-C₃N₄ can be observed around 2θ ~13.2°, and 27.9° and were related to the (002) and (100) planes (JCPDS 87-1526) of pure g-C₃N₄ (JCPDS card No. 21-1272) showing characteristic interlayer stacking structure. Presence of both types of peaks in composites spectra shows successful incorporation of g-C₃N₄ in TiO₂ but as the characteristic peaks of TiO₂ did not change this shows that g-C₃N₄ did not much disturbed the lattice of TiO₂ [37].

4.2 Photocatalytic Applications

4.2.1 Photocatalysis

2 mg of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (P25, Nanospheres, Nanotubes, and Nanorods) was added in aqueous solution of Rhodamine B Dye (5ml of 5ppm). Firstly, stir the solution in complete dark for the first 20 minutes to attain an adsorption-desorption equilibrium. The reaction solution was then irradiated with visible light at different time intervals upto 80 minutes. Now, filter the catalyst using 0.45- μ m nylon filters. UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Specord- 205 Analytik Jena) was used to observe the change in dye concentration (absorbance) [36]. The UV-Visible spectra of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorod) are shown in Fig.4.2.1a. To calculate the photodegradation efficiency following formula is used:

$$R = \{(C_0 - C) / C_0\} \times 100 = \{(A_0 - A) / A_0\} \times 100$$

Table 4.2.1 Percent Degradation of C₃N₄ and different composites of g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ in Rhodamine B Dye

	g-C ₃ N ₄	g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ (P25)	g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ (Nanorods)	g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ (Nanotubes)	g-C ₃ N ₄ /TiO ₂ (Nanospheres)
Percent Degradation	67.9%	74%	96.7%	94.5%	92%

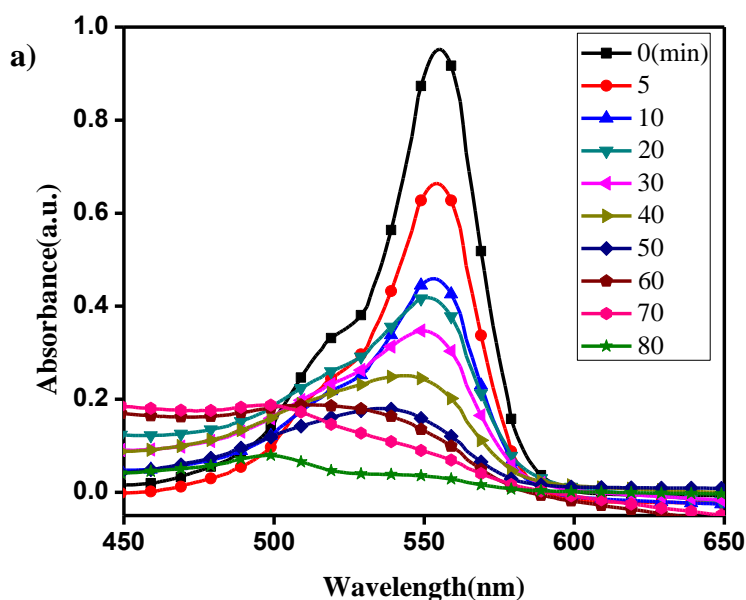


Fig. 4.2.1a UV-Visible Absorbance spectra of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorods) nanocomposite

The result from the above experiment shows that out of all the composites $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (Nanorods) composite show the best catalytic activity. The percent degradation of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2$ (Nanorods) composite comes out to be 96.7% as calculated from the above formula. The percent degradation of other composites was also calculated by same method, their percent degradation values are shown in the Table 4.2.1.

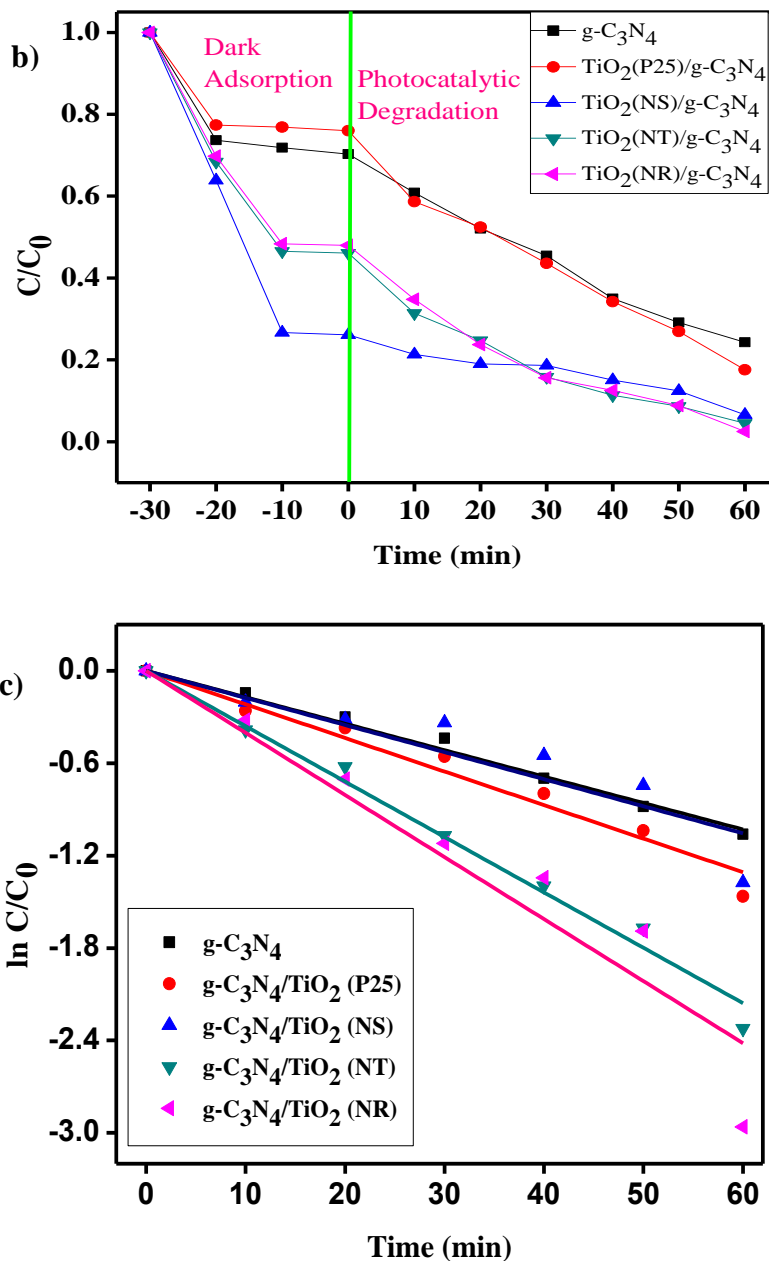


Fig. 4.2.2(b and c) Kinetic analysis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and composite of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with P25, Nanorods (NR), Nanotubes (NT) and Nanospheres (NS)

4.2.2 Reusability efficiency

Separation of the powder catalyst from the aqueous solution after dye degradation is one of the major problems. To avoid this, the best way is the reusability of the catalyst. Present catalysts are well dispersible under stirring and also easily separable from the solution. The catalyst can be easily separated from the dye solution as dye was not permanently adsorbed over the surface of catalyst. The separation of catalyst from dye solution can be easily done by centrifugation process.

By recycling the catalyst for several cycles, the effectiveness of the catalyst can be determined. Prior to use for another cycle, the catalyst was separated with the help of centrifugation process from the earlier cycle and then washed with water. It has been observed that there is a high photostability of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) nanocomposite as seen from the experiments that the photocatalytic activity remains about constant even up to 5 successive cycles of the g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) photocatalyst as shown in Fig.4.2.2.

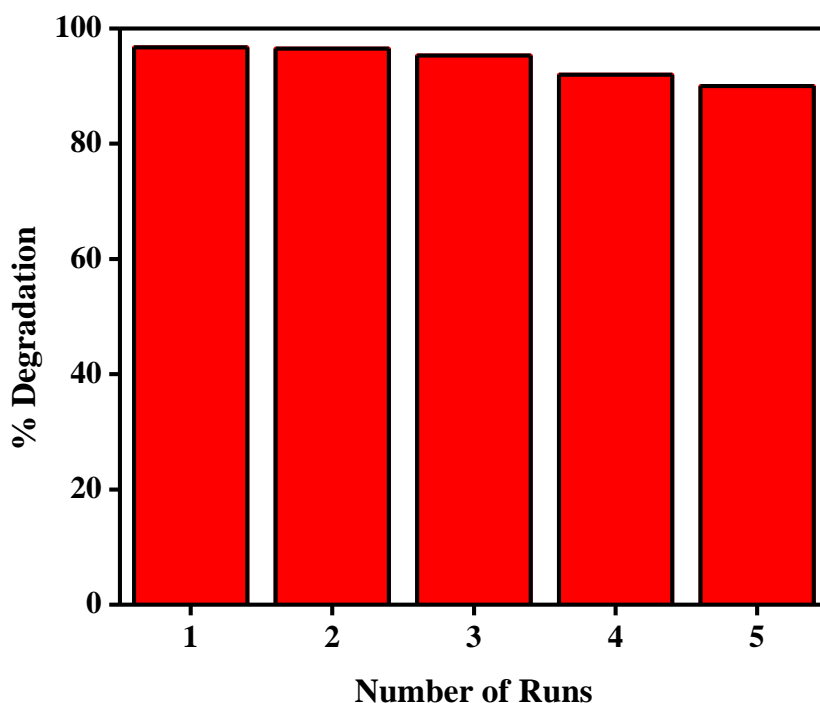


Fig.4.2.2 Reusability efficiency of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorods) nanocomposite for Rhodamine B Dye

4.2.3 Effect of pH on Photoactivity of catalyst

The activity of photocatalyst is greatly affected by the pH of dye solution. To observe the effect of pH of the solution on degradation efficiency of the present catalyst, solution of RhB dye has been prepared at different pH (of pH 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9). Desired amount of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) catalyst (2 mg) was added to the solution of Rhodamine B dye (5 mL of 5ppm) at different pH and stir the reaction mixture to attain adsorption–desorption equilibrium for 20 min in complete dark. This reaction solution was then irradiated by visible light (64 W) for all the catalysts up to 80 min. Now, filter the catalyst using 0.45-µm nylon filters. UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Specord- 205 Analytik Jena) was used to observe the change in dye concentration (absorbance) [18]. The percent degradation graph at different pH is shown in Fig.4.2.3. To calculate the degradation efficiency following formula was used:

$$R = \{(C_0 - C) / C_0\} \times 100 = \{(A_0 - A) / A_0\} \times 100$$

Where C₀ and C are the concentration

and A₀ and A are the absorbance of Rhodamine B dye at 0 and t reaction time, respectively.

The studies with present catalyst show that the catalyst is most effective in acidic pH especially at pH 3.

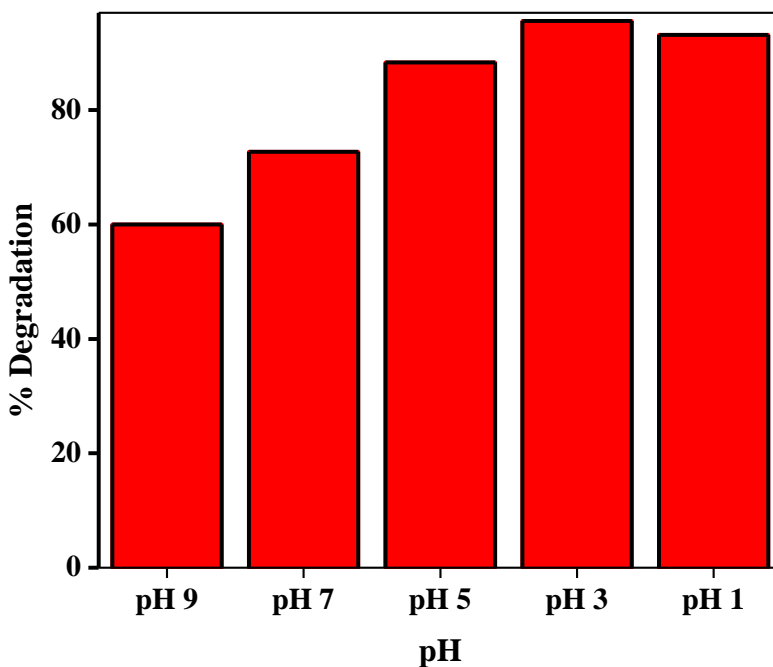


Fig.4.2.3 pH study of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorods) nanocomposite in Rhodamine B Dye

4.2.4 Effect of catalyst Concentration

Effect of Concentration of Catalyst determines the minimum and maximum amount of catalyst required for degradation. To study the effect of catalyst concentration on degradation of RhB dye different amount (2mg, 4mg, 6mg, 8mg, and 10mg) of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) catalyst was added in aqueous solution of RhB dye (10ml of 5ppm) and then the solutions were stirred under the visible light (64 W) for 80 minutes. Now, filter the catalyst using 0.45- μ m nylon filters. UV-Vis spectrophotometer was used to observe the change in dye concentration (absorbance). The observation shows that the efficiency of dye degradation increases as the concentration of catalyst increases from 2mg to 10mg in 10ml of dye solution. The increase in degradation efficiency is high when concentration of catalyst is increased upto 6mg after that the increase is comparatively less (from 6mg to 10mg). The C/C₀ graph at different catalyst concentration is shown below in Fig.4.2.4.

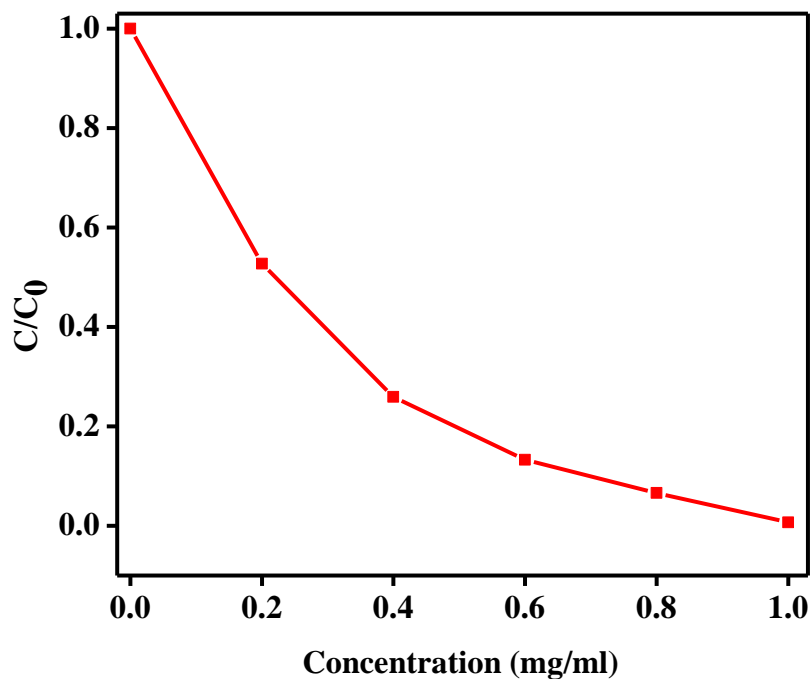


Fig.4.2.4 Concentration Study of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (Nanorods) nanocomposite in Rhodamine B Dye

4.2.5 Scavenger Study

Scavenger study with scavengers: Methanol, DMSO and Ascorbic Acid have been done with g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ catalyst. For this, 10⁻³ Molar solutions of all these scavengers have been prepared in Rhodamine B Dye solution. Desired amount of catalyst (2mg) was added in 5ml of the prepared solutions and the reaction was stirred under irradiation of visible light for 80 minutes. The degradation efficiency in each case was calculated and compared with the degradation efficiency in the absence of scavenger.

The present study with g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) photocatalyst shows that the degradation efficiency was most decreased in the presence of DMSO which tells that electrons play most important role in degradation (as DMSO scavenges electrons). Also degradation efficiency is highly decreased in presence of Ascorbic Acid scavenger (Ascorbic acid scavenges superoxide ion) showing the important role of superoxide ion in the degradation process. The degradation efficiency is least affected in case Methanol scavenger showing holes are less important for the reaction. The percent dye degradation in presence of different scavengers is shown in the graph below in Fig.4.2.5.

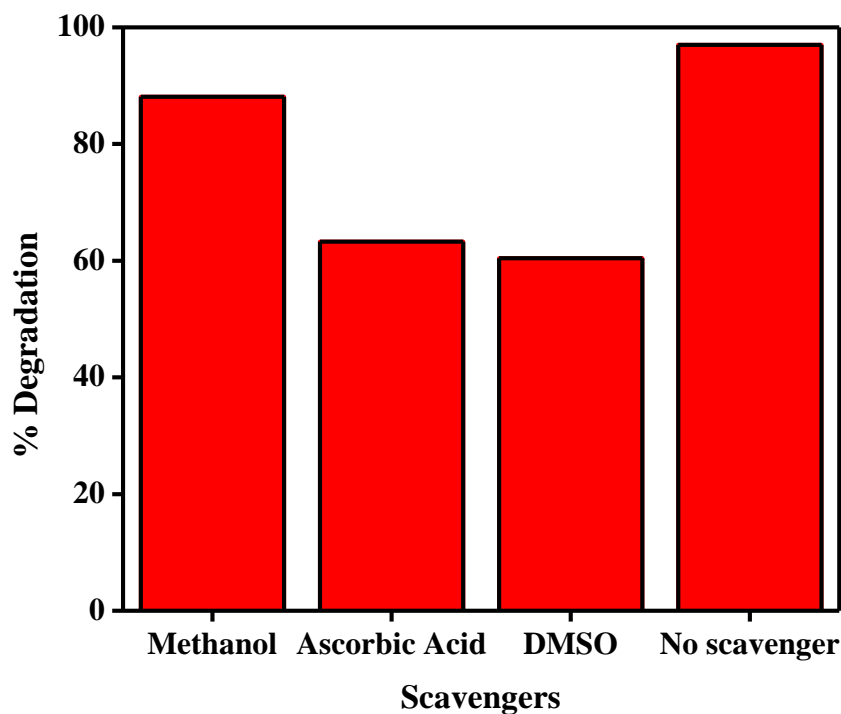


Fig.4.2.5 Scavenger study of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) nanocomposite in Rhodamine B Dye

CHAPTER 5

Conclusion

Convenient and rapid synthesis of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites having different shapes of TiO₂ (Nanorods, Nanotubes, Nanospheres) had been carried out by different method and their photocatalytic activities were compared in respect to degradation of RhB dye. Characterization results show that TiO₂ nanoparticles were embedded in the sheets of g-C₃N₄. From above study it is concluded that the photocatalytic efficiency of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ nanocomposites is highly dependent on the shape of TiO₂. The nanocomposites of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NS, NT, NR, and P25) show the higher photocatalytic activity than the pure g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ under visible light. . The degradation efficiency of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ (NR) found to be (~97%) greater than composite of g-C₃N₄ with other shapes of TiO₂ (NS, NT and P25). The improvement in photocatalytic activity of composite is due to decrease in band gap energy and increased light absorption in visible region. Also there is an increase in electron hole separation efficiency due to effectual interfacial transfer of electron between g-C₃N₄ and TiO₂ (NR, NS, NT) of g-C₃N₄/TiO₂ composites. Due to their high reusability efficiency along with environment friendly nature, these nanocomposites may be used in sustainable development or other industrial applications.

CHAPTER 6

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