


Article

Enhancing Light-Driven Production of Hydrogen Peroxide by Anchoring Au onto C₃N₄ Catalysts

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Received: 27 February 2018; Accepted: 31 March 2018; Published: 4 April 2018



Abstract: Light-driven production of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) is a green and sustainable way to achieve solar-to-chemical energy conversion. During such a conversion, both the high activity and the stability of catalysts were critical. We prepared an Au-supported C₃N₄ catalyst—i.e., Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂)—by strongly anchoring Au nanoparticles (~5 nm) onto a C₃N₄ matrix—which simultaneously enhanced the activity towards the photosynthesis of H₂O₂ and the stability when it was reused. The yield of H₂O₂ reached 1320 μmol L^{−1} on Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) after 4 h of light irradiation in an acidic solution (pH 3), which was higher than that (1067 μmol L^{−1}) of the control sample Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) and 2.3 times higher than that of the pristine C₃N₄. Particularly, the catalyst Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) retained a much higher stability. The yield of H₂O₂ had a marginal decrease on the spent catalyst—i.e., 98% yield was kept. In comparison, only 70% yield was obtained from the spent control catalyst. The robust anchoring of Au onto C₃N₄ improved their interaction, which remarkably decreased the Au leaching when it was used and avoided the aggregation and aging of Au particles. Minimal Au leaching was detected on the spent catalyst. The kinetic analyses indicated that the highest formation rate of H₂O₂ was achieved on the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) catalyst. The decomposition tests and kinetic behaviors of H₂O₂ were also carried out. These findings suggested that the formation rate of H₂O₂ could be a determining factor for efficient production of H₂O₂.

Keywords: hydrogen peroxide; Au catalyst; photosynthesis; carbon nitride

1. Introduction

Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂)—a mild and environment-friendly oxidant—has been used as a green chemical and applied in a variety of industrial and living activities—such as papermaking, water treatment, chemical synthesis, disinfection, and sterilization [1]. In addition, H₂O₂ is a promising liquid fuel for H₂O₂-based fuel cells, because only water is emitted [2]. Compared with the widely known fuel H₂, H₂O₂ is easier to store and is more conveniently transported with a low risk of wastage. The current industrial production of H₂O₂ is based on an anthraquinone method. The advantages of this are a scale-up and high productivity of H₂O₂. However, huge energy consumption, complicated by-products, and safety issues are still challenges being faced. It is highly desirable to pursue an efficient, mild, and sustained method as an alternative for the synthesis of H₂O₂.

The light-driven formation of H₂O₂ has received increased attention in recent decades [3–8]. The process involves light capture on the photocatalyst, charge separation under light irradiation, charge transfer to the surface of the photocatalyst, water/alcohol oxidation by photo-generated holes, and the reduction of dioxygen by photo-generated electrons [9–11]. In such a process, a highly efficient photocatalyst could be a core factor in order to direct the synthesis of H₂O₂. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂),

a widely studied photocatalyst, has been found to enable the formation of H_2O_2 [12–16]. Several strategies have been developed to enhance the H_2O_2 yield on TiO_2 -based photocatalysts. For example, the surface modification of TiO_2 by fluorine ions was proposed [13]. The loading of noble metal (Au) and alloys (AuAg) on TiO_2 were studied [14,16]. However, the robust hole oxidative capability of TiO_2 accelerated the decomposition of H_2O_2 on the surface of TiO_2 , and thus lowered the H_2O_2 yield [17]. Additionally, the ultraviolet (UV) responsive characteristic of TiO_2 limited its light absorption and utilization. The graphitic phase carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$)—a polymeric layered material—was explored as a photocatalyst for pollutant decomposition and water splitting, because of its relatively narrow bandgap (~ 2.7 eV), and its suitable valence band and conduction band levels [18,19]. Recently, C_3N_4 -based materials have been utilized in the light synthesis of H_2O_2 [20–25]. For instance, Shiraishi et al. reported the selective production of H_2O_2 on $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ photocatalyst [20]. The H_2O_2 production from water and molecular oxygen was improved on a pyromellitic diimide (PDI)-modified C_3N_4 —by the same authors [21]. The modification caused the conduction and valence band levels of C_3N_4 to positively shift, which was more favorable to the two-electron reduction of dioxygen needed to produce H_2O_2 . The mesoporous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was also prepared by using silica sol as a soft template [22]. The effects of surface defects on photocatalytic H_2O_2 production were also investigated. The results indicated that the suitably large surface area favored an increased H_2O_2 yield. Recently, a carbon nitride-aromatic diimide-graphene nanohybrid was synthesized which demonstrated extremely high activity towards H_2O_2 generation—possessing a solar-to-hydrogen peroxide conversion efficiency of 0.2% [24]. Furthermore, Moon et al. reported a photochemical production of H_2O_2 over carbon nitride frameworks incorporated with multiple heteroelements (K, P, and O) [25].

In our previous studies, the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibited enhanced activity when combined with mixed-metal oxide (MMO) [26]. The reason for this is that the positive shift of the conduction band of C_3N_4 improved the two-electron reduction of dioxygen to H_2O_2 . Additionally, the MMO plays the role of the water oxidation catalyst (WOC), which has been recognized to be active in oxygen-evolving reactions [27–29]. Furthermore, the H_2O_2 production was increased on the carbon-modified $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, which regulates the energy levels and is more suitable for the selective two-electron reduction of oxygen by photo-generated electrons [30]. Consequently, the efficient separation of photo-excited electrons and holes, and appropriate band positions are advantageous to the production of H_2O_2 . The noble metals (e.g., Au, Ag, and Pt) revealed the reductive ability in supported catalysts by collecting electrons, similar to a reservoir. The activity is closely related to the size of the noble metal nanoparticles. Generally, when the size of the metal particles is greater than 7 nm, the activity drops sharply [31]. However, the smaller-sized metal particles possess a low Tammann temperature and high surface energy, leading to low thermal stability and the sintering phenomenon when heated [32]. In this article, we investigated Au-supported C_3N_4 prepared by a stabilized method. The Au/ C_3N_4 catalyst exhibited high activity towards H_2O_2 production and superior stability when reused. The strong anchoring of Au nanoparticles (around 5 nm) on C_3N_4 inhibited the leaching and prevented the particles from agglomerating in the sintering process of the catalyst. The kinetics were also studied in order to understand the determining pathway for H_2O_2 production.

2. Results

2.1. Catalyst Characterization

The Au loading and distribution on the C_3N_4 matrix were observed by transmission electron microscopy TEM (Figure 1). The average size of Au particles was 5.0 nm (Figure 1a,b) and 7.5 nm (Figure 1d,e) in the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) and Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air) catalysts, respectively. The Au particles had a narrower size distribution on the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) than on the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air). The high-resolution transmission electron microscopy photographs showed that the distance of the neighboring planes was 0.235 nm in both catalysts, corresponding to the d-spacing of the plane (111) in Au [32]. Au particles had more crystal defects on the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) (Figure 1c) than on

the Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) (Figure 1f). The smaller-sized Au possessed more edges, corners, and steps, which were favorable for the adsorption of reactive species and further catalytic reactions. The energy dispersive spectrometer EDS mapping of the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) is presented in Figure 1g. The results suggested that Au, C, and N elements had a homogeneous distribution in the catalyst.

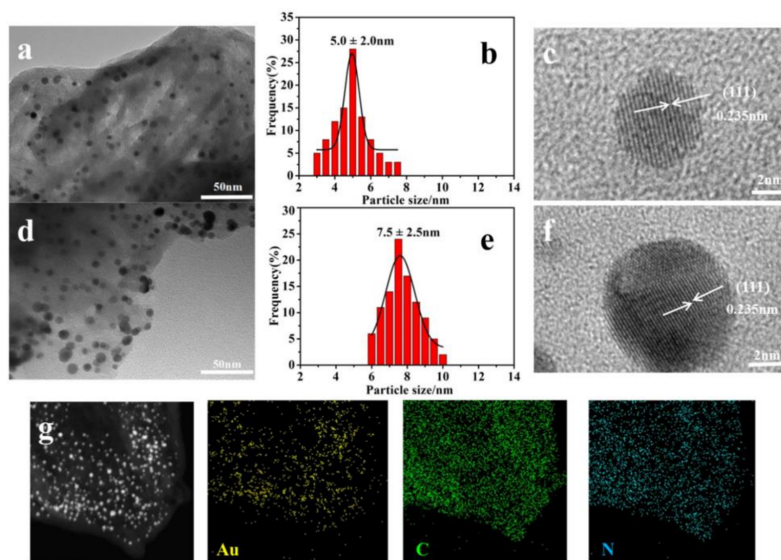


Figure 1. (a) TEM image; (b) particle size distribution and (c) HRTEM photograph of Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂); (d) TEM image; (e) particle size distribution and (f) HRTEM image of Au/C₃N₄-500(Air); (g) EDS mapping of Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) (scale bar 100 nm). The elemental mappings show the distribution of Au, C, and N elements.

The phase structure of the catalysts was determined by X-ray diffractometer XRD (Figure 2). The diffractions at $2\theta = 13.3^\circ$ and 27.4° were indexed to the planes—namely, 100 and 002—of g-C₃N₄ (JCPDS 87-1526) in all samples, which originated from the in-plane repetition of tri-s-triazine and the stacking of the conjugated aromatic units, respectively [33]. The formation of Au was verified in the XRD patterns of the supported catalysts, in which the diffractions were indexed to the planes—namely, 111, 200, and 220 (JCPDS 04-0784) [34]. The loading of Au was estimated by Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). The weight of Au was 1.05% and 1.35% in Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air), respectively (Figure S1). This indicated that the loading of Au in the two catalysts had minimal difference.

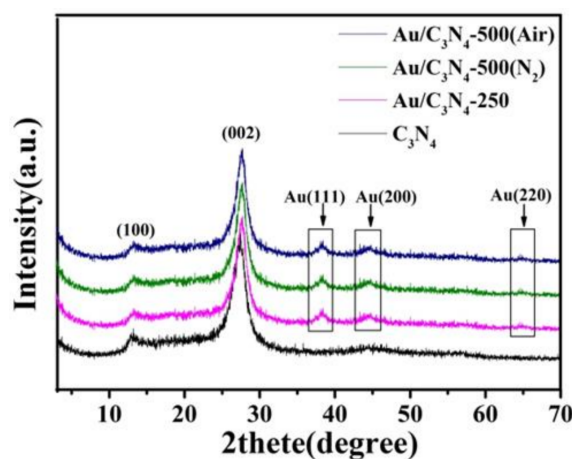


Figure 2. XRD patterns of C₃N₄, Au/C₃N₄-250, Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂), and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air).

The elemental valences and surface species were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy XPS (Figure 3), because of its surface-sensitive technique with a detection depth of less than ten nanometers. Two deconvoluted peaks, at 83.7 and 87.4 eV, were observed in the core level spectra of Au4f in Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂), which were assigned to zerovalent Au [35,36]. The peaks showed a slight shift (0.2 eV) towards decreased binding energy in that of Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) (Table 1). In both catalysts, the N1s core level spectra could be deconvoluted into three peaks. In the g-C₃N₄ phase, the peaks at 400.6, 399.2, and 398.5 eV corresponded to N-(C)₃, =N-, and C₂NH species, respectively [37,38]. The binding energy of the three peaks had a slight shift (<0.2 eV) between the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air), which suggested that the nitrogen species had minimal change in both catalysts.

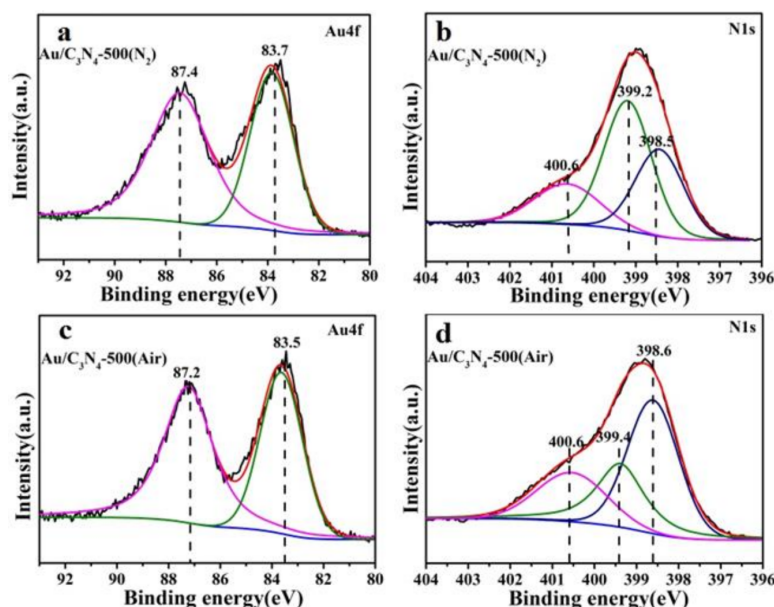


Figure 3. XPS core level spectra of (a) Au4f in Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂); (b) N1s in Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and (c) Au4f in Au/C₃N₄-500(Air); (d) N1s in Au/C₃N₄-500(Air).

Table 1. XPS binding energy of Au4f and N1s in the Au-supported C₃N₄ catalysts.

Catalysts	Au4f/eV		N1s/eV		
	4f _{5/2}	4f _{7/2}	N-(C) ₃	=N-	C ₂ NH
Au/C ₃ N ₄ -500(N ₂)	87.4	83.7	400.6	399.2	398.5
Au/C ₃ N ₄ -500(N ₂)-reused	87.3	83.6	400.6	399.2	398.5
Au/C ₃ N ₄ -500(Air)	87.2	83.5	400.6	399.4	398.6
Au/C ₃ N ₄ -500(Air)-reused	87.0	83.3	400.6	399.4	398.6

The optical absorption properties of the supported catalysts were characterized by UV-visible diffuse reflectance spectra (Figure 4a). These spectra were obtained by converting the reflection data that was measured using the Kubelka–Munk equation: $F(R) = (1 - R)^2/2R$, where R is the reflectance [39]. The three Au/C₃N₄ samples showed enhanced absorption in both the UV and visible regions when compared with the bare C₃N₄. The absorption band below 400 nm in the UV region corresponded to the π - π^* electron transition of the aromatic 1-, 3-, and 5-triazine compounds [40–42]. The localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) absorption of Au was apparent, peaking at ~550 nm in the Au/C₃N₄-250 and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) samples. The Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) sample presented more intensive absorption throughout the spectral region measured. This suggested that the metal–support interaction differed between the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air), which could have affected the photocatalytic properties. The fluorescence spectra were measured because the fluorescence emission properties were associated with the carrier recombination (Figure 4b). The C₃N₄ itself

exhibited an emission band that peaked at 462 nm, which was attributed to the transition between the lone pair valence band and the π^* conduction band in the framework of graphitic C_3N_4 [43]. After the loading of Au nanoparticles, the intensity of the emission band decreased significantly in the Au/ C_3N_4 -250 and Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air). Notably, the emission in the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) was almost quenched. The quenching of fluorescence emission indicated the suppression of carrier recombination under photo-excitation. The efficient blockage of the recombination channel could have favored the carrier separation and thus stimulated the electrons and holes to involve the photocatalytic reactions on the surface of catalysts. The reduction of emission intensity was more significant in the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) than in the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air). It could have indicated that the metal-support interaction was more intensive in the former, which was beneficial for the feasible electron transfer of photo-excited C_3N_4 to Au.

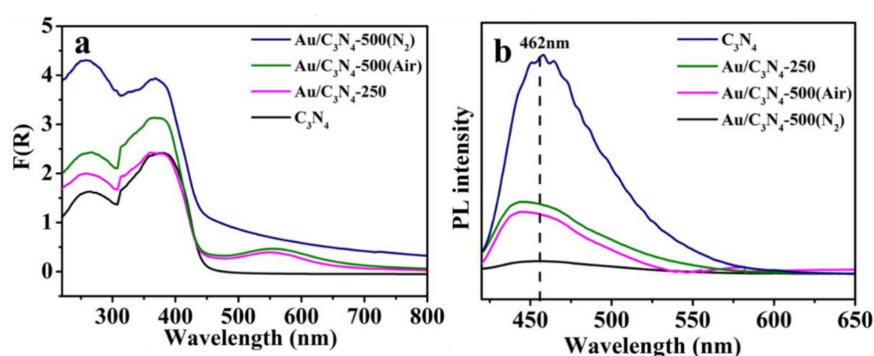


Figure 4. (a) Ultraviolet (UV)/Visible diffuse reflectance spectra; (b) fluorescence emission spectra of C_3N_4 , Au/ C_3N_4 -250, Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air), and Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2); across an excitation wavelength of 400 nm.

2.2. Photosynthesis of H_2O_2

The photocatalytic generation of H_2O_2 on the catalysts was conducted in an O_2 -equilibrated acidic aqueous solution (pH 3) under light irradiation. The H_2O_2 yield is shown (Figure 5a) as a function of time. The yield increased with time on all catalysts. The higher yield was observed on the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) from the beginning of the reactions. After 240 min of irradiation, the H_2O_2 yield reached 1320 and 1067 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ on the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) and Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air), respectively—both of which were higher than that on the C_3N_4 (582 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) (Table 2). The yield was higher for the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) than for the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air), although the latter had a larger Au loading—1.05% wt in Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) and 1.35% wt in Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air) catalyst. We concluded that the catalytic activity of Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) was higher than that of Au/ C_3N_4 -500(Air). This was potentially ascribed to the smaller size of Au nanoparticles in the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) (Figure 1). Similar findings were also observed in the Au- and AuAg-loaded TiO_2 photocatalysts [14,16]. The apparent quantum yield (Φ_{AQY}) for H_2O_2 formation over the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) was calculated using the equation $\Phi_{AQY} (\%) = (2 \times [H_2O_2] \text{ formed}) / (\text{photon number entered into the reaction vessel}) \times 100$. The Φ_{AQY} value measured at a monochromatic light of 400 nm was 3.63% (see Supplementary Materials for details).

In order to understand the effect of the light wavelength irradiated, we measured the H_2O_2 generation under light irradiation with a cut-off filter of 420 nm (Figure S2). After 4 h of irradiation, the H_2O_2 yield reached 694 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ under the cut-off filter of 420 nm, lower than that measured without the cut-off filter on the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) (1320 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). This suggested that the irradiation of UV light contributed to the formation of H_2O_2 when no cut-off filter was used. This indicated that the UV irradiation possessed high energy and could stimulate the C_3N_4 (with a bandgap of ~ 2.8 eV) to generate photo-carriers. The Au nanoparticles showed the LSPR absorption band at around 550 nm. As a result, the Au/ C_3N_4 -500(N_2) had intensive absorption above 500 nm, while the C_3N_4 showed minimal absorption in the same spectral region (>500 nm) (Figure 4a). To understand the effect of LSPR

on the production of H_2O_2 , we used a cut-off filter of 510 nm. The H_2O_2 yield was 10 times higher for the $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$ ($293 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) than for the C_3N_4 ($25 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) after 4 h of irradiation (Figure S3). The LSPR of Au enhanced light absorption around the plasmon resonance band and contributed considerably to H_2O_2 production. To compare the effect of Au loading on the activity, we prepared another two samples of $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$, with an Au loading of 1% and 3% (a nominal weight). The H_2O_2 production was carried out on the two catalysts under the same reaction conditions. The H_2O_2 yield after 4 h of irradiation was 743, 1320, and $917 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, on 1%, 2%, and 3% Au-supported catalysts, respectively (Figure S4). This finding indicated that an appropriate Au loading led to a higher H_2O_2 yield. Higher Au loading might have caused larger-sized Au particles and the reduction in activity [44,45]. The $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$ catalyst was prepared by a carbon-layer-stabilized method, where the dopamine molecule was used as a precursor of the carbon layer. In order to show the effect of dopamine, we prepared a control sample without a treatment of dopamine and named it $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)-without dopa}$. The H_2O_2 yield after 4 h of irradiation was 1320 and $1065 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ on the $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$ and $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)-without dopa}$, respectively (Figure S5). This finding verified the effect of dopamine on the activity of the catalyst.

The H_2O_2 concentration–time data (Figure 5a) was fitted using the equation $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2] = (K_f/K_d) \{1 - \exp(-K_d t)\}$, where K_f and K_d were the formation and decomposition rate constants of H_2O_2 , respectively, and t was the irradiation time [4,26]. The solid lines (Figure 5a) were the fitted curves. Based on the fitted results (Figure S6), the K_f and K_d values were listed (Table 2) and plotted (Figure 5b). Both K_f and K_d values were the smallest on the C_3N_4 . The K_f value was the largest on the $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$ ($7.893 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$) and the K_d value was smaller on the $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$ than on the $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(Air)}$ (0.00354 vs. 0.00446 min^{-1}). This indicated that a larger K_f value and smaller K_d value led to a higher yield of H_2O_2 . The formation rate of H_2O_2 was dominant in the process of H_2O_2 production. This was consistent with our previous studies on the metal oxide@ C_3N_4 and carbon-doped C_3N_4 catalysts [26,30].

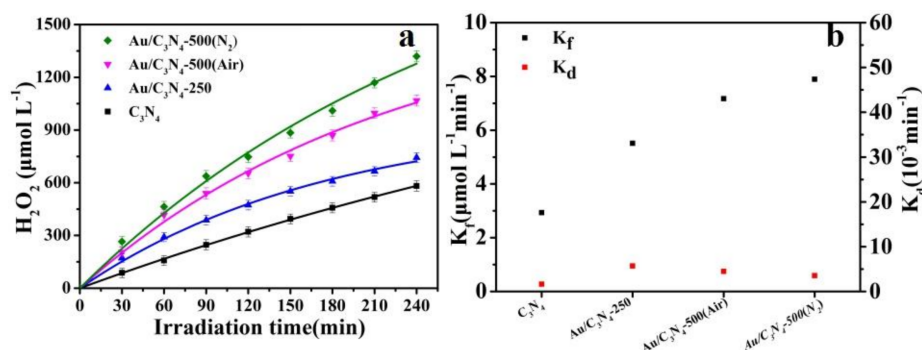


Figure 5. (a) The light-driven hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) generation in an O_2 -equilibrated aqueous solution over C_3N_4 , $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-250}$, $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(Air)}$, and $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$. The experimental conditions: 1 g/L of photocatalyst, pH 3.0, 5% vol of 2-propanol, Xe lamp, illumination intensity of 100 mW/cm^2 ; and (b) formation rate constant (K_f) and decomposition rate constant (K_d) for H_2O_2 production.

Table 2. The yield of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and the kinetic analyses.

Sample	H_2O_2 Yield at 120 min ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	H_2O_2 Yield at 240 min ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	K_f ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$)	K_d (10^{-3} min^{-1})
C_3N_4	321	582	2.929	1.61
$\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-250}$	473	743	5.514	5.68
$\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(Air)}$	653	1067	7.170	4.46
$\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500(N}_2\text{)}$	747	1320	7.893	3.54

The decomposition behaviors of H_2O_2 on the catalysts were further investigated under an excessive amount of H_2O_2 (initial concentration of H_2O_2 of 5 mM) (Figure 6). The decomposition data was fitted using a pseudo-first-order equation: $-\text{d}C(t)/\text{d}t = kt$, where $C(t)$ is the H_2O_2 concentration at certain a time, k is the decomposition rate constant, and t is the time. The fitted results showed that the decomposition rate constant followed the order of $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{N}_2)$ (0.00406 min^{-1}) > $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{Air})$ (0.00251 min^{-1}) > $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-250}$ (0.00181 min^{-1}) > C_3N_4 (0.00097 min^{-1}) (Figure S7). The k values had the same order of magnitude as those in the production of H_2O_2 (Table 2). The decomposition of H_2O_2 on the Au-loaded C_3N_4 catalysts was less dependent on the concentration of H_2O_2 . The sustained production of H_2O_2 was mainly dominated by its formation rate.

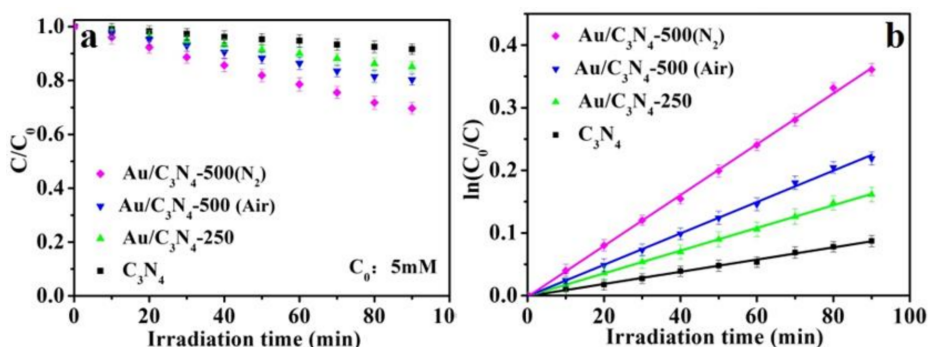


Figure 6. The photocatalytic decomposition of H_2O_2 ($C_0 = 5 \text{ mM}$) on the C_3N_4 , $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-250}$, $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{Air})$, and $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{N}_2)$. (a) The changes of C/C_0 with irradiation time; (b) The changes of $\ln(C/C_0)$ with irradiation time. The experimental conditions: 1 g/L of photocatalyst, pH 3.0, Xe lamp, and illumination intensity of 100 mW/cm^2 .

2.3. Stability of the Photocatalysts

The stable production of H_2O_2 was required on the spent catalysts. After being used for the photosynthesis of H_2O_2 , the catalysts were separated from the solution and recycled for reuse. We studied the repeated use of the $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4$ catalysts to confirm their stability. The H_2O_2 yield was almost the same on the spent $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{N}_2)$ as on the original $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{N}_2)$, having a negligible decrease of less than 2% (Figure 7). However, the H_2O_2 yield showed a significant reduction on the reused $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{Air})$ and only 70% of the original yield was retained. This suggested that $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{N}_2)$ had a much higher stability than $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{Air})$ for the photosynthesis of H_2O_2 . This was verified by the structural characterizations of the spent catalysts.

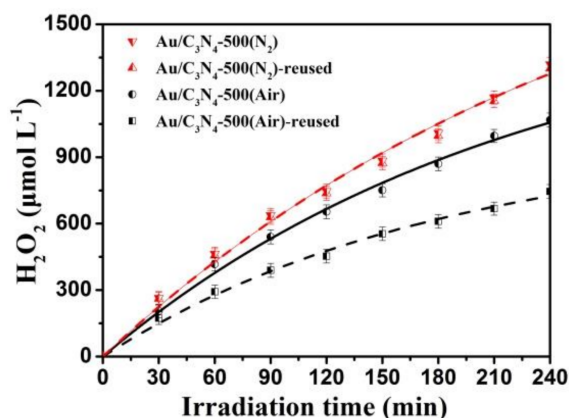


Figure 7. The repeated use of $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{N}_2)$ and $\text{Au/C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-500}(\text{Air})$ for H_2O_2 generation. The experimental conditions: 1 g/L of photocatalyst, pH 3.0, 5% vol of 2-propanol, Xe lamp, illumination intensity of 100 mW/cm^2 , and O_2 -equilibrated conditions.

The spent catalysts were characterized by TEM, inductively-coupled plasma spectrum ICP, and XPS. The average size of Au particles increased from 5 to 7 nm in the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) after reactions (Figure 8a,b). The Au particles had less agglomeration and were still highly dispersed in the C₃N₄ matrix. In contrast, the Au particles showed an increase in size from 7.5 to 10 nm in the Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) (Figure 8c,d). The Au particles exhibited obvious aggregates. In addition, the elemental analyses showed that the Au loading had a slight loss of 5.7% in the spent Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂), while the Au remarkably lost 17.8% in the spent Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) (Figure S1). Such a significant leaching of Au could be a critical factor for the sharp decrease of H₂O₂ yield, as well as the increased size of Au particles in Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) (Figure 7). The XPS results indicated that the valence of Au had no change and Au still existed in the form of zero-valence. The fitted peaks in the N1s spectra had minimal shift compared to the original catalysts (Figure S8).

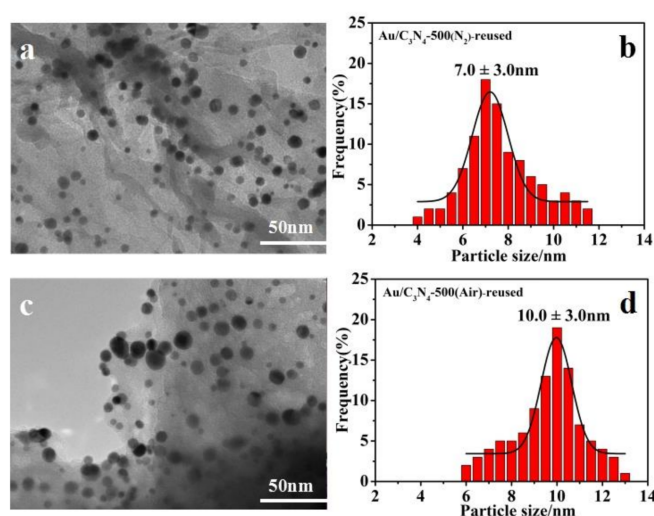


Figure 8. (a) TEM images and (b) particle-size distribution of Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂)-reused; (c) TEM images and (d) particle-size distribution of Au/C₃N₄-500(Air)-reused.

The flatband potentials (E_{fb}) of the catalysts were estimated from the electrochemical Mott–Schottky plots, measured at varied frequencies. The Mott–Schottky plots exhibited positive slopes, characteristic of n-type semiconductors (Figure 9) [26]. The E_{fb} values were derived by extrapolating the plots to the x -axis, which were -0.86 V, -0.68 V, and -0.70 V (vs. RHE) for C₃N₄, Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂), and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air), respectively. The E_{fb} values of Au-supported C₃N₄ catalysts had a minimal positive shift (~ 0.16 V) compared with that of C₃N₄, and had minimal difference between Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air). Generally, the conduction band potential was approximately equal to the E_{fb} [30]. Consequently, the conduction band levels hardly changed in the Au-supported catalysts, regardless of the stability. The bandgap of the catalysts was also determined from the Tauc plots. The Tauc plots of Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) were derived according to the equation $(F(R) \cdot h\nu)^2 = A(h\nu - E_g)$, where h was Plank constant, ν was the frequency, A was a constant, and E_g was the band gap (Figure S9) [39,46,47]. The estimated bandgap was 2.83 eV and 2.85 eV for the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and Au/C₃N₄-500(Air), respectively. Additionally, the bandgap values had no change in the spent catalysts. From the energy level analyses, we concluded that the different activity and stability of the Au-supported C₃N₄ catalysts were mainly affected by the Au sizes and metal–support interactions rather than the energy band structure.

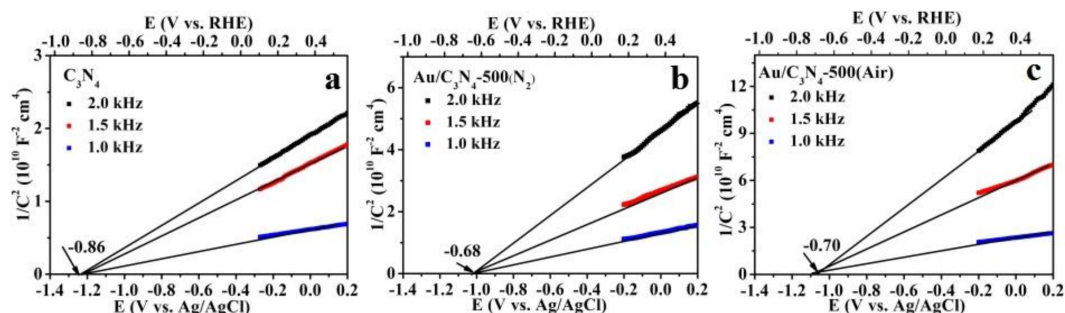


Figure 9. Mott–Schottky plots of (a) C_3N_4 , (b) Au/C_3N_4 -500(N_2), and (c) Au/C_3N_4 -500(Air) in an acidic solution (pH 3) in the dark. The frequency used was 1.0 kHz, 1.5 kHz, and 2.0 kHz.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Materials

Melamine, isopropanol, and $HClO_4$ were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent (Beijing Co. Ltd., Beijing, China). $HAuCl_4 \cdot 3H_2O$ was purchased from Shanghai Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). KH_2PO_4 , $K_2HPO_4 \cdot 3H_2O$, H_2SO_4 (98%), and H_2O_2 (30%) were purchased from Beijing Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). Peroxidase was purchased from Beijing Lamboride Trading Company (Beijing, China). *N*-diethyl-1,4-phenylenediamine sulfate (99%) was purchased from Adamas Reagent Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). O_2 (99.995%) was purchased from Hai Pu Gas Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). All reagents were of analytical grade and were used without further purification. Deionized water was used throughout the experiments.

3.2. Catalyst Preparation

3.2.1. Preparation of g- C_3N_4

The g- C_3N_4 was prepared by heating of a melamine precursor [33]. The melamine (10 g) was added to a porcelain cup and calcined for 4 h at 520 °C (heating rate of 4 °C min^{−1}). The product was a yellow powder.

3.2.2. Synthesis of Au-Supported C_3N_4 Catalysts

Au/C_3N_4 -250 Catalyst

The Au/C_3N_4 -250 catalyst was synthesized by a method similar to the literature [32]. Briefly, the pH value of an aqueous solution (0.02 g $HAuCl_4 \cdot 3H_2O$ in 60 mL water) was adjusted to 10.0 by adding 1 M NaOH. 1 g of C_3N_4 powder was added to the solution and heated to 70 °C for 2 h under stirring. The suspension was washed three times using deionized water by centrifugation. Finally, the product was dried for 2 h at 40 °C and subsequently calcined in air for 2 h at 250 °C. Before further use, the product was sealed in vacuum desiccator at room temperature.

Au/C_3N_4 -500(N_2) Catalyst

Firstly, the Au/C_3N_4 -250 sample was modified with dopamine according to the previous method [48]. The 0.5 g of Au/C_3N_4 -250 powder was added to 1 mg mL^{−1} dopamine-containing solution, which was pre-adjusted to pH 8.5 by a tris-buffer solution (10 mM). The suspension was stirred for 24 h, allowing for the formation of polydopamine (PDA) on the surface of solid. Subsequently, the suspension was separated by centrifugation, washed three times using deionized water and once using ethanol. The product was dried for 2 h at 40 °C. Subsequently, the dried product was annealed in a gas flow of nitrogen for 2 h (heating rate of 5 °C min^{−1}) at 500 °C. The resulting powder was further annealed in air for 2 h at 500 °C to obtain the Au/C_3N_4 -500(N_2) catalyst.

Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) Catalyst

The 0.5 g of Au/C₃N₄-250 powder was directly annealed in air for 2 h at 500 °C to obtain the Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) catalyst.

4. Conclusions

The Au nanoparticles were strongly anchored onto the C₃N₄ matrix by a carbon-layer-stabilized method. The as-prepared Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) catalyst showed higher activity towards light-driven synthesis of H₂O₂ than the control Au/C₃N₄-500(Air). This was ascribed to the smaller size of Au nanoparticles (~5 nm) and the stronger metal-support interaction on the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂). The H₂O₂ yield reached 1320 µmol L⁻¹ after 240 min of light irradiation in an acidic solution (pH 3), 2.3 times higher than that of the pristine C₃N₄. The spent Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) catalyst exhibited a marginal loss of activity and the H₂O₂ yield remained >98% of the original yield. However, the H₂O₂ yield decreased to 70% of the original yield on the Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) catalyst when reused. There were primarily two reasons for this. One was the significant leaching of Au (17.8%) from the Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) catalyst after reactions, much greater than that (5.7%) from the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) catalyst. The other was the increased sizes of Au (~10 nm) on Au/C₃N₄-500(Air), which led to the decrease in activity. The energy band structures of the Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂) and the Au/C₃N₄-500(Air) showed minimal difference before or after the reactions. Therefore, the highly stable Au-supported C₃N₄ catalyst could be favorable for the sustained production of H₂O₂ via a two-electron reduction of dioxygen driven by solar light.

Supplementary Materials: The following characterization and photocatalytic measurements of H₂O₂ are available online at <http://www.mdpi.com/2073-4344/8/4/147/s1>: Figure S1, thermogravimetric analysis; Figure S2, the H₂O₂ generation using a 420 nm cut-off filter; Figure S3, the H₂O₂ generation using a 510 nm cut-off filter; Figure S4, the H₂O₂ generation on Au-supported catalysts; Figure S5, the H₂O₂ generation on Au/C₃N₄-500(N₂)-without dopa; Figure S6, kinetic fitting curves of H₂O₂ generation; Figure S7, the fitting curves of H₂O₂ decomposition; Figure S8, XPS core level spectra of Au4f and N1s; and Figure S9, Tauc plots.

Acknowledgments: This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant 21576016, 21521005) and the National Key R&D Program of China (Grant 2017YFA0206804).

Author Contributions: Xu Xiang conceived and designed the experiments; Xiaoyu Chang and Dandan Han performed the experiments; Xu Xiang, Xiaoyu Chang, Jing He, Jun Jiao Yang, and Bing Zhang analyzed the data; Xu Xiang and Xiaoyu Chang wrote the manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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