



## Controllable of Fabrication Mesoporous Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub> Decorated with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> Nano-sheets for Improved MB Dye Removal

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### Abstract

The utilization of a novel heterogeneous photocatalyst for the photodegradation of organic pollutants under visible light is regarded as a significant and indispensable approach for ensuring a sustainable and safe environment, both in laboratory settings and on a larger scale. Therefore, a novel nanocomposite Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> consisting of mesoporous pure graphite g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> was synthesized using a sol-gel technique combined with ultrasonic treatment. The crystal structure of Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> was conclusively verified using the X-ray diffraction pattern and incorporated into the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> structure. The Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were observed to have a spherical shape based on the SEM images and were evenly distributed throughout the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets. The efficacy of Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanocomposites as a novel photocatalyst for degrading MB dye under visible light was investigated. Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> had a synergistic effect on the photocatalytic activity associated with the degradation of MB dye.

Keywords: Cu/TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>; nanocomposite; ultrasonic; MB dye, Water contaminations

### 1. Introduction

A major issue that has arisen in recent decades as a result of industrialization, urbanization, and the economic revolution is water pollution. Organic pollutants, such as pesticides, dyes, and pharmaceuticals, among others, are liberated into water reservoirs and have a serious negative impact on the ecosystem because they don't degrade easily. As a result, experts are becoming more interested in water filtration to lessen the negative impacts of pollution. Dyes generated from textile, paper, and paint industries are only a few of the organic pollutants that are dumped into the water [1-3]. Due to the presence of heavy metals, aromatic chemicals, and dye molecules in industries, they play a significant role in deteriorating the ecosystems [4,5]. Dye exposure in aquatic habitats puts living things at risk for illness, reduces light penetration into the water, which lowers the effectiveness of aquatic plants' photosynthetic processes, and also creates anoxic conditions that have an influence on aquatic fauna and flora [6]. Due to the enduring colors, they diminish the aesthetic value of aquatic bodies and raise the need for biological and chemical oxygen [7]. Additionally, they accumulate in the food chain and induce toxicity, which causes a variety of serious health issues [8].

Methylene blue (MB) is an aromatic heterocyclic basic dye, a renowned cationic and primary thiazine dye having a C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>18</sub>N<sub>3</sub>ClS molecular formula, and  $\lambda_{\text{max}} \approx 660 \text{ nm}$  [9]. The MB finds various useful biomedical applications as an active therapeutic means to treat anemia, and malaria, along with its use in human and veterinary drug for numerous diagnostic and therapeutic processes. In the industrial sector, MB dye has lots of applications in the fabric, pharmaceuticals, pulp and paper, coloring, paints, and food [10]. The release of MB above a certain concentration from the industrial facilities in natural water sources poses a serious health menace to human beings and other living organisms. The MB is noxious, carcinogenic, and non-biodegradable and can induce a serious hazard to human wellbeing and have a damaging impact on the environs [11]. It can cause several threats to human health, including respiratory distress, visceral disorders, loss of sight, and gastrointestinal and mental ailments [12-14]. The purification of MB dye contaminated water prior to discharging into the environment is of vital significance due to its risky effects on water quality and health [15]. A number of approaches have been adopted to eliminate MB and other dyes from industrial wastewater.

These methods include coagulation, phytoremediation, adsorption/biosorption, biodegradation, nanofiltration, electrocoagulation besides others. Every one of these management techniques has its merits and limitations concerning cost-effectiveness and viability, competence, and environmental sway [16-19]. As heat and light stable and non-biodegradability, it is usually hard to break down MB dye into smaller inorganic compounds using classical protocols [20]. MB is broken down into innocuous chemicals such CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, making photo-catalysis superior to other approaches [21, 22].

As an effective photo-catalyst with a lot of surface area in this context, TiO<sub>2</sub> semiconductor material is frequently used to address environmental problems by destroying organic pollutants from industrial wastewaters and reducing the amount of heavy metals [23-25]. TiO<sub>2</sub>, with a 3.2 eV band gap, is often exclusively active in the UV spectrum, which limits its applications in

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the visible spectrum [26]. For increased sensitivity to visible light,  $\text{TiO}_2$  has been doped with non-metals like N, C, and S as well as metals as Fe, Cu, and Mn [27-29]. Despite the fact that generally lowering the band gap increases photocatalytic activity in visible light, the photocatalytic activity in visible light is diminished as a result of electron hole pair recombination. Because of this,  $\text{TiO}_2$  has been coupled with other semiconductors to generate kind I and kind II heterojunctions, which improve the charge separation. Semiconductors like  $\text{WO}_3$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{BiO}$ , and  $\text{MoS}_2$  form kind I heterojunctions when combined with  $\text{TiO}_2$  [30, 31] whereas kind II heterojunctions are formed by semiconductors like  $\text{CuO}$ ,  $\text{CdSe}$ ,  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ ,  $\text{CeO}_2$ ,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{S}_3$ ,  $\text{WS}_2$ , and  $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_3$  [32-34]. A cheap precursor for example urea, cyanamide, melamine, etc. is typically used to create the metal-free semiconductor  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ .

The sheets have a honeycomb-like structure and are made up of s-triazine or tri-s-triazine units like the structural monomers. Vander Waals forces hold the sheets together whereas covalent bonds bind the atoms in one sheet [35-37]. In order to maximize the charge separation,  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  has also been coupled with other substances such as  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{SnO}_2$ ,  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ ,  $\text{Bi}_2\text{O}_4$ ,  $\alpha\text{-MoCl}_{1-x}$  quantum dots, charcoal, etc. An issue that results in reduced photocatalytic activity when  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  is taken individually is electron-hole pair recombination [38-40]. To prevail over the large band gap energy of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the high electron-hole pair recombination rate of the  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  Cu doped  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  were combined to form a z-scheme heterojunction in order to test the photocatalytic activity of the new nanocomposite in the photodegradation of MB. Additionally, the manufacturing of the novel  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\text{-Cu-TiO}_2$  composites was ecofriendly, necessitating no use of rigid templates or harmful solvents.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Synthesis of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets

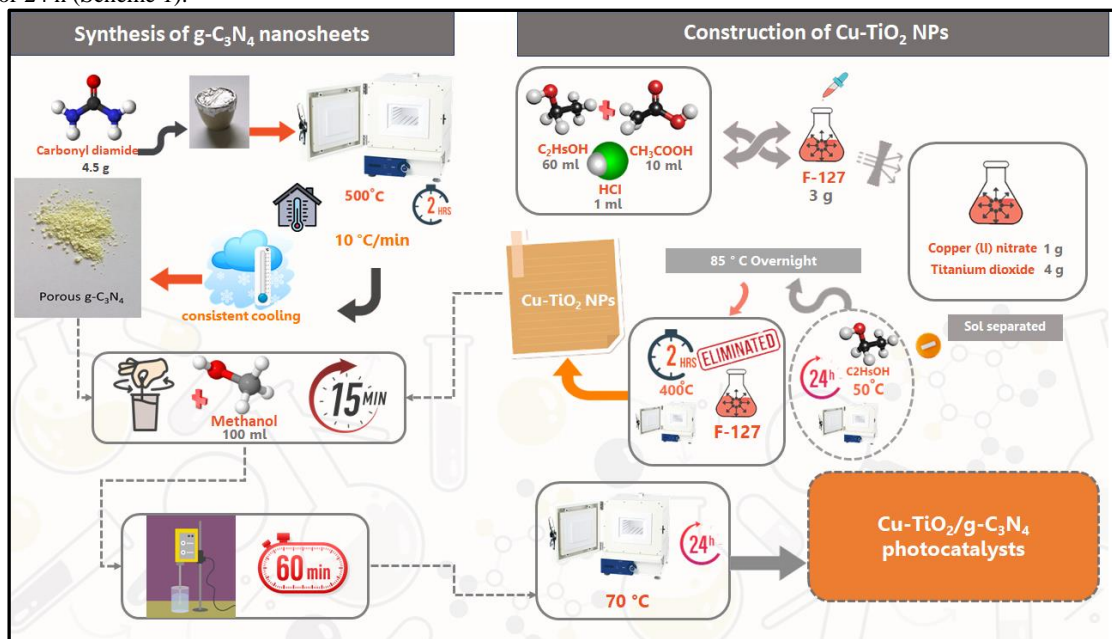
A set method was assumed to create the pure  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanomaterial. Carbonyl diamide (4.5 g) was butted in a crucible with aluminum foil cover and then annealed in a muffle furnace at  $500^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 h with a heating rate of  $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$  at the room temperature. Following consistent cooling, the yellow powders were received.

### 2.2. Construction of $\text{Cu-TiO}_2$ NPs

$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$  and  $\text{HCl}$  were mixed in a container in the sequence of 60, 10 and 1 mL followed by dispersing F-127 (3 g) in this mixture. After that, the attained mixture was utilized to disperse titanium dioxide and copper (II) nitrate in the sequence of 4 g and 1 g utilizing strong agitation. The attained sol was separated from the previous solution and then  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  was removed via heating for 24 h at  $50^\circ\text{C}$  followed by extra heating overnight at  $85^\circ\text{C}$  for dehydration. Finally, F-127 surfactant was eliminated from the gel via heating at  $400^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 h to provide the required  $\text{Cu-TiO}_2$  NPs.

### 2.3. Fabrication of $\text{Cu-TiO}_2@\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ photocatalyst

0.6 and 3.4 wt.%  $\text{Cu-TiO}_2@\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalysts were constructed via achieving high distribution of the prepared  $\text{Cu-TiO}_2$  NPs over the produced porous  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  nanosheets and then stirred in a 100 mL of methanol for 15 min. The previous mixture was sonicated for 60 min to assure the good dispersion of the solid specimen throughout the solution and then oven-dried at  $70^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h (Scheme 1).



Scheme 1. The  $\text{Cu-TiO}_2@\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  photocatalysts steps.

### 2.4. Characterization

Using monochromate Cu Ka radiation, X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were captured in a PANalytical diffractometer (Model PW3040/60) X'pert PRO. A ZEISS Sigma 500 was used to measure the patterns of the samples used for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). On a JEM-2100 apparatus, examinations using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) were performed. On a Thermo Nicolet IR200, Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra data were collected. On a Quantachrome Instruments 2SI-MP-20, the surface areas of samples measured by Brunauer- Emmett-Teller (BET) were calculated. Using an Al Ka radiation

excitation source, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) experiments were carried out using a Thermo Scientific Escalab 250Xi spectrometer. On a PerkinElmer Lambda 950, the UV-vis diffuse reflection spectra (DRS) were collected. At an excitation wavelength of 350 nm, PL spectra were discovered using a Cary Eclipse fluorescence spectrometer.

### 2.5. Photocatalysis procedure

Several degradation tests were carried out to determine the optimal conditions for the MB dye degradation process based on Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanomaterials. The effects of important factors on the degradation process were evaluated. These characteristics included the starting concentration of MB, the concentrations of the nano-catalysts, and the pH measurements of the mediums that were analyzed. All the tests were carried out based on optimal circumstances, with a volumetric flask containing 2 milliliters of MB solution at a 25 parts per million concentration. A pH adjustment was performed on each test that was measured using 0.1 M HCl and 0.1 M NaOH. Magnetic stirring was done for ten minutes at a speed of 4400 revolutions per minute on the mediums of the MB dye and the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nano-catalysts colloidal mixes that were being evaluated. To get the UV/Vis spectra of the MB solutions, the Evolution™ 200 series Thermo Fisher Spectrophotometer (located in Waltham, Massachusetts, United States) performed the analysis.

## 3. Results and Discussions

### 3.1. Nanostructures characterization

The XRD graphs (Figure 1) were used to determine the phase structures of the synthesized nanostructure. The pristine g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> reveals the characteristic nitride peaks at 13 and 27.33°. The High-intensity peak at around 27.33° is a distinctive feature

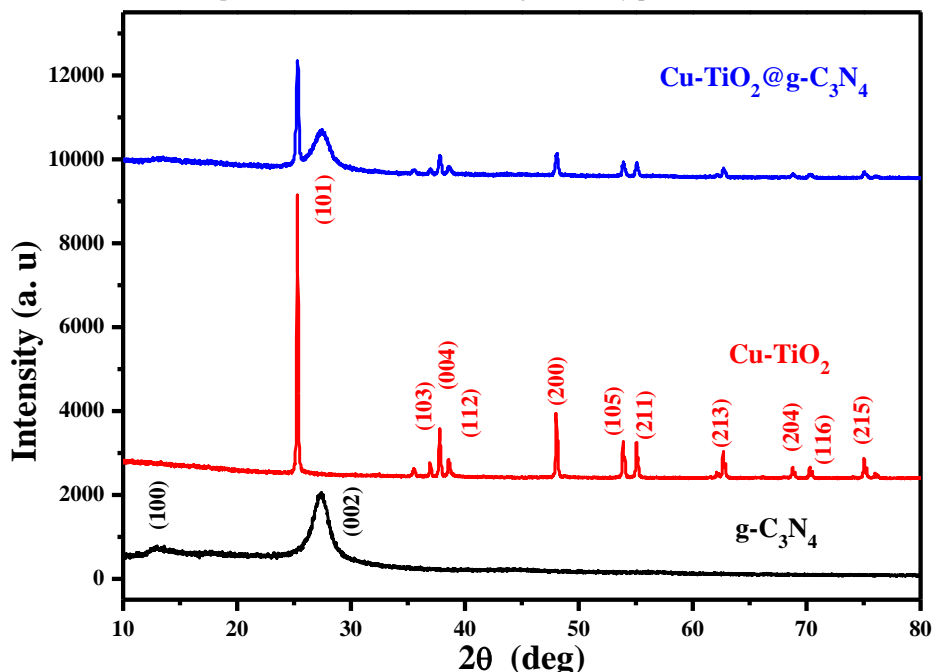


Figure 1. The XRD of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, and the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.

for the (002) interlayer stacking reflection of conjugated aromatic fragments. The computed interlayer distance of aromatic units ( $d = 0.3261$  nm), which is identical to that of the crystalline g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> [41]. The minor peak can be indexed as (1 0 0), is germane to the in-plane organizational repeating design, like the hole-to-hole distance of the uninterrupted tri-s-triazine pores. The mutual occurrence of these well-resolved diffraction peaks ascertains the development of C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> framework [42]. The XRD Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles displayed diffraction peaks at  $2\theta$  of 25.3°, 37.0°, 37.8°, 38.7°, 48.0°, 53.9°, 55.0°, 62.8°, 68.8°, 70.3°, and 75.0° which sequentially resemble to the (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (213), (204), (116), and (215) crystal planes of the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> phase (JCPDS No. 21-1272) [43].

There was neither rutile TiO<sub>2</sub> phase nor CuTiO<sub>3</sub> observed in the spectrum as the synthesis was done at relatively low temperature. In addition, no diffraction peaks of Cu or Cu oxides in Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> were perceived, which may be reasoned by for the high dispersion of any related phase within TiO<sub>2</sub> crystal lattice or that the amount of Cu or Cu oxides is lower than the XRD detection limit [44-46]. Furthermore, the ionic radius of Cu<sup>2+</sup> (73 pm) is fairly comparable to the ionic radius of Ti<sup>4+</sup> (74 pm) and thus the Cu<sup>2+</sup> could interstitially or substitutionally replace Ti<sup>4+</sup> in the Anatase phase of TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice [47]. The XRD patterns of the ternary Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> include both the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> peaks. However, the merging of the two entities resulted in the reduction of peak intensities along with the change in broadening of the (002) nitrides peak from  $\beta = 1.2623$  to  $\beta = 1.3173$  and that of the (101) of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> from  $\beta = 0.1321$  to  $\beta = 0.2058$ . The crystallite size ( $D$ ), lattice strain ( $\epsilon$ ), and the lattice parameters ( $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ) were calculated using the following expressions:

$$D = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} \quad (4)$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\beta_{hkl}}{4 \tan \theta} \quad (5)$$

Due to the incorporation of nitride into the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> considerable alterations in the structural characteristics as the crystallite size of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> decreased from 6.48 to 6.21 nm, while the change in the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> was from 61.67 to 39.58 nm. These reductions in sizes were accompanied with an increase in the lattice strain the augmented from 0.0226 to 0.236 for the nitride and 0.0026 to 0.0040 for the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>. The lattice parameters for the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> were found to be  $a = b = 3.7896$  and  $c = 9.4521$  nm before and  $a = b = 3.7857$  and  $c = 9.5123$  nm after the ternary composite. This result infers that the amalgamation of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> had changed the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles growth along the *c*-axis. Such behavior was attributed to an anisotropic growth [48].

Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy is a strong analytical technique for determining and characterizing the chemical composition of materials (Figure 2a). When applied to the study of pure Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, pure C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, FT-IR analysis can reveal important information on the molecular structure, functional groups, and chemical interactions present in these materials. Pure Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> is a composite material made from copper (Cu) and titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>). The FT-IR spectra of pure Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> may have characteristic peaks corresponding to the vibrational modes of Cu-O and Ti-O bonds at  $\approx 500$  cm<sup>-1</sup> [49]. The presence of these peaks would indicate the presence of Cu and TiO<sub>2</sub> in the samples. Pure C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is a carbon nitride substance noted for its great stability and catalytic activity. The FT-IR spectrum of pure C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> should show peaks corresponding to C-N and N-H bonds, which are characteristic of the C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> structure. Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> is a composite material that combines Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles with graphitic carbon nitride. The FT-IR spectra of this composite should show peaks corresponding to the vibrational modes of Cu-O, Ti-O, C-N, and N-H bonds, showing the presence of all components in the composite material. The intense peaks at 1250, 1300, 1412, and 1598 cm<sup>-1</sup> were attributed to aromatic C-N stretching vibration modes, and a peak at 1650 cm<sup>-1</sup> was assigned to C-N heterocycle stretching vibrations, while the prominent band about 3240 cm<sup>-1</sup> was for -OH stretching vibrations [50]. Furthermore, in the FTIR spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs, -OH group stretching was observed at 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup>, with peaks at 1630 and 480 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to the bending modes of water Ti-OH and the stretching frequency of Ti-O-Ti [51].

Photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy analyses were implemented in order to disclose the recombination rate of photogenerated charge carriers (electron-hole pairs) [52]. The photogenerated charge carriers separation has a vital role in the photocatalytic competence of the photocatalyst. A great separation rate leads to higher photocatalytic action [53]. The PL graphs of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Figure 2b) shows and absorption at longer  $\lambda$  for the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> than Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> which connotes a better visible light activity. Relative to the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, the PL emission intensity of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst decreased noticeably. The lowest intensity of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> compared to the pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> reveals that the fabricated photocatalyst interface can function as competent transfer channels for charge carriers [54]. Henceforth, the migration of photogenerated charge carriers between Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> was enhanced, bringing about lower PL intensity and better-quality photocatalytic performance for the ternary Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite.

The UV-Vis DRS of Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> are portrayed in Figure 2c. The Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> revealed an absorption in the shorter wavelength of the UV region with optical edge at  $\approx 380$  nm. The pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> showed relatively higher photon absorption extending towards the visible light region with an optical edge at  $\approx 430$  nm as a characteristic feature of the visible light driven activity of the nitride [55]. The absorption of Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> is extra shifted to the visible range after g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> incorporation signifying high visible light absorption. This finding proves that g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> addition stretched light absorption to a longer wavelength, indicating that g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> acts as sensitizer. The optical band gap was computed using the Tauc formula [56]:

$$\alpha h\nu = A(h\nu - E_g)^n \quad (6)$$

Here the symbols  $\alpha$ ,  $A$ ,  $h\nu$  and  $E_g$  symbolize the absorption coefficient and optical transition-dependent constant, the photon energy, and the material's band gap energy. The value of the power "n" identifies the type of the semiconductor's optical transition. The n value is taken as 0.5 for allowed direct optical transitions [57]. The value of optical band gap energy can be obtained by extrapolating the linear part of the plot intersects the energy axis ( $\alpha E = 0$ ) corresponds to the value of  $E_g$  (Figure 2d). The band gap energies of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were estimated respectively as 3.33, 2.99, and 2.96 eV. Similar band gap lowering due to metal oxides incorporation into nitride due to the more negative potential of the N<sub>2p</sub> orbital compared to the O<sub>2p</sub> orbital in metal-oxides. In addition, the sensitization effect of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> on TiO<sub>2</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst could be the reason to the lower band gap value of TiO<sub>2</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> photocatalyst when compared to that of pristine TiO<sub>2</sub>. Typically, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has been doped to improve its photo-electronic functionality and the reason for that is the layered assembly of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> encompasses voids that can host heteroatoms, stimulating a conduction band move up to improve light absorption [58].

Figure 3 exhibits the morphology of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and the EDX analysis for the elemental composition of the nanostructures. The SEM of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Figure 3a) shows flaky sheet-like structures that are stacked and layered and these formed 2D sheets enfold and crumple in some areas. The SEM of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3c) shows agglomerated nanoparticles which may had due occurred due to their high surface energy, secondary crystallization, and/or Ostwald ripening. The Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> SEM image (Figure 3e) depicts the flaked structures of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with dispersed nanoparticles of Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> within the surface of the nitride nanosheets.

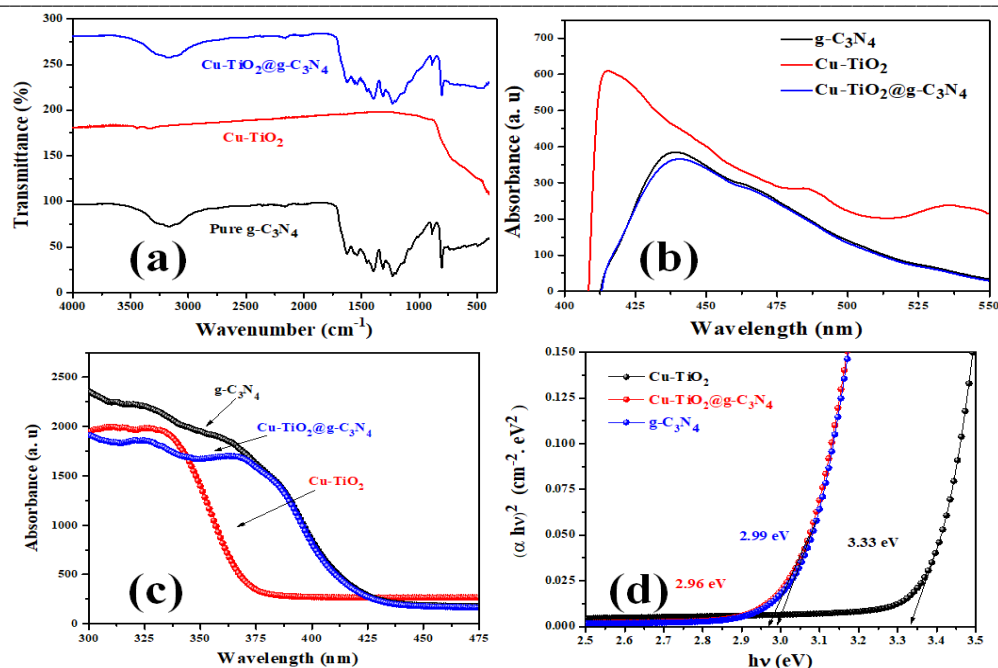


Figure 2. The FTIR (a), PL (b), UV-Vis absorption (c) and Tauc plots (d) of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, and the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>.

The presence of C and N in the EDX of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (Figure 3b) and the C/N = 0.80 ratio is almost equal to the theoretical value of 0.75 which indicates the successful fabrication of the nitride. The minor oxygen ratio observed in the EDX might be due to the surface oxygen on the sample surface. The elemental composition of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3d) reveals the presence of high Ti and O and low Cu percentages which indicates the very less quantity of Cu. The presence of C might be attributed to some residue of the solvents used for the synthesis of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>. The elemental composition of the ternary Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite (Figure 3f) conveys the existence of C, N, Ti, O, and Cu as the primary elements with traces of Cl impurity that may have resulted during the preparation. The successful fabrication of the intended composite can be verified by the obtained EDX results.

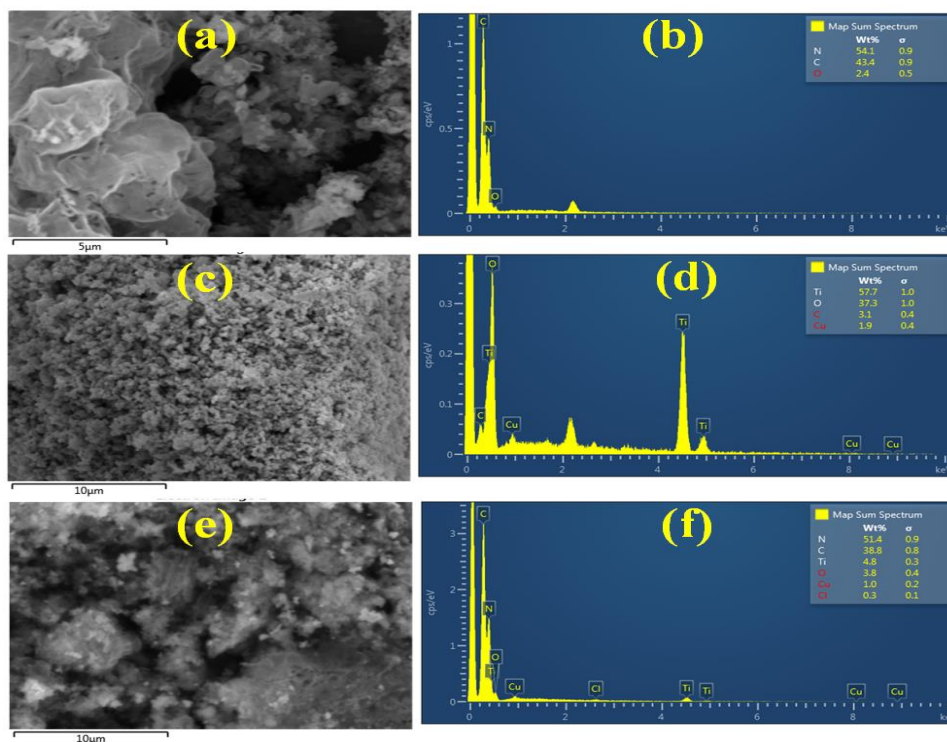


Figure 3. The SEM and EDX of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (a,b), Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> (c,d), and the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (e,f).



The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy analyses were performed to confirm the oxidation state of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite. The peaks correlating with the Cu<sub>2p<sub>1/2</sub></sub> and Cu<sub>2p<sub>3/2</sub></sub> are apparent at 953.7 and 933.3 eV, respectively (Figure 4a). These values are in consonance with the earlier reported values of CuO [59]. In addition Cu<sub>2p<sub>1/2</sub></sub> satellite peak which is typical for the CuO is evidently witnessed at 942.4 eV, whereas the satellite peak for the Cu<sub>2p<sub>1/2</sub></sub> emerged at 962.6 [60]. Both peaks and their satellites are  $\approx 9$  eV apart from each other. The XPS peaks positions and the difference between them assent the peaks of copper (II) state with d<sup>9</sup> electron configuration [61].

As illustrated in Figure 4b, the binding energies at 458.0 and 463.7 eV match with the Ti<sub>2p<sub>3/2</sub></sub> and Ti<sub>2p<sub>1/2</sub></sub>, respectively [62] with the area ratio of Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>1/2</sub> to Ti<sup>4+</sup>2p<sub>3/2</sub> was  $\approx$  xxx. The difference in binding energy as a result of spin orbit coupling,  $\Delta E_b = E_b(463.7 \text{ eV}) - E_b(458.0 \text{ eV})$  was 5.7 eV, which is agrees well with the reported values [63] and advocate the existence of the Ti<sup>4+</sup> oxidation state. The detailed XPS spectrum of O1s (Figure 4c) shows a broad peak that could be deconvoluted to two components, which were assigned to the lattice oxygen (529.3 eV), and the hydroxyl groups and/or adsorbed O<sub>2</sub> (at 531.0 eV) [64]. Additionally, the C1s, (Figure 4d) peak was subdivided into three peaks with binding energies of 284.3, 285.1, and 287.7 eV, which could be assigned to the sp<sup>2</sup> C-C bonds, the C-NH<sub>2</sub> species of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, and the carbon in N-C=N respectively [65, 66]. Lastly, four peaks were detected in the high-resolution XPS spectrum of N 1s (Figure 4e). The peak at 398.3 eV is allocated to sp<sup>2</sup>-hybridized aromatic N bound to C atoms (C=N-C) [67], while the peak at the binding energy of 399.0 eV denotes tertiary nitrogen N-(C)<sub>3</sub> [68]. The peaks positioned at 400.6 and 404.2 eV were attributed to C-N-H groups [69].

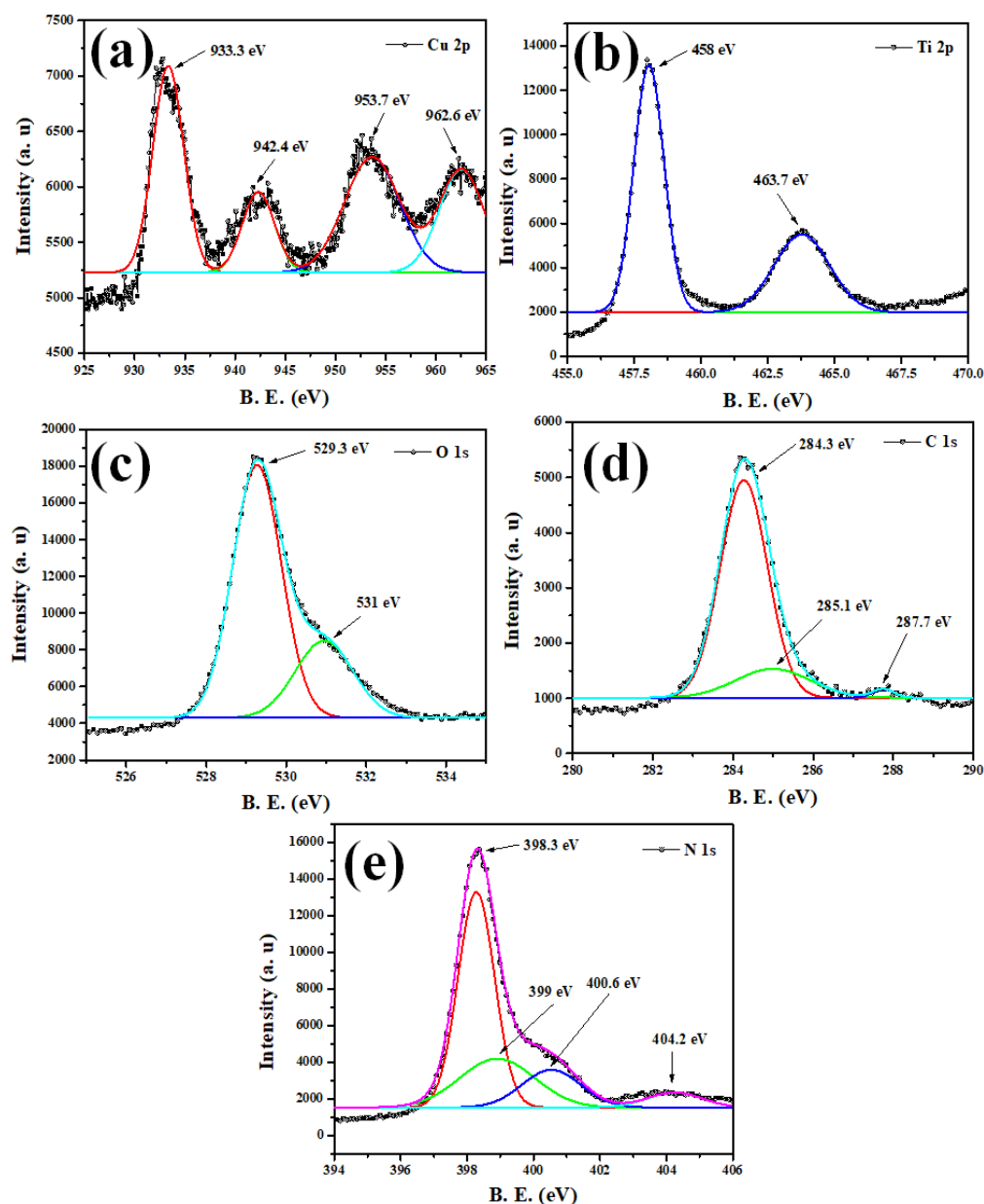


Figure 4. The detailed XPS spectra for Cu 2p (a), Ti 2p (b), O1s (c), C1s (d) and N1s (e).

### 3.2. MB photodegradation

The photodegradation of MB dye was conducted as a test reaction to assess the photocatalytic performances of the fabricated nanostructures. Figure 5a portrays the degradation efficiency of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> under visible light irradiation employing 30 ppm MB, 50 mg of the photocatalyst, at pH 7, and room temperature. The data revealed that the photocatalytic activities were in the following order: photolysis << Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> < g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> < Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> within 80 minutes time interval. As a result the MB stability, it is not efficiently degradable by photolysis [9]. The high competence of the ternary Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite was in line with the lowest band gap energy and the lowest recombination rate of the photogenerated electrons-holes pairs.

To measure the heterogeneous photodegradation activity, the Langmuir–Hinshelwood (L-H) model is generally deliberated, as expressed in the following formula [70]:

$$\frac{-dC}{dt} = \frac{kKC}{1+KC} \quad (8)$$

where the thermodynamic adsorption and photodegradation rate constants are denoted in turn as K and k. As the photocatalyst concentration remains always constant, the reaction kinetics is made simple, and the word “pseudo” is added as a prefix to the reaction rate expression. At high dye concentrations, the photocatalyst surfaces are totally covered, bringing about the estimation of  $(1 + KC)$  to KC and pseudo zero-order reaction is, hence, considered for surface saturation coverage. In case of low initial dye concentrations the  $(KC + 1) \approx KC$  and a pseudo first-order rate equation is derived. The equation is useable by presumption that the driving force of degradation is always proportionate to the dye concentration [71].

$$-\frac{dC}{dt} = k_1 C \quad (9)$$

Here  $k_1$  designate the rate constant for the pseudo-first-order reaction. By integrating the equation under the two boundary conditions becomes

$$\ln \left( \frac{C_0}{C_t} \right) = k_1 t \quad (10)$$

The slope of the linear the plot of  $\ln (C_0/C_t)$  versus the illumination time (Figure 5 b), gives the rate constant of the photodegradation. The half-life or time for the  $C_t = \frac{1}{2} C_0$  is derived from the above equation as  $t_{1/2} = \ln 2/k_1$ . Clearly, the  $t_{1/2}$  of the first-order model is not dependent on the dye concentration [10]. The kinetics graph for the MB degradation produced straight lines of  $\ln (C_0/C_t)$  vs t plots confirming the pseudo-first order-kinetics of the catalytic degradation process. The Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> exhibited 1.9- and 3.1- fold rate compared to the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> respectively as well as the shortest  $t_{1/2}$  value (Table 1).

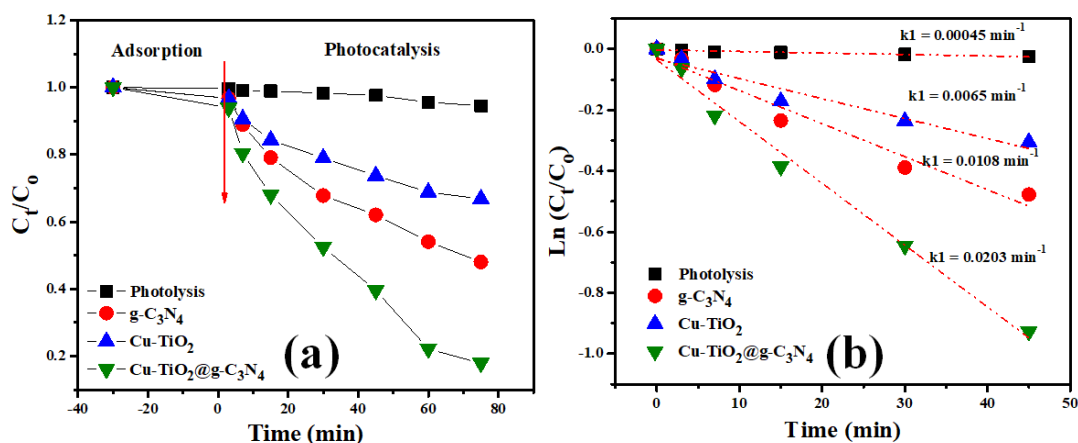


Figure 5. The MB photodegradation efficiency (a) and kinetics (b) graphs.

Table 1: The MB photodegradation kinetics constants

Photocatalyst	Degradation (%)	$k_1 (\text{min.})^{-1}$	$t_{1/2} (\text{min.})$
Photolysis	5.50	0.00045	1540
Cu-TiO <sub>2</sub>	33.2	0.00650	107.0
g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	51.9	0.01080	64.00
Cu-TiO <sub>2</sub> @g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub>	82.9	0.02030	34.00

The pH of photocatalysis setup can be regarded as one of the utmost imperative factors that can seriously impact the dye photo-oxidation process. The pH influence on the MB photocatalytic degradation was probed at the pH range 3-11 (Figure 6a).

The data showed that the solution pH had a direct influence on the heterogeneous photocatalysis. Regarding the positive charge of the cationic MB dye in solution, the influence of pH on its photocatalytic degradation can be justified on the basis of electrostatic adsorption model where cations are easily amassed. At low pH values 3 – 5 the repulsive forces between the positive  $H^+$ , and  $H_3O^+$ , as well as the protonated amine functional groups on the  $Cu-TiO_2@g-C_3N_4$  surface had greatly diminished the degradation activity. The highest photodegradation was accomplished at pH = 7.0 which agrees with previous [72].

To specify the influential radical species which are involved in the MB photodegradation, the isopropanol (Isop), ascorbic acid (ASC), silver nitrate ( $AgNO_3$ ), and EDTA as the scavengers that respectively suppress the  $\cdot OH$ ,  $O_2^{\cdot -}$ ,  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  [73]. The histograms for the MB degradation percentage (Figure 6b), shows that the ASC significantly reduced the degradation from 90.3 to 4.16 %, followed by Isop that dropped the percentage to 12.19 %, meanwhile the  $AgNO_3$  and EDTA decreased the degradation to 36.74 and 53.61% respectively. Hence the involvement of the active degradation agent can be arranged in the following sequence  $O_2^{\cdot -} > \cdot OH > e^- > h^+$ .

The  $Cu-TiO_2@g-C_3N_4$  was tested for rhodamine B (RB), methyl red (MR), cationic dyes, and Congo red (CR), alizarin red (Aliz), and indigo carmine (IC) photodegradation. Within 60 minutes, the degradation percentages of the CR, Aliz and IC anionic dyes were in turn 74.8, 73.9 and 86.4 % which were higher than the cationic dyes RB (62.0 %) and MR (45.3 %) (Figures 6c and e). The kinetics of all the dyes degradation was found to side with the pseudo-first-order kinetics model (Figure 6d) and the tabulated data (Table 2) follow the degradation percentage trend. Thus it can be suggested that the  $Cu-TiO_2@g-C_3N_4$  composite is suitable for both anionic at cationic dyes at neutral pH.

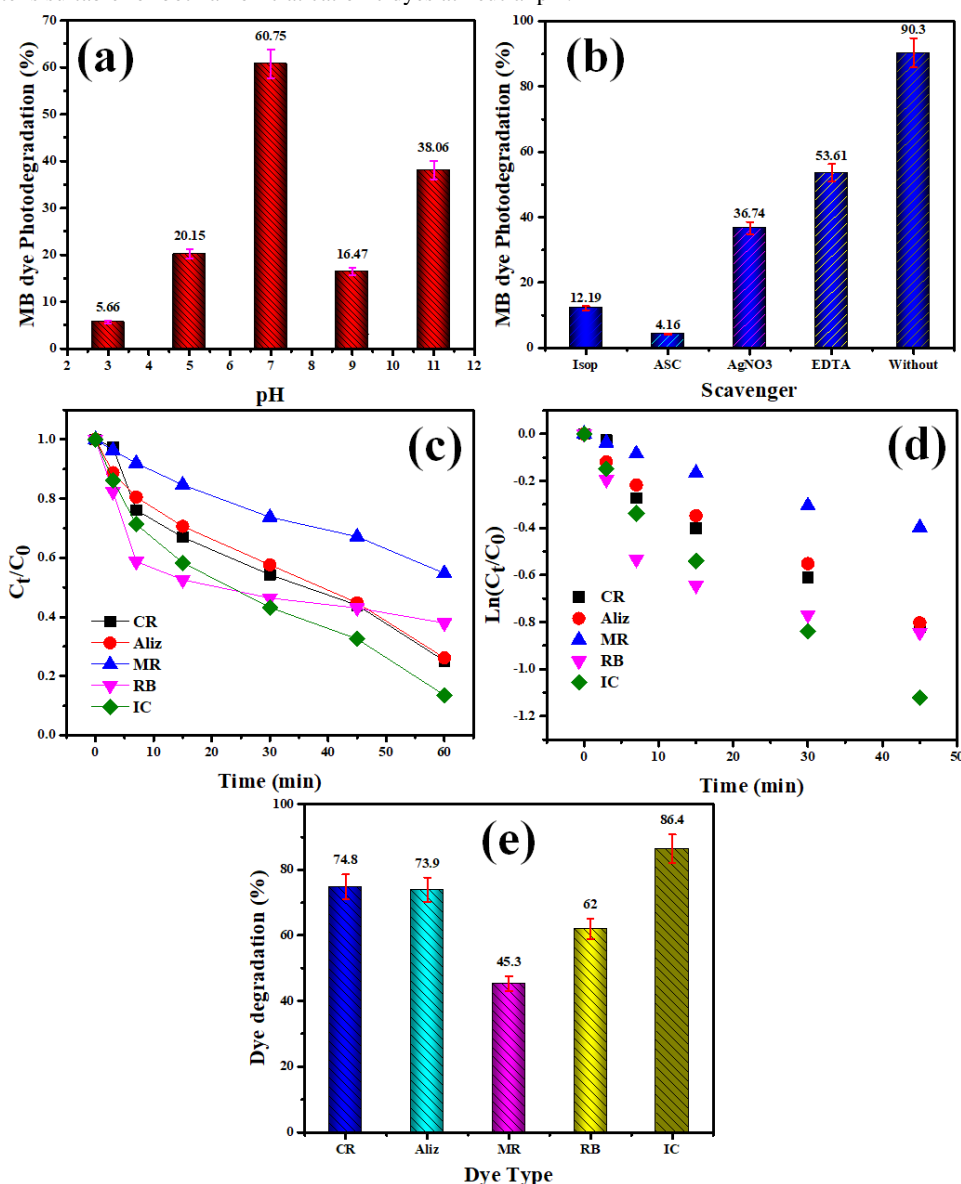
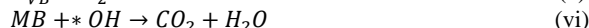
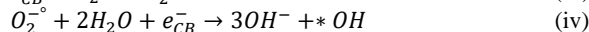
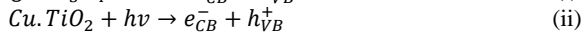
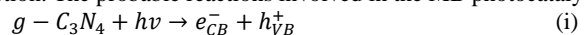


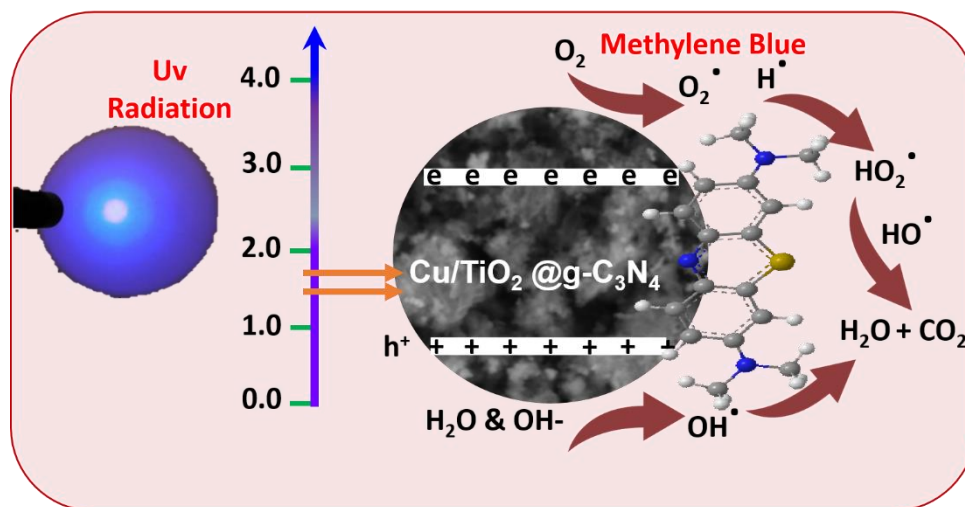
Figure 6. The pH (a) and radicals scavengers (b) on the MB photodegradation, and the degradation efficiency (c, e) and kinetics (d) graphs for multiple dye photodegradation.



To elucidate the MB photodegradation mechanism, the band gap energies of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> were considered and the conduction (CB) and valence (VB) band edge positions of the semiconductor were calculated according to the Butler-Ginley equation [74]. The  $E_{CB}$  and  $E_{VB}$  for the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were respectively -1.275 and 1.715 eV respectively, whereas, the -0.355 and 2.975 eV were determined for the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>. According to the UV-visible absorption (Scheme 2), the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> seems incapable of visible light absorption and the subsequent excitation process, but the presence of some C and N on its surface can create inter-band states that enable visible light absorption as previously reported for ZnO/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> core-shell nano-plates [75]. Thus, it is sensible to suggest a Z-scheme mechanism by creating a heterojunction between the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> and the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>. It is a well-established that heterogeneous photocatalysis processes generally proceed via four stages; starting with harvesting the light; followed by the photo-excitation of the charge-carrier; then the charge split-up and transporting the of charges to catalyst's surface ; and finally the redox reaction. The probable reactions involved in the MB photocatalytic degradation are as follows:



Under visible light illumination, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> and Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> semiconductor would photo-excite and create electron-hole pairs. The photogenerated electron-hole pairs get separated and change to reverse directions as of in Z-scheme course and leads to suppressing the recombination rate. Briefly, when visible light is absorbed by g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> or the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> the electrons are excited to CB leaving the hole behind at VB. Thereafter the electron from CB of the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> can drift to the holes occupied VB of the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> due to the attraction of the inherent electric field, and hence the likelihood of reconnecting the electron-hole pairs can be inhibited. The electrons in the CB of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> can be trapped by O<sub>2</sub> to form  $\cdot O_2^-$  because the CB potential of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (-1.295 eV) is more negative than the standard redox potential of O<sub>2</sub>/ $\cdot O_2^-$  ( $E^\circ = -0.40$  eV vs. NHE) [76] (equation iii). Bearing in mind the oxidation potentials of H<sub>2</sub>O or OH<sup>-</sup> (OH<sup>-</sup> to  $\cdot OH$  [ $E^\circ = 2.38$  V vs. NHE] (equation iv), and H<sub>2</sub>O to  $\cdot OH$  [ $E^\circ = 1.99$  eV vs. NHE] equation v), hence the VB of the Z-scheme heterojunction is 2.975 eV vs. NHE, which is more anodic is adequate to breed the  $\cdot OH$ . The scheme clearly supports the scavengers' experiment results the revealed the major roles of the  $\cdot O_2^-$  and  $\cdot OH$  radicals and the minor contribution of the  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  entities which is associated with the generation of the radicals as indicated by equations i-v. Scheme 2 exemplifies the plausible Z-scheme for the MB degradation by the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite.



Scheme 2: The Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-MB photocatalysts mechanism.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this research, a novel Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub>@g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composite was designed and fabricated using in situ synthetic protocol. The crystal structure, morphology, composition, and optical quality of the product were probed in detail using different identification techniques. The Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> was evenly distributed in the nitride matrix, it was found to have narrow band gap energy and absorb in the visible light region. Its photocatalytic performance was tested by the photodegradation of the MB in aqueous solutions. The kinetics of the photodegradation followed the pseudo-first-order model with a rate constant that tripled compared to the Cu-TiO<sub>2</sub> due to nitride coupling. The  $\cdot O_2^-$  and  $\cdot OH$  radicals greatly influenced the dye decolorization process. The adopted simple strategy had realized the effective charge carriers separation for enhanced photocatalytic degradation aptitude.

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