



## Full Length Article

## Sol-gel synthesized hexagonal boron nitride/titania nanocomposites with enhanced photocatalytic activity

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## ABSTRACT

Hexagonal boron nitride (H-BN)/titania (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanocomposites photocatalysts were synthesized by a facile sol-gel method. The structure was verified by comprehensive analysis from X-ray diffraction, Raman, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, scanning electron microscope and transmission electron microscope. The degradation of organic dyes such as rhodamine B (RhB) and methylene blue (MB) under UV light irradiation was used to measure the photocatalytic activity of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites. The photocatalytic performance and the stability of H-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites in the degradation of dyes (MB and RhB) significantly outperformed pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. The formed B–O–Ti bond in H-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> gave rise to a strong link between h-BN sheets and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and thus the charge transportation rate was improved and the recombination of electrons and holes was suppressed in the photocatalytic processes. The degradation percentage for RhB and MB reached 98% and 92% within 50 min irradiation. The degradation rate (k) of first-order linear value of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites (0.05952 and 0.0498) for RhB and MB degradation was 3.64 and 4.22 times higher than that of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> (0.01637 and 0.0118). The enhanced photocatalytic property of the nanocomposites was attributed to the reduction in charge recombination and the adsorption interaction between organic dyes and h-BN. Consequently, h-BN sheets hold a great promise to enhance the photocatalytic activity of semiconductive materials.

## 1. Introduction

Semiconductor-based photocatalytic materials have great potential in environmental cleaning [1,2] and solar energy conversion [3,4]. It is becoming more and more attractive. However, there are still requirements for the preparation of more efficient photocatalysts nowadays. Due to its high photocatalytic activity, low cost and environmental friendliness, titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) is one of the most efficient semiconductive photocatalysts. However, practical applications of TiO<sub>2</sub> were limited by its intrinsic defects, such as low quantum efficiency, low electronic properties and agglomeration of nanoparticles. In order to solve the problem of low efficiency of quantum efficiency and agglomeration, a lot of efforts have been applied to control the light catalyst crystal structure (such as crystallinity, the size of the nanoparticles and exposed surface [5–7]) and modify the surface (such as precious metals, carbon nanotube, graphene and other semiconductor materials [8–11]). The photogenerated electrons and holes induced by

light irradiation recombine rapidly both in internal and on the surface of the semiconductor, limiting the effective participation in the catalytic process and resulting in a low total quantum efficiency for the photocatalysis [12–14]. The morphology of nanoparticles and the chemical composition including the phase of photocatalysts have also influenced the quantum efficiency [15]. At the same time, few studies [13,15] have concerned about the transfer of photogenerated electrons and holes, and the suppression of the electron-hole recombination. In order to improve the photocatalytic activity, especially the degradation of the interfacial hole oxidation and its derivatives, it is very important to study the recombination rate of holes and electrons transferred to the interface. In addition, the stability of photocatalysts, such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, can be improved by decreasing the recombination rate of electrons and holes produced by light irradiation [16,17].

Two dimensional materials, such as graphene and MoS<sub>2</sub>, can practically and significantly reduce the size of nanoparticles, prevent agglomeration, inhibit recombination of electron and hole [18–21]. The

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study of TiO<sub>2</sub> based photocatalysts revealed that graphene could improve the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles due to accelerated transfer rate of photogenic electrons [8,18,22]. Compared with graphene, hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) sheets have similar characteristic structure and lattice parameters with graphene [23–25] and possess a higher specific surface area and better adsorption capacity of dyes [17,26,27]. Therefore, h-BN sheets could be a promising candidate for improving the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub>. Each layer of h-BN is composed of boron and nitrogen atoms arranged alternately with in plane dimension direction forming six square grids. Each layer has sp<sup>2</sup> hybrid forms of B–N which are linked together by covalent bond. Van der Waals force exists between the layers. Recently, Fu et al. [17] found that the surface of h-BN could be naturally negatively charged by the ball milling and the h<sup>+</sup> could transfer from the activated ZnO to h-BN when they were brought into contact. Thus, the photocatalytic reduction ability of ZnO was improved. Two dimensional structures played an important role in improving the particle size, agglomeration, band gap and quantum efficiency, thus, the introduction of 2-D h-BN is helpful to improve TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles photocatalytic properties.

In the present work, a photocatalytic nanocomposite of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> was fabricated by using a facile sol-gel method. The prepared nanocomposites of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> had a reduced particle size of TiO<sub>2</sub> and a fantastic combination between h-BN sheets and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. The h-BN reduced the agglomeration of nanoparticles and enhanced the adsorption of dyes. For photocatalytic experiment, the UV absorption coefficient of dye solution was tested by UV spectrophotometer, and the first-order linear rate *k* was calculated. The photocatalytic mechanism of nano-composites was explored by photoluminescence (PL) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The results demonstrated that the h-BN sheets can inhibit the recombination of charges, which in turn can improve the catalytic efficiency of the photocatalysts. To be noted, the stability of nanocomposites was also demonstrated to be consolidated by the introduction of h-BN sheets.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Materials

Tetrabutyl titanate (C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>36</sub>O<sub>4</sub>Ti, 98.0%, CP) was chosen as titanium precursor and purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Absolute ethyl alcohol (CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH, AR) and acetic acid (CH<sub>3</sub>COOH, AR) were obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd and used as received. The h-BN powders (99.9% metals basis, 1–2 μm) were purchased from Aladdin. Analytical grade methylene blue (MB), and rhodamine B (RhB) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd (manufactured by Shanghai Chemicals Co).

### 2.2. Preparation of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples

#### 2.2.1. Synthesis of titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>)

The typical synthetic process is as follows. 10 mL of tetrabutyl titanate was added to 20 mL of anhydrous ethanol and stirred with a magnetic stirrer for 30 min to prepare solution A. 20 mL of anhydrous ethanol was placed in a beaker, and then 2 mL of acetic acid was added under mechanical stirring. In addition, 1.5 mL of deionized water was dropped. In order to control the pH in the range of 2–3, concentrated hydrochloric acid was used and the obtained solution was marked as solution B. Then solution B was slowly dripped into Solution A (about 3 mL/min) under magnetic stirring. After magnetic stirring for 40 min, a white gel was obtained after continued stirring for another few minutes. The gel was dried in an oven under a constant temperature of 60 °C. The slightly yellowish product was finely ground in an agate mortar and calcined in a muffle furnace at 500 °C for 2.5 h, respectively. Finally, the samples were obtained after slowly cooling in the furnace.

#### 2.2.2. Synthesis of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples

A typical h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> sample was prepared by ultrasonically dispersing 0.15 g h-BN powder in 20 mL anhydrous ethanol for 2 days, followed by centrifugation with low speed (1000 rpm) to prepare solution A. 2 mL glacial acetic acid was then added into 20 mL anhydrous ethanol. Then 10 mL tetrabutyl titanate was added under magnetic stirring. A uniform mixture of precursor solution was obtained after stirring for another 30 min, as solution B. Solution B was dropwise added to the well-dispersed solution A (dripping rate is 4 mL/min). Hydrochloric acid was used to control the pH. After magnetic stirring for 5 h, a white emulsion was attained. Then the jelly was obtained after drying in oven under a constant temperature of 80 °C. The dried product was ground finely in an agate mortar and calcined in a muffle furnace at 500 °C for 2.5 h. Finally, specimens were obtained after cooling in the furnace. To evaluate the content of h-BN sheets, 10 mL solution A was taken, and weighed, then dried to obtain the concentration of h-BN sheets in the solution A. It was used to calculate the total mass of h-BN sheets in the nanocomposites.

### 2.3. Photocatalytic experiments

A homemade device containing two parts was used to test the photocatalytic performance. One part is an ultraviolet analyzer equipped with a UV light with a wavelength of 365 nm. Another part is a beaker containing 50 mL MB (1 × 10<sup>-5</sup> M) or RhB (1 × 10<sup>-5</sup> M) solution and a certain amount of photocatalyst under a magnetic stirring. The distance between the UV light source and the surface of the reaction solution was set as ~9 cm. During the test, the prepared h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> sample (50 mg) was put into the prepared MB/RhB solution (50 mL). Before irradiation, the mixed solution was magnetically stirred in the dark for 30 min until the adsorption-desorption equilibrium between dye and photocatalyst was established. At a given time interval of 10 min, small amount of solution (5 mL) was taken out and centrifuged for 30 min at a speed of 8000 r/min. The concentration of residual MB/RhB in the solution as a function of irradiation time was analyzed using Lambert-Beer's law with a UV-Vis spectrophotometry. The feature absorption wavelength (λ = 552 nm for RhB and λ = 664 nm for MB) was selected to monitor their photocatalytic degradation. The degradation efficiencies were calculated by Eq. (1):

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{C_t}{C_0} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

where *C*<sub>0</sub> is the concentration of the reactant before illumination and *C*<sub>*t*</sub> is the temporal concentration after irradiation for a desired time. As the absorbance of the solution is proportional to the concentration of the dyes, the ratio of *C*<sub>*t*</sub>/*C*<sub>0</sub> is equal to the ratio of the absorbance (*A*<sub>*t*</sub>/*A*<sub>0</sub>). For comparison, the photocatalytic activity of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was also tested using identical experimental conditions. After full degradation of dyes on the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite was achieved by exposing the sample under UV light irradiation for 50 min, the recycling performance of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was tested by a treatment of centrifugal separation, washing and drying for the nanocomposites and then another photocatalytic experiment as mentioned above. This process was repeated five times.

### 2.4. Characterization of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub>

X-ray diffractometer (XRD-6000) with the Cu Kα radiation (λ = 0.15406 nm) operated at 40 kV and 30 mA at a 2θ range of 20–80° was used to observe the phase structure of the samples. Raman spectra were recorded using a micro-Raman spectrometer in the back scattering geometry with a 532 nm laser as the excitation source at room temperature. FTIR spectra of these samples were obtained to survey the bonds while the XPS to analyze the elemental composition on the Thermo Scientific ESCALab 250Xi using 200 W monochromated Al Kα

radiation. The surface morphologies and particle sizes were analyzed by a JEOL JEM-2010F transmission electron microscopy (TEM) under an accelerating voltage of 100 kV and a JSM-6480 scanning electron microscope (SEM), respectively. UV absorption spectra were obtained by using a scan UV–Vis spectrophotometer of UV-3600\*. PL spectrum was measured at room temperature on an EDINBURGH INSTRUMENTS fluorescence spectrophotometer with the excitation wavelength at 315 nm. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) characterization was carried on the EG&G PARC M233 electrochemical workstation with three-electrode system. The samples were used as working electrode while platinum wire as counter electrodes and Ag/AgCl as the reference electrodes. 0.1 M  $K_2SO_4$  as the electrolyte solution was used to conduct electrochemical experiment. EIS spectra were obtained under a perturbation potential of 10 mV with the frequency range of 100–10 mHz.

### 3. Results and discussion

The morphology of samples was investigated by AFM, SEM and TEM. The exfoliated h-BN nanosheets present the sizes ranging from tens to a few hundred nanometers and the thickness is less than 1 nm, as shown in Fig. 1a. Considering that the ideal thickness of single layer h-BN is 0.34 nm, the obtained h-BN nanosheets are about 1–3 layers. The SEM image also confirmed the layered structure of h-BN nanosheets (Fig. 1b). The prepared pure  $TiO_2$  aggregated just similar to previous reports (Fig. 1c). While in the sample of the nanocomposites synthesized through the sol-gel method,  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles displayed a uniform dispersion with a smaller size around 10 nm. TEM image (Fig. 1d)

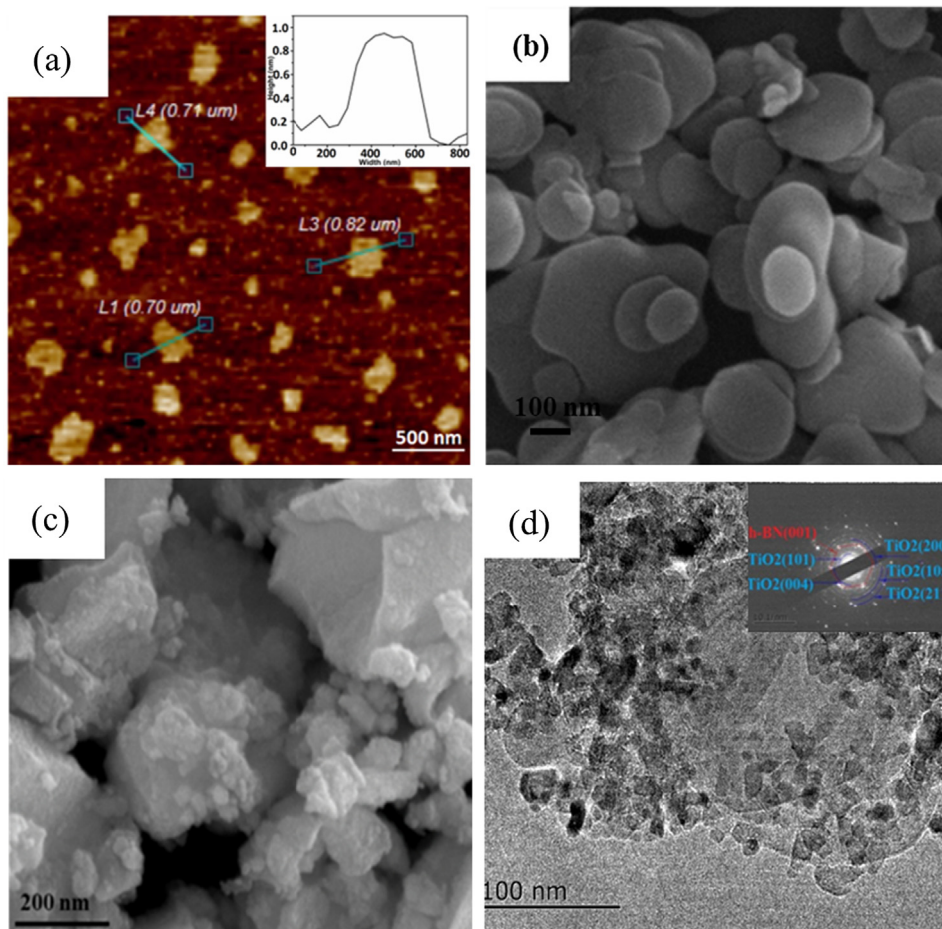


Fig. 1. (a) AFM image and height profile (inset) of bare h-BN, (b) SEM image of h-BN sheets, (c)  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles and the (d) TEM image and ED pattern (the insert) of h-BN/ $TiO_2$ .

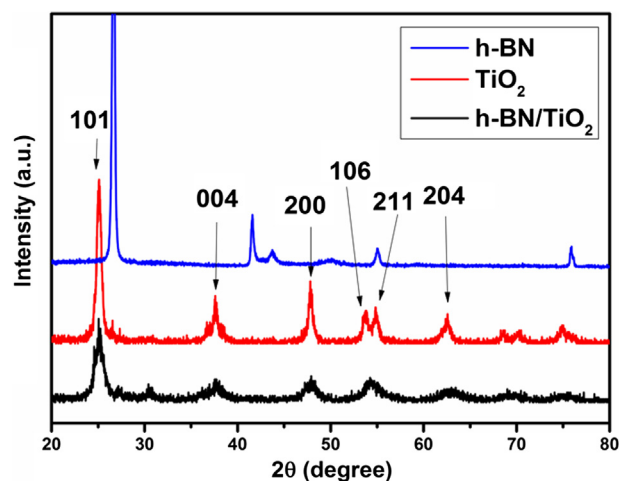


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of h-BN, the prepared h-BN/ $TiO_2$  nanocomposites and pure  $TiO_2$ .

shows the structure of the h-BN/ $TiO_2$  nanocomposites. The attachment of  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles on the surface of h-BN sheets is observed. H-BN sheets have been integrated well with the  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles. Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) was applied to reveal the crystal structure of the h-BN/ $TiO_2$  nanocomposites, as shown in the inset of Fig. 1d. Based on the calculated value and analysis of diffraction patterns, diffractions can be indexed to the lattice plane of anatase  $TiO_2$  (1 0 1), (0 0 4), (2 0 0), (1 0 5), (2 1 1) and the lattice plane of h-BN



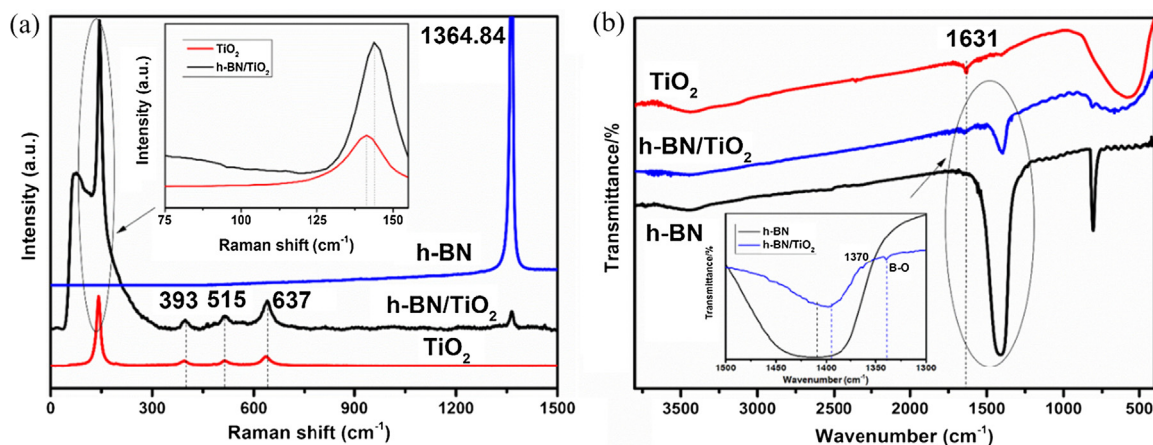


Fig. 3. (a) Raman spectra of h-BN, pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  and h-BN/ $\text{TiO}_2$  and magnified part (Insert), (b) FT-IR spectra of pure h-BN,  $\text{TiO}_2$ , h-BN/ $\text{TiO}_2$  samples. (The inset details the B–N and B–O bonds).

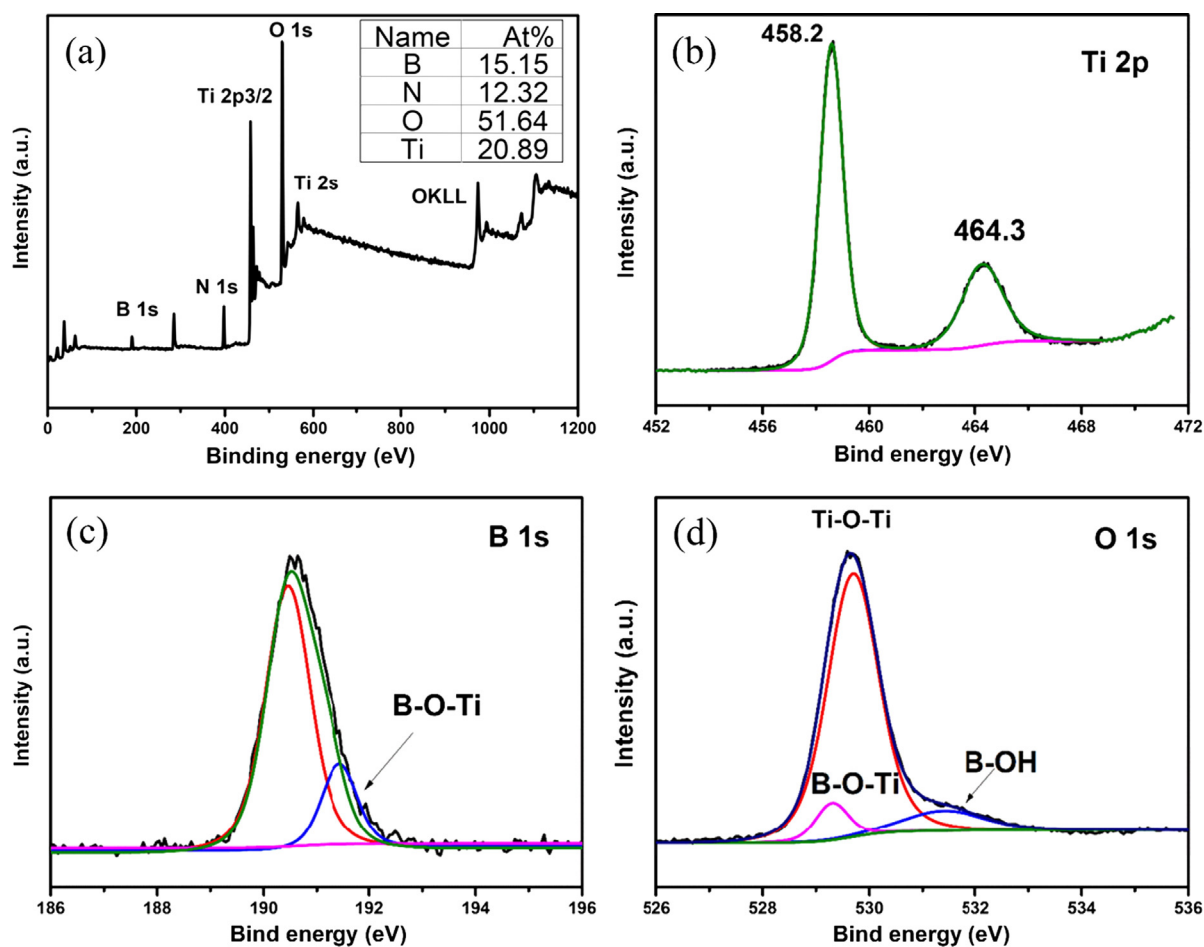


Fig. 4. XPS spectra of h-BN/ $\text{TiO}_2$ : (a) survey XPS spectrum, (b) high resolution Ti 2p, (c) B 1s, (d) O 1s.

(0 0 2), respectively [23,28].

The crystal structure was also characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD). The diffraction of pure h-BN can be clearly observed at  $26.7^\circ$  (Fig. 2). The diffraction peaks located at  $25.3$ ,  $37.9$ ,  $48.0$ ,  $54.4$ ,  $56.6$ ,  $62.8$ , and  $68.9^\circ$  can be indexed to (1 0 1), (0 0 4), (2 0 0), (1 0 5), (2 1 1), (2 0 4), and (1 1 6) plane of anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  [29,30], respectively. A weak diffraction peak ( $\sim 26.7^\circ$ ) assigned to h-BN was observed in the h-BN/ $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposites with strong diffractions of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Furthermore, the calculated average anatase crystallite sizes of these particles using Scherrer's formula were 10.5 nm, which is smaller than that of pure

$\text{TiO}_2$  of 11.6 nm. It is clearly shown that the  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles supported on h-BN sheets were finer and more uniform than pure  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Smaller particle size contributed to the larger specific surface area, which improved the charge transportation and thus decreased the recombination probability of photoinduced electrons and holes [30].

Raman spectra of the samples were recorded in Fig. 3a. The typical Raman shift of the bare h-BN is located at  $1364.84 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  with strong intensity. The peaks around 144, 393, 515 and  $637 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  are identified to the anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  [31]. In the Raman spectrum of h-BN/ $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposites, the present typical Raman shifts of both h-BN and anatase

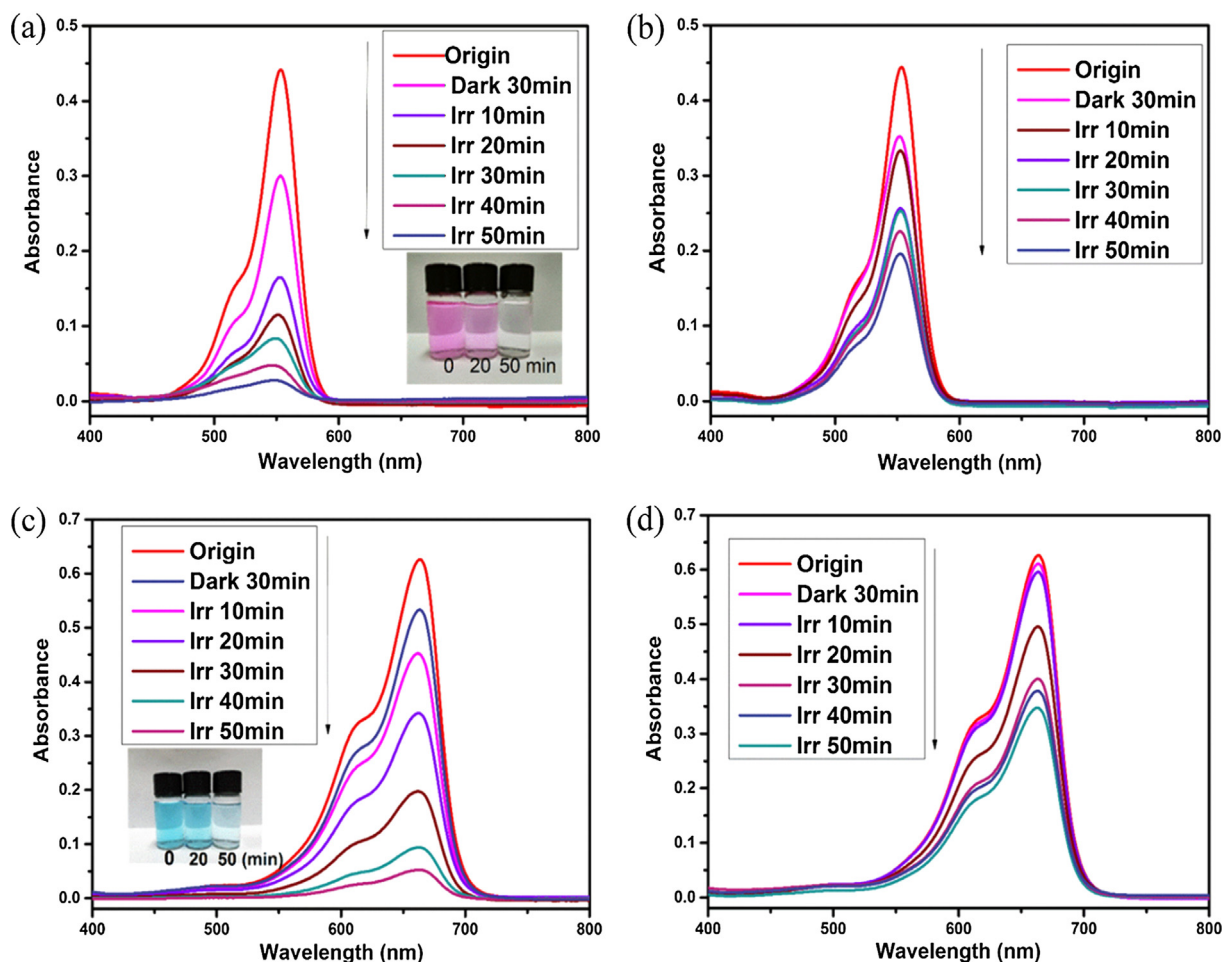


Fig. 5. UV-Vis absorbance spectra of dyes concentration with photocatalyst of (a) h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub>, (b) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> for RhB and (c) h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub>, (d) pure TiO<sub>2</sub> for MB.

TiO<sub>2</sub> are consistent with the XRD and SEAD results. TiO<sub>2</sub> does not undergo any phase transition upon the incorporation of h-BN sheets. Besides, compared to pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, the peak at 144 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3a insert) of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites exhibits slightly blue shift and wider peak width, which are mainly affected by the size of nanoparticles and the oxygen vacancy defects [32]. The asymmetric broadening of the peak indicated a strong chemical interaction between TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and h-BN sheets [33,34]. In the FTIR spectra (Fig. 3b), the peak at 500–600 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to the Ti–O stretching vibration peak [33,34]. The broad band near 3400 and 1631 cm<sup>-1</sup> was indexed to the stretching and bending vibration of hydroxyl groups, respectively. The peaks at 1408 and 806 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to the B–N stretching and bending modes of sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized BN skeletons, respectively. Interestingly, the exfoliated h-BN exhibits an obvious hydroxyl vibration near 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup>. It evidently indicates that the hydroxyl groups are attached on the h-BN sheets after ultrasonic process, which is consistent with the previous reports [35]. The hydroxyl groups with negative charge on the h-BN sheets and the oxygen vacancies in TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles could lead to a tight contact between h-BN sheets and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Moreover, the interaction between h-BN sheets and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles can also be evidenced by other two characteristics. One is the B–N peak of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites at 1390 cm<sup>-1</sup> which shows slight shift compared to the exfoliated h-BN. The other is the present new peaks in the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites located at around 1370 and 1331 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3b insert), which might be attributed to the B–O–Ti and the asymmetric B–O stretching vibration, respectively [33,34]. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurement further confirmed the strong interaction between h-BN sheets and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

XPS measurement was carried out to elucidate the elemental composition and chemical states of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub>, as shown in Fig. 4. The Ti<sub>2p</sub> spectrum was composed of two individual peaks at 458.2 and 464.3 eV (Fig. 4b), which can be ascribed to the Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> and Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> binding energies, respectively. For the B 1s (Fig. 4c) spectrum, one main peak at 190.5 eV was attributed to B–N bonds while the other peak at 191.4 eV was assigned to the B–O–Ti bands [34,36]. As discussed above, bulk boron nitride was effectively exfoliated to a few layers and the hydroxyl groups were introduced. Due to the phonon effect and mechanical power, the defects of boron nitride and the exposure of B atoms made more active sites for further reactions [37]. In this work, the h-BN nanosheets were more favorable for the formation of B–O–Ti bands via the sol-gel method. And this was supported by the O 1s peak (Fig. 4d). The peak at 529.7 eV was attributed to the bonding of Ti–O–Ti [38], while the others with the binding energy centered at 529.1 and 531.4 eV belonged to the B–O–Ti and B–OH bonds, respectively [34,35,39–41]. The B 1s and N 1s binding energies of the bulk h-BN are located at 190.18 and 399.08 eV (Fig. S1), respectively. Compared with reported the bulk h-BN, the B 1s and N 1s spectrum of h-BN nanosheets upshifted 0.34 eV and downshifted 0.19 eV, respectively, which were caused by the introduction of hydroxyl group on the nanosheets after exfoliation. In the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, the center of B 1s binding energy is located at 190.64 eV because of the formation of B–O–Ti at 191.4 eV. The results suggested that h-BN nanosheets were bonded with TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles very well, which is consistent with the Raman and Fourier FTIR results.

The photocatalytic activities of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> powder and h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites were measured by the decontamination of rhodamine b (RhB) and methylene blue (MB) dyes under UV light. Under

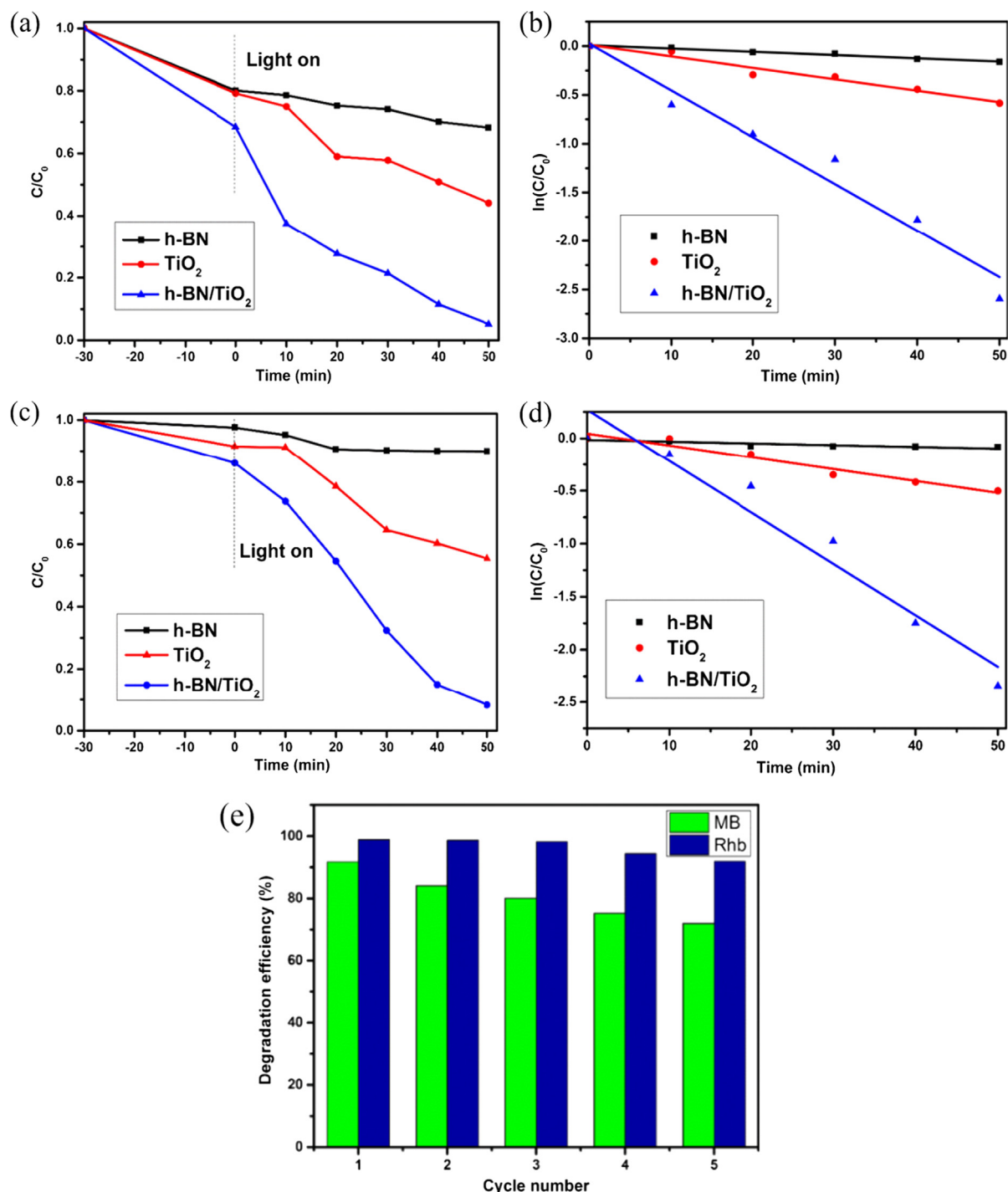


Fig. 6. Plots of  $C/C_0$  and  $\ln(C/C_0)$  versus time under UV light irradiation over different catalysts for RhB/MB. (a, b) RhB, (c, d) MB, (e) cycle runs of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites photodegradation of RhB/MB dyes.

Table 1

Degradation rate ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) constant  $k$  of prepared samples of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub>, TiO<sub>2</sub>, h-BN.

	Rhb	MB
h-BN	0.00765	0.0021
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.01637	0.0118
h-BN/TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.05952	0.0498

irradiation, the TiO<sub>2</sub> were excited and the photo generated carriers could transfer to the nearby dye molecules and took part in the redox reactions, which led to the decomposition of dye into CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O [30,35]. According to the UV-Vis absorbance spectra (Fig. 5), the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites showed remarkable improvement on the photocatalytic performance. The RhB molecules were efficiently degraded using h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites within 50 min, which was much faster than that of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (Fig. 5a and b). For the MB solution, h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites also exhibited a better performance, showing an obvious photocatalytic degradation within 50 min, whereas the decontamination effects were weak on pure TiO<sub>2</sub>

**Table 2**  
Recent studies on TiO<sub>2</sub> based photocatalysts and the corresponding application for organic decomposition.

Catalyst	Dosage (mg)	Dye	Concentration (Mg/L)	Volume (ml)	Light source	Irradiate time (min)	Removal rate (%)	article
TiO <sub>2</sub>	50	AO7	10	50	500w Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	60	5	[28]
N-TiO <sub>2</sub>	50	AO7	10	50	500w Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	60	8	[28]
N-TiO <sub>2</sub> -RGO	50	AO7	10	50	500wc Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	60	64.9	[28]
N.V-TiO <sub>2</sub> -RGO	50	AO7	10	50	500w Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	60	74.6	[28]
P25	30	MB	10	40	UV λ = 365 nm	60	68	[42]
P25-MWCNT-GR	30	MB	10	40	UV λ = 365 nm	60	73	[42]
P25-GR	30	MB	10	40	UV λ = 365 nm	60	96	[42]
S-TiO <sub>2</sub> (self-control)	40	RhB	10	40	500w Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	120	39	[43]
TiO <sub>2</sub> -Ag-5%	40	RhB	10	40	500w Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	120	90	[43]
Nafion-GO		MO	11	2	UV	180	46	[44]
Nafion-TiO <sub>2</sub>		MO	11	2	UV	180	67	[44]
120-rGO-TiO <sub>2</sub>	10	MB	10	80	Solar light	300	80	[45]
150-rGO-TiO <sub>2</sub>	10	MB	10	80	Solar light	300	98	[45]
180-rGO-TiO <sub>2</sub>	10	MB	10	80	Solar light	300	100	[45]
h-BN/Ag <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>		RhB			500w Xenon lamp λ > 420 nm	60	93	[46]
Milled h-BN/TiO <sub>2</sub>	100	MB RhB	5.5	50	UV λ = 365 nm	30	98 98.5	[47]
Milled h-BN/ZnO	100	MB RhB	5.5	50	UV λ = 365 nm	25	60 82	[17]
Microwave TiO <sub>2</sub> -graphene	50	MB RhB	5.5	100	UV λ = 310 nm	60	47.2 55.3	[48]
0.6TiO <sub>2</sub> -RGO-C	30	MB	12	300	UV λ = 254 nm	Dark 180 Irradiate 180	90	[49]
P-TiO <sub>2</sub>	100	RhB	10	40	150 W GYZ220 high-pressure Xenon lamp	150	98	[50]
h-BN/TiO <sub>2</sub>	50	MB/RhB	5.5	50	UV λ = 365 nm	50	92 98	This work

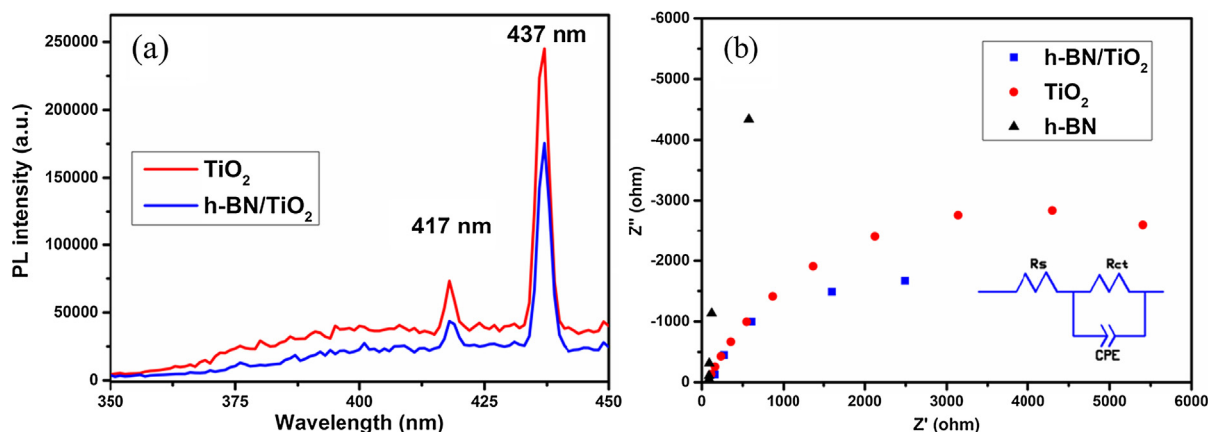


Fig. 7. (a) PL emission spectra of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and prepared h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, (b) EIS Nyquist spectra of photocatalysts.

(Fig. 5c and d). To be noted, the RhB and MB can be degraded almost completely within 50 min, and the solution color faded to be transparent (inserts of Fig. 5a and c).

Further experiments have been carried out to monitor the kinetics of RhB/MB photocatalytic degradation. It is shown in Fig. 6a and c, with a

certain loading of h-BN, the degradation efficiency was enhanced notably for not only RhB but also MB. Compared to pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> samples exhibited a higher photocatalytic efficiency. After irradiation for 50 min, the degradation efficiencies reached the highest of 98% and 92% for RhB and MB, respectively. However, the



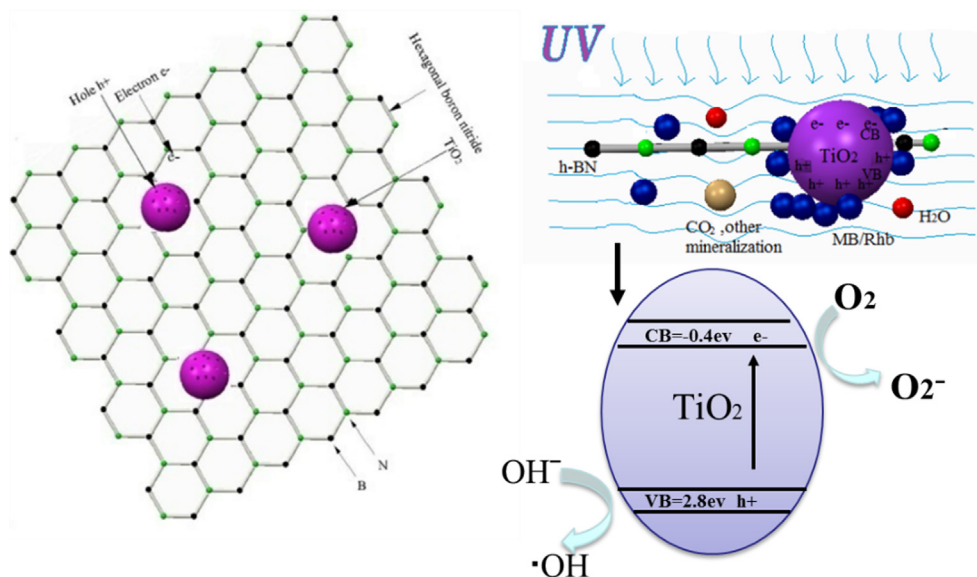


Fig. 8. Schematic photocatalytic mechanism of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.

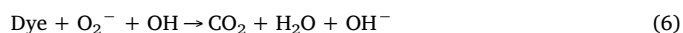
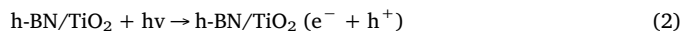
corresponding degradation efficiencies were only 54.7% and 56.3% for pure TiO<sub>2</sub>. Almost no degradation of dyes was observed over pure h-BN, eliminating the possibility that the absorption of h-BN accounted for the photocatalytic activity. In Fig. 6b and d, it was obvious that the photocatalytic performance of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was better than pure h-BN and pure TiO<sub>2</sub>. The kinetic data of photocatalytic degradation followed a pseudo-first-order reaction model:  $\ln(C/C_0) = -kt$ , where  $C_0$  and  $C$  are the absorption equilibrium and dye concentrations at reaction time  $t$ , and  $k$  is the reaction rate ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ). The results were displayed in Table 1, the reaction rate  $k$  (RhB = 0.059518 and MB = 0.0498) of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites for RhB and MB was 3.64 and 4.22 times higher than that of pure TiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The obtained performance was top in the values of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-based photocatalysts, as shown in Table 2.

The stability of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was evaluated by recycling experiments. As shown in Fig. 6e, after five successive uses, there was only an insignificant degradation efficiency loss for both RhB and MB dyes. And the decreased efficiency can be partially attributed to the drip loss of the samples collection after each cycle. This indicated the good stability and reusability of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites.

To shed more light on the outstanding performance of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites, the photoluminescence (PL) and the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were carried out. Because the PL emission is caused by the recombination of free carriers, low PL emission intensity indicates a low recombination rate [47,51]. The PL spectra of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites are showed in Fig. 7a. Two emission peaks located at 417 and 437 nm are observed for both pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites. It was reported that the emission at 417 nm was attributed to the recombination of electron-hole pair at the band edge of TiO<sub>2</sub> [47], while the emission at 437 nm was related to the recombination at oxygen vacancies [51–53]. The intensities of both emission peaks of the h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites were lower than those of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> indicating that the incorporation of h-BN with TiO<sub>2</sub> suppressed the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes. The EIS was performed to observe the electron transfer kinetics at the interface (Fig. 7b). The fitted Nyquist plots using Z-view software are shown in Fig. 7b. The results accord with Randles equivalent circuit model (inset of Fig. 7b).  $R_s$  is the total resistance of the electrolyte solution,  $R_{ct}$  and CPE represent the charge transfer resistance across the interface and the capacitance of the space charge region, respectively [54,55]. Generally speaking, the smaller the radii of semicircle arc, the lower the electron-transfer resistance [54]. The arc radius of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub>

became shorter compared to bare TiO<sub>2</sub> and h-BN, which implied a decrease in the charge transfer resistance at the interface [28,53]. It suggested that h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited the fastest interfacial charge transfer. Meantime, this led to an inhibiting recombination of electrons and holes which was in accordance with the PL response spectrum.

The photocatalytic degradation process for MB and RhB by h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> was proposed, as shown in Fig. 8. The TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles are loaded on the h-BN sheet, the electronic transition of the nanocomposites by ultraviolet light produces the photoelectrons and holes. The degradation of dyes is caused by the produced photoelectrons and holes. The formula are shown as follows. During UV irradiation, the photocatalysts were activated to produce photo-generated electrons and holes when the absorbed UV light energy was higher than the energy of the “initial photocatalysts” (formula (2)). Due to the exfoliated h-BN nanosheets containing negative hydroxyls, the photo-generated holes can be easily attracted and reacted with hydroxyls to generate ·OH. Meanwhile, it inhibited the recombination of photo-generated electrons and holes. At the same time, the photo-generated holes can also react with hydroxyls in solution to generate ·OH (Formula (3)). The electrons can react with Ti<sup>4+</sup> and O<sub>2</sub> to produce O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> (Formula (4) and (5)). Dyes were effectively decomposed by ·OH and O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> (Formula (6)). In the process, the exfoliated h-BN nanosheets not only provided extra hydroxyls to generate ·OH, but also offered more electrons because once its own hydroxyls reacted with photo-generated holes, the extra photo-generated electrons were free. Finally, the oxidation capacity of the nanocomposites was improved, which resulted in an enhanced photocatalytic degradation of dyes. The processes are summarized as follows:



#### 4. Conclusion

In summary, the nanocomposites of h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> were prepared via a sol-gel method. TiO<sub>2</sub> served as active photocatalyst and the h-BN sheets played a role of ‘bed’ base. The two-dimensional h-BN sheets with high



specific surface area make TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles dispersed and loaded well on the h-BN sheets. Due to the B–O–Ti bond, the combination between TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and h-BN sheets was tight. The h-BN/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites exhibited excellent photocatalytic efficiency, the degradation efficiencies of RhB and MB reached 98% and 92%, respectively. Besides, the nanocomposite photocatalysts were quite stable and recoverable. The enhanced photocatalytic performance of the nanocomposites was reasonably attributed to the fact that the transfer rate of photogenerated electrons is accelerated and the recombination efficiency of photogenerated charges is decreased.

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### Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsusc.2018.09.137>.

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