Nanostructured hybrid materials based on reduced graphene oxide for solar energy conversion

Andreia Morais, Saulo do Amaral Carminati and Ana Flavia Nogueira^{*} Chemistry Institute, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), P. O. Box 6154, 13083-970, Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil

ABSTRACT

Research on carbon-based photocatalytic nanomaterials has been a field in continuous expansion in the last years. Graphene (or its derivatives) is currently one of the most studied materials due to its high surface area, photodegradation resistance, optical transparency and high charge mobility values. All of these excellent properties are highlighted for applications in various research areas. The incorporation of small amounts of reduced graphene oxide (RGO) sheets in semiconductors matrices is also a strategy widely used to improve the physicochemical properties, which cannot normally be achieved using conventional composites or pristine semiconductors. Most studies suggest that these two-dimensional (2D) materials can facilitate electron injection and assist the electron transport in semiconductors. In this context, this manuscript will present examples of graphene-based semiconductor nanocomposites obtained by our research group and their application in the photodegradation of methylene blue (MB), photocatalytic conversion of CO_2 to hydrocarbon fuels and photocatalytic water splitting reaction. Our results show the positive effect of coupling the RGO sheets with semiconductors for photocatalysis.

Keywords: reduced graphene oxide, nanocomposites, photocatalysis, CO₂ photoreduction, water splitting

1 INTRODUCTION

The nanomaterials, whose particle sizes are in the nanometer range $(1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m})$, have aroused great interest in the scientific community because of their unusual physicochemical properties influenced by the surface effect and quantum size effect. The use of these properties in technological applications forms the basis of the nanotechnology for making advanced materials. Fullerenes, carbon nanotubes and graphene sheets are some of the attractive options because these materials are constituted essentially by carbon, which is a versatile chemical element to form single, double and triple bonds with other atoms. This element is present in the nature in several allotropic forms and it is capable of forming various chemical compounds.^{1, 2} A brief review of the literature involving carbon-based nanomaterials shows a fast growth for applications in electronic, optoelectronic and photovoltaic devices. The proper combination of these materials also enables their application in photocatalytic systems for several reactions.^{1, 3-10}

Photocatalysts are widely used to remove organic pollutants or harmful compounds and to split water into oxygen (O_2) and hydrogen (H_2) gas.^{11, 12} Photocatalytic carbon dioxide (CO_2) reduction is also another strategy employed to transform harmful greenhouse gases (such as CO_2) into valuable solar fuels, such as methane (CH_4) and methanol (CH_3OH) .¹³ All these applications are based on the use of solar energy, which is a clean, cheap, safe and inexhaustible source. In general, photocatalysts play a major role in curbing serious environmental and pollution challenges. There are some requirements for a given material to act as a photocatalyst. These materials must present band edge potentials appropriate for redox reaction of the species of interest and suitable solar visible-light absorption capacity. Efficient charge separation and charge transport are desired to avoid the unwanted recombination processes. A good stability in aqueous environment, resistance to photocorrosion, non-toxicity, environmentally friendly and low cost are also important characteristics for the photocatalyst. However, each photocatalyst has its own limitations. Research strategies have been primarily focused on addressing these limitations and achieving better photocatalyst performance.

Research on carbon-based photocatalytic nanomaterials has been a field in continuous expansion in the recent years. Carbon materials, especially carbon nanotubes (CNTs), quantum dots, carbon fibers and activated carbon are frequently applied as supporting materials to anchor small semiconductor nanostructures.⁹ Another carbonaceous material that has been widely used for this application is graphene or its derivatives.

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Firstly, graphene is the name given to a flat monolayer of carbon atoms tightly packed into a two-dimensional (2D) honeycomb lattice.¹⁴ This material has attracted attention from the scientific community because of its high mobility values that can exceed 200 000 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ at low temperatures.¹⁵ Other more remarkable properties of graphene are large theoretical specific surface area (2630 m² g⁻¹)¹⁶, high Young's modulus (*ca.* 1.0 TPa)¹⁷, excellent thermal conductivity (*ca.* 5000 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹)¹⁸ and optical transparency (*ca.* 97.7%)¹⁹. All of these properties are highlighted for applications in field-effect transistors^{20, 21}, chemical and biological sensors²², energy storage²³, drug delivery²⁴, batteries²⁵, supercapacitors²⁶, transparent conductive films²⁷, light-emitting diodes²⁸, photovoltaic devices^{29,30}, photocatalysts^{11,13} and so on. It is also noteworthy that its hexagonal network forms a basic building block for other carbon allotropes, such as graphite, nanotubes and fullerenes. In fact, most of the electronic and structural properties of these allotropes can be derived from the basic properties of graphene.^{2, 14, 31}

Graphene oxide (GO), a graphene derivative, is an electrically insulating material and usually exhibits a rich assortment of oxygen-containing groups such as carboxylic, hydroxyl, carbonyl, and epoxide groups (Fig. 1(a)). The presence of these oxygen-containing groups on the surface of GO facilitates the preparation of graphene-based nanoarchitectures or nanocomposites in aqueous solutions. These functional groups are also excellent reactive sites for a variety of functionalization reactions or nucleation and growth of nanoparticles.^{32, 33} The electrical conductivity of GO can be increased by reduction and partial restoration of the sp² hybridized network. The resulting product, also known as reduced graphene oxide (RGO) have a wrinkled, soft and disordered morphology in the powder form, as shown in Fig. 1(b).³⁴ These wrinkles can cause deviation from the sp²/planar character expected for graphene monolayer. The presence of vacancies, heptagon and pentagon rings, edge effects and functional groups are also some of the factors that contribute to the formation of defects in the structure.^{35, 36} The RGO sheets have properties which are similar to graphene, although the reduction methods do not fully restore the ideal characteristics of graphene sheets.

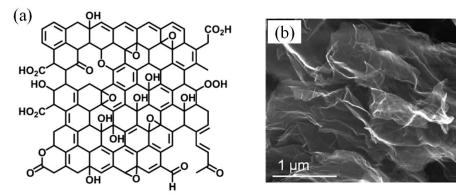


Figure 1. (a) Structural model of graphene oxide (GO) proposed by Lerf-Klinowski (Reprinted with permission from ref.³⁷. Copyright 2012, Royal Society of Chemistry. (b) Field emission scanning electron microscope (FEG-SEM) image of wrinkled graphene obtained from graphene oxide (GO) sheets (Reprinted with permission from ref.³⁴. Copyright 2012, American Institute of Physics).

A great number of semiconductor nanostructures have been combined with graphene (or its derivatives), which include oxides such as TiO_2^{38} , ZnO^{39} , α -Fe₂O₃⁴⁰, Fe₃O₄⁴¹, NiO⁴², SnO₂⁴³, Co₃O₄⁴⁴, Cu₂O⁴⁵, WO₃⁴⁶ and other semiconductors such as CdS⁴⁷, ZnS⁴⁸, CdSe⁴⁹, BiVO₄⁵⁰, MoS₂⁵¹ and g-C₃N₄⁵². Although the advantages of the incorporation of graphene-like sheets in semiconductor matrices for application in photocatalysis are well known, unfortunately, a detailed understanding of the role of these carbonaceous materials is still very controversial in the literature. Some studies have reported an improvement in the interaction between the graphene-based photocatalysts and the organic compounds. One of the first works, Zhang *et al.*⁵³ demonstrated that the increase of reduced graphene oxide (RGO) concentration in the TiO₂/RGO nanocomposites promotes an increase in the adsorption of methylene blue, due to favorable π - π interactions between the organic dye and the RGO sheets. It is noteworthy that the surface adsorption is a prerequisite for photocatalytic processes. Many reports also show that graphene (or its derivatives) is able to extend the light absorption range of semiconductors. In this case, the surface carbon doping effect could lead to a band-gap narrowing of the semiconductor because of the chemical bonding between semiconductor and graphene.^{54, 55} Other studies have demonstrated that graphene can act as a sensitizer in semiconductor oxide films.^{56, 57} Zhang *et al.*⁵⁶ were the first to propose a photocatalytic mechanism where the role of the RGO sheets in the ZnS-RGO nanocomposites acts as an organic dye-like macromolecular "photosensitizer" for ZnS. Most studies suggest that these carbon-based materials can facilitate electron injection and assist in electron transport.⁵⁸ Ng *et al.*⁵⁹ reported that the TiO₂(P25)-RGO

nanocomposite electrodes showed significant activity for photocatalytic decomposition of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid. According to the researchers, the RGO sheets can create a 2D conductive support path for charge transport and collection at the electrode surface. In summary, there is also a need for a more detailed investigation of the role of graphene (or its derivatives) sheets in the semiconductor matrices, and how this successful combination of materials has improved the photocatalytic performance of several oxides. In this context, we will present some graphene-based semiconductor nanocomposites obtained by our research group and their application in photocatalysis for photodegradation of methylene blue (MB), photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ to hydrocarbon fuels and photocatalytic water splitting reaction.

APPLICATION OF GRAPHENE-BASED SEMICONDUCTOR PHOTOCATALYSTS 2

2.1 Photodegradation of methylene blue (MB)

The environmental pollution is a consequence of the rapid development of modern industry, which threatens human health. Hence, the pollutant elimination has become one of the most important research fields.⁶⁰ The photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants into harmless end products has become a promising green route, based on the global energy crisis, sustainability and renewability of solar light.⁶¹ Among the many dyes used in the industries, the most common is the methylene blue (MB) because it is widely used from printing fabrics and its residues are difficult to treat by conventional methods due to its strong interaction with a large variety of substrates.⁶² MB is also employed as dye model to investigate the performance of new photocatalysts. Therefore, the degradation of this dye and all organic pollutants must be performed by the direct ultraviolet light or sunlight in the presence of a semiconductor (SC), acting as a catalyst of the process.⁶³

The mechanism follows the production of hydroxyl radicals, which are able to oxidize and mineralize almost any organic molecule, yielding CO₂, H₂O and inorganic ions (reactions shown below). The photocatalytic reaction is initiated by the generation of an electron and hole pair upon semiconductor photoirradiation, where electrons are ejected from the valence band of the semiconductor (Eq. 3). These electrons generate intermediate superoxide radicals (O₂•-) by reacting with chemisorbed oxygen on catalyst surface (Eq. 5), which along with H^+ , form hydroperoxyl radicals (•HO₂) (Eq. 6), subsequently producing H_2O_2 (Eq.7). The hydrodyl radicals are formed by the reaction with holes (h^+) with adsorbed water (OH₂) on the catalyst surface (Eqs. 4 and 8). The photodegradation of the MB into non-toxic organic compounds is performed by the reaction between the dye and the formed reactive radicals.⁶³

$$Dye^{+}hv \rightarrow Dye^{-}$$
(1)
$$Dye^{+}SC \rightarrow Dye^{+}SC (e_{CB})$$
(2)

$$SC + hv \rightarrow SC (e_{CB} + h_{VB}^{+})$$

$$H_2O \rightarrow H^+ + OH^-$$
(2)
(2)
(3)
(4)
(4)

(5)

$$e_{CB} + O_2 \rightarrow O_2^{-1}$$

$$O_2^{\bullet} + H_{a0}^{\dagger} \rightarrow HO_2^{\bullet}$$
(6)

$$\overset{\widetilde{H}O'_2}{HO'_2} + \overset{\widetilde{H}O'_2}{HO'_2} \leftrightarrow \overset{\widetilde{H}_2O_2}{H_2O_2} + O_2$$
 (7)

$$h_{vb}^{+} + OH^{-}_{aq} \rightarrow OH^{-}$$
 (8)

 $Dye'/Dye'' + (O_2', HO_2', H_2O_2, OH') \rightarrow products of photodegradation$ (9)

Titanium dioxide or titania (TiO₂) is well-known and the most investigated among the semiconductors for photocatalysis, due to its low cost and better chemical and optical stability.^{53, 64} With a bandgap of 3.2 eV, this semiconductor can only be excited by ultra-violet (UV) irradiation, corresponding just 4 % of the solar energy reaching the Earth.⁶⁵ Besides, TiO₂ exhibits high recombination rate of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs, which aroused the interest of many researchers to overcome such limitations, attempting to shift the light absorption towards visible light and to increase the lifetime of the photogenerated electrons and hole pairs.⁶²

Our group reported recently⁶² the synthesis and characterization of a nanocomposite composed based on titanium dioxide (TiO₂), cuprous oxide (Cu₂O) nanoparticles and reduced graphene oxide (RGO) sheets. The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (Fig. 2(a-b)) showed that the TiO₂ and Cu₂O nanoparticles are uniformly distributed across the surface of the RGO sheets. The photocatalytic activity of the TiO₂/Cu₂O/RGO nanocomposite, the precursors (TiO₂ and Cu₂O) and the intermediate nanocomposites (TiO₂/RGO and Cu₂O/RGO) were studied through the photodegradation of MB under solar radiation. The graph in Fig. 2(c) shows the relative variation in the absorbance of the MB solution over time under the influence of the synthesized photocatalysts under solar light illumination. In this work, a considerable increase in the photodegradation activity using the ternary

nanocomposite was obtained after 5 h (~ 95 % of MB degradation). Photoelectrochemical studies were also carried out and the results showed an enhancement in the anodic photocurrent values for the ternary nanocomposite, corroborating with the photocatalytic data. The positive effect of the RGO sheets is due to their ability to accept and transfer electrons from semiconductors. Coupling two semiconductors (TiO₂ and Cu₂O) with complementary absorption profiles and suitable energy levels was also decisive for the improvement of the photocatalytic and photoelectrochemical results with the use of the ternary nanocomposite.

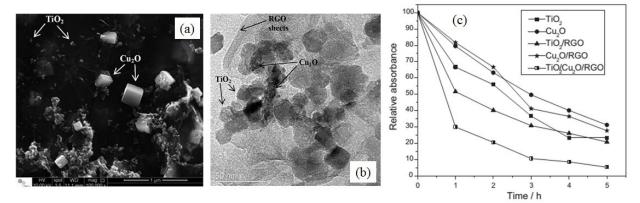


Figure 2. (a) SEM and (b) TEM images of the $TiO_2/Cu_2O/RGO$ nanocomposite. (c) Relative optical absorbance of the methylene blue solutions during the photodecomposition tests on TiO_2 , Cu_2O , TiO_2/RGO , Cu_2O/RGO and $TiO_2/Cu_2O/RGO$. Reprinted with permission from ref. ⁶². Copyright 2015, Elsevier.

Hematite (α -Fe₂O₃) is one of the most promising candidates for photocatalytic application, due to its narrow band gap of 2.0-2.2 eV, making it possible to absorb light up to 600 nm, which corresponds to almost 40 % of the solar spectrum. This semiconductor is stable in most aqueous solutions and is one of the cheapest semiconductor materials available.⁶³ Although, the hole diffusion length of hematite is much smaller (~ 4 nm) than the width of the space-charge layer, the incorporation of rGO in the hematite can overcome such limitations due to graphene's exceptional properties.⁶⁶

Pristine hematite nanoparticles and hematite/rGO nanocomposites with different amounts of rGO were used for photodegradation of MB. The composites were synthesized by hydrothermal method and the concentration of rGO in the composites was 4.5 and 7.0 wt %. The reactions were conducted in a solar simulator (AM1.5G conditions), in which aliquotes were collected to measure the absorption of MB over time. Fig 3(a-b) shows the FEG-SEM images of α -Fe₂O₃-rGO nanocomposites, showing the rGO nanosheets wrapping the α -Fe₂O₃ nanoparticles. The good interaction between them is necessary to allow the electron transport through the rGO sheets. The results showed a better performance by the nanocomposites, when compared with the pristine α -Fe₂O₃, reaching almost 70 % of photodegradation. We ascribe this performance due to the presence of rGO sheets that are able to collect and transport electrons across their 2D network towards the target site for dye degradation.

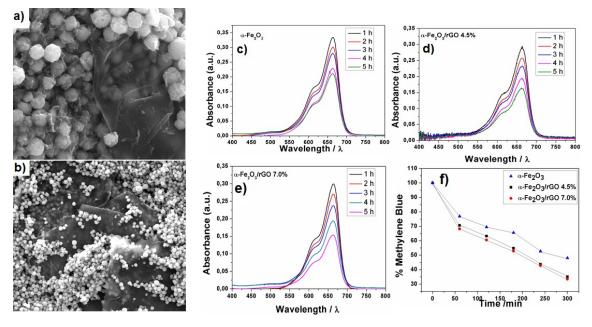


Figure 3. (a) (b) FEG-SEM images of α -Fe₂O₃/rGO nanocomposites. UV-Vis spectra of methylene blue after 5 hours of photodegradation by (c) pristine α -Fe₂O₃, (d) α -Fe₂O₃/rGO 4.5%, (e) α -Fe₂O₃/rGO 7.0% and (f) methylene blue concentration over time.

2.2 Photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ to hydrocarbon fuels

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is one of the main greenhouse gases, which contributes largely to the global climate change. The conversion of CO₂ into hydrocarbons appears to be a promising alternative to reduce emissions of this gas in the atmosphere. In 1979, Inoue *et al.*⁶⁷ reported for the first time the photoelectrocatalytic CO₂ reduction into organic compounds, such as formic acid (HCO₂H), formaldehyde (HCHO), methanol (CH₃OH) and methane (CH₄), using a variety of semiconductors powders suspended in CO₂-saturated water illuminated by a Xe lamp. Since then, many studies have been carried out using various types of semiconductors with different compositions and morphologies.⁶⁸ According to Inoue *et al.*⁶⁷, the conversion of CO₂ to methane involves a multistep reduction process given by:

$$\begin{array}{l} H_{2}O + 2h^{+} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}O_{2} + 2H^{+} & (10) \\ CO_{2} + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow HCOOH & (11) \\ HCOOH + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow HCHO + H_{2}O & (12) \\ HCHO + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH & (13) \\ CH_{3}OH + 2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow CH_{4} + H_{2}O & (14) \end{array}$$

where e^- and h^+ denote photogenerated electrons and holes, respectively. First, the presence of h^+ promotes water splitting, resulting in the formation of oxygen gas (O₂) and H⁺ ions. These H⁺ ions, when combined with CO₂ molecules and e⁻, promote the formation of organic molecules (hydrocarbons), which at the end of the process are converted to CH₄ by adding more H⁺ and e^{-.69}

TiO₂ is again the most studied semiconductor as a photocatalyst due to the properties already discussed previously. In this context, graphene-based TiO₂ photocatalysts have also been widely used in CO₂ photoreduction.^{70, 71} The photoactivity of this semiconductor is only observed when it is irradiated with ultraviolet light, which corresponds approximately to 5 % of incident solar energy. This drawback can be circumvented by doping TiO₂ with anions or cations^{29, 72}, by its sensitization with dyes⁷³ or by combining with another semiconductor with a narrow band gap that is able to absorb radiation within the visible range⁷⁴. Cadmium sulfite (CdS) has been widely used in conjunction with TiO₂ in photocatalytic systems due to its strong absorption in the visible region and because its conduction band relies above that of the TiO₂. The use of TiO₂/CdS composites provide optical and catalytic properties that differ from those of the individual constituent materials^{74, 75}.

The photogenerated electrons in the semiconductor (no potential application to the system) are conducted through the material by diffusion, usually among the nanoparticles. This electron diffusion is not efficient and leads to an increase of charge recombination processes, reducing the photocatalytic efficiency.⁷⁶ An interesting alternative to reduce this effect is the incorporation of carbon-based materials into semiconductor matrices.⁷⁷⁻⁸¹ Graphene and its derivatives have been often used in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction process.^{13, 82} The combination of TiO₂ nanoparticles and RGO sheets remains a good strategy to improve the photocatalytic performance of semiconductor oxides for several reactions. The electron-accepting ability presented by the RGO sheets can be used to enhance the electron transport properties of the TiO₂ films.^{59, 83} The metal nanoparticles (Au, Ag, Cu, Ni, Ti, Co, Rh, Ir, Pt and so on) commonly used as co-catalysts is also a strategy to improve the performance of carbonaceous materials. Platinum (Pt) is the most widely used metal as co-catalyst because of its stability, chemical inertness and high catalytic activity.⁸⁴

In this context, in 2015, our research group⁸⁵ reported the use of the quaternary TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt nanocomposite as a catalyst for the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to CH₄, using water and visible light as energy sources. Samples of TiO₂/CdS and rGO/Pt were prepared separately and then mixed to obtain TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt nanocomposite films. The synthesized materials were characterized through X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, UV-vis spectroscopy, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) images. The XRD data of the TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt sample indicated that anatase was the main crystalline phase in pristine TiO₂, likely due to the simultaneous synthesis of CdS in conjunction with TiO₂. The SEM image (Fig. 4(a)) showed that the TiO₂/CdS and Pt nanoparticles have a large dispersion over the entire rGO sheet. The mapping of the elements (EDS analysis) also confirmed the presence of all components distributed over the RGO sheets in an intimate contact, which is important for the success of the photocatalytic reaction (Fig. 4(b-g)).

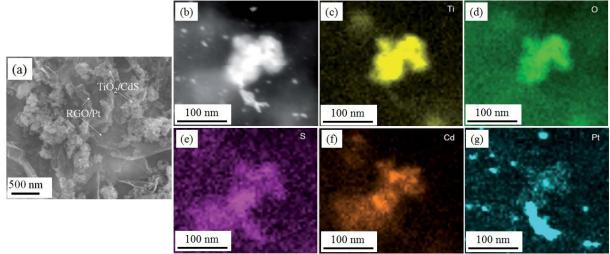


Figure 4. (a) SEM image of the $TiO_2/CdS/rGO/Pt$ quaternary nanocomposite. EDS analyses of $TiO_2/CdS/Pt$ nanoparticles on reduced graphene oxide (rGO): (b) high angle annular dark field (HHADF) image, (c) titanium map, (d) oxygen map, (e) sulfur map, (f) cadmium map and (g) platinum map. Reprinted with permission from ref.⁸⁵. Copyright 2015, Royal Society of Chemistry.

The photocatalytic activity of the materials was investigated for 5 h under AM 1.5 illumination. After this period, production 0.11 umol CH₄ produced of was at an average rate of 0.0867 μ mol h⁻¹, which is higher than the production of CH₄ measured from the TiO₂, TiO₂/CdS and the TiO₂/CdS/Pt control samples (Fig. 5(a)). This effect results from the beneficial synergy between all the four components in the photogeneration, charge separation and transport of the charge carriers. The enhanced electron transport in the TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt nanocomposite films was also evidenced in the photoelectrochemical measurements (Fig. 5(b)).⁸⁵

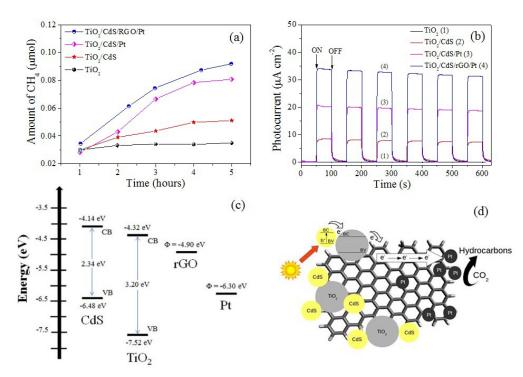


Figure 5. (a) Amount of methane produced by the photocatalysis reaction in the presence of water and carbon dioxide for the samples: TiO_2 , TiO_2/CdS , $TiO_2/CdS/Pt$ and $TiO_2/CdS/rGO/Pt$. Reaction parameters: 50 mg of photocatalyst, CO_2 pressure inside the reactor equal to 0.2 bar, 0.5 mL of water, and illumination (100 mW cm⁻²) for 5 h. (b) Time-dependent photocurrent density (chronoamperometry) at 0 V versus Ag/AgCl applied bias potential in an aqueous electrolyte containing 1 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₃ and using the TiO₂ (1), TiO₂/CdS (2), TiO₂/CdS/Pt (3) and TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt (4) films on an FTO substrate as the working electrode. (c) Energy level diagrams for TiO₂, CdS, rGO and Pt. (d) Schematic illustration of the photoinduced charge separation and transfer process in the nanocomposite. Reprinted with permission from ref. ⁸⁵. Copyright 2015, Royal Society of Chemistry.

The relative energetic positions of the conduction band (CB), valence band (VB) and work function (Φ) for TiO₂, CdS, rGO and Pt are shown in Fig. 5(c). A schematic illustration of the photoinduced charge separation and transfer process in the TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt quaternary nanocomposite is presented in Fig. 5(d). It is difficult to quantitatively evaluate the contribution of each component separately. When the TiO₂/CdS/rGO/Pt nanocomposite is exposed to visible light, excited electron–hole pairs are generated in both semiconductors. Due to the specific nature of the band alignment at the TiO₂/CdS interface, the photogenerated electrons are transferred to the CB of TiO₂, whereas the holes remain in the VB of CdS. We strongly believe that the electrons are transported more efficiently through the rGO sheets, decreasing the recombination between electrons in the CB of TiO₂ and holes in the VB of CdS. The rGO sheets are a well-known electron-accepting material with excellent conductivity properties as a result of its two-dimensional planar structure. In addition, the presence of Pt nanoparticles as co-catalyst also efficiently contributes to conduct electrons towards CO₂ molecules, thereby reducing them to CH₄. The combination of the potential advantages of each component resulted in an increase in light absorption, in a decrease in the charge recombination processes and it also facilitated the electron transfer across the heterojunction interfaces.

2.3 Photocatalytic water splitting

Since Fujishima and Honda⁸⁶ (1972) published the first report on photoelectrochemical splitting of water into hydrogen (H₂) and oxygen (O₂) over titanium dioxide (TiO₂) photoanodes, different types of semiconductors have been developed and evaluated as potential candidates for solar-driven hydrogen production.⁸⁷ The efficient conversion of solar energy to produce hydrogen via photoelectrochemical cells (PEC) to split water molecules has been regarded as a promising alternative for sustainable, future power generation. Iron oxide in the hematite phase (α -Fe₂O₃) has many

advantages to be used in a PEC as already mentioned early. As described in item 2.1, the incorporation of rGO in the hematite can overcome some inherent drawbacks, as small hole diffusion length in the α -Fe₂O₃.⁸⁸

We have recently reported⁸⁸ an effective method to prepare reduced graphene oxide (rGO)/Fe₂O₃ nanostructured photoanodes. Photoelectrochemical characterization towards water splitting reactions was conducted as shown in Fig. 6. First, graphene oxide (GO) is reduced into rGO using hydrazine, and then deposited over the nanostructured hematite photoanodes previously treated at 750 °C for 30 min. The pristine hematite photoanode and the hematite photoanode modified with reduced graphene oxide were called F1 and F1/rGO, respectively. Other two photoelectrodes with different hematite nanoparticles sizes were also tested (F2 and F3, with particles size of 450 nm and 640 nm, respectively). Using our strategy, the rGO incorporation results in a photocurrent density increase from 0.56 to 0.82 mA cm⁻² at 1.23 V_{RHE} for the F1/rGO photoanode that compromises hematite nanoparticles of ~200 nm. Our results indicate that the rGO incorporation on the hematite photoanodes shows a positive effect in the reduction of electron–hole recombination rate. This method was effective to enhance the efficiency of the water splitting process under sunlight illumination. The enhancement in photocurrent was attributed to the reduction of the electron–hole recombination process and an improved hole transfer to the electrolyte/electrode interface in the presence of rGO.

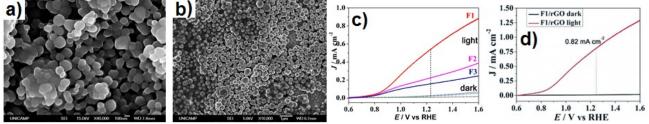


Figure 6. (a) Top-view SEM images of the pristine hematite photoanode film (F1) and (b) the modified film with reduced graphene oxide layers deposited by drop-casting on its surface (F1/rGO). Potential (V_{RHE}) vs. photocurrent density (mAcm⁻²) of (c) the pristine hematite photoanode and (d) F1 modified with reduced graphene oxide. Reprinted with permission from ref.⁸⁸. Copyright 2016, Wiley Online Library.

Although several reports in the literature have explored the benefits of RGO addition in titania films for photocatalysis and water splitting reactions, the role of RGO in the composite is always described as that of a material that is able to act as an electron acceptor and transport electrons more efficiently. However, in most of these reports, no clear evidence for this "role" is presented, and the main focus is deviated to the improved efficiency and not to the fundamental reasons. In a recent work, we employed several techniques to definitively present our understanding of the role of RGO in titania composite films.⁸⁹ Nanocrystalline TiO₂ and reduced graphene oxide (TiO₂/RGO) composite films were prepared by combining a sol-gel method with hydrothermal treatment, employing titanium isopropoxide (Ti($O^{i}Pr$)₄) and graphene oxide (GO) as starting materials. For the TiO₂/RGO composites, HRTEM image showed that the RGO sheets are completely covered and decorated with TiO₂ nanoparticle (Fig. 7(a)). This strong interaction between the RGO sheets and the TiO₂ nanoparticles is important to achieve a good electronic coupling between these two materials.

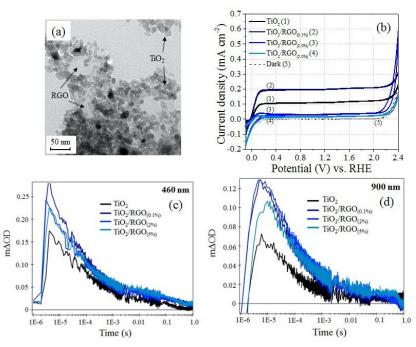


Figure 7. (a) HRTEM image of the TiO₂/RGO_(5%) nanocomposite. (b) Cyclic voltammograms obtained using the TiO₂, TiO₂/RGO_(0.1%), TiO₂/RGO_(2%) and TiO₂/RGO_(5%) films as photoanodes in 0.5 mol L⁻¹ H₂SO₄, in the dark and under illumination. Transient absorption spectra of (c) photoholes (460 nm) and (d) photoelectrons (900 nm) in the same films after Nd:YAG laser excitation, in the ultraviolet region (355 nm), in nitrogen atmosphere and in the absence of chemical scavengers. Reprinted with permission from ref. ⁸⁹. Copyright 2016, Royal Society of Chemistry.

The influence of the addition of different amounts of RGO to the TiO_2 matrix was investigated in the photoelectrochemical water splitting studies. The $TiO_2/RGO_{(0.1\%)}$ photoelectrodes showed the highest photocurrent density values (0.20 mA cm⁻² at 1.23 V_{RHE}) compared to other electrodes, with an increase of 78 % in relation to pristine TiO_2 film (0.11 mA cm⁻² at 1.23 V_{RHE}), as shown in Fig. 7(b). The sensitization effect of RGO in the titania film was not observed in our study. Moreover, the energy levels of both materials do not allow charge transfer from the RGO to the titania conduction band. However, the opposite can be accomplished. In this work, transient absorption spectroscopy (TAS) was also employed to correlate the excited state dynamics with the electrochemical reactions at the photoanode (Fig. 7(c-d)). In all the nanocomposite films containing RGO sheets, we observed an increase in the amplitude of the long lived 460 nm (photohole) and 900 nm (photoelectron) signals in comparison with the TiO₂ film.

According to Meng *et al.*⁹⁰, who also used TAS as an additional tool to understand the photocatalytic improvement of TiO_2/α -Fe₂O₃ composite for water oxidation, the mechanism is associated with mobile electrons, which are initially created in semiconductors and quickly transfer to the RGO sheet, wherein they diffuse into trap states in the RGO on a time scale of picoseconds. The optical density variation (Δ OD) observed is proportional to the number of charge carriers photogenerated and this is a strong indication of a decrease in the charge recombination.

We also observed a correlation between the TAS results and the photoelectrochemical studies.⁸⁹ The sample that gave rise to the best performance in the water oxidation process $(TiO_2/RGO_{(0.1\%)})$ also originated the highest yield for both charge carriers. However, at higher concentrations (0.5 to 5.0 wt%), the photocurrent density values sharply decrease, probably due to the darkening and the agglomerations of RGO sheets in these films, which deteriorated the electrical parameters. We propose that in films with lower concentrations (≤ 0.1 wt%), the positive effect of the RGO sheets is due to their ability to accept and transfer electrons from TiO₂. The immediate consequence is a decrease in charge recombination, observed by the increase in the photogeneration of holes and electrons in TAS decays and a significant improvement in the photocurrent density in photoelectrochemical water splitting.

3 SUMMARY AND PERSPECTIVES

The various areas of research based on the use of graphene (or its derivatives) have grown fast since the first work by Novoselov *et al.*⁹¹. The unique properties of these two-dimensional (2D) materials in combination with the extremely rich chemistry of the carbon element allow their applications in photocatalytic systems. In this manuscript, we highligted the graphene-based semiconductor nanocomposites obtained by our research group and their application in photocatalysis for photodegradation of MB, reduction of CO₂ and water splitting reaction. The strong interaction between the RGO sheets and the semiconductor nanoparticles proved to be very important to achieve a good electronic coupling between these two materials. However, due to their high complexity, the future works must first focus on developing simple and efficient preparation methods for these nanocomposites. The challenge is to develop new preparation methods in order to obtain high quality RGO sheets and with control over the number of layers. The development of new architectures (nanotubes, nanowires, nanofibers, nanobelts, nanosheets and nanorods) is also one of the alternatives to improve the performance of semiconductors by increasing the semiconductor surface area and/or electronic transport. The use of transient absorption techniques is also a powerful tool to clear understand the RGO behavior, especially about the dynamics of electrons and holes. On the other hand, the great number of applications and property-oriented possibilities suggests that future research and prospects for graphene-based semiconductors are likely to expand in any research field.

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