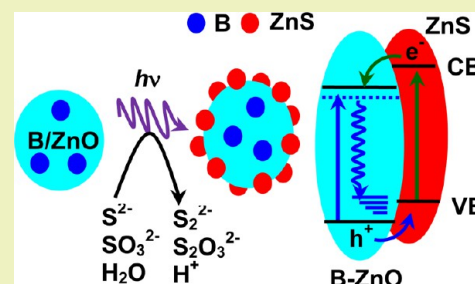


Photocatalytic Hydrogen Production from Aqueous $\text{Na}_2\text{S} + \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$ Solution with B-Doped ZnOParamasivan Gomathisankar,^{*,†} Katsumasa Hachisuka,[†] Hideyuki Katsumata,[†] Tohru Suzuki,[‡] Kunihiro Funasaka,[§] and Satoshi Kaneco^{*,†,‡}[†]Department of Chemistry for Materials, Graduate School of Engineering, and [‡]Environmental Preservation Center, Mie University, Tsu, Mie 514-8507, Japan[§]Department of Urban Environment, Osaka City Institute of Public Health and Environmental Sciences, Osaka 543-0026, Japan

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Nonmetal (N and B) doped ZnOs were developed for hydrogen production from aqueous sacrificial anion, $\text{S}^{2-}-\text{SO}_3^{2-}$, solution. In the present work, N- and B-doped ZnO nanomaterials were successfully prepared by a simple, effective, high yield, and low cost mechanochemical combustion technique, with addition of urea or boric acid to a zinc acetate and oxalic acid mixture. The prepared oxides were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), BET surface area analysis, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), scanning electron spectroscopy (SEM), UV–visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-DRS), and photoluminescence spectroscopy (PL). The photocatalytic hydrogen production was observed with $880 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ for undoped ZnO with $0.4 \text{ M Na}_2\text{S} + 0.4 \text{ M Na}_2\text{SO}_3$ solution, due to in-situ formation of a ZnS/ZnO heterojunction. The doped ZnO materials had better activity than undoped ZnO. The photocatalytic H_2 evolution with B-doped ZnO ($1730 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$) was larger compared with those obtained with N-doped ZnO. The photocatalytic H_2 productions with B-doped ZnO were affected by parameters such as calcination temperature, calcination time, and doping concentrations. The B-doped ZnO demonstrated higher activity due to small particles size, large surface area, and reduction of electron–hole recombination.

KEYWORDS: Photocatalytic hydrogen generation, ZnO, Boron, $\text{Na}_2\text{S} + \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$, Heterojunction



INTRODUCTION

Zinc oxide (ZnO) has been widely employed as a photocatalyst, UV light emitter, sensor, phosphor, and photovoltaic material, owing to its flexible preparation methods, high reactivity, low cost, and environmentally friendly features.^{1–3} Although the electron transfer in ZnO is larger than that of TiO_2 even though the band gap value for both is almost the same,³ there are only several reports concerning the photocatalytic H_2 production with ZnO, due to the drawback of its photocorrosion and dissolution. Therefore, the ZnO system needs suitable sacrificial agents in order to enhance the consumption of the photogenerated holes for minimizing the photocorrosion of ZnO and the electron hole pair recombination.

Since the extraction products, such as sulfides and sulfites of fossil energy resources now being produced in very large quantities, are the polluting byproducts in hydrogenation and flue-gas desulfurization processes at chemical plants, the photocatalytic reaction of hydrogen formation over sulfides from aqueous solution containing S^{2-} and SO_3^{2-} appears to become one of the powerful methods for the H_2 energy. Hence, because the decomposition of sulfide and sulfite ions consumes lower energy for splitting of water, it could be realized as a sacrificial agent in the photocatalytic H_2 production on semiconductors.^{4–6}

In recent years, nonmetals have been used in semiconductors to modify band gap position, facilitate charge rectification, and improve carrier separation for photocatalytic hydrogen generation.^{7–13} Recently, the photocatalytic H_2 evolution systems containing N- and C-doped ZnO have been reported.^{12,13} To the best of our knowledge, there are few reports on the photocatalytic H_2 production with B-doped ZnO. Herein, we reported the highly efficient B-doped ZnO photocatalyst for the hydrogen production from aqueous $\text{S}^{2-} + \text{SO}_3^{2-}$ solution. The experimental parameters, such as calcination temperature, calcination time, and doping concentrations, were optimized.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Chemicals and Materials. Zinc acetate dehydrate (99.9%), oxalic acid (98%), boric acid (99.5%), urea (99%), sodium sulfide nonahydrate (98%), and sodium sulfite (97%) were obtained from Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd. and were used as received without further purification. As the reference, commercial photocatalyst ZnO was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (BET specific surface area $15\text{--}25 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, mean particle size $50\text{--}70 \text{ nm}$). Laboratory pure water was obtained

Received: March 4, 2013

Revised: May 2, 2013

Published: May 21, 2013

from an ultrapure water system (Advantec MFS Inc., Tokyo, Japan) resulting in a resistivity $>18 \text{ M}\Omega \text{ cm}$.

Preparation of Photocatalyst. In a typical synthesis, 2.195 g of zinc acetate dihydrate and 1.512 g of oxalic acid were taken in agate mortar and the mixture was ground for 10 min in order to obtain a paste of zinc oxalate dihydrate and acetic acid. The existence of acetic acid was confirmed by its typical smell. The loss of acetic acid byproduct in the form of fumes became a driving force for the reaction. Urea was added to the above paste as a source of nitrogen, and the grinding process was continued for the next 10 min to obtain zinc oxalate–urea precursor. The same procedure was repeated with boric acid as a source of boron to obtain zinc oxalate–boric acid precursor. The N- and B-doped zinc oxide crystallites were obtained by calcination of precursor powders at the temperature of 300–900 °C under an air atmosphere. The undoped ZnO was also synthesized by calcination of a paste of zinc oxalate and acetic acid for the comparison.

Characterization of Photocatalyst. The powder X-ray diffractometer (XRD, RIGAKU Ultima IV, sample horizontal type) was used in order to record the diffraction patterns of photocatalysts employing Cu $K\alpha$ radiation of wavelength 0.15406 nm with tube current of 50 mA at 40 kV in 2θ angle range from 10° to 80° with a scan speed of 4°/min and a step size of 0.02°. The specific surface areas of catalysts were determined by the three points BET method with N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms (Quantachrome Instruments, Autosorb-1-C, chemisorption–physisorption analyzer, USA). A Hitachi S-4000 scanning electron microscope (SEM) was employed to observe the morphologies of oxides. The diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of photocatalysts were recorded over a range of 200–850 nm with a Shimadzu UV-2450 UV/vis system equipped with an integrating sphere diffuse reflectance accessory using the reference material BaSO_4 . Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of oxide powders were measured at room temperature using a Shimadzu RF-5300PC system equipped with solid sample holder.

Photocatalytic Hydrogen Production. The pyrex column vessel reactor (inner volume: 55.6 mL) was used for the photocatalytic production of hydrogen from aqueous Na_2S – Na_2SO_3 solution. The pyrex glass cuts off all wavelength below 300 nm. Typically, 20 mg of the photocatalysts were added to 30 mL of aqueous Na_2S – Na_2SO_3 solution in the photoreactor. A xenon lamp (500 W, UXL-500D-O) was applied as light source, which was positioned on the side of photoreactor. The light intensity was measured by a UV radio meter with a sensor of 320–410 nm wavelengths (UVR-400, Iuchi Co., Osaka, Japan), and the value was 1.0 mW/cm^2 . The photocatalysts were continuously dispersed in the aqueous Na_2S – Na_2SO_3 solution by a magnetic stirrer during the irradiation. The temperature of the suspension in the photoreactor was kept constant at 50 °C by the hot stirrer. The irradiation time was 3 h. The hydrogen product from the aqueous solution was analyzed by gas chromatography (GL Sciences, GC-3200) with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The stainless column (4 m long, 2.17 mm i.d.) packed with Molecular Sieve 5A was used for the separation. The carrier gas was high purity argon gas. The temperature conditions of GC were 50 °C for injection, column, and detector.

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

Crystal Structure. Figure 1 illustrates the X-ray diffraction patterns (XRDs) of Sigma-, undoped, and doped ZnO. The XRDs of the undoped and doped ZnO samples matched that of Sigma-ZnO, and their peaks were identical with those of primitive hexagonal crystal structure for zincite [JCPDS 79-0205]. It was found from the results that the doping of N or B could not modify the basic crystal structure of ZnO. When differently sized atoms are substituted in the ZnO lattice, some lattice defects and distortion of the crystal lattice seems to occur.^{14–17} The XRD result suggests that the incorporation of B atoms leads to a depression of the crystal growth along the c -axis. Therefore, the crystallinity of ZnO was highly deteriorated in the presence of boron doping. The XRD pattern of B/ZnO became broader and slightly shifted toward a high angle than those for N-

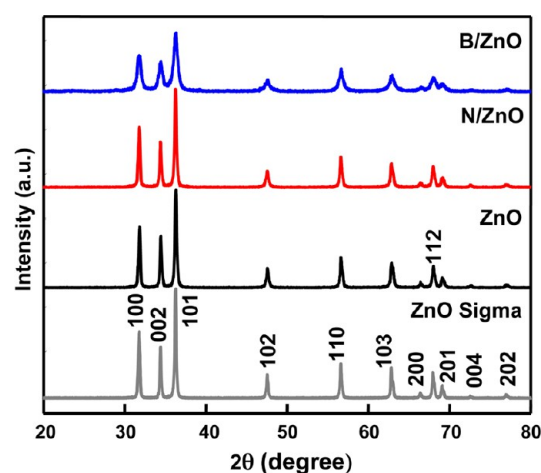


Figure 1. XRD patterns of Sigma-ZnO, undoped ZnO, 2 wt % N/ZnO, and 2 wt % B/ZnO.

doped and undoped ZnO. This was attributed to the fact that the partial replacement of O with B results in the shrinkage of some crystallite plane of ZnO structure which results into the disordering of their crystallites. On the other hand, due to the substitution of lower radii B^{3+} (27 pm) with higher radii Zn^{2+} (64 pm), the lattice parameters may be decreased.¹⁵ The deteriorated crystallinity for ZnO can be attributed to the formation of stresses by ion size difference between zinc and boron and the segregation of dopants in the grain boundaries.

The particle size of the oxides have been obtained from the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the most intense peaks of the respective crystals using the Scherrer equation, $D = 0.9\lambda/\beta \cos \theta$, where D is the average crystallite size, λ is the X-ray wavelength, θ is the Bragg diffraction angle, and β is the full width at half-maximum. The crystal size of B-doped ZnO was smaller compared with those of the undoped one (Table 1). The crystal strains of doped ZnO were obtained from the slope (η) of the Williamson–Hall plot of $\beta \cos \theta$ versus $4\sin \theta$, as shown in Supporting Information Figure S1. Positive slopes with 0.0005 and 0.0014 were observed for N- and B-doped ZnO, respectively, indicating the tensile strain for crystal ZnO. The physical parameters are shown in Table 1. Consequently, the B-doping influences showed the following characteristics: (i) broadening of XRD peaks, (ii) degradation in the crystallinity, (iii) reduction in crystallite size, (iv) smaller particle size, and (v) tensile strain.

The doping of boron could be confirmed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The XPS spectra of B-doped ZnO are illustrated in Figure S2 in the Supporting Information. The XPS peak observed at 1022.4 eV could be assigned to Zn $2p_{3/2}$ electrons. In the XPS of the O_{1s} region, the peaks at 530.9 eV were attributed to O^{2-} ion of ZnO and another at 532.2 eV is usually associated with the lower valent oxygen or adsorbed O_2 .^{18,19} Since the B_{1s} emission is very broad (FWHM approximately 1.31 eV), more than one form of boron had better be present. Inspection of the data exhibits the presence of high and low binding energy components. The high binding energy component (193.0 eV) can be attributable to B_2O_3 . The low binding energy component (192.3 eV) might be owing to boron actually incorporated within ZnO lattice.²⁰

Morphology. The morphologies of Sigma-, undoped, and doped ZnO were investigated by scanning electron spectroscopy (SEM), as shown in Figure 2. Sigma-ZnO gave the hexagonal rod shapes with the agglomeration of two or more particles. The

Table 1. Summary of Physical Parameters

| catalyst | 2θ for (101) | crystalline size, ^a nm | particle size, ^b nm | lattice parameters | | volume, Å ³ | BET surface area, m ² /g | band gap, eV |
|----------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| | | | | a , Å d_{hkl} 101 | c , Å d_{hkl} 002 | | | |
| ZnO (Sigma) | 36.28 | 21.6 | 75 | 3.233 | 5.280 | 47.80 | 15–25 | 3.25 |
| ZnO (prepared) | 36.22 | 17.5 | 70 | 3.238 | 5.288 | 48.03 | 2.7 | 3.23 |
| N/ZnO | 36.26 | 16.9 | 45 | 3.235 | 5.283 | 47.89 | 6.0 | 3.26 |
| B/ZnO | 36.32 | 12.1 | 25 | 3.230 | 5.275 | 47.66 | 21.8 | 3.25 |

^aEstimated from the Scherrer equation using the 101 peak. ^bObtained from the SEM image.

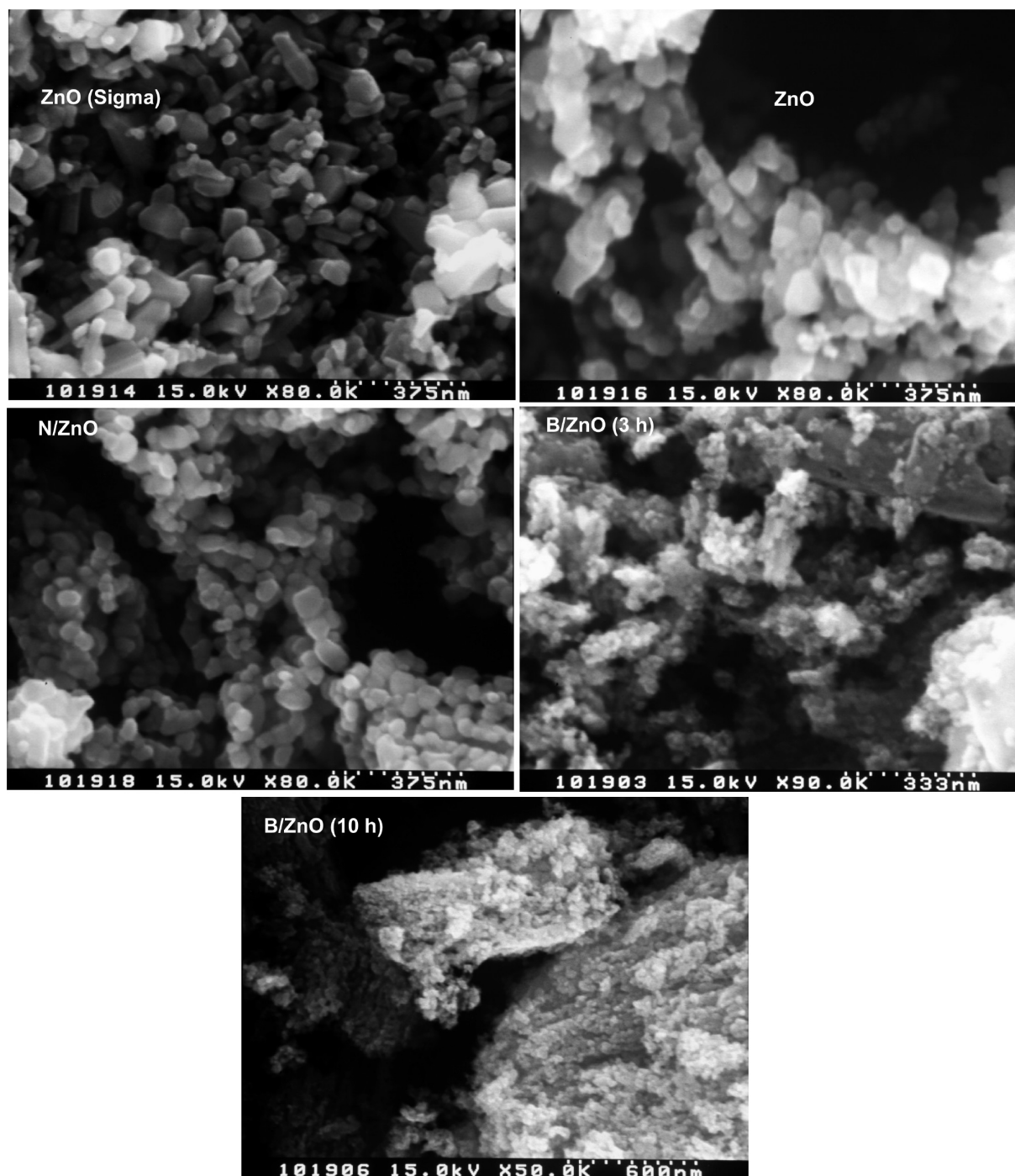


Figure 2. Morphological images of SEM for Sigma-ZnO, undoped ZnO, 2 wt % N/ZnO, and 2 wt % B/ZnO.

undoped and N-doped ZnO particles were agglomerated with primary particles having a few tens of nanometers. The SEM

images for B-doped ZnO showed very fine spherical particles. The particle size of B/ZnO prepared for the calcination time 10 h

seems to become slightly larger relative to those obtained for 3 h. As a consequence, it could be confirmed from the SEM analysis that the B-doped ZnO exhibited the photocatalytic aspect consisting of very small particles.

Optical Property. The diffuse reflectance spectra of the undoped and doped ZnO samples were investigated, as depicted in Figure 3. The commercial Sigma-ZnO was also recorded for

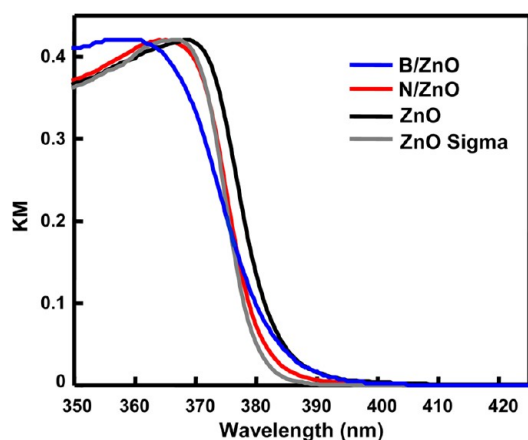


Figure 3. Diffuse reflectance spectra for Sigma-ZnO, undoped ZnO, 2 wt % N/ZnO, and 2 wt % B/ZnO.

the comparison. The reflectance data was converted to Kubelka–Munk equation which is expressed as $F(R) = (1 - R)^2/2R$. Synthesized oxides showed the similar light absorption in ultraviolet region as Sigma-ZnO. The band gap of the oxides were deduced from Tauc plot of $[F(R)h\nu]^2$ versus photon energy, and their values are presented in Table 1.

The room temperature photoluminescence (PL) spectra of Sigma-, undoped, and doped ZnO powder samples were recorded over the wavelength range 350–600 nm on the irradiation with xenon lamp excitation at different wavelengths. Figure 4 illustrates the PL spectra at excitation wavelengths of 335 and 350 nm, and the spectra observed at other excitation wavelengths are shown in Supporting Information Figure S3. In the PL spectra for ZnO, typically there are emission bands in the ultraviolet (UV) and visible (green, yellow, blue, and violet) regions.^{21–23} It is generally accepted that the near UV emission of ZnO is closely related to the exciton transition from the localized level below the conduction band to the valence band or

the exciton recombination. The emissions in the visible regions have been largely considered to be associated with the intrinsic or extrinsic defects in ZnO. The emission spectra of visible regions could depend on the excitation energy. All ZnO nanoparticles exhibit the usual band-edge emission with peak at 389 nm and the blue band emission with peak at 469 nm. It is estimated that the blue band emission is due to the recombination of electron in singly occupied oxygen vacancy with the photogenerated hole in the valence band. Recently, Zeng et al. have reported that the blue emissions are attributed to the transition from extended interstitial Zn states to the valence band.²¹ When the low excitation energy was used (325 nm), the usual band–edge emission could not be obtained in the case of prepared ZnO. The band–edge and blue band emissions could be observed for the use of high excitation energy (350 nm). It was found from the PL data that the boron doping was very effective for the suppression of electron/hole recombination.

Effect of Calcination Temperature on the Photocatalytic H₂ Evolution with ZnO. The photocatalytic H₂ production of the doped ZnO were evaluated using xenon lamp in the aqueous 0.4 M Na₂S + 0.4 M Na₂SO₃ solution. Figure 5 shows the effect of calcination temperature on the photo-

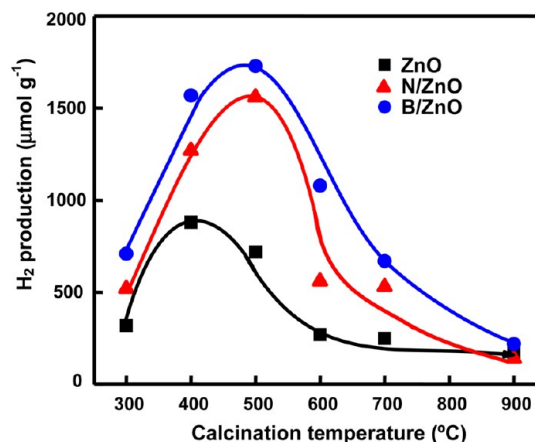


Figure 5. Effect of calcination temperature on the photocatalytic H₂ production from 0.4 M Na₂S + 0.4 M Na₂SO₃ solution. Calcination time 3 h, doping amount 2 wt %.

catalytic hydrogen production with undoped and doped ZnO materials. The oxides were sintered at different temperatures

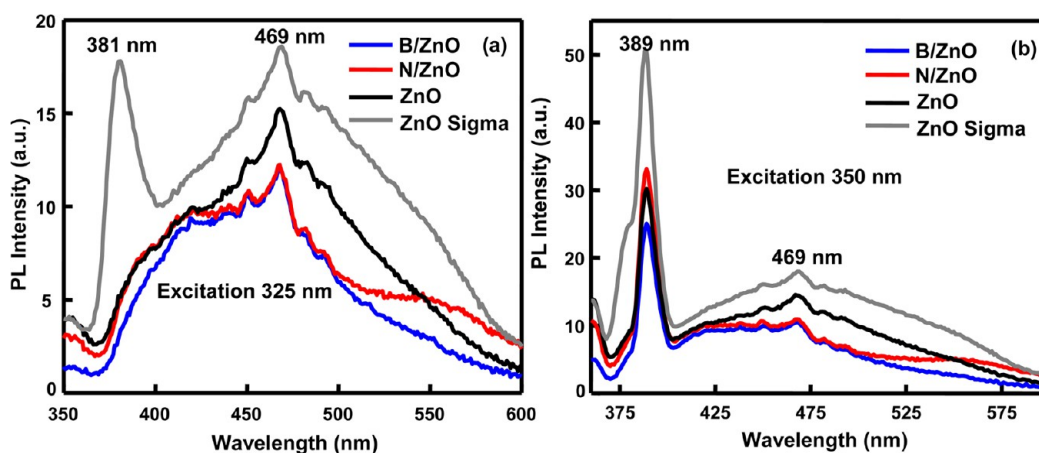


Figure 4. Photoluminescence spectra for Sigma-ZnO, undoped ZnO, 2 wt % N/ZnO, and 2 wt % B/ZnO. Excitation source: (a) 325, (b) 350 nm.

such as 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900 °C and were tested for their photocatalytic H₂ production in aqueous Na₂S + Na₂SO₃ solution. The optimum calcination temperatures for undoped ZnO and B- or N-doped ZnO were 400 and 500 °C, respectively. The B-doped ZnO presented higher activity relative to those obtained with N-doped one.

Above 400–500 °C, the photocatalytic hydrogen production decreased with the calcination temperatures. It was reported previously that the crystallite size of the oxides increased with increasing the calcination temperatures.^{16,17,24–26} Therefore, the reason for the decrease in the photocatalytic hydrogen production may be due to the larger particle size of ZnO. The best material for the photocatalytic H₂ production in aqueous Na₂S + Na₂SO₃ solution was the B-doped ZnO, which was sintered at 500 °C.

Effect of Calcination Time on the Photocatalytic H₂ Evolution with ZnO. The effect of calcination time on the photocatalytic hydrogen production using B-doped ZnO was investigated in the sacrificial S²⁻–SO₃²⁻ solution. The results are illustrated in Figure 6. As the calcination time increased up to 3 h,

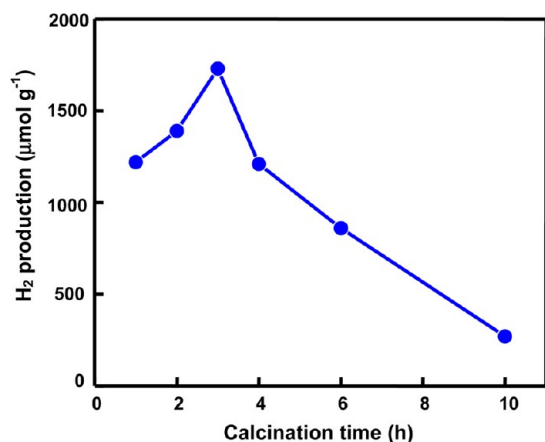


Figure 6. Effect of calcination time on the photocatalytic H₂ production from 0.4 M Na₂S + 0.4 M Na₂SO₃ solution. B doping 2 wt %, calcination temperature 500 °C.

the photocatalytic hydrogen production with B/ZnO increased gradually. After the calcination time of 3 h, the photocatalytic H₂ production turned from increase to decrease. The maximum hydrogen production was 1730 μmol g⁻¹, corresponded to the quantum efficiency 1.1%.

Effect of B-Doping Amount on the Photocatalytic H₂ Production. The influence of boron doping amounts on the photocatalytic hydrogen production was studied in the aqueous Na₂S–Na₂SO₃ solution. The results are depicted in Figure 7. The photocatalytic activity increased sharply with increasing the amount of boron doping into ZnO up to 2 wt %. Above the value, the photocatalytic hydrogen production almost became constant. The possible reason may be attributable to the trade-off between the decrease in particle size and the deterioration in crystallinity for ZnO.¹⁶

Reaction Mechanism. In order to better understand the photocatalytic process of hydrogen formation from an aqueous Na₂S–Na₂SO₃ solution, a possible mechanism based on the literature is shown in Figure 8.^{4–6,14} The formed electrons and holes participate in redox processes at the semiconductor/solution interface. In the photoirradiation process, light is bombarded on the surface of the ZnO, and holes and electrons

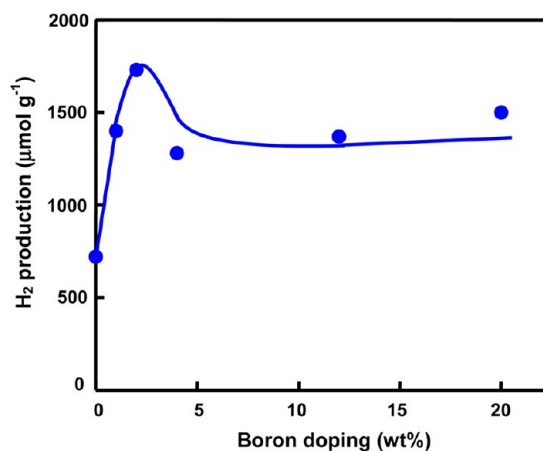


Figure 7. Effect of B-doping amount on the photocatalytic H₂ production from 0.4 M Na₂S + 0.4 M Na₂SO₃ solution. Calcination temperature 500 °C; calcination time 3 h.

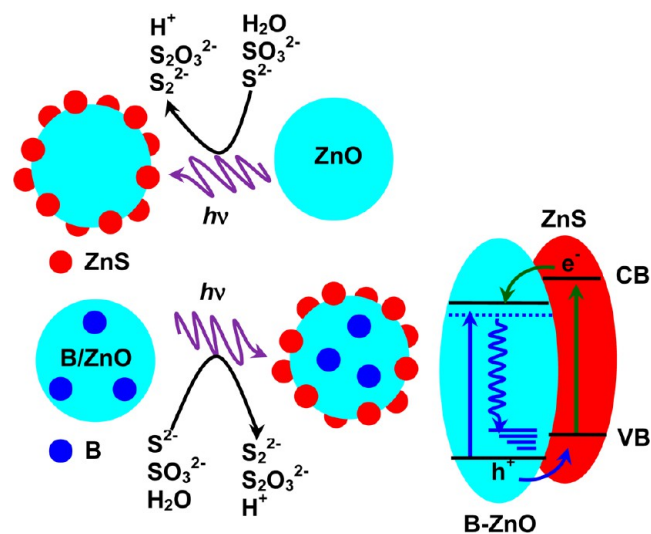
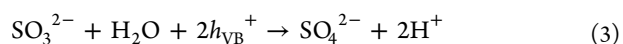
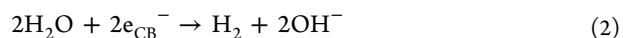
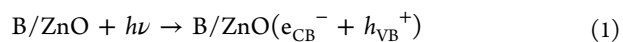
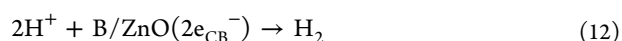
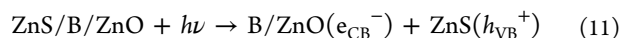
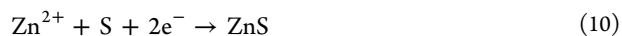
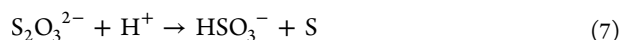
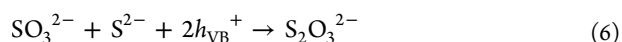
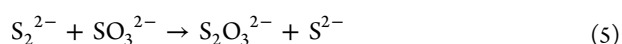


Figure 8. Graphical representation for the photocatalytic H₂ production.

are generated. At the same time, a hole reacts with water molecule to produce hydroxyl radical and H⁺ ions. Na₂S + Na₂SO₃ solution acts as the hole scavenger. The surface of ZnO undergoes dissolution in alkaline sulfide solution for the formation of ZnS on the surface of ZnO particles.²⁷ From the X-ray diffraction analysis, the peak pattern for ZnO drastically changed after 3 h photoirradiation in the aqueous Na₂S/Na₂SO₃ solution, and the peaks were in perfect agreement with ZnS crystal structure (although the data is not shown). Probably, three different routes for scavenging the hole are possible (eqs 3, 4, and 6). The production of S₂²⁻ ions, which act as an optical filter and compete with reduction of protons, is efficiently suppressed by mixing SO₃²⁻ ions. SO₃²⁻ ions yields mainly thiosulfate ions. Finally, the formation of ZnS on the surface of ZnO appears to occur in the aqueous S²⁻ + SO₃²⁻ solutions.^{13–15}





The p- and n-type combined semiconductor (ZnS/B/ZnO) is formed by the photodeposition of ZnS on the surface of ZnO in the Na₂S + Na₂SO₃ solution (Figure 8). The conduction band (CB) of ZnS lies on a more negative potential than that of ZnO, whereas the valence band (VB) of ZnO is more positive than that of ZnS. The photogenerated electrons from the conduction band of ZnS nanoparticles can transfer to that of the ZnO and holes on the valence band of ZnO can move to that of the ZnS. The combination of ZnS with ZnO will create p–n type heterojunction semiconductor.

The role of B in the enhancement of the photocatalytic hydrogen production with ZnO in the sacrificial S²⁻–SO₃²⁻ anions is still under debate. A possible explanation is related to the replacement/substitution of B and their beneficial effect in reducing the recombination of photoexcited electrons and holes. At the same time, also the formation of small amounts of new B₂O₃, which could be confirmed by the XPS analysis, may be invoked to account for the relative high photoactivity of B-doped materials. Therefore, we prepared B-modified Sigma-ZnO in order to check the effect of the B₂O₃ formation. The B/Sigma-ZnO material was prepared by the deposition of B₂O₃ on the surface of ZnO. The photocatalytic H₂ production with B/Sigma-ZnO (370 μmol g⁻¹) was approximately one-fifth as small as those obtained with B-doped ZnO. Hence, the predominant influences of boron-doping seem to be smaller particle size and the lattice defect by replacement/substitution of B into ZnO.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the B-doped ZnO was applied into the photocatalytic H₂ evolution system containing the S²⁻ + SO₃²⁻ solution. The optimum calcination temperature and time were 500 °C and 3 h, respectively. The best B-doping amount was 2 wt %. The maximum photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution on B/ZnO (1730 μmol g⁻¹ for 3 h) was about two times better compared with those obtained with undoped ZnO. The developed system may provide a strategy for the design of stable and inexpensive technologies for highly efficient H₂ production.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Williamson–Hall plot, XPS, and PL. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The present research was partly supported by Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) 24510096 from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan. Support was provided to P.G. as a Post Doctoral Research Fellow of The Public Foundation of Chubu Science and Technology Center. All experiments were conducted at Mie University. Any opinions, findings, conclusions, or recommendations expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the view of the supporting organizations.

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