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Photocatalytic hydrogen production by ternary heterojunction composites of silver nanoparticles doped FCNT-TiO₂

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ABSTRACT

Silver nanoparticles doped with FCNT-TiO₂ heterogeneous catalyst was prepared via one-step chemical reduction process and their efficacy was tested for hydrogen production under solar simulator. Crystallinity, purity, optical properties, and morphologies of the catalysts were examined by X-Ray diffraction, Raman spectroscopy, UV–Visible diffuse reflectance spectra, and Transmission Electron Microscopy. The chemical states and interface interactions were studied by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy. The optimized catalyst showed 19.2 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ of hydrogen production, which is 28.5 and 7 times higher than the pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles and FCNT-TiO₂ nanocomposite, respectively. The optimized catalyst showed stability up to 50 h under the solar simulator irradiation. The natural solar light irradiated catalyst showed ~2.2 times higher hydrogen production rate than the solar simulator irradiation. A plausible reaction mechanism of Ag NPs/FCNT-TiO₂ photocatalyst was elucidated by investigating the beneficial co-catalytic role of Ag NPs and FCNTs for enhanced hydrogen production.

1. Introduction

In efforts to protect the environment from the adverse impacts of fossil fuels, researchers have been developing new energy sources, such as supercapacitors, batteries, and hydrogen (H₂) fuel (Rudzinski and Aminabhavi, 2000). In these efforts, H₂ fuel is one of exciting energy source because of its cost-effectiveness, eco-friendly nature, and stress-free production (Mehta et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2020). Moreover, H₂ contributes to the creation of benign environment due to its zero-emission, and also reduces the dependence on non-renewable resources. In recent years, photocatalysis has been widely studied for H₂ production due to its environmental friendly process and simplistic approach Bellamkonda et al. (2019); Mishra et al. (2019); Rao et al.

(2019), (Cavalcanti et al., 2019).

TiO₂ semiconductor has all the required properties for photocatalysis due to its versatile thermal, physical, and chemical properties in addition to being inexpensive, eco-friendly, abundantly available and longterm stability (Lakshmana Reddy et al., 2016; Mandari et al., 2018). There is thus an urgent need to improve H₂ production via photocatalysis because the adverse effects of photocatalysts, such as large energy band gaps, fast charge carrier recombination, and narrow light absorption, are limiting factors for achieving scalable H₂ production. The tuning of TiO₂ by the addition of suitable metals, non-metals, noble metals, and other semiconductor materials has been widely explored for its potential applications (Naldoni et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014).

The coupling of carbon nanotubes (CNTs) with TiO2 as a

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heterojunction is one of the highly efficient and ongoing strategies for the production of H₂ (Mamathakumari et al., 2015; Ramesh Reddy et al., 2018) because CNTs have unique chemical, thermal, electrical, and optical properties along with high surface area (Liu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013). CNTs reduce the rate of electron-hole recombination by acting as electron sinks. Furthermore, CNTs act as co-catalyst as well as electron transport channels in the photocatalyst (Leary and Westwood, 2011). Zhao et al. reported remarkable H₂ production using Pt-carbon/TiO₂ nanotube/carbon nanotubes photocatalyst (Zhao et al., 2014), wherein CNTs and Pt acted as co-catalysts and electron sinks, thereby improving the H₂ production efficiency.

From literature, it is evident that preparation of ternary nanocomposites represents a powerful strategy to enhance H_2 production efficiency (Mokhtar Mohamed et al., 2015; Sangari et al., 2015). Noble metal Pt is a very effective co-catalyst that was used to enhance H_2 production, but Pt is highly expensive and is not abundantly available. However, for large-scale applications, it is necessary to replace Pt with the low-cost and highly available materials. Hence, silver (Ag), which also belongs to the noble metal family, being less expensive and abundant material than Pt, Ag could be used to replace Pt as co-catalyst. However, nanostructures of Ag have attracted enormous attention in health care, energy, robotic and environmental areas (Augustine and Hasan, 2020; Marimuthu et al., 2020; Suh et al., 2019).

Surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect is advantageous to enhance the H₂ production efficiency. The plasmonic photocatalysts have the heterogeneous/Schottky junction as well as localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) (Hao et al., 2018), and the resulting junctions can effectively reduce the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers by producing an internal electric field. Further, LSPR junction extend the TiO₂ absorption region towards the visible region (Kumar et al., 2016a; Sreekanth et al., 2016). Chaudhary et al., reported Ag/CNT-TiO₂ ternary nanocomposites for methylene blue dye degradation under UV and visible light irradiation (Chaudhary et al., 2016a). Abdulrajak et al., reported the Pt-CNT/TiO₂ photocatalyst for H₂ production, which was prepared by sonochemical/hydration-dehydration process (Abdulrazzak et al., 2016).

In this research, visible active and highly stable Ag nanoparticles (AgNPs) doped FCNT-TiO₂ ternary photocatalyst were prepared via onepot chemical reduction method. Earlier, such ternary nanocomposites were synthesized by either two or three-step chemical methods (Ishaq et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2014), which required longer time and had different chemical reaction pathways, thereby realizing that ternary photocatalyst synthesis is an attractive strategy through one-pot synthesis. In view of these considerations, a one-pot chemical reduction method calcined under open air and inert atmosphere was used here for the preparation of AgNPs/FCNT-TiO₂ ternary photocatalyst for photocatalytic H₂ production.

2. Experimental procedure

2.1. Materials and reagents

Analytical grade chemicals were utilized without any further purification for the catalyst synthesis, while functionalized Multiwalled Carbon nanotubes (FCNTs) were purchased from Global Nanotech. Titanium butoxide (TBOT) was used as titanium source, purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Silver nitrate (AgNO₃) was used as a silver precursor and was purchased from Merck India. Ethanol and sodium borohydride (NaBH₄) were purchased from Merck, India. Distilled water (DW) and battery water (LIMARA Kadapa, India) were utilized for all the materials synthesis as well as hydrogen generation experiments. The hole scavenger glycerol was purchased from Merck, India.

2.2. Synthesis of AgNPs doped FCNT-TiO₂ heterojunction composite

The Ag-doped FCNT-TiO₂ photocatalysts were synthesized by a one-

step chemical reduction method in which FCNTs and TBOT were dispersed in DW and ethanol, individually by sonication and stirring. After thorough dispersion TBOT was then added dropwise to the dispersed FCNTs solution. Next, freshly prepared 0.5 M of NaBH₄ solution was added dropwise to the above mixture. Then, 1 mL AgNO3 solution taken out from 200 mM AgNO3 aqueous solution and was added dropwise to the above mixture under stirring, which was continued for further 2 h. The total solution was transferred into an RB flask, which was kept in the oil bath and the total solution was heated at 60 $^\circ C$ (\pm 4 °C) for 5 h on a hot plate magnetic stirrer. After completing the reaction, the resultant mixture was washed with HCl, DW, and ethanol. Obtained final product was dried at 80 °C for 10 h. The dried product was calcined at 450 °C for 2 h under N2 and open-air atmospheres. By varying the concentration of silver, Ag/FCNT-TiO2 composite catalysts were prepared and synthesis schematic is shown in Fig. 1. The compositions and abbreviations of all the synthesized catalysts are given in Table 1.

2.3. Characterization

The supplementary information provides a detailed description of the characterization techniques used.

2.4. Photocatalytic hydrogen experiments

All the photocatalytic H₂ production experiments were carried out in a 185 ml quartz reactor under Solar simulator and natural sunlight irradiation (Praveen Kumar et al., 2015; Rao et al., 2018). 5 mg of the catalyst was dispersed in 5 vol% glycerol aqueous solution by stirring and then the quartz reactor was latched with a gas-tight rubber septum. The reactor was outgassed with a vacuum pump and purged with high purity N₂ gas. The quartz reactor was kept in a solar simulator (300 W Xenon lamp) for upto 4 h. The resultant H₂ gas in the reactor was collected at 1h time interval with a 250-µl syringe and then analyzed with the offline gas chromatography (Shimadzu GC-2014), equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a molecular sieve/5Å column, at 70 °C and using N₂ carrier gas.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Crystallinity analysis

The crystallinity of the catalysts was evaluated by XRD, The XRD patterns for AT, FT, AFT-N₂, and AFT-OA catalysts are shown in Fig. 2a. The 2 θ values of TiO₂ appear at 25.3, 37.8, 48.1, 54.9, 62.9, 67.4, and 75.1°, which are assigned to A(101), A(004), A(200), A(211), A(204), A (116), and A(251) planes respectively. The 2 θ values and the related XRD planes correspond to the standard anatase JCPDS card No. 21–1272 and reported in the literature (Aphairaj et al., 2011; Bi and Liu, 2019). The TiO₂ anatase planes also appear in AT, AFT-OA, and AFT-N₂ catalysts along with the new peaks at 27.7, 32.1, 45.8, and 56.9°, which are ascribed to Ag(210), Ag(113), Ag(124), and Ag(240) planes, respectively (Karthik et al., 2014), suggesting the successful inclusion of Ag NPs in FCNT-TiO₂ nanocomposite. The absence of carbon peak in XRD may be due to its low concentration in the composition and/or lower XRD intensity compared to TiO₂ and Ag NPs. The carbon presence in the catalyst was further confirmed by TEM and XPS results.

Fig. 2b represents Raman spectra of TiO₂, AT, AFT-N₂, and AFT-OA catalysts. Raman peaks of TiO₂ showing at ~138, 196, 386, 506, and 629 cm⁻¹ are associated with TiO₂ anatase modes of $E_{g(1)}$, $E_{g(2)}$, $B_{1g(1)}$, $A_{1g} + B_{1g(2)}$, and $E_{g(3)}$, respectively. The obtained anatase modes are well-matched with the XRD data and also with the previous reports reported elsewhere (Lubas et al., 2014; Tuschel, 2019). In case of AT, AFT-N₂, and AFT-OA composites, the Raman intensity was reduced compared to TiO₂. The reduced Raman intensities are due to the halting of lattice periodicity and translational crystal symmetry that has



Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the synthesis procedure for Ag/FCNT-TiO₂ heterogeneous photocatalyst.

Table 1

Nominal compositions and abbreviations for the photocatalyst tested in the present study.

Photocatalyst	Nomenclature
Synthesized TiO ₂ nanoparticles	TiO ₂
FCNT-TiO ₂	FT
Silver (Ag)– TiO ₂	AT
1 ml silver added FCNT-TiO ₂ -Dried	AFT-D
1 ml silver added FCNT-TiO ₂ calcined under muffle furnace (open- air)	AFT-OA
1 ml silver added FCNT-TiO ₂ calcined under N ₂ atmosphere	AFT-N ₂ /AFT-
	3
0.5 ml Silver added FCNT-TiO ₂	AFT-1
0.75 ml Silver added FCNT-TiO ₂	AFT-2
1 ml Silver added FCNT-TiO ₂	AFT- 3
1.25 ml Silver added FCNT-TiO ₂	AFT- 4
1.5 ml Silver added FCNT-Ti O_2	AFT-5

produced defects in the crystal lattice due to the addition of FCNTs and AgNPs (Chaudhary et al., 2016a). Su et al., also reported the Raman spectra with lower intensity for Ag/TiO₂, compared to that of pristine

 $\rm TiO_2$ due to the addition of Ag to the crystal lattice. (Su et al., 2012). Moreover, the inset of Fig. 2b presents the Raman spectra of AFT-OA and AFT-N_2 . These results confirm the presence of TiO_2 anatase peaks 196, 386, 506 and 629 cm^{-1} in AFT-OA and AFT-N_2 catalysts (Fig. 2b). Moreover, AFT-N_2 showed lower intensity than AFT-OA, indicating strong interaction of FCNTs with TiO_2 than in AFT-OA catalyst (Chaudhary et al., 2016b; Liu et al., 2016). This is because under N_2 atmosphere, carbon may not decompose and produce a strong interface with AgNPs and TiO_2.

3.2. Morphology analysis

In order to investigate the morphological properties as well as the distribution of Ag and TiO_2 nanoparticles on FCNT in AFT-N₂ catalyst, TEM characterization was performed (Fig. 3) TEM images revealed the deposition of Ag and TiO_2 nanoparticles onto the surface of FCNTs (see Fig. 3a, b and c). The spotted lines (A1, A2, A3, and A4) from the high-resolution spectra (Fig. 3d) and d-spacing values were calculated from the inverse fast fourier transformation (IFFT) using the digital micrograph software. The IFFT images of A1, A2, A3, and A4 spotted lines and



Fig. 2. (a) XRD pattern of FT, AT, AFT-N2, and AFT-OA catalysts and (b) Raman spectra of TiO2, AT, AFT-N2, and AFT-OA catalysts (inset is AFT-N2 and AFT-OA).



Fig. 3. TEM images of AFT-N₂ (a–d) at different magnifications, (e–h) selected areas IFFT, respective d-spacing values, and elemental mapping of (i) C, (j) Ti, (k) Ag, and (l) O elements.

those corresponding d-spacing values are shown in Fig. 3e, f, 3g, and 3h, respectively. From these, the resultant d-spacing values were 0.352, 0.34, and 0.23 nm corresponding to A(101), C(001), and Ag(111) planes, respectively. Interestingly, the mixed crystalline planes were observed from Fig. 3e and h, indicating strong interface interaction between AgNPs, TiO_2 , and CNT. Further, elemental distribution in the catalysts was examined by elemental mapping analysis and correspondingimages were shown in Fig. 3i-l which revealed the equal distribution of the elements in the composite, thus confirming the presence of Ag, Ti, O and carbon in AFT.

3.3. Optical properties

Optical properties such as absorption region and band gaps were

analyzed for TiO₂, FT, AT, AFT-OA, and AFT-N₂ by UV–visible Diffuse Reflectance Spectroscopy (DRS). As can be seen in Fig. 4a, TiO₂ absorption wavelength augmentation was observed after the addition of both FCNT and Ag nanoparticles. AFT-N₂ catalysts showed extended absorption range compared to other photocatalysts, and this might be due to the calcination of the composite under inert atmospheric conditions, thus making a strong interface interaction of FCNTs with the nanoparticles of Ag and TiO₂. The open-air calcined AFT-OA ternary catalyst showed slightly lower absorbance than the AFT-N₂, due to the decomposition of FCNTs in open-air atmospheric conditions, which agreed well with the literature findings (Li et al., 2014; Tranchard et al., 2017) as well as the XPS results (based on the resultant carbon atomic weight % in the catalyst).

The energy band gaps were calculated for the synthesized catalysts



Fig. 4. UV-Visible DRS (a) absorption spectra of TiO₂, FT, AT, AFT-OA, and AFT-N₂ catalysts, (b) calculated energy band gap values of TiO₂, FT, AT, AFT-OA, and AFT-N₂ catalyst through kubelka munk relation, reflectance spectra of TiO₂, FT, AT, AFT-OA and AFT-N₂ catalysts in the inset.

using the resultant plots of Kubelka-Munk function derived from UV–visible DRS as shown in Fig. 4b. The band gap values of the composite was reduced compared to pristine TiO₂. The reduced bandgap value of the optimized catalyst is 2.9 eV (AFT-N₂). However, the FT catalyst showed a slightly higher energy bandgap than the pristine TiO₂ due to the screeing effect of the other nanoparticles limiting the effective absorbance of light and poor interaction of FCNTs with TiO₂. On the other hand, due to the surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect of AgNPs, the AT catalyst also showed lower band gap than TiO₂. The resultant reduced bandgap photocatalysts have increased light absorption edge, thereby improving the H₂ production efficiency.

3.4. Composition analysis

The surface chemical composition, electronic states, and oxidation states of AFT-OA and AFT-N2 photocatalysts were examined by XPS, in which the presence of photocatalysts (Fig. 5a), silver (Ag), titanium (Ti), carbon (C), and oxygen (O) elements were confirmed for both the catalysts. The resultant atomic weight percentages of AFT-OA and AFT-N2 are, respectively given in the supplementary information (Table S1 and S2). From this data, AFT-OA showed lower carbon atomic weight % than AFT-N2 catalyst due to the decomposition of FCNTs in the composite, which was subjected to calcination under the open-air conditions. The Ti $2p_{3/2}$ and Ti $2p_{1/2}$ of pristine TiO₂ binding energies are located at 458.0 eV and 463.7 eV (given in Supplementary as Fig. S1) and these peaks are ascribed to Ti⁴⁺ state in the TiO₂ lattice (Bharti et al., 2016). From Fig. 5b, the original binding energy values of TiO₂ were slightly shifted after the inclusion of AgNPs and carbon into TiO₂, while the new peaks are located at 458.2 and 464.1 eV. Interestingly, the peaks for AFT-N₂ catalyst also shifted compared to AFT-OA. For more detailed investigation high-resolution XPS was performed and shown in Fig. 5c. The C1s XPS analysis of AFT-OA and AFT-N2 catalysts coordinately showed three

peaks centered at 284.3, 287.8, and 288.2 eV, assigned to C=C, C-COOH, and C-O, respectively (Akhavan et al., 2011; Luo et al., 2012). However, the presence of carboxyl group indicate the formation of Ti–O–C in the composite (Sarkar and Basak, 2013). The Ag 3d_{5/2} and Ag 3d_{3/2} characteristic binding energy peaks for AFT-OA are shown at 367.5 and 373.5 eV while for AFT-N2 at 366.6 and 372.5 eV, respectively (Fig. 5d) (Kumar et al., 2016b). These resultant binding energy peaks are slightly shifted in both the catalysts compared to the standard Ag $3d_{5/2}$ and Ag $3d_{3/2}$ peaks viz., 368.2 and 374.2 eV. This could be due to the fact that Ag exerted a strong interface interaction with FCNTs and TiO₂ (Akhavan, 2009; Zheng et al., 2007). The binding energy difference between Ag $3d_{5/2}$ and Ag $3d_{3/2}$ is ~6.0 eV, which is referred to as 3d doublet splitting energy and further represents the Ag in metallic form (Sarkar and Basak, 2013). In the case of high-resolution spectra of O1s (Fig. 5e), the peak located at 529.5 eV may be attributed to oxygen ions in the Ti lattice (Ti–O–Ti), while for AFT-N₂, the O1s peaks were slightly shifted due to lesser oxidized species formed under the N₂ atmospheric calcination (Rojas et al., 2015).

3.5. FTIR analysis

FTIR spectra of TiO₂, AT, AFT-N₂, and AFT-OA catalysts illustrated in Fig. 6 show intra-atomic vibrations effects for metal oxides such as TiO₂ are located at below 1000 cm⁻¹. However, the strong absorption peak of TiO₂ located at 730 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to Ti–O and O–Ti–O vibrations of TiO₂ (Isari et al., 2020). The pristine TiO₂ and AFT-OA catalysts showed almost similar FTIR peaks, suggesting the decomposition of carbon under OA calcination. In the AT catalyst, the peaks have significantly broadened compared to TiO₂, which can be ascribed to successful incorporation of AgNPs into TiO₂ (Alsharaeh et al., 2017). A sharp peak at 1625 cm⁻¹ represents H–O–H bonds vibration (Li et al., 2005; Qian et al., 2005). The limited oxygen bonds and/or oxygen



Fig. 5. XPS spectra of AFT-OA and AFT-N2 catalysts, (a) XPS survey spectrum, the high-resolution spectrum of (b) Ti2p, (c) C1s, (d) Ag3d, and (e) O1s spectrum.



Fig. 6. FTIR spectra of TiO₂, AFT-N₂, AFT-OA, and AT catalysts.

deficiency of AFT-N₂ catalysts, resulted in the shift of FTIR peaks showing fewer peaks compared to AFT-OA and TiO₂ catalysts. The peaks at 2982 and 2898 cm⁻¹ in all the catalysts represent –CH and –COH vibrations (Chuang and Chen, 2009).

FTIR studies were also performed to see spectral changes in the optimized catalyst before and after catalytic tests (Fig. S2). In the case of

FTIR spectra of optimized photocatalyst after photocatalytic measurements, there were only shifting of main peaks by 10-15 cm⁻¹ in comparison with FTIR spectra of pure photocatalysts before the catalytic test, indicating that shifting of peaks in the catalyst after catalytic tests are probably due to adsorption of light by main groups present in the catalysts during the photocatalytic process. Previous studies also reported that there are no changes in FTIR spectra of the catalysts even after photocatalytic experiments (Cargnello et al., 2016). They compared FTIR spectra of TiO₂ nanostructured catalysts before and after using the catalyst for H₂ production and observed that both catalysts showed similar FTIR peaks.

3.6. Hydrogen production

Synthesized photocatalysts dispersed in aquesous glycerol solution under simulated solar light irradiation and hydrogen production rate at different experimental conditions are displayed in Fig. 7(a–d). Interestingly, AFT-N₂ catalyst calcined under the N₂ atmosphere showed higher H₂ rate than the dried (AFT-D) and open-air calcined catalysts (AFT-OA). Generally, the CNTs are highly stable under thermally inert atmospheric conditions and when calcination is carried out in open air at temperatures greater than 350 °C, it will react with oxygen to form CO₂ and/or will decompose. The CNTs decompose in the open air at 400–700 °C based on their purity and morphological setup, but CNTs active temperature can be as high as 2500 °C under inert atmosphere. Therefore, calcined catalyst under inert atmosphere conditions has a strong interaction with other metals, and such a strong interface could reduce recombination rate of the charge carriers, thereby improving the H₂ production efficiency.



Fig. 7. Photocatalytic H_2 production assessments of Ag/FCNT-TiO₂ heterogeneous catalysts: (a) oper air and N_2 atmospheric calcination condition effect, (b) effect of silver doping concentration on FCNT-TiO₂ nanocomposite, (c) AFT- N_2 catalyst H_2 production comparison with binary (FT and AT) and pristine (TiO₂) photocatalysts and (d) Light sources effect on AFT- N_2 .

The H₂ production tests were performed by varying the silver deposition contents on FCNT-TiO₂ catalyst, and these results are displayed in Fig. 7b, where AFT-3 photocatalyst showed highest H₂ production rate of 19.2 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹. This could be due to the addition of FCNTs and AgNPs which effectively reduced the charge carrier recombination rate by acting as electron sinks and co-catalysts (Chaudhary et al., 2016a; Wang et al., 2018).

Addition of noble metal nanoparticles to FCNT-TiO₂ nanocomposite improves the photocatalytic H₂ production performance. Abdulrazzak et al., reported 20 times higher H₂ production after addition of Noble metallic particles (Pt NPs) to FCNT-TiO₂ nanocomposite. This enhanced rate is due to the co-catalyst role of noble nanoparticle usually involves in increased charge separation thereby minimizing the recombination rate of electron-hole pair (Abdulrazzak et al., 2016). Estabbanati et al., also reported the improved H₂ production rate in TiO₂@CS composite after the addition of Pt nanoparticle (Karimi Estabbanati et al., 2019). The optimized photocatalyst (AFT-3) H₂ production details are compared with the pristine TiO₂, commerical TiO₂ (P25) as well as FT and AT binary catalysts (Fig. 7c). The synthesized TiO₂ showed H₂ production rate of 0.85 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ which is nearly same as that of commercialized P25 (0.9 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹).

The ternary photocatalyst showed the highest H₂ production rate than the binary (FT and AT) and the pristine TiO₂ catalyst. The highest H₂ production could be due to the SPR effect of silver nanoparticles, due to the induced SPR effect (of AgNPs) showing absorption in the visible region and forming localized electrical field. Moreover, the FCNTs act as co-catalyst and electron sink, resulting in hindered recombination rate, prolonged life time as well as effectively transferring electrons to the reduction process. Also, AgNPs directly act as co-catalyst, which can trap the excited electrons from TiO2 CB and participate in reduction reactions. Additionally, photocatalytic H_2 production activity of the optimized AFT-3 catalyst was also performed under natural solar light irradiation and simulated solar light equipped with the UV-cut off filter (Fig. 7d). Interestingly, natural solar light irradiation showed 41.1 mmol $g^{-1} h^{-1} H_2$ production, which is ~2.2 times greater than solar simulator irradiation, suggesting that natural solar light is a more effective to produce H₂ than the solar simulator. The use of natural solar light for H₂ production is anyway an eco-friendly and cost-effective process, and hence, there is no need for high-cost instruments. Moreover, under the UV-cut off irradiation H2 activity can be observed and thus it is evident that, the catalysts are also active in the visible light which was further confirmed by the UV-DRS characterization. Further, photocatalytic H₂ production activity of the present work was compared with related works, the comparison is summarized in Table 2.

Recyclability of the photocatalyst was investigated on the AFT-3 catalysts for ten repeated cycles under identical conditions, where the H_2 production rate decreased after the 5th cycle (Fig. 8a), possibly due to the reduced glycerol (hole scavenger) concentration in the reaction solution (Maria Magdalane et al., 2018; Reddy et al., 2017). In order to confirm whether it is due to the decrease in glycerol concentration or catalysts effect, Glycerol (5 vol.%) was added to the same reaction solution in the system after the completion of 7th cycle. Interestingly, the activity was increased in the next cycles, which was almost equal to the

initial cycles, suggesting the depletion of glycerol by oxidation, thereby limiting the rate of H_2 production. Further, the optimized catalyst H_2 production stability was measured continuously under long-term solar irradiation. As shown in Fig. 8b, the AFT-3 photocatalyst showed high stability upto 50 h, suggesting the potential of the catalysts for long-term practical applications. The slow H_2 production rate was observed after 50 h, indicating that after 50 h, there was no further improvement in H_2 production. This is due to sacrificial agent (glycerol) being converted into CO₂ and O₂ by the oxidation process as well as large number of products are deposited on the catalysts (Rangappa et al., 2020).

3.6.1. Mechanism of photocatalytic H_2 production

The band edge potentials for TiO_2 and AFT-N₂ catalysts were calculated from the following equations (Chen et al., 2015).

Valence band edge potential (E_{VB}) = X- E_e + 0.5 E_g

Conduction band edge potential $(E_{CB}) = E_{VB} - E_g$

Here, X is electronegativity of the semiconductor, Ee is the energy of free electrons and E_g is the bandgap of the catalyst. The estimated E_{cb} and E_{vb} of TiO₂ are -0.32 eV and 2.88 eV, respectively, while for AFT-N₂ catalyst, E_{cb} and E_{vb} values are -0.39 eV and 2.55 eV, respectively. These results suggest improved E_{cb} of AFT-N₂ that might have enhanced the H₂ production efficiency. The photocatalytic H₂ generation process in AgNps doped FCNT-TiO₂ is schematically represented in Fig. 8c. The electron-hole pair generated on the TiO₂ under the irradiation of light source. The electron-hole recombination time was prolonged by the trasfer of electrons from TiO2 to the surface of co-catalyst through heterogenous contact between Ag, FCNTs, and TiO₂. The migrated electrons effectively reduced the H⁺ ions, leading to H₂ production. The FCNTs have high electrical conductivity as well as the electron storage capacity, thereby acting as electron sink, thus effectively preventing the charge carrier recombination (Kumar et al., 2018). On the other hand, glycerol acts as a hole scavenger, which reacts with the holes and forms H⁺ and oxidized intermediates (Lakshmana et al., 2018).

4. Conclusions

The Ag-TiO₂, FCNT-TiO₂ binary, and AgNPs-doped FCNT-TiO₂ hybrid photocatalysts were synthesized using the one-pot chemical reduction process and their properties were analyzed by UV-visible DRS, TEM, X-RD, and Raman techniques, while their chemical composition and elemental states were analyzed by X-PS. The prepared catalysts were tested for photocatalytic H₂ production under solar simulator with glycerol aqueous solution as sacrificial reagent. The optimized catalyst (AFT-3) exhibited 19.2 mmol $g^{-1} h^{-1} H_2$ production, which is nearly 28.5, 7, and 5 times higher than the pristine TiO₂ nanoparticles, FCNT-TiO2 and Ag-TiO2 nanocomposites, respectively. Such high efficiency is due to presence of silver and FCNT as they acted as the cocatalysts, thereby reducing the overall recombination rate. Moreover, FCNTs might have acted as an electron transport channel between Ag NPs and TiO₂. Interestingly, natural solar light irradiated AFT-3 showed 41.1 mmol $g^{-1} h^{-1} H_2$ production rate, which is ~2.2 times higher than that of the solar simulator irradiation, suggesting that natural solar light is a more effective to produce H_2 than the solar simulator.

Table 2

The	photocatalytic H	production	results of Ag	g dopeo	d FCNT-TiO ₂	com	pared with	previous rep	ports.
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-	• =•				
S. No	Photocatalyst	Synthesis method	Sacrificial agent & Light source	Hydrogen Production (μ mol $g^{-1} \ h^{-1}$	References
1	Pt/MWCNT-TiO ₂	Alkaline hydrothermal & Photo-deposition	Ethanol & Solar simulator	435	Zhao et al. (2014)
2	Pt/MWCNT-TiO ₂	Hydrothermal & Photo-deposition	TEOA & 250 W Xe-lamp	8092	Dai et al. (2009)
3	Pt-TiO ₂ /CNT	Sonochemical/hydration-dehydration	Methanol & 365 nm LED	355	Abdulrazzak et al. (2016)
4	Au/Graphene-	Microwave assisted hydrothermal	Methanol & 420 nm LEDs	296	Wang et al. (2014)
	TiO ₂				
5	Ag/TiO2-	Hydrothermal method & microwave-	Ethanol & Xenon lamp	2120	Yang et al. (2014)
	Graphene	assisted	-		-
6	Ag/FCNT-TiO ₂	Chemical reduction	Glycerol & 300 W Xe-lamp	19, 200	This work



Fig. 8. (a) Recyclability tests of AFT-N₂, (b) long-term stability under continuous light irradiation, and (c) Proposed photocatalytic H₂ production mechanism with bandgap structure of AFT-N₂ under solar simulated irradiation.

As Ag nanoparticles doped FCNT-TiO₂ ternary composites have muthifunctional properties, future scope of this work could be used in wastewater treatment applications, toxic industrial dye degradation and removal of gas pollutants applications.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors report no conflict of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi. org/mmcdoino.

Credit roles

N. Ramesh Reddy: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing – original draft, U. Bharagav: Methodology, M. V. Shankar: Writing – review & editing, Validation, P. M. Reddy: Conceptualization, Kakarla Raghava Reddy: Writing – review & editing, N. P. Shetti: Validation, Fernando Alonso-Marroquin: Writing - Reviewing & Editing, M. Mamatha Kumari: Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources, Planning, Supervision, Tejraj M. Aminabhavi: Supervision, Reviewing & Editing, Sang Woo Joo: Funding acquisition, Project administration, Supervision.

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