

## Photo-synthesized copper phenylacetylide nanobelts with preferential photocatalytic active facet exposure

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**Abstract**—We recently reported that  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelt exhibits excellent photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants and activation of molecular  $\text{O}_2$ . However, there has been no further research about the relationship between its crystal structure and photocatalytic activity. Herein, a new safe and energy-save method, photo-synthesis, to prepare  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelts with preferential active exposure facet was developed. It was used to study the relationship between its crystal structure and photocatalytic activity, compared to the  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelts prepared by thermal-synthesis method. The prepared samples were characterized by X-ray powder diffractometer (XRD), field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM), ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) absorbance spectra and diffuse reflectance spectra (UV-vis Abs and DRS),  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherms, FT-IR and Raman spectra. The degradation of MB experiments under visible light irradiation shows that the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  prepared by photo-synthesis method is much higher than that by traditional thermal-synthesis method. Moreover, the photocatalytic mechanism of  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelts was further studied by the photocatalytic generation of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$ .

Keywords: Photocatalyst,  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  Nanobelts, Preferential Facet Exposure, Preparation Method

### INTRODUCTION

The development of visible-light-harvesting materials based on earth-abundant elements is essential for the sunlight-driven elimination of environmental pollutants [1]. The photocatalytic activity of such materials originates from the photoinduced electron or energy transfer, activating substrates or other reagents (e.g., molecular oxygen). Conjugated organic polymers (COPs) [2], metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) [3-10] and metal-organic coordination polymers (MOCs) [11-14] are emerging new members of the earth-abundant-element-based class of materials. They possess manifold excited states [e.g., metal-to-ligand charge transfer (MLCT), ligand-to-metal charge transfer (LMCT), ligand-to-ligand charge transfer (LLCT), and charge-separated (CS) excited states] with tunable energetics (through modification of unit chemical structures or through non-covalent intermolecular interaction) [3-6,15-17]. In general, the photoinduced events are described as band-gap excitations that generate conduction-band electrons and valence-band holes. The self-assembling property of such materials enables simple heterogenization, which is highly advantageous for separation and recycling of these materials relative to their homogeneous analogues. Moreover, the long-range-ordered structures in MOFs and MOCs contain meso/micropores that may benefit the substrate-surface interaction [7-9,14]. Several heterogeneous systems based on MOCs (e.g., Ru, Zn, Ag and  $\text{Cu}^{\text{II}}$ ) have been developed for catalytic selective

oxidation and organic pollutants degradation. However, the relativities for these systems are still limited to organic dye substrates and hazardous oxidants/solvents (*tert*-butyl peroxo or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) are also often required [11-14]. In our exploration of heterogeneous visible-light photocatalysts, we consider the potential catalytic activity in different reaction pathways, e.g., oxidative degradation by molecular oxygen activation (via reactive oxygen species), as well as the reductive detoxification of organic halides by dissociative electron transfer.

Naturally, earth abundant materials with visible light activity have always been desired in photoinduced redox chemistry for organic transformation and elimination of environmental hazard compounds. Copper is such a routinely encountered element in our daily life and may be unexciting at the first glance. Actually, it continuously plays an active role in science for its essential, life-saving biology, because of its diverse chemical properties in the following three chemical processes: Lewis acid catalysis, single-electron-transfer processes and two-electron-transfer reactions; this suggests it as an efficient catalyst in a large number of reactions [18]. However, Cu-based semiconductors (i.e., CuO and  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ ) did not play very well in photocatalysis field; this unfavorable situation may be resulting from the improper band structure of CuO [19] and chemical instability of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  [20]. More recently, we first applied copper-phenylacetylide ( $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$ ) coordination polymer in the degradations of organic pollutants and activation of molecular oxygen under visible light irradiations, which exhibits excellent photocatalytic activity [21]. The good activity originates from its suitable band gap, favorable structure for electron/hole separation, and strong reductivity of conduction band electrons. The results show that  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelt is a prospective visible-light-driven photocatalyst.

However, the research about  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  coordination polymer in

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photocatalytic activity is very limited. It is universally known that different preparation method can result in different physical and chemical properties [22,23], so the photocatalytic activity is also different for  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelt. Moreover, the bumping often occurs during the traditional thermal-synthesis method process of  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$ , which is dangerous and is not suitable for practical applications. In this work, we applied photosynthesis method to prepare  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelt with different crystal facet to that prepared by thermal method, which shows significantly improved photocatalytic activity. Moreover, photosynthesis method was carried out at room temperature, which is safe and energy-saving. The prepared  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelt prepared by photo and thermal synthesis method was mainly characterized by X-ray diffractometer (XRD), field-emission electron microscope (FE-SEM), UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS), surface analyzer, FT-IR and Raman spectra. The photocatalytic activities were measured by the degradation of methylene blue (MB) in aqueous solutions. Furthermore, the generation of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$ , the products of molecular oxygen activation, were also tested by the nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) and coumarin (CA) method.

## EXPERIMENTAL

### 1. Preparation

365 mg  $\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (0.05 M) was dissolved in 40 mL  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ , forming a blue transparent solution. The blue precipitate appeared when 1,120  $\mu\text{L}$   $\text{Et}_3\text{N}$  (0.2 M) was added in the blue transparent solution. With further addition of 440  $\mu\text{L}$  phenylacetylene (0.1 M), the blue precipitate became green [21]. The acquired green suspension was treated via two different methods, thermal and photo. Thermal-synthesis: the suspension was heated to  $65^\circ\text{C}$  and kept for about 10 minutes, until the precipitate turned to light yellow. Photo-synthesis: the suspension was irradiated by visible light with the wavelength of  $420\text{ nm} < \lambda < 800\text{ nm}$  (300 W Xe-arc lamp, PLS-SXE300) for about 30 minutes, until the suspension turned to light yellow. The obtained light-yellow precipitate was separated by centrifugation and washed with deionized water and ethanol for several times. After that, the as-prepared precipitate was dried at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  overnight, and ground in a quartz mortar. The light-yellow powder was  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  and was marked as CP@H (thermal-synthesized  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$ ) and CP@P (photo-synthesized  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$ ), respectively.

### 2. Characterization

The crystal structures were characterized by a Bruker D8 advance X-ray powder diffractometer (XRD). The morphology was observed by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Hitachi, S-4800). Ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were recorded on an UV-vis spectrophotometer (Lambda40p). The  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherms were measured by a surface analyzer (Tri Star-3010, Micromeritics, USA), and the specific areas were analyzed by the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. The IR transmission spectrum was obtained with a Fourier transform-infrared (FT-IR) spectrophotometer (EQUINOX-55, Bruker). Raman spectrum was obtained with a Fourier transform-Raman spectrophotometer (Thermo, DXR2).

### 3. Activity Evaluation

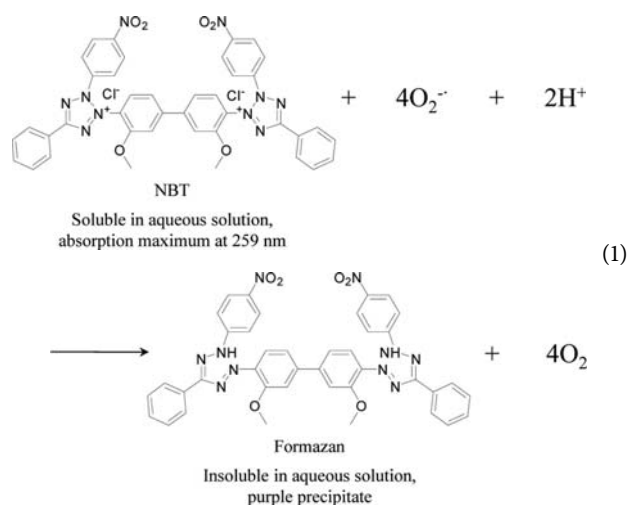
The degradation of Methylene Blue (MB) was carried out to

evaluate the photocatalytic activity of the prepared  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  samples. A 300 W Xe arc lamp (PLS-SXE300/300UV) equipped with a wavelength cutoff filter ( $420\text{ nm} < \lambda < 800\text{ nm}$ ) was used as the light source to trigger the photocatalytic degradation of MB over CP@H and CP@P samples. 25 mg photocatalysts were dispersed in 50 mL of MB aqueous solution at a concentration of  $2.6 \times 10^{-5}\text{ M}$ , and the suspension was continuously stirred in the dark for 1 h to establish equilibrium between the catalyst surface and MB molecular. The suspension was kept at room temperature by circulating water bath. During the irradiation, 3 mL of the suspension was sampled at 10 minute intervals, the catalyst and the MB solution were separated by centrifugation. The concentration changes of MB solutions were monitored by measuring the absorbance at  $\lambda = 664\text{ nm}$  with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (SP-756). The degradation efficiency of MB at each time interval was calculated by  $A/A_0$ , where  $A$  and  $A_0$  stand for the absorbance at a certain time and the initialized concentration of MB solutions.

In addition, to study the effects of different reactive oxygen species, MB was also degraded in the presence of NBT and tert-butyl alcohol (TBA), whereas NBT and TBA were the captor of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$ , respectively.

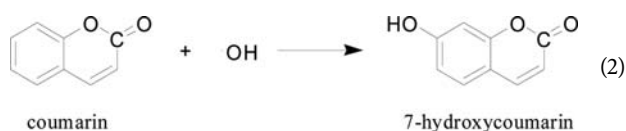
### 4. The Measurements of $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$

The photocatalytic generation of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  by CP@H and CP@P was determined by the degradation of NBT, which was monitored by the absorbance change at the wavelength of 259 nm [24,25]. The mole ratio of generated  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and degraded NBT was 4:1 according to the following equation (Eq. (1)). Specifically, 20 mg photocatalyst was suspended in 40 mL NBT aqueous solution with a concentration of  $2.0 \times 10^{-5}\text{ M}$ . The light source was a Xe-arc lamp (PLS-SXE300) equipped with a wavelength cutoff filter of  $420\text{ nm} < \lambda < 800\text{ nm}$ , and the suspension was kept at room temperature by circulating water bath. Before irradiation, the suspension was continuously stirred in the dark for 1 h. At the given time interval of 10 min, 3 mL of reaction suspension was sampled. The photocatalyst and the generated purple precipitate were separated by centrifugation, and then the absorbance of supernatant was recorded on a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Thermo, DXR2).



The photocatalytic generation of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  over CP@H and CP@P was measured by fluorescence using coumarin (CA) as a chemical

trap (Eq. (2)) [26]. Typically, 25 mg photocatalyst was dissolved in 50 mL aqueous solution containing 1 mM coumarin. After being stirred in the dark for 30 minutes, the mixture was irradiated with visible light ( $420\text{ nm} < \lambda < 800\text{ nm}$ ). At the given time interval of 10 min, 2.5 mL of reaction suspension was sampled. If the  $\bullet\text{OH}$  was formed, it would react with coumarin to form highly fluorescent 7-hydroxy-coumarin. As a result, the concentration of  $\bullet\text{OH}$  was monitored by real time detection of fluorescence intensity on a spectrofluorometer (F-4500, Japan).



## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The as-prepared samples show similar diffraction patterns identified by XRD in Fig. 1, which is accordance with the standard crystallographic data reported in the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (CCDC-242490), indicating that the two samples are all  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  crystals [27]. Significantly, obvious difference in the intensity ratios for various peaks were observed. Specifically, the ratios of (001)/(100), (010)/(100) and (110)/(100) are, respectively, 0.173, 0.066 and 0.168 for CP@H sample, while they are 0.647, 0.394 and 0.459 for CP@P sample. In addition, the d-spacings of

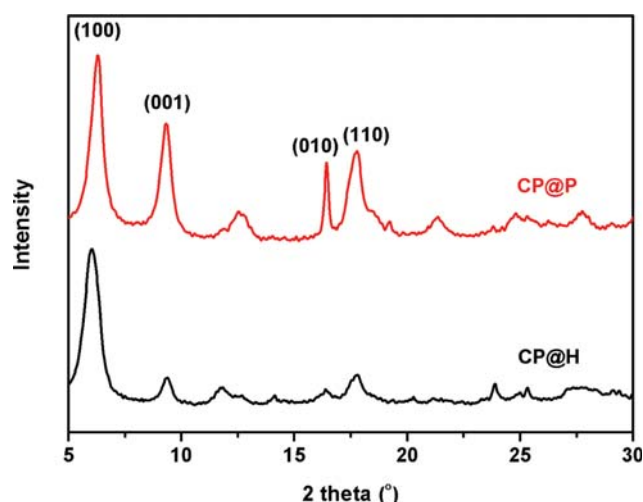


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of CP@H and CP@P solids.

(100) facet are also different for the two samples, which are 1.46 nm and 1.40 nm corresponding to CP@H and CP@P samples, respectively, as calculated using the MDI Jade 5.0 software package. These results indicate that the crystal structures of CP@H and CP@P are similar, but different. This may bring in some difference on the photocatalytic performance. The SEM images of CP@H and CP@P are shown in Fig. 2, in which the  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  poly-

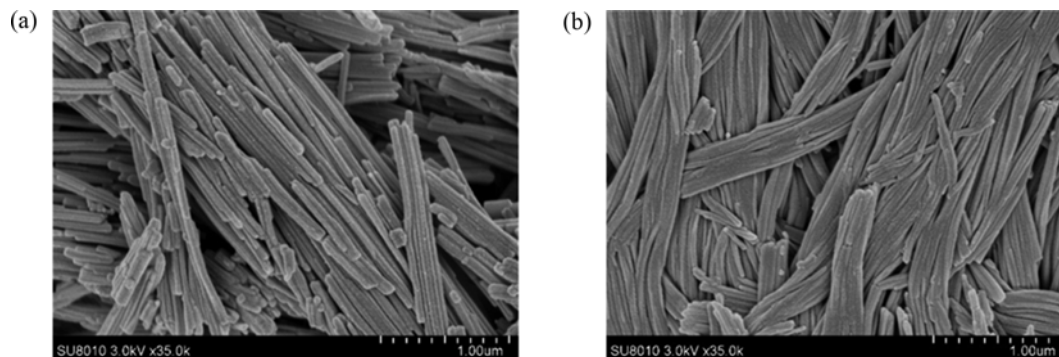


Fig. 2. SEM images of CP@H (a) and CP@P (b) solids.

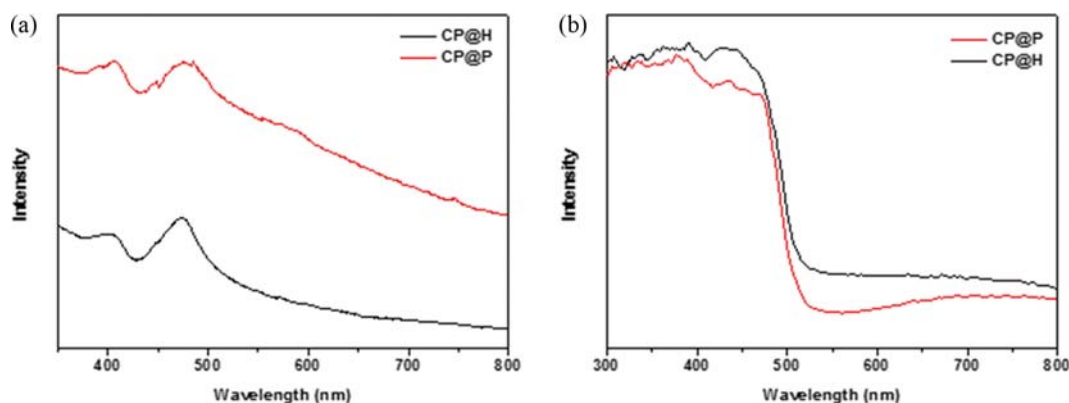


Fig. 3. (a) UV-vis absorbance spectra of CP@H and CP@P suspension in  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ ; (b) UV-vis absorption spectra of CP@H and CP@P solids.

mers are observed in both (a) and (b). Large amounts of nanobelts stick into bunches, and pile up. From the two images, we can see that the stacking ways of CP@H and CP@P are different; this would result in different crystal structures of the two samples.

The absorbance spectra of CP@H and CP@P suspensions and solids are displayed in Fig. 3, which are similar to the previous report [21]. The suspensions in Fig. 3(a) show a wide range absorbance in the visible light region. According to the previous report, the peaks at about 405 nm are attributed to intraligand  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transitions, while the peaks at about 475 nm are [d(Cu)  $\rightarrow \pi^*(C \equiv CPh)$ ] metal-to-ligand charge transfer (MLCT) overlapping with the ligand-centered  $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transitions [27]. The absorption spectra of CP@H and CP@P solids are recorded by UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy and illustrated in Fig. 3(b), in which strong absorption from about 500 nm is observed. The visible-region absorption of CP@H and CP@P resulted from the intrinsic band gap of  $PhC_2Cu$  [21]. Differently, a wide absorption band in the range of 600–800 nm is also clearly observed in the spectra of CP@P, which is assigned to d-d transitions of Cu (II) [28,29], indicating the existence of Cu (II) in the sample of CP@P. This may be caused by the photoreduction of Cu (I) of  $PhC_2Cu$  [21]. The  $N_2$  adsorption-desorption experiments give type III isotherms, indicating a typical isotherm of ordered organic-inorganic nanocomposites with hydrophobic surfaces [30]. Furthermore, it is also used to calculate the surface areas of CP@H and CP@P samples by Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) theory, which are corresponding to 26.66  $cm^2/g$  and 10.96

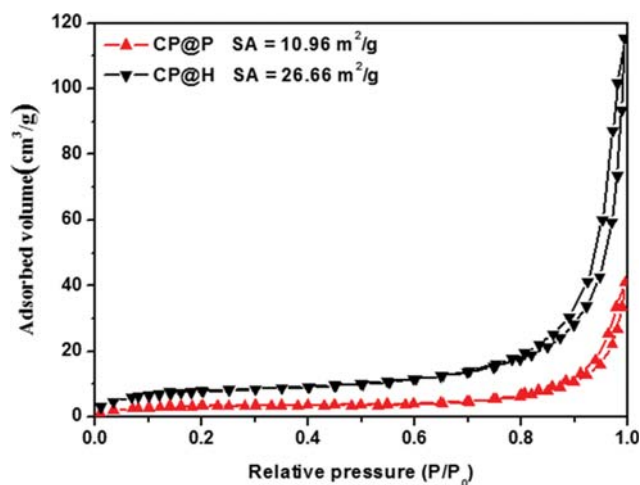


Fig. 4.  $N_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherm of CP@H and CP@P.

$cm^2/g$ , respectively.

The photocatalytic activity of as-prepared  $PhC_2Cu$  samples was evaluated by the degradation of MB aqueous solutions. MB is a typical pollutant for the ecological environment and human health, which can result in the generation decrease of Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NADH) - dehydrogenase and the increase of the methemoglobin, further leading to nausea, bellyaches, headaches, dizziness, sweating, obnubilation, and so on. As illustrated

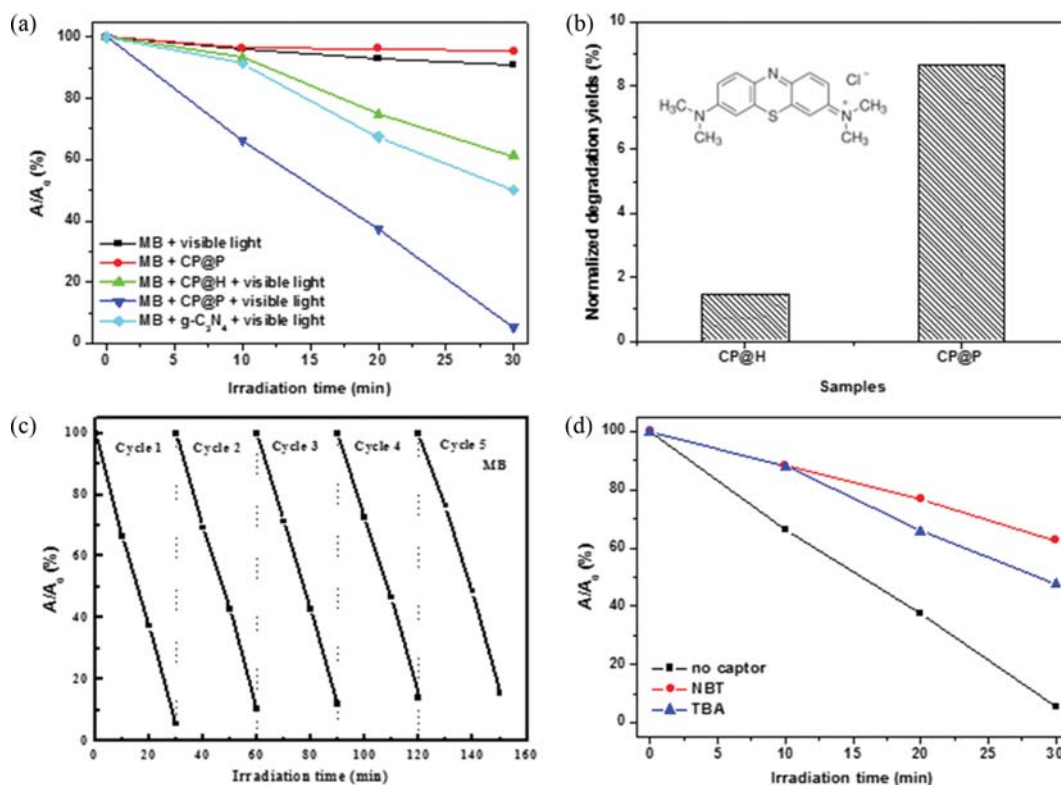
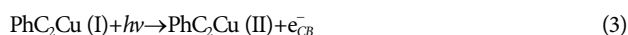


Fig. 5. (a) Photocatalytic degradation of MB by CP@H, CP@P and  $g-C_3N_4$ ; (b) normalized degradation of MB by CP@H and CP@P for 30 minutes irradiation; (c) cyclic experiments for the photocatalytic degradation of MB by CP@P; (d) photocatalytic degradation of MB by CP@P in the presence of different captors.

in Fig. 5(a), both the CP@H and CP@P show significant degradation of MB under visible light irradiations, while negligible degradation is observed in the absence of either  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  catalyst or visible light. We also compared the photocatalytic degradation of MB by  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  samples to that by the previously reported high efficiency photocatalyst,  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . The results show that although the degradation rate of MB by  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  sample ( $\sim 50\%$  in 30 min) is a little faster than that by CP@H ( $\sim 40\%$  in 30 min), it is much slower than that by CP@P ( $\sim 95\%$  in 30 min). This shows the important roles of  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  catalyst and visible light irradiations for the degradation of MB. From the figure, we can also see that the MB degradation by CP@P ( $\sim 95\%$ ) is about 2.5-times higher than that by CP@H ( $\sim 40\%$ ). To get a fair evaluation of the photocatalyst activity, the photocatalytic degradation of MB in 30 minutes is normalized in terms of the surface areas [31], as displayed in Fig. 5(b). It can be found that the normalized activity of CP@P is about six-times higher than that of CP@H. These results indicate that the photocatalytic activity of  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  prepared by photo-synthesis method is much higher than that prepared by thermal-synthesis method. In addition, the stability of as-CP@P was also corroborated by the cyclic degradation of MB. The results in Fig. 5(c) show that CP@P remained active after five cycles, and the degradation rate of MB did not decrease obviously, suggesting a quite stable photocatalytic activity under present conditions.

As reported in the earlier research, the degradation of pollutants by  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  mainly depends on the photocatalytic generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), just like  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$ . Therefore, we degraded MB by CP@P in the presence of different captors upon visible light irradiation. As observed in Fig. 5(d), in the presence of NBT ( $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  captors) [24,25] and TBA ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ) [31], the degradation of MB over CP@P significantly decreased. However, either NBT or TBA cannot absolutely inhibit the degradation of MB. These results mean that not only  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$ , but also the photogenerated conduction electrons can degrade MB. This process can be described by the following equations:



To further prove the photocatalytic process we proposed based on the above results, the photogenerated  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  in the visible light irradiated suspension of  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  samples were also studied, respectively.

The generation of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  under photocatalytic conditions was quantified by its typical reaction with NBT [24,25]. Under visible light irradiation (Fig. 6),  $17.6 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  was produced in 30 minutes by CP@P sample, which is 1.8-times higher than that produced by CP@H ( $9.65 \mu\text{M}$ ). The generation of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  was measured by its reaction with CA, generating CA-OH, which is a fluorescent prod-

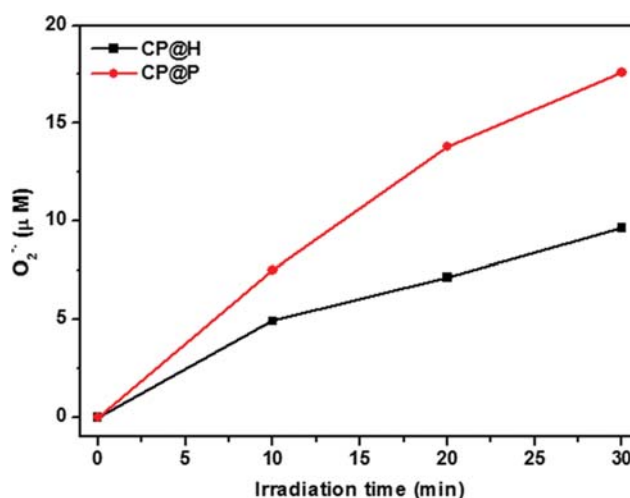


Fig. 6. Photocatalytic production of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  by CP@H and CP@P detected by NBT method.

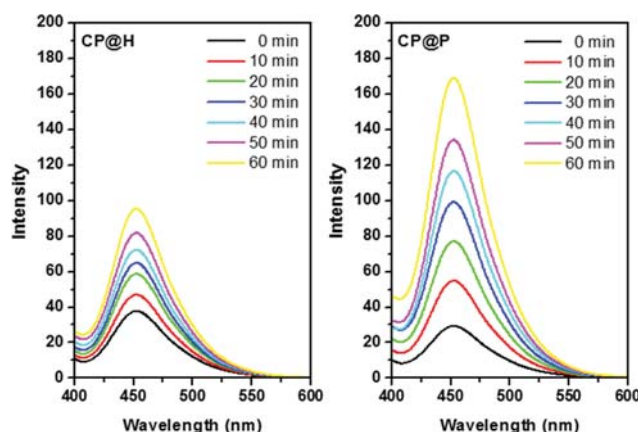


Fig. 7. Fluorescence emission intensity of coumarin-OH adduct (7-hydroxycoumarin) produced in the visible light irradiated suspension of CP@H and CP@P suspension.

uct [26]. As displayed in Fig. 7, CA-OH adduct is generated over both CP@H and CP@P, suggesting the production of  $\cdot\text{OH}$ . The production of CA-OH adduct by CP@P is apparently more than that by CP@H in the same irradiation time.

Based on the results and analysis above,  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  prepared by photosynthesis method shows much higher activity for the degradation of MB under visible light irradiation than that prepared by thermalsynthesis method. The higher photocatalytic activity of CP@P than CP@H may be attributed to more  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  generation, which may intrinsically result from the preferential exposure of photocatalytic active facet.

In summary, we synthesized  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelt through two different methods, photo-synthesis and thermal-synthesis. According to the experimental results, the  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelts prepared by photo-synthesis method exhibit much higher photocatalytic activity than that prepared by traditional thermal-synthesis method for the degradation of MB. Meanwhile, the higher generation of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $\cdot\text{OH}$  by CP@P under visible light irradiation powerfully supports this conclusion. The higher photocatalytic activity is attributed to the



preferential exposure of photocatalytic active facet, which was characterized by XRD spectra. In this work, photo-synthesis method is a safe and energy-saving method, because it happens at room temperature, while traditional thermal-synthesis method is dangerous due to the bumping problem. This study developed a new advanced method to prepare  $\text{PhC}_2\text{Cu}$  nanobelts with preferential active facet exposure, resulting in a higher photocatalytic activity under visible light irradiation.

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### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional information as noted in the text. This information is available via the Internet at <http://www.springer.com/chemistry/journal/11814>.

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## Supporting Information

### Photo-synthesized copper phenylacetylide nanobelts with preferential photocatalytic active facet exposure

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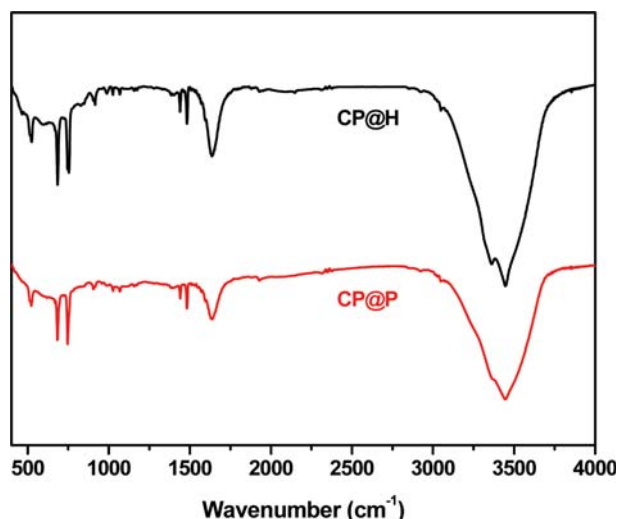


Fig. S1. FT-IR spectra of CP@H and CP@P solids [1,2]: The peak at  $513\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the vibration of C-C $\equiv$ C bond; the peaks at  $525\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $685\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1,441\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1,483\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are assigned to the vibrations of C-C bonds; the peaks at  $746\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $847\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $916\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $988\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are derived from the vibrations of C-H bonds; the peaks at  $1,632\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1,639\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $3,362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $3,446\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are ascribed to the vibrations of adsorbed H<sub>2</sub>O molecular on the surface.

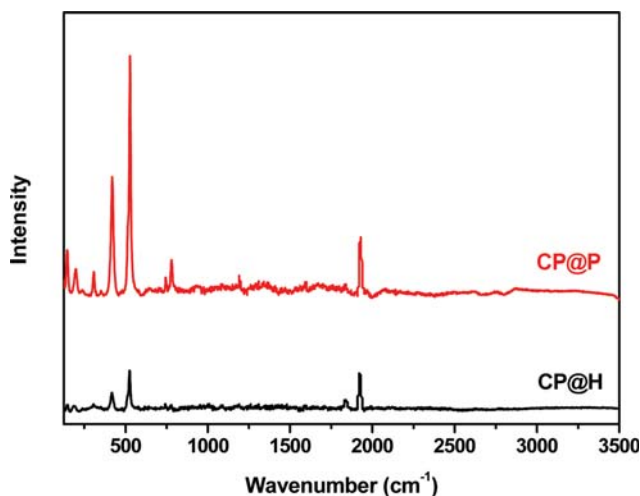


Fig. S2. Raman spectra of CP@H and CP@P solids [1,2]: The peaks at  $1,971\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1,928\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1,839\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $308\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $200\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and  $144\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are attributed to the vibration of the triple bonds of sp<sup>2</sup> C; the peaks at  $746\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are ascribed to the vibration of C-H bonds; the peaks at  $1,595\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $781\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $623\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $422\text{ cm}^{-1}$  belong to the C-C single bonds; the peaks at  $529\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $1,000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1,595\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are derived from the vibration of C-Cu bond, ring breathing, and E<sub>2g</sub> mode for in-phase stretch of sp<sup>2</sup> C, respectively.

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