



Size Effect of Gold Nanoparticles on the Photocatalytic Activity of Titanium Dioxide/Reduced Graphene Oxide (TiO₂/rGO) Nanocomposite

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Abstract

A comparative study of the size effect of plasmonic nanoparticles on the photocatalytic activity of the titanium dioxide/reduced graphene oxide (TiO₂/rGO) nanocomposite material was performed. Gold (Au) plasmon nanoparticles with an average diameter of 20, 35, and 70 nm were embedded in the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite material. It has been shown that the introduction of Au nanoparticles into the TiO₂/rGO structure leads to an increase in the absorption within the range from 475 to 600 nm. The best photocatalytic properties were recorded for the samples with 35 nm Au nanoparticles. These samples generated a photocurrent 2.3 times higher than pure TiO₂/rGO. In the presence of nanocomposite films, the photodegradation rate of the Methylene blue and Congo red dyes was increased by 3 and 2.6 times that of the sample without gold nanoparticles. The synergistic effect of plasmonic nanoparticles consists of the growth of the absorptivity of nanocomposite material, the reduction of its resistance, and the effective separation and transport of charge carriers, which leads to enhanced photocatalytic activity of semiconductors. The dependence of the photocatalytic activity of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite on the size of Au nanoparticles was explained by the hot electron injection cut off effect.

Keywords: TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite; Au nanoparticles; Size; Dye degradation; Photocatalysis.

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1. Introduction

At present, humanity is faced with urgent problems, such as the elimination of environmental pollution and the generation of clean energy. Solar energy as one of the alternative energy resources, surpasses the planet's total energy demands.^[1] With the help of solar energy, it is possible to obtain an environmentally friendly and economically profitable fuel-hydrogen and effectively purify water resources from various pollutants.^[2,3] Such systems use various semiconductor photocatalysts, which have demonstrated themselves as

promising materials for light harvesting and converting solar energy.^[4,5] The main criteria for the selection of an effective photocatalyst are the location of their energy bands relative to the potential for splitting water and organic pollutants in water, inertness, non-toxicity, and low cost.^[6-8] According to these criteria, the most suitable is the use of titanium dioxide (TiO₂) and its nanostructures. However, there are two key problems presented by TiO₂: firstly, the wide band gap of TiO₂ allows absorbing only ultraviolet (UV) light, which is no more than 7% in the solar spectrum; secondly is the high rate of charge recombination in TiO₂, which leads to insufficient photocatalytic activity.^[9-13] One of the ways to eliminate the above disadvantages may be the preparation of heterostructure photoanode and the use of the phenomenon of localized plasmon resonance (LPR) of metal nanoparticles (NPs).^[14-16]

In the case of LPR, a multiply enhanced optical and electric field is formed around the metal NPs, which accelerates the efficiency of photoinduced reactions. This effect is actively used in photodynamic therapy, biosensors, photonics,

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optoelectronics, surface-enhanced Raman scattering (SERS), and catalysis.^[17-19] Among the NPs of noble metals with LPR, gold NPs can be distinguished.^[20] LPR of gold nanostructures has been used to increase the efficiency of dye-sensitized solar cells,^[21] sensors and photodetectors,^[22,23] and medicine.^[24] However, it is especially impressive for the application of the plasmonic effect of gold NPs in photocatalytic systems.^[25-31] In this case, several mechanisms are possible: when the surface of the gold NPs is illuminated, the plasmon can be re-emitted (scattered) and transfer energy to a semiconductor (PRET) or lead to the formation of hot electrons.^[32] To determine the mechanism of the plasmon effect, it is necessary to know the size and shape of metal NP since the position and intensity of their absorptivity and scattering depend on them. In Ref. [33], Au NP of different sizes were synthesized and integrated into the @TiO₂ or @SiO₂ core-shell structures. It was shown that the degradation of salicylic acid is higher for Au@TiO₂ with Au diameters of 3 nm. When 17 nm Au NPs with a SiO₂ shell were added to the composites, they exhibited the best photocatalytic performance. The authors also investigated the effect of the Au NPs size on the photocatalytic degradation of the Methylene blue dye.^[34] It was concluded that the enhancement of photodegradation is mainly due to the hot electron transfer and the interface structure. This means the photocatalytic efficiency is mainly influenced by the number of charge carriers and their transport rate at the semiconductor/metal interface. The influence of the shape of the Au NP on the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ was discussed in Ref. [35]. The authors used nanospheres, nanostars, and Au nanorods. The phenol degradation was 3 times better in the presence of Au nanospheres than in TiO₂ and 1.5 and 2 times higher than for Au nanostars and nanorods.

In order to reduce charge recombination in a semiconductor, one could use composites containing graphene.^[36-38] Introduction of graphene or graphene oxides into the TiO₂ structure improves the absorptivity of the material, promotes separation and transfer of charge carriers, and reduces the band gap,^[39,40] contributing to an increase in the photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposite material. Due to the hydrophobicity of graphene, graphene oxides are more applicable since they have good solubility and stability in water and organic solvents.^[41]

Currently, a sufficient number of scientific papers have been published on the study of the plasmonic effect of Au NPs on the photocatalytic activity of nanocomposite materials based on TiO₂ and reduced graphene oxide (rGO).^[42-47] For example, the authors have developed a TiO₂/rGO photoelectrocatalyst with embedded Au NPs.^[46] It has been established that the enhancement in catalytic activity is

associated with the synergistic effect of the special microstructure of TiO₂ microspheres, improved light harvesting due to the LPR of Au NPs, effective charge separation, and rapid electron transfer through rGO nanosheets. The authors also found that the introduction of Au and rGO into TiO₂ makes it possible to increase the value of the active surface area of the semiconductor from 75 m²g⁻¹ to 135 m²g⁻¹, which led to an increase in the degradation rate of the Methylene blue dye.^[47] Earlier work demonstrated the effectiveness of triple Au/TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite materials in the photocatalytic water splitting reaction.^[48] In such systems, Au NPs lead to the better absorption of visible light, rGO effectively reduces the rate of recombination, and one-dimensional electron transport along the walls of nanotubes promotes their participation in the photochemical reaction.

Despite these studies, the problem of the influence of the size of plasmon NPs on the characteristics of nanocomposites based on TiO₂ and reduced graphene oxide (rGO) remains open. In addition, in published works on the effect of the plasmon resonance of the Au NPs on the photocatalytic activity of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite, the sizes of the metal NP are studied only up to 17 nm.^[49] Meanwhile, particles with a diameter of 20-50 nm are easier to synthesize. In addition, in metal NPs of a larger diameter, along with plasmon effects, light scattering should also be taken into account. In the present work, the photocatalytic and optical properties of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite in the presence of Au NPs of various diameters (20, 35 and 70 nm) are studied. It is assumed that due to the dependence of the position of the LPR band, the efficiency of absorption, extinction and scattering of plasmonic Au NP on their size, their effect on the semiconductor nanocomposite will differ.

As mentioned above, the properties of the plasmon resonance of Au NPs are determined not only by the size and shape of metal NP, but also by the methods of their preparation. In the above-mentioned works, colloidal or photosynthesis methods were used for the preparation of Au NPs. As a result, it is very difficult to obtain Au NPs without additional impurities with a controlled size and shape. In this regard, in the presented work, the method of laser ablation of a metal target (99.99%) in ethanol was used to obtain Au NPs. There will be no impurities in the NPs dispersions, and their sizes can be controlled by the power of laser radiation and the environment in which ablation occurs.^[50-52]

2. Experimental section

2.1 Material preparation

The synthesis of TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite was performed according to the method described earlier in Refs [53,54]. For

this purpose, 20 mL of ethanol, 60 mL of deionized water, and 0.02 g of rGO (99 wt%, Cheaptubes) were sonicated (40 kHz, PS-10a) for 1 h. Then, 0.2 g of TiO₂ (<25 nm, Sigma Aldrich) was added to the solution and stirred for one more 1 hour in the ultrasonic bath and 1 h in a shaker (Multi Bio RS-24) until a homogeneous suspension was achieved. The suspension was then placed in an autoclave with a sealed Teflon container for 24 h (Snol, PL 20/12.5) at 120 °C to form the TiO₂/rGO composite material. After cooling to room temperature, the suspension was washed and filtered with deionized water and ethanol. The solution was then centrifuged at 4000.0 rpm. The resulting product was dried at 60 °C until all moisture was completely removed.

Au NPs were obtained by laser ablation of a gold target (99.999%) in ethanol using the second harmonic of neodymium-doped yttrium aluminum garnet (Nd:YAG) laser (LQ-215, SolarLS). The NPs concentration was estimated from the changes in the target's mass before and after ablation. The dynamic light scattering method with the Nanosizer S90 analyzer and Mark-Houwink equation in Zetasizer Software 7.10 (Malvern) was used to estimate the average diameter of Au NPs. As a result of varying the ablation's duration, Au NPs with the following characteristics were obtained (Table 1).

Table 1. Synthesis conditions, average diameters, and concentrations of Au NPs.

Duration of ablation (min)	Average diameter of the Au NPs (nm)	Concentration of Au NPs in ethanol (mol/L)	Sample designation of TiO ₂ /rGO+Au NPs
40	20 ± 10.6	2.3 × 10 ⁻¹¹	TGA_20
30	35 ± 10.0	2.3 × 10 ⁻¹¹	TGA_35
20	70 ± 11.1	2.1 × 10 ⁻¹¹	TGA_70

For the preparation of TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite paste, 0.150 g of TiO₂/rGO powder was stirred in 1 mL of ethanol for 24 h. After that, 2 mL of Au NPs (10⁻¹¹ mol/L) in ethanol were added to the resulting paste and mixed for another 24 h. Thus, TiO₂/rGO pastes with the addition of Au NPs were obtained. Nanocomposite films from the prepared pastes were spin-coated (Polos Spin150i) at 3000 rpm on the surface of fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) substrates (1.5 × 1 cm², 7 Ohm/cm², Sigma–Aldrich). The thickness of the films ranges from 4 to 4.1 μm according to scanning electron microscopy (SEM) data. The TiO₂/rGO+Au NPs samples were designated as TGA-20, TGA-35, and TGA-70 for NPs with diameters of 20 ± 10.6, 35 ± 10.0 and 70 ± 11.1 nm, respectively.

2.2 Material characterization

The phase composition of the samples was studied using X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns on an XRD diffractometer (Rigaku) with radiation from CuKα, λ=1.54060 Å. The X-ray spectra were analyzed using a database and the standard software package WinXPow. The morphology of the nanocomposite materials was studied with SEM Mira 3LMU

(Tescan) with energy-dispersive analysis (EDA) capability. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images, and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were obtained using a versatile transmission electron microscope JEM-1400 PLUS (Jeol) at an accelerating voltage of 120 kV. Before measurement, 0.001 g of the sample was sonicated in 2 mL of water for 20 minutes. The resulting suspension was then deposited on a copper grid (No. 01800, PELCO® TEM). The absorption spectra of the samples were recorded on a Cary 300 (Agilent).

The resistance and charge-transport properties of the samples were investigated using impedance spectroscopy in the frequency range from 1 MHz to 100 mHz. A Pt film (Platisol T/SP, Solaronix) deposited on the surface of an FTO substrate was used as the counter electrode. The electrodes were sealed with a 25 μm polymer film (Melotonix, Solaronix). Iodolyte Z-150 (Solaronix) was used as the electrolyte.

The photocatalytic activity was evaluated by measuring the photoinduced current over an illuminated area of 1 cm² using a potentiostat with an impedance spectra (EIS) analyzer (CS350, Corrtest Instruments) in a three-electrode setup, with AgCl and Pt foil electrodes. Measurements were conducted in 0.1 M NaOH electrolyte in a quartz container. Additionally, the photoactivity of the films was assessed by the photodegradation of the Methylene blue (MB) and Congo red (CR) dyes (10⁻⁵ mol/L) in aqueous solution. The dyes were used as model pollutants. A 300 W/cm² Xe lamp (Newport) was used as the light source in all experiments.

3. Results and discussion

The SEM images of Au NPs obtained by the laser ablation method are shown below (Fig. 1). Measurements revealed that after 20 minutes of Au target irradiation, the average diameter of the NPs was about 70 ± 11.1 nm. Additionally, particles with both larger and smaller diameters were present in the solution. When the ablation duration was increased to 30 minutes (see Fig. 1), the average diameter of the NPs was decreased to 35 ± 10.0 nm. After 40 minutes of irradiation, the NPs sizes further decreased to 20 ± 10.6 nm. Based on the obtained data, it can be inferred that the longer ablation results in the smaller diameter of the prepared Au NPs.

The synthesized Au NPs exhibit a broad band of absorption from 450 to 800 nm with a maximum at ~520-530 nm (Fig. 2). As the NPs diameter increases, the absorption maximum undergoes a bathochromic shift, corresponding to 520 nm, 530 nm, and 538 nm for 20 ± 10.6 nm, 35 ± 10.0 nm, and 70 ± 11.1 nm Au NPs, respectively. The absorption of Au NPs in the visible region is associated with the manifestation of LPR.

The obtained Au NPs were incorporated into the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite. High-resolution TEM images (Fig. 3a) reveal that the TiO₂ particles are not aggregated and are predominantly located on the surface of the rGO nanosheets. As indicated by the authors in Ref. [55], this is a result of the interaction between the oxygen-containing groups of rGO and

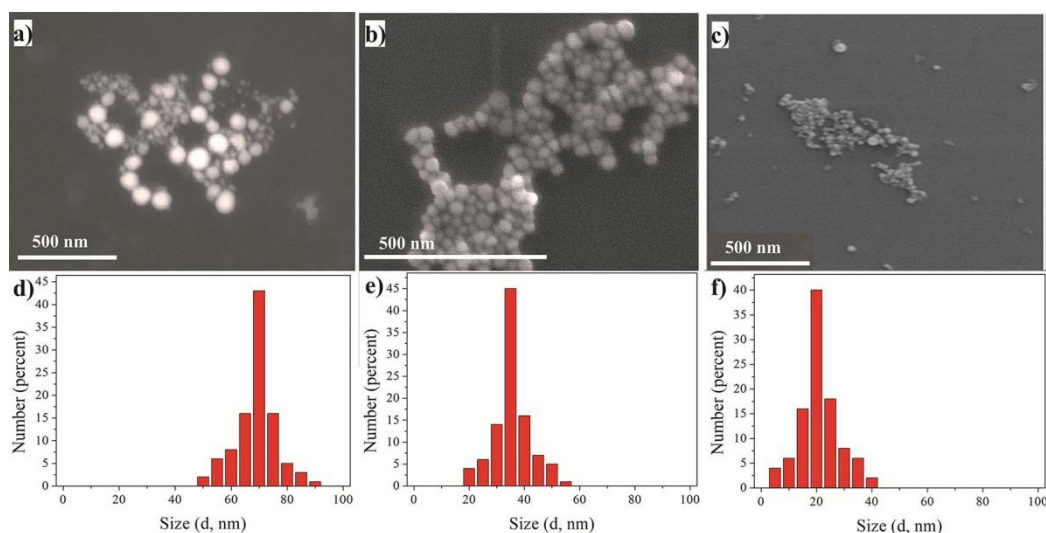


Fig. 1 SEM images and size distribution of Au NPs with various diameters: (a) and (d) 70 ± 11.1 nm; (b) and (e) 35 ± 10.0 nm; and (f) 20 ± 10.6 nm.

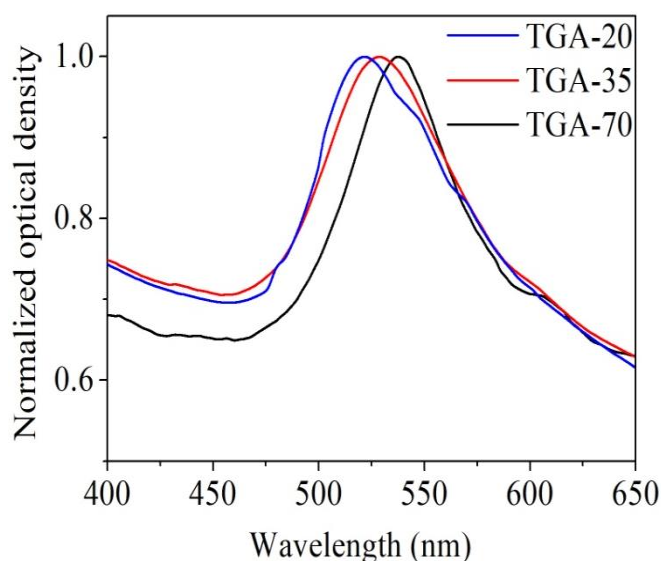


Fig. 2 Absorption spectra of Au NPs with various diameters in ethanol.

TiO₂. The HRTEM image, combined with the SAED pattern (Figs. 3b and 3c), further confirms the successful formation of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite. The image also reveals the presence of lattice fringes with an interplanar spacing of 0.35 nm, corresponding to the (101) plane of TiO₂ in the anatase modification. The SAED pattern shows that other peaks characteristic of the anatase modification, such as TiO₂ (200) and (211), are also present.

Similar studies were conducted for the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite with Au NPs (sample TGA-35, Fig. 3d). The TiO₂ and Au NPs are primarily concentrated along the edges of the rGO nanosheets. The presence of lattice patterns with an interplanar spacing of 0.23 nm corresponds to the (111) plane of Au. The SAED images reveal characteristic rings of Au (planes (111) and (200)) and characteristic peaks of TiO₂ with anatase modification planes (200) and (101). EDA was performed to confirm the presence of the specified chemical

elements in the composite materials (Figs. 3g and 3h). The spectra show the presence of Ti, O, and C for the TiO₂/rGO sample and, additionally, Au for the TGA-35 sample. The presence of Sn is likely due to the use of FTO substrates for the deposition of the nanocomposite films.

XRD analysis showed (Fig. 4a) that for TiO₂/rGO, most of the reflections correspond to the anatase modification of TiO₂. Reflections were recorded at 25.31°, 36.99°, 37.85°, 38.59°, 48.05°, 53.96°, 55.08°, 62.14°, 62.74°, 68.85°, 70.31°, 74.17°, 75.11°, 76.06°, 80.88°, 82.73°, and 83.19°, with the exception of a peak around 27°, which corresponds to the rutile modification with Miller index (101). It is important to note that almost all peaks match with the Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) database (card #01-070-7348). For Au NPs, XRD patterns should appear at 38.11°, 44.27°, 64.42°, and 77.47°. However, these reflections were not identified due to the low concentration of Au NPs and the overlap of some peaks with TiO₂ reflections. It is known that graphene oxide has only one peak, corresponding to the graphite plane with Miller index (001) around 10.5°. Nevertheless, it was not detected in the measured spectra due to the low concentration of rGO relative to TiO₂ and the high intensity of the latter's peaks.

The presence of rGO in the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite was confirmed by Raman spectroscopy (Fig. 4b). In the spectra of the nanocomposite, Raman bands were observed with maxima at 1350 and 1590 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the D- and G-bands of rGO.^[56] The crystalline structure of the anatase modification of TiO₂ is tetragonal. The unit cell consists of two primitive cells, each containing two blocks with a space group D 19/4h. According to group theory, anatase TiO₂ has six active Raman modes, which correspond to E_g mode at 144 cm⁻¹, E_g at 197 cm⁻¹, B_{1g} at 399 cm⁻¹, B_{1g} at 513 cm⁻¹, A_{1g} at 519 cm⁻¹, and E_g at 638.2 cm⁻¹.^[57] However, in our studies, the peak at 197 cm⁻¹ was not recorded due to its low intensity.

The maximum of the absorption of TiO₂/rGO is in the UV region at ~320 nm, with an absorption edge at ~380–400 nm

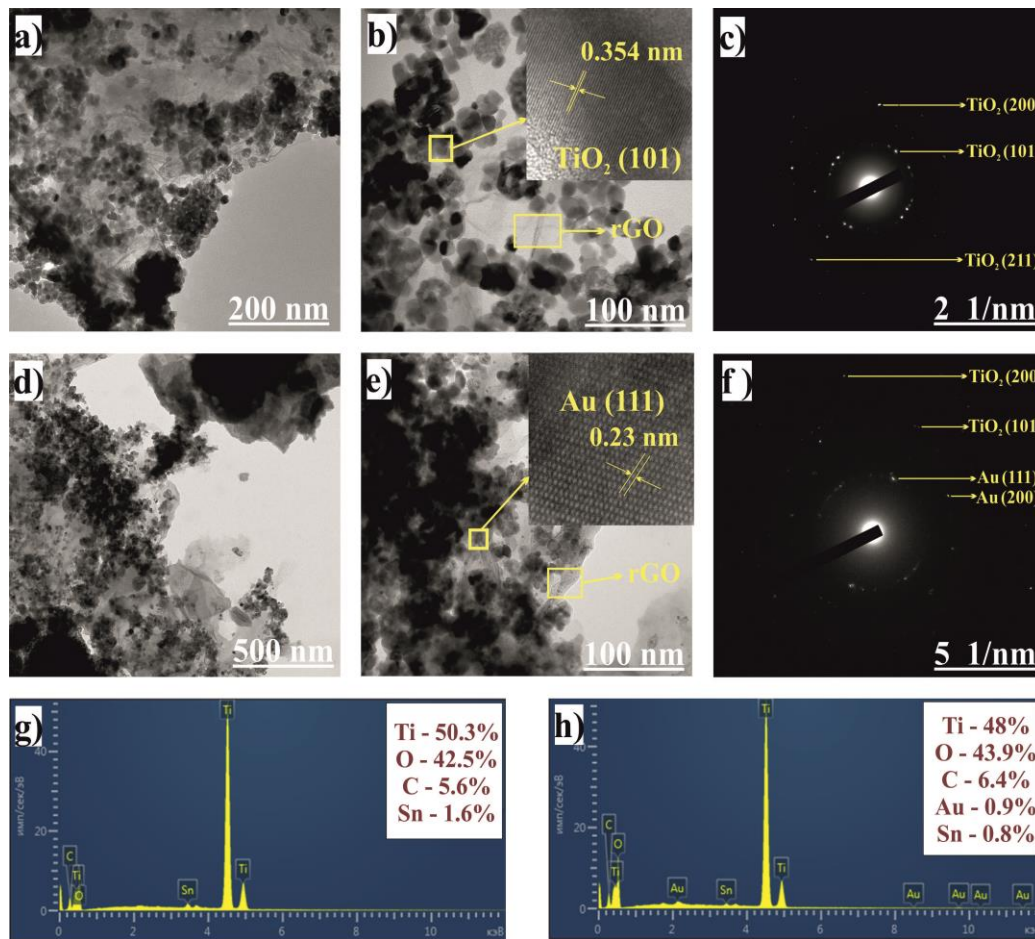


Fig. 3 TEM (a), (d), HRTEM (b), (e), SAED pattern (c), (f) and EDA (g), (h) spectra of neat TiO₂/rGO and TGA-35 samples.

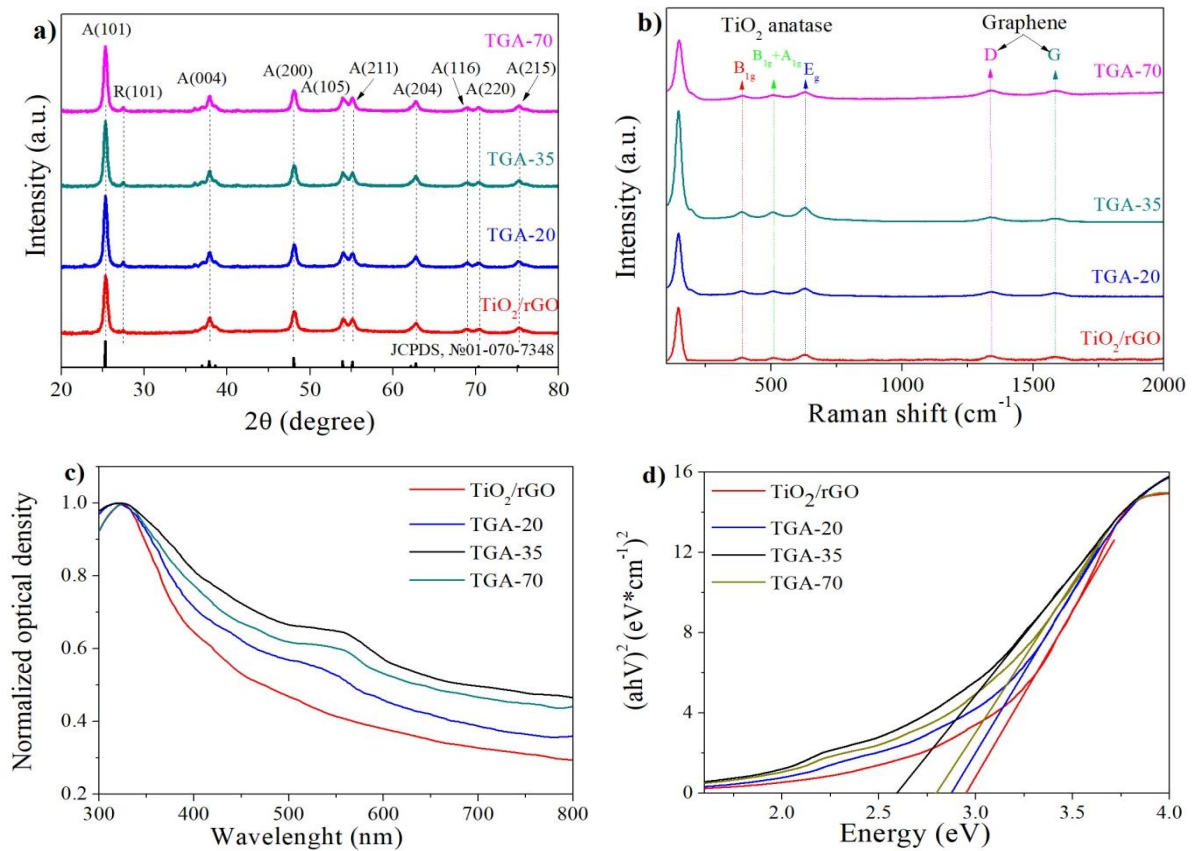


Fig. 4 XRD (a), Raman spectra (b), absorbance spectra (c), and Tauc plot (d) of neat TiO₂/rGO and TGA samples.

(Fig. 4c). When plasmon NPs were added to the nanocomposite, a weakly pronounced absorption appears at 520–540 nm, which coincides with the absorption of Au NPs. The observed bathochromic shift of the absorption of NPs in the semiconductor matrix relative to the spectra in ethanol may be associated with the dependence of the absorption of plasmon NPs on the properties of the environment. According to the Mie theory,^[58,59] it follows that the polarizability of the metal NPs (α) is determined by the Clausius-Mossotti equation (Eq. (1)):

$$\alpha = 3\varepsilon_0 V \left(\frac{\varepsilon - \varepsilon_m}{\varepsilon + 2\varepsilon_m} \right) \quad (1)$$

where ε_0 is the permittivity of vacuum, ε_m is the permittivity of the medium surrounding the NPs, ε is the permittivity of the metal NP, and V is the volume of spherical NP. Thus, it is clear that the polarizability of the NPs directly depends on the size of the NP and its permittivity. The imaginary part of the permittivity, in turn, determines the absorption of light in the metal NPs.

The Tauc method was used to determine the optical band gap of TiO₂ in the presence of rGO and plasmon NPs (Fig. 4d). The calculated value of the band gap of the semiconductor in the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite is 2.94 eV; for TGA-20, TGA-35 and TGA-70 samples, it equal to 2.83, 2.60 and 2.76 eV. The narrowing of the band gap of the nanocomposite is a consequence of the disalignment of the Fermi level in the semiconductor under its doping with metal NPs.^[60,61] A decrease in the band gap of the semiconductor and the presence of additional absorption in the visible region in the

presence of plasmon NPs increases the light-harvesting properties of the TiO₂/rGO in the visible range of the spectrum. Reducing the band gap width of TiO₂ should contribute to the more efficient generation of electron-hole pairs in the nanocomposite and their participation in photocatalytic processes.

Two methods were used to evaluate the photocatalytic activity of nanocomposite materials: measurement of the photoinduced current of the film and monitoring of the photodegradation of MB and CR dyes. The measurements showed that in the absence of radiation, the photocurrent value for all samples is zero (Fig. 5a). When the light is turned on, the photocurrent value (I_{ph}) instantly increases to 17 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$. The addition of Au NPs makes it possible to significantly increase the values of the generated photocurrent. The highest photocurrent value was recorded for the TGA-35 sample, where the I_{ph} is 2.3 times higher than for pure TiO₂/rGO. The photocurrent of TGA-20 and TGA-70 nanocomposites is lower than in TGA-35, but is still 1.5 and 1.7 times higher than for TiO₂/rGO, respectively.

An increase in the value of I_{ph} indicates the appearance of more free electrons in the nanocomposite, which can participate in photochemical reactions, for example, during the water splitting or purification of water from various organic pollutants. The photodegradation of MB and CR has shown similar results (Figs. 5b and 5c). The degradation of dyes was estimated from the changes in their optical density at the maximum of the absorption band of MB (662 nm) and CR (494 nm) according to the procedure described in Ref. [62]. It

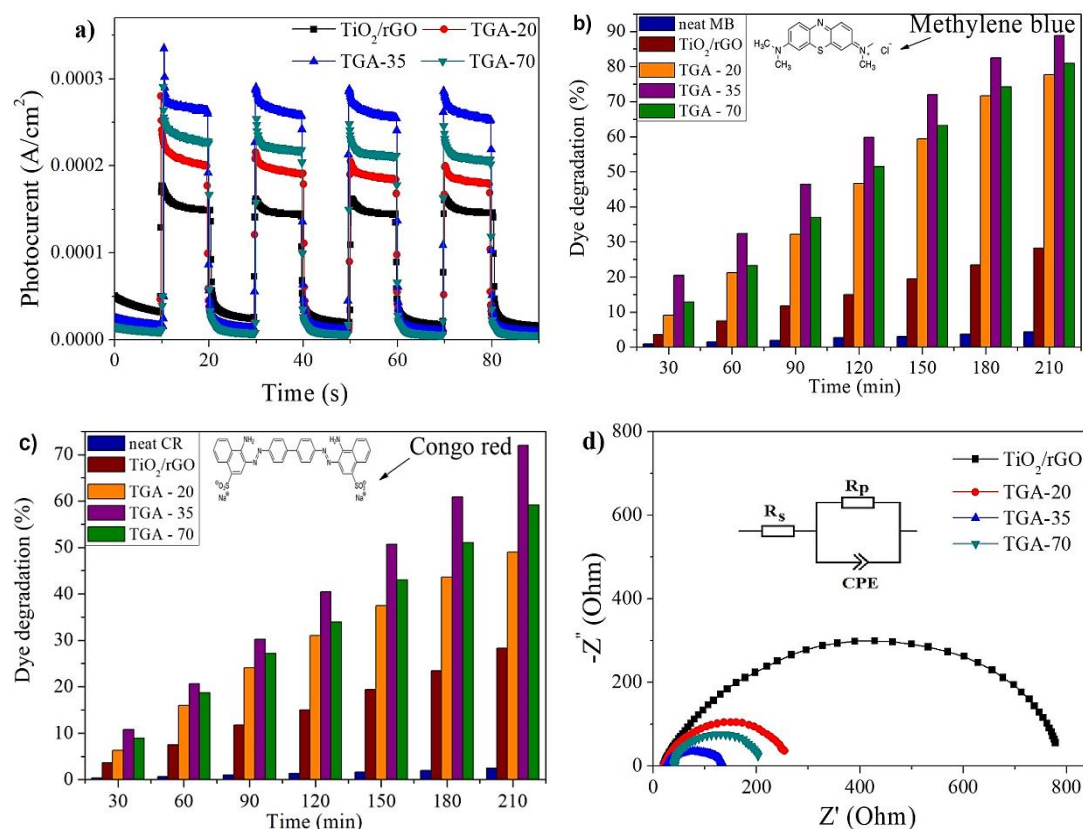


Fig. 5 Photocurrent (a), MB (b), and CR (c) dyes degradation and impedance spectra (d) of neat TiO₂/rGO and TGA samples.

can be seen from the presented data that upon prolonged irradiation of pure MB and CR solutions, their optical density changed slightly. However, the optical density, and therefore the dye concentration, was decreased when TiO₂/rGO films were immersed in a dye solution. It indicates the degradation of dyes. Moreover, the longer irradiation led to greater degradation for both MB and CR. The introduction of plasmon NPs into the TiO₂/rGO structure results in intensification of the photodegradation of dyes. The highest changes in dye concentrations were observed for dyes in the presence of a TGA-35 film. After 210 minutes of irradiation, the concentration of MB was decreased by 88% and CR by 77%, which is 3 and 2.6 times higher than in the sample without Au NPs. In the presence of TGA-20 and TGA-70 films, the degradation of MB and CR is lower than in TGA-35, but it is significantly higher than in TiO₂/rGO. This indicates that in the presence of Au NPs in the nanocomposite, a more efficient generation of charge carriers occurs, which are involved in the processes of photodegradation of organic dyes.

Impedance spectra in Nyquist coordinates of the nanocomposite samples without and with Au NPs are shown in Fig. 5d. Using the EIS spec software (Corrtest Instr.), a simple equivalent circuit was selected, taking into account the best fitting of the measured and modeled curves. In this case, the software calculates the value of the serial and parallel resistances and capacitances of the constant phase element (CPE). CPE is used to model non-ideal capacitive behavior in electrochemical systems or electronic circuits. In addition, using the calculation algorithm presented in Ref. [63], the effective electron lifetime (τ_{eff}) in a nanocomposite material was calculated using the central arc of the impedance spectra (Table 2). The value R_s characterizes the equivalent resistance of the film from the entire volume of the nanocomposite and the contact resistance between the layers. R_p simulates the resistance of charge carrier transfer at the interface of the studied layer with the electrode. As the results showed, the values of R_s resistances for all samples are almost identical and are in the confidence error range, which indicates that all assembled electrochemical cells are technologically identical. The value of the charge carrier transfer resistance (R_p) for TiO₂/rGO is about 762 Ohms, which is 5 times higher than that for TGA-35 and 2.9 and 3.7 times higher than that for TGA-20 and TGA-70, respectively.

Table 2. Numerical values of calculations of electrophysical parameters of nanocomposite films obtained from impedance spectroscopy data.

Sample	R_s (Ohm)	CPE	R_p (Ohm)	τ_{eff} (s)
TiO ₂ /rGO	23.00	$1.92 \cdot 10^{-5}$	762.00	0.062
TGA-20	36.00	$3.97 \cdot 10^{-5}$	260.00	0.020
TGA-35	24.00	$2.93 \cdot 10^{-5}$	149.00	0.012
TGA-70	27.00	$3.58 \cdot 10^{-5}$	205.00	0.018

The effective electron lifetime in TGA-35 is 5 times less than in TiO₂/rGO, and 1.7 and 1.4 times less than in TGA-20

and TGA-70. This indicates that in the samples with Au NPs electrons reach the counter electrodes faster and more efficiently due to changes in resistance and improved charge transport in the volume of the nanocomposite. This contributes to the effective separation of electron-hole pairs, allowing them to participate in photocatalysis reactions.

In earlier works,^[64-66] the mechanisms of enhanced photocatalytic properties of semiconductor materials in the presence of plasmon NPs were explained as increased optical absorption of a semiconductor due to LPR, injection of hot electrons from NPs into TiO₂ and resonant photon scattering. Much later, the mechanisms were supplemented in Ref. [67] in the quantum-mechanical approximation, where the LPR promotes electronic transitions from one to other states of the sp-band but with different electronic pulses, which correspond to intraband transitions. Hot electrons of Au NPs from intraband transitions have higher energy than the Fermi level and can be transferred to the empty states in reagents. The transferred electrons can activate chemical bonds by filling anti-binding orbitals. The stronger electronic bond between reagents and nanocrystals leads to an easier transition. Thus, the diffusion of hot carriers to the surface of semiconductor nanocrystals and their possible participation in the photocatalytic reaction play a decisive role in the growth of the catalytic efficiency of nanocomposites.

The dependence of the photocatalytic activity of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite on the size of Au NPs can be explained by the hot electron injection cut-off effect.^[68] As shown above, the plasmon resonance spectrum of Au NPs shifts to the red region of the spectrum with an increase in the average diameter of NPs. Consequently, the NPs will absorb photons of lower energy, which could result in both a reduced number of generated hot electrons and their faster decay. This leads to a lower probability of hot electron injection into the semiconductor's conduction band and a smaller contribution to the recorded photocurrent. On the other hand, the relatively longer lifetime of hot electrons excited by photons of shorter wavelengths, as well as the higher energy of these electrons, allow more efficient separation of charge carriers at the metal NPs-semiconductor interface and their injection into TiO₂. It is reasonable to assume that the NPs size plays a significant role in this process. The dependence of the decay time of hot electrons on excitation energy and diameter has been demonstrated in Refs. [69,70] The decay time of hot electrons in NPs of small diameter (less than 20 nm) is shorter than in larger NPs. It was shown that the injection efficiency decreases with increasing particle volume for Au NPs with a diameter of more than 40 nm.^[68,71,72] At the same time, NPs with a size of less than 10 nm have relatively low light absorption due to surface attenuation effects.^[68,72] As the obtained data show, the most optimal ratio between the relaxation time of hot electrons and their energy is achieved in Au NPs with a diameter of 35 ± 10 nm.

In addition, it should be taken into account that plasmon NPs contribute to more efficient light harvesting by the

semiconductor due to their absorption in the visible region of the spectrum, as we showed earlier in Ref. [53]. The combination of efficient transfer of hot electrons from the NPs to the semiconductor and increased light absorption is manifested in the growth of the photocatalytic activity of the nanocomposite based on TiO₂ and rGO.

4. Conclusions

The effect of gold NPs of various diameters on the properties of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite material was studied. Au NPs with an average diameter of 20 ± 10.6 nm, 35 ± 10.0 nm, and 70 ± 11.1 nm were obtained by laser ablation. The NPs concentration in the nanocomposite was ~10⁻¹¹ mol/L.

HRTEM images confirmed the successful formation of a TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite with Au NPs. Characteristic peaks of TiO₂ (101) and Au (111) with interplane distances of 0.35 and 0.23 nm were identified from the patterns of diffraction rings. XRD data showed that TiO₂ is mainly in anatase modification with minor inclusions of rutile. Raman spectroscopy has established six active Raman modes, which correspond to E_g, B_{1g}, A_{1g} modes for TiO₂ and Raman scattering peaks at 1350 and 1590 cm⁻¹ corresponding to rGO. The measurement of the absorption spectra showed that the maximum peak of TiO₂/rGO absorption is in the UV region at ~320 nm. The absorption of Au NPs exhibits at 520 – 540 nm. The addition of plasmon NPs to the TiO₂/rGO improve the light-harvesting of the nanocomposite and reduce its band width from 2.94 to 2.60 eV.

The photocatalytic activity of the samples was estimated by measuring the photoinduced current of films and photodegradation of MB and CR dyes. It is shown that the addition of plasmon NPs to a semiconductor can significantly increase the photocurrent generated. The highest photocurrent value was observed for the samples with 35 ± 10.0 nm Au NPs. In this case the photocurrent values are 2.3 times higher than for pure TiO₂/rGO. The photodegradation of dyes repeats this trend. The resistance to charge carriers transfer for TiO₂/rGO is about 762 Ohms, which is 5 times more than for TGA-35 and 2.9 and 3.7 times more than TGA-20 and TGA-70, respectively. The effective electron lifetime in TGA-35 is 5 times less than that in TiO₂/rGO, 1.7 and 1.4 times less than in TGA-20 and TGA-70. This indicates that the introduction of Au NPs into TiO₂/rGO results in faster and more efficient electron transport in the volume of the nanocomposite, that contributes to the effective separation of electron-hole pairs, allowing them to participate in photocatalysis reactions.

The dependence of the photocatalytic activity of the TiO₂/rGO nanocomposite on the size of Au NPs can be explained by the hot electron injection cut-off effect. More detailed information on the manifestation of this effect can be obtained using the transient absorption method and quantum chemical calculations. The results of this work can be used for the development of photocatalysts with improved light-harvesting and electrophysical characteristics for use in photoelectrochemical cells, for hydrogen generation,

photodegradation of organic compounds, etc.

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Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest.

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Supporting Information

Not applicable.

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