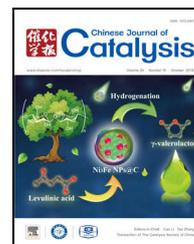


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## Article

# Generation and transformation of ROS on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> for efficient photocatalytic NO removal: A combined *in situ* DRIFTS and DFT investigation



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## ABSTRACT

Understanding the performance of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in photocatalysis is pivotal for advancing their application in environmental remediation. However, techniques for investigating the generation and transformation mechanism of ROS have been largely overlooked. In this study, considering g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> to be a model photocatalyst, we have focused on the ROS generation and transformation for efficient photocatalytic NO removal. It was found that the key to improving the photocatalysis performance was to enhance the ROS transformation from •O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to •OH, elevating the production of •OH. The ROS directly participate in the photocatalytic NO removal and tailor the rate-determining step, which is required to overcome the high activation energy of the intermediate conversion. Using a closely combined experimental and theoretical method, this work provides a new protocol to investigate the ROS behavior on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> for effective NO removal and clarifies the reaction mechanism at the atomic level, which enriches the understanding of ROS in photocatalytic environmental remediation.

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## 1. Introduction

Reactive radicals are of key importance in many fields of degradation of environmental pollutants, such as heterogeneous catalysis for the NO<sub>x</sub>/VOCs removal [1,2], advanced oxidation for the organic pollutants treatment of wastewater [3,4]

and photocatalytic environmental remediation [5–7]. Thus, the generation and transformation of active radicals gives rise to a general concern in the environmental and catalysis fields. As in photocatalysis, the redox reactivity is brought about by photo-excited electrons (e<sup>-</sup>) and holes (h<sup>+</sup>) produced in the photocatalysts [8–10]. Several active radicals, which are the major

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source of oxidation capacity, are subsequently generated through the redox reaction with  $e^-$  and  $h^+$ . As photocatalysis normally takes place involving oxygen and water as the reactants, the reactive radicals converted by oxygen and water are thus called reactive oxygen species (ROS) [11].

Since ROS are the primary oxidants in photocatalytic environmental remediation, the generation and transformation of ROS is important to understand the photocatalysis mechanism, which improves the photocatalytic efficiency and facilitates practical applications. Four major ROS are commonly recognized, which include superoxide radical ( $\bullet O_2^-$ ), singlet oxygen ( $^1O_2$ ), hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) and hydroxyl radical ( $\bullet OH$ ) [12–14]. In a typical photocatalysis reaction, since both reduction and oxidation occur simultaneously, ROS could be generated through the  $h^+$  induced stepwise oxidation path of  $H_2O$ , alongwith the production of  $\bullet OH$ ,  $H_2O_2$ ,  $\bullet O_2^-$  and  $^1O_2$  [15,16]. On the other hand, the stepwise reduction of  $O_2$  generates  $\bullet O_2^-$ ,  $H_2O_2$  and  $\bullet OH$  [17]. Among these,  $\bullet OH$  and  $\bullet O_2^-$  are recognized as the most stable radicals during the reaction, which can be effectively detected and are regarded as important reactants in the photocatalytic oxidation process.

In typical photocatalysts, their band structures, which possess wide bandgaps and suitable band edges to align the redox potential of  $O_2/\bullet O_2^-$  and  $OH^-/\bullet OH$  [18], normally provide a tolerated band range to produce both  $\bullet O_2^-$  and  $\bullet OH$  [19,20]. Hence, the generation mechanism of ROS can be directly summarized as:  $O_2 + e^- \rightarrow \bullet O_2^-$  and  $OH^- + h^+ \rightarrow \bullet OH$  [21]. However, in some new types of two-dimensional photocatalysts such as graphite carbon nitride ( $g-C_3N_4$ ) [22–26] and  $MoS_2$  [27–29], their valence band (VB) edge is not low enough to directly oxidize  $H_2O$  to generate  $\bullet OH$  [30,31]. Thus,  $\bullet OH$  are generated through the  $O_2$  reduction at the conduction band (CB), along the paths:  $O_2 + e^- \rightarrow \bullet O_2^-$ ,  $\bullet O_2^- + 2H^+ + e^- \rightarrow H_2O_2$  and  $H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2\bullet OH$  [32–34]. However, the rate-determining step in the reaction pathways has not been clarified yet. As a major ROS with high oxidation capacity,  $\bullet OH$  manifests much more importance in photocatalytic remediation than  $\bullet O_2^-$  [11,35]. The generation mechanism of  $\bullet OH$  is thus required to be further investigated. Moreover, understanding the conversion of ROS driven pollutants is highly desirable, in order to direct the design of photocatalysts toward more efficient environmental and energy applications.

In this study, we have synthesized  $g-C_3N_4$  with a facile method based on the property that it exhibits photocatalytic activity toward NO removal. By a combined *in situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) and density functional theory (DFT) method, it is determined that the  $H_2O_2$  dissociation is the rate-determining step of  $\bullet OH$  generation in  $g-C_3N_4$  and the reaction coordinates of ROS driven NO removal are presented. It is found that the oxidation capacity of  $g-C_3N_4$  largely depends on the production and oxidation capacity of  $\bullet OH$ , rather than  $\bullet O_2^-$ . This article presents a research protocol to investigate the photocatalytic ROS generation and transformation, and clarifies the reaction mechanism of ROS driven NO removal. This approach could be extended to many environmental and catalytic applications.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Photocatalyst fabrication

All chemicals used in this study were analytical grade and no further treatment was required. The CN product was fabricated with a reported method [36]. In a typical synthesis procedure, 10 g thiourea was added to a crucible with 20 mL deionized water. The mixed solution was dried at 80 °C for recrystallization. Then, the precursor was placed in a semi-closed alumina crucible with a cover and roasted at 550 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 15 °C/min in static air. After the calcining treatment, the crucible was cooled to room temperature.

### 2.2. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to investigate the crystal phases with  $Cu K\alpha$  radiation (model D/max RA, Rigaku Co. Japan). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, model JSM-6490, JEOL, Japan) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEM-2010, Japan) were used to investigate the morphology. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were recorded on a Nicolet Nexus spectrometer (IRPrestige-21, SHIMADAZU, Japan) using samples embedded in KBr pellets. A scanning UV-vis spectrophotometer (TU-1901, China) was used to characterize the UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectrometry. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were investigated using a fluorescence spectrophotometer (Edinburgh Instruments, FLSP-920) equipped with a Xe lamp with an excitation wavelength of 420 nm. Electron spin resonance (ESR) spectra of chemical radicals were obtained on a JES FA200 spectrometer to determine the involvement of the ROS in methanol dispersion for  $DMPO\text{-}\bullet O_2^-$  and aqueous dispersion for  $DMPO\text{-}\bullet OH$ , respectively.

### 2.3. Photocatalytic efficiency evaluation

The photocatalytic activity was investigated via the NO removal at 500 ppb in a self-designed continuous-flow reactor (Scheme S1 in the Supplementary Information). The rectangular reactor (30 cm × 15 cm × 10 cm) is made of polymeric glass and covered with Saint-Glass. The as-prepared sample (0.20 g) was dispersed onto two glass dishes for testing. A 150 W tungsten halogen lamp (0.16 W/cm<sup>2</sup>) was vertically placed above the reactor. After the adsorption-desorption equilibrium was achieved, the lamp was turned on. The NO gas was acquired from a compressed gas cylinder at a concentration of 100 ppm of NO ( $N_2$  balance). The initial concentration of NO was diluted to about 550 ppb by a zero air generator and the relative humidity (RH) level of the NO flow was controlled at 50% by passing zero air stream through a humidification chamber. The flow rates of the air stream and NO were controlled at 2.4 L/min and 24 mL/min, respectively. The NO removal ratio ( $\eta$ ) was calculated as

$$\eta(\%) = (1 - C/C_0) \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

where  $C$  and  $C_0$  refer to the NO concentration in the outlet stream and feeding stream, respectively. The resulting final product (nitrate) was removed by washing the dilute NaOH

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