



Engineering the nanoarchitecture and texture of polymeric carbon nitride semiconductor for enhanced visible light photocatalytic activity

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ABSTRACT

In order to develop $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ for better visible light photocatalysis, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanoarchitectures were synthesized by direct pyrolysis of cheap urea at 550 °C and engineered through the variation of pyrolysis time. By prolonging the pyrolysis time, the crystallinity of the resulted sample was enhanced, the thickness and size of the layers were reduced, the surface area and pore volume were significantly enlarged, and the band structure was modified. Especially for urea treated for 4 h, the obtained $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets possessed high surface area (288 m^2/g) due to the reduced layer thickness and the improved porous structure. A layer exfoliation and splitting mechanism was proposed to explain the gradual reduction of layer thickness and size of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanoarchitectures with increased pyrolysis time. The as-synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples were applied for photocatalytic removal of gaseous NO and aqueous RhB under visible light irradiation. It was found that the activity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was gradually improved as the pyrolysis time was prolonged from 0 min to 240 min. The enhanced crystallinity, reduced layer thickness, high surface area, large pore volume, enlarged band gap, and reduced number of defects were responsible for the activity enhancement of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample treated for a longer time. As the precursor urea is very cheap and the synthesis method is facile template-free, the as-synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanoscale sheets could provide an efficient visible light driven photocatalyst for large-scale applications.

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1. Introduction

Over the past decades, visible light driven photocatalysis attracted intensive research interest worldwide due to their potential applications in environmental pollution control and solar energy conversion [1–8]. Various types of visible light photocatalytic materials have been developed. These photocatalytic materials can be divided into four types depending on their composition and band structure, including metal/nonmetal doped semiconductors with large band gap (such as C/N-doped TiO_2 , N-doped $(\text{BiO})_2\text{CO}_3$) [9–13], metal containing semiconductors with narrow band gap (such as Bi_2WO_6 , Bi_3NbO_7 , BiOBr) [14–17], plasmonic noble metals (such as Au, Pt) [18,19], and more recently discovered metal-free polymeric semiconductors (such as $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, red phosphorus and $\alpha\text{-S}_8$) [20–22]. The different types of photocatalytic materials could be coupled to further enhance the activity on the basis of band gap engineering [23,24].

The discovery of polymeric graphitic carbon nitride ($g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$) as visible light driven metal-free photocatalyst was first reported by Wang et al. [20]. It was found that $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is a multifunctional cat-

alyst and has been applied in broad areas owing to its high stability, appealing electronic structure and medium band gap [20]. Generally speaking, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can be synthesized by pyrolysis of nitrogen-rich precursors via polycondensation or pyrolysis. The typical precursors include cyanamide, dicyandiamide, trithiocyanuric acid, melamine, triazine, heptazine derivatives, and more recently discovered urea and thiourea [20,25–36]. The types of precursors have significant influence on the texture, electronic structure, and performance of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ due to the different formation processes and degree of condensation [25–36]. Very recently, urea, as a very cheap and abundant industrial agent, is found to be a superior precursor [36,37]. The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ prepared via pyrolysis of urea has relatively large surface area and thus high photocatalytic activity [36,37].

To increase the reactivity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, many strategies have been employed to modify $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, such as texture tuning by template, band gap modification by heteroatoms doping, post-functionalization, and coupling with other semiconductors [38,39]. The modified $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based photocatalysts with favorable structure have shown encouraging activity enhancement. In general, a high surface area is desirable in order to improve the photocatalytic activity, which could provide more active sites for adsorption and reaction [38,39]. To achieve a high surface area, templates are

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usually employed to introduce pores in various types of photocatalytic materials. Wang et al. synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with large surface area ($239\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) by pyrolysis of cyanamide/ammonium thiocyanate templated by silica [40]. Xu et al. synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with surface area of $128\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ via silica template from pyrolysis of thiourea [41]. Yuliati et al. also applied templating strategy to increase the surface area of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ($224\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) using urea as precursor [42]. The resultant $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ showed markedly enhanced visible light photocatalytic activities toward hydrogen evolution or pollutants degradation [40–42]. Recent works for achieving high density and close-packed silica templates by directed self-assembly could also be potentially applied in template synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ [43,44].

Recently, we have synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with high visible light photocatalytic activity by pyrolysis of urea or thiourea in the absence of template [33,36]. Under the same pyrolysis conditions, the surface area of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample ($75\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) from urea is higher than that of samples prepared directly from thiourea ($27\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) and other precursors. However, it is still lower than the ones that were prepared in the presence of templates.

In the present work, we engineer the nanoarchitecture and the texture of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ prepared by urea by a facile template-free. The effects of pyrolysis time on the microstructure and activity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ are systematically investigated. Unexpectedly, we find that the surface areas of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can be significantly increased to $288\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ by just prolonging the pyrolysis time to 240 min under $550\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The surface area is even higher than that of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ synthesized via templating method, further demonstrating the great advantages of using urea as precursor. A new layer exfoliation and splitting mechanism was proposed to account for this unexpected interesting result. To the best of our knowledge, there is no report on template-free synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ materials with such high surface areas. It is also interesting to note that the crystallinity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ increases with prolonged pyrolysis time. Through the present way, the enhancement of crystallinity and the increase in surface areas can be achieved simultaneously, which are two favorable factors for promoting the photocatalytic activity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The as-synthesized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ material with high surface area is further employed for photocatalytic removal of gaseous NO and aqueous RhB and showed efficient activity under visible light irradiation.

2. Materials and method

2.1. Synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ from urea

The $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was synthesized from urea by a facile template-free method [36]. In a typical synthesis, 10 g of urea powder was put into an alumina crucible with a cover and then heated to $550\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in a muffle furnace for a certain time at a heating rate of $15\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$. The resulted powder was collected for use without further treatment. In order to investigate the effects of pyrolysis time, $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was synthesized at $550\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 0, 15, 30, 60, 120 and 240 min, respectively. The resulted samples were labeled as CN-0, CN-15, CN-30, CN-60, CN-120 and CN-240, respectively. Note that the pyrolysis time does not include the time the furnace spent to raise the temperature to $550\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. All the as-prepared samples were pale yellow.

2.2. Characterization methods

The crystal phase was analyzed by X-ray diffraction with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation (XRD: model D/max RA, Japan) at a scan rate of $0.01^\circ 2\theta/\text{s}$. The scan range of 2θ was $5\text{--}80^\circ$. To perform the thermogravimetric-differential scanning calorimetry analysis (TG-DSC: NETZSCH STA 409 PC/PG), 20 mg dry sample was sealed in an Al_2O_3 crucible

with a lid and scanned at a rate of $20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$. FT-IR spectra were recorded on a Nicolet Nexus spectrometer on samples embedded in KBr pellets. A scanning electron microscope (SEM, JEOL model JSM-6490, Japan) was used to characterize the morphology of the samples. The UV–vis diffuse reflection spectra were obtained for the dry-pressed disk samples using a Scan UV–vis spectrophotometer (UV–vis DRS: UV-2450, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with an integrating sphere assembly, using BaSO_4 as reflectance sample. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were obtained on a nitrogen adsorption apparatus (ASAP 2020, USA) with all samples degassed at $150\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 12 h prior to measurements. The photoluminescence spectra were measured with a fluorescence spectrophotometer (F-7000, Japan) using a Xe lamp as excitation source with optical filters. The detection of hydroxyl radicals during photocatalysis was conducted to according to reported method [45].

2.3. Visible light photocatalytic activity

2.3.1. Degradation of gaseous NO

The photocatalytic activity was investigated by removal of NO at ppb levels in a continuous flow reactor at ambient temperature. The volume of the rectangular reactor, made of stainless steel and covered with Saint-Glass, was 4.5 L ($30\text{ cm} \times 15\text{ cm} \times 10\text{ cm}$). A 150 W commercial tungsten halogen lamp was vertically placed outside the reactor. A UV cutoff filter (420 nm) was adopted to remove UV light in the light beam. Photocatalyst (0.1 g) was coated onto a dish with a diameter of 12.0 cm. The coated dish was then pretreated at $70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to remove water in the suspension. The NO gas was acquired from a compressed gas cylinder at a concentration of 100 ppm of NO (N_2 balance, BOC gas). The initial concentration of NO was diluted to about 600 ppb by the air stream. The desired relative humidity (RH) level of the NO flow was controlled at 50% by passing the zero air streams through a humidification chamber. The gas streams were premixed completely by a gas blender, and the flow rate was controlled at 2.4 L/min by a mass flow controller. After the adsorption–desorption equilibrium was achieved, the lamp was turned on. The concentration of NO was continuously measured by a chemiluminescence NO analyzer (Thermo Environmental Instruments Inc., 42i-TL), which monitors NO and NO_2 with a sampling rate of 1.0 L/min. The removal ratio (η) of NO was calculated as $\eta(\%) = (1 - C/C_0) \times 100\%$, where C and C_0 are concentrations of NO in the outlet steam and the feeding stream, respectively.

2.3.2. Degradation of aqueous RhB

Photocatalytic activity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ polymer for degradation of aqueous Rodamine B (RhB) was evaluated in a quartz glass reactor. 0.05 g of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was dispersed in RhB aqueous solution (55 mL, 5 mg/L). The suspension was stirred intensively to eliminate the influence of mass transfer. The light irradiation system contains a 500 W Xe lamp with a jacket filled with flowing and thermostatted aqueous NaNO_2 solution (1 M) between the lamp and the reaction chamber as a filter to block UV light ($\lambda < 400\text{ nm}$) and eliminate the temperature effect. Before irradiation, the suspension was allowed to reach equilibrium with continuous stirring for 60 min. The degradation efficiency of RhB was evaluated using the UV–vis absorption spectra to measure the peak value of a maximum absorption of RhB solution. During the irradiation, 5 mL of suspension was continually taken from the reaction cell at given time intervals for subsequent dye concentration analysis after centrifuging. The maximum absorption of RhB is at wavelength of 552 nm. The removal ratio (%) can be calculated as $\eta(\%) = (C_0 - C)/C_0 \times 100\%$, where C_0 is the initial concentration of RhB considering RhB adsorption on the catalyst and C is the revised concentration after irradiation.

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