

In-situ synthesis of sodium doped g-C₃N₄ by high temperature copolymerization and photocatalytic performance

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ABSTRACT: Na⁺-doped g-C₃N₄ (Na(x)-CN) was synthesized via a facile *in-situ* thermal polymerization with dicyandiamide and sodium chloride and compared with g-C₃N₄ treated with sodium chloride solution (CN/NaCl) and g-C₃N₄ combined with sodium chloride (CN@NaCl). The resultant catalysts were characterized by various analytical methods. The results showed that Na⁺ was doped into the lattice gap of g-C₃N₄ by forming Na-N bond, which improved the valence band energy level of the catalyst and enhanced the oxidizability of holes (h⁺). In addition, the introduction of Na⁺ inhibited the growth of g-C₃N₄ grains, increased the specific surface area of g-C₃N₄ and the adsorption of dissolved oxygen and pollutants in water, which significantly improved the photocatalytic performance. The visible light catalytic performance of the catalyst gradually improved with the increase of Na⁺-doped content. The Na(0.1)-CN (sodium loading was 1.36%) showed the best photocatalytic performance, and the degradation rate was about 10 times that of g-C₃N₄. The degradation rate of MB reached 87% after 4 h of illumination.

KEYWORDS: sodium ion, carbon nitride, Na-doped graphite-carbon nitride, visible light, photocatalysis

INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development in renewable energy, the energy conversion and storage systems are becoming increasingly important [1]. Graphite phase carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) is a 2D lamellar semiconductor similar to graphene, which has the characteristics of easy preparation, stability, non-toxicity, no pollution, visible light response, etc. Therefore, it has received extensive attention from researchers in the environmental field [2, 3]. However, g-C₃N₄ prepared by traditional methods often has the problems of small specific surface area, narrow visible light response range and high recombination rate of photogenerated electron-hole pairs [4]. Therefore, many researchers are committed to the modification of photocatalysts such as morphology control [5–7], doped modification [8–10] and heterostructure formation with other substances [11–13].

Transition metal element-doped introduces impurity energy levels, reduces band gap and increases the specific surface area and extends the light absorption range of g-C₃N₄ [14]. For example, doping Fe [15], Ti [16], Zn [17], W [18], Cu [19], Mo [20], etc. can generate new acceptor energy levels below the conduction band or above the valence band of g-C₃N₄, thereby improving its photocatalytic activity. The chemical properties of alkali metal elements are generally active, so they are often used to adjust the electronic structure of photocatalysts [21]. Mohammad et al [22] prepared Na,O-co-doped g-C₃N₄ by thermal copolymerization of

urea and sodium hydroxide. It was found that Na,O-g-C₃N₄ has a low detection limit and high sensitivity for the electrochemical detection of hydrogen peroxide. Li et al [23] used thiourea and potassium iodide to synthesize K⁺-doped g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst by thermal polymerization. The results showed that K⁺ and N form K-N bond, adjust the band gap position of g-C₃N₄, reduce the band gap width, broaden the light response range and visible light absorption capacity, increase the separation efficiency of photo-generated carriers, and thus enhance the oxidation capacity of photo-generated holes. Guo et al [24] used dicyandiamide and potassium iodide as raw materials to prepare K and I co-doped g-C₃N₄ by thermal polymerization. It was found that K-doped mainly increased the electron migration rate, while I-doped enhanced the response to visible light. Jiang et al [25] dispersed g-C₃N₄ in MOH (M refers to Li, Na or K) solution to prepare alkali metal doped g-C₃N₄. The results showed that alkali metal doping increases the specific surface area of g-C₃N₄, reduces the band gap and improves the electronic structure of effective charge transfer.

In this work, Na⁺-doped g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst was prepared *in-situ* by high-temperature copolymerization method by taking dicyandiamide and sodium chloride as raw materials, and its structure and morphology were characterized, and the synthesis mechanism of Na⁺-doped g-C₃N₄ and the photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB) were clarified. The mechanism provides a certain reference for the study of alkali metal doping modification of g-C₃N₄.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

Dicyandiamide was supplied by Tianjin Fuchen Chemical Reagent Factory, sodium chloride from Tianjin Tianli Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., and MB from Tianjin Binhai Kedi Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China.

Preparation of g-C₃N₄ and Na⁺-doped g-C₃N₄

Firstly, 4 g of dicyandiamide was dissolved in 30 ml of hot deionized water and slowly filled into 20 ml of NaCl solution under stirring. Then, the mixed solution was heated, concentrated, and dried at 60 °C. After that, it was ground and placed in a covered semi-closed crucible before placing in a muffle furnace. The heating rate was 2 °C/min, and the temperature was kept at 550 °C for 2 h. After natural cooling, the product was ground, impregnated with boiling water, dispersed by ultrasound, filtered, washed with hot water for many times, dried at 105 °C, and ground to obtain Na⁺-doped g-C₃N₄ catalyst as Na(x)-CN, x refers to the molar concentration of NaCl in mol/l. If 20 ml of deionized water was used instead of 20 ml of NaCl solution; the other steps were the same as above, and g-C₃N₄ can be obtained.

Preparation of NaCl/g-C₃N₄ composite and g-C₃N₄ treated with NaCl solution

The prepared g-C₃N₄ was dispersed in 20 ml 0.1 mol/l NaCl solution, stirred, heated and concentrated, dried at 105 °C, and ground to obtain NaCl/g-C₃N₄ composite catalyst, which was denoted as CN@NaCl. After CN@NaCl was impregnated with boiling water, dispersed by ultrasound, filtered, washed with hot water for many times, dried and ground at 105 °C, the NaCl solution can be obtained to treat the g-C₃N₄ catalyst, which was denoted as CN/NaCl.

Photocatalyst characterization

The structure of catalyst was analyzed by X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Shimadzu XRD-7000) with Cu K_α ($\lambda=0.15406$ nm), the tube voltage is 40 kV, and the tube current is 30 mA). The morphology of catalyst was observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Zeiss Sigma300) equipped with energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS). The Na⁺-doped amount in catalyst was confirmed using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Perkin Elmer Elan6100DRC). The chemical composition and valence band position of catalyst were analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Thermo Fisher, Escalab 250 Xi), and C 1s (284.8 eV) was used as the calibration peak for charge correction. The optical characteristics was carried out by UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectrum (UV-Vis DRS, Shimadzu UV-2450) with BaSO₄ taken as reference material. The infrared spectra were recorded using Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FTIR, Bruker Tensor 27) with wavenumber range from 4000

to 400 cm⁻¹. The pore size distribution, N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm and specific surface area were analyzed by specific surface area and pore size analysis equipment (BET, Gold APP V-sorb 2800TP). The catalyst precursor was analyzed by thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA, Mettler-Toledo TGA/SDTA851) with N₂ (99.99%) flow rate 50 ml/min and temperature programmed from room temperature to 600 °C at 10 °C/min.

Photocatalytic activity measurements

The photocatalytic activities of these as-prepared photocatalysts were evaluated via degradation of MB under visible light irradiation. The 0.1 g of photocatalysts was added to 50 ml of 100 mg/l contaminant solution, followed by vigorous stirring for 1 h at room temperature in the dark. Subsequently, the degradation reaction was carried out under the light from a 400 W xenon lamp. The reaction solution was drawn at regular intervals and was filtered through a 0.45 μm microfiltration membrane. Finally, the diluted solution was used to determine the absorbance by UV-vis spectrometer at its characteristic peak of 664 nm.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characterization of photocatalysts

From Fig. 1, two characteristic diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 13.0^\circ$ and 27.3° appeared in the prepared catalysts, representing the (100) crystal plane of the g-C₃N₄ plane stacked graphite layer structure and the (002) crystal plane of the C-N aromatic heterocycle structure, respectively. In Fig. 1a, impurity diffraction peaks generated by incomplete decomposition and carbonization of dicyandiamide appeared at $2\theta = 44.2^\circ$, 64.5° and 77.5° . Na⁺-doped promoted the decomposition and carbonization of dicyandiamide. With the increase of Na⁺-doped amount, the intensity of impurity diffraction peaks gradually decreased, while the intensity of catalyst characteristic diffraction peaks did not change significantly, and there was no characteristic peak related to Na species. In addition, the CN@NaCl catalyst exhibited characteristic peaks of NaCl at $2\theta = 31.7^\circ$, 45.4° and 56.5° , while the diffraction peaks of CN/NaCl did not change (see Fig. 1b). Generally speaking, doping would change the lattice parameters of the original phase [26], but it was found from Fig. 1c that NaCl recombination, NaCl solution treatment or Na⁺-doped did not change the diffraction peak position of the g-C₃N₄ (002) crystal plane. This finding may be due to the small radius of Na⁺ so it would not destroy the crystal structure even if it enters the g-C₃N₄ crystal lattice. The doping amount of Na⁺ in Na(0.04)-CN, Na(0.06)-CN, Na(0.08)-CN and Na(0.1)-CN was 0.49%, 0.73%, 1.1% and 1.36%, respectively, which was determined by ICP-MS. The results showed that the doping amount of Na⁺ in Na(0.04)-CN, Na(0.06)-CN, Na(0.08)-CN and Na(0.1)-CN was 0.49 wt.%,

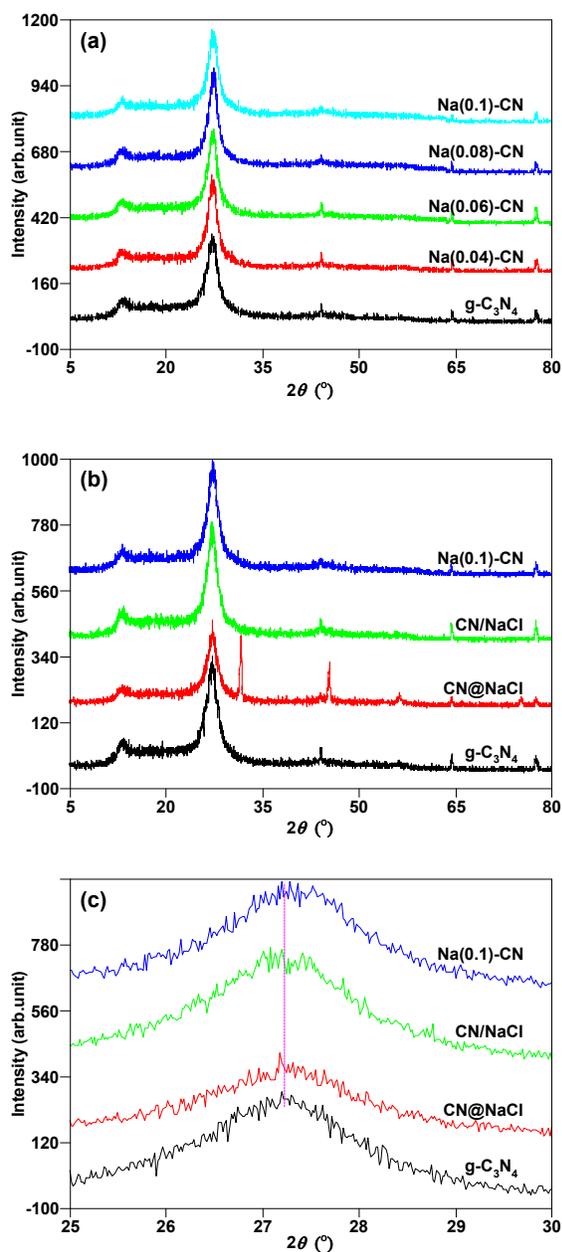


Fig. 1 XRD patterns of as-prepared catalysts.

0.73 wt.%, 1.1 wt.% and 1.36 wt.%, respectively.

As shown in Fig. S1, all catalysts showed similar absorption peaks, which were basically consistent with XRD analysis results. The broad peaks between 3174–3435 cm^{-1} were the O-H stretching vibration peaks of water molecules in the catalyst and the N-H stretching vibration peaks of uncondensed amino groups on the surface. The peaks between 1242–1636 cm^{-1} , which were 1242, 1322, 1412, 1569 and 1636 cm^{-1} corresponded to the C-N and C=N stretching vibration

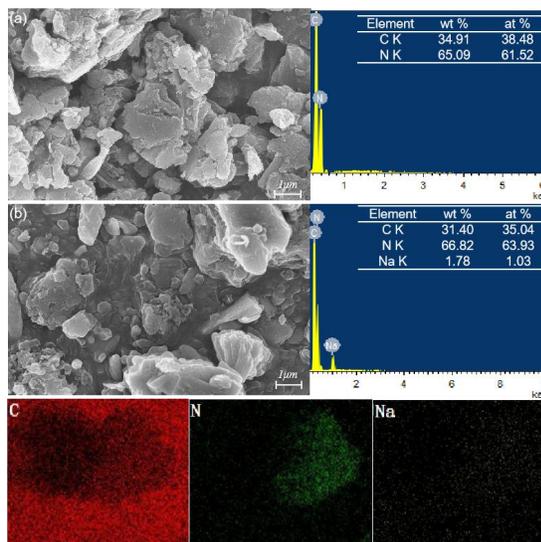


Fig. 2 SEM images and energy dispersive spectra of (a) $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and (b) Na(0.1)-CN .

peaks in C, N heterocyclic compounds. The absorption peak at 884 cm^{-1} corresponded to the N-H deformation peak, and 808 cm^{-1} was the characteristic peak of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ heptazine structure. The existence of absorption peaks of 808 cm^{-1} and 1242–1636 cm^{-1} proved that all samples had a typical heptazine phase structure of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. In addition, compared with other catalysts, Na(x)-CN had a stronger absorption peak at 2175 cm^{-1} , which is consistent with the position of azide framework vibration peak [27].

As displayed in Fig. 2, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ presented an irregular layered structure with a large particle size, while Na(0.1)-CN had a large number of particles formed; the particle size was obviously smaller, and the combination between particles and layered structure was relatively close. In addition, C and N in $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and C, N, and Na in Na(0.1)-CN were confirmed from energy dispersive spectra analysis. Moreover, the distribution of Na element in the whole measurement area was uniform, which indicated that doped Na^+ is uniformly dispersed in the crystal structure of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

As demonstrated in Fig. S2 and Table 1, both catalysts presented Type IV isotherms, indicating that both catalysts are mesoporous materials. The specific surface areas of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and Na(0.1)-CN calculated by BET method were 4.51 m^2/g and 5.53 m^2/g , respectively, which indicated that Na^+ -doped reduces the particle size of the catalyst, increases the external special surface area (S_{ext}) and micropore special surface area (S_{mic}), and then results in an increase of the total specific surface area (S_{BET}) [28].

The light absorption properties of the catalysts have a significant impact on the photocatalytic perfor-

Table 1 Characteristics of g-C₃N₄ and Na(0.1)-CN.

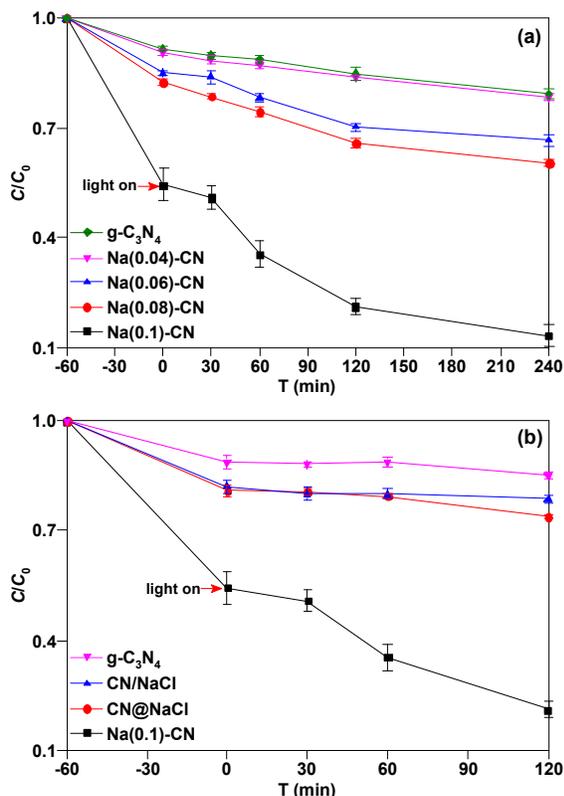
Sample	S_{BET} (m ² /g)	S_{ext} (m ² /g)	S_{mic} (m ² /g)	d_m (nm)	Pore volume (cm ³ /g)
g-C ₃ N ₄	4.51	2.89	1.62	45.31	0.06
Na(0.1)-CN	5.53	3.70	1.83	31.87	0.04

S_{BET} (BET surface area) determined by BET model; S_{ext} (external surface area); S_{mic} (micropore surface area); d_m calculated by BJH method from desorption branch.

mance. As shown in Fig. S3a, the absorption boundary of g-C₃N₄ was 442 nm. With the increase of Na⁺-doped amount, the absorbance of the catalyst increased, but the shift amplitude of the absorption boundary was small. As shown in Fig. S3b, the energy gap of g-C₃N₄, Na(0.04)-CN, Na(0.06)-CN, Na(0.08)-CN and Na(0.1)-CN are 2.68, 2.67, 2.66, 2.67 and 2.66 eV by the Kubelka-Munk equation, respectively. From Fig. S3c-d, it could be seen that the absorption boundaries and energy band widths of g-C₃N₄, Na(0.1)-CN, CN/NaCl and CN@NaCl were basically the same. This result showed that Na⁺ modification had little effect on the optical properties of g-C₃N₄, which is different from other findings [29].

As displayed in Fig. S4a, the binding energies of the C 1s orbitals of g-C₃N₄ were located at 284.8 and 288.1 eV, corresponding to the C atom (C-N) in the graphite-like structure and the sp² hybrid C atom (N=C-N) in the cyclic structure, respectively. The N1s spectrum of g-C₃N₄ in Fig. S4b was divided into 3 peaks with binding energies at 398.4, 399.4 and 400.6 eV, belonging to the N atom of the sp² hybrid (C=N-C), the N atom in the 3-s-triazine ring (N-(C)₃) and the N atom in the terminal amino functional group (NH₂ and NH), respectively. Compared with g-C₃N₄, the binding energy of the C 1s orbital of Na(0.1)-CN was reduced by 0.2 eV, while the binding energy of the N 1s orbital was increased by 0.3–0.5 eV. As shown in Fig. S4c, the Na 1s orbital binding energy of Na(0.1)-CN was located at 1071 eV, which is 1 eV lower than that of NaCl (1072 eV), and basically coincides with that of NaN₃ (1070.8 eV) [28]. The results indicated that Na⁺ exists in the lattice of g-C₃N₄ in the form of Na-N bond. The ionic radius of Na⁺ is about 102 pm, which is much larger than the atomic radius of C and N (80–86 pm). In addition, g-C₃N₄ is a covalent compound, so Na⁺ cannot be substituted and doped in the ionic state. It can only exist in the lattice gap of g-C₃N₄ in the form of Na-N bond. The higher electronegativity of N atom is used to balance the positive charge on Na⁺ and improve the binding energy of the N 1s orbital of Na (0.1)-CN.

As depicted in Fig. S4d, Na⁺-doped had a significant impact on the energy level position of the catalyst. The VB energy level position of g-C₃N₄ was 1.59 eV. After Na⁺-doped generated Na(0.1)-CN, the VB energy level of the catalyst moved to the direction of high

**Fig. 3** Degradation curves of MB in visible light on different catalysts.

binding energy and was located at 1.68 eV. Combined with the test results of UV-Vis DRS, it is concluded that the CB energy level positions of g-C₃N₄ and Na(0.1)-CN were located at −1.09 and −0.98 eV, respectively, as shown in Fig. S5. The results showed that the energy band width of g-C₃N₄ could not be greatly changed by Na⁺-doped, but the positions of VB and CB levels could be controlled.

As shown in Fig. 3a, before the xenon lamp was turned on, the removal rate of MB by g-C₃N₄ by adsorption was about 8.4%. With the increase of Na⁺ doping amount, the removal rate gradually increased, and the removal rate of MB by Na(0.1)-CN was about 46%. When xenon lamp was turned on, Na(0.1)-CN showed the best photocatalytic performance, and the degradation rate of MB reached 87% after 240 min of illumination. Usually, the photocatalytic degradation reaction follows the first-order reaction kinetics: $-\ln(C/C_0) = kt$. Through fitting calculation, the rate constants k of g-C₃N₄, Na(0.04)-CN, Na(0.06)-CN, Na(0.08)-CN and Na(0.1)-CN were 0.0006, 0.0006, 0.0011, 0.0014 and 0.0063 min^{−1}, respectively. Na(0.1)-CN showed the maximum rate constant, which was about 10 times that of g-C₃N₄. As shown in Fig. 3b, the photocatalytic performance of g-C₃N₄ combined with NaCl or treated

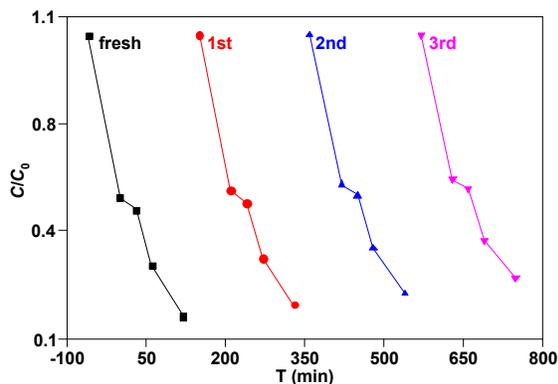


Fig. 4 Photocatalytic stability of Na(0.1)-CN.

with NaCl solution was not significantly improved. The morphology of the catalyst is regulated by Na^+ -doped and generating Na-N bonds, so that the valence band position of the catalyst is significantly increased, which significantly improves the photocatalytic performance.

The photocatalytic stability test of Na(0.1)-CN was carried out and shown in Fig. 4. The results indicated that slight decrease in MB degradation performance was observed after 3 cycles. The ICP-MS result displayed that the Na concentration was 1.17 wt.% in Na(0.1)-CN which is very close to the fresh catalyst. Therefore, it is inferred that the chemical structure of Na(0.1)-CN is stable.

The precursors of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and Na(0.1)-CN were analyzed by TG-DTA. As shown in Fig. 5a, the process of dicyandiamide to produce $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was divided into 4 stages, which is basically consistent with the literature report [30]. As depicted in Fig. 5b, the pyrolysis of dicyandiamide added with NaCl was still divided into 4 stages, and the temperature range of each stage was basically the same as that of Fig. 5a, but the weight loss rate of first stage decreased, which is related to the physical properties of NaCl that does not decompose and volatilize at low temperature. In the second stage, the weight loss rate increased, and a wide endothermic peak appeared at 319–328 °C. It is speculated that Na-N bond may be formed in this stage, which increases the deamination rate and ammonia production. According to the results of TG-DTA analysis, a schematic diagram of Na(x)-CN synthesis mechanism was drawn as shown in Fig. 6.

Based on the above analysis results, this paper puts forward assumptions on the mechanism of photocatalytic degradation of MB by Na(x)-CN as shown in Fig. 7. First, Na^+ -doped generates Na-N bond, which reduces particle size of catalyst, increases specific surface area and micropore volume, and enhances its adsorption performance for dissolved oxygen and MB in water. Second, the surface of the catalyst is in a positively charged state due to Na^+ -doped, which leads

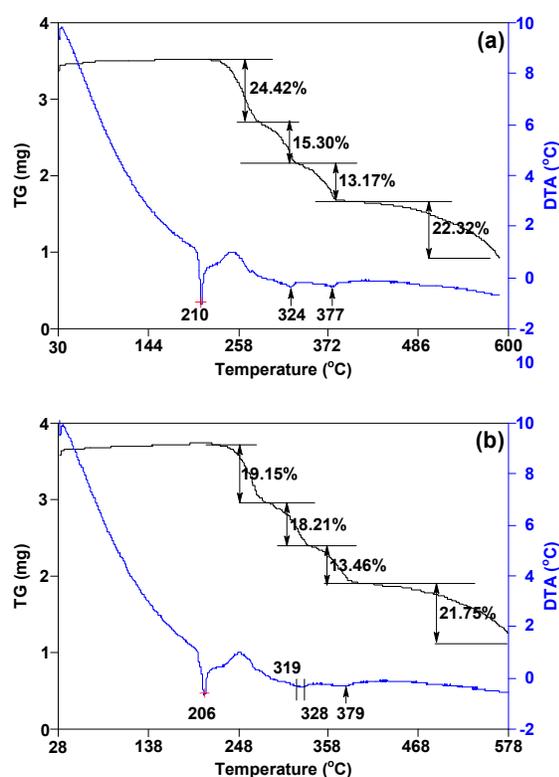


Fig. 5 TG-DTA curves of (a) $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ precursor and (b) Na(0.1)-CN precursor.

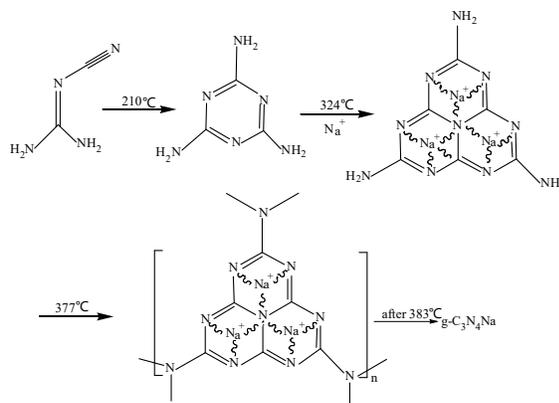


Fig. 6 Schematic diagram of Na(x)-CN synthesis mechanism.

to the increase of the valence band position of Na(x)-CN and the enhancement of the oxidizability of holes (h^+).

CONCLUSION

When dicyandiamide and sodium chloride were co-heated to 319–328 °C, Na^+ was doped into the lattice gap of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ in the form of Na-N bond. Na^+ -doped

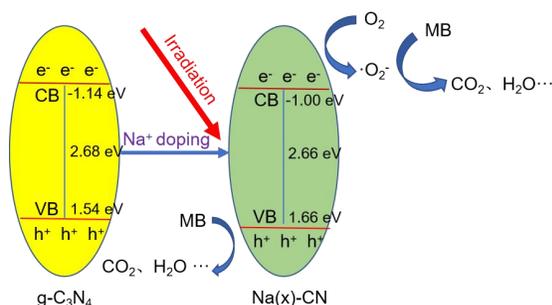


Fig. 7 Schematic diagram of the mechanism of photocatalytic degradation of MB by Na(x)-CN.

had little effect on the crystal structure and light absorption properties of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, but the surface morphology of the catalyst changed from irregular layered structure to granular structure. The specific surface area and micropore volume increased, the valence band position increased, and the visible light catalytic performance was improved. Na(0.1)-CN had the best photocatalytic performance, and its degradation rate was about 10 times that of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The degradation rate of MB reached 87% after 4 h of illumination.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.2306/scienceasia1513-1874.2022.046>.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

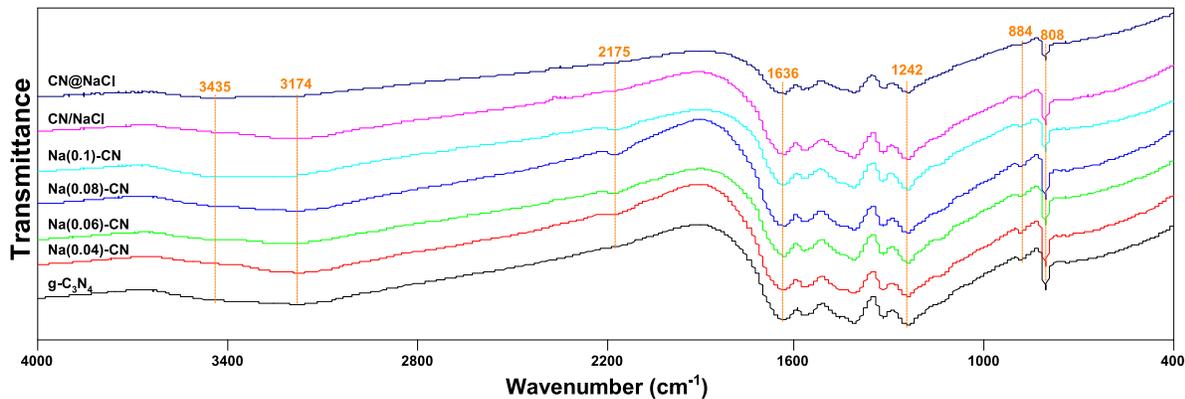


Fig. S1 FTIR spectra of as-prepared catalysts.

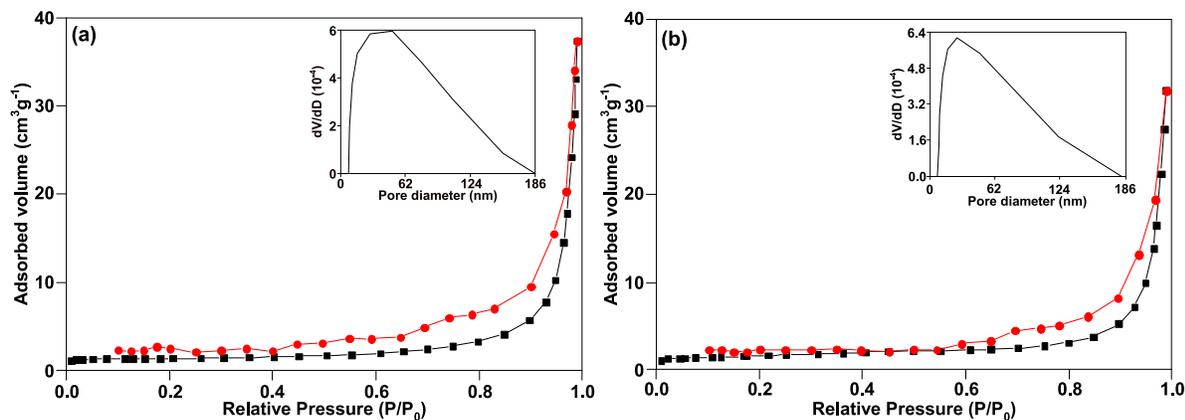


Fig. S2 N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms of (a) $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and (b) Na(0.1)-CN .

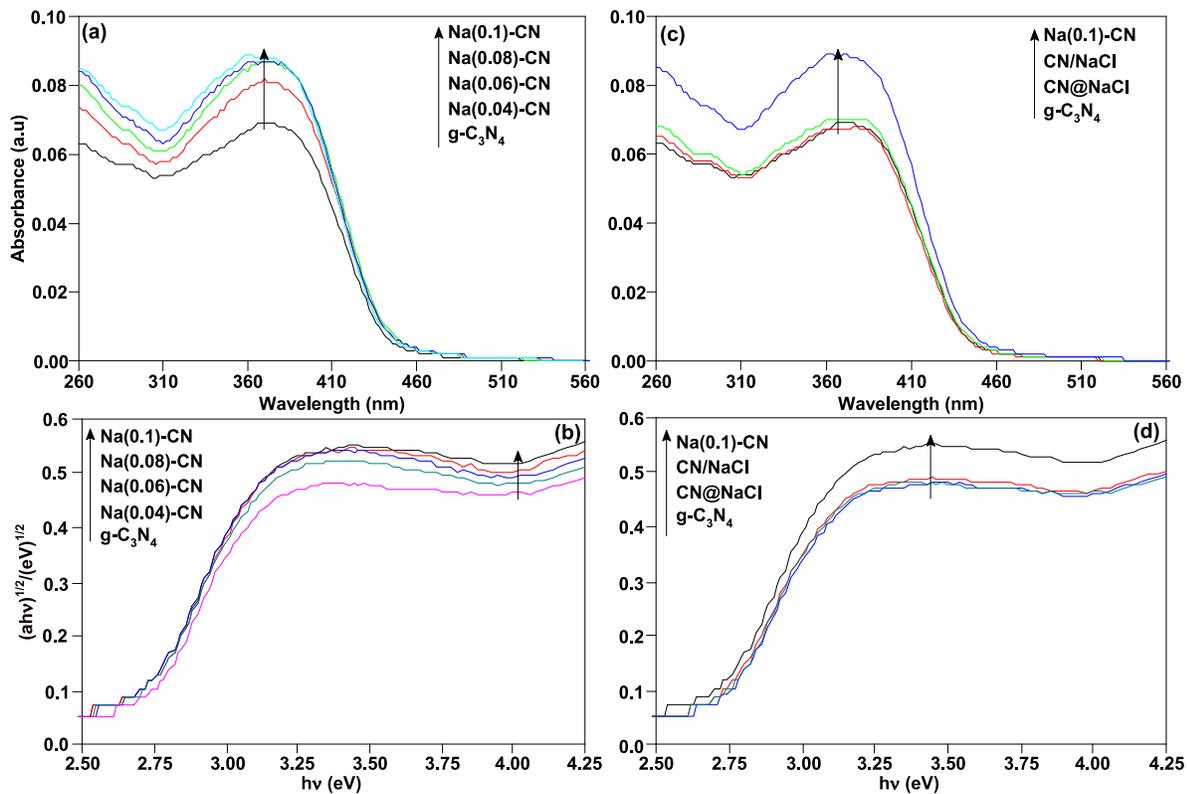


Fig. S3 (a) and (c) UV-Vis DRS spectra; (b) and (d) the plots of the $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$ versus photon energy over the catalysts.

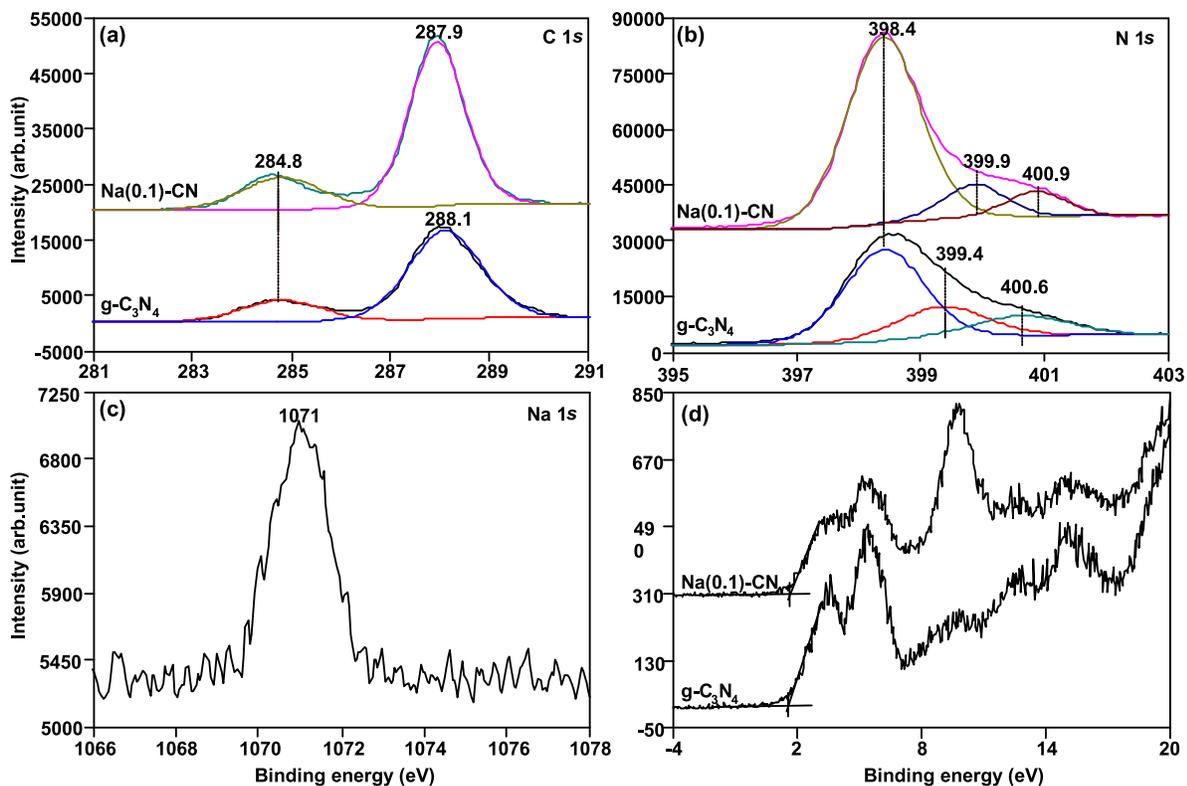


Fig. S4 XPS spectra of g-C₃N₄ and Na(0.1)-CN in the regions of (a) C 1s, (b) N 1s, (c) Na 1s, and (d) valence band.

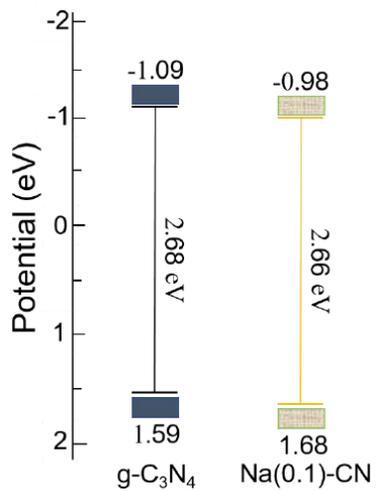


Fig. S5 Energy band structure of g-C₃N₄ and Na(0.1)-CN.