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REVIEW



g-C₃N₄ Derived Materials for Photocatalytic Hydrogen Production: A Mini Review on Design Strategies

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ABSTRACT

Hydrogen production through solar energy is one of the most important pathways to meet the growing demand of renewable energy, and photocatalyst participation in solar hydrolytic hydrogen production has received great attention in recent years in terms of low cost, high efficiency, and flexible design. Particularly, $g-C_3N_4$ (Graphiticlike carbon nitride material), as a unique material, can catalyze the hydrogen production process by completing the separation and transmission of charge. The easily adjustable pore structure/surface area, dimension, band-gap modulation and defect have shown great potential for hydrogen production from water cracking. In this review, the most recent advance of $g-C_3N_4$ including the doping of metal and non-metal elements, and the formation of semiconductor heterojunction is highlighted. The main modification strategies and approaches for the design of $g-C_3N_4$ for hydrogen production, as well as the influence of various materials on hydrogen evolution regarding the photocatalysis mechanism and advantages brought by theoretical calculations are specially and briefly illustrated. Potential design pathways and strategies of $g-C_3N_4$ are discussed. In addition, current challenges of hydrogen production from $g-C_3N_4$ water splitting are summarized and can be expected.

KEYWORDS

g-C₃N₄; hydrogen; photocatalysis; H₂O; semiconductor

1 Introduction

The rapid economic growth has encouraged researchers to find new forms of energy, along with the global goals for low/zero carbon dioxide emissions. The adoption of renewable energy is one of the most important pathways [1]. As renewable energy, hydrogen energy has high calorific value and clean properties [2]. Massive studies have adopted photocatalytic process to decompose pure water or waste water to relieve environmental pollutants and to obtain hydrogen energy, simultaneously [3,4]. Among the numerous materials, inorganic semiconductor materials are of low cost compared with rare metal catalysts [5]. The g-C₃N₄ polymer can induce visible light and its unique electronic structure and adaptive



capacity to adjust the band structure has attracted wide interest [6,7]. Moreover, the easy acquaintance from nature, no toxicity and strong stability of the C and N elements make them stand out.

In this regard, some preparation methods for $g-C_3N_4$, including the thermal condensation, solvothermal synthesis, microwave assisted synthesis, ionic liquids, and molten salt methods have been widely reported [8–10]. Meanwhile, the utilization of the precursor such as urea, melamine, thiourea and the preparation with other materials are crucial [11,12]. At present, the structure of the $g-C_3N_4$ models has been widely recognized, as shown in Fig. 1. Abundant modification pathways are taken to reduce the $g-C_3N_4$ interchange material used in catalytic hydrogen production defects, including metal or nonmetal doping, while the micro structure is modified to address the issues of generally low specific surface area, the raw carrier transfer, light electronic-hole, forbidden band width and other problems. In this review, relevant modifications of $g-C_3N_4$ were summarized, and the enhancement mechanisms in a hydrogen production scenario and future application challenges of the design strategies $g-C_3N_4$ materials were presented.



Figure 1: Structural model of $g-C_3N_4$: (a) S-triazine ring structure (blue shadow unit); (b) 3-s-triazine ring structure (red shadow unit)

2 Mechanism of g-C₃N₄ Photocatalysis for Hydrogen Production

As one of the most important application scenarios of $g-C_3N_4$ photocatalysis, hydrogen production has received a lot of attention. Based on the Gibbs free energy change (H₂O \rightarrow H₂+1/2O₂, $\Delta G = 238$ kj/mol) and thermodynamics, the splitting should meet the energy source [12]. Therefore, extra photon energy is needed to break an energy barrier of 1.23 eV. Thus, the band-energy gap of the g-C₃N₄ or the derivatives should be in the range of 1.23–3.0 eV to maintain effective splitting of water [13]. Valence band (VB) and empty conduction band (CB) can be separated by forming finite band energy gap [14]. When irradiation of incidence light is developed during the generation of photo-excited charge carrier, the exciting electrons from VB to CB can separate the e⁻ and h⁺ pair involved in reduction and oxidation [15]. In this regard, the photocatalytic process generally includes several processes [16] (Fig. 2): (a) photon absorption; (b) exciton separation; (c) carrier diffusion, in which the low charge recombination rate decreases the charge separation rate and leads to a poor transmittance; (d) carrier transport; (e) catalysis efficiency, which decides the apparent quantum efficiency; (f) the light-generated e⁻/h⁺ pairs are adsorbed, followed by the movement of e⁻ to CB with the holes in VB, which enhances the h⁺ and e⁻. Through these steps, appropriate modification strategy to enhance the overall water splitting efficiency can be predicted.

There have been extensive studies on the mechanism of photocatalysis. $g-C_3N_4$ is very active under visible light due to the wide band gap. Considering the wide band gap of $g-C_3N_4$ and over-potentials, the band-energy gap ranges from 2.0 eV to 3.1 eV is higher than that of the endothermic driving forces which is about 1.23 eV but lower than visible light absorption scope [17]. The CB is higher than the potentials of H₂ production in the negative position. It is known that the sp^2 hybridization in 2D can form layered construction due to the poor van-der Waal's forces between C and N in $g-C_3N_4$, and the thermal

conversion process can help the condensation of feedstock with a molar ratio of 0.75 [18]. The photogenerated holes of $g-C_3N_4$ facilitate oxygen generation from H_2O oxidation and avert the CO_2 mineralization by strong •OH. But the low efficiency aroused by high e^-/h^+ recombination rate of smooth $g-C_3N_4$ has been noticed and a lot of downstream technologies focus on the enhancement of active sites, grain boundary defects and kinematics [16,17]. Additionally, researchers have widely followed the first principle based on density functional theory in the field of photocatalysis as a clear research method for effective and quick exploration to improve the $g-C_3N_4$ photocatalytic performance [19,20]. With the incomparable advantage of semi-empirical method like Grimme, first principle based on density functional theory has become an important basis for calculation and simulation [21]. Thus, the lattice constant, density, cell volume, relative energy, electron structure, and absorption spectra based on $g-C_3N_4$ can be obtained. With the calculation of band structure, density of states, and etc., it will provide more theoretical guidance for the properties and modification of $g-C_3N_4$. As described above, typical normal potentials of redox reaction with $g-C_3N_4$ band-energy gap under pH of 7 are presented in Fig. 3 [22].



Figure 2: Mechanism of photocatalytic reaction for $g-C_3N_4$



Figure 3: Typical band structures of various type of semiconductor photocatalysts compared with g-C₃N₄

3 Modification Pathways for g-C₃N₄

To modify the energy band structure of $g-C_3N_4$, doping metallic or nonmetallic elements by physical or chemical pathways has been proved to be effective. The light absorption, charge density, charge dispersion and mobility, as well as the crystallinity can be changed by introducing external doping elements into the semiconductor lattice. Generally speaking, nonmetals doping is realized by embedding in the body structure of $g-C_3N_4$, including B, O, S, P, Cl, Br, I, and F [23–25]. It is critical to determine the location and defects of the introduced element in the skeleton structure of $g-C_3N_4$. For example, P element can exist in the structure matrix of $g-C_3N_4$ in the form of P-N bond, which makes the band gap narrow and promotes exciton separation, and some studies have found that P doping delayed the rapid recombination of electron hole pairs [25]. As for B and N, the introduction defects can broaden the visible light absorption range of $g-C_3N_4$, and abundant unsaturated sites can enhance the interaction of the interlayer C-N, and further promote the separation of excitons and charge transmission [26].

Generally, Mn, Zn, Cu, Ni, Fe, Co etc. are the main metal doping elements in present works [27]. Since $g-C_3N_4$ is a hepazine ring composed of three triazine rings along with a cavity structure formed by six unsaturated N-coordination structures, it is easy to facilitate metal elements to form metal coordination electronic structure. For example, Mn can be embedded in g-C₃N₄ as Mn-N-C group, which can adjust the positron and energy band structure, and further promote the charge transfer [27]. On this basis, researchers also try to study the influence of metal doping on $g-C_3N_4$ in order to optimize the strength of the metal-C-N bond or to adjust the spin state of metal ions. However, the amount of element doping is also a crucial factor. For instance, Fe doped $g-C_3N_4$ nanosheet structure will be cracked beyond certain Fe mass ratio. Until now, various characterization techniques including nuclear magnetic resonance, XPS, FTIR, NMR, XANES, etc., have showed that the doping elements were not only related to the size of the atomic radius of the element, but also related to the pathways and forms of the embedding. The typical doping sites of nonmatals and metals in $g-C_3N_4$ are shown in Figs. 4 and 5. In addition to element doping, modification of the morphology of g-C₃N₄ is another strategy, which can also modify the electronic structure, optical properties, and desirable surface characteristics. Different dimensions of g-C₃N₄ structures like carbon dots, nanorods/wires/bands/tubes/sheets/spheres/gels, etc., are defined as 0D-3D materials and show obvious differences in preparation conditions, specific surface area, exposure degree of active site, and lifetime of photogenerated carriers [28,29]. With this, secondary modification of materials with different dimensions of g-C₃N₄ and doping elements will have great potential. Nevertheless, the preparation of materials cannot be perfect due to the absence of N. C and cvanogroup, which is also called defect engineering, but this will provide opportunities for the improvement of optical properties of $g-C_3N_4$ [30,31].

Additionally, after the light excitation process, the electron-hole pair has a high repetition rate, which can affect the photocatalytic performance of the material. Numerous studies have proved that the formation of heterojunction structure with composite of semiconductor materials such as TiO2, ZnO, NiS, Ni2P, etc., and even metal organic framework (MOF) was an effective strategy to improve the photocatalytic performance of bulk g- C_3N_4 [32,33]. The heterojunction structure can be formed by seamless combination of g-C₃N₄ with carbon materials through π conjugated bonds [33]. Through the formation of heterojunction, the surface or cross linked to the crystal lattice interface inside the semiconductor can be tightly bonded and can induce the formation of internal electric field. The typical heterojunction of Type II and Z-scheme charge transfer for $g-C_3N_4$ are shown in Fig. 6 [34]. Specifically, the electrons in the excited state can be firstly transferred to the conduction band under the light condition, and the semiconductor with more negative conduction band position then moves forward as more positive semiconductor, while the photogenerated hole is on the opposite and accelerates the effective separation of the photogenerated electron hole pair, which is very favorable in the field of photocatalytic hydrogen production [35,36]. In a nutshell, the purpose of modification of $g-C_3N_4$ materials is to enhance the utilization of light and to increase the active sites and reduce the recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, which will be the basis for further breakthroughs in g-C₃N₄ material innovation in the future.



Figure 4: Potentials substituted sites of non-metals doping in a single g-C₃N₄ layer



Figure 5: Typical diagram of metal ion (M^{a^+}) incorporation in g-C₃N₄ framework



Figure 6: Typical heterojunction of Type II and Z-scheme charge transfer for g-C₃N₄

4 Design Strategies of g-C₃N₄ for H₂ Generation

The significant progress of $g-C_3N_4$ nanostructures tailoring techniques for catalytic H₂ generation has got a great deal of attention during the past ten years. In this section, the myriads of applications for H_2 production via water splitting were reviewed with various design strategies of $g-C_3N_4$ materials. For solo inorganic element doped g-C₃N₄, the H₂ generation rate can be increased by 10–20 times and more. For instance, the H₂ generation rate derived from sulfur-doped polymeric g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts reached 12.16 μ mol h⁻¹ [36], while the value was 57 μ mol h⁻¹ for P-doped g-C₃N₄ tubes [37], and 70.05 μ mol h⁻¹ for B doped g-C₃N₄ quantum dots [26], respectively. A lot of studies have also proved that g-C₃N₄ simultaneously doped with various species of inorganic elements or metals could also ameliorate visiblelight photocatalytic H₂ generation [38,39]. For example, in Yang et al. [24]'s study, a higher surface area with optimized sp² conjugated heterocyclic structure was obtained for $g-C_3N_4$ prepared with C-I, and the hydrogen evolution rate reached 168.2 µmol/h. Generally, researchers prepared catalyst by using porous g-C₃N₄ to further modify and obtain higher efficiency of hydrogen production. Wu et al. [40] fabricated porous g-C₃N₄ nanobelts by using method of C, O binary-doped hierarchical, and the replacement of N atoms narrowed the bandgap and favored the harvest of visible-light for high H₂ evolution. In Deng et al. [41]'s work, the low electron-hole recombination rate and rapid electron transfer were found to account for the high hydrogen evolution reaction of Ni/porous $g-C_3N_4$. Unlike that, several works found that heterostructure could be fabricated by formation of crystal. For example, Jia et al. [42] found that FeSe₂/ $g-C_3N_4$ formed nanosheets and accelerated the decomposition of H_2O_2 generation on the nanosheet surface via a stepwise two-electron/two-step pathway. In conclusion, a number of enhanced hydrogen production pathways have been demonstrated by developing and designing a robust photocatalyst. Representative g-C₃N₄ material preparation and the superiority for H₂ generation rate are summarized in Tab. 1. Meanwhile, based on the section discussed above, the design strategies of g-C₃N₄ for H₂ generation are summarized in Fig. 7.

Precursors	Synthesis methodologies	H ₂ generation rate	Superiority	References
Urea; molybdenum	Pyrolysis	$327.5\ \mu mol \cdot g^{-1} \cdot h^{-1}$	Increased light absorption, separation and transfer of photogenerated carriers	[43]
Urea; Ni(NO ₃) ₂ and Na ₂ S	550°C for 4 h	992 μ mol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	Improved visible light absorption, promoted charge separation	[44]
urea and NH ₄ Cl	550°C for 3 h	-	Extend the π -conjugation; reduce the band gap and facilitate the separation of photogenerated charges	[45]
Dicyandiamide; Nickel ammonium sulfate, H ₂ S	600°C for 270 min	$3628 \ \mu mol \ g^{-1} \ h^{-1}$	Chemical bonding of Ni-S favored charge-separation	[46]
Melamine; silver nitrate	650°C for 3 h	$9.728 \\ mmol \cdot g^{-1} \cdot h^{-1}$	Co-decoration of Ag and NiS; improved light harvesting capacity, photogenerated charge carrier separation	[47]
Melamine; Ni-MOF	550°C for 2 h	$14.49 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$	Increased the electron transfer rate staggered band alignment	[48]
Urea; graphdiyne	550°C for 2 h	$39.6 \ \mu mol \ h^{-1}$	Prolonged photogenerated charge carrier lifetime, intensified electron density, decreased reaction overpotential and improved charge carrier mobility	[49]
Melamine;	550°C for 4 h	941.80 μ mol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	Enhanced light absorption and high-efficiency transfer and separation of photogenerated electron hole pairs	[50]

Table 1: Representative	g-C ₃ N ₄ materials	preparation and the	superiority for H ₂	generation rate

(Continued)

Precursors	Synthesis methodologies	H ₂ generation rate	Superiority	References
Melamine; TiO ₂	300°C–700°C for 2 h	52.71 µmol h ⁻¹	Wide optical absorption, separation and transportation of electronic-holes, and morphology of composite	[51]
Melamine; N-ZnO	550°C for 5 h	152.7 μ mol h ⁻¹	Promoted the spatial charge separation	[52]
Urea; CoS ₂	550°C for 4 h	11.55 μ mol h ⁻¹	Improved the visible-light absorption ability and generation of photo-generated carriers	[53]
Melamine; Co doped Mo-Mo ₂ C	520°C for 2 h	11291 μ mol h ⁻¹ g ⁻¹	Improved interfacial charge transfer rate with low photo-generated charge recombination	[54]



Figure 7: Design pathways and strategies of g-C₃N₄ for H₂ generation

5 Conclusion and Future Challenges

In this review, the modification pathways of $g-C_3N_4$ related to the elemental doping, heterojunction development and other methods were elaborated. The enhancement mechanisms in a hydrogen production scenario and future application challenges of the design strategies $g-C_3N_4$ materials are presented. Despite that the $g-C_3N_4$ materials used for photocatalytic hydrogen production have been investigated by numerous scientific works for water splitting application, the preparation, optimization of

raw materials, and the cost of hydrogen production, as well as related mechanisms of research require further extensive exploration. The detailed future challenges to overcome are as below:

- (1) The durability and stability of $g-C_3N_4$ should be taken into more consideration regarding the recycling and efficiency.
- (2) The choice of precursor feedstock for $g-C_3N_4$ is critical. It is essential to understand the thermal method and all other methods that can provide a better strategy for the $g-C_3N_4$ preparation.
- (3) More morphological research should be conducted on the new heterojunction and homojunction with surface or interface characteristics and narrow absorption range.
- (4) Carbonaceous semiconductors should be investigated on the metal and non-metal doping, defects, and interaction mechanisms of multiple functions, and can provide references of optimized hydrogen production rate and lower catalyst cost in the future.

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