

Facile synthesis of a porous 3D g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst for the degradation of organics in shale gas brines

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ABSTRACT

Treatment and subsequent re-use of wastewater from shale gas extraction is a feasible strategy to ensure sustainability and reduce the environmental impact of the process. Here we demonstrate the photocatalytic benefits of improved three-dimensional graphitic carbon nitride (3D g-C₃N₄) during the degradation of organic contaminants. We show that precursor ratio (melamine to cyanuric acid) affects both the properties of 3D g-C₃N₄ as well as catalytic performance. When optimized, 3D g-C₃N₄ displayed the highest organics removal rate in brine-free solutions, achieving 99% conversion within 240 min. Significantly, the 3D g-C₃N₄ materials improved photocatalytic activity even in simulated shale gas brine solutions.

1. Introduction

Shale gas extraction has been increasing mainly because it is now considered the key bridging fuel to transition to renewable energy sources [1]. Shale gas has a much lower environmental footprint as an energy source, only producing 45% of CO₂ relative to coal [2,3]. Concerns still remain however about the large volumes of wastewater from shale gas extraction (called produced water) because it is a complex type of effluent shown to contain a range of organics, salts, minerals and metals, together with a high load of solids, including total dissolved solids, dissolved gases and microorganisms [4]. Owing to environmental concerns caused by produced water, much attention has been devoted to identifying a robust water treatment approach for such briny effluents. Semiconductor photocatalysis has great potential in resolving the dual challenge of water scarcity and water pollution caused by shale gas extraction. To achieve this target, a suitable photocatalyst with sufficient light harvesting properties, efficient separation of the photoinduced charge carriers and the generation of chloride-tolerant reactive oxygen species (ROS) is desirable.

As a semiconductor photocatalyst, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) has attracted research attention because it is visible-light active, chemically stable, non-toxic, can be synthesized from abundant and low-cost precursors, and possesses quite negative conduction band (CB) allowing for strong redox ability [5]. In addition, g-C₃N₄ has been

reported to generate singlet oxygen (¹O₂) ROS upon photoexcitation [6]. Although it has a low reduction potential [$E^{\circ}({}^1\text{O}_2/\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}) = +0.81 \text{ V}_{\text{NHE}}$], ¹O₂ is a useful environmental oxidant because of its longer lifespan (4 μs) relative to [•]OH radicals (1 ns) and is less susceptible to be scavenged by background ions in complex wastewater matrixes [7,8]. However, widespread application of bulk g-C₃N₄ is limited by several shortcomings such as a low specific surface area (10 m²/g) and fast electron-hole recombination rate [9]. Recently, three-dimensional carbon nitride (3D g-C₃N₄) has been prepared and shown to prevent agglomeration of the nanosheets and consequently improved water splitting achieving an apparent quantum yield (AQY) as high as 1.4% under visible light [10]. Inspired by the unique properties of g-C₃N₄, we aimed to address the low surface area of g-C₃N₄ and test whether the prepared porous materials are better at resisting chloride poisoning during the photocatalytic treatment of organics in simulated shale gas brines.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of bulk and 3D g-C₃N₄

To prepare bulk g-C₃N₄, melamine (4 g) was transferred into a covered crucible and heated in a furnace at 550 °C (4 h, 5 °C/min). The final product was ground to a fine powder before use. 3D g-C₃N₄ was synthesized by the high temperature polymerization reaction of

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cyanuric acid-melamine supramolecular assemblies as reported elsewhere with slight modifications [10,11]. Typically, appropriate quantities of melamine and cyanuric acid (1,3,5-triazine-2,4,6-triol) were mixed in 50 mL deionized water and stirred at room temperature for 12 h to make cyanuric acid-melamine supramoleculars. The cyanuric acid-melamine supramoleculars were obtained by centrifugation and were purified by washing with ethanol and deionized water. Subsequently, the washed product was freeze-dried, ground to a fine powder and calcined at 550 °C (4 h, 5 °C/min) in a furnace.

2.2. Characterisation methods

N₂ sorption measurements were carried out on a Micromeritics 3Flex and Quantachrome Quadrasorb analysers. XRD characterizations were performed on a Philips X'Pert diffractometer fitted with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54178$ Å). UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) data was measured on an Agilent Cary 60 spectrophotometer using BaSO₄ as a reference material. The surface morphology was characterized using a field emission scanning electron microscope (Tescan MAIA3 Triglav FEG-SEM). Samples were coated with 10 nm 80:20 AuPd using a Quorum 150 TES sputter coater prior to SEM analysis. XPS analysis was done using a Thermo Scientific K-alpha+ spectrometer using a monochromatic Al K α excitation source operated at 72 W and 1486.6 eV. The XPS data were fitted using CasaXPS software package (version 2.3.24)

[12].

2.3. Photocatalytic tests

Photocatalytic experiments were performed in a double-walled open-top reactor with 110 mL of phenol aqueous solution (10 mg/L) used as the model organic compound. A Xe arc lamp (300 W, 1000 Wm⁻²) was used as a light source and the catalyst concentration was maintained at 1 g/L. Before irradiation, the photocatalyst-phenol solution was stirred for 30 min in the dark to reach an absorption-desorption equilibrium. Sample aliquots (2 mL) were withdrawn at specific time intervals during photocatalytic experiments and analysed by a step-wise gradient elution HPLC method and by UV-Vis spectroscopy. Photocatalytic experiments were also performed in NaCl solutions (100 g/L Cl⁻) to simulate shale gas brines, while the phenol and photocatalyst concentrations were maintained.

3. Results and discussion

We prepared 3D g-C₃N₄ with mol ratios of 2:1 and 1:1 melamine to cyanuric acid, in addition to bulk g-C₃N₄. Properties of bulk and 3D g-C₃N₄ materials were characterized by BET, XRD UV-Vis DRS, SEM and XPS analysis. Fig. 1a compares the adsorption and desorption isotherms of bulk and 3D g-C₃N₄ (2:1). The 3D g-C₃N₄ has a higher surface area (59

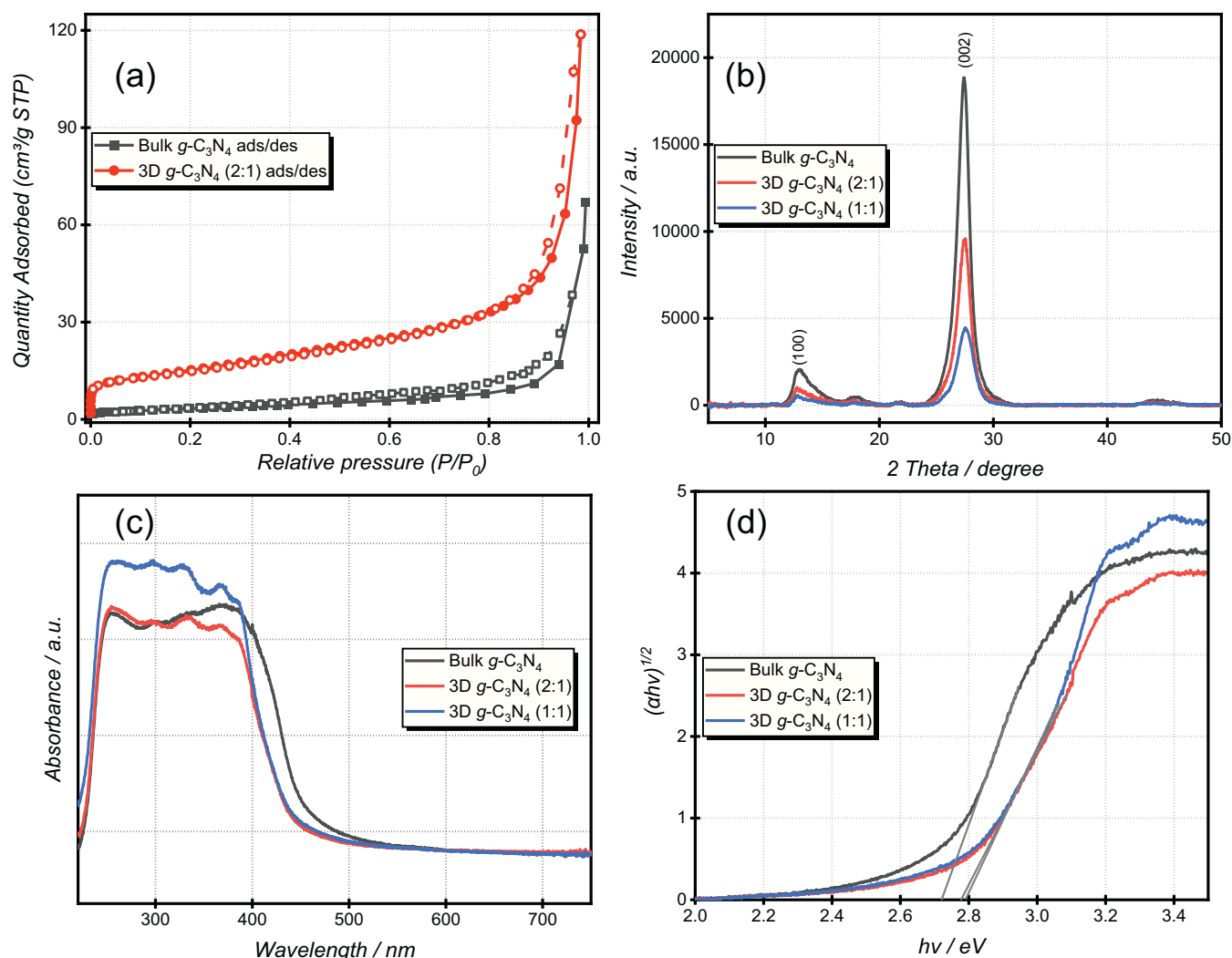


Fig. 1. (a) Adsorption-desorption isotherms of the samples, (b) XRD patterns and (c) UV-Vis DRS of the bulk and 3D g-C₃N₄ samples. (d) Tauc plots calculated from UV-Vis DRS results.

m^2/g) than bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ($10 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$). The isotherms are characterized as a type IV with an H3 hysteresis loop, which typically indicates the presence of mesopores along with some micropores.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded to probe the phase structure of the three prepared $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples (Fig. 1b). All three XRD patterns exhibit two diffraction peaks at 13.1° and 27.4° , corresponding to the characteristic (100) and (002) planes of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ which are assigned to the periodic stacking of tri-s-triazine rings and in-plane structural packing motif [13,14], respectively. The similarity of the (100) and (002) peak positions between samples suggests that the bulk structure of all three materials is similar and cyanuric acid addition does not influence the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ formation mechanism. It is noted that the intensity of the peaks decreased corresponding to the amount of cyanuric acid used in the synthesis. This is because the 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1) sample was more porous and fluffy [11,15], therefore a much smaller weight was required for a similar volume as the non-porous samples. Optical properties of the prepared samples were recorded by UV-Vis DRS and are displayed in Fig. 1c. A strong absorption band in the region 250–435 nm characteristic of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was observed in all the samples [16,17], with the bulk carbon nitride signal being slightly redshifted relative to the 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ bands. The band gap energy of the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ materials were estimated by the Tauc plot method. Bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has a band gap of 2.72 eV while that of 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is 2.78 and 2.79 eV for the 2:1 and 1:1 ratio samples respectively (Fig. 1d).

Fig. 2 compares SEM images of the bulk and 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1) samples at the same scale to investigate their morphology and microstructure. Bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ consisted of large solid agglomerates of stacked flakes (Fig. 2 a). The 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ presented a coral-like morphology with an interconnected network of large pores (Fig. 2 c). Smaller open pores or voids of approximately 50–100 nm are also apparent across the surface. This was consistent with the low surface area BET measurements over the bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample ($10 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) and the high surface area measured on

the porous 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1) sample. This increase in porosity would lead to the improved transport and enhanced proximity of the reactants to the active areas of the catalyst surface. It would be expected that the improved dispersion of the catalyst through the liquid phase and greater exposure of the catalyst surface to irradiation would also enhance activity. The 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (2:1) sample is characterized by the presence of pores throughout the material (Fig. S1) but is generally more compact than the 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1) material. The morphologies of 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ confirm that cyanuric acid-melamine supramoleculars are an excellent precursor for porous graphitic carbon nitride as they minimize restacking of the nanosheets.

Surface analysis by XPS confirmed that the sample surfaces were mainly composed of carbon and nitrogen with residual oxygen also detected as shown by the survey spectra in Fig. S2. The bulk and 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples had similar C and N compositions of 42% and 57% (Table S1) and the O content was less than 1% for all samples. High resolution C 1 s spectra (Fig. 3a) was deconvoluted into six peaks ascribed to adventitious carbon (284.7 eV), C–OH (286.6 eV), C–N–C (288 eV) and satellite peaks (293.4, 295.9, 299.1 and 300.2 eV) [18,19]. Table S2 summarizes the percentage compositions of the C 1 s spectra for the three samples. The sp^2 hybridized carbon of the aromatic ring (C in C–N–C) at 288 eV was the most abundant configuration at about 87% for the three samples. N 1 s core level spectra displayed the three characteristic peaks for $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ at binding energies of 398.5, 399.7 and 400.9 ascribed to the sp^2 hybridized pyridine nitrogen in triazine rings (C=N–C), tertiary nitrogen N–(C)₃, and sp^3 terminal N (C–N–H), respectively (Fig. 3b). Satellite peaks are observed at binding energies of 404, 406.6 and 411.4 eV as summarized in Table S3 [18]. The wide scans, high resolution C 1 s (Fig. 3a, Table S2) and N 1 s (Fig. 3b, Table S3) spectra of the samples are generally similar, confirming that the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ structure is maintained even in the 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples.

The efficient photocatalytic activity of 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is demonstrated

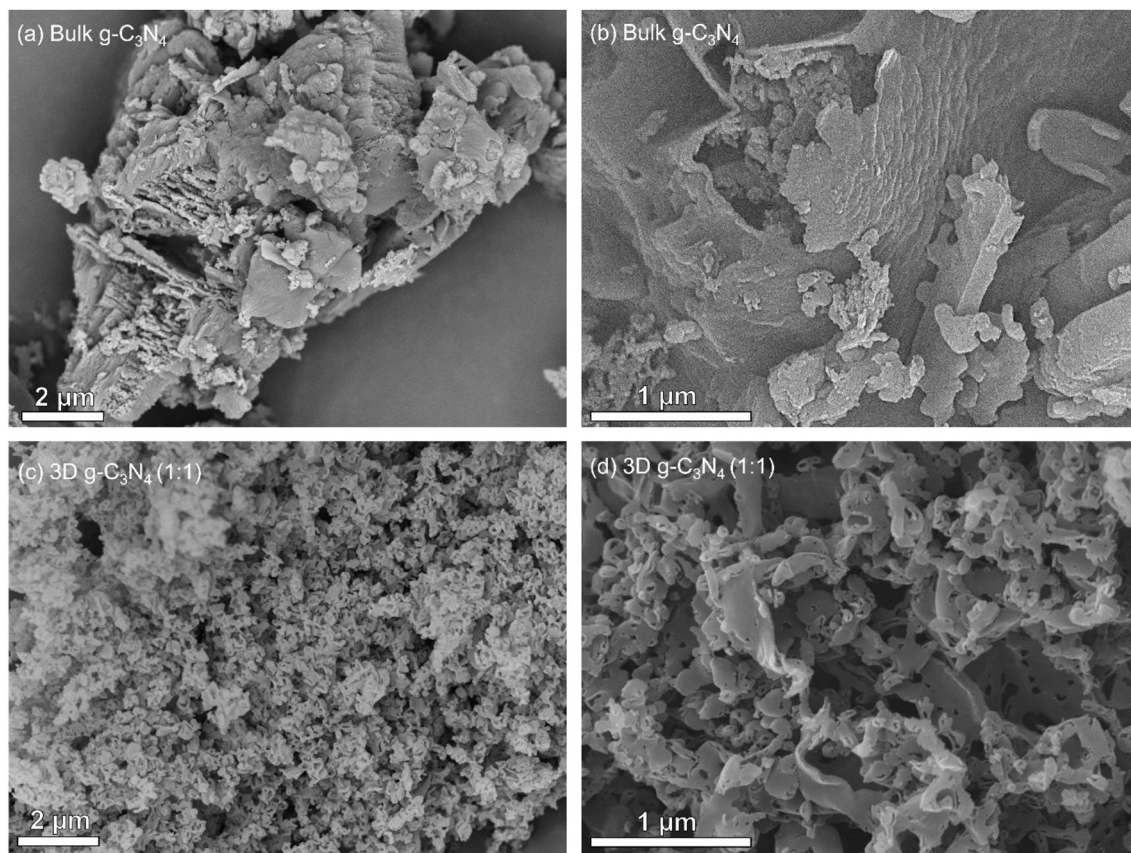


Fig. 2. In Beam SEM images of (a) bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, 5 kV, 30 kx, (b) bulk $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, 15 kV, 120 kx, (c) 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1), 5 kV, 30 kx and (d) 3D $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1), 15 kV, 120 kx.

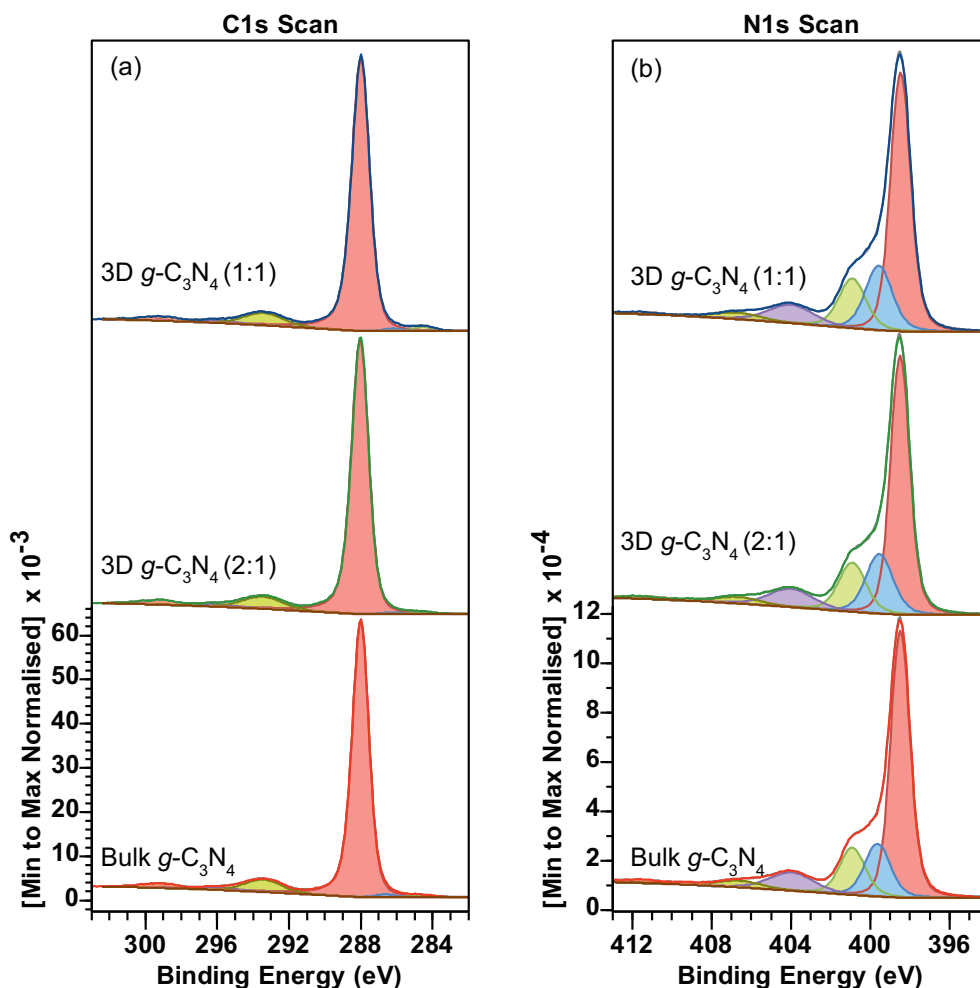


Fig. 3. High resolution (a) C 1 s and (b) N 1 s spectra for the different samples, bulk g-C₃N₄, 3D g-C₃N₄ (2:1) and 3D g-C₃N₄ (1:1) as indicated.

through phenol degradation, bulk g-C₃N₄ has also been analysed under similar conditions for comparison as shown in Fig. 4a. Bulk g-C₃N₄ displays a 73% phenol degradation efficiency when tested in chloride-free solutions, meanwhile 3D g-C₃N₄ (2:1) shows enhanced phenol removal efficiency with 80% achieved after 240 min of reaction. The porous graphitic carbon nitride sample prepared using equivalent mol ratios of melamine and cyanuric acid [3D g-C₃N₄ (1:1)] further enhanced phenol degradation up to 99%. It is evident that the improved properties of the 3D g-C₃N₄ had a favourable impact on the phenol removal efficiency even though XPS showed similar surface chemistry for all the materials. The observed phenol degradation rate constants (k_1) for the 3D g-C₃N₄ (1:1) and 3D g-C₃N₄ (2:1) were 8.1×10^{-3} and 6.0×10^{-3} and were higher than bulk g-C₃N₄ as shown in Fig. 4b and Table 1. k_1 values were determined from the linear range of eq. (1), where C_0 and C_i are the phenol concentrations at $t = 0$ and $t = i$, given ($i = 0, 15, 30, 60, 90, 120, 180, 240$) [20,21].

$$\ln\left(\frac{C_0}{C_i}\right) = kt \quad (1)$$

The phenol degradation capability of 3D g-C₃N₄ in hypersaline brine solutions was evaluated using $[\text{Cl}^-] = 100 \text{ g/L}$. Chloride concentration in our simulated brine experiments were determined from reported maximum levels in shale gas extraction operations [22–24] but incorporating a dilution factor of 2. Larger dilution factors (lower chloride concentrations) are usually not practical in a typical produced water reservoir due to large effluent quantities. Photocatalytic phenol degradation decreased when experiments were performed in brine solutions

(Fig. 4c–d). Bulk g-C₃N₄ achieved a 47% phenol removal efficiency in brines, but 3D g-C₃N₄ (1:1) enhanced the degradation slightly to 58% (Fig. 4d) corresponding to rate constants of 2.6×10^{-3} and 3.7×10^{-3} , respectively. The decrease in photocatalytic activity in brines is attributed to the blockage of valence band holes and the scavenging of photogenerated radicals by the excess Cl^- ions [20,25,26]. Notably, photodegradation of phenol still proceeded in brines and was enhanced over the 3D g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts relative to bulk g-C₃N₄.

Fig. S3 displays spectral monitoring of phenol degradation in brines vs chloride free solutions using 3D g-C₃N₄ (1:1) as a photocatalyst. Phenol peaks at 210 and 270 nm decreased with illumination time indicating a decrease in concentration of the model organic compound as it was converted to carbon dioxide, water and other reaction intermediates. Phenol degradation was inhibited in brines with strong phenol signals still detected after 240 min (Fig. S3b), in agreement with HPLC results discussed above.

4. Conclusion

In summary, we used a molecular self-assembly approach to prepare porous 3D g-C₃N₄ and tested the resulting materials as photocatalysts for the decomposition of phenol in aqueous solutions. Characterisation of the prepared 3D g-C₃N₄ by XRD and XPS showed that it had similar chemical compositions to nonporous bulk g-C₃N₄. In addition, similar band gap energies in the range 2.72–2.79 eV were measured. The porous structure of 3D g-C₃N₄ was evident from N₂ sorption measurements and microscopic analysis by SEM. In the absence of brines, phenol

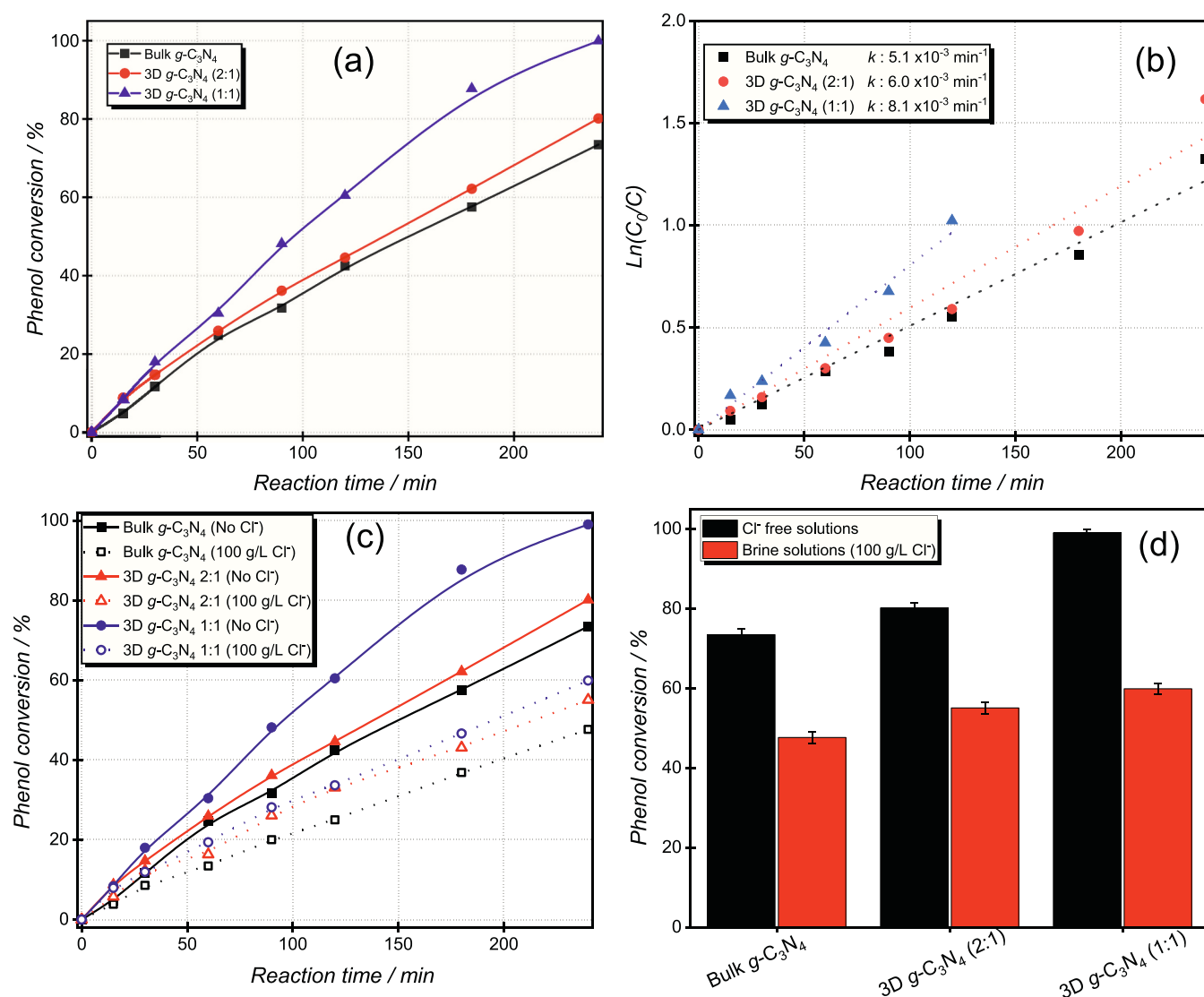


Fig. 4. (a) Phenol conversions over different $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples in chloride-free solutions as determined by HPLC, (b) corresponding pseudo-first-order rate constants, (c) effect of brines on photo-activity and, (d) summarized 240 min phenol conversions measured in brines and chloride-free solutions.

Table 1

Summary of the textual and catalytic results, SA, PV, PS and Eg of the samples.

Sample	S_{ABET}^a (m^2/g)	P_V^b (cm^3/g)	P_S^c (nm)	E_g^d (eV)	k_1 (min^{-1}) ^e	k_2 (min^{-1}) ^f
Bulk $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$	10	0.11	2.0	2.72	5.1×10^{-3}	2.6×10^{-3}
3D $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (2:1)	59	0.20	2.1	2.78	6.0×10^{-3}	3.3×10^{-3}
3D $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (1:1)	87	0.48	3.0	2.79	8.1×10^{-3}	3.7×10^{-3}

^a surface area

^b Pore volume.

^c Pore size.

^d band gap.

^e Pseudo-first-order rate constant (chloride-free solutions).

^f Pseudo-first-order rate constant (measured in brines).

degradation proceeded quickly over the samples with 3D $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ achieving complete conversion of phenol within 240 min. The enhanced photo-activity over 3D $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ relative to bulk $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is attributed to the accessibility of additional active sites on the porous material and

reduced recombination of charge carriers due to the 3D structure. The activity of the photocatalysts was noted to decline in brine solutions even though it still proceeded appreciably. In all investigated scenarios 3D $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ displayed enhanced photocatalytic activity relative to bulk $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

Credit authors statement

G.J.H., P.R.D., S.P., M.W.D. conceptualization of the study and formal analysis; G.J.H., P.R.D. supervision and funding acquisition; M. W.D. conducted experiments and data curation; T.E.D. and D.J.M. performed catalyst characterisation and corresponding data processing; M. W.D. wrote the original draft and supporting information. All the authors discussed the results and contributed to the work.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catcom.2022.106480>.

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