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ARTICLE

Selective Photocatalytic N₂ Fixation Dependent on the g-C₃N₄ Induced by Nitrogen Vacancies

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Photoreduction of N₂ is among the most interesting and challenging methods for N₂ fixation under mild conditions. In this study, we determined that nitrogen vacancies (NVs) could endow graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) with the photocatalytic N₂ fixation ability. Photocatalytic N₂ fixation induced by NVs is free from the interference of other gases. The reason is that NVs could selectively adsorb and activate N₂ because NVs have the same shape and size as the nitrogen atom in N₂. In addition to this, NVs could also improve many other properties of g-C₃N₄ to support photocatalytic N₂ fixation. These new findings could elucidate the design of efficient photocatalysts for photocatalytic N₂ fixation.

Introduction

Nitrogen is an essential building element of life on Earth. However, molecular nitrogen is nutritionally unavailable because nitrogen molecules are held together by a strong N≡N triple bond. Moreover, most plants can only take up nitrogen in the forms of ammonium ion (NH₄⁺) and nitrate ion (NO₃⁻) despite its abundance of 78% in the atmosphere.¹⁻³ Rainfall and lightning could bring a certain amount of nitrogen in the atmosphere into the soil. Biochemical N₂ fixation within the soil, which occurs with the help of specialized microorganisms, such as bacteria, actinomycetes, and cyanobacteria, contributes to most of the natural nitrogen nutrient.⁴⁻⁶ However, these natural nitrogen sources do not satisfy the increased demand of modern agriculture. The Haber-Bosch process, a well-known large-scale, continuous-flow, high-pressure, and high-temperature artificial nitrogen fixation technology, produces 500 million tons of artificial nitrogen fertilizer per year, which is responsible for sustaining one third of the Earth's population.⁷⁻¹⁰ However, this process consumes approximately 1% to 2% of the annual energy supply of the world and results in various deleterious environmental consequences. Therefore, artificial nitrogen fixation under mild conditions is among the most important and challenging topics in scientific and technological fields.

Photocatalytic N₂ fixation is one of the most interesting and challenging methods for artificial nitrogen fixation under mild conditions because this strategy uses renewable and sufficient solar energy as the driving force. The first study on photocatalytic N₂ fixation was reported by Schrauzer and Guth in 1977. They determined that iron-doped TiO₂ could photocatalytically reduce molecular nitrogen (N₂) to ammonia under UV light irradiation.¹¹ Afterward, Radford and Francis investigated photocatalytic N₂ fixation on iron-doped anatase and rutile in 1983. Their results showed that doped anatase was more active than doped rutile.¹² Based on previous studies, Fe₂Ti₂O₇ and SrTiO₃ were synthesized, and it was reported that they exhibited remarkable N₂ photofixation ability under visible light irradiation.^{13, 14} In previous publications, the photocatalysts used for N₂ photofixation focused only on titanium oxide and titanate. However, many other studies have shown that released nanomaterials, such as titanium oxide and titanate, exhibit toxic effects on organisms.^{15, 16} In addition, the production rates of ammonia are very low (only approximately 0 μM/h to 9 μM/h) in most of the previous photocatalytic N₂ fixation processes. The production rate of ammonia decreases after a few hours of light irradiation because the ammonia produced could be further oxidized by photogenerated holes. These disadvantages limit the development and practical use of photocatalytic N₂ fixation. Designing new photocatalysts that have a strong ability to selectively photocatalyze N₂ fixation is not only important but also a challenge in the promotion of the development of photocatalytic N₂ fixation.

Recently, Li and his coworkers investigated the photocatalytic N₂ fixation on BiOBr nanosheets. They observed that the photocatalytic N₂ fixation activity of BiOBr could significantly improve by introducing several oxygen vacancies (OVs).¹⁷ OVs could activate N₂ and significantly promote interfacial electron transfer. Their results give us an inspiration that nitrogen vacancies (NVs) may be more effective for photocatalytic N₂ fixation than OVs. First, NVs have the same shape and size as the nitrogen atom in N₂. Thus,

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NV-containing material is like the N_2 -imprinted polymer. As well as we known, molecular-imprinted polymer is an emerging material for selective recognition. Therefore, NVs may be used as excellent adsorbents and activators for N_2 .¹⁸ Second, NVs as defects can trap photogenerated electrons to inhibit the recombination of photogenerated carriers.¹⁹ To validate these considerations, we select graphitic carbon nitride ($g-C_3N_4$) as the photocatalyst for the photocatalytic N_2 fixation experiments. This is because $g-C_3N_4$ has visible light response, and NVs could be introduced into the framework of $g-C_3N_4$ by using a simple method.^{20, 21} In this study, we report for the first time that NV-incorporated $g-C_3N_4$ (V- $g-C_3N_4$) can selectively photoreduce N_2 and free from the interference of other gases. A series of experiments is designed to investigate the relationship between NVs and N_2 photofixation ability of $g-C_3N_4$. The reasons for the selective photocatalytic N_2 fixation are analyzed in detail.

Experimental Section

Preparation of the Catalysts. All chemicals used were analytical-grade reagents without further purification. $g-C_3N_4$ was synthesized by directly heating melamine based on previous reports.^{19, 20} Typically, melamine was placed in a covered crucible and heated to 500 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 20 °C/min, followed by further heat treatment at 520 °C for 2 h. V- $g-C_3N_4$ was synthesized by calcining as-prepared $g-C_3N_4$ in a tube furnace at 520 °C under N_2 flow for 2 h.

Characterization of the Photocatalysts. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer with monochromatized Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were conducted in a VG Scientific ESCALAB Mark II spectrometer equipped with two ultrahigh vacuum chambers. All the binding energies were calibrated to the C 1s peak at 284.6 eV of the surface adventitious carbon. The carbon-to-nitrogen (C/N) ratio of the samples was determined by elemental analysis (EA; Vario EL III CHNSO). Electron spin resonance (ESR) signals were recorded on a Bruker ESR A300 spectrometer at room temperature (298 K). The nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms at 77 K were measured using the Micrometrics ASAP2020 system after samples were vacuum-dried at 180 °C overnight. UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of samples were obtained using an UV-vis spectrometer (Shimadzu UV-2550).

Photocatalytic N_2 Fixation Experiments. The photocatalytic N_2 fixation experiments were conducted in a 100 mL reaction cell with an external cooling water jacket at ambient temperature and atmospheric pressure. A 300 W Xe lamp through an UV cutoff filter ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) was used as the light source. In a typical experiment, 50 mg of photocatalyst powder was suspended in 50 mL of aqueous solution containing 20% methanol (a type of photogenerated hole scavenger) in volume. N_2 (purity $\geq 99.999\%$) was bubbled through this solution for 1 h in the dark to establish an adsorption-desorption balance and saturate the solution with N_2 . Then, the reactor was sealed and shined with visible light ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$). During light irradiation, approximately 5 mL of the

suspension was obtained from the reaction cell at given intervals for subsequent NH_4^+ concentration analysis.

NH_4^+ concentration analysis was conducted using Nessler's reagent method. First, 5 mL of the suspension was filtered through a 0.22 μm membrane filter and placed in a 10 mL sample tube. Then, 100 μL of the potassium sodium tartrate solution was added to the sample tube. After blending, 150 μL of Nessler's reagent was added to the same sample tube and mixed. Then, the mixture was left to stand for 10 min for full color processing. Finally, the concentration of NH_4^+ was tested using an UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-2550) at $\lambda = 425 \text{ nm}$.

Results and Discussion

XRD was used to characterize the phase structure of the final samples (Fig. 1a). The samples of $g-C_3N_4$ and V- $g-C_3N_4$ contained two peaks at approximately 13.0° and 27.4°, which matched well with the (100) and (002) crystal planes of $g-C_3N_4$. The (100) crystal plane was attributed to the in-planar repeating triazine unit. By contrast, the (002) crystal plane with a strong diffraction peak was related to the layer stacking of aromatic systems. The (100) peak of V- $g-C_3N_4$ samples became weaker and broader than that of $g-C_3N_4$ samples, corresponding with the decrease in the order degree of in-plane structural packing. This finding indicates that many defects may exist in the V- $g-C_3N_4$ framework. Moreover, the peak at 27.4° of V- $g-C_3N_4$ shifts toward a larger 2θ value, corresponding to a decrease in the interlayer stacking distance, which may be due to the reduction in the repulsion between the interlayers caused by defects. In addition to XRD analysis, ESR could also prove the formation of defects. Fig. 1b shows that $g-C_3N_4$ exhibits a Lorentzian line originating from the unpaired electrons on the carbon atoms of the aromatic rings. This Lorentzian line was considerably enhanced after heat treatment with nitrogen gas because the formation of defects increased the number of unpaired electrons.

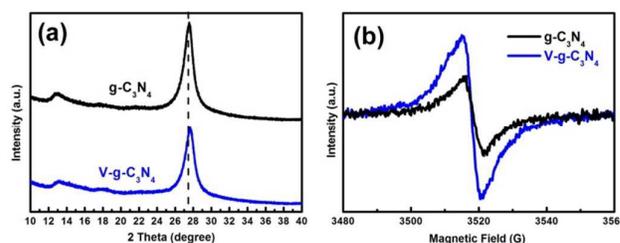


Fig. 1 XRD patterns (a) and ESR spectra (b) of $g-C_3N_4$ and V- $g-C_3N_4$.

EA was used to determine the C/N molar ratio in the final samples and to determine the type of defects formed in the V- $g-C_3N_4$ framework (Fig. 2a). The C/N molar ratio of V- $g-C_3N_4$ was 0.75, which was lower than that of $g-C_3N_4$ (0.81). This finding indicates that the defects formed in the V- $g-C_3N_4$ framework were NVs. XPS was further used to investigate the chemical compositions of the final samples (Fig. 2b and 2c). The high-resolution XPS spectrum of N 1s could be fitted with three peaks (Fig. 2b). Based on previous reports, the main peaks at 398.4 and 400.7 eV can be attributed to the C-N-C groups and tertiary nitrogen N-C₃ groups, respectively.

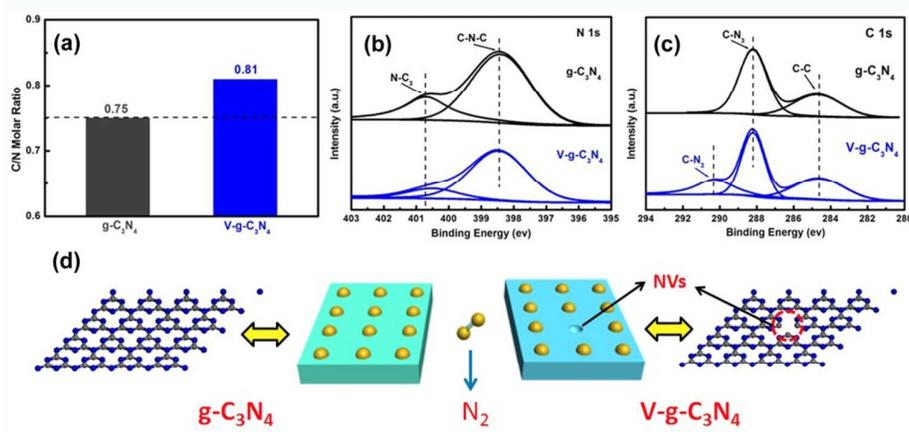


Fig. 2 C/N molar ratio in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (a); high-resolution XPS spectra of N 1s of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (b); high-resolution XPS spectra of C 1s of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (c); schematics of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (d).

Notably, the N 1s peak from N–C₃ was significantly weakened. As such, the peak–area ratio of N–C₃ to C–N–C decreased from 3.25 to 0.76, clearly indicating that NVs were mainly located at the tertiary nitrogen lattice sites. In addition, the high-resolution XPS peaks of C 1s of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can be fitted with two peaks at binding energies of 284.6 and 288.2 eV, which were ascribed to the tertiary carbon C–N₃ and C–C (arising from the adventitious carbon) groups, respectively. However, in addition to the C 1s peaks at 284.6 and 288.2 eV, a new peak at a high binding energy of 290.3 eV appears in the high-resolution XPS spectra of $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (Fig. 2c). This peak is attributed to the two-coordinated carbon (N–C–N) formed by the disappearance of three-coordinated nitrogen, thereby confirming the generation of NVs (Fig. 2d).

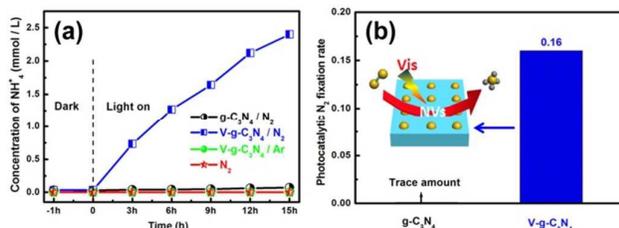


Fig. 3 The concentration of generated NH_4^+ in different systems (a); photocatalytic N_2 fixation rate of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (b).

The photocatalytic activities of the final samples were measured in photocatalytic N_2 fixation experiments (Fig. 3a). Control experiments showed that NH_4^+ cannot be detected in the absence of any one of three facts, namely, photocatalyst, N_2 , and visible light irradiation. This finding indicates that the

photocatalyst, N_2 , and visible light were necessary for the present photocatalytic N_2 fixation. After 15 h of visible light irradiation, no significant amount of NH_4^+ was detected in the case of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, whereas $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ could generate 2.4 mM of NH_4^+ in the N_2 atmosphere. The photocatalytic N_2 fixation rate was 1.24 mmol/h per 1 g of $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (Fig. 3b). Moreover, when nitrogen gas was replaced by high-purity argon gas (purity $\geq 99.999\%$), the photocatalytic N_2 fixation activity of $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ disappeared. Evidently, $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibited higher reactivity in photocatalytic N_2 fixation, confirming the vital function of NVs in the photocatalytic N_2 fixation on $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

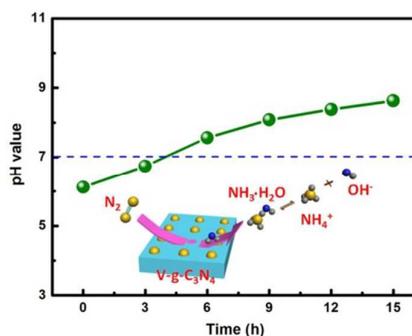
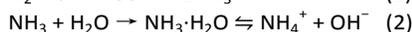


Fig. 4 The pH value change of the $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ suspension during the photocatalytic N_2 fixation process.

We analyze the pH value change of the $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ suspension during the photocatalytic N_2 fixation process to understand the photocatalytic N_2 fixation on $V\text{-}g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Before photocatalytic N_2 fixation, the pH value of the suspension is measured as 6.12. However, this pH value increased to 8.63 after 15 h of

photocatalytic N_2 fixation (Fig. 4) because the process requires a significant amount of H^+ . In addition, N_2 was first reduced to NH_3 , which consumes H^+ , and was changed to NH_4^+ . Although protons may be supplied by the oxidation reaction, the rate of proton consumption is greater than that of proton production. Therefore, the pH is increased in the process of photocatalytic N_2 fixation. The increase in pH value can be observed clearly from the following equations:



We investigated the Rhodamine B (RhB, 5 mg/L) photooxidation of two samples under aerobic and anoxic conditions to verify the authenticity of photocatalytic N_2 fixation on V-g-C₃N₄. After visible light irradiation for 60 min under aerobic conditions, the photodegradation efficiencies of RhB over g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ were approximately 30% and 64%, respectively (Fig. 5a and 5b). When air was eliminated by purging with high-purity argon gas, the RhB photooxidation rate on g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ decreased significantly. This finding was not surprising because photooxidation requires the participation of molecular oxygen and/or molecular nitrogen for the capture of photogenerated electrons to inhibit the recombination between photogenerated holes and photogenerated electrons. To further clarify photoelectrons capturer of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ in air, high-purity nitrogen gas and high-purity oxygen gas were selected as replacements for high-purity argon gas to eliminate air. When high-purity nitrogen gas was selected eliminate air, the photooxidation efficiency of RhB on V-g-C₃N₄ exhibited no significant change, whereas that on g-C₃N₄ significantly decreased. If air was eliminated by oxygen, the photooxidation efficiency of RhB on V-g-C₃N₄ significantly decreased, while that on g-C₃N₄ exhibited a slightly increase. These observations suggested that oxygen was the photoelectrons capturer of g-C₃N₄ in air, while nitrogen was the photoelectrons capturer of V-g-C₃N₄ in air. These observations were the evidence that N_2 could be reduced on V-g-C₃N₄. Therefore, we conclude that NVs endow g-C₃N₄ with the photocatalytic N_2 fixation ability.

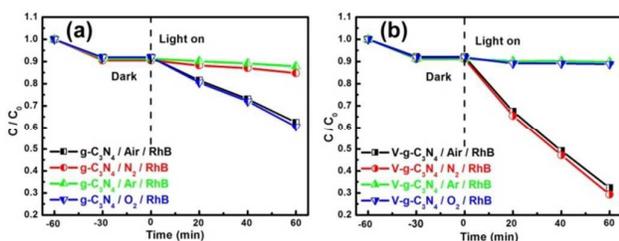


Fig. 5 The impact of N_2 , Ar and O_2 on the RhB photooxidation ability of g-C₃N₄ (a) and V-g-C₃N₄ (b).

In order to further prove the authenticity of photocatalytic N_2 fixation on V-g-C₃N₄, the photocatalytic N_2 fixation under 15N-isotope-labeled N_2 (purity $\geq 98.5\%$) was performed. Generated $^{15}NH_4^+$ reacts with phenolic and hypochlorite to form 15N-labeled indophenol, which was analysed by LC-MS. It is important to note that a strong 15N-labeled indophenol anion mass spectroscopy signal presented at 199 m/z in LC-MS

studies (Fig. S1, in the supporting information). The intensity of this signal relatively higher than that of 14N:15N natural abundance ratio. This observation further confirmed that N_2 was the source of generated ammonium ion in our experiment.

Photocatalytic N_2 fixation is a heterogeneous catalysis reaction. To our knowledge, adsorption is a necessary prerequisite of the heterogeneous catalysis reaction. Therefore, we compared the nitrogen gas physical adsorption ability of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ to clarify the reasons for the excellent photocatalytic N_2 fixation activity of V-g-C₃N₄. Fig. 6a shows that the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller specific surface areas of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ are 8.2 and 17.4 m²/g, respectively. The N_2 adsorption amount of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ at P/P₀ = 0.986 are 30.9 and 75.1 cm³/g, respectively, indicating that heat treatment with nitrogen gas increases the N_2 physical adsorption ability of the final product by 2.4 times. However, 2.4 times of N_2 physical adsorption on V-g-C₃N₄ were less than the countless times of photocatalytic N_2 fixation on V-g-C₃N₄. The excellent photocatalytic N_2 fixation activity of V-g-C₃N₄ is due not only to better N_2 physical adsorption ability but also to other more important factors related to the NVs.

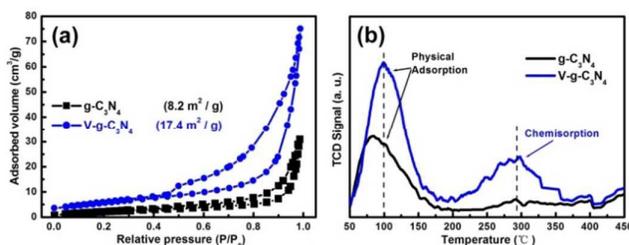


Fig. 6 N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms (a) and TPD spectra (b) of the as-prepared g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄.

As the chemical adsorption sites are regarded as reaction centers capable of activating N_2 , chemisorption is an essential step in photocatalytic N_2 fixation. Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) investigations have been conducted to understand N_2 chemisorption on the surface of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄. In Fig. 6b, we compared the results of TPD studies of N_2 on g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄. We clearly observed two adsorbed N_2 species in V-g-C₃N₄ catalyst and only one adsorbed N_2 species in g-C₃N₄. The peak of g-C₃N₄ at approximately 100 °C, which was related to physical adsorption, is weaker than that of V-g-C₃N₄. This finding is in agreement with results in previous studies on N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms. Moreover, the peak at 295 °C, which was related to the strong chemisorption species of N_2 , was observed for V-g-C₃N₄, but not for g-C₃N₄. This finding indicated that NVs could introduce many chemical adsorption sites on the surface of V-g-C₃N₄. Because chemisorption is usually associated with the activation, these chemical adsorption sites will activate N_2 and endow V-g-C₃N₄ with the photocatalytic N_2 fixation ability.

Considering that NVs have the same shape and size as the nitrogen atom in N_2 , we believe that NVs on the V-g-C₃N₄ surface are the chemical adsorption sites of N_2 . The surface of V-g-C₃N₄ was loaded with palladium (Pd) through the photodeposition method to confirm this opinion. Given that

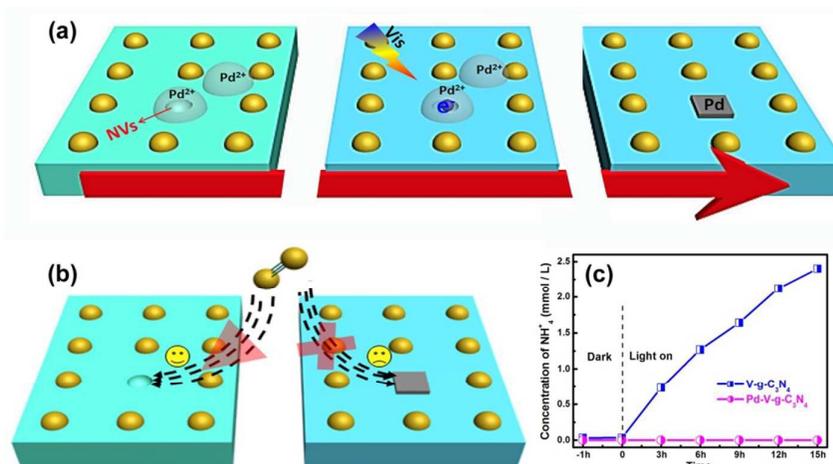


Fig. 7 Pd particles can be selectively deposited onto NVs (a); N₂ will not be adsorbed on the Pd particle because of the considerable work function (b); the loading of Pd onto V-g-C₃N₄ can completely suppress photocatalytic N₂ fixation (c).

photogenerated electrons are confined in the NVs, Pd particles can be selectively deposited onto NVs (Fig. 7a). Moreover, N₂ will not be adsorbed on the platinum group metals because of the considerable work function of these metals (Fig. 7b).²² Therefore, when NVs are the chemical adsorption sites of N₂, the modification of Pd particles will block N₂ adsorption, thereby inhibiting N₂ photoreduction. Fig. 7c shows that the loading of Pd onto V-g-C₃N₄ (Fig. S2) can completely suppress photocatalytic N₂ fixation, confirming that N₂ was mainly adsorbed on the surface NVs of V-g-C₃N₄.

To further confirm that N₂ was mainly adsorbed on the NVs and activated by NVs, density functional theory (DFT) simulations were employed to investigate the interaction between N₂ molecule and V-g-C₃N₄ surface. Once the geometric structure of V-g-C₃N₄ was modelled, we optimized it with a N₂ molecule above the V-g-C₃N₄ surface. The optimized results indicated that N₂ molecule prefer adsorbing on the NVs. When N₂ molecule adsorbs on the NVs, two σ bonds between N₂ molecule and two nearest C atoms are formed (Fig. S3), confirming N₂ was mainly adsorbed on the NVs. After N₂ molecule combined with NVs, the coupling scheme of N₂ molecule changed as the bond length relaxed from 1.117 Å to 1.214 Å, proving that NVs could activate N₂.

Since NV-containing material is like the N₂-imprinted polymer, we believe that many other gases, such as oxygen and carbon dioxide, do not affect the photocatalytic N₂ fixation activity of V-g-C₃N₄. To test this hypothesis, N₂ was replaced by mixed gas (N₂, O₂ and CO₂ with the volume ratio of 1:1:1) in the photocatalytic N₂ fixation experiment. As shown in Fig. S4, the presence of O₂ and CO₂ does not affect the photocatalytic N₂ fixation activity of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-

C₃N₄. This is evidence that the photocatalytic N₂ fixation activity of V-g-C₃N₄ is free from the interference of other gases. Besides the investigation of photocatalytic N₂ fixation activity, by products were also investigated to check if the N₂ fixation of V-g-C₃N₄ has selectivity. We firstly tested the H₂ generated in the process of photocatalytic N₂ fixation under the mixed gas condition. However, there were no any H₂ could be detected over both g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄. Additionally, CO and CH₄ were also investigated. The tested results shown that CO and CH₄ could be detected in the reactor of g-C₃N₄, but not detected in the reactor of V-g-C₃N₄, indicating NVs could not transmit electrons from V-g-C₃N₄ to CO₂ (Fig. S5). Moreover, we used the 5,5-dimethyl-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO) spin trapping ESR technique to measure $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ generated during photocatalysis under mixed gas saturated conditions (Fig. 8a). Four characteristic peaks of DMPO- $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ were evidently observed in methanolic suspensions of g-C₃N₄, while no peaks could

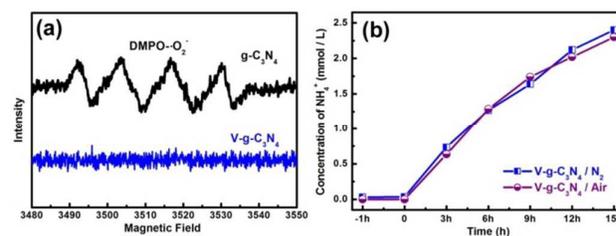


Fig. 8 5,5-dimethyl-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO) spin trapping ESR technique to measure $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ generated during photocatalysis under mixed gas saturated conditions (a); The replacement of N₂ with air does not change the photocatalytic N₂ fixation rate on V-g-C₃N₄ (b).

be observed in methanolic suspensions of V-g-C₃N₄, reflecting that electrons do not be transferred from the surface of V-g-C₃N₄ to molecular oxygen. All these phenomena confirmed that NVs could selectively adsorb and reduce N₂ from many gases. Based on this result, it is reasonable to consider that V-g-C₃N₄ could directly photoreduce N₂ in the air atmosphere. To test this speculation, N₂ was replaced by air in the photocatalytic N₂ fixation experiment. The replacement of N₂ with air does not change the photocatalytic N₂ fixation rate on V-g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 8b). Therefore, V-g-C₃N₄ is more efficient and practical than previous photocatalysts in photocatalytic N₂ fixation because V-g-C₃N₄ is free from the interference of other gases.

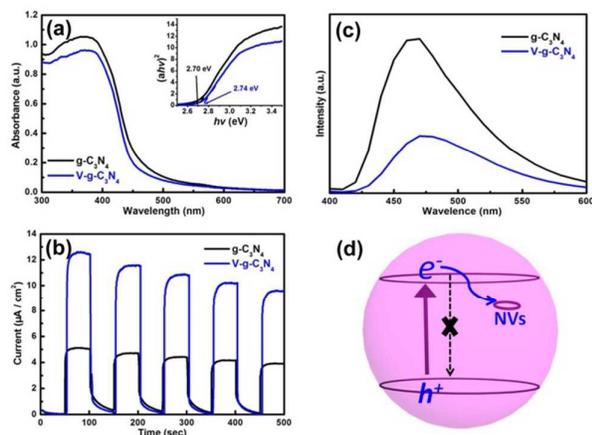


Fig. 9 The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ (a); the photocurrent generated on V-g-C₃N₄ was significantly higher than that on g-C₃N₄ (b); photoluminescence (PL) spectra are used to investigate the recombination and separation of photogenerated electrons and holes in the g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ samples (c). NVs can act as electron trappers to improve carrier separation (d)

In addition to adsorption and activation, the redox ability and photoelectrons strongly affect the photoreduction activity of a semiconductor. The UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of the samples are recorded (Fig. 9a). DRS analysis reveals that g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ absorbs visible light in the range of 400 nm to 700 nm. The band gap energy of V-g-C₃N₄ is approximately 2.74 eV, which was slightly larger than that of g-C₃N₄ (2.70 eV). We believe that the enlarged band gaps of V-g-C₃N₄ are attributed to quantum confinement effect (QCE) because of the introduction of NVs. Since QCE could increase the band gap by oppositely shifting valence and conduction band edges, the conduction band of V-g-C₃N₄ should possess more powerful photoreduction ability than that of g-C₃N₄. However, the enlarged band gap would reduce the visible light use efficiency and make the electronic excitation of semiconductor more difficult under visible light. Normally, V-g-C₃N₄ with enlarged band gap would produce a lower photocurrent than g-C₃N₄. However, we observed the photocurrent generated on V-g-C₃N₄ was significantly higher than that on g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 9b). Photocurrent relies on the amount of photoelectrons transferred from the semiconductor to the fluorine-doped tin

oxide (FTO) glass substrate. Therefore, higher photocurrent implies that the NVs inhibit the recombination of the photogenerated carriers and eventually produce more photoelectrons. Then, photoluminescence (PL) spectra are used to investigate the recombination and separation of photogenerated electrons and holes in the g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ samples (Fig. 9c). The emission peak that appears at approximately 455 nm was attributed to the direct electron and hole recombination of band transition. Compared with g-C₃N₄, V-g-C₃N₄ has a weaker emission peak, confirming that NVs can act as electron trappers to improve carrier separation (Fig. 9d). Powerful photoreduction activity and carrier separation efficiency further improve the photocatalytic N₂ fixation activity of V-g-C₃N₄.

The photogenerated electrons that arrive at the surface of g-C₃N₄ or are trapped by the NVs of V-g-C₃N₄ should be immediately transferred from the semiconductors to the adsorbed N₂ to trigger photocatalytic N₂ fixation. Li and his coworkers revealed that OV promotes interfacial charge transfer from BiOBr nanosheets to N₂. We hypothesized that NVs also promote photogenerated electron transfer from g-C₃N₄ to adsorbed N₂. Photocurrent measurement and PL spectra are further used to collect information on the effects of NVs on interfacial electron transformation to test this hypothesis. Under N₂ atmosphere, the photocurrent generated on g-C₃N₄ electrode is unchanged with irradiation time during the entire irradiation period. However, the photocurrent density of V-g-C₃N₄ under N₂ atmosphere gradually decreases with irradiation time, as shown in Fig. 10a. Photocurrent decay mainly occurs because of the competition between N₂ and FTO glass for trapped electrons, confirming that NVs promote photogenerated electron transfer from g-C₃N₄ to adsorbed N₂. Fig. 10b shows the PL spectra of V-g-C₃N₄ under Ar and N₂ atmospheres. Under N₂ atmosphere, the intensity of the emission peak caused by the combination of electrons and holes has been significantly reduced compared with that under Ar atmosphere. By contrast, no difference between the PL spectra of g-C₃N₄ under the N₂ and Ar atmosphere is observed (Fig. 10b), further confirming that NVs promote photogenerated electron transfer from g-C₃N₄ to adsorbed N₂.

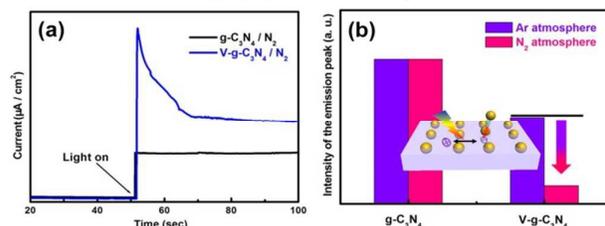


Fig. 10 The photocurrent density of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ under N₂ atmosphere (a); the intensity of PL spectra of g-C₃N₄ and V-g-C₃N₄ under Ar and N₂ atmospheres, respectively (b).

NVs endow g-C₃N₄ with the photocatalytic N₂ fixation ability for three reasons. First, NVs selectively adsorb and activate N₂ because NVs have the same shape and size as the nitrogen atom in N₂. Second, NVs effectively improve the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers and generate more photoelectrons. Third, NVs promote photogenerated electron

transfer from g-C₃N₄ to adsorbed N₂. All three reasons make photocatalytic N₂ fixation on the surface of V-g-C₃N₄ easier.

Conclusions

We successfully synthesized V-g-C₃N₄ by heat treatment with nitrogen gas. In the photocatalysis experiments, we observed that NVs could endow g-C₃N₄ with the photocatalytic N₂ fixation ability. NVs selectively adsorbed and activated N₂ because NVs have the same shape and size as the nitrogen atom in N₂. The photocatalytic N₂ fixation process was free from the interference of other gases because of selective adsorption and activation. In addition to this advantage, NVs also improved the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers and the electron transfer from g-C₃N₄ to adsorbed N₂. This study is the first to report on how NVs affect the reactivity of semiconductors on N₂ photofixation. The new findings could elucidate the design of efficient photocatalysts for selective photocatalytic N₂ fixation.

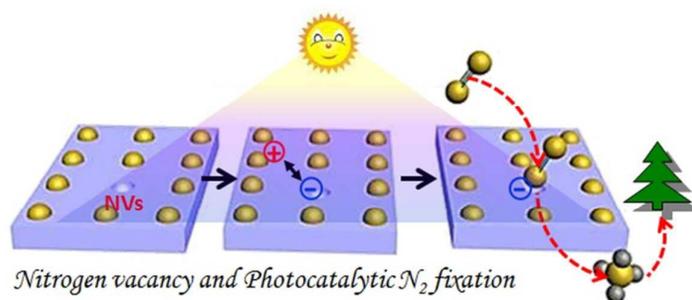
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Table of contents



We report for the first time that NV-incorporated g-C₃N₄ can selectively photoreduce N₂ and free from the interference of other gases.