

Extending the Optical Absorption Limit of Graphitic Carbon Nitride Photocatalysts: A Review

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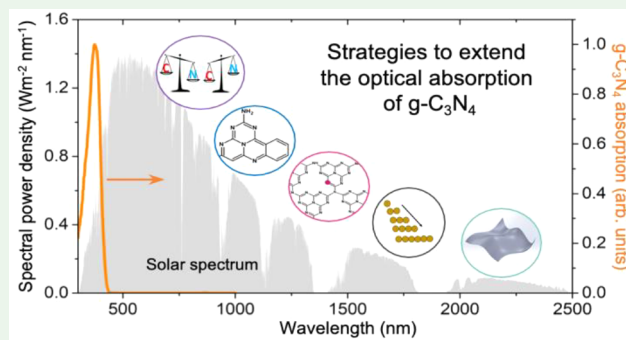
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ABSTRACT: Due to its chemical/thermal stability, metal-free nature, abundance, low toxicity, cost-effectiveness, high surface area, tunable properties, and ease of synthesis, graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$) is a promising material for applications in catalysis, sensing, energy storage and optoelectronics. By virtue of its optical band gap, $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has been extensively used to drive a range of photocatalytic reactions, such as H_2 generation, CO_2 reduction, N_2 fixation, and organic transformation, to name a few. Despite these prospects, significant improvement in extending its optical absorption is essential because $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ absorbs light only up to 460 nm ($\approx 10\%$ of the incoming sunlight). Thus, reducing its band gap to harness a wider part of the sunlight is a key approach to advancing the solar energy conversion efficiency of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. In this direction, the effect of (i) improving the degree of polymerization, (ii) molecular and elemental doping, (iii) distorting planar structure, (iv) inducing nitrogen vacancies, and (v) tuning the C/N ratio of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ on red-shifting the optical absorption is analyzed in detail. A comprehensive correlation between the synthesis approach/conditions–structure–optical property is established. Rational guidelines on extending the spectral response of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ toward the visible/near-infrared region and using low-energy photons to drive photocatalytic reactions efficiently are detailed. The insights presented will help to utilize the full potential of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to enhance the solar fuel generation efficiency and in understanding the mechanism of light absorption.

KEYWORDS: Graphitic carbon nitride, photocatalysis, optical absorption, band gap, defects, thermal polymerization, doping, H_2 generation



1. INTRODUCTION

Sunlight is the primary source of heat and light for life on Earth. An hour of solar irradiation on the Earth's surface will suffice for human energy consumption for over a year.¹ Driven by billions of years of evolution, nature has designed photosynthesis to efficiently harvest sunlight. It occurs commonly in green plants where CO_2 and water are converted to carbohydrates and oxygen by absorbing sunlight.² In efforts to mimic natural photosynthesis, a process called photocatalysis was developed at the beginning of the 20th century.³ In photocatalysis, a semiconducting material harvests the sunlight owing to its optical band gap, essentially mimicking the role of a leaf in photosynthesis.⁴ These materials generate electrons and holes upon light absorption, which can potentially be utilized for a range of reduction and/or oxidation reactions. Indeed, such reactions were possible via photocatalytic water splitting on TiO_2 surface⁵ and CO_2 reduction using $\text{BaLa}_4\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_{15}$ photocatalyst.⁶ There has been a significant advancement in extending the photocatalytic approach to a range of reactions like NH_3 decomposition,^{7,8}

biomass valorization,⁹ converting waste to value-added chemicals/fuels,^{10,11} and environmental remediation.^{12–14}

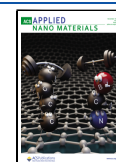
Even after four decades of its discovery, work related to photocatalysis was limited to lab-scale research activities. The photocatalytic approach has not been transformed into a technology and its feasibility toward large-scale solar fuel production was not conceived. Domen and his group recently reported sunlight-driven H_2 generation over 100 m^2 photocatalyst modules.¹⁵ This work demonstrated the potential and viability of the photocatalytic approach toward scalable green H_2 production for the first time. Another recent work from Mi group demonstrated solar-to-hydrogen (STH) energy conversion efficiency of 6% using seawater under direct sunlight.¹⁶ These recent reports unambiguously demonstrate the

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Efficiency of a photocatalytic reaction is collectively determined by the following parameters

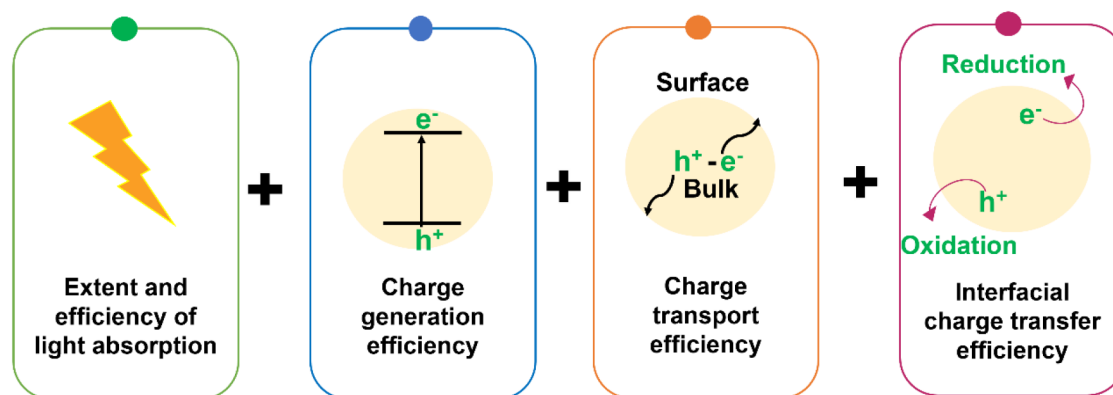


Figure 1. Factors determining the efficiency of a photocatalytic reaction.

possibility of using photocatalysis approach to generate solar fuels at scale.

The past decade has witnessed tremendous growth in photocatalytic water splitting. However, the challenge remains in designing cost-effective photocatalysts exhibiting prolonged stability under the aqueous environment. In addition, improving the ability of a photocatalyst to harness a wider part of the solar spectrum by reducing its optical band gap is critical.^{17–19} Thus, there is immense scope and need to develop narrow band gap photocatalysts to enhance the STH energy conversion efficiency further.

2. FACTORS DETERMINING THE EFFICIENCY OF A PHOTOCATALYTIC REACTION

The photocatalysis process starts with the absorption of photons with energy greater than the band gap of the semiconducting photocatalyst, leading to charge carrier generation, i.e., electrons (e^-) in the conduction band and holes (h^+) in the valence band. While the photogeneration of charge carriers takes place in the bulk of the semiconductor, they must migrate to the surface of the semiconductor, which is the reaction site. Finally, interfacial electron and/or hole transfer results in reduction or oxidation reactions.^{20–23} As a prerequisite, the conduction and valence bands of the photocatalyst must straddle with the reduction and oxidation potential of the target reaction.^{24–26} The photocatalytic efficiency is collectively governed by the efficiency of light absorption, charge carrier generation, charge migration, and charge transfer across the semiconductor–electrolyte interface, as depicted in Figure 1.

While the efficiency of charge carrier generation, migration, and interfacial charge transfer has a definite impact on the photocatalytic performance, the initial judgment of the photocatalytic efficiency is primarily decided by the efficiency and the extent of light absorption. Metal oxides have been extensively used to drive a range of photocatalytic reactions for nearly five decades.^{27–32} However, they are fundamentally limited by their light absorption capacity, exclusively in the ultraviolet (UV) region, which constitutes <5% of the solar spectrum.^{33,34} The visible region (400–760 nm) constitutes \approx 45% of the incoming sunlight.³⁵ Most photocatalysts absorbing in this range are metal-based sulfides, nitrides and oxynitrides, which suffer from poor chemical stability.^{36–38} Thus, there is immense scope to develop narrow-band gap

metal-free photocatalysts with extended optical absorption in the visible region and prolonged stability.

3. G-C₃N₄: A PROMISING PHOTOCATALYST WITH TUNABLE OPTOELECTRONIC PROPERTIES

Metal-free photocatalysts are semiconducting materials made up of elements such as carbon (C), nitrogen (N), oxygen (O), sulfur (S), and phosphorus (P).^{39,40} Of these elements, C- and N-based polymeric semiconductors, known as graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), is drawing immense attention due to their metal-free nature, two-dimensional (2D) polymeric structure, facile preparation method, chemical stability and optical absorption edge in the visible region. In addition, g-C₃N₄ offers a unique opportunity to tune its optoelectronic property via surface modification and doping at molecular and atomic level. Furthermore, the absorption coefficient of g-C₃N₄ thin film is $\approx 10^4$ cm⁻¹ at 430 nm,⁴¹ which is comparable to that of conducting polymer such as poly(3-hexylthiophene).⁴² Despite the absence of continuous π -conjugation in g-C₃N₄, unlike typical conducting polymers with extended conjugated networks, their optical absorption efficiency is very high. These advantages further highlight the promising prospects of g-C₃N₄ for optoelectronic applications, specifically photocatalysis.

Such prospects of g-C₃N₄ have significantly increased the number of publications, as indicated in Figure 2. Among them, more than 40% of the published reports between 2011 and 2022 are exclusively related to photocatalysis, reinforcing the immense importance of g-C₃N₄ as a photocatalyst. Photocatalytic research utilizing g-C₃N₄ was pioneered by Wang et al. in 2009 for water-splitting reaction.⁴³ Since then, there has been significant advancement in the design of g-C₃N₄ for various photocatalytic reduction reactions such as H₂ evolution,^{44,45} CO₂ reduction,^{46,47} dye degradation,^{13,48} and organic transformation reactions,^{49,50} depicted in Figure 3. However, limited reports on g-C₃N₄ demonstrate oxidation reactions promoted by direct hole oxidation.⁵¹ This is because g-C₃N₄ does not have the required thermodynamic driving energy to form hydroxyl free radicals (oxidants).^{52,53} Besides its utilization in photocatalysis, g-C₃N₄ is explored for sensing, light-emitting diodes and imaging that harnesses its photoluminescent (PL) property.^{54–57}

The feasibility of photocatalytic reaction at scale (≈ 1 m²) using g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst has already been demonstrated by Schröder et al.⁵⁸ Figure 4 depicts a panel-type reactor consisting of Pt-loaded mesoporous g-C₃N₄ drop-casted onto

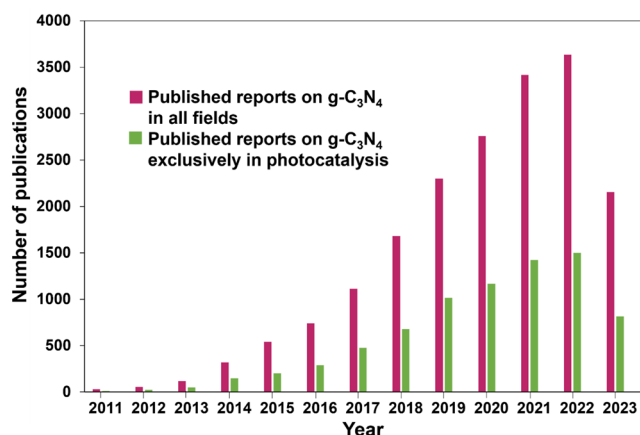


Figure 2. Statistics derived from the Web of Science database on the number of publications on g-C₃N₄ from 2011 to 2023. The keywords used were “g-C₃N₄” and “g-C₃N₄ + photocatalyst”. The date of search is 10th September 2023.

stainless steel. In 30 days, 18.2 L of H₂ was generated from 0.756 m² photocatalyst panel. However, the STH energy conversion efficiency achieved was 0.12%, which is still very low compared to the theoretical maximum efficiency of $\approx 5\%$.⁵⁹ Thus, there is immense scope to understand the optoelectronic property further to enhance the STH energy conversion efficiency of g-C₃N₄.

Despite such extensive investigations, the main challenge is to improve the light absorption efficiency of g-C₃N₄. In addition, due to inadequate correlation between the synthesis–structure–property of g-C₃N₄, our understating of the mechanism of light absorption is limited. The absorption onset of g-C₃N₄ is around 460 nm, narrowly qualifies as a visible-light absorbing photocatalyst. Figure 5 compares the solar and the optical absorption spectrum of strontium titanate (SrTiO₃), g-C₃N₄ and tantalum nitride (Ta₃N₅). The light-harvesting capacity of g-C₃N₄ exceeds that of wide band gap

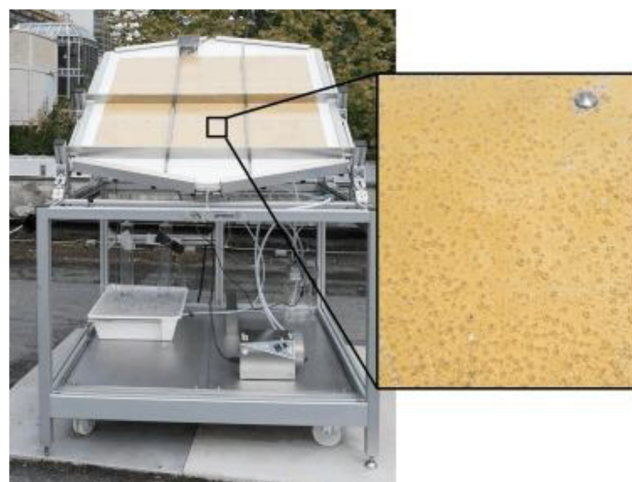


Figure 4. Large-scale solar H₂ evolution reaction demonstrated using a panel-type reactor containing immobilized Pt-loaded mesoporous carbon nitride photocatalyst. H₂ evolution (bubbling) on the surface of photocatalysts is shown in the magnified image. Reproduced with permission from ref 58. Copyright 2015 John Wiley and Sons.

SrTiO₃, which absorbs only in the UV region.⁶⁰ However, g-C₃N₄ can absorb up to 460 nm, which only accounts for $\approx 10\%$ of the incoming sunlight. On the other hand, Ta₃N₅ absorbs up to ≈ 620 nm, thus harvesting an additional $\approx 25\%$ of the solar spectrum relative to g-C₃N₄. The theoretical maximum STH energy conversion efficiencies⁵⁹ of these photocatalysts are also compared in Figure 5. A further red-shift of the absorption of g-C₃N₄ is key to achieving higher STH energy conversion efficiency and will help utilize its promising prospects. In this direction, this Review offers an overall perspective of the existing routes/methods to intrinsically reduce the optical band gap of g-C₃N₄ that allows the harvesting of low-energy photons of sunlight.

3.1. Chemical Structure and Synthesis of g-C₃N₄.

According to the first-principles density functional theory

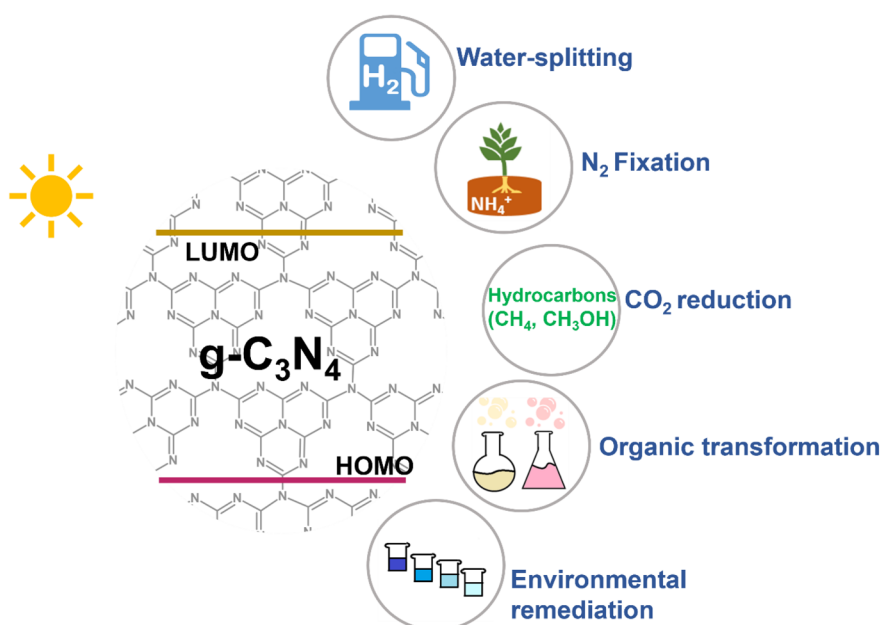


Figure 3. Applications of g-C₃N₄ in various reduction and/or oxidation reactions via the photocatalytic approach.

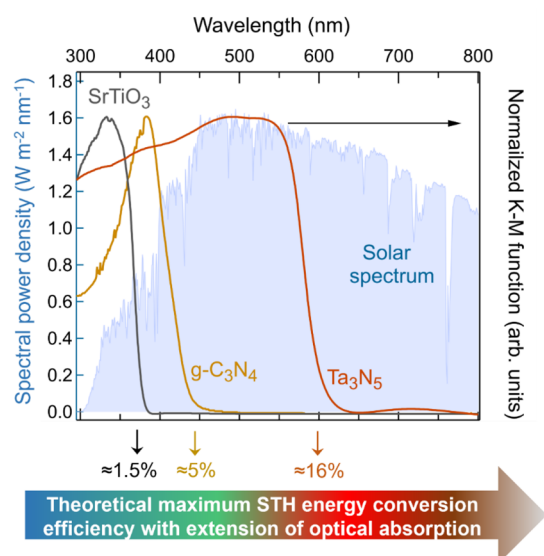


Figure 5. Comparing the solar spectrum and the optical absorption spectra (right axis) of SrTiO_3 , $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and Ta_3N_5 powdered photocatalysts measured in diffuse reflection mode. Theoretical maximum STH energy conversion efficiency of the photocatalysts is mentioned below the spectral overlay. Note that the solar spectrum is shown only to 800 nm to allow better comparison.

(DFT) studies, C_3N_4 has seven phases, namely, $\alpha\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, $\beta\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, cubic C_3N_4 , pseudocubic, and graphitic phases (g-h-triazine, g-h-heptazine, and g-o-triazine).⁶¹ Either triazine or tri-s-triazine-based rings with interconnected planar amino groups form the tectonic units of the allotropes of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, as depicted in Figure 6a and 6b.⁶² $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has a layered structure similar to graphite where the stacking layers are held together by weak van der Waals forces. Each layer of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ contains carbon and nitrogen atoms arranged in an alternate fashion connected by alternating double bonds within the triazine and/or tri-s-triazine unit (also known as heptazine). In addition, Figure 6c and 6d demonstrates another class of carbon nitrides-poly(heptazine imide) (PHI) and poly(triazine imide) (PTI), respectively. In PHI, heptazine units are connected by imide groups, bonded to three neighboring heptazine units. Such an arrangement of heptazine units creates a triangular void that is stabilized by a melamine molecule through hydrogen bonding (H-bonding).⁶³ The unique structure of PHI is achieved through a synthesis process that involves further polymerization of partially condensed melon using salt melts.⁶⁴ On the other hand, PTI features a completely delocalized π -electron system with triazine units linked by imide groups, as depicted in Figure 6d. It is synthesized using eutectic LiCl and KX (X : Cl or Br) salt melts with C- and N-

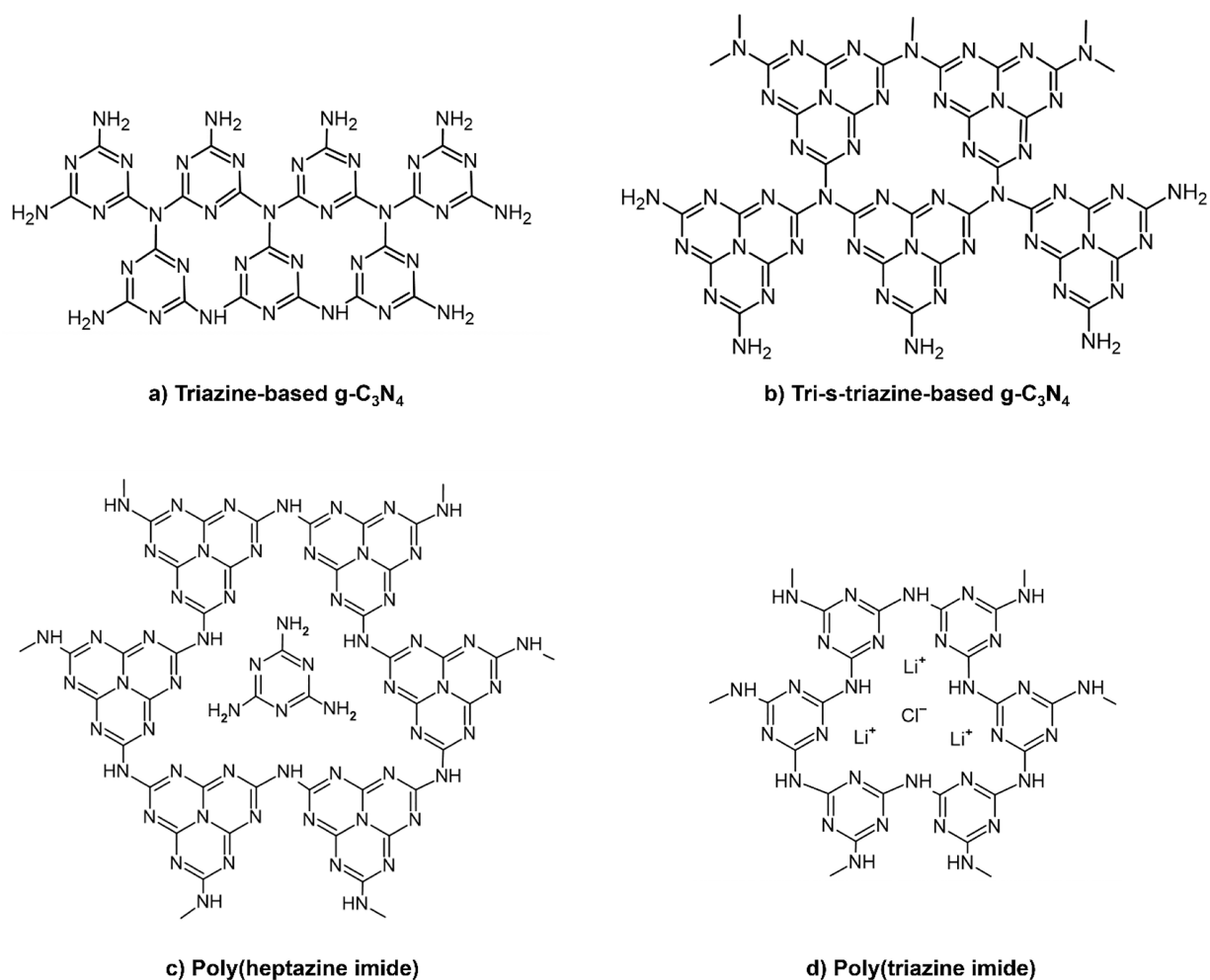


Figure 6. $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ comprised of (a) triazine units, (b) tri-s-triazine units, (c) poly(heptazine imide) units, and (d) poly(triazine imide) units.

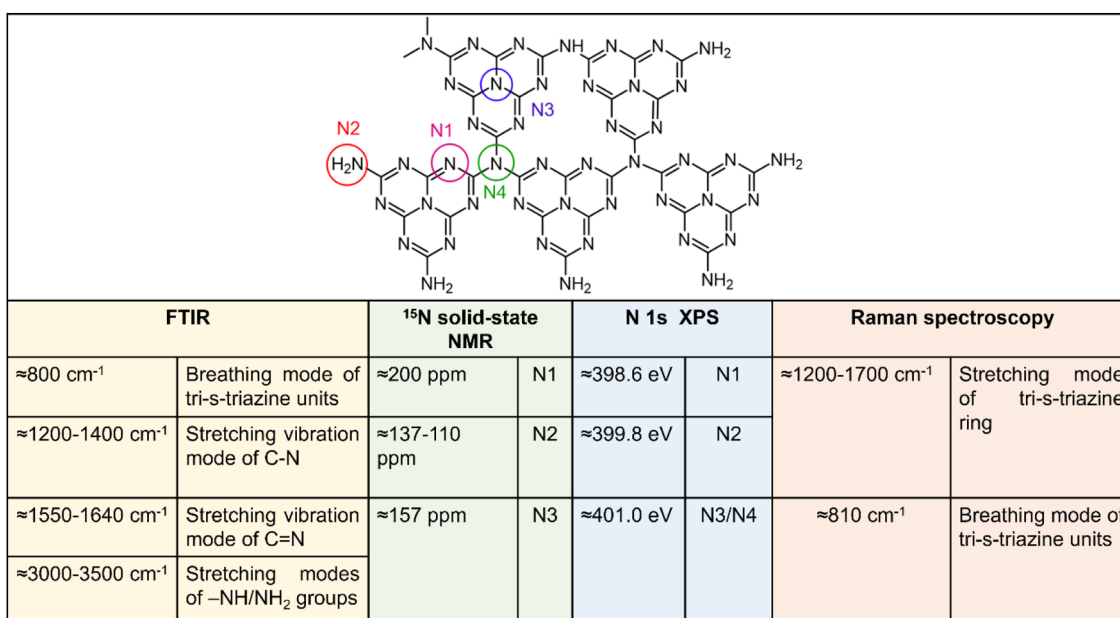


Figure 7. Tri-s-triazine-based $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ indicating the types of N atoms involved in bonding, indicated as N1, N2, N3, and N4. Experimental evidence confirming the chemical structure of tri-s-triazine-based units of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ obtained from FTIR, ^{15}N solid-state NMR, XPS, and Raman spectroscopy analysis are mentioned.^{75–80}

rich precursors, where Li^+ and Cl^- are intercalated into the triazine-based structure.⁶⁵

Among all phases, tri-s-triazine-based $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is the most stable one reported for carbon nitride. Figure 7 shows four nonequivalent N atoms in the tri-s-triazine unit are present—one (N1) is two-coordinated, while three N atoms (N2, N3, N4) are three-coordinated. The chemical and electronic nature of tri-s-triazine units of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can be characterized by Fourier transform infrared (FTIR), Raman spectroscopy, ^{15}N solid state-nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS),^{75–80} as detailed in Figure 7. A strong covalent interaction between C and N atoms in the heterocyclic tri-s-triazine units renders thermal (up to 600 °C) and chemical stability. In addition, due to the conjugated electronic structure of sp^2 hybridized C and N within the tri-s-triazine units, it has the lowest band gap (≈ 2.75 eV) among all the phases of carbon nitride, thus capable of harvesting visible light.^{43,81–83}

$g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was first synthesized via the thermal polymerization of cyanamide between 400 to 600 °C and employed as a photocatalyst for the H_2 evolution reaction.⁴³ Typically, the polymerization of cyanamide to dicyanamide and melamine occurs between 200 to 240 °C. A further rise in temperature to 390 °C led to the rearrangement of melamine units to form tri-s-triazine-based units, which subsequently polymerized to form $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ around 520 °C. However, prolonged heating of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ beyond 600 °C led to the disintegration of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ structure. Table 1 lists various precursors and methods employed in the synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ along with the resulting band gap. It clearly shows the effect of temperature and precursor on the optical property of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, which can be utilized to tune its optoelectronic properties. Depending on the precursor, the intermediates formed in the initial stage and the pathway of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ formation differ.^{43,84,85} Figure 8 depicts various reaction intermediates formed during the synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.⁸⁶ However, most reports indicate that polymerization

Table 1. Different Preparation Methods, Precursors Employed, Temperature Range Utilized in the Synthesis of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and the Resulting Band Gap

Synthesis method	Precursor(s)	Temperature (°C)	Band gap (eV)	Ref.
Thermal polymerization	Melamine	580	2.75	66
	Urea	520–550	2.73	67
	Dicyandiamide	550	2.66	67
	Thiourea	550	2.60	67
	Cyanamide	500	2.62	68
Chemical vapor deposition	Melamine	600	2.87	69
	Melamine	550	2.88	70
	Melamine	550	NA	71
Solvothermal synthesis	Cyanuric acid, sodium azide, acetonitrile	220	1.85	72
	Cyanuric acid, sodium azide, acetonitrile	180	2.51	73
Physical vapor deposition	Graphite and N_2/Ar discharge	NA	NA	74

proceeds via the formation of melon units, indicating that tri-s-triazine is the building block of polymeric $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.^{84,87–90}

3.2. Electronic Structure and Optical Absorption. The ability of the conjugated polymers to absorb UV–visible light is attributed to the sp^2 -hybridization of the elements in the conjugated system.⁹¹ The N and C atoms in the tri-s-triazine unit of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ are sp^2 -hybridized. Hence, initially, single electron-filled p_z orbitals of C and N atoms split into two energy bands, corresponding to π and π^* of bonding and antibonding nature, respectively. The first-principles study indicated that the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) mainly comprises N 2p and N 2s orbitals with a minor contribution from C 2p and C 2s orbitals. On the other hand, the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) primarily consists of C 2p and N 2p orbitals.⁹²

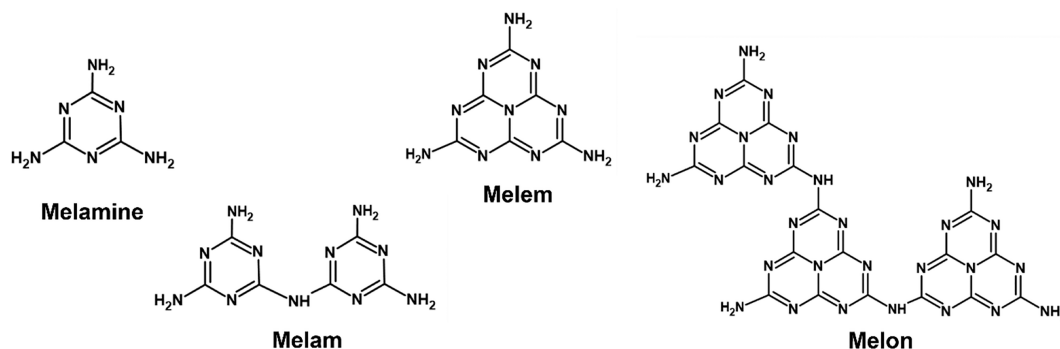


Figure 8. Various intermediates formed during the thermal polymerization of C- and N-rich precursors.⁸⁶

Theoretically, two types of electron transitions are possible in g-C₃N₄, (i) $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ and (ii) $n \rightarrow \pi^*$. Upon light absorption, electrons are excited from π orbitals (HOMO) to π^* (LUMO), constituting the fundamental transition, depicted as T₁ in Figure 9. The energy requirement for T₁ gives rise to

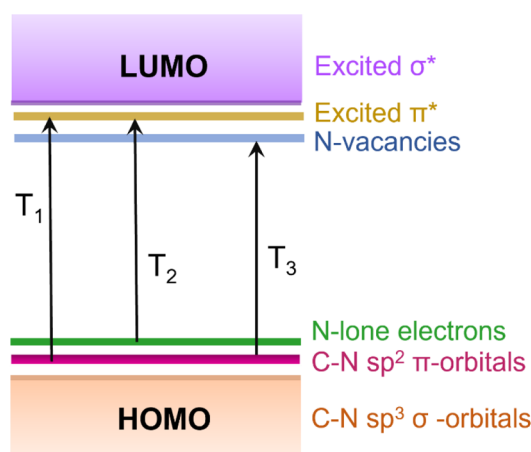


Figure 9. Proposed energy band diagram of g-C₃N₄ indicating fundamental transition (T₁) and possible transitions (T₂ and T₃) at a lower energy than T₁.

an absorption onset of ≈ 460 nm, as shown in Figure 5.⁹¹ The transitions from lone pair of electrons on the edge N atoms (N1 in Figure 7) to π^* orbitals are theoretically predicted to yield an absorption shoulder at $\lambda \geq 490$ nm.⁹² This transition is denoted as T₂ in Figure 9. However, $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ electron transitions are rarely reported in a perfectly symmetric, planar g-C₃N₄, likely because a lone pair of electrons on N atoms lie orthogonal to the π -conjugation plane and cannot be photoexcited. Therefore, $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ is the transition responsible for visible-light absorption, resulting in a band gap of ≈ 2.75 eV. In the subsequent sections, various approaches to red-shift ($\lambda \geq 460$ nm) the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ will be discussed.

4. OPPORTUNITIES TO RED-SHIFT THE OPTICAL ABSORPTION OF g-C₃N₄ BEYOND 460 NM FOR EFFICIENT UTILIZATION OF THE SOLAR SPECTRUM

There have been attempts to extend the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ by making its composite (or heterostructure) with another near-infrared (NIR) absorbing material. This approach has been used in *z*-scheme photocatalysis reactions.^{93–97} However, despite significant research progress, a mechanistic insight into intrinsically red-shifting the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ is limited. In addition, understanding of how the

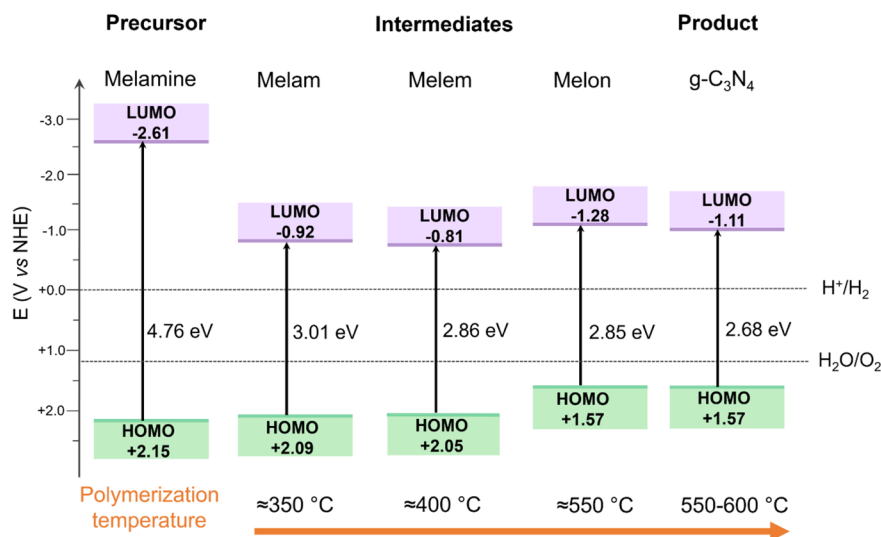
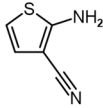
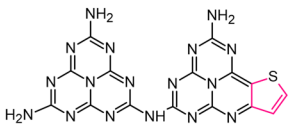
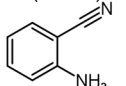
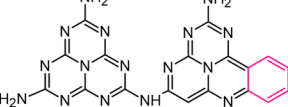
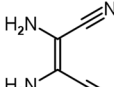
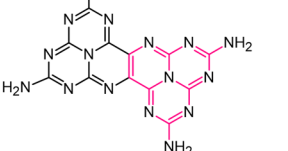
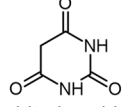
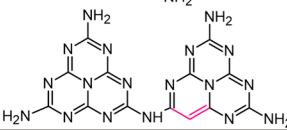


Figure 10. Band gap, HOMO–LUMO positions of precursor, intermediates, and the product (g-C₃N₄) formed during the polymerization of C- and N- rich precursor (melamine). Adopted from multiple references.^{98–100}

Table 2. Copolymerization of C- and N-Precursors with Different Types of Comonomers and the Resulting Changes in Optoelectronic Properties^a

Comonomer	Proposed product from copolymerization	Effect on the electronic structure that red-shifted optical absorption
 2-aminothiophene-3-carbonitrile (ATCN)		Electron donation and extended conjugation
 2-aminobenzonitrile (ABN)		Extended aromatic conjugation
 Diaminomaleonitrile (DAMN)		Promotes extended conjugation in -C=N-
 Barbituric acid (BA)		Improved -C=C- conjugation compared to -C=N-

^aStructural changes induced in the tri-s-triazine unit due to copolymerization are highlighted in pink.

synthesis approach determines the optical properties is limited. In this direction, this Review aims to establish a correlation between various synthesis parameters/conditions with the resulting chemical structure and its optoelectronic properties. A critical outlook and approaches on band gap engineering to intrinsically extend its spectral response toward visible/NIR region is offered. Considering the scope of this Review, reports on red-shifting the optical response by forming composites or heterojunctions with other materials are not discussed.

From the preliminary understanding of the energy band structure of g-C₃N₄, three routes to red-shifting the optical absorption are recognized. The $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ is an allowed transition making g-C₃N₄ visible-light ($\lambda \leq 460$ nm) active. Therefore, the primary strategy to extend the optical absorption is (i) to increase the density of states (DOS) in π and π^* orbitals (T₁ in Figure 9). The energetic position of the lone pair of electrons on the edge N atoms within the tri-s-triazine rings is above the π orbitals constituting the HOMO. Therefore, (ii) enabling $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition at lower energy ($\lambda > 460$ nm) absorption, as indicated by T₂ in Figure 9, can significantly red-shift the optical absorption. Besides this, (iii) eliciting electron transition from HOMO to the unoccupied vacancies below the LUMO can yield red-shifted absorption ($\lambda > 460$ nm), illustrated as T₃ in Figure 9. The propositions mentioned above are realized by employing an appropriate synthesis procedure to promote a specific electron transition. In this regard, six approaches to red-shift optical absorption are identified and comprehensively analyzed. Relevant reports for each method are detailed with examples in the following subsections.

4.1. Increasing the Degree of Polymerization in Pristine g-C₃N₄. Figure 10 depicts band gap variation of the intermediates formed during the polymerization of C- and N-precursor (melamine), arranged in the increasing order of degree of polymerization (left to right). As the melamine is heated, various intermediates (refer to Figure 8) are formed,

finally forming g-C₃N₄. The temperature requirement (350–600 °C) and thermal treatment duration differ from one intermediate to another and also on the precursor. While melam and melem formation from melamine required 350 and 400 °C, respectively,⁹⁸ melon was formed when melamine was heated at 550 °C for 2 h.⁹⁹ Another work revealed that a longer duration of thermal treatment of melamine at 550 °C further promoted the degree of polymerization, resulting in the formation of g-C₃N₄.¹⁰⁰ The band energy diagram of the g-C₃N₄ illustrated in Figure 10 evidence that the degree of polymerization in g-C₃N₄ is enhanced upon increasing the temperature up to 600 °C.

g-C₃N₄ synthesis from the thermal polymerization of urea proceeds via the formation of melamine in 250–350 °C range.⁸⁶ Further, the polymerization of melam units to tri-s-triazine-based g-C₃N₄ occurred at around 500–550 °C. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis demonstrated pronounced crystallinity on increasing synthesis temperature, attributed to improved periodicity of tri-s-triazine units in melon-based g-C₃N₄. Therefore, synthesis temperature promotes the degree of polymerization, consequently increasing the DOS in HOMO and LUMO. As a result, a red-shift in the optical absorption is expected, leading to a reduced band gap.¹⁰¹ Therefore, notable efforts are invested in increasing the degree of polymerization in g-C₃N₄ to reduce the band gap.

Temperature-dependent polymerization of g-C₃N₄ films was recently evidenced by Chubenko et al. using the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) technique.⁶⁹ g-C₃N₄ films on glass substrates were synthesized at 550, 600, and 625 °C. An evident improvement in the crystallinity of the samples was observed when the temperature was increased from 550 to 600 °C owing to the increased degree of polymerization. Polymerized tri-s-triazine units were found in maximum concentration when synthesized at 600 °C. With a further increase in temperature (>650 °C), these units disintegrated before reaching the substrates, while below 600 °C, there was

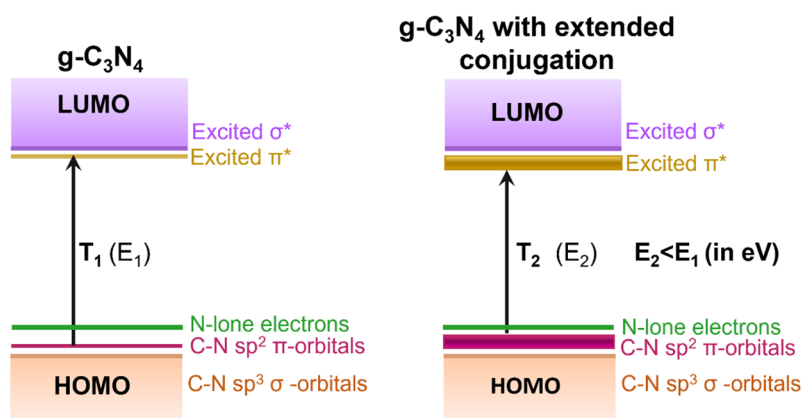


Figure 11. Proposed change in the energy band diagram of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ due to copolymerization depicting the fundamental transition and energy requirement for the same in two cases.

incomplete polymerization. Therefore, synthesis temperature significantly affects the polymerization process. A transformation of the electronic band structure from the σ - to π -conjugated system was observed when the synthesis temperature was increased up to 600 °C. Therefore, the optical band gap decreased from 3.03 to 2.83 eV with the rise in temperature from 550 to 625 °C, which can be attributed to the pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition, illustrated as T_1 in Figure 9.

The effect of temperature on the polymerization of C- and N- rich precursors into $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was also evidenced in powder samples. $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ synthesized from precursors such as melamine at different temperatures exhibited improved crystallinity with increasing temperature to 550 °C. This observation was consistent with a noticeable red-shift in optical absorption and a visible change in the color of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.^{66,102} While increasing the synthesis temperature resulted in the polymer growth in several reports, increasing temperature beyond 550 °C blue-shifted the optical absorption of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, synthesized from thiourea.⁸⁵ This was attributed to the decomposition of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ into smaller particles, which may have induced a quantum confinement effect, supported by surface area analysis. To this end, it can be inferred that the polymerization temperature (350–600 °C) plays a significant role in promoting the condensation of C- and N-rich precursors, forming various intermediates, eventually forming polymeric $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Therefore, with the polymerization of more tri-s-triazine units, a pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition is observed, resulting in a red-shifted optical absorption, as discussed in this section. On the other hand, heating beyond 650 °C reduced the band gap due to the disintegration of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, resulting in the quantum confinement effect. Thus, polymerization temperature plays a crucial role in controlling the optical properties of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

4.2. Extending the Degree of Conjugation by Copolymerization/Molecular Doping. Section 4.1 illustrated the effect of temperature on the polymerization of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, which influences the extent of optical absorption. Another route to extending the optical absorption is via copolymerization, known as molecular doping of precursors with another organic molecule (comonomer). The desired change in electronic properties can be incorporated into the tri-s-triazine units by rationally selecting the appropriate comonomer. By increasing the extent of conjugation, a reduction in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ band gap is expected.

Incorporating comonomers into the tri-s-triazine units of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ influenced the electronic properties and consequently

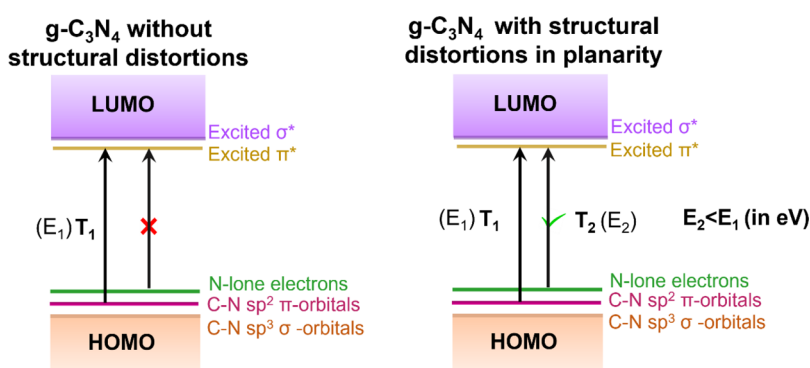
the energy band structure, as depicted in Table 2. The copolymerized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ showed extended conjugation leading to improved light absorption efficiency compared to the pristine $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.¹⁰³ Figure 11 depicts the proposed change in the energy band diagram of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ upon copolymerization with organic molecules. The effect of four comonomer molecules, namely, barbituric acid (BA), 2-aminobenzonitrile (ABN), 2-aminothiophene-3-carbonitrile (ATCN), diamino-maleonitrile (DAMN), on the optical absorption of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ synthesized from dicyanamide were studied.¹⁰³ Interestingly, incorporating organic structures did not destroy the structural integrity of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. A red-shift of optical absorption for all four copolymerized samples was observed, with an additional pronounced absorption shoulder in 450–600 nm range for $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ copolymerized with ABN, ATCN and DAMN.

Copolymerization of urea with BA resulted in a substitution of an N atom by a C atom in the form of $-\text{C}=\text{C}-$ in the tri-s-triazine unit, as depicted in Table 2.¹⁰³ This resulted in a marginal red-shift of optical absorption, which may be attributed to the lower amounts of BA incorporation. Nonetheless, it still indicates that substituting of N by C alters the electronic structure of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Similarly, BA copolymerized $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ introduced $-\text{C}=\text{C}-\text{H}$ functionality, extending absorption toward 530 nm.¹⁰⁴ The improved photocatalytic efficiencies can be attributed to the extended light absorption of the photocatalyst. Furthermore, when dicyanamide was copolymerized with BA, similar results were obtained by another group.¹⁰⁵ An evident red shift in optical absorption up to 650 nm was observed with an increase in the amount of BA, indicating the improvement in electron delocalization upon copolymerization with BA.

Copolymerization of urea with ABN inserted benzene in the tri-s-triazine unit and red-shifted the optical absorption up to 600 nm.¹⁰³ Similar red-shift in the optical absorption up to ≈ 700 nm were realized by several other groups as well.^{106,107} In another work, benzene was incorporated in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ by polymerization of urea with *N*-phenylthiourea.¹⁰⁸ Benzene is proposed to substitute for the triazine unit in the tri-s-triazine structure, which resulted in a red shift of absorption to 482 nm with an absorption shoulder appearing in the range 450 to 700 nm. Such extended absorption can be attributed to the improved $-\text{C}=\text{C}-$ conjugation in than $-\text{C}=\text{N}-$, which also enhanced charge transfer efficiency. Benzene incorporation in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ structure enhanced the photocatalytic H_2 evolution rate by ≈ 8 times compared to pristine $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. On the other

Table 3. Effect of Copolymerization on the Optical Absorption and Photocatalytic H₂ Evolution Efficiency of g-C₃N₄

Precursor	Comonomer	Bandgap (eV)		H ₂ evolution rate		Ref.
		Before	After	Before	After	
Urea	Benzenesulfonic acid	2.59	2.32	≈2.68 mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	7.25 mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	117
	2-Aminobenzimidazole	2.68	2.46	951 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	2566 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	118
Melamine + cyanuric chloride	Triaminotriphenylamine	2.37	2.32	9158.5 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	16897.3 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	119
Urea	<i>N</i> -Phenylthiourea	2.73	2.57	339.16 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	2791.4 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	108
	2,5-Dibromopyrimidine	2.73	2.70	213.9 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3279.7 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	120
Melamine	Glucose	2.63	2.52	160 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	7581 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	121
Urea	2-aminoterephthalic acid	2.94	2.86	3323 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	10600 μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	122
Dicyandiamide	Barbituric acid	2.67	2.57	6.5 μmol h ⁻¹	29.4 μmol h ⁻¹	105
	3-Aminothiophene-2-carbonitrile	2.72	2.66	13.4 μmol h ⁻¹	131 μmol h ⁻¹	110
Urea	1,3,5-Tris(4-aminophenyl)benzene	2.85	2.82	42 μmol h ⁻¹	211 μmol h ⁻¹	111
	Benzamide	2.63	2.51	0.75 mmol g ⁻¹	2.38 mmol g ⁻¹	112
	3-Aminobenzoic acid	2.84	2.78	26.1 μmol h ⁻¹	104.0 μmol h ⁻¹	113
	6-Aminopyridine-2-carboxylic acid		2.80		133.2 μmol h ⁻¹	

Figure 12. Proposed energy band diagram of planar g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄ with structural distortions in planarity, indicating that the n → π* transitions are enabled in the latter.

hand, copolymerizing urea with another comonomer, DAMN resulted in an extended conjugation via promoting covalent bonding between two tri-s-triazine units, as shown in Table 2. Copolymerization of urea with ATCN resulted in the insertion of the thiophene unit in the tri-s-triazine unit.¹⁰³ The marginal red shift in the intrinsic $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition may be attributed to the extended conjugation owing to the thiophene unit. In addition, an absorption around 450–550 nm may be ascertained to the electron transition from the lone pair of electrons on sulfur (present in the thiophene unit) to the π^* orbitals. Similar observations were made by several other groups as well.^{109,110} Wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution data confirms that lower energy photons ($\lambda > 460$ nm) are effectively utilized to realize H₂ generation due to pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition.¹¹⁰ Similarly, 1,3,5-tris(4-aminophenyl)-benzene,¹¹¹ benzamide,¹¹² 6-aminopyridine-2-carboxylic acid, and 2-aminobenzoic acid¹¹³ are copolymerized with C- and N-rich precursors which resulted in a marginal extension of the optical absorption ($\lambda \leq 500$ nm).

Furthermore, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) such as naphthalene, anthracene, and pyrene were used as comonomers to increase the degree of conjugation in g-C₃N₄. Introducing such PAHs red-shifted the optical absorption and enhanced the charge photogeneration yield.^{114,115} For example, naphthalene-incorporated g-C₃N₄ enhanced the photocatalytic H₂ evolution rate by a factor of 2 compared to pristine g-C₃N₄. However, introducing bulkier anthracene and pyrene units distorted the g-C₃N₄ structure and consequently decreasing the photocatalytic performance.

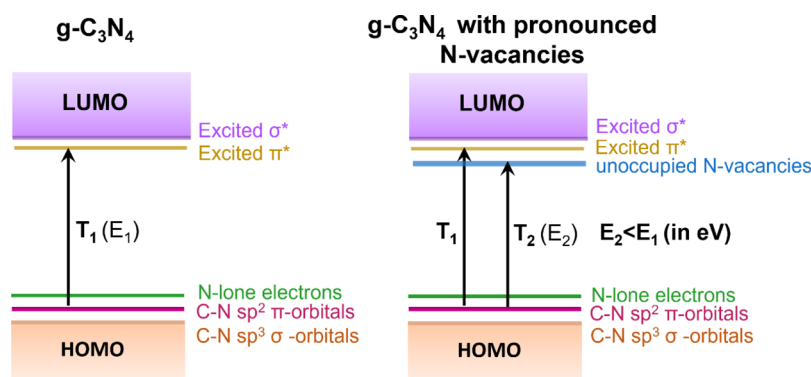
Hence, careful control over the size and location of PAHs incorporation to g-C₃N₄ is critical.

Recently, the incorporation of the C-ring (C_r) network into the g-C₃N₄ was found to improve the extent of conjugation. Wu et al. reported porous g-C₃N₄ with a honeycombed structure synthesized via the CVD process with copolyrolysis of glucose and melamine using SiO₂ nanospheres as a template.¹¹⁶ At a CVD temperature ≥ 320 °C, glucose molecules pyrolyzed into C_r and melamine polymerized into triazine units on SiO₂ nanospheres. With the further increase in temperature to 400 °C, the C-rings and triazine units began to polymerize, forming triazine@C_r heterostructure. Finally, further polymerization of triazine@C_r units took place at 550 °C, leading to the seamless splicing of the C-ring in the carbon nitride network obtained by dissolving the template. With the in-plane splicing of C-ring in g-C₃N₄, the extent of conjugation was improved, which manifested as a red-shift in optical absorption ($\lambda > 460$ nm). These low-energy photons were also capable of H₂ evolution.¹¹⁶ Therefore, strategic splicing of C_r into the g-C₃N₄ plane extended the conjugation length of g-C₃N₄, leading to a pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition, thus red-shifting the absorption (as T₂ in Figure 11).

This section highlights copolymerization as a promising approach to extending the optical absorption in g-C₃N₄ beyond 460 nm by extending the degree of conjugation, which may increase the DOS in the HOMO and LUMO edges leading to the pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition, as depicted by T₂ in Figure 11. Furthermore, several reports discussed demonstrate that the low energy ($\lambda > 460$ nm) photons

Table 4. Structural Distortion Induced $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transitions in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, Its Effect on the Band Gap, and Photocatalytic H_2 Evolution Efficiency

Precursor	Approaches to induce structural distortion	Bandgap (eV)		H_2 evolution rate		Ref.
		Before	After	Before	After	
Melamine	Post-calcination thermal treatment under N_2 atmosphere	2.66	2.47	$\approx 25 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	$\approx 90 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	127
Urea	Thermal exfoliation and polymerization with 2,5-dibromopyrazine	2.64	2.53	$9 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	$63 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	128
	Post-calcination thermal treatment under N_2 atmosphere	2.75	2.45	$\approx 1280 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	$9230 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	129
	Thermal polymerization under Ar atmosphere	2.86	2.80	$224.09 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	$454.94 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	130

**Figure 13.** Proposed energy band diagram of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ without and with N-vacancies indicating additional electron transitions, T_2 from $\pi \rightarrow \text{N-vacancies}$ at a lower energy than T_1 .

harvested could populate the LUMO with free electrons, which were subsequently utilized for H_2 evolution. Table 3 lists selected comonomers used for copolymerization with precursors and their effect on the optical band gap and photocatalytic H_2 generation efficiency.

4.3. Enabling $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transitions by Introducing Structural Distortions. $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is a 2D layered semiconductor where each layer consists of alternating C and N atoms connected to form a tri-s-triazine unit. As mentioned in section 3.2, the electron transitions from the lone pair of electrons belonging to the sp^2 -hybridized two-coordinated N atoms (N1 in Figure 7) of the tri-s-triazine units cannot be photoexcited to the π^* orbitals. These electron transitions are forbidden for a perfectly symmetric planar system.^{123,124} Nonetheless, significant efforts dedicated to promote $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions by inducing structural distortions in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. As a result, the lone pair of electrons are now in a plane from which electron transitions to π^* orbitals are possible. Figure 12 shows the expected change in the energy band structure of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ due to structural distortions.

The approaches to induce structural distortions involve post-synthesis thermal treatment or exfoliation of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Post-calcination thermal treatment of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ in the H_2 atmosphere induced structural distortion in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.¹²⁵ Introduction of amino groups in the tri-s-triazine structures because of H_2 reduction promoted H-bonding between the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ layers. As a result, a marginal distortion of the planar structure was proposed to increase the electron density of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ by enabling electron transitions from n to π^* orbitals. These structural changes collectively resulted in an absorption shoulder around 460–700 nm. Similar observations are reported by other groups as well.^{126,127} The effect of temperature during the postcalcination thermal treatment on promoting electron transition from n to π^* orbitals was investigated by Chen et al.⁹² Increasing the temperature from 550 to 625 $^\circ\text{C}$ did not promote $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions but

improved the degree of polymerization. On the other hand, an absorption shoulder ≈ 500 nm appeared when the synthesis temperature was 650 $^\circ\text{C}$, which was assigned to the possibility of $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions because of the buckled configuration of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. However, a further increase in the temperature beyond 650 $^\circ\text{C}$ resulted in a blue shift of optical absorption, which was ascribed to the quantum confinement effect. Thus, the right choice of temperature and synthesis condition is key to selectively promoting $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition, that can red-shift the optical absorption.

The effect of thermal exfoliation on the optical absorption was studied by Yang et al.¹³⁰ Partial destruction of the in-plane H-bonding was induced by thermal exfoliation of pristine $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, resulting in the formation of ultrathin $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nano-sheets. The modified $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was found to have a distorted layered structure because of the outward movement of the amino groups, eventually resulting in the outward twisting of the melon units. An additional absorption observed around 450–550 nm may be due to $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions due to partial loss of planarity in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. These low-energy photons were indeed capable of H_2 evolution, evidenced by wavelength-dependent studies.

In addition to the two methods discussed in this section, using chemical reagents such as oxamide enabled $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions by inducing planar asymmetry in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.¹³¹ This resulted in an additional absorption around 520 nm, which was effectively utilized to realize H_2 evolution. Collectively, it can be inferred that post-calcination thermal treatment under a specific gaseous atmosphere is an effective route to red-shift the optical absorption beyond 460 nm, originating from the pronounced $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition as indicated by T_2 in Figure 12. Extended absorption was achieved by inducing partial/marginal loss of structural planarity in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, promoting electron transitions at lower energy ($\lambda > 460$ nm). Table 4 lists various routes to induce structural distortions in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and its

Table 5. Various Reports Evidencing N-Vacancy Induced Red-Shift in Optical Absorption and the Resulting Improvement in Photocatalytic H₂ Evolution Efficiency

Precursor	Method to induce N-vacancies	Bandgap (eV)		H ₂ evolution rate		Ref.
		Before	After	Before	After	
Melamine	Post-calcination thermal treatment under H ₂ atmosphere	2.78	2.76	3.67 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	64.39 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	132
Dicyandiamide	Thermal polymerization under H ₂ atmosphere	≈ 2.75	2.0	$\approx 1 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$	$\approx 6 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$	133
Urea	Postcalcination NaBH ₄ thermal treatment	3.01	2.97	481.6 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	8171.4 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	134
Dicyandiamide	Hydrothermal treatment followed by two-step calcination	2.84	2.60	374.7 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	3259.1 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	135

effect on the optical band gap and photocatalytic H₂ evolution efficiency.

4.4. Inducing N-Vacancies below π^* (LUMO). Another way to extend the optical absorption is by deliberately creating N-vacancies below π^* orbitals. Generally, post-synthesis treatment of g-C₃N₄ can result in stoichiometric imbalance, leading to some loss of N atoms in g-C₃N₄, resulting in the formation of unoccupied energy levels referred to as N-vacancies below the π^* orbitals. The formation of N-vacancies is expected to increase the C/N ratio in g-C₃N₄. Electron transitions are now possible from π orbitals to N-vacancies at lower energy (T₂ in Figure 13) than the fundamental transition (T₁ in Figure 13). Therefore, creating N-vacancies in g-C₃N₄ can potentially red-shift the optical absorption.

Formation of N-vacancies was achieved by post-calcination thermal treatment under H₂ environment.¹³² This method induced the loss of two-coordinated N-atoms (N1 in Figure 7), thereby creating N-vacancies, red-shifting the optical absorption to 600 nm due to T₂ transition (Figure 13). Furthermore, the low-energy photons ($\lambda > 460$ nm) were found to be active for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction and the H₂ production. Similarly, heating melon in H₂ atmosphere induced N-vacancies, which red-shifted the optical absorption up to 850 nm.¹³⁶ In addition to post-synthesis thermal treatment, synthesizing g-C₃N₄ in the H₂ environment also resulted in the loss of N1-atoms, forming N-vacancies, which resulted in substantial red-shift of optical absorption up to 700 nm.¹³³ Such changes in the structural and optoelectronic properties enhanced the photocatalytic efficiency of H₂ evolution¹³³ and rhodamine B degradation.¹³⁶

Employing chemical reductants such as N₂H₄·H₂O,¹³⁴ which decomposes to form reductive gases like NH₃ and H₂, further facilitated the N-vacancies formation. The loss of two-coordinated N-atoms (N1 in Figure 7) was preferred over the loss of three-coordinated N-atoms (N2, N3, and N4 in Figure 7). Introducing N-vacancies extended light absorption up to 600 nm and promoted charge separation/transfer efficiency, collectively improving the photocatalytic H₂ evolution efficiency by 26 times. In another approach, hydrothermal synthesis of melamine and triethanol amine (TEOA) followed by calcination formed ultrathin g-C₃N₄ nanosheets.¹³⁷ Addition of TEOA led to an increase in the pyridinic N (N1 in Figure 7) and decreased the presence of graphitic N (N3 in Figure 7). This loss of some of the graphitic N indicated the presence of N-vacancies and substantially red-shifted the optical absorption to 800 nm and exhibited wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution up to 550 nm. Table 5 lists selected reports that demonstrated enhanced photocatalytic H₂ evolution efficiency on introducing N-vacancies.

Note that methods to introduce N-vacancies can also result in partial distortion of structural integrity, which also red-shifts the optical absorption. Therefore, differentiating the nature of electron transitions (HOMO to unoccupied N-vacancies or n

→ π^* orbitals) responsible for the red-shifting the absorption in these two categories is rather complex. Further investigation in this direction is necessary. Nevertheless, this approach demonstrated red-shifted absorption and also pronounced photocatalytic H₂ generation.

4.5. Doping. The doping of foreign elements into the g-C₃N₄ host has been found to induce changes in the optical absorption, consequently affecting the photocatalytic performance.¹³⁸ This section is subdivided into metal and non-metal doping.

4.5.1. Non-metal Doping. C-doping (also referred as self-doping) of g-C₃N₄ is a promising and facile approach to controlling the optoelectronic properties. This method has substantially red-shifted optical absorption toward the NIR region,¹³⁹ attributed to the extended π -delocalized network due to C-doping at the bridging nitrogen site (N4 in Figure 7) of g-C₃N₄. In addition, C-doping was found to improve the electrical conductivity by 2 orders of magnitude.¹⁴⁰ C-doping has enhanced the overall photocatalytic performance toward H₂ evolution,¹⁴⁰ dye degradation,¹⁴¹ and NO removal.¹³⁹

Among different methods for C-doping, the supramolecular assembly approach has recently gained prominent attention. Mondal et al. controlled the structural ordering and solubility of the melamine-based precursors via supramolecular assembly using a water-ethylene glycol mixture.¹⁴² This method of C-doping red-shifted the optical absorption and demonstrated photocatalytic H₂ evolution efficiency using low-energy photons up to 595 nm. In another study, supramolecular interaction between terephthalic acid and melamine induced via H-bonding formed a network of carbon-rich-conjugated cocrystals.¹⁴³ On thermal polymerization of such cocrystals, graphitic carbon offering extended conjugated network was incorporated into g-C₃N₄ (evidenced by increased C to N ratio). Concurrently, the optical absorption was remarkably extended to 800 nm. Such carbon-rich g-C₃N₄ also promoted efficient charge transport, enhancing the photocatalytic overall water splitting reaction.

Porous C-doped g-C₃N₄ was synthesized via gas-bubbles induced thermal exfoliation method¹⁴⁴ using acrylamide (as a template reagent) with dicyandiamide. This method resulted g-C₃N₄ with extended optical absorption up to 800 nm. The newly formed —C=C— bond (confirmed from XPS analysis) due to C-doping offers enhanced electron delocalization, concurrently leading to a pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition. Furthermore, wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution data supported the efficient utilization of low-energy photons ($\lambda > 460$ nm).

O-doped g-C₃N₄ was successfully synthesized via the solvothermal method using dicyandiamide and 1,3,5-trichlorotriazine as C- and N-rich precursors.¹⁴⁵ The latter was prone to oxidation when exposed to air and is the origin of O-doping. Oxygen was found to replace sp²-N (N1 in Figure 7) and concurrently red-shifted the optical absorption to 750 nm.

Table 6. Various Reports Evidencing Non-metal Dopant-Induced Red-Shift of Optical Absorption and Subsequently Improved Photocatalytic H₂ Generation Efficiency

Dopant	Synthesis process	Bandgap (eV)		H ₂ evolution rate		Ref.
		Before	After	Before	After	
C	Gaseous bubble template method	2.78	2.23	372.5 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	1266.8 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	144
S	Hydrothermal treatment followed by calcination	2.72	2.71	4 $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	22.04 $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	148
P	Supramolecular thermal polymerization	2.74	2.65	10.4 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	256.4 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	149
B	Microwave heating method	-	-	613 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	1439 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	150
Br	Thermal polymerization	2.86	2.82	20 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	48 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	151
I	Thermal polymerization	2.75	2.70	14 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	38 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	152
B, P	Thermal polymerization	2.90	2.80	$\approx 0.75 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	4.0 $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	153
C	Thermal annealing condensation	2.76	2.44	$\approx 400 \mu\text{mol}$	$\approx 1700 \mu\text{mol}$	154
O	Solvothermal method	2.73	2.21	846 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	3174 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	145
S	Thermal polymerization	2.80	2.59	67.9 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	525.5 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	155

Such extended absorption can be attributed to the increased electron density in HOMO due to O-doping. In another work, thermal oxidation-exfoliation of bulk g-C₃N₄ formed nano-sheets, which upon further curling condensation resulted in porous O-doped g-C₃N₄ nanotubes (OCN-tube).¹⁴⁶ Such OCN-tube was found to form $-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ and $-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}-$ (confirmed by XPS and FTIR), which red-shifted absorption to 500 nm. DFT studies indicate that the $-\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ functional group induces HOMO–LUMO redistribution, resulting in a reduced band gap.¹⁴⁷

Thiourea oxide was employed as the dopant's source to synthesize S-, O-doped g-C₃N₄.¹³⁸ Oxygen substituted for two-coordinated N atom (N1, refer Figure 7) of the g-C₃N₄, whereas S was vertically bonded to the carbon atom. Replacing N of g-C₃N₄ by O may likely create N-related vacancies below the LUMO in g-C₃N₄, promoting electron transition from $\pi \rightarrow$ N-vacancies at lower energy ($\lambda > 460$ nm). These features collectively extended the absorption toward 690 nm in S-, O-doped g-C₃N₄.

Guo et al. investigated the effect of doping an electron-deficient (B) and electron-rich atom (S) on the optical property of g-C₃N₄.¹⁵⁶ Boron doping is expected to draw the electron density from its surrounding π -plane conjugate system, which is likely the reason for the blue-shift of optical absorption. In contrast, S-doping red-shifted the absorption to 480 nm, attributed to increased electron density in the π -conjugation system. In addition, the lone pair of electrons in S can elicit optical transition to π^* orbitals, resulting in red-shifted optical absorption (460 to 700 nm).¹⁵⁵ Similarly, S-doped poly(heptazine imide) prepared via supramolecular preassembly of melamine and trithiocyanuric acid also red-shifted the absorption.¹⁵⁷ Thus, S-doping successfully enhanced the photocatalytic H₂ generation efficiency using low-energy photons ($\lambda < 550$ nm). In another method for S-doping, hydrothermal treatment of precursors with sulfuric acid significantly red-shifted the absorption to the NIR region and also enhanced photocatalytic CO₂ reduction.¹⁵⁸

There is no conclusive correlation between the doping of g-C₃N₄ with halogens and the resulting optical properties. For example, Zhang et al. reported that iodine doping of g-C₃N₄ red-shifted the optical absorption to 650 nm owing to the formation of donor levels above the HOMO. However, doping F, Cl, and Br did not yield any significant effect on the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄.¹⁵² A number of mutually correlated factors like the dopant's size, substitution site and the electronegativity of the dopant could play a key role here. Further investigation in this direction is required. Nevertheless,

doping of several non-metals red-shifted the optical absorption and also promoted photocatalytic H₂ evolution efficiency ($\lambda > 460$ nm). Such results are listed in Table 6.

4.5.2. Metal Doping. In addition to non-metal, metal doping is expected to alter the optoelectronic property of g-C₃N₄. Cation is incorporated by coordinating with nitrogen atoms (N1 in Figure 7) of g-C₃N₄. The change in the electronic structure of g-C₃N₄ depends on the extent of charge transfer between metal and the ligand in g-C₃N₄.

Among various alkali metals (Li⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺) doped to g-C₃N₄, Rb exhibited a maximum red-shift of optical absorption until 600 nm and also demonstrated enhanced photocatalytic CO₂ reduction.¹⁵⁹ The computational analysis predicts C atoms of the tri-s-triazine as likely sites for doping alkali metals. However, experimental evidence to support this notion is missing. Wang et al. extended the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ toward 540 nm by polymerizing melamine with KCl, followed by post-modification.¹⁶⁰ This K-doped g-C₃N₄ demonstrated a factor 30 increment in the H₂ evolution activity compared to pristine g-C₃N₄ (synthesized via thermal polymerization of melamine without KCl). Another route to synthesize K-doped g-C₃N₄ was by treating the as-synthesized g-C₃N₄ in KOH, followed by calcination.¹⁶¹ K⁺ replaced the H atom bonded to the N atom (N2 in Figure 7) of terminal amino groups. Despite decreasing the crystallinity of g-C₃N₄, K-doping extended the absorption toward 520 nm. A similar red-shift of optical absorption was observed on doping alkaline earth metals as well.¹⁶²

Similar to alkali and alkali earth metals, doping transition metal cations are also found to significantly red-shift the optical absorption. For example, Cu doping promoted the coordination between Cu and N (N1 in Figure 7), concurrently red-shifting the optical absorption toward 480 nm.¹⁶³ However, the observed 30 times enhancement in H₂ evolution efficiency compared to undoped g-C₃N₄ was attributed to improved charge separation and charge transfer efficiency upon Cu doping. Ce-doping of g-C₃N₄ via a pyrolysis approach introduced multivalent Ce ions (+3 and +4).¹⁶⁴ In this case, Ce-ion is substituted for bridging N atoms (N4 in Figure 7) of g-C₃N₄. However, the extent of red-shift in the optical absorption was less than 20 nm. In another case, extended absorption to $\lambda \geq 520$ nm upon Ni-doping of g-C₃N₄ was attributed to the charge transfer transition between Ni 3d orbitals and N 2p orbitals.^{165,166} A similar charge transfer mechanism from Zn 3d orbitals to N 2p orbitals of g-C₃N₄ red-shifted the optical absorption to 600 nm in Zn-doped g-C₃N₄.¹⁶⁷ In addition, the low energy photons (540 nm) were

Table 7. Various Reports Evidencing Metal-Dopant Induced Red-Shift of Optical Absorption and Subsequently Improved Photocatalytic H₂ Generation Efficiency in g-C₃N₄

Dopant	Synthesis process	Bandgap (eV)		H ₂ evolution rate		Ref.
		Before	After	Before	After	
Pd	Thermal condensation	-	-	25 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$	316.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$	171
Zn	Soft-chemical method followed by thermal polymerization	-	-	5.5 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	59.5 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	167
Ni	One-step pyrolysis	2.73	2.61	98.67 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	155.71 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	166
K	Vapor-deposition method	2.80	2.50	0.059 $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	1.948 $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	160
Co	Thermal polymerization	2.70	2.62	9.5 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	28.0 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$	172

effectively utilized for reducing protons to generate H₂. In the case of Fe-doped g-C₃N₄, coordination of Fe with sp²-N (N1 in Figure 7) of the tri-s-triazine ring may lead to partial transfer of lone pair of electrons from electron-rich g-C₃N₄ ring to Fe³⁺.¹⁶⁸ Such effect was found to reduce the band gap to 2.48 eV.¹⁶⁹ Though Fe doping did not distort the structural integrity of g-C₃N₄, observing a substantial decrease in PL intensity was attributed to the electron-trapping nature of Fe³⁺ states.

Li et al. realized NIR absorption in g-C₃N₄ by Pt incorporation due to the metal-to-ligand charge transfer (MLCT) excited state formation.¹⁷⁰ The electron-rich N-pots (voids) surrounded by two coordinated N atoms (N1 in Figure 7) consisting of six lone pair of electrons was found to be the site of Pt²⁺ inclusion. Computational analysis revealed the formation of metal–ligand hybrid HOMO via strong coordination of Pt²⁺ with the N-pots. Such MLCT interaction resulted in extreme red-shifting of the absorption onset toward 1100 nm. In addition, such low-energy photon absorption successfully promoted electrons to LUMO and was effectively utilized to generate H₂. This work evidenced how a strategic synthesis approach can offer optoelectronic tunability in g-C₃N₄ to realize NIR absorption.

Despite significant studies, the origin of red-shifted optical absorption in metal-doped g-C₃N₄ is unclear. It is due to an inadequate understanding of the electronic nature of interaction/bonding between the metal cations and the g-C₃N₄ framework. In some cases, metal-doped g-C₃N₄ resulted in virtually no change in the optical absorption.^{173–179} A comprehensive correlation between the nature of the dopant and the resulting structural/surface/optoelectronic properties is yet to be established. Table 7 lists selected metal-doped g-C₃N₄ evidencing doping-induced extended absorption and enhanced photocatalytic H₂ generation efficiency.

4.6. Interplay between C/N Ratio. In stoichiometrically perfect g-C₃N₄, the C/N ratio is 0.75, which is seldom achieved. However, there are efforts to modulate the C/N ratio from 0.75, which has led to the emergence of two subcategories of carbon nitrides, namely carbon subnitrides (C/N > 0.75) and carbon supernitrides (C/N < 0.75).

Thermal treatment of melem hydrazine resulted in the formation of carbon supernitride (C₃N₅).¹⁸⁰ C₃N₅ was found to have a significantly low band gap (1.76 eV) due to the nitrogen-rich matrix. The red-shift in optical absorption was attributed to the extended conjugation owing to the orbital overlap of N of the azo group as well as the N of the heptazine rings. In addition, the electrons of residual amine groups also contributed to the π -conjugation, upshifting the HOMO leading to a reduced band gap. A hard template-assisted method was employed for the synthesis of C₃N₅, having a reduced band gap of 2.2 eV.¹⁸¹ The presence of triazoles in C₃N₅ led to strong π -conjugation, significantly red-shifting the

optical absorption. These electron transitions beyond 460 nm furnished free electrons in the LUMO, which led to superior H₂ evolution under visible light irradiation in comparison to so far reported g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts. On the other hand, an extensive network of π -conjugation systems in carbon subnitride (C₂N) resulted in an extremely low band gap of 1.96 eV.¹⁸² However, further studies regarding utilizing this material for suitable photocatalytic reactions are yet to be undertaken. Therefore, it can be inferred that the extreme deviation of the C/N ratio from the ideal 0.75 value significantly reduces the band gap. Moreover, the extent of conjugation and electron density is significantly increased by achieving extreme C/N ratios in these two materials (subnitrides and supernitrides), effectively red-shifted their optical absorption.

The topics discussed so far highlight various synthesis approaches which can red-shift the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄. While improving the efficiency and extent of light absorption remains critical, the overall photocatalytic efficiency is collectively determined by the efficiency of charge generation and charge separation. The efficiency of the latter two processes is studied by investigating the fundamental photo-physical loss processes in g-C₃N₄. Figure 14 presents the

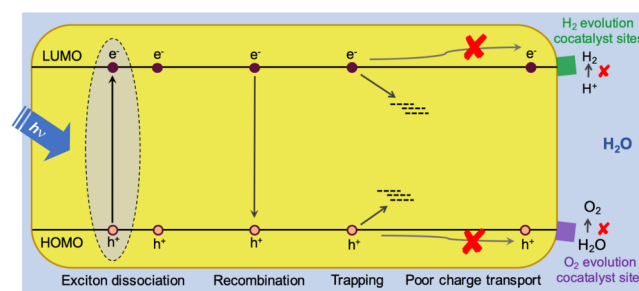


Figure 14. Summary of photophysical processes limiting the efficiency of photocatalytic water splitting reaction in g-C₃N₄. Upon light absorption, the generated excitons undergo subsequent dissociation to form free charge carriers, which further decay via recombination and/or trapping, leading to inadequate number of charge carriers reaching the interface for photocatalytic redox reactions.

fundamental loss processes that limit the photocatalytic performance of g-C₃N₄. As per the current understanding,^{183–185} it is unclear whether photoexcitation of g-C₃N₄ generates free charge carriers or excitons, or a mixture of both. Earlier reports addressing this question are not conclusive. For example, an ultrafast transient absorption spectroscopy (TAS) study by Godin et al. found no evidence to support the exciton formation in g-C₃N₄. However, in another work by Corp et al. the monomolecular fluence-independent decay of photoluminescence signal suggests excitonic behavior.¹⁸⁴ However, TAS measurement of the same sample shows fluence-

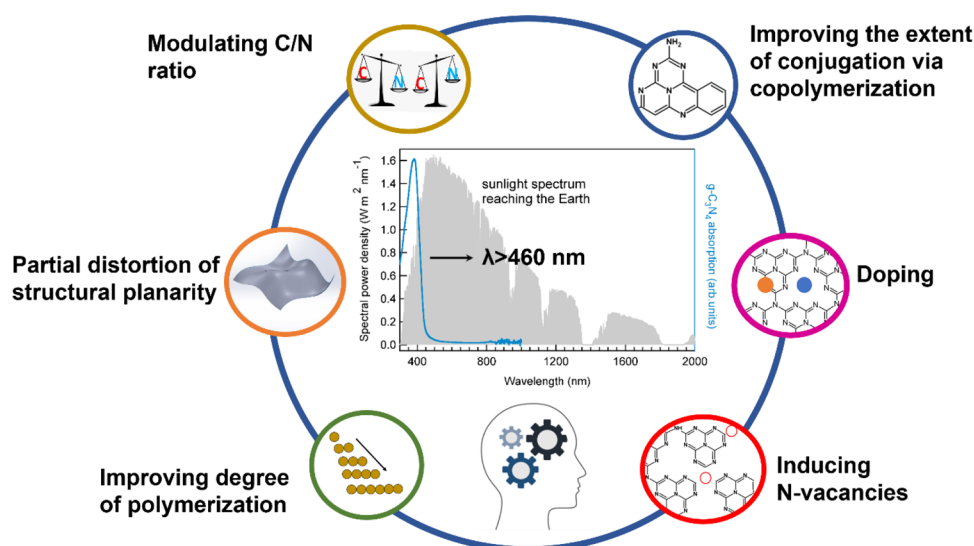


Figure 15. A summary of various approaches to red-shift the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ to enhance the photocatalytic efficiency.

dependent decay behavior, which can be explained by considering bimolecular type recombination of free charge carriers. Based on these observations, it is amenable that photoexcitation of g-C₃N₄ generates both excitons and free carriers. Corp et al. estimated the upper limit of charge separation efficiency as 65% in g-C₃N₄.¹⁸⁴ It indicates the possibility of further enhancing the free carrier generation yield via exciton dissociation efficiency, which otherwise decays via recombination to the ground state results in a loss process.

The photogenerated charge carriers in the bulk must migrate to the surface of g-C₃N₄ to be successfully involved in the charge transfer reaction. However, the concurrent charge carrier trapping and electron hole recombination is in kinetic competition with the charge transfer process. In this direction, Tong et al. demonstrated how improving the crystallinity of g-C₃N₄ reduces the recombination rate and promotes the efficiency of the key electron transfer process, which enhanced the H₂ generation efficiency.¹⁸⁶ Similarly, Godin et al. attributed charge carrier trapping as the major reason limiting the photocatalytic H₂ generation efficiency.¹⁸³

These loss processes discussed here reduce the number of photogenerated charge carriers that can reach the interface, consequently limiting the photocatalytic performance. Thus, it is essential to establish a correlation between charge generation efficiency, recombination and trapping with synthesis conditions. Obtaining such mechanistic insight to effectively utilize all the photogenerated carriers is equally important as extending the light absorption to achieve higher STH energy conversion efficiency of g-C₃N₄.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

Figure 15 depicts various approaches to red-shift the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ that are discussed in this Review. The synthesis procedures, precursors, and dopants incorporated have a significant role in tuning the electronic structure of g-C₃N₄. In this section, we critically review the effectiveness of all the six methods identified for extending the optical absorption and utilizing $\lambda > 460$ nm photons for photocatalytic H₂ evolution.

5.1. Improving the Degree of Polymerization. While increasing the degree of polymerization has a definite impact on the optical absorption due to pronounced $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$, this

results in only a considerable decrease in the band gap. Additionally, expecting light absorption beyond 480 nm in g-C₃N₄ modified via this approach is unrealistic. Hence, there exists limited or no reports evidencing wavelength-dependent photocatalytic performance.

5.2. Extending the Degree of Conjugation via Copolymerization. Copolymerization results in the incorporation of aromatic and/or organic comonomers in the tri-s-triazine rings, which extends the conjugation. This approach has significantly red-shifted the optical absorption of g-C₃N₄ to as long as 700 nm. Note that wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution reaction is demonstrated in several reports, which reinforces the success rate of this approach. Additionally, copolymerization is a bottom-up approach, and hence, it offers immense opportunity to choose desirable precursors to incorporate aromatic entities in the tri-s-triazine ring. With such prospects, copolymerization is a promising approach to improve the light absorption efficiency of the g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts.

5.3. Enabling $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ Transition. As discussed in detail, structural distortion of g-C₃N₄ planarity to enable $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions has significantly red-shifted the optical absorption ($\lambda < 600$ nm). While some groups have employed post-calcination thermal treatment to introduce structural distortion, using chemical reagents to realize the same effect is also reported. Thermal exfoliation of pristine g-C₃N₄ has also been reported to promote $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions. Therefore, generalizing the synthesis approach in this case is not possible. Nonetheless, wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution data in low-energy ($\lambda > 460$ nm) demonstrates the utility of this approach to drive photocatalytic reactions. To further get insights into this approach, establishing a comprehensive correlation between the synthesis parameter, resulting optoelectronic properties, and wavelength-dependent photocatalytic performance is essential.

5.4. Inducing N-Vacancies. Unoccupied N-vacancies below LUMO were induced by chemical reductants and controlled thermal treatment during and post-synthesis. While the formation of unoccupied states was attributed to the loss of two-coordinated N atom (N1 in Figure 7), there exists limited insight into the stability of such systems upon vacancy formation. Additionally, due to their energetic position, the

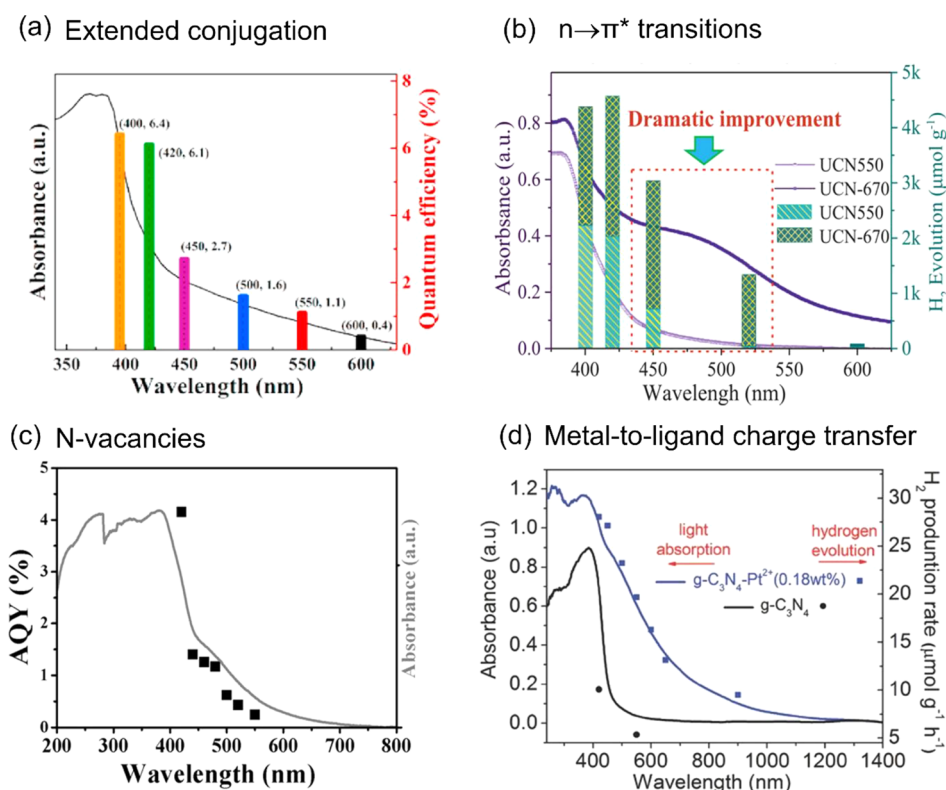


Figure 16. Wavelength-dependent photocatalytic H₂ evolution evidenced by various modified g-C₃N₄ photocatalysts. (a) g-C₃N₄ copolymerized with N-phenylthiourea. Reproduced from ref 108. Copyright 2021 Elsevier. (b) g-C₃N₄ without (UCN550) and with (UCN670) partial distortion. Reproduced with permission from ref 129. Copyright 2021 John Wiley and Sons. (c) g-C₃N₄ with N-vacancies. Reproduced from ref 132. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society. (d) Pristine g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄-Pt²⁺, the latter exhibiting H₂ evolution even at 900 nm. Reproduced with permission from ref 170. Copyright 2016 John Wiley and Sons.

electrons in these levels may not have the required thermodynamic energy to drive specific reactions, like H₂ evolution. The post-calcination thermal treatment has induced N-vacancies in some cases while enabling $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions in a few cases. Hence, attributing the red shift of optical absorption to a specific set of electron transitions is complex and necessitates detailed investigation.

5.5. Doping. By introducing a foreign element into the host g-C₃N₄, an electronic redistribution may lead to a reduced band gap. There exist numerous reports on metal and non-metal doped g-C₃N₄, but very few reports justify the observed doping-induced changes in the optical properties. Considering a specific non-metallic element (phosphorus), for instance, conflicting reports exist evidencing red-shift,¹⁴⁹ blue-shift¹⁸⁷ and virtually no shift¹⁸⁸ of the optical absorption. Such observation can be linked to the synthesis approach and detailed insight into such observations is required. Nonetheless, doping S, C and O has indeed red-shifted the light absorption by increasing the electron density. Various synthesis approaches discussed in non-metal doping introduced atoms or heteroatoms within the g-C₃N₄ network, exhibiting red-shift of optical absorption. On the other hand, there are several reports where synthesis or modification approaches introduced functional groups such as carboxylic and hydroxyl groups in the carbon nitride network. While introducing polar functional groups improved the water-dispersibility of the samples, it blue-shifted the optical absorption.^{189–191}

On the other hand, metal doping of g-C₃N₄ red-shifted the optical absorption, which was primarily attributed to the charge transfer between metal and tri-s-triazine unit of g-C₃N₄

acting as the ligand. However, wavelength-dependent studies evidencing the successful use of $\lambda > 460$ nm photons to drive photocatalytic activity were demonstrated in very few reports in both the categories, i.e., metal and nonmetal doping.

5.6. Modulating C/N Ratio. Synthesizing carbon nitrides with extreme C/N ratios has demonstrated to substantially improve the light absorption efficiency. There are very few reports in this area. With the available data, it can be deduced that N-rich matrix of carbon nitrides have reduced band gaps simultaneously evidencing wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution. On the other hand, a band gap as low as 1.96 eV was achieved by synthesizing carbon-rich matrix (C₂N).¹⁸² However, to the best of our understanding, photocatalytic H₂ evolution activity reports are not yet available for such materials. However, in achieving such extreme C/N ratios, the graphitic structure of carbon nitride is significantly compromised. Hence, these materials have structures and optoelectronic properties that significantly differ from those of g-C₃N₄.

Note that merely extending the spectral response of g-C₃N₄ to the visible/NIR region does not always enhance the photocatalytic performance. It is essential to consider the nature of electronic transitions and where electrons are eventually promoted due to light absorption. Figure 16 presents several reports that effectively utilize these low energy photons ($\lambda > 460$ nm) for H₂ generation. It also demonstrates wavelength-dependent H₂ evolution at $\lambda > 460$ nm. The key to utilizing low-energy photons for photocatalytic reaction lies in understanding the interplay between the synthesis parameters and the nature of optical transitions that contribute to red-

shifting the absorption of g-C₃N₄. Such insights are essential to enhancing the solar energy conversion efficiency of g-C₃N₄.

While g-C₃N₄ offers tunable optoelectronic properties, this is primarily limited to powder samples. The direct fabrication of the g-C₃N₄ thin film electrodes is challenging and is one of the factors limiting its wide applications to optoelectronics. Typically, g-C₃N₄ in powder form is coated on the conducting substrates via disperse coating, doctor blade method, or drop casting. While these methods are simple, they do not ensure good electrical contact between the substrate and the sample.^{192,193} Alternatively, fabricating electrodes by particle transfer method is successful in several classes of photocatalytic materials.^{194–197} However, this approach is yet to be explored for fabricating g-C₃N₄ electrodes. Nonetheless, g-C₃N₄ thin films were successfully produced on different substrates (Si and glass) through the CVD technique, showing the promise toward electrode fabrication.⁶⁹ Further research in the direct fabrication of g-C₃N₄ thin films with extended optical absorption opens up several opportunities in optoelectronics and photocatalytic/photoelectrochemical reactions.

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Notes

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