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Fast Exfoliation and Functionalisation of 2D Crystalline Carbon Nitride by Framework Charging

Jingjing Jia, Edward R. White, Adam J. Clancy, Noelia Rubio, Theo Suter, Thomas S. Miller, Kit McColl, Paul F. McMillan, Veronika Brázdová, Furio Corà, Chris A. Howard, Robert V. Law, Cecilia Mattevi,* and Milo S. P. Shaffer*

Abstract: 2D layered graphitic carbon nitride nanosheets offer tunable electronic and chemical properties. However, exfoliation and functionalisation of gCN for specific applications remains challenging. We report a scalable one-pot reductive method to produce solutions of single and few layer 2D gCN nanosheets with excellent stability in a high mass yield (35%) from polytriazine imide. High resolution imaging confirms the intact crystalline structure and identifies an AB stacking. The first successful deliberate organic functionalisation of dissolved gCN is illustrated, providing a general route to adjust their properties.

Graphitic carbon nitride (gCN) has triggered tremendous interest due to its 2D structure, analogous to graphene, but with complementary characteristics.^[1] In particular, it offers inherent semiconductivity with tunable band gap and optical absorption,^[2] whilst the different chemical valences of N and C create empty sites within the layers.^[3] Monolayer/few layer carbon nitride nanosheets (FL-CNs) have been isolated as a new family of 2D layered materials, motivated by their unique photocatalytic activity.^[4] Several methods have been adopted to synthesize FL-CNs of various thicknesses/sizes.^[5] Unfortunately, many of these processes damage the structure, altering the properties of interest; they are also time-consuming and provide low yields and dilute suspensions, and most work has focused on the disordered heptazine-based gCNs. Polytriazine imide (PTI) has been previously synthesized and characterized using a number of bottom-up approaches.^[6] PTI is more crystalline than its heptazine-based counterpart, containing genuine planar layers of imide-bridged triazine units,^[7] and its exfoliation into high quality 2D FL-CN crystals is, therefore, attractive. Achieving a non-damaging preparation of 2D few-layered PTI (FL-PTI) in a high yield is still in its infancy, although slow dissolution has recently been reported.^[8] Moreover, while covalent functionalisation is a vital tool in tailoring the

properties of nanomaterials,^[9] to date there has been little direct covalent functionalisation of PTI.

This paper demonstrates a simple, one-pot exfoliation, dissolution, and optional functionalisation of FL-PTI via reduction. Reductive charging has been used previously to dissolve a variety of 2D nanomaterials,^[10] via metal-ammonia solutions and organic charge transfer agents (CTA). The use of sodium naphthalide (NaNp) dissolved in N,N-dimethylacetamide (DMAc) was recently found to be especially effective for the dissolution and functionalisation of single wall nanotubes in a single step.^[14] Here the methodology is adapted to gCNs, specifically PTIs.

Successful exfoliation of PTI was achieved by framework charging process (Fig. 1). Sodium is used as the electron source to form naphthalide ions, which act as a CTA. DMAc is an excellent room temperature solvent for naphthalene/ide and anionic nanocarbons, and can be expected to be a good solvent for FL-PTI.^[11] NaNp/DMAc solution has a characteristic green color which simplifies reaction monitoring. NaNp/DMAc solutions were added into dried PTI powders at controlled stoichiometry. The reduction and exfoliation process was observed by the color change from the initial brown PTI suspension to dark green after addition of NaNp/DMAc, before finally forming a brilliant orange dispersion of FL-PTI (FL-PTIⁿ⁻) within minutes (Fig. S1). After removing the remaining insoluble PTI fragments by centrifugation (5000 g, 30 min, Fig. S2), a homogeneous golden FL-PTIⁿ⁻ solution with a concentration up to 1.2 mg·mL⁻¹ was obtained (Fig. S1c), which was stable under N₂ for >1 year (Fig. S3a). Deposited FL-PTIⁿ⁻ nanosheets display hexagonal geometry with a height of 1-2 nm (Fig. S3), indicating that they comprise only a few PTI layers, based on a 3.52 Å layer thickness.^[6b] The negative charges from the naphthalide are likely to be rapidly transferred to the PTI, due to the high reduction potential of naphthalide (ca. 3.0 eV vs SHE);^[12] accelerated by the small size of the PTI platelets and the intrinsic pores.^[13] The partially dissociated Na⁺ counterions leave a net unscreened negative charge on the PTIⁿ⁻ (Fig. S4a), leading to short range Coulombic repulsions and hence exfoliation of PTI into solvated FL-PTIⁿ⁻ sheets (Fig. 1), analogous to reduced nanocarbons^[10a, 14] and transition metal dichalcogenides.^[10b] Upon air exposure, the FL-PTI reaggregate slowly (~2 months, Fig. S5b); the reduced rate compared to charged SWCNTs,^[14b] likely relates to the lower aspect ratio and localisation/low mobility of the charges on the framework.^[15]

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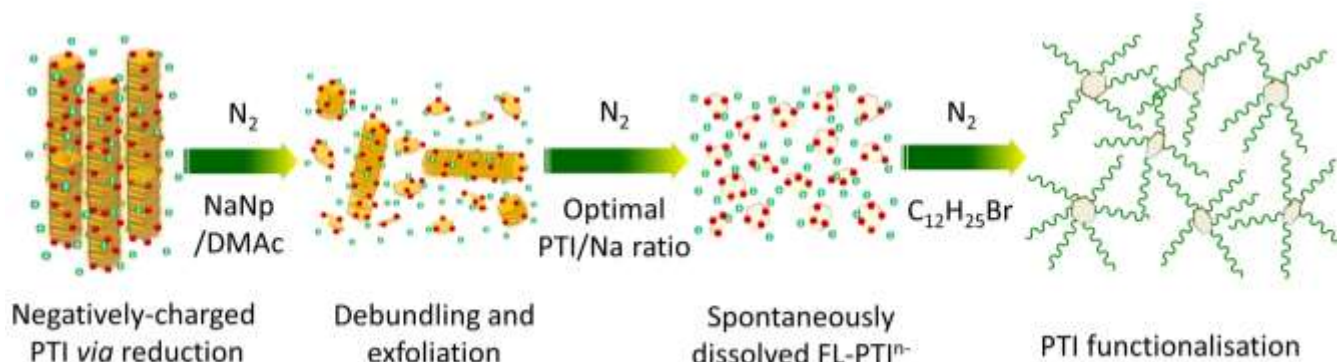
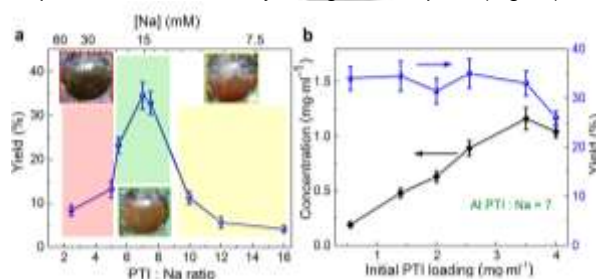


Figure 1. Schematic of charging and exfoliation of PTI.

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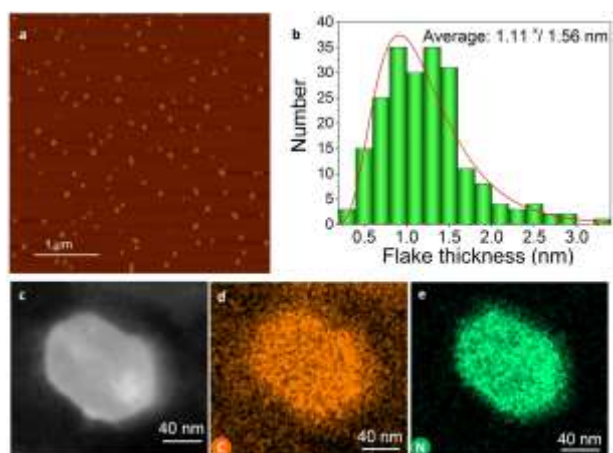
85 The charging ratio (molar [PTI framework atoms]:Na (ESI),
 86 weighted $M_w(\text{PTI}) = 13.14$) and initial PTI loading (mg PTI/
 87 mL of DMAC) are two vital factors affecting the exfoliation,
 88 controlling both the yield (mass fractions of PTI) and
 89 concentration of solubilised FL-PTI⁻. Increasing the degree
 90 of charging (*i.e.* lower PTI:Na), at a static PTI loading initially
 91 led to an improved yield of FL-PTI⁻ (4.1 wt% to 34.5 wt%)
 92 due to the enhanced Coulombic repulsion (Fig. 2a). However,
 93 further increasing charge (PTI:Na < 7) reduced the yield.
 94 Similar effects have been observed in charged nanocarbon
 95 solutions, attributed to Na⁺ condensation and charge
 96 screening.^[11, 16] The optimum Na concentration for exfoliation
 97 of PTI is 15 mM (*i.e.* 7:1 PTI:Na for 1.4 mg·mL⁻¹, Fig. 2a),
 98 comparable to ~10 mM identified for the exfoliation of Na-
 99 reduced graphite of similar geometry.^[16] At the highest
 100 charge regimes, the charge on the PTI saturates (at PTI:Na
 101 ratio of ~5), as observed by the green tinge of unreacted
 102 NaNp (Fig. 2a). On varying the initial PTI loading (Fig. 2b),
 103 the concentration of dissolved FL-PTI⁻ scales linearly, giving
 104 a consistent yield between 31–35 wt%, indicating that there
 105 may be an intrinsically soluble portion of the starting material.
 106 The residue, isolated after centrifugation may contain defects
 107 that bind the layers; indeed, qualitatively, the undissolved
 108 residue appears disordered by SEM (Fig. S2c). The
 109 maximum concentration of FL-PTI⁻ is ~1.2 mg·mL⁻¹ from a
 110 PTI loading of 3.5 mg·mL⁻¹. Further increases in PTI loading
 111 did not increase the concentration, indicating the solution is
 112 saturated (Fig. 2b). Exfoliation increases the surface area of
 113 the powders determined by nitrogen adsorption (Fig.S7).



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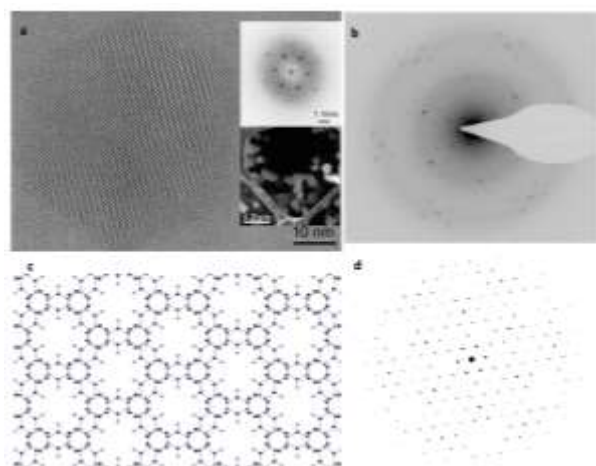
115 **Figure 2.** (a) FL-PTI⁻ yield versus PTI:Na ratio/[Na], 1.4 mg·mL⁻¹ PTI.
 116 Yellow, green and red rectangles correspond to low, to high [Na]
 117 respectively with inset photographs showing resultant FL-PTI⁻
 118 dispersions. (b) Effect of initial PTI loading on the concentration/yield of
 119 FL-PTI⁻ dissolution (7:1 PTI:Na ratio).

120 Aqueous FL-PTI dispersions are desirable for
 121 environmentally benign processing; however, pristine PTI
 122 are poorly soluble in water due to their strong interlayer
 123 interactions (6 h probe sonication was found to give a
 124 concentration <0.2 mg mL⁻¹). The framework charging
 125 process overcomes the strong interlayer interactions and
 126 accelerates solubilisation in DMAC, allowing the removal of
 127 the intrinsically insoluble fraction of the pristine PTI. The FL-
 128 PTIs can then be recovered from the DMAC by solvent
 129 exchange and the resultant FL-PTI can be transferred into
 130 water by solvent exchange, reaching a saturated
 131 concentration of 3.5 mg·mL⁻¹. Atomic force microscopy
 132 (AFM) confirms an excellent dispersion of FL-PTI in water
 133 (Fig. 3a), with corresponding heights of 0.33-3.2 nm (avg.
 134 1.11 nm, Fig. 3b and S6), suggesting that the nanosheets
 135 mostly comprise ~3 PTI layers, although some monolayers
 136 are present. Representative energy dispersive X-ray
 137 spectroscopy (EDX) maps show uniform dispersion of C and
 138 N throughout the whole hexagonal area of the exfoliated FL-
 139 PTI nanosheet (Fig 3c-e). High-resolution transmission
 140 electron microscopy (HRTEM) micrographs show intact PTI
 141 crystallites with regular hexagonal geometry and clear facets
 142 (Fig. 4a). Notably, no defect holes or dislocations were
 143 observed, confirming the non-destructive nature of the
 144 framework charging exfoliation, as well as the high quality of
 145 the starting material. Both AFM and STEM (Fig.s 3 & 4, S6,
 146 & S8) show flakes with a broad lateral size distribution, up to
 147 around 100 nm. The fast Fourier transform (FFT) of the
 148 unfiltered HRTEM image shows a hexagonal lattice,
 149 demonstrating a single crystal exfoliated FL-PTI (Fig 4a and
 150 further examples in S9).^[17] The minimum reciprocal lattice
 151 vector, G_{min} , is 1.4 nm⁻¹, giving a lattice constant
 152 $a = (2/\sqrt{3})G_{min} = 8.5 \text{ \AA}$, consistent with the reported values
 153 from Br intercalated PTI.^[15] Two possible stacking models
 154 can be considered for the FL-PTI: AB stacking with aligned
 155 voids forming c-axis channels, and AC stacking without
 156 channels in two adjacent layers (Fig. S10a). Comparing
 157 simulated electron diffraction patterns of these two models
 158 with the experimental selected area electron diffraction
 159 (SAED) data, the AB stacking structure is the better fit for the
 160 FL-PTI nanosheets (Fig. 4b-d and S10b), likely stabilised by
 161 the Br ions detected by EDX (Fig. S11).



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163 **Figure 3.** (a) AFM image of FL-PTI nanosheets. (b) PTI thickness
 164 histogram ($n > 200$). Mean value is derived from a lognormal distribution.
 165 (c) STEM image and EDX elemental maps of C (d) and N (e) on a FL-PTI
 166 nanosheet. The background C signal in (d) is due to the carbon TEM
 167 support.



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169 **Figure 4.** (a) HRTEM image of a FL-PTI nanosheet. Top inset: FFT of the
 170 HRTEM image, showing a single crystal hexagonal structure. Bottom
 171 inset: STEM image, indicating the layered structure of FL-PTI. (b) SAED
 172 pattern of a FL-PTI nanosheet. (c) Schematic of the AB stacking in a
 173 bilayer. (d) Simulated electron diffraction pattern from the AB crystal
 174 structure.

175 The FL-PTIⁿ⁻ synthesised in DMAc solution provides a
 176 versatile platform for covalent functionalisation of PTI,
 177 comparable to negatively charged graphene and boron
 178 nitride nanotube counterparts.^[16, 18] Pristine PTI and FL-PTI
 179 nanosheets are thermally stable up to ~700 and 670 °C,
 180 respectively (Fig. 5a and Figure S16); the slightly depressed
 181 decomposition temperature for FL-PTI reflects its few-
 182 layered character. Functionalisation can be performed *via*
 183 simple addition of an alkyl halide to the reduced
 184 nanomaterial. After functionalisation by reaction with dodecyl
 185 bromide, a 10 wt% mass loss can be observed in
 186 thermogravimetric analysis/evolved-gas mass spectrometry
 187 (TGA-MS), relative to controls; the weight loss correlates
 188 with a m/z peak at 57, attributed to $C_4H_9^+$ from the grafted

189 $C_{12}H_{25}$ alkyl chain (Fig. 5a). During the alkylation reaction,
 190 the solution changes from a clear golden, to a turbid pale
 191 yellow appearance; as the depletion of the negative charges
 192 progresses, the Coulombic stabilization is lost, leading to
 193 agglomeration and increased light scattering (Fig. 5b, S1c
 194 and S12). FTIR (Fig. S20) and solid state NMR were
 195 insufficiently sensitive to detect grafting, though deuterated
 196 samples (Scheme S1) showed characteristic TGA-MS
 197 features (Fig. S18). Nevertheless, X-ray photoelectron
 198 spectroscopy (XPS) measurements confirmed the covalent
 199 attachment of alkyl chains to the PTI structure. Core level N
 200 1s spectra can be divided into two components: 398.6 eV
 201 corresponding to C-N=C groups and 400.9 eV attributed to
 202 secondary and tertiary amines (NH/N-(C)₃) (Figure S13 and
 203 S14).^[19] An increase in the NH/N-(C)₃ peak was observed for
 204 the dodecyl-functionalised PTI compared to both FL-PTI and
 205 physisorption controls (Table S1). Quantitatively, the XPS
 206 data indicate 74 framework atoms per alkyl chain, comparing
 207 favourably with the TGA estimate of 101 atoms per chain.
 208 Controls of air quenched FL-PTI mixed with $C_{12}H_{25}Br$ and
 209 FL-PTIⁿ⁻ with unreactive $C_{12}H_{26}$ showed similar TGA curves
 210 to the unfunctionalised FL-PTI, precluding a contribution
 211 from physisorption. The XPS measurements also exclude
 212 physisorption since the core level Br 3d was not observed in
 213 the grafted products, although it was visible in positive
 214 controls at relevant concentrations (Figure S15). Reaction
 215 with a shorter alkyl chain was also investigated; when
 216 charged FL-PTI reacted with octylbromide a mass loss of 12
 217 wt% and the corresponding m/z peak at 57 were observed
 218 (Figure S16). XPS showed a similar increase in the NH/N-
 219 (C)₃ peak as observed for the dodecyl-functionalised PTI
 220 (Figure S17 and Table S1). In this case, XPS indicates one
 221 alkyl chain every 47 PTI atoms, closely matching the TGA
 222 estimate of one chain per 55 framework atoms. Given the
 223 uncertainties in these measurements, the agreement is
 224 excellent, and provides direct evidence of grafting to the PTI
 225 layers.

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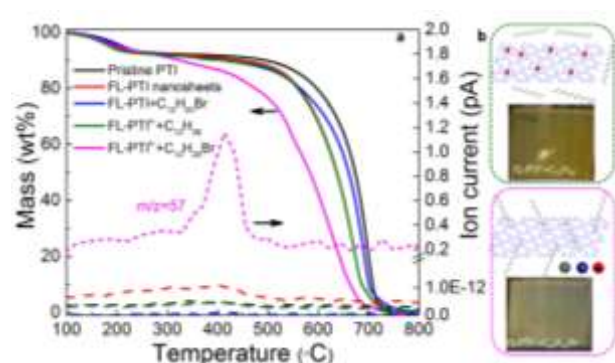
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Figure 5. (a) TGA and TGA-MS (dashed) of pristine PTI and alkylated FL-PTI. Inset shows 100-400 °C TGA region. (b) Photographs of control sample (top) and FL-PTI functionalised with dodecyl bromide (bottom).

The observed change in the XPS nitrogen components upon functionalization can be attributed to the attachment of alkyl chains to the nitrogen of the triazine ring. Density functional

233 theory (DFT) calculations suggest that the sodium ion
234 bridges two triazine rings, with the extra electron delocalized
235 over those two rings (Figure S19). The spin density
236 associated with the extra electron has contributions on both
237 C and N atoms of the rings; the high excess charge of
238 0.12|e| on the N atoms not directly interacting with Na,
239 combined with their better accessibility compared to the C
240 atoms of the PTI structure, suggest that the nitrogens are the
241 most susceptible to react with the alkyl bromide molecule.
242 Further study will be required to identify the specific
243 mechanism. One possibility may be a single electron transfer,
244 followed by free-radical addition, as hypothesised for other
245 nanocarbons (Scheme S2).^[20]

246 In summary, framework charging provides a new, simple
247 route for exfoliation and functionalisation of PTI nanosheets,
248 *via* NaNP/DMAc reduction. By avoiding damage, the intrinsic
249 properties of the PTI structure can be retained and HR
250 images indicate highly exfoliated hexagonal, crystalline FL-
251 PTI nanosheets, averaging 1.1 nm thick (~3 layers) with AB
252 stacking. The as-prepared FL-PTI solutions had a yield of 35
253 wt%, with excellent stability. Stabilized dispersions of FL-
254 PTIs are useful feedstocks for a wide range of promising
255 multifunctional applications. The relatively small flake size is
256 particularly relevant to potential applications in
257 (electro)catalysis and photochemistry.^[21] The FL-PTIⁿ⁻ was
258 successfully functionalised with alkyl chains *via* the
259 framework charge, suggesting a route to a wide range of

260 functionalised species to modulate surface chemistry and
261 functional properties.

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270 Conflict of interest

271 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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