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Comprehensive insight into the support effect of graphitic carbon nitride for zinc halides in catalytic transformation of CO₂ to cyclic carbonates

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Chemical fixation of CO₂ to high-valued chemicals is currently a significant research topic in both environment and chemistry, and cycloaddition of CO₂ with epoxides is regarded as a sustainable route for the manufacture of cyclic carbonates. The homogeneous catalysts including ionic liquid and organic metal complexes suffer from difficulty in catalyst–product separation despites their excellent catalytic activities. In this work, we utilized graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) as a novel support to immobilize zinc halides (ZnX₂) through a simple preparation method. Based on the detailed design in the synthesis of ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄, the chemical bonding information of ZnX₂ on g-C₃N₄ was comprehensively investigated by XPS and FT-IR techniques. In addition to activation of CO₂, g-C₃N₄ can anchor zinc halides via interaction between zinc and nitrogen, thereby effectively alleviating potential leaching of zinc halides. As heterogeneous catalysts, ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ materials showed good catalytic activities in the cycloaddition reactions of CO₂ with propylene oxide. Furthermore, a wide range of epoxides can be converted to the corresponding cyclic carbonate with good selectivities (>93%) and moderate conversions (50–88%).

1. Introduction

The past decades have witnessed the drastically increasing emission of CO2 as the main product of modern fossil-based energy production. CO₂ is believed to be primarily responsible for global warming and its associated climate change 1-3. Alternatively, CO₂ is a nontoxic, abundant, and sustainable C1 feedstock for organic synthesis. In this sense, transformation of CO₂ to the high-valued chemicals could not only alleviate the continuous emission of CO2 but also provide a renewable and promising strategy to supplement conventional fossil-based resource ^{4,5}. Among numerous examples of chemical fixation of CO₂, the synthesis of cyclic carbonates based on the cycloaddition of CO2 with epoxides have received tremendous attention⁶, as cyclic carbonates are of important commodity chemicals, which are extensively applied as polar solvents, fuel additives, electrolytes, and building blocks in the manufacture of pharmaceutical and other fine chemicals ^{7,8}.

Due to its low reactivity and thermal stability, the transformation of CO_2 always demands a principal step in activating CO_2 molecules. Wherein, the kernel of the procedure is to develop and research a robust catalyst. Up to now, the

with epoxides have been confined to several materials including ionic liquids ^{3,7,9,10}, organic metal complexes ^{11,12}, quaternary ammonium ^{13,14}, etc. Unfortunately, their intrinsically homogeneous nature in the reaction systems inevitably hinders them from industrial implementation ^{3,8}. From the aspect of catalytic mechanism, it is commonly recognized that basic sites and Lewis acid (e.g. zinc halide) are two key components to promote the cycloaddition of CO₂ with epoxide ¹⁵⁻¹⁹. Basic sites on the catalyst are able to adsorb and then activate CO₂ while Lewis acid could stimulate the ring-opening of epoxides. In the light of this fact, a lot of bicomponent catalysts, including DBU/benzyl bromide²⁰, melamine-ZnI₂²¹, Zn-SBA-15/KI²², ZnCl₂/phosphonium halide ¹⁶, ZnBr₂-Ph₄PI ²³, etc., have been developed. However, it should be pointed out that most of them belong to homogeneous catalysts, being confronted with disadvantage in catalyst recovery and product purification. Additionally, several catalysts also suffer from leaching problem of active species.

most efficient catalysts proposed for the cycloaddition of CO2

Very recently, as a fascinating functional material, graphitic carbon nitride (g- C_3N_4) has received wide interest in a variety of research fields including photocatalysis ²⁴⁻²⁶, thermal catalysis ^{17,27-30}, fuel cells ³¹, etc. In terms of chemical structure, g- C_3N_4 is built by two-dimensional graphite-like sheets containing conjugated tri-*s*-triazine units ^{24,32,33}. Especially at the edges of graphitic layers, there exist abundant uncondensed amino groups, which enable g- C_3N_4 as a typical solid base ^{17,34,35}. Antonietti et al have found g- C_3N_4 could adsorb and activate CO₂ molecules by means of its uncondensed amines ³⁶. Park et al have revealed that g- C_3N_4 materials could catalyze

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Journal Name

ARTICLE

cycloaddition of CO₂ with epoxides, and other CO₂-involved processes ³⁷. Most recently, some groups including ours have also reported cycloaddition of CO₂ reactions catalyzed by decorated and/or supported mesoporous g-C₃N₄ materials ^{17,18,35,38-41}. Despite these advances, the preparation of such reported g-C₃N₄ materials are indeed quite complicated. In addition to the above basic property, the rich nitrogen atoms in carbon skeleton also endow g-C₃N₄ with a potential like chlorophyll, hemin and other macrocyclic scaffolds, to include and anchor metal elements ^{25,42}. The recent work reported by Vinu, Wang and several groups revealed that g-C₃N₄ could well disperse Au ⁴³, Fe ^{44,45}, Zn ^{25,46}, V ²⁹, Cu ⁴⁷, and other metals ⁴².

Since g-C₃N₄ possesses inherent basic characters and promising capability of metal inclusion in its matrix, in this work, a series of zinc halides supported on g-C₃N₄ were synthesized by means of simple pyrolysis of dicyandiamide, followed by wet impregnation of zinc halides. The bonding states of zinc and halogen elements on the surface of g-C₃N₄, depending on the heating temperature of the composites, were comprehensively investigated. The nitrogen species of g-C₃N₄ and thus effectively inhibiting possible leaching of zinc halide. The combination of zinc halides and g-C₃N₄ promotes the cycloaddition of CO₂ to cyclic carbonates. Moreover, according to the characterization results, a possible catalytic mechanism is proposed.

2. Experimental

2.1. MATERIAL PREPARATION

The g-C₃N₄ material was synthesized using dicyandiamide (DCDA) as a precursor. In brief, 6 g of DCDA was added into a ceramic crucible with a cover, heated with a ramping rate of 3 °C min⁻¹ to 550 °C, and then tempered at this temperature for another 3 h. The resultant g-C₃N₄ was ca. 2.1 g.

The g-C₃N₄ powder (1 g) was suspended into 20 mL of ethanol containing zinc halide (ZnX₂, X = Cl/Br/I), stirred vigorously for 2 h, and dried at 50 °C. The as-synthesized yellow solid was placed into a tubular furnace with the flow of nitrogen (10–20 mL min⁻¹), heated with a rate of 2 °C min⁻¹ to a desired temperature, and then hold for another 3 h. The obtained material was labeled as $xZnX_2/g-C_3N_4$ -*T*, where *x* represented the molar amount (mmol) of zinc halide, and *T* indicated the heating temperatures. Unless other specified, *x* and *T* were 1 mmol and 400 °C, respectively.

 $NH_4X/g-C_3N_4$ and $ZnO/g-C_3N_4$ samples were synthesized by the same method above yet using ammonium halide and $Zn(NO_3)_2$, respectively

2.2. SAMPLE CHARACTERIZATION

Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were measured at -196 °C using an ASAP 2020 (Micromeritics) porosimeter. Prior to the measurement, each sample was outgassed at 150 °C for at least 4 h. The specific surface area of the sample was calculated using the BET method.

The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded with a Rigaku D/max 2500 PC X-ray diffractometer equipped with a graphite monochromator using Ni-filtered Cu- $K\alpha$ ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm) radiation.

Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra in transmission mode were analyzed on a Tensor 27 (Bruker) spectrometer by averaging 64 scans with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The spectra were recorded under ambient condition using the KBr self-supported pellet technique.

UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) were measured on a UV-3600 (Shimizu) spectrophotometer under ambient condition using $BaSO_4$ as the reference.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed using a Perkin–Elmer PHI 5000C instrument with a monochromatized Mg K_{α} radiation source (200 W).

Propylene oxide temperature-programmed desorption (PO-TPD) was analyzed on a ChemBET-3000 station (Quantachrome). Each sample (200 mg, crushed into 40–60 meshes) was pretreated at 200 °C for 1 h under He flow, and then cooled down to 50 °C, followed by purge of POcontaining helium gas (PO statured gas under 40 °C) for 0.5 h. Afterwards, the sample was swept with He (60 mL min⁻¹) for 0.5 h, and then heated a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ to 500 °C.

 CO_2 - and NH_3 -TPD experiments were performed in the same way to PO-TPD, expect using CO_2 and NH_3 as adsorbates.

200 mg of $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$ was added into a solution containing 8 mL of PO and 2 mL of DMF. The mixture was heated at 140 °C for ca. 6 h under stirring. After that, the liquid phase was collected and then analyzed by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES, Vista-AX, Varian) to determine the concentration of Zn^{2+} .

2.3. CATALYTIC TEST

Cycloaddition reaction of CO_2 with propylene oxide (PO) to propylene carbonate (PC) was performed in a stainless steel autoclave (80 mL). PO (8 mL, 115 mmol), N,N-dimethyl formamide (DMF, 2 mL), and 0.2 g of catalyst were added into the reactor, which was then pressurized with CO_2 to 2.0 MPa. The reaction was carried out at 140 °C under vigorous stirring for 6 h. After completion of the reaction, the liquid-phase mixture was separated by centrifugation, and firstly analyzed by a gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (GC-MS, GCMS-OP2010, Shimadzu) to qualitatively confirm the products. The quantitative analysis of the reaction mixture was determined by a gas chromatography (GC) equipped with an SE-54 capillary column and FID (See the supporting information for detailed profiles of GC). The liquid mixture contained PO, PC, and 1,2propylene glycol (PG) as the byproduct derived from hydrolysis of PO with trace H₂O. The carbon balance was nearly 100%. PO conversion and selectivity to PC were calculated based on an area-normalization method of GC, and the corresponding calculation equations are as follows:

$$Conv. = \frac{A_{PC} \times f_{PC} + A_{PG} \times f_{PG}}{A_{PO} + A_{PC} \times f_{PC} + A_{PG} \times f_{PG}} \qquad Sel. = \frac{A_{PC} \times f_{PC}}{A_{PC} \times f_{PC} + A_{PG} \times f_{PG}}$$

where A, and f are the peak areas of GC, and response factor for each product.

In the reaction cases involving ethylene carbonate (EC), PC, and 1,2-butylene carbonate (BC) as products, the liquidphase mixture was separated by centrifugation. After

voids in g-C₃N₄.

Journal Name

elimination of DMF under vacuum and further purification by column chromatography with ethyl acetate–petroleum ether as the eluent, the resultant products were analyzed by ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy.

The quasi-TOF (mass of synthesized PC per gram catalyst per hour) for each catalyst was calculated as follows:

$$\text{TOF} = \frac{m_{\text{PC}}}{W_{\text{catal.}} \times t} = \frac{n_{\text{PO}} \times Yield\% \times M_{\text{PC}}}{W_{\text{catal.}} \times t}$$

where n_{PO} , M_{PC} , t, and $W_{catal.}$ were the molar amount (mol) of PO, formula weight (g mol⁻¹) of PC, reaction time (h), and the mass of overall catalyst (g), respectively.

3. Results

3.1. Structure characterization

The XRD patterns of the bare and the doped g-C₃N₄ materials are shown in **Fig.1**. All the patterns exhibit primary diffraction lines at ca. $2\theta = 27.3$ °, corresponding to the characteristic interplanar stacking (d = 0.34 nm) of graphitic materials, i.e. (002) planes of g-C₃N₄ ^{32,42}. Moreover, a relatively weak diffraction peak can be also found at ca. $2\theta = 13$ ° for each sample, which is attributed to in-plane packing motif, i.e. (100) plane (d = 0.67 nm) ^{32,48}. Compared with that of the pristine g-C₃N₄, the intensities of both (002) and (100) become much lower. This means that, after the incorporation of dopant into g-C₃N₄, the crystallinity of g-C₃N₄ weakens; the similar phenomena have been previously reported in the work involving g-C₃N₄ materials doped with K ⁴⁹, Fe ⁴⁵, Zn ^{25,46}, etc.



Table 1 Surface areas of g-C₃N₄, ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄, NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄, and ZnO/g-C₃N₄ materials.

Sample	S_{BET} (m ² g ⁻¹)
g-C ₃ N ₄	14
$ZnCl_2/g-C_3N_4$	8
$ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$	6
$ZnI_2/g-C_3N_4$	10
ZnO/g-C₃N₄	10
$NH_4Br/g-C_3N_4$	21

It is of interest to be observed that, for the g-C₃N₄ materials doped with zinc halides, the intensity order related to (002) plane is Cl>Br>I. The detailed diffraction patterns in the range of $2\theta = 26-29^{\circ}$ are also given in Fig. 1. The diffraction peaks of the $ZnX_2/g-C_3N_4$ samples are moved towards to higher 2θ values in comparison with that of g-C₃N₄, whereas there is no significant shift in the cases of NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄ and ZnO/g-C₃N₄. The above shift evidences the shrinkage of interplanar spacing of g-C₃N₄ in the ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ materials, which however has not been discovered in the XRD patterns of NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄ and ZnO/g-C₃N₄. The distinction suggests that the shrinkage of graphitic interlayers occurs only if the zinc and halides exist together. The surface areas of the pristine g-C₃N₄ and its doped materials are listed in Table 1. The surface area of g-C₃N₄ is 14 m^2 g⁻¹, while the ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ materials have lower surface area. By contrast, NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄ possesses larger surface area $(21 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ than g-C₃N₄. This might be due to the decomposition of NH₄Br, which creates many interparticle

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 $\label{eq:FIB} \begin{array}{l} \textbf{Fig. 2} \hspace{0.1cm} \text{FT-IR} \hspace{0.1cm} \text{spectra of} \hspace{0.1cm} g\text{-}C_3N_4 \hspace{0.1cm} (a), \hspace{0.1cm} \text{ZnCl}_2/g\text{-}C_3N_4 \hspace{0.1cm} (b), \hspace{0.1cm} \text{ZnBr}_2/g\text{-}C_3N_4 \hspace{0.1cm} (c), \hspace{0.1cm} \text{Znl}_2/g\text{-}C_3N_4 \hspace{0.1cm} (d), \hspace{0.1cm} \text{ZnO/g-}C_3N_4 \hspace{0.1cm} (e), \hspace{0.1cm} \text{M}_4\text{Br}/g\text{-}C_3N_4 \hspace{0.1cm} (g) \hspace{0.1cm} \text{materials}. \end{array}$

FT-IR spectra of the materials are depicted in Fig. 2. The supported g-C₃N₄ samples demonstrate similar spectra to the bare g-C₃N₄. The broad bands centered at 3180 cm⁻¹ are assigned to the N-H groups (terminal amino groups at the edge of graphitic sheets) and H-O derived from adsorbed water 35. and the multiple transmission bands ranging from 1600 to 1200 cm⁻¹ are indicative of aromatic nitrogen-containing heterocycles ⁴⁸. The sharp peaks at 810 cm⁻¹ correspond to the breathing mode of the graphitic layers constituted by conjugated triazine (or tri-s-triazine) units, which are regarded as the elementary building blocks of g-C₃N₄ ^{50,51}. Obviously, the induction of ZnX₂ and other compounds has not altered the overall chemical functionalities of g-C₃N₄. Despite the analogy, a low-intensity band at ca. 2175 cm⁻¹ is identified in the spectra of ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ and ZnO/g-C₃N₄, which is however absent in those of g-C₃N₄ and NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄. The unique signal is ascribed to the azide group due to the existence of Zn-N bonding ⁴⁶. Moreover, a further comparison witnesses that, among the three ZnX_2/g - C_3N_4 samples, ZnI_2/g - C_3N_4 possesses

ARTICLE

the highest intensity in terms of the band about Zn–N group, followed by $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$ and $ZnCl_2/g-C_3N_4$. The finding agrees well with the order obtained in the above XRD patterns. As for the FT-IR spectrum of KBr/g-C₃N₄, the emergence of the azide group (K–N=N)⁴⁹ is also identified at ca. 2145 cm⁻¹. The above FT-IR characterization results reveal that the loading of zinc halides has not modified the main chemical functionalities of g-C₃N₄, whereas Zn has reacted with g-C₃N₄ and inserted into the skeleton thereof.

The chemical environment of the materials was further analyzed by XPS. The major elements detected in g-C₃N₄ are carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen (Fig. 3); the chemical formula calculated by means of the XPS survey is C_{0.92}NO_{0.10}. Therein, the oxygen is mainly due to the adsorbed water molecule. The presence of zinc signals could be clearly observed in the spectra of ZnCl₂/g-C₃N₄ and ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄; the molar ratios of carbon to nitrogen of the two samples are 1.17:1 and 1.06:1, respectively. Furthermore, the molar ratios of Zn to halide in the cases of ZnCl₂/g-C₃N₄ and ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ are 2.53:1 and 1.08:1. In our previous work ^{34,38}, we discovered there was an interaction of zinc halide and g-C₃N₄ under high temperature. That is, a certain amount of halide reacted with the uncondensed terminal amines of g-C₃N₄, generating hydrogen halide and ammonium halide. Wherein, HCl was more volatile than HBr, leading to less concentration of halogen elements reserving in ZnCl₂/g-C₃N₄ than that gained in ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that, there remain partial halide species as counter ions to neutralize zinc cation in the composites 46,52



To gain an insight of the bonding state of Zn, the fine spectra of $ZnCl_2/g-C_3N_4$ ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ were recorded (**Fig. 4**). Both the two spectra present two pronounced peaks at binding energies of 1044.8 and 1021.8 eV, indexed as the signals of Zn 2p 1/2 and 3/2 orbits ^{46,53,54}, respectively. For purpose of comparison, the spectra of pure ZnBr₂ and ZnCl₂ compounds are also provided in **Fig. 4**; the corresponding Zn 2p lines appear at 1046.6 and 1023.7 eV, quite higher than the values of the two composites. On the other hand, the binding energy for 2p 3/2 line of metallic zinc is about 1020 eV ⁵⁵. This confirms

that the valence states of zinc cations in the supported materials are lower than +2, therefore manifesting the interaction between Zn and nitrogen of g-C₃N₄.



UV-vis diffuse spectroscopy is usually applied to probe the effect of metal incorporation on the host structure. As indicated in Fig. 5, the spectrum of $g-C_3N_4$ shows a distinct absorption peak in UV region, which is derived from the bandgap between HOMO and LUMO of polymeric triazine units ^{24,41}. After the loading of zinc halides, the major absorption is enhanced and meanwhile is moved towards longer wavelength. According to Wang et al ^{25,42}, the shift also observed in the spectra of Zncontaining g-C₃N₄ materials results from the d-p repulsion of N 2p and Zn 3d obits. Combining the analytic results of FT-IR, XPS and UV-vis techniques, it can be concluded that for the three supported zinc halides, the zinc species existed in the forms of coordinative state with nitrogen of g-C₃N₄ rather than the pure compound. Simultaneously, the low-valence zinc cations are neutralized by a small portion of halides (discussed below).



Fig. 5 UV–vis diffuse reflection spectra of g-C₃N₄, ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄, NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄ and ZnO/g C₃N₄ materials.

3.2. Catalyst evaluation

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Initially, the cycloaddition reaction of CO₂ with PO was tested in the presence of 0.2 g of g-C₃N₄ at 140 °C. As listed in Table 2, after 6 h of reaction time, only 3% of PO was converted (entry 1). Meanwhile, the resultant products consist of PC and PG; the latter is originated from hydrolysis of PO. Upon using ZnCl₂ as a catalyst, the catalytic conversion of PO reaches up to 99% and the selectivity to the target PC is 98% (entry 2). Likewise, remarkably high yields of PC have also been achieved in the cases of ZnBr2 and ZnI2 (entries 3-4) under the same reaction conditions. Notwithstanding so high catalytic activities, as stated above, the zinc halides are well dissolved in the liquid phase. After the reaction, it is inconvenient to separate the homogeneous catalyst from the reaction system. On the other hand, among the three $ZnX_2/g-C_3N_4$ materials (entries 5-7), ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ shows superior activity to ZnCl₂/g-C₃N₄ and ZnI₂/g-C₃N₄. The PO conversion and PC selectivity are 55% and 95%, respectively. The catalytic performance of $ZnO/g-C_3N_4$ using $Zn(NO_3)_2$ as a precursor has also been listed in Table 2; the corresponding PO conversion is only 19%.

Table 2 Catalytic performances of various catalysts in cycloaddition of CO_2 with PO to PC a .

Entry	Catalyst	Conv. (%)	Sel. (%)	Yield (%)
1	g-C ₃ N ₄	3	75	2
2 ^b	ZnCl ₂	99	98	97
3 ^b	ZnBr ₂	98	99	97
4 ^b	Znl ₂	99	99	98
5	$ZnCl_2/g-C_3N_4$	32	95	30
6	ZnBr ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄	55	95	52
7	$ZnI_2/g-C_3N_4$	36	97	35
8	ZnO/g-C₃N₄	19	97	18
9	$NH_4Cl/g-C_3N_4$	11	92	10
10	$NH_4Br/g-C_3N_4$	30	96	29
11	NH ₄ I/g-C ₃ N ₄	14	99	14
12 ^c	$ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$	39	95	37
13	$0.5ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$	25	93	23
14	1.5ZnBr ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄	54	97	52

^a Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, $W_{catal.} = 0.2$ g, T = 140 °C, t = 6 h. ^b 0.2 mmol of ZnX₂. ^c 8 mL PO without DMF.

Moreover, we have also evaluated the catalytic activities of various NH₄X/g-C₃N₄ materials for the cycloaddition reactions of CO₂ with PO. Like the order found in the abovementioned ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ catalysts, the maximum PC yield (29%) is obtained in NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄ among the three NH₄X/g-C₃N₄ (entries 9-11). More importantly, through a detailed comparison of entries 6, 8 and 10, it can be found that the high catalytic activity of ZnBr2/g-C3N4 indeed relies on the combination of both zinc and bromide. In other words, there is an apparent synergy of zinc and bromide in the catalytic reactions (discussed below). Furthermore, the catalytic performance in the absence of the DMF solvent was also evaluated under the identical reaction conditions, and the resultant conversion of PO is 39%, along with a selectivity to PC of 96% (entry 12). It is clear that DMF is also capable to promote the catalytic process, mainly owing to its basic property that facilitates to adsorb and activate CO₂ molecules 38,56,57



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ARTICLE

Fig. 6 Effects of the reaction temperature (A) and CO₂ pressure (B) on the catalytic performances. Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, 0.2 g of $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$, t = 6 h, $p(CO_2) = 2.0$ MPa (A), and T = 140 °C (B).

The influences of reaction conditions on catalytic results were subsequently studied. Using ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ as a representative catalyst, as the reaction conditions are elevated from 110 to 140 °C, the PO conversion increases progressively (Fig. 6A). At 150 °C, the conversion is 59%, slightly higher than the value obtained at 140 °C. The catalytic reaction is also sensitive to the pressure of CO₂ (Fig. 6B). The PO conversion increases gradually with the increment of the CO₂ pressure. However, adopting higher pressure would result in a dramatic decline of catalytic productivity. This phenomenon has been widely reported in the cycloaddition reactions employing other catalyst systems 8,19,56,58. One probable explanation is that under excessively high pressure of CO2, much more acidic CO2 molecules dissolve in basic PO liquid, further transforming into CO₂-PO complexes ^{58,59}. The formation of such species deteriorates the reactivity of PO, therefore resulting in the decrease of PC vield.



Fig. 7 Effects of the catalyst weight (A) and reaction time (B) on the catalytic performances. Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, $p(CO_2) = 2.0$ MPa, T = 140 °C, t = 6 h (A), and 0.2 g of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ (B).

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The reactions using various amounts of catalyst have also been performed, and the resultant catalytic performance is given in **Fig. 7A**. Using much more catalyst could bring out a distinct enhancement of catalytic conversion. Nonetheless, as the catalyst weigh is higher than 200 mg, the conversion shows an unfavorable decrease. This might be due to poor dispersion of catalyst solid in the reaction system, thereafter provoking limited mass transfer between the actives and reactants ⁶⁰. Additionally, the catalytic behavior within a long period of reaction has also been examined (**Fig. 7B**). As the reaction is prolonged to 14 h or longer, a very high catalytic conversion (>80%) can also be achieved over ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄.

Recyclability is another important issue to evaluate a heterogeneous catalyst. After each catalytic run, the ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ catalyst was rinsed with ethanol and then used for its subsequent cycle. The resultant catalytic performances are depicted in Fig. 8. After the first test, the PO conversion was slightly decreased to 47%, whereas the catalytic activity remains stable within the subsequent several runs. We conjecture that a small amount of ZnBr₂ has not been steadily anchored on g-C₃N₄, therein leading to a partial leaching of ZnBr₂ from the catalyst. Since the catalytic reaction was performed under the polar solvent of DMF, to check on the possible dissolution of Zn^{2+} of $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$ into DMF, we performed a tentative test by adding 200 mg of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ into 10 mL of reaction solution (the detailed operation is described in Section 2.2). The resultant concentration of Zn^{2+} was ca. 2.15 mmol L^{-1} . If all the Zn^{2+} cations of the 200-mg catalyst (corresponding to ca. 0.2 mmol of ZnBr₂) were leached into the liquid phase of reaction, the concentration of Zn²⁺ would be up to ca. 20 mmol L^{-1} . It is apparent that most of Zn^{2+} species have been well reserved on the ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ composite. Moreover, XRD and FT-IR were applied again to analyze the spent catalyst subjected to five catalytic tests. As presented in Fig. S1, the recycled catalyst has almost identical chemical functionalities and structure to the fresh one, indicating the ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ material is relatively stable as a heterogeneous catalyst.



Fig. 8 Recycling tests of cycloaddition of CO₂ with PO to PC catalyzed by ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄. Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, $p(CO_2) = 2.0$ MPa, T = 140 °C, t = 6 h, and $W_{\text{catal.}} = 0.2$ g.

Besides the recycling evaluation, to investigate the versatile applicability of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄, we have also performed several cycloaddition reactions adopting various epoxides. As shown in Table 3, under the same reaction conditions, the most reactive substrate is epichlorohydrin (ECH), the conversion and selectivity to the target molecular (chloroethylene carbonate) are 88% and 94%, respectively. The by-product (as well as found in other entries of Table 3) is mainly the hydrolyzed compound of ECH due to the contacting with residual water under high reaction temperature. In fact, these byproducts have also been widely found in many papers involving the catalytic performance of heterogeneous catalysts 17,18,37 towards cycloaddition of CO2 with epoxides. In addition to ECH, the catalyst also exhibits good activities in the cases of ethylene oxide (EO), 1,2-butylene oxide (BO), styrene oxide (SO). Note: the isolated yields for EC, PC, and BC are appreciably lower than the values determined by GC, which is probably attributed to partial loss of products during separation and purification procedures. Nonetheless, using cyclohexene oxide as a substrate, the conversion is lower than 10%. This is mainly caused by the unique electronic environment of cyclohexene oxide, which hinders nucleophilic attack and thus reduces the ring-opening rate. In fact, in other catalyst systems reported previously 19,22,60, the catalytic activities when using cyclohexene were much lower than EO, SO, etc.

3 Catalytic results for the cycloaddition reactions using various epoxides ^a .				
Epoxide	Conv. (%)	Sel. (%)	Yield (%) ^b	
\triangle	78	95	74 (68)	
H ₃ C	55	95	52 (46)	
H ₃ C	50	96	48 (35)	
cı	88	94	82	
	75	93	70	
	<10	93	9	

^a Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, $p(CO_2) = 2.0$ MPa, T = 140 °C, t = 6 h, and 0.2 g of ZnBr2/g-C₃N₄. ^b The values in the bracket are isolated yields.

Table 4 summaries the catalytic performances of various materials for the cycloaddition of CO_2 with PO. To the best of our knowledge, it covers almost all the g-C₃N₄-based materials reported recently. As shown in **Table 4**, the reaction temperatures are between 130 and 150 °C and in general, the CO_2 pressure are in the range of 2.0–3.5 MPa. Among these

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Journal Name

Journal Name

materials, $g-C_3N_4/SBA-15$ and *n*-butBr/mp- C_3N_4 exhibit the highest quasi-TOF values. Despite such high catalytic activities, it should be pointed out that the preparation of the two catalysts were very complicated. In the case of $g-C_3N_4/SBA-15$ material, it demanded mesoporous siliceous SBA-15 as a catalyst support, and was prepared by a chemical-vapor-deposition method. Furthermore, in the corresponding catalytic experiment, additional zinc halide was used as a co-catalyst to enhance its

catalytic performance. Also, *n*-butBr/mp-C₃N₄ (as well as $ZnBr_2/mp-C_3N_4$ and MS-MCN) was prepared through a nanocasting approach using silica nanoparticles as hard template, where involved HF-etching procedure. Although the catalytic activity of $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$ is moderate, the preparation of the catalyst is based on a simple impregnation method, requiring no additional template and therefore is more facile and eco-friendly than other catalysts described in **Table 4**.

Catalytic pe	erformances of various g-C	N ₄ -based ma	aterials in cycloadditio	n of CO ₂ with	PO to PC.			
Entry	Catalyst	<i>Т</i> (°С)	p(CO ₂)(MPa)	<i>t</i> (h)	V _{PO} (mL)	W _{catal.} (mg)	Yield (%)	quasi-TOF $(h^{-1})^{g}$
1 ^{a 37}	MS-MCN	140	0.55	10	1.5	20	30.6	3.3
2 ^{b 17}	g-C₃N₄/SBA-15	150	3.5	1.5	3	100	96.1	28.1
3 ^{c 39}	<i>n</i> -butBr/mp-C₃N₄	140	2.5	6	10	200	87.7	10.7
4 ^{d 38}	ZnBr ₂ /mp-C ₃ N ₄	140	2.5	6	7	200	98.9	8.4
5 ^{e 35}	u-g-C ₃ N ₄ -480	130	2.0	4	1.5	50	23.7	2.6
6 ^{f 40}	g-C ₃ N ₄ -475-NaOH	140	2.0	6	10	400	89.5	5.4
7	$ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$	140	2.0	6	8	200	52.0	5.1

^a Prepared using disk-shaped 2D hexagonal mesoporous silica as a hard template and melamine as a precursor. ^b Prepared using SBA-15 as a catalytic support and dicyandiamide as a precursor through a chemical-vapor-deposition method. Zn²⁺ was further doped into g-C₃N₄/SBA-15 as an additive. ^c Prepared using silica nanoparticles as hard templates and cyanamide as a precursor. The synthesized mp-C₃N₄ was grafted with *n*-bromobutane. ^d ZnBr₂ supported on mp-C₃N₄ material. ^e Prepared using urea as a starting material without addition of any template. ^f Synthesized by guanidine hydrochloride as a precursor treated by NaOH. ^g The detailed calculation method for quasi-TOF is expressed in the experimental section.

4. Discussion

Table 5 Catalytic results of catalysts prepared with various heating temperatures^a.

Sample	Conv. (%)	Sel. (%)	Yield (%)
ZnBr ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ -250	98	99	97
ZnBr ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ -300	77	97	74
$ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-350$	64	97	62
$ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-400$	55	95	52
ZnBr ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄ -450	41	97	40
$ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-500$	26	96	25

^a Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, $p(CO_2) = 2.0$ MPa, $W_{catal.} = 0.2$ g, T = 140 °C, t = 6 h.

The present work reports synthesis of a series of zinc halides catalysts supported on g-C₃N₄ support. The ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ materials demonstrate catalysis towards the transformation of CO₂ to various cyclic carbonates. Wherein, the active sites of the catalysts are preliminarily supposed as zinc cation and halide. Furthermore, ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ exhibits superior catalytic activity to its two counterparts of zinc halide (Cl/I), also to other catalysts with single Zn or halogen component. The FT-IR and XPS profiles verify a potential complexing interaction between Zn and N of g-C₃N₄. In view of the catalytic and characterization results, we surmise that the complexing is possibly facilitated during its heating treatment of ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄. With this in mind, we further examined the catalytic performances of a series of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ materials prepared adopting various heating temperatures in range of 250 to 500 °C. Note, the nominal loading amount of ZnBr₂ for each sample is identical. As summarized in Table 5, it can be found that the temperature plays a significant role in determining the catalytic activity of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-T catalyst. Specifically, as the heating

temperature is increased, the catalytic conversion is decreased monotonously. The highest activity is offered by $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$ -250, affording an outstanding PC yield up to 98%. However, it should be pointed out that the catalytic results in **Table 5** were all collected in the first catalytic run.



Fig. 9 Recycling tests of cycloaddition reactions catalyzed by ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-250 (a) and ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-300 (b) samples. Reaction conditions: 8 mL of PO, 2 mL of DMF, $W_{catal.} = 0.2$ g, T = 140 °C, t = 6 h. The selectivity to PC for each case is higher than 95%.

Fig. 9 shows the catalytic performances of fresh and recycled $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-250$ and $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-300$ materials in the cycloaddition reactions. Surprisingly, the catalytic activity for each case descends sharply within the consecutive runs, and indeed, the PO conversions for the two catalysts subjected to five times of use are dropped to ca. 15%. As discussed above, the active sites for the catalytic cycloaddition are actually zinc cations and halides. In this regard, it can speculate that most of supported $ZnBr_2$ in $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-250$ and $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-300$ underwent severe leaching in their recycling experiments.

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Fig. 10 FT-IR spectra of $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4-T$ materials prepared under various heating temperatures.



Fig. 11 Zn 2p XP spectra of the pure $ZnBr_2$ and $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$ -T materials prepared under various heating temperatures.

In order to search out a reasonable reason explaining the drastic decline in terms of catalytic activity, the above three catalysts were then characterized by XPS and FT-IR spectroscopy. The difference in chemical functionalities of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ treated under various temperatures can be clearly displayed in the FT-IR spectra (Fig. 10). For the ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-T samples adopting lower temperature (T < 350 °C), no bands associated with Zn-N (ca. 2185 cm⁻¹) is discovered ⁴⁶, suggesting that zinc has no interaction with nitrogen of $g-C_3N_4$, namely ZnBr₂ exists in the free state on the surface of g-C₃N₄. Another proof is provided in the corresponding Zn 2p XP spectra. As shown in Fig. 11, the positions of the two primary signals acquired in the spectra of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-250 and ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-300 are very close to that of the pure ZnBr₂ sample. It is worth pointing out that the two peaks of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-300 are actually moved slightly to lower binding energy, suggesting that a small proportion of Zn is included in g-C₃N₄ matrix ^{46,54}. However, in sharp contrast with ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-400, the detailed XP spectra could reasonably rule out the

complexing between Zn and N in the ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-250 and ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-300 materials. In brief, because of the low temperatures of heating treatment for ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄, the interaction between ZnBr₂ and g-C₃N₄ is quite weak, or possibly in the form of physical adsorption. During the recycling tests, most of adsorbed ZnBr₂ was dispersed and eventually leached into the liquid phase. After each rising step, the concentration of ZnBr₂ available on the surface of g-C₃N₄ becomes lower and lower, thereby responsible for the continuous decline of catalytic activity occurring in the two catalysts (**Fig. 9**).







Scheme 1 A possible structure of ZnBr₂ anchored in g-C₃N₄ matrix.

The above findings inspire us to further elucidate the chemical bonding state of halogen in the ZnX2/g-C3N4 composites. Correspondingly, the detailed spectra of Br 3d and Cl 2p region of the materials were also recorded. The remarkable difference between ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ and their corresponding pure zinc halides can be found in Fig. 12. For the composite of ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄, both the position of Br 3d and Cl 2p signals evidences a pronounced shift towards lower binding energies, even identified in the spectrum of ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄-250 synthesized under a low heating temperature. This similar phenomenon has been also previously reported in the work involving iodine ⁶¹ or phosphorus-doped ⁶² g-C₃N₄ materials, implying formation of the covalent bond between bromine/chlorine and g-C₃N₄. More specifically, the original sp2-hybrized nitrogen in the tri-s-triazine units might be substituted by halogen in ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄. However, the halogen Published on 25 September 2018. Downloaded by Kaohsiung Medical University on 9/25/2018 11:13:22 AM

species are still negatively charged (inferred by Fig. 12) and simultaneously neutralized by zinc cations, as illustrated in Scheme 1.

Since the bonding and existence of zinc and halogen elements have been comprehensively elucidated above, it is of interest to discuss the catalytic effect of ZnX₂ in the catalytic reaction between CO2 with epoxides. Herein, we used PO as a representative probe molecule to perform a series of TPD measurements. As described in Fig. 13, the TPD profile of the pristine g-C₃N₄ sample shows one major desorption peak of PO in the range of 200-430 °C (centered at ca. 270 °C). As for NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄, it is observed that the position of desorption peak is shifted to a higher temperature of ca. 300 °C, indicative of stronger adsorption of PO on the surface of NH₄Br/g-C₃N₄ than the pristine g-C₃N₄. In sharp contrast, the TPD profile ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ demonstrates a much higher desorption temperature; the peak is centered at ca. 316 °C, also accompanied with an apparent shoulder at ca. 350 °C. Undoubtedly, the desorption peak occurring at such high temperature is originated from the strong chemical adsorption. Additionally, judging from the three TPD curves, it is estimated that ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ has superior desorption quantity of PO to g- C_3N_4 and $NH_4Br/g-C_3N_4$. Based on the differences of the three materials in terms of desorption temperature and quantity, we can inferred that ZnBr₂ is a key component in adsorbing epoxide on the surface of catalyst and more importantly, the combination of zinc and halide could enhance the adsorbing capacity.



In order to verify possible change of acidity and basicity of $g-C_3N_4$ before and after the introduction of ZnX_2 , CO_2 -TPD and NH_3 -TPD experiments were performed. The pure and loaded $g-C_3N_4$ materials exhibit major desorption peaks of CO_2 in the range of 75–500 °C (**Fig. 14A**), suggesting that the materials possess typical basic sites on their surface. The desorption peak gained in the pure $g-C_3N_4$ is centered at 268 °C, corresponding to chemical adsorption of CO_2 by the weak basic sites 34,63 . Upon loading ZnO and ZnBr₂, the peaks are moved to higher temperatures, indicative of enhanced basic strength in the supported $g-C_3N_4$ composites. In our previous study 34 , we

reported that doping of a certain amount of Zn cation would lead to formation of more tertiary amines on the graphitic sheets of g-C₃N₄, consequently improving the overall basic intensity of g-C₃N₄. Given the explanation, it is reasonable to infer that the dopant of Zn cation into g-C₃N₄ favors the adsorption of acidic CO₂ molecules, which is responsible for their higher catalytic activities in cycloaddition of CO₂ than the bare $g-C_3N_4$ (**Table 2**). On the other hand, it is of surprise that the corresponding NH₃-TPD profiles (Fig. 14B) reveal the existence of a small amount of acidic sites on g-C₃N₄. We conjecture that the desorption signals might originate from the small ammonia-like molecules adsorbed on the surface of g-C₃N₄ due to uncompleted condensation ²⁷. In the cases of $ZnO/g-C_3N_4$ and $ZnBr_2/g-C_3N_4$, the dopant of Zn^{2+} species as classical Lewis acids, effectively strengthens the acidity of g-C₃N₄.



Fig. 14 CO₂-TPD (A) and NH₃-TPD (B) profiles of g-C₃N₄ (a), ZnO/g-C₃N₄ (b), and ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ (c) materials.



Scheme 2 A possible reaction mechanism of cycloaddition of CO_2 with PO catalyzed by $ZnX_2/g-C_3N_4$.

Herein, according to the aforementioned characterization results in this work and the relevant papers published previously 16,21,38,56 , a possible reaction pathway catalyzed by ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ materials was proposed (**Scheme 2**). As noted above, the principle catalysis for the reaction between CO₂ and

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ARTICLE

epoxides lies on both activation of CO₂ and ring-opening of epoxides. Owing to its abundant basic sites in forms of amino group, CO₂ molecules were initially adsorbed and then activated by g-C₃N₄. In addition, the basic solvent of DMF also contributes to the activation step. As for epoxide, zinc cations coordinate with the oxygen of epoxide, leading to polarization of C-O bonds thereof and meanwhile, the halide anions nucleophilically attack the less bulky carbon atoms of epoxide. Among the three halide anions (Cl⁻/Br⁻/I⁻), Cl⁻ and I⁻ own the highest nucleophilic and leaving abilities ^{21,64}, respectively. In comparison, Br has more suitable capability nucleophilically attacking and leaving, reasonably explaining its superior catalytic activity in the cycloaddition reaction to its counterparts (Table 1). The dual steps initiated by ZnX₂ accelerate the ring-opening of epoxide, yielding haloalkoxy anion. Subsequently, the haloalkoxy intermediate attacks the active CO2 molecule attached on the surface of g-C3N4 and thus transforms into a linear halocarbonate. Afterwards, the halocarbonate closes its ring by the leaving of halogen anion, and eventually turns into cyclic carbonate. At this juncture, it can be further clarified that the activation processes of CO₂ and epoxide are primarily achieved by g-C₃N₄ and ZnX₂. However, it should be stressed that, far more than a solid base, g-C₃N₄ acts a significant role in loading the catalytic active species of ZnX₂. As illuminated above, through the formation of Zn-N complex together with the insertion of halogen into g-C₃N₄ matrix, the g-C₃N₄ support steadily anchors and immobilizes ZnX₂ species on its surface, and thus restrains the loss of ZnX₂ into liquid phase, consequently realizing heterogeneous catalysts.

5. Conclusion

In summary, a series of ZnX₂/g-C₃N₄ composites have been fabricated by a simple preparation approach. The temperature of heating treatment has a significant effect on the bonding states of Zn and halogen species. Under optimized conditions, zinc can be coordinated with nitrogen atoms of g-C₃N₄ while halogen substitutes the nitrogen atoms in the framework of g-C₃N₄. Among various catalysts, ZnBr₂/g-C₃N₄ demonstrates the highest activity in cycloaddition of CO2 with PO. The catalysts could be reused for at least five times and show wide applicability for other cycloaddition reactions with various epoxides. Zinc halide are confirmed as a key component in activating epoxide while g-C₃N₄ not only serves as a solid base to activate CO₂ but also plays a vital role in anchoring and immobilizing zinc halide on the surface of g-C₃N₄. We think that the findings could provide a comprehensive insight of the support effect of g-C₃N₄ for zinc halides and other wide metal halides, and constitute a new strategy for designing more novel heterogeneous metal-halide-based catalysts.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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Graphical Abstract



Zinc halides are anchored on g-C₃N₄ support and efficiently catalyze cycloaddition of

CO₂ with epoxides to cyclic carbonates.