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Efficiency and durability of g-C₃N₄-based coatings applied on mortar under peeling and washing trials

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1 **Abstract**

2 Durability of photocatalytic coatings is a major concern in engineering practice. Here, two types of
3 novel visible light-responsive coatings, both consisting of vinyl chloride/vinyl ester/ethylene
4 copolymer (as a binder) and g-C₃N₄ but different in fabrication, are proposed and applied on the
5 mortar surface. The first type is mono-layer coating (MC), where the g-C₃N₄ suspension containing
6 the binder is directly sprayed on the mortar. The second type is double-layer coating (DC), where
7 the binder layer is applied on mortar surface before spraying the g-C₃N₄ layer. Results show that the
8 binder addition leads to a good anchorage of the coatings on both MC and DC mortar substrates,
9 along with desirable resistance to peeling and washing, compared to the g-C₃N₄ coated mortar
10 without the binder. The well-distributed binder in g-C₃N₄-based coating inevitably decreases the
11 photocatalytic efficiency of the MC mortar due to masking effect of the binder on the coating
12 surface. The DC mortar, on the contrary, takes full advantage of the binder adhesion by inserting a
13 binder layer and therefore holds strong resistance to peeling and washing without compromising its
14 photocatalytic efficiency. The proposed DC technique provides a promising strategy to fabricate
15 highly cost-effective and durable photocatalytic coatings applied on cementitious materials.

16

17 **Keywords:** Durability; g-C₃N₄-based coatings; Photocatalytic NO_x removal; Mortar substrate

18

19 **1. Introduction**

20 Photocatalytic building materials, which are fabricated using photocatalyst either applied as
21 surface coating or embedded in bulk, have been proposed for building aesthetics and environmental
22 remediation in recent years. It is an environment-friendly process that the hole-electron pairs
23 produced from photocatalyst under sunlight irradiation can degrade organic [1, 2] and inorganic [3,
24 4] contaminants as well as microorganism [5, 6] in the presence of water and oxygen. Nitrogen
25 oxides (NO_x) are the major pollutants that strongly induce environmental problems such as urban
26 smog, acid rains and depletion of tropospheric ozone [7, 8]. In this respect the NO_x abatement has
27 been widely investigated in the field of photocatalytic building materials [9, 10]. It has been well
28 demonstrated that the NO is oxidized first to NO₂ and then to HNO₃ by the light activated holes and
29 associated active species such as superoxide ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) and hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) [11, 12].

30 In view of the publications previously reported, the titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is the most used
31 photocatalyst in photocatalytic building materials due to its high chemical stability and relatively
32 low price [13, 14]. Nonetheless, TiO₂ suffers from disadvantages such as low exploitation of
33 sunlight because of its relatively large band gap (3.2 eV) [15] and fast recombination of
34 photoinduced electron-holes [16, 17]. This to some extent impedes its application in practice.
35 Graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), also known as nontoxic metal-free materials, has emerged as an
36 attractive photocatalyst with a visible-light driven bandgap (2.7 eV) and proper band edges [18, 19].
37 Over the past decade, g-C₃N₄ has been extensively studied for environmental pollution mitigation
38 and renewable energy generation [20]. For instance, g-C₃N₄, typically prepared by the
39 polycondensation of organic precursors containing both carbon and nitrogen, exhibits an effective
40 photodegradation of organic pollutants and NO_x abatement under visible light irradiation [21, 22].
41 Therefore, the g-C₃N₄ could be a promising alternative photocatalyst used in building materials [23,

42 24].

43 Photocatalytic cementitious composites intermixed with TiO_2 particles for NO_x abatement
44 have been reported previously [25, 26]. Noteworthy, most of the photocatalyst in the internal
45 structure are difficult to participate the photo-induced reactions, leading to a high cost but low
46 efficiency of these photocatalyst products. Photocatalytic reactions usually occur on the material
47 surface, which is in direct contact with the sunlight and contaminants. The photocatalytic coatings
48 prepared by spray coating [27, 28], dip-coating [29] and electrospray coating [30] have been
49 developed to apply the uniformly dispersed photocatalyst onto the substrate surface. To date,
50 although considerable progress on photocatalytic coatings mainly applied on stone and glass has
51 been achieved in the recent years [31], the underlying mechanism of the coating application on
52 stone or glass maybe not applicable to the cementitious materials due to their inherent
53 characteristics such as high alkalinity and complex ion circumstances (Ca^{2+} , Na^+ , OH^-). The
54 research on the photocatalytic coating applied to cementitious materials is still at an infant stage,
55 and previous reports mostly focused on optimizing photocatalytic efficiency of the photocatalytic
56 products but that their durability in real service condition was not adequately improved [27, 32].
57 The durability of the coatings is a crucial concern for large-scale applications. Hassan and
58 co-workers [33] may be the first to evaluate the durability and resistance to wear of TiO_2 surface
59 coating applied on the concrete pavement. Since then researchers are aware of the importance to
60 consider the durability of photocatalytic building materials and release of photocatalyst particles [34,
61 35]. Maury-Ramirez and co-workers [36] investigated the weathering resistance of TiO_2 coating on
62 autoclaved aerated concrete through a dip-coating, and found a decline in TiO_2 content by more
63 than 93% after intensive weathering. The loss of the photocatalyst from coatings caused by wearing
64 and water flow (rainfall) results in not only a reduction of photocatalytic activity and service life [37,

65 38] but also an increase in health damage risk to humans [39, 40].

66 For immobilization of the catalyst on the substrate against rain-wash and abrasion in practical
67 service conditions, various kinds of binders including acrylic resin [41], polyethersulfone [42] and
68 fluoropolymer [43] have generally been added in these coatings. Vinyl ester is notable as additives
69 and has been widely used in coatings and adhesives with excellent resistance to a wide variety of
70 commonly encountered environments [44]. There are two main approaches for fabricating the
71 photocatalytic coatings incorporated with binder additives. First, catalyst powders are directly
72 dispersed into the binder suspension to form a homogeneous composite sol for spraying or brushing
73 process. Russa and co-workers [45, 46] were devoted to develop TiO_2 coatings for cultural heritage
74 protection and reported a nano- TiO_2 coating with desirable hydrophobicity, durability and
75 self-cleaning properties, which was prepared by brushing the acrylic water suspension mixed with
76 TiO_2 . Secondly, an intermediate layer of the binder is applied on the substrate before installation of
77 the photocatalytic layer. Persico and co-workers [47] developed a multilayered transparent
78 fluoropolymeric coating applied on the quartz sheath for degradation of hydrosoluble pollutants,
79 and the perfluorinated amorphous polymer that acts as a hydrophobic primer coating can not only
80 improve the adhesion between the latter photoactive layer and the quartz, but also prevent water
81 penetration. The SiO_2 layer was applied on cement substrate before the TiO_2 layer was sprayed,
82 leading to an improved adhesion for TiO_2 coatings and a protective layer for substrate [48]. These
83 hybrid coatings, however, were developed and investigated mainly in laboratory conditions. And
84 few reports on the resistance to wear and rain wash of these hybrid coatings applied to mortar
85 substrate is available so far [49, 50].

86 From a literature survey, little effort has been devoted to optimizing the method of binder
87 addition technique in term of efficiency and durability when preparing photoactive coating on the

mortar surface. In this work, two binder addition techniques were applied to fabricate two novel visible light-responsive coatings, composed of vinyl chloride/vinyl ester/ethylene copolymer (as a binder) and g-C₃N₄, on mortar surface. First, the binder suspension mixed with g-C₃N₄ was sprayed on the mortar to form the coating. Secondly, the binder suspension is applied on mortar surface before the g-C₃N₄ suspension is sprayed. The g-C₃N₄ suspension without binder is sprayed on mortar as a control group. Under a peeling action and a simulated rain-wash process, the durability of these coated mortars was evaluated in view of g-C₃N₄ loss from the mortar surface by qualitative-quantitative SEM-EDS analysis. Hydrophobicity of these coated mortars is monitored by water contact angle measurements. The photocatalytic performances of the coated mortars were assessed in terms of NO_x removal under visible light before and after the durability tests (i.e. peeling test and washing test). This work will provide a good reference for optimizing the efficiency and durability of the mortars with photocatalytic coatings.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and mortar substrate

Urea was provided by Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. without further purification. The binder mainly consisting of vinyl chloride/vinyl ester/ethylene copolymer (COMPAKTUNA[®]PRO) received from P.T.B. COMPAKTUNA was used. The characteristics of the binder are listed in Table 1. A grade of 42.5 R Portland cement (Chinese Standard) was used, taken from Anhui Conch Cement Co., Ltd. The China ISO standard sand used in the study was acquired from Xiamen ISO Standard Sand Co., Ltd. Deionized water was used throughout the experiments.

The mortar substrate was fabricated with a constant mix proportion of water: cement: sand as 0.5: 1: 3 by mass. In detail, the dry cement was mixed first with deionized water in a mixer at a low

111 speed for 30 s. Afterwards, sand was added into the mixture and stirred for another 90 s (low speed
 112 for 30 s and high speed for 60 s) to obtain the fresh mixtures. The fresh mortars were cast in the
 113 specific discs ($\Phi 30 \text{ mm} \times 15 \text{ mm}$) and compacted carefully on a vibration table. Afterward, all the
 114 specimens were demolded after 24 hours, and then transferred into a curing chamber (20 °C and
 115 98% relative humidity) for another 27 days.

116

117 **Table 1**

118 Characteristics of the binder (vinyl chloride/vinyl ester/ethylene copolymer).

| Dynamic Viscosity (mPa·s) | Solid Content (%) | PH Value | Density (kg/m ³) |
|---------------------------|-------------------|----------|------------------------------|
| 80~120 | 52 ± 1 | 7~9 | 1.1 |

119

120 *2.2. Synthesis of g-C₃N₄*

121 The g-C₃N₄ was prepared according to the procedures provided in previous work [51]. 10 g of urea
 122 was placed in a crucible and heated up at 550 °C for 4 h in static air with a heating rate of 3 °C min⁻¹.
 123 After cooling naturally, the resultant yellow agglomerates were milled into powders in an agate
 124 mortar for further use. The morphology and the particle size distribution of the as-prepared g-C₃N₄
 125 are shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, respectively. The particle size of the g-C₃N₄ is mostly in the range
 126 0.06~4 μm. The BET surface area of the g-C₃N₄ is 195.3 m² g⁻¹.

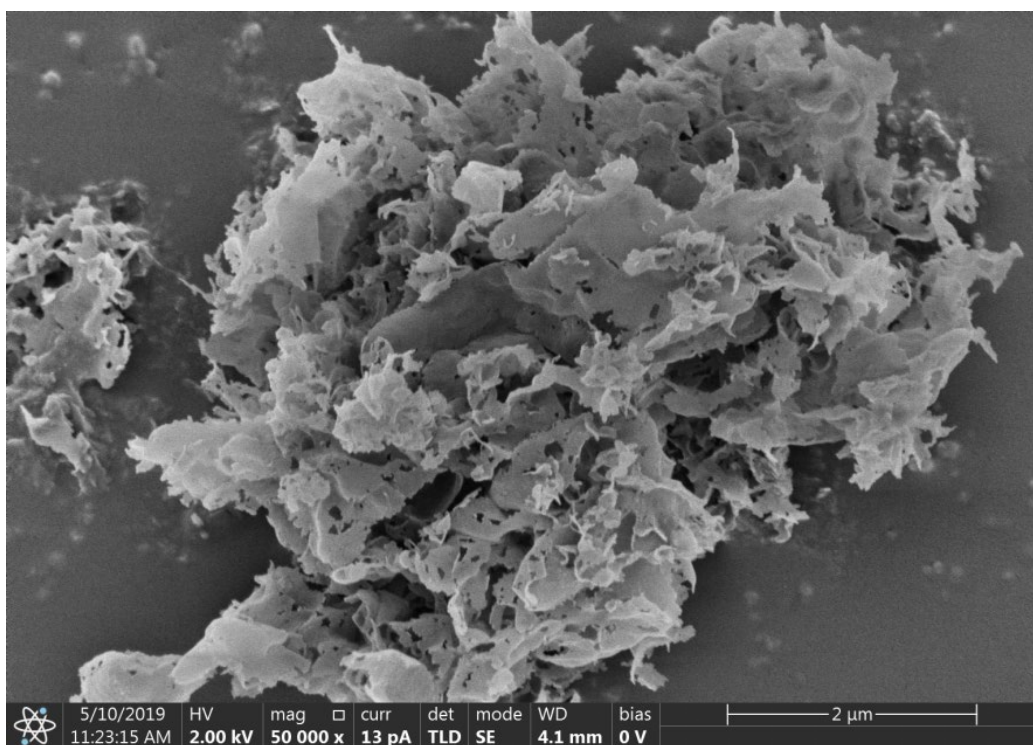


Fig. 1. Morphology of the as-prepared g-C₃N₄.

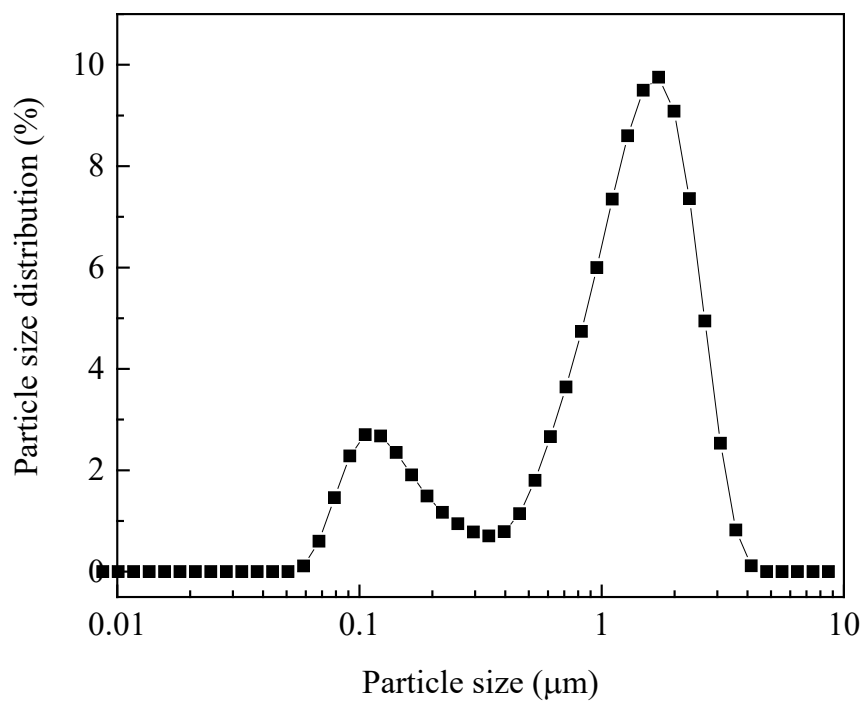


Fig. 2. Particle size distribution of the as-prepared g-C₃N₄.

133 2.3. Coating deposition

134 Two different procedures including mono-layer coating (MC) technique and double-layer coating
135 (DC) technique were applied on the mortar to prepare the g-C₃N₄-based coatings. A diagram for
136 illustrating the preparation process is shown in Fig. 3. In detail, the binder was completely dissolved
137 in deionized water via vigorously stirring at room temperature for 1 hour and became a
138 homogeneous binder suspension (1 wt %). The g-C₃N₄ suspensions A and B (15 g L⁻¹) were
139 obtained via 2 hours' sonication of the g-C₃N₄ powders in deionized water and in the binder
140 suspension, respectively. The g-C₃N₄ suspension B was directly sprayed on the mortar to a
141 monolayered g-C₃N₄-based coating mortar, denoted as MCM. To prepare the mortar coated with
142 double-layered g-C₃N₄-based coatings, the binder suspension was first sprayed on the surface of
143 mortar, and then dried at ambient temperature for 3 min before spraying the g-C₃N₄ suspension A,
144 denoted as DCM (double-layer g-C₃N₄-based coating mortar). For both MCM and DCM,
145 approximately 0.7 mg cm⁻² of binder was applied on each sample. In addition, the g-C₃N₄
146 suspension A was sprayed on the mortar as a control sample. After coating, the coated mortars were
147 dried for 24 h in a controlled laboratory environment (25 ± 2 °C and 30 ± 5% RH) and stored in
148 dark conditions. For all the coated mortars, approximately 1.0 mg cm⁻² of g-C₃N₄ was applied.

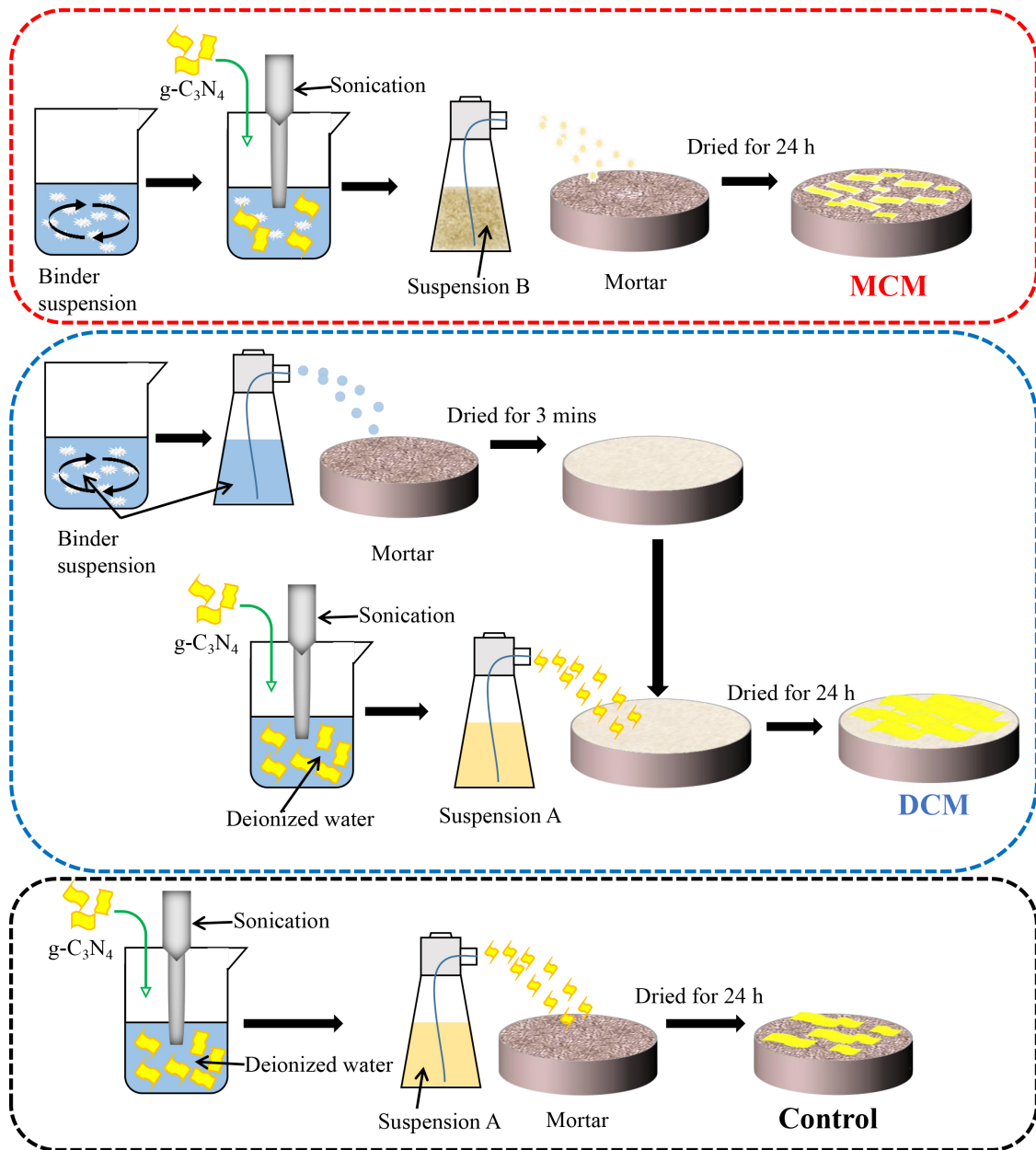


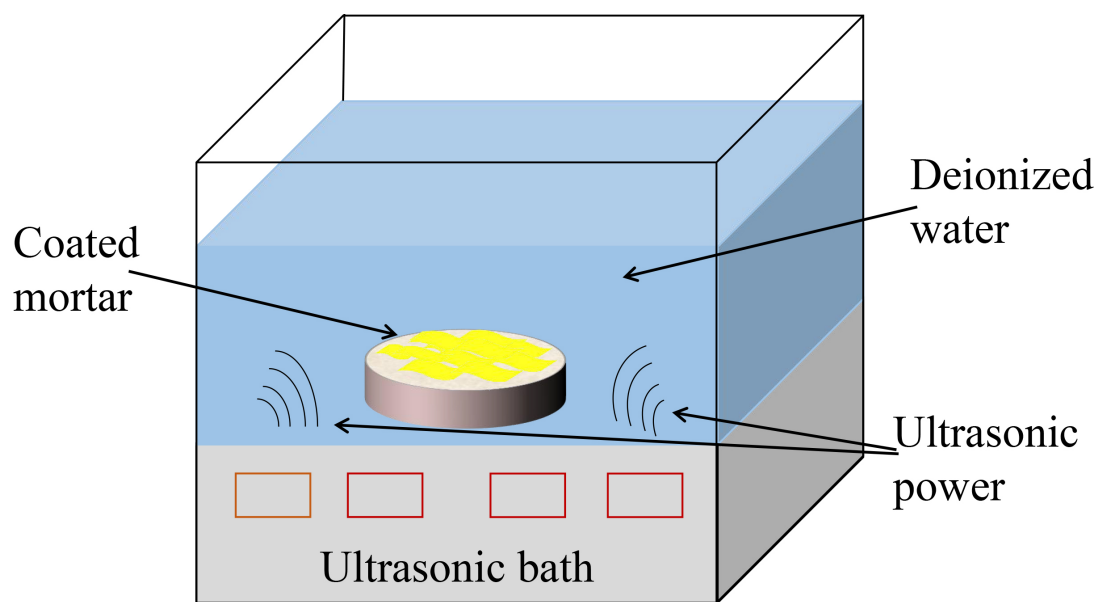
Fig. 3. Schematic illustration on the preparation of the coated mortars.

2.4. Durability tests

The durability of the coated mortars was evaluated via peeling test and water wash process. The peeling experiment was performed according to a method reported previously, which was used for evaluating the surface cohesion of mortars and stones [52, 53]. In a typical process, a commercial adhesive tape (M&G Chenguang Stationery co., Ltd.) was stuck to the surface of the coated mortar and smoothed with gentle finger pressure; after 10 seconds, the tape was removed rapidly. The test

158 for each sample was repeated for a couple of times preassigned. New strips were used for each time.

159 The rain wash is the most ubiquitous deterioration factor affecting the whole building facades
160 and it is a primary concern for the durability of the coated mortar in real service conditions. The
161 rain-wash process was simulated in this work (Fig. 4), the coated mortars were immersed in
162 deionized water with an ultrasonication, using a Shu Mei ultrasonic bath (KQ-200KDB, 40 kHz,
163 200 W). After the ultrasonication for prescribed times, the samples were washed with deionized
164 water and oven dried at 60 °C.



165

166 Fig. 4. Sketch of the experimental setup for the coated mortars under simulated rain-wash.

167

168 2.5. SEM-EDS analyses

169 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) equipped with Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
170 (EDS) (Bruker Quanta 250) was used to observe the morphology of the coatings on the mortars and
171 to investigate the distribution of Nitrogen (noted as N hereafter) on the mortar surface. Comparative
172 SEM observations and quantitative analyses of N by EDS were performed before and after the
173 durability tests, to study the effect of the peeling action and the rain-wash process on the coated
174 mortar. Morphological and elemental analyses were performed at an accelerated voltage of 15 kV.

175 Distribution maps of element were acquired in Live Spectrum Mapping mode. The analytic time
176 was 10 min for each EDS scan.

177

178 2.6. Contact angle measurements

179 Water contact angle (WCA) of the coated mortars was measured in order to evaluate the
180 hydrophobicity of the coatings before and after the durability tests and after exposure to light/dark.
181 A contact angle meter (OCA20, Dataphysics) was used to measure the WCAs. A water droplet (5
182 μL) was gently placed on the surface of the coated mortars using a microsyringe. Five locations on
183 the coatings were chosen to measure the WCA and these were then averaged to report the
184 equilibrium contact angle.

185

186 2.7. Photocatalytic NO_x removal test

187 The capability in air purification of the coated mortars was evaluated by photocatalytic NO_x
188 abatement in a continuous reactor under visible light irradiation, based on a regular photocatalytic
189 procedure ISO/DIS 22197-1. The schematic diagram of NO_x removal experimental set-up is shown
190 in Fig. 5. The NO gas was supplied from a gas container with 6 ppm NO concentration (N_2 balance).
191 The air was provided from a compressed cylinder. The targeted concentration (1 ± 0.05 ppm NO) of
192 the testing gas was achieved by mixing air stream and NO gas using the gas mass flow meters. The
193 flow rate of the targeted gas was adjusted to 0.6 L min^{-1} , and its relative humidity was kept at 50%
194 by passing the air streams through a water bubbler. The coated mortar was put in the middle of the
195 cylindrical reactor ($\Phi 60 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm}$), which was made of glass and covered with quartz glass
196 window. A 300 W xenon lamp with a light passing through a UV cut off filter ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) was
197 vertically placed outside the reactor as a light source. The accurate measurement of the

198 concentration of NO, NO_x and NO₂ was carried out using a chemiluminescence analyzer (Model
 199 42i, Thermo Environmental Instruments Inc). For each test, the targeted gas (1 ppm NO) was
 200 passed over the coated mortars in the dark for a period of 30 min before the irradiation. The
 201 irradiation experiments were carried out for another 30 min. Each test was repeated three times to
 202 obtain an average value. The amount of NO_x abatement was expressed as a subtraction of the NO₂
 203 generated from the NO removed according to previous reports [26, 54]. The calculation of the
 204 amount of NO_x abatement is shown below:

$$205 \quad Q_{NO_x} = \left(\frac{f}{22.4} \right) \left\{ \int ([NO]_0 - [NO]) dt - \int ([NO_2] - [NO_2]_0) dt \right\} / (A \times T) \quad (1)$$

206 where Q_{NO_x} ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) is the amount of NO_x abatement; [NO]₀ and [NO₂]₀ (ppm) are the
 207 initial concentration of the nitrogen monoxide and the nitrogen dioxide, respectively; [NO] and
 208 [NO₂] (ppm) are the concentration of the nitrogen monoxide and the nitrogen dioxide, respectively,
 209 under visible light irradiation; t (min) is the time of removal operation; f (L min⁻¹) is the flow rate at
 210 the standard state (273K, 1.013 kPa); A (m²) is the surface area of the coated mortar; T (30 min for
 211 all experiments) is the duration of the photocatalytic process; 22.4 represents that the volume of 1
 212 mol ideal gas at the standard state is 22.4 L (ideal gas law).

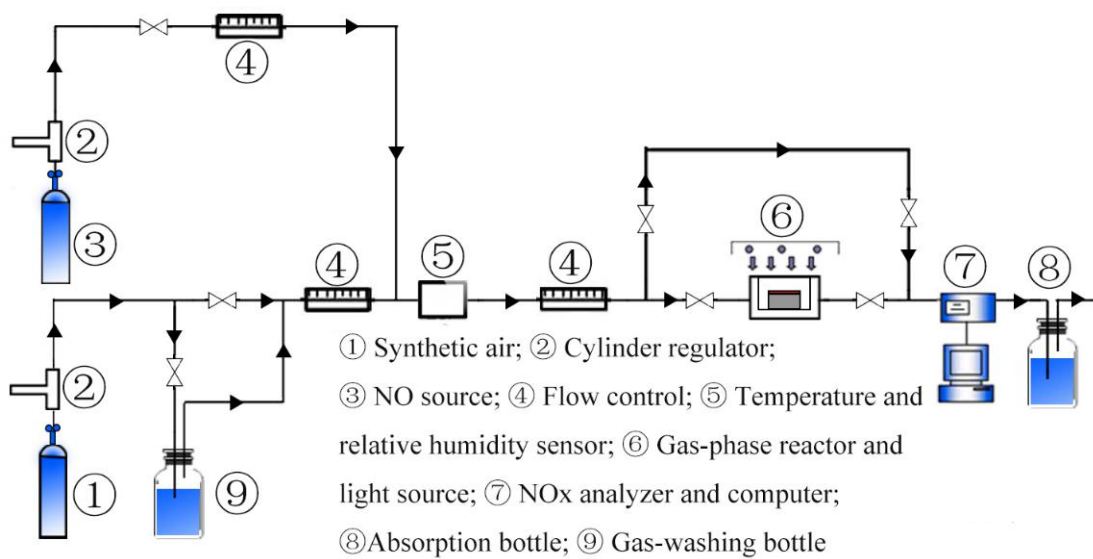


Fig. 5. Schematic diagram of NO_x removal experimental set-up [23].

215

216 3. Results and discussion

217 3.1. Microscopic observations

218 Fig. 6 shows the microstructure of the coated mortars before the durability tests. The
219 g-C₃N₄-based coatings can be observed clearly on all the samples, and mask the original surface
220 morphology of the mortars. These coatings are consistent with EDS distribution maps where
221 abundant C and N can be detected (Figs. S1, S2 and S3). The abundant cracks with raised edges can
222 be observed on the control (Fig. 6a). The obvious gaps between the mortar substrate and the
223 coatings can also be found in the cross-sectional images (Fig. 6d), suggesting a low anchorage of
224 the coating to the mortar substrate. This can be explained by the fact that the g-C₃N₄ particles
225 adhere to each other more strongly than their adhesion to the mortar substrate due to the high
226 surface energy of the g-C₃N₄ particle. The MCM shows a smooth surface without visible crack (Fig.
227 6b). This is attributed to the bonding effect of the intermixed binders between the g-C₃N₄ particles.
228 Meanwhile, thanks to the adhesion of the binders, the coatings are attached tightly onto the mortars
229 (Fig. 6e), presenting a good anchorage of the coatings to the mortar substrate. At higher
230 magnifications (Figs. 7a and 7b), it is obvious that the g-C₃N₄ particles were covered by the
231 amorphous binders compared to the identifiable g-C₃N₄ particles on the control. This corresponds
232 well with the uniform distribution of Cl in the coatings (Fig. S2). For the DCM (Fig. 6c), the size of
233 the micro cracks is smaller than that on the control, but larger than that on the MCM. This can be
234 ascribed to the different distribution of the binders in the two samples. Compared to the uniformly
235 distributed binders in the g-C₃N₄ layer (MCM), the insertion layer of the binders in the DCM only
236 provided an anchoring effect for the bottom of the g-C₃N₄ layer. Hence, the cohesion of g-C₃N₄
237 particles still cause a few cracks on the g-C₃N₄ layer. Compared to the control with observable

rough mortar substrate in the cracks, the smooth surface composed of binders is observed in the bottom of the micro cracks. This is in coincidence with the distribution of Cl on the surface of DCM (Fig. S3). Additionally, the coatings on the DCM are stuck closely on the substrates, showing a good anchorage on the mortar surface. In the cross-sectional images (Fig. 6f), the compatible binders attached compactly on the mortar were in close contact with the g-C₃N₄ layer, displaying a good bond between the g-C₃N₄ layer and the mortar substrate.

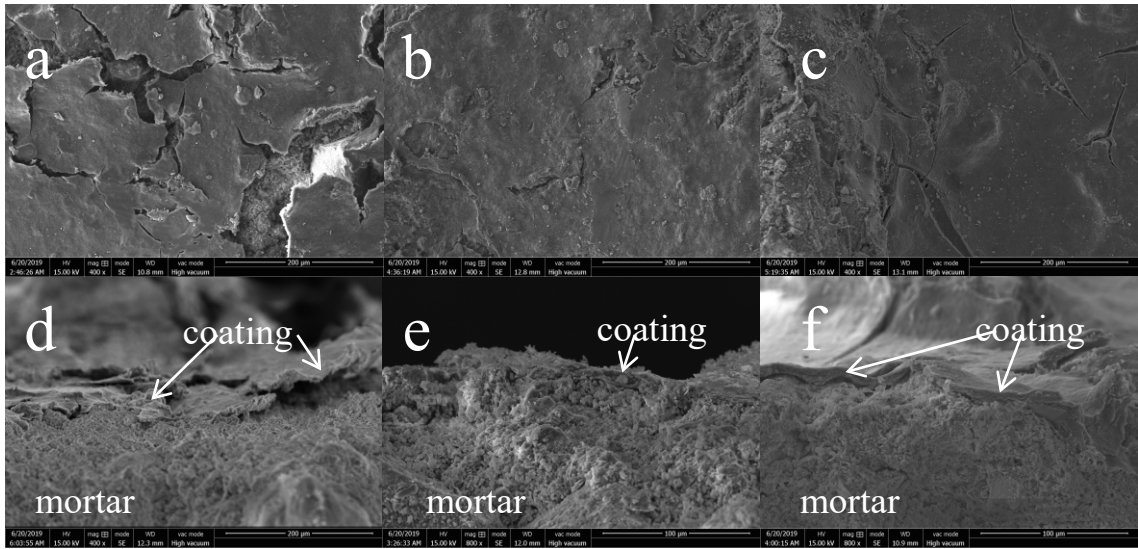


Fig. 6. Morphologies of the coated mortar surfaces and cross sections: (a) and (d) control; (b) and (e) MCM; (c) and (f) DCM.

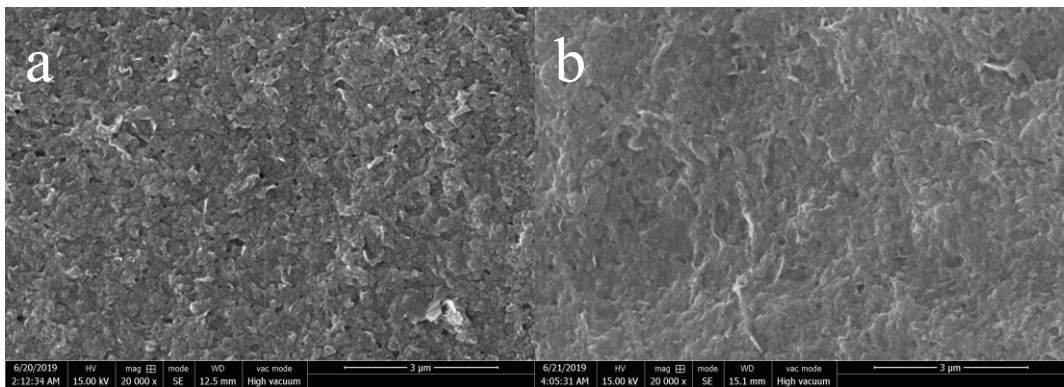
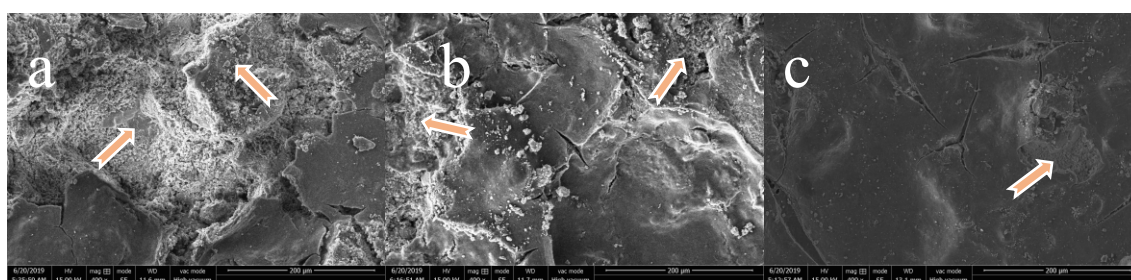


Fig. 7. Surface morphologies of (a) control and (b) MCM at high magnifications.

Fig. 8 shows the surface morphology of the control, MCM and DCM after 5 times of peeling

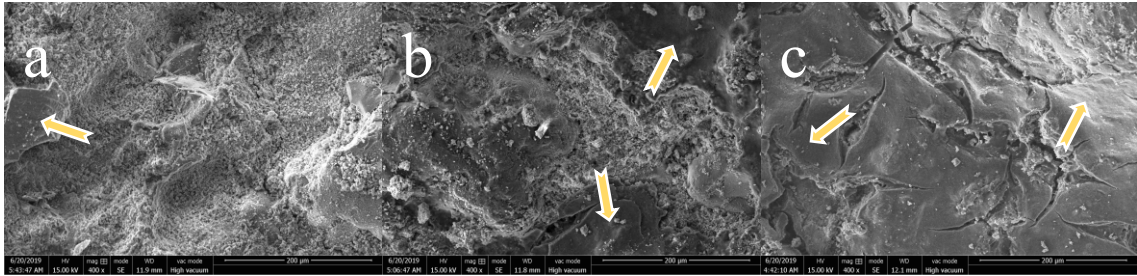
252 action. For the control, the peeling action results in a large removal of the fissured coatings, leaving
 253 a rough surface morphology of the mortars and indicating a weak resistance to human touch. This
 254 can be attributed to the low adhesion of the mortar substrate. The MCM exhibits some rough mortar
 255 surface after peeling, while most coatings remained on the surface due to the improved adhesion
 256 from the intermixed binders. It has been reported that the intermixed binders can improve the
 257 wearing resistance and stability of the coatings on the substrate [55]. For the DCM, a good stability
 258 of the coatings is found under the peeling impact test. The surface morphology is almost unchanged
 259 after peeling in spite of a little exfoliation of the g-C₃N₄ layer, indicating a strong resistance to
 260 peeling. This can be attributed to the strengthened bonding effect provided by the binder layer
 261 between the mortar substrate and the g-C₃N₄ layer.



262
 263 Fig. 8. Surface morphologies of (a) control; (b) MCM and (c) DCM after peeling.

264
 265 Fig. 9 shows the microscopic morphologies for the control, MCM and DCM after 60 min
 266 washing. The control exhibits extensive rough surface of mortar substrate with few fragment of
 267 g-C₃N₄ layer (Fig. 9a), indicating that the water washing has a severe impact on the coatings of the
 268 control, almost a complete loss of the coating. These findings demonstrate that the direct application
 269 of photocatalyst particles onto the mortar is not effective due to the weak resistance to washing and
 270 peeling. For the MCM, the larger area of g-C₃N₄ layer remained after washing compared to that on
 271 the control. This is attributed to the bonding effect of the intermixed binders, resulting in a better
 272 resistance to washing. It should be pointed out that the bonding effect of the intermixed binders in

273 this MCM is limited due to the relatively low amount of intermixed binder. As a result, the CNNs
274 coatings on the MCM were partially removed from the surface, leaving rough mortar surface when
275 subjected to the simulated rain wash (Fig. 9b). As for the DCM, most g-C₃N₄ layers were still
276 attached on the surface after washing, demonstrating a strong washing resistance. This can be
277 attributed to the strong adhesion provided by binder layer. It is noteworthy that the larger cracks can
278 be seen on the DCM after washing, suggesting that the main loss of g-C₃N₄ occurs at the
279 discontinuous coating edge. The study on further optimization of the durability of the coated
280 mortars is in progress to improve the continuity of the coating on the mortar.



281
282 Fig. 9. Surface morphologies of (a) control; (b) MCM and (c) DCM after washing.

283
284 In order to further investigate the effect of peeling and washing on the coated mortars, the EDS
285 analysis was used to check the N content in the coatings before and after the durability tests. The N
286 signal can be regarded as coming from g-C₃N₄ attached on the surface of the coated mortar, and the
287 N content measured on the surface of the coated mortars are reported in Table 2. The content of N
288 recorded on the surface of coated mortars after the washing trial was remarkably lower than that
289 after the peeling trial. Accordingly, the washing trial has a larger deterioration impact than the
290 peeling trial. As expected, the control exhibits the lowest N content after peeling and washing,
291 which is reduced by 59% and 79%, respectively. Due to the adhesion of the intermixed binders, the
292 reduction of the N content on the MCM was smaller, 26% and 29 % respectively, than that of the
293 control after peeling and washing. Meanwhile the remaining N content of MCM, which is higher

than that of the control, drops from approximately 39.3% to 29.1% and 16.2%, corresponding to peeling test and washing test, respectively. More importantly, the DCM shows the least reduction in the N content after peeling and washing, about 15% and 21% respectively, and remains the highest content of N compared to the MCM and the control, indicating the strongest resistance to peeling and washing. As mentioned above, different binder addition techniques have dramatically different effects on the durability of the coatings. Compared to the intermixed binder in the coating, a prior layer of binder contributes to the stronger resistance to coating exfoliation under peeling and washing trials.

Table 2

N content measured on the mortar surface (%).

| | Before Durability | After 5 times of | Δ | After 60 min of | Δ |
|---------|-------------------|------------------|----------|-----------------|----------|
| | tests | peeling | | washing | |
| Control | 44.4 ± 5.4 | 18.1 ± 3.5 | -59% | 9.5 ± 2.2 | -79% |
| MCM | 39.3 ± 6.8 | 29.1 ± 6.3 | -26% | 16.2 ± 3.4 | -59% |
| DCM | 43.4 ± 4.6 | 37.1 ± 8.6 | -15% | 34.5 ± 6.7 | -21% |

3.2. Contact angle measurements

The wetting property of the coated mortars was investigated by the water contact angle (WCA) measurements. The results for MCM and DCM before and after durability tests are listed in Table 3. The WCA for the control cannot be detected, owing to the strong capillary water absorption of the mortar substrate and the fragmented g-C₃N₄ layer (Fig. 6a). Before the durability tests the WCA values of both MCM and DCM are higher than 80°, indicating an improved resistance to

water penetration due to the inherent hydrophobic behaviour of the binder. This is favourable for protecting the substrate from aggressive environmental hazards. After the durability tests, the WCA values of both MCM and DCM decrease slightly after the exfoliation of coatings, and the tested WCA value of DCM is clearly higher than that of MCM. This corresponds well with the removal of the coatings observed on the mortar surface (Figs. 8 and 9). The change of the WCA after exposure to light/dark is further monitored. The results are shown in Fig. 10. After 4 hours of irradiation, the WCA value of MCM and DCM drastically decreases to 18.7° and $8.7 \pm 5^\circ$, respectively, both exhibiting a hydrophilic surface. This can be attributed to the increase in hydroxyl-group concentration on the surface of the g-C₃N₄ in the presence of water molecules under light irradiation. It was reported [56] that the hydrophilicity induced by the photocatalyst under solar radiation can be responsible for the decrease in the contact angles in the mixture coatings. After keeping the sample in dark for 12 hours, the WCA value increases again, reaching $63.4 \pm 10^\circ$ and $67.2 \pm 12^\circ$ for DCM and MCM, respectively. This can be explained by the fact that the hydroxyl groups are slowly replaced by atmospheric oxygen [57].

326

327 **Table 3**

328 Water contact angles of the coated mortars ($^\circ$).

| | Before durability tests | After 5 times of peeling | After 60 min of washing |
|---------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Control | 0 | - | - |
| MCM | 80.9 ± 3 | 70.3 ± 5 | 61.0 ± 6 |
| DCM | 83.1 ± 2 | 75.5 ± 6 | 70.1 ± 6 |

329

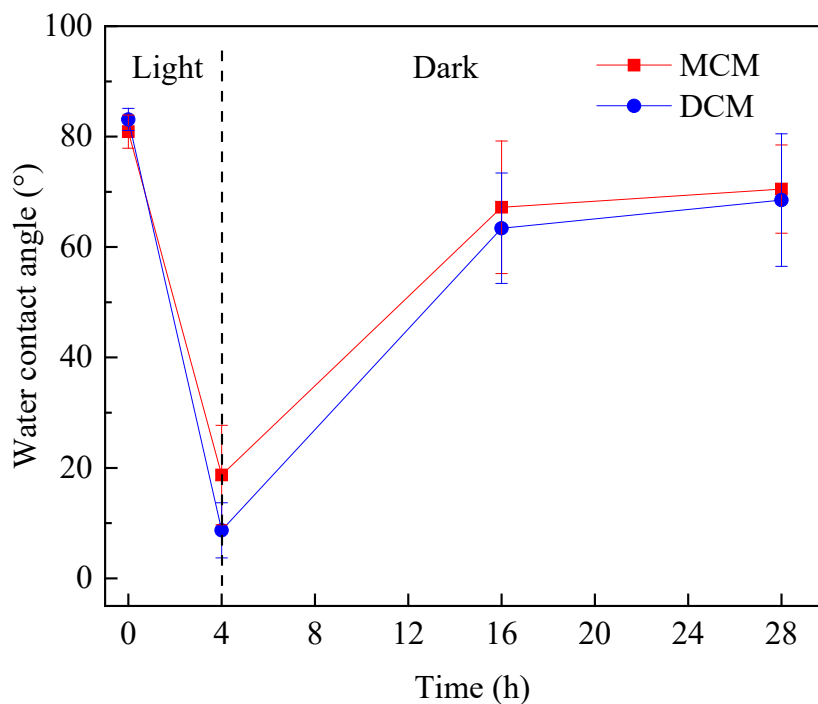


Fig. 10. Change of WCA with exposure to light/dark.

3.3. Photocatalytic activity of the coated mortars

The photocatalytic performance of the coated mortars before and after subjecting to various degrees of peeling and washing is shown in Figs. 11 and 12, respectively. Table 4 presents the loss rate of the NO_x removal efficiency of the coated mortars after 5 times of peeling and 60 min of washing. Before these durability tests, all the coated mortars show a highly efficient NO_x removal under visible light irradiation. This is reasonable given that the active species ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$) formed on the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can oxidize NO_x to NO_3^- [58]. Among the three samples, the DCM presents the highest photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency ($283.9 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) than the control and the MCM. The MCM exhibits the lowest photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency ($230.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$), caused by coverage of the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ by the binders. This respect is evidently supported by the observations from SEM image (Fig. 7). The masking effect of the binders becomes pronounced

344 with an increasing content of the binders due to the higher probability of g-C₃N₄ covered by binders,
 345 resulting in a remarkable decrease in the NO_x removal efficiency of MCM (see Fig. S4). This is in
 346 good agreement with the findings reported previously [59].

347

348 **Table 4**

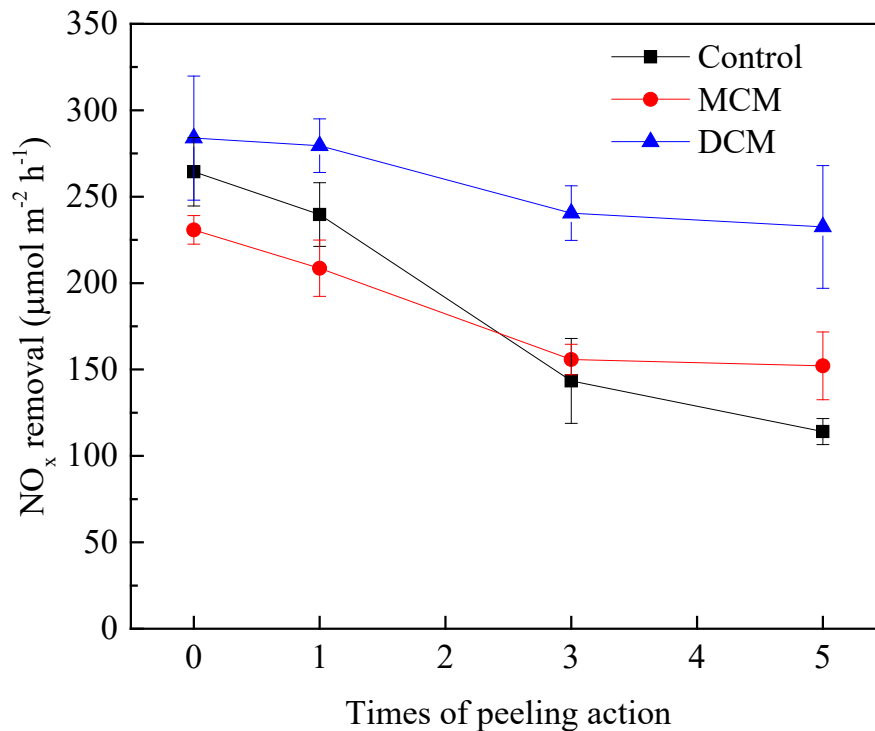
349 Loss rate of the NO_x removal efficiency of the coated mortars after 5 times of peeling and 60 min of
 350 washing (%).

| | After 5 times of peeling | After 60 min of washing |
|---------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Control | 56.8% | 81.9% |
| MCM | 34.1% | 55.3% |
| DCM | 18.1% | 28.8% |

351

352 As shown in Fig. 11, with the increased times of peeling, the photocatalytic NO_x removal
 353 efficiency of all the coated mortars shows a decreasing trend. The control exhibits the largest
 354 decline about 56.8% compared to the MCM and DCM after 5 times of peeling action. This
 355 corresponds well with the large loss of g-C₃N₄ on the mortar surface due to the weak adhesion of
 356 the mortar substrate (Table 2). After 5 times of peeling action, the photocatalytic NO_x removal
 357 efficiency of the MCM is about 152.1 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹, which is 33.3% higher than that of the control (114.1
 358 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹). This is attributed to the fact that the intermixed binders are able to help preserve
 359 g-C₃N₄ particles on the surface. As for the DCM, the peeling action causes the least loss of
 360 photocatalytic performance (18.1%), dropping from 283.9 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹ to 232.5 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹. After
 361 5 times of peeling action the DCM presents the highest photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency,
 362 which is 2.0 times and 1.5 times higher than that of the control and the MCM, respectively. These

363 results coincide well with the observed microscopic morphology and N content on the mortar
364 surface.

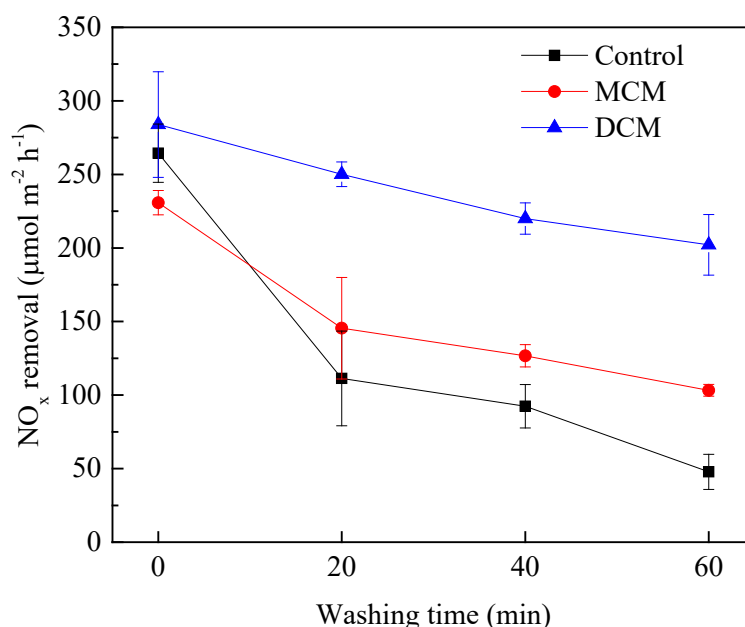


365
366 Fig. 11. Photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency of the coated mortars subjected to peeling action.

367
368 The photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency has decreased for all the coated mortars after
369 exposure to the washing trials, as shown in Fig. 12. With the increase of the washing time from 20
370 min to 60 min, a further decreasing trend of the photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency is observed
371 for all the samples. The control suffers an enormous reduction of about 81.9% in the NO_x removal
372 efficiency after 60 min of washing, falling from 264.4 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹ to 47.8 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹, suggesting
373 a fragile resistance to washing. It is reasonable to consider that application of the photocatalyst
374 without additives on the actual building surfaces is impracticable due to its week stability of
375 coatings and low long-term photocatalytic performance. For the MCM, distribution of the binder in
376 the coatings can help to improve the bonding between g-C₃N₄ and mortar substrate. After 60 min of

377 washing the MCM shows a NO_x removal efficiency of $103.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, which is 2.1 times higher
 378 than that of the control. It is worth noting that the DCM exhibits the lowest loss of NO_x removal
 379 efficiency of about 28.8% compared to the MCM and the control when subjected to 60 min of
 380 washing action. In contrast, the DCM retains the highest NO_x removal efficiency of $202.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$
 381 h^{-1} , which is in line with the highest N content observed above (Table 2), and it is 1.9 times and 4.2
 382 times higher than that of the control and the MCM, respectively. Hence, a coating approach at
 383 which the highest NO_x removal efficiency of the coated mortars after peeling and washing are
 384 achieved is optimized. Furthermore, the relationship between photocatalytic NO_x removal
 385 efficiency and N content on the mortar surface is established, as shown in Fig. 13. It can be
 386 observed that a linear relationship exists between the NO_x removal efficiency and the N content,
 387 with a regression coefficient R^2 of 0.987.

388



389

390 Fig. 12. Photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency of the coated mortars versus washing time.

391

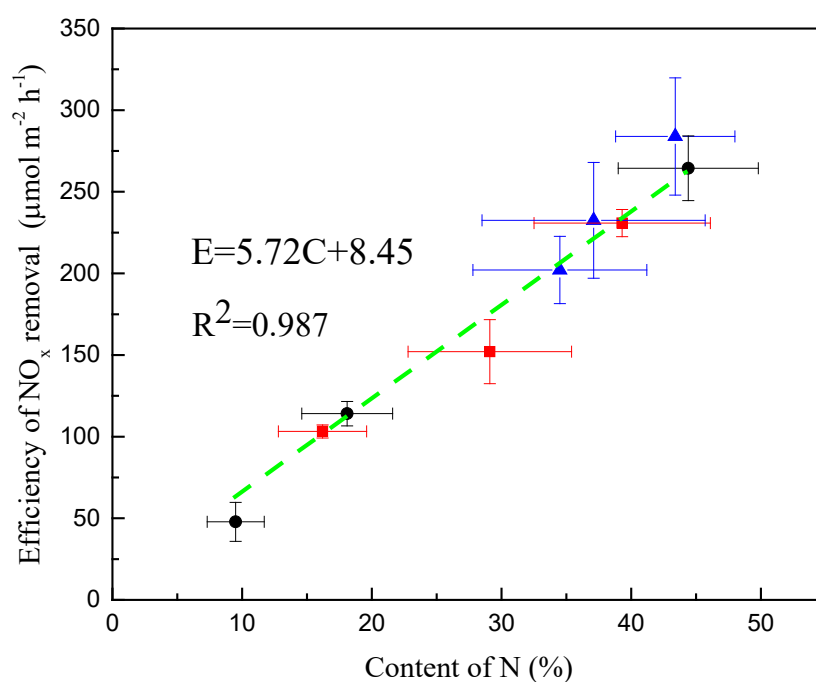


Fig. 13. Relationship between photocatalytic NO_x removal efficiency and N content on the mortar surface.

4. Discussion

Application of photocatalyst as coating on the outdoor exposed building materials has been intensively developed for self-cleaning and depollution [60, 61]. Incorporation of the binder with photocatalyst, a type of hybrid coating, is an often-adopted approach to guarantee the long-term property of the photocatalytic coating in real service condition. [45, 56]. However, few reports on the durability of the hybrid coating applied to mortar substrates are available, and little effort has been devoted to optimizing the binder addition technique in term of efficiency and durability when preparing photoactive coating on the mortar surface. In this work, two binder addition techniques have been successfully applied to fabricate novel visible light-responsive coatings, composed of vinyl chloride/vinyl ester/ethylene copolymer and g-C₃N₄, on mortar surface. Their photocatalytic

406 NO_x removal efficiency and resistance to peeling and washing are investigated and compared in
407 detail.

408 Based on the above results, the influence of different approaches of binder addition on the
409 photocatalytic activity and durability of the coated mortars is illustrated in Fig. 14. For the MCM,
410 the intermixed binders are almost uniformly distributed in the g-C₃N₄-based layer. The binders
411 distributed on the upper surface of the coatings are detrimental to the photocatalytic activity due to
412 its masking effect that drastically weakens the contact of the g-C₃N₄ with the NO_x. The lowest NO_x
413 removal efficiency before the durability tests is consequently presented in the MCM compared with
414 the control and the DCM. Due to the drying shrinkage, the control exhibits discontinuous coatings
415 with large cracks, leading to a reduction in surface areas of the g-C₃N₄ coatings. This is detrimental
416 to the photocatalytic reaction. While the DCM presents smooth coatings with smaller crack due to
417 the good adhesion provided by the pre-inserted binder layer. As a result, the initial photocatalytic
418 NO_x removal efficiency of the DCM is higher than that of the control.

419 Previous studies [53, 62] on durability of TiO₂ coatings applied on different substrates have
420 shown the high surface roughness of substrate along with good durability of the photoactive coating
421 due to the favourable adhesion of the substrate. Nonetheless, the aggressive peeling and washing
422 actions can cause a significant loss of g-C₃N₄ layer on the control in spite of its sufficiently rough
423 surface. This demonstrates that the surface roughness of substrate holds limited role on the
424 durability of the coatings against the mechanical effects of human touch and real rain, and the direct
425 application of photocatalyst particles onto the mortar is inadvisable due to their poor durability.

426 For the MCM, the binders on the bottom of the coatings can contribute to the bonding effect
427 between the mortar and the g-C₃N₄-based layer, resulting in a good resistance to peeling and
428 washing. It is reasonable to consider that a bigger amount of binders on the bottom of the coatings,

429 from the MCM with a larger content of binders, can provide more bonds between the mortar and the
430 g-C₃N₄-based layer. However, the increased content of the intermixed binders tends to cause a
431 reasonable increase in the amount of binders on the upper surface of the coatings, resulting in a
432 decline in the photocatalytic performance. It can then be deduced that the MCM with the stronger
433 resistance to coating exfoliation under peeling and washing trials holds inevitably the lower
434 photocatalytic efficiency. This partly impedes its large-scale application due to high cost and low
435 efficiency.

436 As for the DCM, the double-layer structure takes full advantage of binder adhesion by
437 employing an intermediate binder layer before construction of the g-C₃N₄ layer. The binder layer
438 can provide sufficient adhesion for the g-C₃N₄ layer without compromising its photocatalytic
439 efficiency, resulting in strong resistance to peeling and washing. What's more, the dosage of the
440 binder layer can be increased to acquire desirable bonds between the mortar substrate and the
441 g-C₃N₄ layer without any adverse impact on its photocatalytic activity. The proposed double-layer
442 coating technique, which overcomes the contradiction between durability and efficiency often in the
443 conventional mono-layer coating, is proved to fabricate durable photocatalytic coating on
444 cementitious materials without compromising its photocatalytic efficiency. It should be pointed out
445 that the intermediate binder layer only contributes to bonding effect on the bottom of the g-C₃N₄
446 layer. A few cracks occur accordingly on the surface of the g-C₃N₄ layer, which will be troubles
447 potentially for loss of the coatings when subjected to the action of the peeling and washing.
448 Improvements on the coating for uniformity without cracking to achieve better durability will be the
449 subject of a further study.

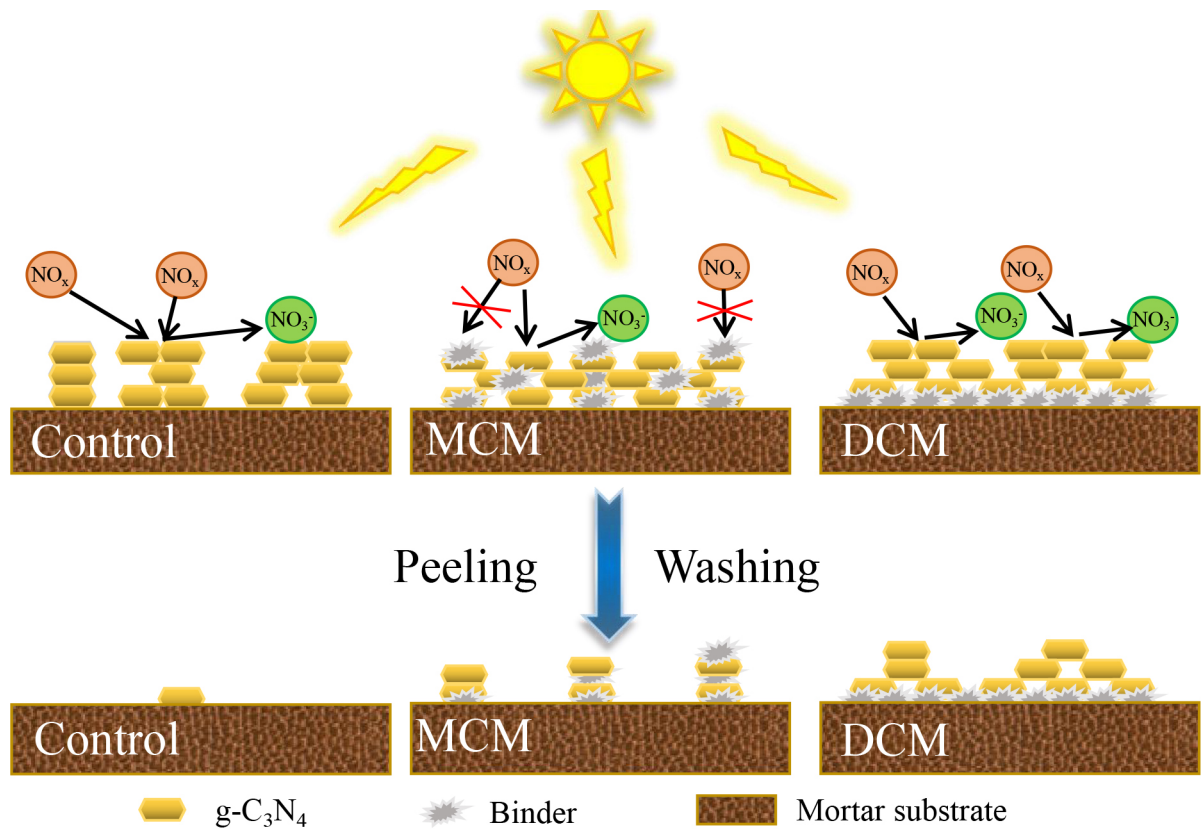


Fig. 14. Schematic illustration of the photocatalytic activity and durability of the coated mortars fabricated by different approaches.

The primary objective of this article is to propose preliminary strategy to fabricate highly cost-effective and durable photocatalytic coatings applied on cementitious materials, and provide the information on the mechanical resistance to peeling and washing of these coatings. The durability assessment on surface carbonation and aging of the proposed double-layer coating applied on cementitious materials is worthwhile to continue in detail for further study. The carbonation of cementitious materials is a universal phenomenon, where the formation of calcite via chemical reaction between calcium hydroxide in the cement paste and carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the air can block the surface of the catalyst [63]. The binder acts as a barrier that can sufficiently prevent the contact between the mortar surface and the CO₂ in the air. The binder in MC is usually randomly distributed and can be relatively poorly connected. The binder in DC, in contrast, is

464 present as a whole on the mortar surface and is therefore well connected, as already illustrated in
465 Fig. 14. In this sense, the resistance to CO₂ ingress of the DC should be stronger than that of the MC.
466 Moreover, in the field of photocatalytic coatings, special effort should be paid to the well-known
467 issue that polymeric binder can be degraded in the process of photocatalysis. The photocatalysis
468 occurs primarily on the surface of the coating which is accessible to the light. In the MC, the
469 oxidative species ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$) formed on the surface are prone to degrade the binder around the
470 surface. As for the DC, the oxidative species need to pass through the g-C₃N₄ layer to degrade the
471 binder layer. In this penetration process, the oxidative species may be partly consumed. What's
472 more, the g-C₃N₄ layer provides a shield for the binder layer to protect against UV radiation. As a
473 consequence, the resistance of DC to aging can be stronger than that of MC. Also, by increasing the
474 thickness of g-C₃N₄ layer in the coating, the photo-induced degradation of the binder layer can
475 reasonably be decreased. Besides, nitrate ion or nitric acid is usually considered as the inert end
476 product of the NO_x photocatalytic degradation. And the accumulated nitrate ion or nitric acid often
477 stays on the surface of photocatalyst until it is eventually washed off by rainfall. It is noteworthy
478 that the effect of nitrate ion or nitric acid on the photoactivity of catalyst remains controversial.
479 Paolini and co-workers [64] discovered an unexpected increase in anatase near infrared (NIR)
480 reflectance but a decrease in photocatalytic activity during environmental exposure, which can be
481 attributed to the nitric acid generated by the degradation of NO_x causes partial reduction in
482 crystallinity of TiO₂. Che and co-workers [65] found that after stirring in HNO₃ solution, the
483 photocatalytic performance of graphitic carbon nitride was significantly enhanced by intercalated
484 hydrogen bond effect of NO₃⁻. Yet, it is also reported that the accumulated nitrate ion on the
485 photocatalyst surface could easily occupy the active sites, which is partially detrimental to the
486 photocatalytic activity [66]. The effect of nitrate ion and nitric acid on the long-term photoactivity

487 shall be consequently considered in future investigation. A more detailed and complete
488 experimental study is in the stage of development to provide a solid validation for the more durable
489 behaviors of the DC when used in real engineering practice.

490

491 **5. Conclusions**

492 Two novel visible light-responsive coatings composed of vinyl chloride/vinyl ester/ethylene
493 copolymer and g-C₃N₄, which are applied on mortar surface, have been developed by two binder
494 addition techniques including mono-layer coating (MC) technique and double-layer coating (DC)
495 technique, respectively. The g-C₃N₄ suspension without binder is sprayed on mortar as a control
496 group. The coated mortars hold efficient NO_x removal efficiency under visible light irradiation and
497 desirable hydrophobicity. Major findings can be summarized below:

498 (1) In spite of high surface roughness of mortar, the control exhibits discontinuous coatings with
499 large crack due to the drying shrinkage, showing a low anchorage to mortar substrate. This can
500 be responsible for the weak resistance to peeling and washing.

501 (2) Compared to the control, the MC and DC mortars present a better anchorage to mortar substrate
502 due to the adhesion of the binder, along with a better resistance to peeling and washing. The
503 addition of binder accounts for the hydrophobicity of MC and DC mortars.

504 (3) Before the durability tests (i.e. peeling test and washing test), the MC mortar exhibits the lowest
505 photocatalytic efficiency compared to both the control and the DC mortar due to the masking
506 effect of the intermixed binder, and the MC mortar with higher amount of binder has the lower
507 photocatalytic efficiency, which impedes its practical application due to the high cost and low
508 effectiveness.

509 (4) Contradiction between durability and efficiency often exists in the conventional MC. The

proposed DC technique, which overcomes that contradiction, is proved to fabricate durable photocatalytic coating on cementitious materials without compromising its photocatalytic efficiency.

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