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Synchronous construction of CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping for g-C₃N₄: Enhanced photocatalytic H₂-evolution activity and mechanism insight



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HIGHLIGHTS

- CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping for g-C₃N₄ are synchronously constructed.
- Partial N atoms in g-C₃N₄ are replaced by S atoms.
- CoS₂ nanosheets as H₂-evolution cocatalysts in-situ grow on the surface of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets.
- Co-S bonding between CoS₂ and Sdoped g-C₃N₄ enhances directed transfer of photo-generated electrons.
- The noble-metal-free photocatalytic H₂-evolution activity of g-C₃N₄ is effectively elevated.

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ABSTRACT

Considering the fact of the cost control in photocatalysis, it is significant to develop the noble-metal-free photocatalysis for H_2 evolution. Herein, CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping for $g-C_3N_4$ were synchronously constructed by hydrothermal and sulfidation processes. With systematical physicochemical characterizations, it was found that partial N atoms in $g-C_3N_4$ were replaced by S atoms, improving the visible-light absorption ability for more generation of photo-generated carriers. CoS_2 as an effective noble-metal-free H_2 -evolution cocatalyst induced and captured photo-generated electrons for promoting separation of photo-generated carriers synergistically with S doping. More contact between CoS_2 and $g-C_3N_4$ were formed by the in-situ growth of CoS_2 nanosheets on the surface of $g-C_3N_4$ nanosheets. It was important that Co-S bonding between CoS_2 and S-doped $g-C_3N_4$ was built by the synchronous construction of CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping, strengthening the directed transfer of photo-generated electrons from S-doped $g-C_3N_4$ to CoS_2 . Accordingly, the synergetic function of CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping effectively elevated the noble-metal-free photocatalytic activity of $g-C_3N_4$ for H_2 evolution under visible-light irradiation.

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1. Introduction

Photocatalytic water splitting for H_2 evolution is thought as one feasible way to realize the effective utilization of abundant solar energy in solving the energy crisis [1,2]. Since Fujishima and Honda found the photoelectrochemical phenomenon of TiO₂ photoelectrode for H_2 and O₂ evolution [3], comprehensive studies on photocatalysis have been deeply extended. Based on previous research works, suitable photocatalysts should be a key factor in the photocatalytic process [4,5]. Until now, representative photocatalysts, such as TiO₂ [6,7], SrTiO₃ [8,9], CdS [10,11], g-C₃N₄ [12–15], and GaN:ZnO [16–18], have been widely developed and applied in photocatalysis. Among these reported photocatalysts, g-C₃N₄ with graphite-like two-dimension (2D) microstructure has a lot of advantages, such as low cost, easy preparation, and suitable band gap [19–21]. However, the high recombination rate of photo-generated carriers always leads to its low efficiency in photocatalysis [22].

Generally, the adverse process of $g-C_3N_4$ can be well inhibited by modification of noble-metal cocatalysts with large work functions such as Pt and Au, inducing the migration of photo-generated electrons from $g-C_3N_4$ to the surfaces of noble metals and prevent recombination of photo-generated carriers [23,24]. It is known that noble metals are rare and extremely expensive. In consideration of the cost of photocatalysis, it is necessary to develop noble-metal-free cocatalysts as the replacement of noble metals.

It was widely reported that transition metal (Co, Ni, Fe, Cu)-based compounds, such as corresponding oxides, phosphides, sulfide, and hydroxides, possess favorable electrochemical abilities for H2-evolution reaction (HER) [25-27]. Moreover, several research groups proved that some (Co, Ni, Fe, Cu)-based compounds performed comparable HER activities to noble metals under some conditions [26]. It is suggested that most of materials with favorable electrochemical abilities always show the potential application in photocatalytic field, and (Co, Ni, Fe, Cu)-based compounds have been indeed applied as cocatalysts in photocatalysis [26]. As for g-C₃N₄, noble-metal-free (Co, Ni, Fe, Cu)based compounds, such as NixP [28,29], NiS [30], CoxP [13,31,32], Fe_xP [33], Cu₃P [34], and Ni/NiO [35], were successfully applied as noble-metal-free cocatalysts to elevate its photocatalytic ability. Meanwhile, it is reported that the microstructures of cocatalysts have a significant influence on contact with photocatalysts as well as the generation of active sites, which is also important to improve photocatalytic ability [36-38]. Until now, the low noble-metal-free photocatalytic efficiency and the unclear interaction mechanism between g-C₃N₄ and noble-metal-free cocatalysts severely hindered photocatalytic application of g-C₃N₄, implying that more efforts should be provided to conquer these problems.

Cobalt sulfide has low Gibbs free energy for hydrogen adsorption [39], and is recognized as one of the potential cocatalysts for H₂ evolution. There are only rare reports about cobalt sulfide such as CoS nanoparticles or CoS_x polyhedrons, acting as H₂-evolution cocatalysts for the enhanced noble-metal-free photocatalytic performance of g- C_3N_4 [38,40]. It is deserved that more efforts should be taken to develop cobalt sulfide with special microstructures coupling with g- C_3N_4 for better noble-metal-free photocatalytic ability. Recently, it was reported that CoS_2 -based 2D nanosheets were developed as one of the excellent electrocatalysts for HER [41]. Based on the above mentioned, CoS_2 nanosheets are expected to function as one favorable cocatalyst of g- C_3N_4 to improve photocatalytic ability.

Furthermore, the relatively wide bandgap ($\sim 2.7 \text{ eV}$) of g-C₃N₄ signified its weak visible-light absorption ability [19], and effective light absorption is responsible for the generation of photo-generated carriers, which is essential to promote utilization of more carriers in photocatalysis [2]. Cocatalysts are commonly unable to improve the light absorption ability of g-C₃N₄. It is expected that a suitable strategy for better light absorption ability couples with CoS₂ nanosheets loading to enhance generation and separation of photo-generated carriers.

Doping strategy, especially doping of nonmetal elements, is proved to be beneficial to improve light absorption of $g-C_3N_4$ and elevate the photocatalytic performance [42]. Considering these facts, it is thought that S doping is more feasible to combine with CoS_2 loading. Moreover, S-doped $g-C_3N_4$ was reported to realize good visible-light response and promote the generation and transfer of carriers [43–45].

In this work, g-C₃N₄ was prepared by the thermolysis of urea, and then CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping on g-C₃N₄ were synchronously realized by hydrothermal and sulfidation processes. Based on comprehensive physicochemical characterizations analyzation, CoS₂ nanosheets as effective H₂-evolution cocatalysts were verified to tightly anchor to g-C₃N₄, while S atoms substituted for partial N atoms in g-C₃N₄. The coupling mechanism between CoS₂ and S-doped g-C₃N₄ was studied in detail. It was found that the synchronous construction of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping could promote effective combination between CoS₂ and S-doped g-C₃N₄, subsequently improving noble-metal-free photocatalytic H₂-evolution activity under visible-light irradiation.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Chemicals

Urea (CH₄N₂O), sodium dodecyl sulfate (C₁₂H₂₅SO₄Na), cobalt nitrate hexahydrate (Co(NO₃)₂6H₂O), hexamethylenetetramine (C₆H₁₂N₄), ethanol (C₂H₆O), sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄), sulfur powder, and Triethanolamine (C₆H₁₅NO₃,TEOA) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Chloroplatinic acid hexahydrate (H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O) was purchased from Alfa Aesar. Nafion[®] solutions (D1020, 10 wt%) was purchased from Dupont. All chemicals were analytical grade and used without further purification. Deionized water with a resistivity (18.2 MΩ·cm) was used in all experiments.

2.2. Preparation

 $g\text{-}C_3N_4$ is prepared by thermal condensation of the precursor urea. Firstly, urea (10.0 g) was added into one crucible and covered with a lid. Then the crucible was moved into a furnace and heated up to 550 °C with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ and kept for 4 h. Finally, after naturally cooling down to room temperature, g-C₃N₄ was obtained and labeled as CN.

 CoS_2 is prepared according to the reported work [41]. Firstly, sodium dodecyl sulfate (5 mmol, 1441.90 mg), cobalt nitrate hexahydrate (1 mmol, 291.03 mg) and hexamethylenetetramine (6 mmol, 841.12 mg) were orderly dissolved into deionized water (22 mL) with stirring. The solution was then moved into a Teflon-lined autoclave and kept at 120 °C for 24 h. After naturally cooling down to room temperature, the precipitation was washed three times by deionized water and one time by ethanol, and dried in vacuum for 12 h at 60 °C. The obtained powders were thoroughly mixed with sulfur powder (50 mg), and then heated to 350 °C with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ and kept for 2 h in Ar atmosphere. Finally, after naturally cooling down to room temperature, the obtained black powders were collected and labeled as CoS₂.

CoS₂/**S**-doped g-C₃N₄ is prepared by hydrothermal and sulfidation processes similar to those of CoS₂ except that CN was added in the hydrothermal solution. Firstly, CN (200 mg) was dispersed into deionized water (22 mL) by sonication for 30 min. Then sodium dodecyl sulfate (0.24 mmol, 69.21 mg), cobalt nitrate hexahydrate (0.048 mmol, 13.97 mg) and hexamethylenetetramine (0.288 mmol, 40.37 mg) were orderly dissolved into the above suspension with stirring. The formed suspension was moved into a Teflon-lined autoclave and then kept at 120 °C for 24 h. After naturally cooling down to room temperature, the precipitate was washed three times by deionized water and one time by ethanol, and dried in vacuum for 12 h at 60 °C.

The obtained powders were enough mixed with sulfur powder (50 mg), and then heated to 350 °C with a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ and kept for 2 h in Ar atmosphere. Finally, after naturally cooling down to room temperature, g-C₃N₄ loaded with 3 wt% CoS₂ was obtained and labeled as CN-3CoS₂. Samples with other weight contents of CoS₂ (2, 6 wt%) were prepared based on the same process by controlling the added weight of cobalt nitrate hexahydrate and keeping the constant molar ratios between sodium dodecyl sulfate, cobalt nitrate hexahydrate and hexamethylenetetramine. The obtained samples were labeled as CN*x*CoS₂, in which × wt% represents the weight ratio of CoS₂ and g-C₃N₄.

S-doped g-C₃**N**₄ named as CN-HTS was prepared by the same process of CN-3CoS₂ without the existence of cobalt nitrate hexahydrate, and the S-doped g-C₃N₄ named as CN-WHTS was prepared by the same process of CN-HTS without the existence of sodium dodecyl sulfate and hexamethylenetetramine.

Physical mixture samples were prepared as follows: CN, CN-HTS or CN-WHTS (100 mg) and CoS_2 (3 mg) were added into ethanol (10 mL), kept in sonication for 30 min and then stirred for 2 h. Then the suspension was dried in vacuum for 12 h at 60 °C, and the obtained powders were labeled as CN + $3CoS_2$, CN-HTS + $3CoS_2$ or CN-WHTS + $3CoS_2$, respectively.

2.3. Physicochemical characterization

For X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns, a diffractometer (PANalytical X'pert Pro MPD, Netherlands) was used with a scan rate of $2^{\circ} \text{ min}^{-1}$ in the 2θ range from 10 to 80° under Ni-filtered Cu K α irradiation. For Scanning electron microscopy (SEM), a field-emission scanning electron microscope (JEOL JSM-7800F, Japan) was used under an accelerating voltage (3 kV). For Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), a transmission electron microscope (JEOL JEM-F200, Japan) for CN-3CoS₂ sample was employed under an accelerating voltage (200 kV), and a transmission electron microscope (FEI Tecnai G² F30 S-Twin, USA) for CoS₂ sample was employed under an accelerating voltage (300 kV). For Brunauer-Emmette-Teller (BET) surface area measurement, an accelerated surface area and porosimetry analyzer (Micromeritics ASAP 2020, USA) was used with N2-adsorption/desorption isotherms. For Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra, an FTIR spectrophotometer (Bruker Vertex70, Germany) was applied with the wavenumber range (4000-400 cm⁻¹). For X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), an Xray photoelectron spectroscope (Kratos Axis Ultra DLD, Japan) was used with a monochromatic Al K α line source (h ν = 1486.69 eV), and the reference was the adventitious C 1s peak at 284.8 eV. For UV-Vis spectra, a UV-Vis-near-IR spectrophotometer (Agilent Cary 5000, USA) was applied with BaSO₄ reference in the range (350-800 nm). For Photoluminescence spectra (PL), a steady-state fluorescence spectrophotometer (PTI QuantaMaster 40, USA) was used equipped with an excitation wavelength of 377 nm under room temperature.

2.4. Electrochemical measurement

Electrodes were prepared by a simple dropping method. The mixture including corresponding photocatalyst powders (1 mg), deionized water (250 μ L), ethanol (250 μ L) and Nafion[®] solutions (10 μ L) was sonicated for 30 min. The obtained dispersion (2.5 μ L) was dropped on the glassy carbon electrode (3 mm diameter), and then dried at room temperature overnight. The synthesized electrodes based on CN, CN-HTS and CN-3CoS₂ were labeled as CN-E, CN-HTS-E and CN-CoS₂-E, respectively.

Electrochemical measurement was carried out by a bipotentiostat (CH Instruments, China). The carbon rod, Ag/AgCl electrode and asprepared electrode were used as the counter electrode, reference electrode and working electrode, respectively. Meanwhile, Na₂SO₄ (0.5 M, pH = 6.8) aqueous solution was applied as electrolyte. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves were recorded at a scan rate of 0.01 V s⁻¹, and the current densities were normalized to the geometrical surface

area. The potential vs Ag/AgCl were converted to corresponding potential vs Reversible Hydrogen Electrode (RHE) based on the following equation:

$$E_{RHE} = E_{Ag/AgCl} + 0.059 \times pH + E_{Ag/AgCl}^{0} (E_{Ag/AgCl}^{0} = 0.1976 V at 25 °C) (1)$$

2.5. Photoelectrochemical measurement

Photoelectrodes were prepared by a simple dropping method. The suspension was prepared and composed of as-prepared photocatalyst (5 mg), ethanol (1 mL) and Nafion solutions (20 μ L), and then kept ultrasonic for 30 min. Then the suspension (200 μ L) was dropped onto as-cleaned FTO glass (1.0 \times 1.5 cm²), and dried at 70 °C for 2 h in air. The obtained photoelectrodes based on CN and CN-3CoS₂ were labeled as CN-PA and CN-CoS₂-PA, respectively.

A three-electrode cell was composed of the counter electrode (Pt slice), the reference electrode (Ag/AgCl) and the working electrode (the prepared photoelectrodes), was applied for photoelectrochemical measurement, and Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution (0.5 M, pH = 6.8) was chosen as the electrolyte. The transient photocurrent densities were obtained at an applied voltage (0.5 V vs Ag/AgCl). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were recorded with the frequency range (100 kHz - 1 Hz) and an applied voltage (0.5 V vs Ag/AgCl) under visible-light irradiation. The transformation of potentials vs Ag/AgCl and RHE was calculated by the Eq. (1).

2.6. Photocatalytic measurement

Photocatalytic H_2 -evolution activities were measured in a Pyrex glass cell (100 mL) with side irradiation. A Xe lamp (300 W) equipped with a UV-cutoff filter ($\lambda > 420$ nm) was used as the visible-light source. In the photocatalytic system, TEOA functioned as the sacrificial agent to consume photo-generated holes. In detail, photocatalysts (20 mg), TEOA (8 mL) and deionized water (72 mL) were mixed into the glass cell with stirring. If CN was loaded with Pt cocatalyst by the in-situ photo-deposition method, the additional Pt resource (as-pre-pared H₂PtCl₆ aqueous solution) was also added into the mixed suspension. Then the cell was purged with Ar for 15 min to eliminate air, and sealed by clean latex plug. The generated H₂ in the photocatalytic process was evaluated by a gas chromatogram with a TDX-01 column and the carrier gas of high-purity Ar.

The measurement of apparent quantum yield (AQY) was carried out under the above Xe lamp equipped with different band-pass filters (420, 450, and 520 nm). The intensity of irradiated light was recorded from a spectroradiometer (Avantes AvaSpec-2048-USB2, Netherlands). The AQY value was obtained by the following Eq. (2):

$$AQY(\%) = \frac{\text{Number of reacted electrons}}{\text{Number of incident photons}} \times 100$$
$$= \frac{\text{Number of evolved H}_2 \text{ molecules } \times 2}{\text{Number of incident photons}} \times 100$$
(2)

3. Results and discussion

XRD patterns of CN, CN-HTS and CN-3CoS₂ are shown in Fig. 1a. For CN, the characteristic peaks at around 12.9° and 27.3° were related to (100) and (002) diffraction facets of $g-C_3N_4$, respectively [46]. The former was caused by the in-plane repeating units of the continuous heptazine in $g-C_3N_4$, while the latter was attributed to the interlayer stacking of carbon nitride nanosheets [47]. There was no obvious difference among XRD patterns of CN, CN-HTS and CN-3CoS₂. It was verified from Fig. 1b that the prepared cobalt sulfide sample belonged to CoS₂ and showed weak crystallinity, meaning that the cobalt sulfide loading on $g-C_3N_4$ was the CoS₂ species of cobalt sulfide [41,48].



Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns for CN, CN-HTS and CN-3CoS₂; (b) XRD pattern for CoS₂; (c) XPS C 1s spectra for CN, CN-3CoS₂, CN-HTS and CN-WHTS; (d) XPS S 2p spectra for CN-3CoS₂, CN-HTS and COS₂; (e) XPS N 1s spectra for CN-3CoS₂; (f) XPS Co 2p spectra for CN-3CoS₂ and CoS₂.

However, characteristic peaks of CoS_2 were not seen in the XRD pattern of CN-3CoS₂, which was attributed to the low CoS_2 loading content and the weak crystallinity of CoS_2 . As observed from FTIR spectra (Fig. S1b), both CN and CN-3CoS₂ had the characteristic peaks at 3100–3500, 1200–1600 and 813 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the stretching vibration of N–H and O–H, characteristic stretching vibration mode and breathing mode of aromatic heptazine rings, respectively [49]. It was noted that any obvious difference could not be observed between the FTIR spectra of CN and CN-3CoS₂. Therefore, based on XRD and FTIR results, CoS_2 in-situ loading as well as the hydrothermal and sulfidation treatment had no obvious influence on the structure of g-C₃N₄.

However, the influence of CoS₂ in-situ loading as well as the hydrothermal and sulfidation treatment should be present from our experience, and then XPS characterization for precise structure analysis was carried out. Fig. 1c exhibits C 1s spectra for CN, CN-3CoS₂, CN-HTS and CN-WHTS. For CN, three characteristic peaks at 284.8, 286.2 and 288.0 eV were related to C=C, C-NH and sp²-hybridized carbon in aromatic ring (N=C-N), respectively [12,50]. The corresponding characteristic peaks for CN-3CoS2 were positioned at 284.8, 286.2 and 288.2 eV, respectively. It was notable that the peak (N=C-N) for CN-3CoS₂ had higher binding energy than that for CN, which implied that the chemical environment around C in N=C-N had some change by CoS₂ in-situ loading process. Meanwhile, the peak related to Co-C bond was not observed [51]. XPS C 1s spectra for CN-HTS and CN-WHTS were also measured to check whether the peak shift was caused by the hydrothermal and sulfidation treatment in the CoS₂ in-situ loading process. The relevant C 1s peaks for CN-HTS were at 284.8, 286.2 and 288.2 eV, while the relevant C 1s peaks of CN-WHTS were at 284.8, 286.2 and 288.1 eV. The C 1s peaks (N=C-N) of CN-HTS and CN-WHTS both showed higher binding energies than that of CN. It meant that the hydrothermal and sulfidation treatment should be responsible for the peak shift above mentioned, and it was speculated that partial S atoms might be doped into g-C₃N₄ in the preparation process of CN-3CoS₂, CN-HTS and CN-WHTS. To further verify the inference, S 2p spectra for CN-HTS, CN-3CoS₂ and CoS₂ were analyzed and shown in Fig. 1d. For CoS₂, the peaks at 162.6 and 163.8 eV were attributed to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$ of S⁻ in the S-Co of CoS₂, respectively [48,52]. The

peaks (167.3 and 168.5 eV) corresponding to S-O were caused by partial oxidization of the surface sulfur species in air according to the existence of SO_4^{2-} at the preparation process [52–54]. For CN-HTS, the characteristic peaks at 163.9 and 165.2 eV were related to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$ of C-S, respectively [45,55]. It indicated that partial S atoms should be doped into positions of N atoms in g-C₃N₄ by the sulfidation process in the absence of Co source in association with C 1s results [43]. The peaks due to partial oxidization of the surface sulfur species were also seen in CN-HTS. In S 2p spectra of CN-3CoS₂, the characteristic peaks (163.9 and 165.2 eV) due to C-S were also observed, implying that S doping was synchronously carried out in CoS₂ in-situ loading process. Meanwhile, the peaks corresponding to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$ of S were positioned at 161.9 and 163.5 eV, respectively, and showed obvious shift compared with those of CoS₂. It should be attributed to the chemical surrounding change of S⁻ in CoS₂ after the combination with S-doped g-C₃N₄.

To further verify the influence of S doping, N 1s spectra for CN and CN-3CoS₂ were analyzed and shown in Fig. 1e. The characteristics peaks at 398.4, 399.5, 401.0 and 404.0 eV for CN were assigned to sp^2 hybridized N in aromatic rings (C-N=C), N-(C)₃ groups, amino functions (N–H) and π excitation, respectively [56]. For CN-3CoS₂, the corresponding characteristic peaks were positioned at 398.5, 399.5, 401.0 and 404.3 eV. The peak of N in aromatic rings had a little shift to high binding energy, which was attributed to the substitution of the doped S atoms for partial N atoms in the structure of g-C₃N₄. No signal about N 1s of Co-N bond could be observed [57]. Meanwhile, the chemical valence states of Co element in CoS₂ and CN-3CoS₂ were checked and observed from Fig. 1f. The peaks at 781.2 and 796.6 eV for CoS_2 were due to $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$ of Co^{2+} , respectively, while the peaks at 785.9 and 801.8 eV belonged to two shake-up satellites [38,58]. Meanwhile, the weak Co³⁺ signals (778.4 and 793.4 eV) were also found, which was commonly existed in CoS₂ materials [52]. Co 2p signals in CN-3CoS₂ were very weak due to the low loading content of CoS₂ corresponding to XRD and FTIR results. The characteristic peaks of Co^{2+} (780.9 and 796.4 eV) slightly shifted to low binding energies compared with those of CoS₂. Considering the chemical surrounding change of S⁻ from S 2p result as well as the absence of Co-C or Co-N

bonds from C 1s and N 1s results, Co of CoS_2 should form the chemical bonding (Co-S) with the doped S in g-C₃N₄, then causing the binding energy shift of Co^{2+} and S⁻ in CN-3CoS₂. In addition, from Fig. S2b, only O signals of surface hydroxy (–OH) and chemisorbed water (H-O–H) were observed for CN-3CoS₂ and CoS₂ [59], and the absence of the metal-bonded oxygen signal proved that cobalt oxide species were inexistent in CoS₂/S-doped g-C₃N₄. Therefore, it was summarized that CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping of g-C₃N₄ were synchronously realized, and the Co-S bonding was established between CoS₂ and S-doped g-C₃N₄ in CoS₂/S-doped g-C₃N₄.

Then the influence of CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping on the band structure of $g-C_3N_4$ was checked by XPS VB spectra. As observed from Fig. S2c, the deduced valence band maximum (VBM) values for CN, CN- $3CoS_2$ and CN-HTS were around 2.12, 2.05 and 2.05 eV (vs. the Fermi level (E_F)), respectively. It stated that the VBM of CN was 0.07 eV more positive than those of CN- $3CoS_2$ and CN-HTS. Meanwhile, the same VBM values of CN- $3CoS_2$ and CN-HTS implied that S doping was the key to elevate the VBM of $g-C_3N_4$.

Further, it was necessary to check the light absorption ability of g- C_3N_4 with the synchronous construction of CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping based on the fact of the structure change of g- C_3N_4 from XPS result. It was obviously observed from Fig. 2a that the absorption edge of CN was positioned at around 464 nm, and the corresponding bandgap was 2.67 eV. As for CN-HTS, the absorption edge (471 nm) showed obvious red-shift compared with that of CN, and the improved visible-light absorption ability should be caused by S doping matched with XPS results [60,61]. The stronger background absorption (450–800 nm) of CN-HTS than CN might be due to introduced deficiency by S doping. CN-3CoS₂ showed a stronger visible-light absorption ability than CN, and the position of the absorption edge (471 nm)

was the same as that of CN-HTS, which implied that the absorption edge red-shift of g-C₃N₄ was attributed to S doping not CoS₂ in-situ loading. The stronger background absorption (450–800 nm) of CN-3CoS₂ than CN-HTS should be related to the additional light absorption by the introduction of black CoS₂ with whole visible-light absorption (Fig. 2a) [38,40]. Based on XPS and UV–Vis results, the relative band structures of CN, CN-3CoS₂ and CN-HTS were provided (Fig. 2b). The conduction band minimum (CBM) of CN was 0.03 eV more positive than that of CN-3CoS₂ or CN-HTS, which was helpful to promote the photocatalytic water reduction rection of g-C₃N₄.

The combination between g-C₃N₄ and CoS₂ at the micro-nano scale was checked by SEM and TEM. As observed from Fig. S4a and S4b, CN was composed of aggregated nanosheets [62], and there was no obvious difference between the microstructures of CN and CN-3CoS₂. CoS₂ had a microstructure of aggregated 2D nanosheets with the uniform distribution of Co and S [41], and showed the amorphous property due to the weak crystallinity of CoS₂ matched with XRD results (Fig. S5). For CN-3CoS₂, no obvious lattice fringes could be observed from the HRTEM image (Fig. 2c and 2d). Hence it was difficult to distinguish g-C₃N₄ and CoS₂ in the microstructure of CN-3CoS₂ because of their similar 2D nanosheet microstructures and amorphous properties. To explore the microstructure combination between g-C₃N₄ and CoS₂, STEM mapping images of CN-3CoS₂ were measured and exhibited in Fig. 2e. C, N, S and Co elements were uniformly distributed in CN-3CoS₂, implying that CoS₂ nanosheets should in-situ grow on the surface of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets and then tightly anchor to g-C₃N₄ nanosheets based on the formation of Co-S bonding from XPS result. Meanwhile, from nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms in Fig. S6, the similar BET surface areas of CN (70.4 $m^2 g^{-1}$) and CN-3CoS₂ (70.9 $m^2 g^{-1}$) indicated that CoS2 in-situ loading and S doping had no obvious influence



Fig. 2. (a) UV–Vis spectra for CN, CN-HTS, CN-3CoS₂ and CoS₂; (b) relative band structures for CN, CN-3CoS₂ and CN-HTS; (c) TEM image, (d) HRTEM image and (e) STEM mapping images for CN-3CoS₂.



Fig. 3. (a) visible-driven photocatalytic H_2 -evolved rates for CN, CN + $3CoS_2$, CN- $3CoS_2$, CN-HTS + $3CoS_2$ and CN-WHTS + $3CoS_2$; (b) PL spectra of CN, CN- $3CoS_2$ and CN-HTS; (c) HER performance for CN-E, CN-HTS-E and CN- CoS_2 -E; (d) Transient photocurrent densities and (e) EIS spectra for CN-PA and CN- CoS_2 -PA.

on the surface area of g-C₃N₄, further proving the in-situ growth of CoS₂ nanosheets on the surface of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. Furthermore, the nanosheet microstructure of CoS₂ was beneficial to form more contact with g-C₃N₄.

Based on the above, it was obtained that Co-S bonding was formed between CoS₂ and S-doped g-C₃N₄, and CoS₂ nanosheets tightly anchored to g-C₃N₄ nanosheets by the synchronous construction of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping. Then the relationship between photocatalytic performance and synchronous construction of CoS2 in-situ loading and S doping was investigated. As observed from Fig. 3a and S7a, CN only had quite weak photocatalytic activity (0.02 μ mol h⁻¹) [31,38]. Photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄ was greatly enhanced by synchronous construction of CoS2 in-situ loading and S doping, and CN- $3CoS_2$ had the best performance (11.55 µmol h⁻¹), which was around 578 times higher than that of CN (Fig. S7a). No H_2 gas could be detected in photocatalytic measurement process of CoS₂ sample. It proved that CoS₂ could act as an effective H₂-evolution cocatalyst and improve the photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄, corresponding to the cocatalyst function of cobalt sulfide in the photocatalytic study of g-C₃N₄ for H₂ evolution [38,40]. Meanwhile, CN-3CoS₂ showed favorable photocatalytic stability (Fig. S7b). To further verify the cocatalyst function of CoS₂ and check the interaction between S-doped g-C₃N₄ and CoS₂, some control samples (CN + 3CoS₂, CN-HTS + 3CoS₂ and CN-WHTS + 3CoS₂) were prepared, and their photocatalytic activities are shown in Fig. 3a. Firstly, although all control samples were prepared by the method of physical mixture, they showed better photocatalytic performances compared with CN, which verified the effective cocatalyst function of CoS_2 . CN + $3CoS_2$ exhibited photocatalytic activity (0.11 μ mol h⁻¹), which was around 6 times that of CN. It was worth

noting that CN + 3CoS₂ had extremely weaker activity than CN-HTS + $3CoS_2$ (3.89 µmol h^{-1}) and CN-WHTS + $3CoS_2$ (2.61 μ mol h⁻¹). It proved that S doping worked as the key factor to effectively promote the contact between g-C₃N₄ and CoS₂. Moreover, lower activities of all the control samples than that of CN-3CoS₂ implied that effective combination was formed between S-doped g-C₂N₄ and CoS₂ in synchronous construction processes of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping, and it was thought that effective combination was shown as Co-S bonding between CoS2 and S-doped g-C3N4 based on XPS and TEM results. The AQYs at 420, 450 and 520 nm for CN-3CoS₂ were 1.08%, 0.6% and 0.02%, respectively. Based on the strong background absorption (450-800 nm) of CN-3CoS₂ by the introduction of CoS₂ from UV-Vis result, the low AQYs at 450 and 520 nm further verified the cocatalyst function of CoS₂. It was known from Table S1 that, compared with most of the g-C₃N₄ loaded with noble-metal-free sulfide cocatalysts in recent years, CN-3CoS₂ showed the better photocatalytic ability for H₂ evolution under visible-light irradiation.

In order to explore the enhancement mechanism of photocatalytic ability by the synchronous construction of CoS_2 in-situ loading and S doping, PL, HER and photoelectrochemical characterizations were carried out. As observed from Fig. 3b, compared with CN, CN-HTS had a weaker characteristic peak, meaning that the recombination of photogenerated carriers in g-C₃N₄ was inhibited by S doping [63]. Moreover, CN-3CoS₂ showed weaker PL characteristic peak than CN-HTS, indicating that CoS_2 in-situ loading together with S doping could effectively enhance the separation of photo-generated carriers and then hamper their internal recombination. It was attributed to the fact that CoS_2 acting as the H₂-evolution cocatalyst induced and trapped photogenerated electrons which could effectively transfer from S-doped g C_3N_4 to CoS_2 by the Co-S bonding, then promoting the separation of photo-generated carriers. HER properties of CN-E, CN-HTS-E and CN-CoS₂-E are shown in Fig. 3c. Better HER performance of CN-HTS-E than CN-E proved that S doping could improve HER ability of g-C₃N₄. Meanwhile, CN-CoS₂-E had the best HER performance among them, and showed a positive-shift overpotential (0.05 V at 1 mA cm^{-2}) compared with CN-HTS-E. The positive-shift overpotential should be due to the introduction of CoS₂, further proving the effective cocatalyst function of CoS₂ corresponding to the photocatalytic result. To further investigate separation and transfer of photo-generated carriers in g-C₃N₄ by the synchronous construction of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping, photoelectrochemical properties of CN-PA and CN-CoS2-PA were analyzed and seen in Fig. 3d and 3e. From transient photocurrent densities in Fig. 3d, CN-CoS₂-PA showed higher photocurrent than CN-PA, which further proved that the synchronous construction of CoS₂ insitu loading and S doping promoted the photoelectrochemical ability of g-C₃N₄. Moreover, EIS spectra in Fig. 3e exhibited that CN-CoS₂-PA had a smaller arc radius than CN-PA. It meant that the interfacial charge transfer impedance in CN-CoS₂-PA was decreased by the synchronous construction of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping, which was helpful to enhance separation and transfer of photo-generated carriers [64]. It further proved that the synchronous construction of CoS2 in-situ loading and S doping could enhance effective separation and transfer of photo-generated carriers in g-C₃N₄.

Therefore, CoS2 in-situ loading and S doping for g-C3N4 were synchronously constructed, which effectively promoted the noble-metalfree visible-light-driven photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution. As observed from Fig. 4, electrons and holes are generated by S-doped g-C₃N₄ under visible-light irradiation. Photo-generated electrons then migrate to CoS₂ by the constructed Co-S bonding between CoS₂ and Sdoped g-C₃N₄, and react with water for H₂ evolution, while photogenerated holes stay on S-doped g-C₃N₄ and have oxidation reactions with TEOA on the surface of S-doped g-C₃N₄. The enhanced photocatalytic performance of g-C₃N₄ for H₂ evolution should be mainly attributed to several factors as follows. Firstly, S doping could enhance the visible-light absorption of g-C₃N₄, which is beneficial to excite more generation of photo-generated carriers. Secondly, CoS₂ as the effective H₂-evolution cocatalyst induces and captures photo-generated electrons, then promoting separation of photo-generated carriers synergistically with S doping, and the in-situ growth of CoS₂ nanosheets on the surface of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets promotes more contact between CoS₂ and g-C₃N₄. It is the most important that the synchronous construction of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping could enhance effective combination between CoS_2 and S-doped g-C₃N₄, and promote the formation of Co-S bonding between CoS₂ and S-doped g-C₃N₄, strengthening the directed transfer of photo-generated electrons from S-doped $g-C_3N_4$ to CoS_2 for photocatalytic H_2 -evolution reaction.

4. Conclusion

In summary, CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping on g-C₃N₄ were synchronously constructed to obtain favorable noble-metal-free photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution under visible-light irradiation (11.55 μ mol h⁻¹), which was around 578 times that of pure g-C₃N₄, and AQY at 420 nm was up to 1.08%. S doping improved the visiblelight absorption ability of g-C₃N₄, promoting the generation of photogenerated carriers. Recombination of photo-generated carriers were effectively inhibited by the synchronous construction of CoS₂ in-situ loading and S doping due to S doping-based electronic structure change of g-C₃N₄, the cocatalysis function of CoS₂, the in-situ growth of CoS₂ nanosheets on the surface of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets, and the close contact (Co-S bonding) between S-doped g-C₃N₄ and CoS₂ for strengthening the directed transfer of photo-generated electrons from S-doped g-C₃N₄ to CoS₂. This work shows the guiding significance to design and develop the high-efficiency g-C₃N₄-based photocatalysts for noble-metal-free photocatalytic H₂ evolution.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2020.126135.



Fig. 4. Illustration of the mechanism about enhanced photocatalytic ability for CoS₂/S-doped g-C₃N₄.

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