



Supramolecular preorganization effect to access single cobalt sites for enhanced photocatalytic hydrogen evolution and nitrogen fixation

Wenyao Zhang^{a,b}, Yongsheng Fu^{a,*}, Qiong Peng^a, Qiushi Yao^c, Xin Wang^a, Aiping Yu^{b,*}, Zhongwei Chen^{b,*}

^a Key Laboratory of Soft Chemistry and Functional Materials, Nanjing University of Science and Technology, Ministry of Education, Nanjing 210094, China

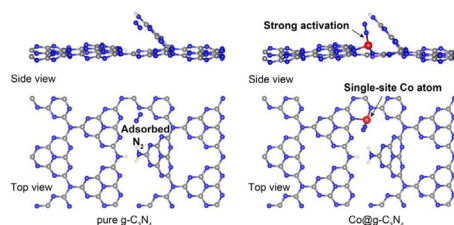
^b Waterloo Institute for Nanotechnology, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Ontario N2L3G1, Canada

^c Department of Physics, Southern University of Science and Technology, Shenzhen 518055, China

HIGHLIGHTS

- A supramolecular anchoring strategy is reported to stabilize single-atom-dispersed cobalt.
- The Co@g-C₃N₄ possess a negative Fermi level & a high energy level of *d*-band position.
- Single-site Co atom facilitates the activation of N₂ on the surface of g-C₃N₄.
- Single-site Co atom accelerates the interfacial charge transfer process on g-C₃N₄.
- The Co@g-C₃N₄ shows improved photocatalytic H₂ evolution and N₂ fixation performances.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Ever-increased investigation has been focused on designing photocatalysts comprising intimately interfaced photo-absorbers and co-catalysts for promoting the separation of electron-hole pairs and surface redox reaction. Herein, we present a photocatalytic system in which the single-site-cobalt-atom is firmly trapped and stabilized into the frameworks of porous crimped graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), proposing as advanced photocatalysts for solar-photon-driven hydrogen production and nitrogen fixation. A single molecular source of dicyandiamide was used to partly transformed and then *in-situ* preorganized into supermolecular precursor, which could co-ordinate with cobalt ions and manipulate the interactions under elevated temperature prior to the condensation to form atomically Co dispersed g-C₃N₄ materials. Theoretical evaluation and experimental validation identified that the chemical integration of single-site-cobalt-atom on g-C₃N₄ is critical in optimizing the electron and band structures and accelerating the interfacial charge transfer process. As a result, the as-obtained Co@g-C₃N₄ possesses an exceptional photocatalytic hydrogen production rate (2481 μmolh⁻¹g⁻¹, λ > 420 nm) and conspicuous nitrogen photofixation performances under visible-light irradiation. Such concerted catalysis attributes to the negative shift of the Fermi level in Co@g-C₃N₄ system deriving from the induced charge-transfer effect, which effectively gains the reducibility of electrons and creates more active sites for photocatalytic reactions.

* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: fuyongsheng@njust.edu.cn (Y. Fu), aipingyu@uwaterloo.ca (A. Yu), zhwchen@uwaterloo.ca (Z. Chen).

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1. Introduction

Ever since the photoelectric effects were reported by the French scientist of Edmond Becquerel [1], scientific researchers become being addicted to engineering artificial photosynthetic systems to efficiently convert solar energy into chemical fuels on a scale. Photocatalytic hydrogen production and nitrogen fixation gradually stand out owing to the fact that hydrogen and ammonia are considered as the leading chemical molecules for meeting the demands of developing a clean, sustainability and carbon-neutral society [2]. Semiconductor materials, at the heart of either system, are theoretically considered to harvest solar energy and transform absorbed solar photons to the excited electron-hole pairs for driving the photocatalytic reactions including splitting water into hydrogen [3] and converting nitrogen to ammonia [2]. Thus seeking for an efficient semiconductor photocatalyst is the main key to offering the above promise but it still faces several challenges. Desired photocatalysts should fulfill stringent requirements such as (i) moderate bandgap for harvesting wide range of sunlight, (ii) suitable band levels for energy conversion, and (iii) highly prominent charge separation and transfer under illumination.

Graphitic carbon nitride ($g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$) is proposed as one of the outstanding candidates for such photocatalysts, which can challenge the kinetically sluggish multi-electron reactions due to its suitable band levels, tunable molecular properties, and excellent stability under harsh conditions [3,4]. After intensive investigations, it is found that the optical properties of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based materials are thoroughly dependent on their morphologies, structural defects, surface areas, and energy states along with their electronic properties [5,6]. In this context, plenty of functionalization and modification synthesis methods have been developed for narrowing their bandgap for catching more visible photons, engineering their band structures, as well as optimizing their HOMO-LUMO energy levels. The details include the exfoliation of bulk $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ into two-dimensional $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets to increase its specific surface areas [7,8], the use of a template to introduce porous structure [9–11], copolymerization with other polymers [12], the incorporation of new heteroatoms to manipulate $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$'s electronic, optical and catalytic properties [13–17], et al. Among them, supramolecular chemistry approach is considered as one of the most efficient ways to modify the electron and band structures of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and meanwhile favors fabricating ordered structures including spheres, hollow spheres, hexagonal prism assemblies, nanotubes, and ultrathin 2D nanosheets [5,18]. In addition, the supramolecular approach associates the non-covalent interactions like hydrogen bonding to directly assemble into ordered stable aggregates under equilibrium conditions. One typical supramolecular structure is cyanuric acid-melamine (CM) complex which is joined by intermolecular hydrogen bonds. This CM complex is constructed by the hydrogen bonds of N-H...N and N-H...O with a molar ratio of 1:1, and could form various morphologies lying on their aligning and precipitating solvents. Obviously, water is the most common solvent for adopting the form of a stable hydrogen-bonded supramolecular. It is worth noting that melamine can be transformed into cyanuric acid molecule under a specific pH value [19]. Inspired by this point, constructing the supramolecular precursors for achieving tunable electronic/band structural $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ only from a single molecular source is highly desired recently.

On the other hand, to competently realize the solar-photon-driven hydrogen production and nitrogen fixation, either enhancing charge separation and transportation efficiency or promoting the surface reaction kinetics also needs to be improved to a great extent in practical. Especially, constructing heterojunctions has been proved to be an effective and efficient pathway, and hence numerous attempts have been reported [20]. For instance, incorporating metal (Fe, Cu, Ni) species into the intrinsic structure of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ at an isolated single-site modality is able to enormously enhance the photocatalytic activities due to both the modification of the electronic/band structures and the facilitation of the interfacial charge transfer process [21–25]. Importantly, the high

levels of pyridine-like nitrogen and the periodic cavities in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ makes it an ideal host to firmly trap and stabilize the single-site metal cocatalysts. The unpaired electrons on pyridine-like nitrogen atoms could sufficiently capture the metal ions [26], and simultaneously the homogeneous periodic neighboring nitrogen could serve as co-ordinators and favorably progress the coordination reactions between the metal and $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. The robust metal-nitrogen interactions, in turn, impedes the dissolution, migration, and aggregation of the metal atoms, which identically provides abundant precise information toward the identification of catalytically active sites [27,28]. However, exhaustive understanding of the methods of metal introduction and the types and amounts of metal incorporation remains a great challenge for design and developing the single-atom modified heterophotocatalysts.

In this work, we report a molecular scaffolding strategy for directly trapping and stabilizing single-site cobalt in the frameworks of porous crimped graphitic carbon nitride ($\text{Co}@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$), proposing as high-performance photocatalysts in solar-photon-driven hydrogen production and nitrogen fixation. A single molecular source of dicyandiamide was used to be partly transformed into dicyandiamidine nitrate under the assistance of nitrate acid, and then in situ construct a crimped supramolecular precursor through the intermolecular self-assembly behaviour between dicyandiamide and dicyandiamidine nitrate. After the introduction of cobalt chloride and the following thermal treatment process, the precursor was converted to $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ via a series of complicated polycondensation reactions while the well-coordinated cobalt ions were reduced and atomically embedded in the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ matrix. Experimental investigation and density functional theory (DFT) computation strongly confirmed that an optimized electronic band structure of the resulting $\text{Co}@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with a narrowed bandgap, an appropriate d-band position as well as suitable LUMO energy level can be obtained significantly. This $\text{Co}@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ shows much greatly enhanced solar-photon-driven activities including, exceptional photocatalytic hydrogen production rate ($2481 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$, $\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) and conspicuous nitrogen photofixation under visible-light illumination.

2. Results and discussion

The detailed crystal and chemical structures of the supramolecular precursor were first characterized by powder X-ray diffraction pattern (XRD), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Evidence of the formation of supramolecular is provided by FT-IR spectroscopy and XRD analysis (Fig. S1). The disappearance of $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ absorption peaks and the formation of the stretching vibration of the $\text{C}=\text{O}$ group in the FT-IR spectra sufficiently confirm the hydrolysis of dicyandiamide to dicyandiamidine nitrate, as illustrated in Fig. 1a (i). Additionally, arising up of the stretching vibrations of O-H group attributes to the construction of the hydrogen bonds between dicyandiamide and dicyandiamidine nitrate (reaction (ii) in Fig. 1a), which plays a critical role in fabricating the supramolecular structures [18,29]. XRD patterns clearly demonstrated the additional new peaks in comparison with the starting dicyandiamide, giving a strong proof of the creation of new arrangements [21]. This phenomenon is further completely confirmed by the SEM images in Fig. S2, where a well-defined porous crimped morphology of the supramolecular precursor was observed significantly. On the other hand, after introducing cobalt ions, the lone pair electrons in dicyandiamidine nitrate could provide a strong coordinate environment for anchoring and stabilizing the cobalt ions, forming a stable complex, as described in reaction (iii) in Fig. 1a [46].

In order to create photoactive $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based catalysts, the supramolecular precursor and cobalt ion coordinated supramolecular was then thermally treated at 550°C under N_2 atmosphere. Fig. S3a exhibits the typical XRD patterns of pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{Co}@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with various cobalt contents. The diffraction peak around 27.7° that signifies the characteristic signal of interlayer stacking can be noticed for pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, while the ones for $\text{Co}@g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is slightly shifted toward higher

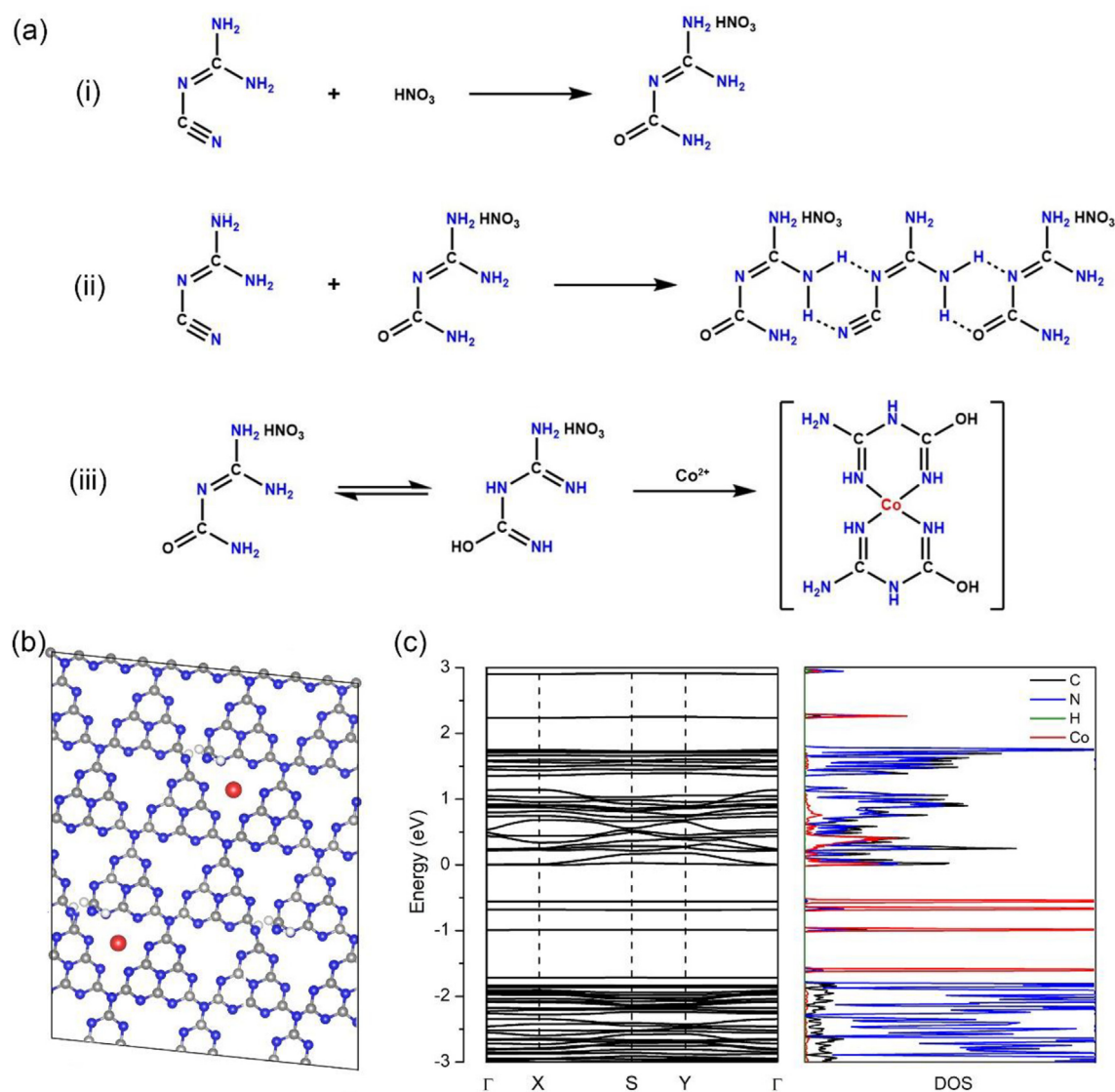


Fig. 1. (a) Proposed reaction process for forming the Co@g-C₃N₄ catalyst. (b) Proposed Co@g-C₃N₄ structure and (c) DFT calculated electronic properties of the Co@g-C₃N₄. The red, blue, gray, and white spheres denote Co, N, C, and H atoms, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

angle and becomes less pronounced and broader upon the increase in cobalt. It should be noted that there is no signal associating with cobalt species including cobalt, cobalt chlorides, cobalt nitrides, cobalt carbides, and cobalt oxides, which is strongly demonstrated that cobalt ions are effectively embedded in the intrinsic structures of g-C₃N₄. FT-IR spectra in Fig. S3b reveals that the characteristic peak at 810 cm⁻¹ and those in the range of 1200 ~ 1600 cm⁻¹ deriving from the breathing vibration mode of tri-s-triazine subunits [21] and the collective wagging modes of the N and C atoms can be detected among all of the Co@g-C₃N₄ samples. This indicates that the cobalt was embedded into the structural cavities of g-C₃N₄ without breaking their original graphitic C-N network.

To further understand the electronic structures of the single-site Co atom embedded g-C₃N₄ composite, DFT computation was first conducted. Fig. 1b shows the proposed geometry structure of Co@g-C₃N₄. We theoretically evaluated the bandgap of this Co@g-C₃N₄ semiconductor. Although it may be a little underestimated [30,31], the Co@g-C₃N₄ shows a remarkably reduced bandgap, a flat band structure, and suitable LUMO energy levels for both hydrogen evolution and nitrogen fixation. Notably, the reduced bandgap structures of Co@g-C₃N₄ could significantly enhance the visible light-harvesting ability. Further

examination of the *d*-band center based on the PDOS analyses was figured subsequently (Fig. 1c and Fig. S4), determining that of -1.41 eV for Co@g-C₃N₄. Such a high *d*-band position leads to a closer *d*-center to the Fermi level, which is of electronic origin, therefore leads to a relatively enhanced reactivity.

Then we selected the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 composite, obtained by pyrolysis of 1 mg cobalt chloride with 2 g supramolecular precursor, as a representative model to investigate their morphology and chemical composition in detail. As shown in Fig. S5 and Fig. 2a, it's obvious that our pre-supramolecular synthesis could significantly result in a porous crimped sheets morphology in the final material, which makes the resultant g-C₃N₄ possess a large specific surface area of 33.7 m² g⁻¹ and the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 possess that of 65.7 m² g⁻¹, much more competitive than bulk g-C₃N₄ (13.2 m² g⁻¹) only using dicyandiamide as the precursor (Fig. S6, Table S1). Moreover, the TEM image in Fig. 2b undoubtedly evident that the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 is entirely composed of uniform ultrathin nanosheets, and the presence of wrinkles reveals good flexibility of the sample. No clusters or nanoparticles can be found and the dominance of individual Co atoms on g-C₃N₄ was directly verified by atomic resolution high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM). Homogeneously dispersed

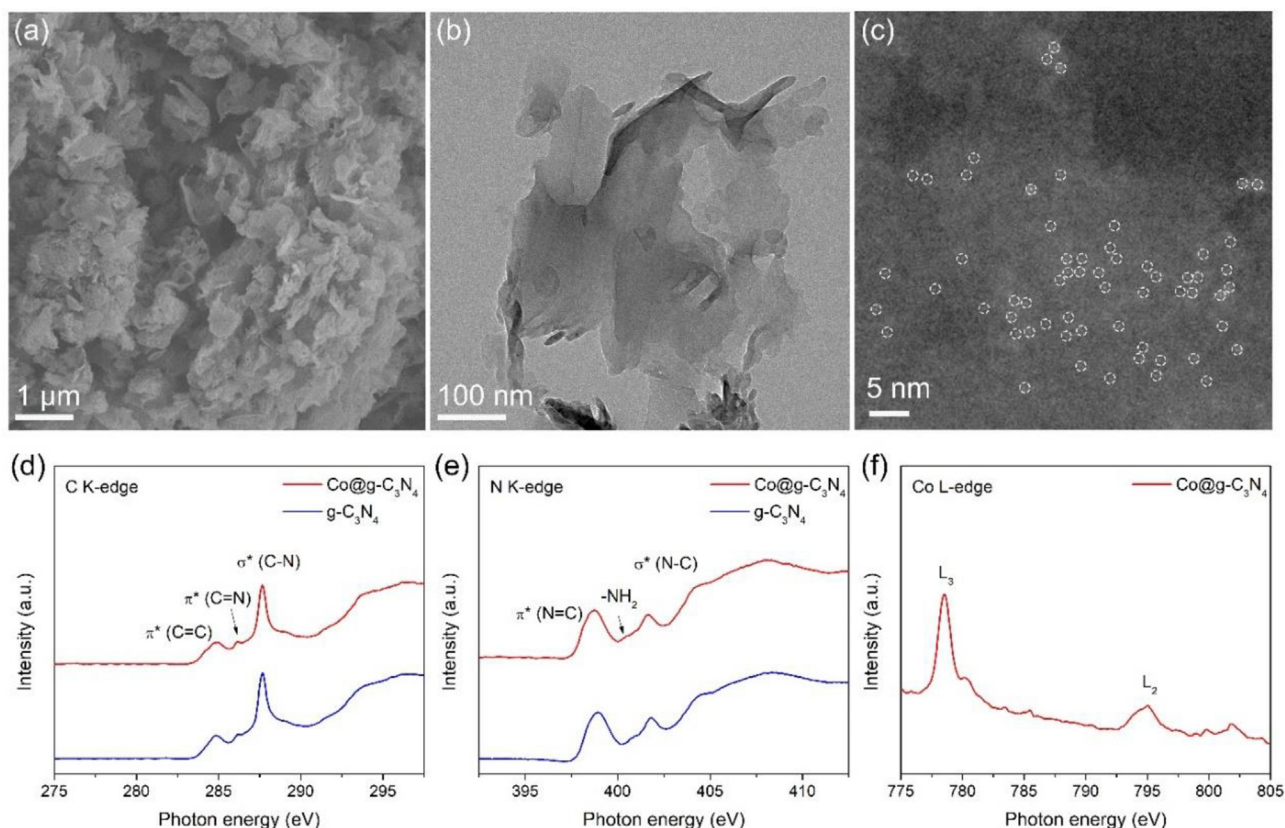


Fig. 2. (a) Typical SEM image, (b) TEM image, (c) HAADF-STEM of the Co@g-C₃N₄ composite, (d) C K-edge, (e) N K-edge and (f) Co L-edge XANES of the Co@g-C₃N₄ composite and pure g-C₃N₄.

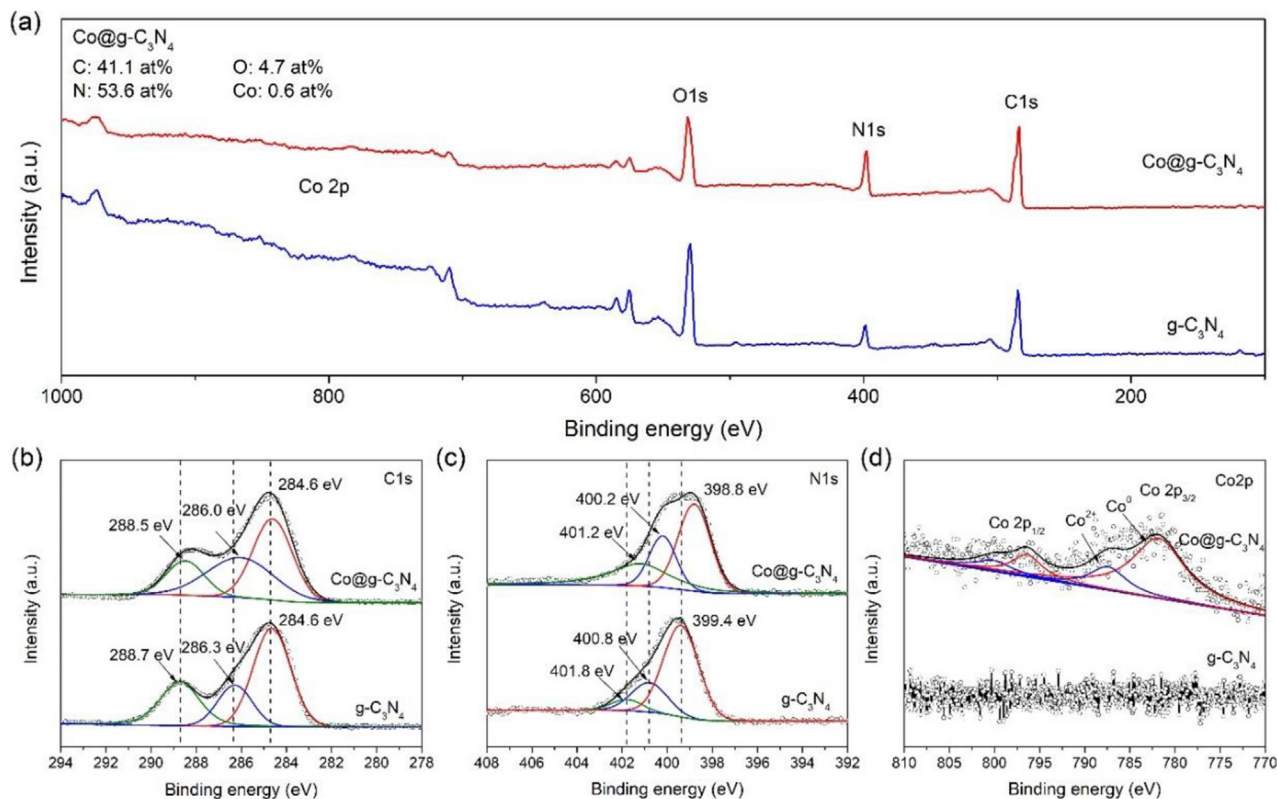


Fig. 3. XPS analysis of the Co@g-C₃N₄ composites. (a) The XPS survey spectrum of Co@g-C₃N₄ and pure g-C₃N₄. High-resolution (b) C 1s, (c) N 1s and (d) Co 2p XPS spectra of Co@g-C₃N₄ and pure g-C₃N₄, respectively.

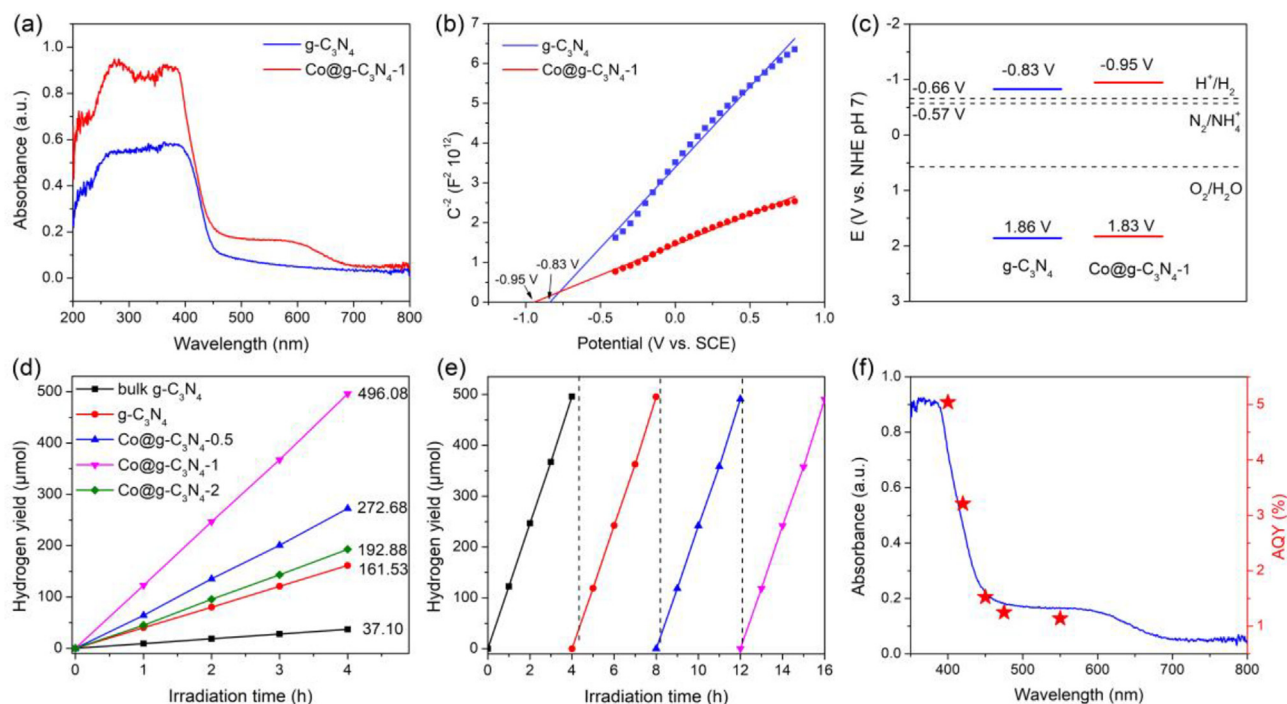


Fig. 4. (a) UV-vis absorbance spectra of pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1, (b) Mott-Schottky plots of pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1, (c) band structure of pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1 determined by UV-vis and Mott-Schottky analysis, (d) Time course of H₂ production from water with different catalysts under visible light irradiation; (e) cycling measurements of H₂ generation of Co@g-C₃N₄-1, (f) Wavelength dependent apparent quantum yield (AQY) of H₂ evolution over Co@g-C₃N₄-1 (right axis) and UV-vis light absorption spectra (left axis).

atomic Co sites (marked with white circles) were clearly observed throughout the carbon nitride nanosheet (Fig. 2c). A distinguishable cobalt signal can be detected in the corresponding energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrum, proving again the successful incorporation of cobalt, and the EDX elemental mapping analysis demonstrates that the signals of Co, C, and N are completely superimposed on each other, at least on the nanoscale, suggesting that Co might be bonded with C or N (Fig. S7).

To unravel the chemical states and coordination environment in Co@g-C₃N₄-1, we performed Synchrotron-based X-ray absorption fine structure spectroscopy analysis. In the C K-edge spectra (Fig. 2d), both the pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1 shows characteristic resonances of carbon nitride materials including the π^* (C=C) at 284.9 eV, π^* (C=N) at 286.1 eV, σ^* (C-N) at 287.6 eV, as well as the typical pyridinic-like structure at \sim 293 eV. [21] In N K-edge spectra (Fig. 2e), two typical π^* resonances at 398.7 eV and 401.5 eV correspond to the pyridinic-nitrogen in tri-s-triazine heterorings and the graphitic-nitrogen bridging among tri-s-triazine subunits, respectively. In addition, a weak signal located at 400.9 eV ascribes to the resonance of edge-site amino groups ($-\text{NH}_2$). With respect to the pure g-C₃N₄, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 presents an evident decrease in the number of C-N bonds, as a result of the structural defects deriving from the introduction of Co-N coordinate covalent bonds. Furthermore, the Co L-edge spectrum of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 exhibits two broad multiple structures of L2 and L3 edges, that are separated due to the spin-orbit coupling effect. Upon detailed analysis, it is suggested the valence of Co species in Co@g-C₃N₄-1 was situated between Co (II) and Co(III), manifesting the ionic Co ^{α +} (+3 > α > +2) nature in the single-site Co@g-C₃N₄-1 composite, which coincides well with the reported results of the valence states of isolated single-site Co catalysts [32–34].

The detailed composition information of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 architecture was further analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Fig. 3a illustrates the XPS survey spectra of pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1, and that of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 reveals typical C1s, N1s, O1s, and Co 2p signals without any other impurities, in accordance with the

above-mentioned elemental mapping analysis and EDX results. Moreover, the contents of C, N, O, and Co are determined to be 41.1, 53.6, 4.7 and 0.6 at%, respectively. The complex C1s spectrum exhibited in Fig. 3b was deconvoluted into three main peaks at the binding energy of 284.6, 286.3 and 288.5 eV, corresponding to the sp^2 C-C, sp^2 C-N, and sp^3 C-N groups, respectively. A summary of C 1s XPS analysis for Co@g-C₃N₄-1 and pure g-C₃N₄ samples was listed in Table S2. It can be clearly seen that the percentage of sp^3 C-N in Co@g-C₃N₄-1 is 18.17%, which is reduced compared with that of pure g-C₃N₄ of 19.04%, agreeing well with the XANES analysis in Fig. 2d. Additionally, in the N1s XPS spectra in Fig. 3c, for pure g-C₃N₄, three types of nitrogen components including graphitic N at 401.2 eV, pyrrolic N at 400.2 eV, and pyridinic N at 398.8 eV can be certainly identified, which are the characteristic nitrogen frameworks for g-C₃N₄ materials. Compared with pure g-C₃N₄, an evident change has been examined that all of these nitrogen components in Co@g-C₃N₄-1 shifted toward low binding energies. Such a phenomenon is caused by the strong interactions between Co and g-C₃N₄ support, where the nitrogen in tri-s-triazine heterorings would donate unpaired electrons to their neighboring cobalt possessing strong electron capture abilities. That is, the charge transfer process spontaneously occurs to optimize the delocalized conjugated π -electrons, leading to an optimized electronic/band structure of Co@g-C₃N₄-1, which is well consistent with the DFT computation results in Fig. 1. For Co 2p XPS spectrum in Fig. 3d, the binding energy of the Co 2p_{3/2} peak is 781.9 eV, which is considered as the characteristics for the Co²⁺ species, further confirming the Co atoms are strongly coordinated in the structure of g-C₃N₄.

After that, the optical properties and band structures of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 compared to pure g-C₃N₄ were investigated via UV-vis absorbance spectra and Mott-Schottky analysis. It is clear that either pure g-C₃N₄ or Co@g-C₃N₄-1 possesses a typical semiconductor absorption behavior shown in Fig. 4a [35]. Comparing with pure g-C₃N₄, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 exhibits approximately the same absorption behavior in the full spectrum, indicating that the 2D conjugated backbone frameworks of g-C₃N₄ are unchanged even after anchoring single-site Co atoms.

Besides, the UV–vis absorption band edges of Co@g-C₃N₄ show an evident redshift phenomenon with increasing the modification density of Co (Fig. S8), which designates an increased π -electron delocalization after incorporation of cobalt. The bandgap energy for Co@g-C₃N₄-1 was estimated to be 2.78 eV, comparable to that of pure g-C₃N₄. The derived flat-band potentials of g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1 analyzed from the Mott-Schottky in Fig. 4b were determined to be -0.83 V and -0.95 V vs. the saturated calomel electrode (SCE), respectively. Thus combining the UV–vis results and Mott-Schottky analysis, the corresponding energy levels of the conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) of these two photocatalysts were illustrated in Fig. 4c. The calculated CB energy levels of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 was more negative with respect to pure g-C₃N₄, and both of which are capable of driving both the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution reaction from splitting water (H^+/H_2 : -0.66 V vs SCE at pH 7) and the photocatalytic nitrogen fixation reaction from N_2 (N_2/NH_4^+ : -0.57 V vs SCE at pH 7) in thermodynamical. The negative shift in the LUMO energy level of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 indicates a strengthened reducing capability of the photogenerated electrons which will be discussed below [36].

The combined advantages of large surface areas, probably more catalytically active sites, together with suitable band structures and optical properties, make Co@g-C₃N₄ as a promising multifunctional photocatalyst. For verifying this point, the Co@g-C₃N₄ catalysts in different cobalt contents were first employed to drive the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution reaction. The atomic ratio of cobalt in the photocatalyst was determined by the inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES, Shimadzu ICP-7510), which shows 0.268, 0.305 and 0.597 wt% for the Co@g-C₃N₄-0.5, Co@g-C₃N₄-1 and Co@g-C₃N₄-2 nanocomposites, respectively. Fig. 4d shows the typical photocatalytic hydrogen production activities of pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄ under visible-light illumination, recorded in the water/triethanolamine (TEOA) solution with platinum serving as co-catalyst. As expected, all the samples prepared by our supramolecular methods showed obviously enhanced hydrogen evolution rates alongside the bulk g-C₃N₄, demonstrating that the ordered precursor could result in the optimization of the electronic/band structures in the final g-C₃N₄-based catalysts. Importantly, the introduction of single-site cobalt atoms further strengthens the corresponding photocatalytic activities, especially for the Co@g-C₃N₄-1. It is found that the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 exhibited the optimal activity toward photocatalytic hydrogen production ($124 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$), which gives a 3-fold enhancement of pure g-C₃N₄ ($40 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$), 13-fold of bulk g-C₃N₄ ($9 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$) and is also more competitive than those for recent state-of-the-art g-C₃N₄-based photocatalysts, including ultrathin g-C₃N₄ nanosheets [37], g-C₃N₄ with intrinsic defect [38], holey g-C₃N₄ nanotubes [39], 17mTCPP-CN [40], CdS/WS₂/g-C₃N₄ [41], Mesoporous g-C₃N₄ comprising hollow nanospheres [42], g-C₃N₄ nanosheets/TiO₂ [43], Porous Si-loaded g-C₃N₄ [44], g-C₃N₄/Co@NC [45], Fe@g-C₃N₄ [46], Fe₃C/C/g-C₃N₄ [47], Ni/CM-C₃N₄ [48], P@P-doped g-C₃N₄ [49], 1T-WS₂/2D-g-C₃N₄ [50], g-C₃N₄/C₆₀ [51], CdS/MoO_x [23], Cu-TiO₂@C-2% [52] and so on. (Table 1) This could be attributed to the acceleration of the surface reaction kinetics beneficial from the rapid interfacial transportation of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs. Afterward, we also considered the pure catalytic performance of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1, without the deposition of Pt species. As displayed in Fig. S9, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 shows a photocatalytic H₂ evolution activity of $5.1 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$, while the pure g-C₃N₄ demonstrates a negligible activity. This phenomenon is limited by the large overpotentials of H₂ production on Co@g-C₃N₄-1 and g-C₃N₄, in keeping with the reported g-C₃N₄-based photocatalysts taking transition metal as cocatalysts [41,47,48].

Long-term stability is another important index to evaluate the photocatalytic hydrogen production performance. Fig. 4e shows the cycling test of continuous hydrogen evolution on the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 photocatalyst for overall 16 h, and every 4 h conducts an intermittent degassing. A total amount of 1.9 mmol H₂ is produced and notably, no evident deterioration of the activities can be observed. The

morphologies and structures of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 photocatalyst after cycling test were also investigated. Fig. S10 shows the typical SEM image of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 after cycling, which demonstrates a porous crimped morphology without degradation and corrosion. FT-IR spectra of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 after cycling exhibits both the typical breathing vibrations of tri-s-triazine units at 810 cm^{-1} and stretching modes of CN heterocycles in the range of $1000\text{--}2000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Fig. S11), confirming that the intrinsic structures of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 remained. Furthermore, the chemical states of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 photocatalysts after cycling test were identified by the XPS analysis, shown in Fig. S12. The survey scan spectrum discloses the coexistence of C, N, Co, O, and Pt elements without any other obvious impurity. It should be noted that the Pt species is photodeposited on Co@g-C₃N₄-1 during the visible light irradiation. The chemical states of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 after cycling test were also in accordance with that of before test, demonstrating reliable stability and an outstanding anti-photocorrosion ability for our novel Co@g-C₃N₄-1 photocatalyst.

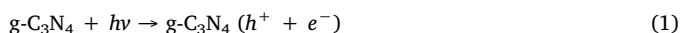
Fig. 4f gives the wavelength dependence of the apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) values for hydrogen evolution of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 catalyst, which illustrates a coincident variation tendency with the above UV–vis absorbance spectra. The Co@g-C₃N₄-1 catalyst displays sharply elevated AQE values during the range of 400–450 nm, especially, the maximum AQE is collected at 420 nm that is $\sim 5.04\%$, much higher than that of g-C₃N₄ (1.23%). The significantly enhanced photocatalytic hydrogen evolution performance of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 should be attributed to the well-organization of their final structures, and importantly the modification of the single-site cobalt, which greatly optimizes their electronic structures and facilitates the interfacial charge carrier's separation and transportation.

To further elucidate the improvement in photocatalytic via cobalt modification on g-C₃N₄, nitrogen photofixation was also performed in methanol/H₂O solutions under nitrogen bubbling with visible-light illumination. As revealed in Fig. 5a, the bulk g-C₃N₄ shows an extremely low and negligible nitrogen photofixation activity of $8.2 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$, while for the g-C₃N₄ obtained by our supramolecular method it exhibits a remarkably enhanced activity of $19.5 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$. After the incorporation of cobalt, it is recognized that the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 is able to achieve an optimal activity as high as $50.2 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$. In order to confirm the photoproduct NH_4^+ in this reaction system is from N_2 gas, we did the contrast experiment. In the contrast experiment, the photocatalytic nitrogen fixation on Co@g-C₃N₄-1 was carried out under visible light irradiation and a continuous purge with high purity Ar. As shown in Fig. S13, no NH_4^+ was generated within 8 h of visible light irradiation. However, after N_2 being purged, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 immediately shows the significant photocatalytic nitrogen fixation performance, suggesting that N_2 gas is the N source of NH_4^+ . In addition, the concentration of hydrazine hydrate and nitrate species have been estimated during the photocatalytic nitrogen fixation process and the results were shown in Fig. S14. Almost no hydrazine hydrate and nitrate species exit in the final photocatalytic products, indicating that the nitrogen gas involved in the reaction have been eventually converted to ammonium ions.

After that, the nitrogen photofixation activity of the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 discloses no obvious deterioration even after three cycles, demonstrating exceptional stability toward harsh nitrogen photofixation conditions under visible-light illumination (Fig. 5b). It should be noted here that both the hydrogen evolution and nitrogen reduction reaction was consuming and competing for the photogenerated electrons. However, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 shows negligible photocatalytic hydrogen production performance without the cocatalyst of Pt, as above-mentioned in Fig. S9. It also can be seen that the nitrogen gases involved in the reaction were almost converted into ammonium ions, and no other by-products were generated. Therefore, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 possesses a relatively high reaction selectivity to ammonia. A possible mechanism for photocatalytic nitrogen fixation on the Co@g-C₃N₄ can be proposed.

Table 1A summary of recent studies on photocatalytic H₂ production of g-C₃N₄-based materials.

Photocatalyst	Light Source	Co-catalyst	H ₂ production rate (μmol h ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)	Ref
Co@g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	3 wt% Pt	2481	this work
Ultrathin g-C ₃ N ₄ nanosheets	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	3 wt% Pt	570.01	[37]
g-C ₃ N ₄ with intrinsic defect	300 W Xe lamp (> 400 nm)	3 wt% Pt	1469	[38]
Holey g-C ₃ N ₄ nanotubes	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	0.5 wt% Pt	1073.6	[39]
17mTCPP-CN	300 W Xe lamp (> 400 nm)	~12 wt% Pt	2240	[40]
CdS/WS ₂ /g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	–	1174.5	[41]
Mesoporous g-C ₃ N ₄ comprising hollow nanospheres	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	3 wt% Pt	659.8	[42]
g-C ₃ N ₄ nanosheets/TiO ₂	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	3 wt% Pt	800	[43]
Porous Si-loaded g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (> 400 nm)	3 wt% Pt	870.5	[44]
g-C ₃ N ₄ /Co@NC	300 W Xe lamp (> 400 nm)	4 wt% Co@NC	1567	[45]
Fe@g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	3 wt% Pt	3390	[46]
Fe ₃ C@C/g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (with a filter)	–	272	[47]
Ni/CM-C ₃ N ₄	500 W Xe lamp	10 wt% Ni	313.2	[48]
P@P-doped g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	1 wt% Pt	941.8	[49]
1T-WS ₂ /2D-g-C ₃ N ₄	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	64.1% 1 T-WS ₂	331.09	[50]
g-C ₃ N ₄ /C ₆₀	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	–	266	[51]
CdS/MoO _x	300 W Xe lamp (> 420 nm)	–	2868	[23]
Cu-TiO ₂ @C-2%	300 W Xe lamp	–	26,910	[52]



Under the visible-light irradiation, the electron-hole pairs are generated on the surface of g-C₃N₄ (reaction (1)). Simultaneously, the photogenerated electrons can transfer to Co instantly (reaction (2)), resulting in effective charge separation. Consequently, the trapped electrons react with the activated nitrogen to produce ammonia

(reaction (3)), which further interact with water to form ammonium ions (reaction (4))

This prominent activity of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 originates mainly from its unique structural features as well as synergistic effects. First, the incorporation of cobalt atoms enhances the specific surface areas of the materials, which significantly strengthens the photocatalytic activities by increasing the population of the triple-phase boundaries in the catalytic system. Further to distinguish the effect of single cobalt atom modification definitely, we normalized the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution rate with surface area and the results were listed in Table S3. It can be clearly seen that the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 process the highest hydrogen production ability of 1.89 and nitrogen fixation performance of

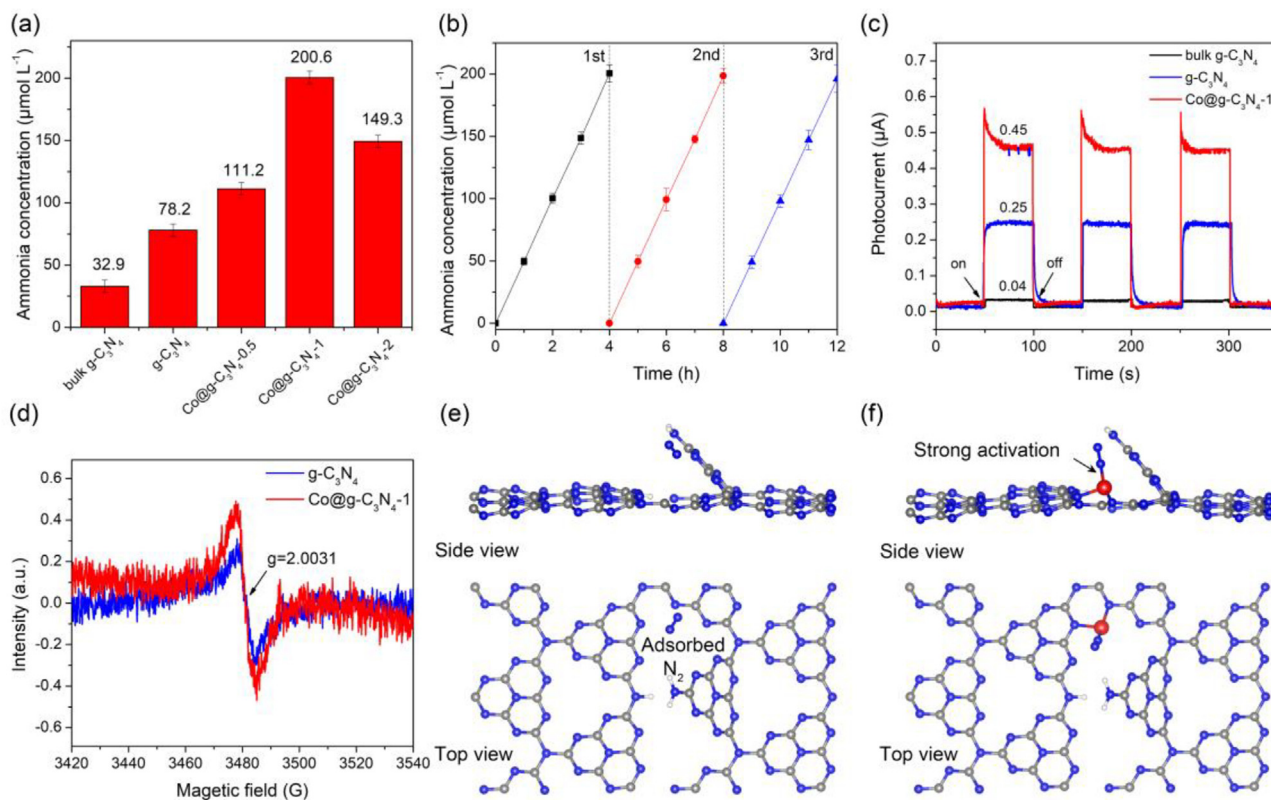


Fig. 5. (a) Yield of NH₃ for different samples under visible light illumination after 4 h, (b) Cycling measurements for photocatalytic nitrogen fixation over Co@g-C₃N₄-1 nanosheets under visible light illumination, (c) Photoelectrochemical responses of bulk g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄, and Co@g-C₃N₄-1 under visible light irradiation, (d) EPR spectra of pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1, (e) N₂ adsorption geometry on pure g-C₃N₄, (f) N₂ adsorption geometry on Co@g-C₃N₄-1.

3.05, compared with that of bulk g-C₃N₄ and pure g-C₃N₄. This phenomenon reveals that the accessible catalytically active sites have been remarkably enhanced after introducing single cobalt atoms, which is extremely beneficial for strengthening the feasibility of H₂ and N₂ activation. After that, DFT computation has been performed to identify the catalytically active sites theoretically. As shown in Fig. 5e, weak adsorption of N₂ on pure g-C₃N₄ can be noticed, which makes it necessary to process further activation. Interestingly, after incorporating the cobalt, the coordinated metal site significantly becomes into the active center with a strong adsorption energy of 0.99 eV (Fig. 5f, Table S4), profiting from that the d-orbital electrons in cobalt atoms are capable of donating to the π N-N antibonding, which potentially realizes the activation of the triple bond of N \equiv N.[53–59] The N₂ activation process is generally considered as one of the key points in the nitrogen fixation reaction, that is, the Co@g-C₃N₄-1 exhibits enough accessible, highly active catalytically reaction sites, directly acting on their extraordinary catalytic performance.

Second, the optimized band structures of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 catalysts promote the typical behaviours of trapping, migration, and transfer of the excited charge carriers, simultaneously suppresses their radiative recombination. Evidence of that was first given by room-temperature photoluminescence (PL) spectra shown in Fig. S15, it is found the main emission peak of Co@g-C₃N₄-1 was located at 455 nm, which shows an obviously blue-shift by 5 nm in contrast with pure g-C₃N₄. The PL intensities for Co@g-C₃N₄-1 drastically decreased half to that of pure g-C₃N₄, implying the energetically unfavorable charge recombination is substantially inhibited, hence enhancing the charge separation efficiency. Then, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) could provide further evidence to this point. As shown in Fig. 5d, slightly boosted EPR signals at $g = 2.0031$ can be observed in Co@g-C₃N₄-1, which attributes to the unpaired electrons from sp²-hybridized carbon in the aromatic rings [55]. The introduction of cobalt atoms acts as the bridging sites and redistributes the electrons to the neighboring nitrogen atoms through the delocalized π -conjugated networks in the intrinsic structure of polymeric g-C₃N₄.

Third, a rapid interfacial charge-transport process in Co@g-C₃N₄-1 not only provides an instant transient light response but also generates a high transfer efficiency of the photogenerated charge carriers. Fig. 5c compares the transient photocurrent responses for pure g-C₃N₄ and Co@g-C₃N₄-1 catalysts, which disclosed that both of the catalysts show sensitive responses during on/off cycles upon visible-light illumination. An elevated photocurrent for Co@g-C₃N₄-1 manifests an unsurpassed light response and an efficient photoexcited charge separation with respect to the pure g-C₃N₄. This result was also illustrated by the analysis of electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) in Fig. S16. In contrast to pure g-C₃N₄, a smaller arc radius for Co@g-C₃N₄-1 indicates that the photoexcited electrons stored in the conduction band can be easily transferred to the protons in the electrolyte [60]. Such a phenomenon could, in turn, promote the separation of photoexcited charge carriers and therefore improve the corresponding photocatalytic performance.

3. Conclusions

In summary, a molecular-level strategy was developed to anchoring and stabilizing single-site cobalt on the porous crimped graphitic carbon nitride, that the final composite is proposed as a photocatalyst to drive solar-photon-driven hydrogen production and nitrogen fixation under ambient conditions. The correlation of experimental results and computational analysis confirms that an optimized electronic structures of the cobalt atom embedded carbon nitride with an appropriate d-band position can be achieved. The as-obtained Co@g-C₃N₄ exhibits exceptional photocatalytic hydrogen production rate (2481 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$, $\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) and conspicuous nitrogen photofixation under visible-light irradiation. Such concerted catalysis attributes to the negative shift of the Fermi level in the Co@g-C₃N₄ system deriving from the

induced charge-transfer effect, which effectively gains the reducibility of electrons and creates more active sites for photocatalytic reactions.

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.2020.124822>.

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