

# Stand-Alone CdS Nanocrystals for Photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> Reduction with High Efficiency and Selectivity

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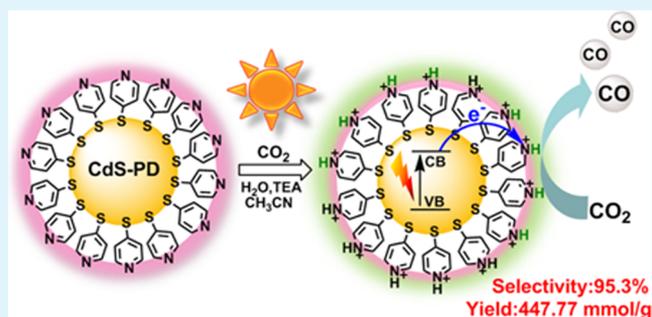
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Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The development of a cost-effective photocatalyst is highly anticipated to achieve efficient photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction with superior selectivity, which is still facing the lack of valid settlements. Herein, 4-mercaptopyridine (PD) as the building block of a capping ligand is tightly decorated on the surface of CdS nanocrystals (CdS-PD) using a facile ligand-exchange strategy, to exploit a cost-effective photocatalyst for photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction without any cocatalysts. The conjugated structure of PD can facilitate the delocalization of photogenerated electrons in CdS nanocrystals, bringing forth an improved charge separation efficiency. More importantly, N-protonated PD can enable the easy formation of a six-membered ring intermediate with CO<sub>2</sub> assisted by water, which can serve as the efficient active site to achieve photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. In the absence of a cocatalyst, stand-alone CdS-PD nanocrystals exhibit an excellent CO yield of 20.35 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> concomitant with a high selectivity of 95.3% for the CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CO conversion under visible light, which are remarkably superior than those of CdS nanocrystals possessing traditional alkyl-chain and other conjugated capping ligands.

**KEYWORDS:** charge transfer, CdS nanocrystals, CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, photocatalysis, pyridinium



## 1. INTRODUCTION

The photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to value-added products is of growing interest, which provides a promising pathway to develop sustainable energy and mitigate the greenhouse effect simultaneously.<sup>1–4</sup> Nevertheless, in comparison with hydrogen evolution,<sup>5–10</sup> the development of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is still lagging behind because the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction is far more complicated due to the chemical inertness of CO<sub>2</sub> itself and the diversity of products.<sup>11–14</sup> Therefore, exploiting a cost-effective photocatalyst for photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction with high efficiency and selectivity is highly anticipated, which has attracted tremendous attention during the past decade.<sup>15–21</sup> In this regard, semiconductor nanocrystals (NCs) have been demonstrated to be one of the promising materials in artificial photosynthetic systems<sup>22–27</sup> due to their distinct photochemical and photophysical properties,<sup>28–30</sup> including excellent light harvesting,<sup>31</sup> tunable band alignment,<sup>32,33</sup> multiple exciton generation,<sup>34</sup> and rich surface binding sites.<sup>35,36</sup>

However, semiconductor NCs generally exhibit low activity for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction in their pristine forms, owing to the inferior charge separation. Therefore, they are usually used as a light absorber to cooperate with cocatalysts, such as metal complexes or other inorganic heterogeneous catalysts,<sup>37–45</sup> to achieve the improvement of photocatalytic performance. It is worth noting that the capping ligands are indispensable for

maintaining the stability of semiconductor NCs, which will inevitably restrict the charge transfer between semiconductor NCs and cocatalysts.<sup>46,47</sup> Many strategies have been successfully developed to enhance the electronic communication from semiconductor NCs to a cocatalyst, by functionalizing the capping ligands to strongly bind the semiconductor NCs and the cocatalyst together through a covalent connection<sup>48</sup> or an electrostatic interaction,<sup>49,50</sup> greatly enhancing the photocatalytic activity and selectivity. Nevertheless, these strategies also lead to the complication and uncontrollability of a photocatalytic system, and the development of a simple and efficient semiconductor NC photocatalyst for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction still calls for valid settlements.

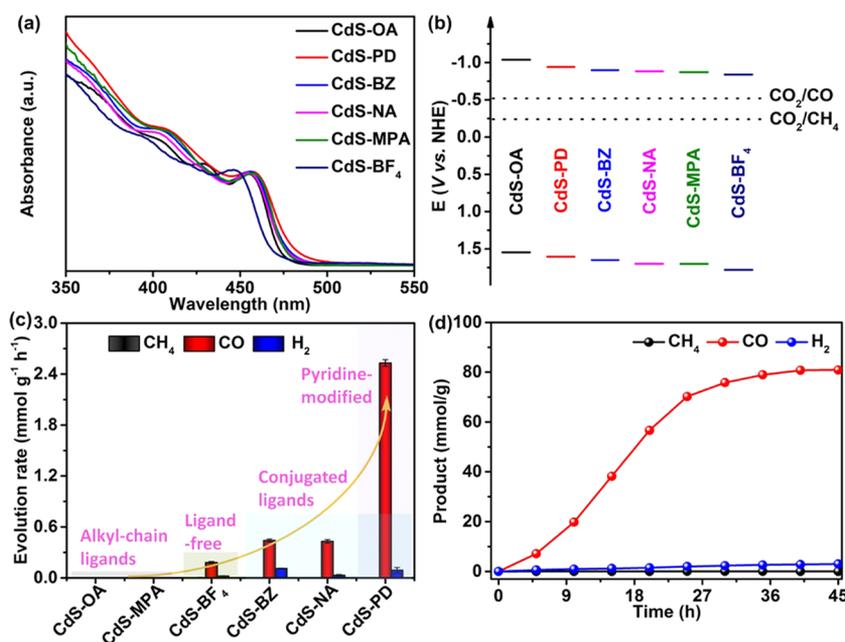
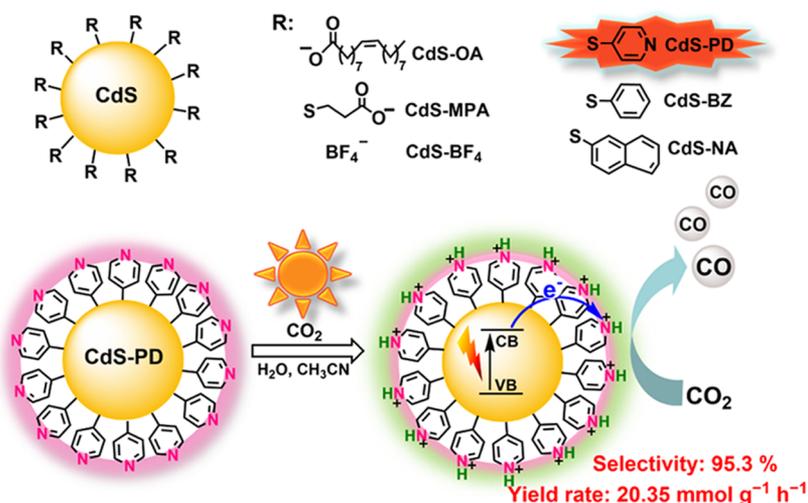
The exploitation of appropriate conjugated organic building blocks as capping ligands, extracting photogenerated electrons from semiconductor NCs and serving as the catalytic active center simultaneously, could be a feasible strategy for the construction of a cost-effective photocatalyst with high performance, which has attracted no attention yet. Herein, 4-

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Scheme 1. Schematic Diagrams of CdS NCs with Different Capping Ligands and the Photocatalytic Reduction Process of CdS-PD NCs for the Conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO

**Figure 1.** (a) UV-vis absorption spectra, (b) band structures, and (c) the CO yields of CdS-R NCs (R = OA, PD, BZ, NA, MPA, and BF<sub>4</sub>). (d) Tracing of CO evolution over CdS-PD NCs. Reaction conditions: CdS NCs (1 μM), triethylamine (0.3 M), 5 mL of CH<sub>3</sub>CN, 25 °C, a 300 W Xe lamp (λ ≥ 420 nm, 250 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>), 22 h.

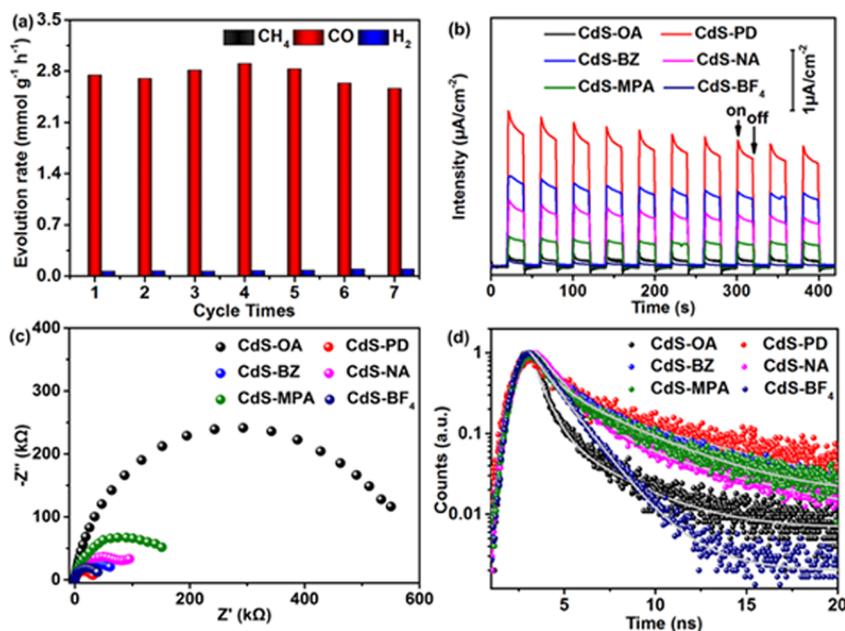
mercaptopyridine was selected as the blocking ligand and decorated on the surface of CdS NCs (CdS-CD) for the following two reasons. First, different from the insulating alkyl-chain ligand, the conjugated structure of PD can facilitate the delocalization of photogenerated electrons in CdS nanocrystals, bringing forth the improved charge separation efficiency. Second, pyridinium has been successfully employed as the metal-free active site for the electroreduction and photo-reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>51–53</sup> Unfortunately, inferior activity and stability were observed for the pyridinium-based catalyst system, owing to the sluggish electron-transfer kinetics between the chromophore and pyridinium and the degradation of the photosensitizer.<sup>53</sup> The connection of PD on the surface of CdS nanocrystals can increase the active sites for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and facilitate the electron communications between the photosensitizers and active sites. Herein, the decoration of

4-mercaptopyridine on the surface of CdS NCs (coded as CdS-PD) was conducted through the coordination of Cd and S atoms, to exploit a new and highly efficient photocatalyst for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. The unique property of PD on the photocatalytic performance has been examined by comparing it with CdS NC characteristics of alkyl-chain or other conjugated capping ligands (Scheme 1) by conducting a joint structural, photophysical, electrochemical, and theoretical study.

## 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**2.1. Preparation of CdS NCs.** The oleic acid-capped CdS NCs (CdS-OA),<sup>54</sup> thiodyacrylic acid-capped CdS NCs (CdS-MPA),<sup>33</sup> and ligand stripping CdS-BF<sub>4</sub> NCs<sup>54</sup> were prepared according to the reported procedure.

Preparation of CdS-R NCs (R = PD, BZ, NA): First, 4-mercaptopyridine (3 mmol) was dissolved in methanol (10 mL),



**Figure 2.** (a) Cycling experiments using CdS-PD NCs. (b)  $I-t$  curves of CdS-R (R = OA, PD, BZ, NA, MPA, and BF<sub>4</sub>) NCs at 0 V vs Ag/AgCl under light illumination. (c) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) Nyquist plots of CdS-R NCs under light illumination. (d) Photoluminescence (PL) decay curves of CdS-R NCs.

and the pH was adjusted to 10.5 with tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAOH). CdS-OA NCs (0.1 μmol) were added to this mixture and stirred in the dark for 48 h. After that, CdS-PD NCs were precipitated with excess acetone and centrifuged for separation (7000 rpm, 3 min). The obtained CdS-PD NCs were washed with acetone before being dispersed to dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). The same method was used to prepare CdS-BZ NCs and CdS-NA NCs, except for replacing 4-mercaptopyridine with mercaptobenzene and 2-mercaptanaphthalene, respectively.

**2.2. Photocatalytic Experiments.** The photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction experiments were conducted in a 10 mL sealed quartz bottle with CdS-R (R = PD, BZ, NA, OA, MPA, and BF<sub>4</sub>) NCs (1 μM) as catalysts, triethylamine (TEA) (0.3 M) as the electron sacrificial reagent, and CH<sub>3</sub>CN (5 mL) as the solvent. Then, the reaction system was saturated with high-purity CO<sub>2</sub> and irradiated using a 300 W Xe lamp with a 420 nm cutoff filter at 25 °C; the light intensity was maintained at 250 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>. The products (CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>) in the gas phase were detected by gas chromatography.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1. Structures and Optical Properties of CdS NCs.

The <sup>1</sup>H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) measurement of CdS-PD NCs (Figure S1) shows that the pyridine groups have successfully replaced the oleic acid ligands on the CdS-OA precursor. The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurements (Figures S2 and S3) show that all of these CdS NCs display a similar average diameter, being approximately 5 nm, except for ligand-free CdS-BF<sub>4</sub> NCs, which have a smaller diameter (~4.0 nm). The size decrease of CdS-BF<sub>4</sub> NCs was mainly attributed to the etching of BF<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> anions, which have strong binding interactions with Cd sites during the ligand stripping process.<sup>55</sup> The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) results of all these CdS NCs with different surface ligands are identical, consistent with the crystal phase of cubic CdS (PDF no. 80-0019; Figure S4).

Ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) absorption spectra and the Mott–Schottky plots were obtained to investigate the optical properties and the energy band structures of CdS NCs modified with different capping ligands. As shown in Figure 1a,

the characteristic absorption peaks of CdS NCs with capping ligands are found at around 460 nm, while the absorption of ligand-free CdS-BF<sub>4</sub> NCs shows a blue shift of 10 nm, which are consistent with their size changes (Figures S2 and S3). After conversion to a plot of  $(ah\nu)^2$  vs photon energy, the direct band gaps of these CdS NCs were obtained and are shown in Figure S5. Additionally, as depicted in Figures S6 and 1b, the flat band potentials of CdS NCs with different surface ligands were between -0.84 and -1.04 V vs normal hydrogen electrode (NHE) derived from the Mott–Schottky plots. The above results indicate that the conduction band values of these samples are all above -0.53 V vs NHE (CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CO) and -0.25 V vs NHE (CO<sub>2</sub>-to-CH<sub>4</sub>), which are thermodynamically feasible for the photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO or CH<sub>4</sub> (Figure 1b), suggesting that all of the prepared CdS NCs may serve as potential photocatalysts for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction.

**3.2. Photocatalytic Conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO.** With the understanding of fundamental photophysical properties, the above six CdS-R (R = PD, BZ, NA, OA, MPA, and BF<sub>4</sub>) NCs were investigated for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction under visible light irradiation ( $\lambda \geq 420$  nm). The CO<sub>2</sub> reduction experiments were conducted in a 10 mL CO<sub>2</sub>-purged quartz bottle containing CdS-R NCs, triethylamine (TEA), and CH<sub>3</sub>CN. The main product was detected as CO concomitant with trace amounts of H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> evolution. Among them, the entry with CdS-PD NCs exhibits the best photocatalytic performance for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Figure 1c), achieving a high CO yield of 2.56 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> along with small amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> (0.4 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) and H<sub>2</sub> (0.1 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>). For CdS-PD NCs, the selectivity and the apparent quantum yield (AQY) for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO impressively approach 96.0 and 1.77%, respectively. In sharp contrast, much fewer amounts of CO were generated in the parallel photocatalytic experiments with pristine CdS-OA NCs (1 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) and CdS-MPA NCs (3 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 1c), indicating that the alkyl-chain capping ligands disfavor the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, possibly due to

Table 1. Control and Amplified Experiments for CO<sub>2</sub> Reduction

entry	catalyst	$n/\text{H}_2$ (mmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	$n/\text{CO}$ (mmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	$n/\text{CH}_4$ (mmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	selectivity to CO
1 <sup>a</sup>	CdS-PD	0.94	20.35	0.06	95.3%
2	CdS-PD	0.10	2.56	0.0005	96.0%
3 <sup>b</sup>	CdS-PD	0	0	0	0
4 <sup>c</sup>		0	0	0	0
5 <sup>d</sup>	CdS-PD	0	0.002	0.003	35.0%
6 <sup>e</sup>	CdS-PD	0.61	0	0	0

<sup>a</sup>Entry 1: CdS-PD NCs (1 μM), triethylamine (0.3 M), 30 mL of CH<sub>3</sub>CN with a 150 mL quartz bottle, 22 h, a 300 W Xe lamp (λ ≥ 420 nm).

<sup>b</sup>Entry 3: no light. <sup>c</sup>Entry 4: no CdS-PD NCs. <sup>d</sup>Entry 5: no TEA. <sup>e</sup>Entry 6: 100% Ar. Reaction conditions: CdS-PD NCs (1 μM), triethylamine (0.3 M), 5 mL of CH<sub>3</sub>CN, 22 h, a 300 W Xe lamp (λ ≥ 420 nm).

their insulating features that impede the electron-transfer processes. Notably, the photocatalysis in the same duration with the surface-ligand-free CdS-BF<sub>4</sub> NCs afforded a considerable CO yield of 0.19 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 1c), which can be ascribed to the exposed surface of CdS NCs that can mediate charge-carrier transfer. As shown in Figure 1c, the CdS-BZ NC and CdS-NA NC systems show significantly higher photocatalytic efficiency and selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction than CdS-OA NCs and CdS-MPA NC systems. These differences indicate that the aromatic ligands can accelerate the photocatalytic reaction. Importantly, despite all of the facilitative effects of ligand conjugation, the CO yields of CdS-PD NCs are about 5.6 and 6 times higher than those of the CdS-BZ NCs and CdS-NA NC systems (Figure 1c), respectively. Besides, when the total surface ligand content of pyridine and phenyl is fixed, the increasing of phenyl ligand will gradually reduce the catalytic activity of CdS NCs (Figure S7), demonstrating that the pyridine group is critical in promoting the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction rate of CdS NCs.

It is worth noting that the tracing diagram of the photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO (Figure 1d) for CdS-PD shows that the CO evolution ceased after 45 h of irradiation. To explore the origin of deactivation, we carried out recycling experiments (Figure 2a) and found that the CdS-PD NCs still exhibit retained photocatalytic activity after seven runs of 10 h photocatalysis (i.e., 70 h in total; Figure 2a), which proves the high stability of CdS-PD NCs. Considering the high conversion efficiency of CO<sub>2</sub> in the system, we tentatively presume that the main reason for the deactivation should be the lowered concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> rather than the destruction of CdS-PD NCs. Furthermore, when the reaction vessel is enlarged to 150 mL, which has more CO<sub>2</sub> reserves, a higher CO yield of 20.35 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> and a selectivity of 95.3% are achieved (Table 1, entry 1), confirming the previous presumption.

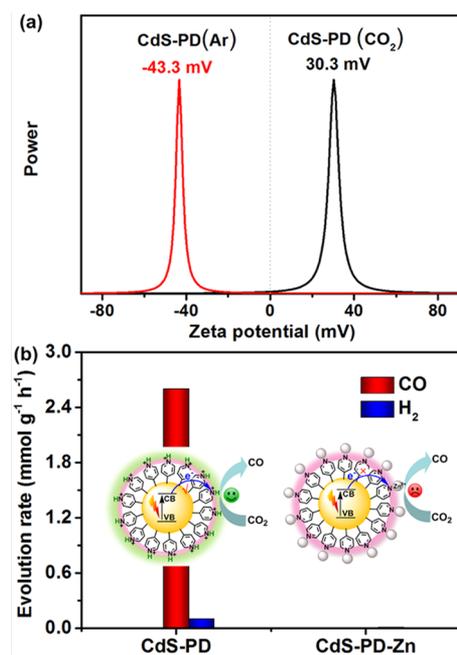
To identify the key factors for photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, we chose the CdS-PD NCs as the exemplified photocatalyst and performed a series of control experiments. As shown in Table 1 (entry 3–6), when the photoreactions were conducted in the absence of light, CO<sub>2</sub>, catalyst, or sacrificial reductant, the reaction systems were completely inactive, demonstrating that all of the above components are indispensable for the photocatalysis. Additionally, when <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> ( $m/z = 45$ ) was used as a reactant, the signal at  $m/z = 29$  corresponding to the <sup>13</sup>CO product was detected by the mass spectroscopy measurement (Figure S8), demonstrating that produced CO originates definitely from the photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> over the synthesized CdS NCs.

**3.3. Origin of the Superior Photocatalytic Performance of CdS-PD.** The above photocatalytic experiment results

demonstrate that the CdS NCs modified with the aromatic, conjugated capping ligands exhibit significantly higher activity for photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO than NCs possessing aliphatic capping agents. Especially, CdS-PD NCs possess the highest activity among all of the samples. Previous characterization results on these NCs have shown that the replacement of surface ligands results in insignificant differences in their photophysical properties, such as band gaps and light absorption, as well as the nanoparticle size. Thus, it is unable to correlate the highly distinguished photocatalytic performances with the above properties. Then, based on the structural disparity of the six kinds of capping ligands on the CdS NCs, we initially presume that the electron delocalization in the conjugated ligands enhances the charge mobility and thus the photoreaction rates. This hypothesis can be supported by the results of a series of comparative experiments, which also shed light on the origin of the best photocatalytic performance of CdS-PD. Initially, the photoelectrochemical properties of different ligand-modified CdS NCs are studied by recording the photocurrent density under intermittent light irradiation (Figure 2b). As a result, a much higher photocurrent response for CdS-PD is obtained, demonstrating a significant improvement in the separation of photogenerated carriers. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was also conducted to investigate the advantages of CdS-PD NCs in the separation of the photogenerated electron and hole (Figure 2c). Generally, the smaller the arc radius in the Nyquist plot, the faster the charge separation and transfer. The results in Figure 2c show that the capping of conjugated ligands on NCs leads to significant improvement in the charge separation and transfer in comparison to those of alkyl ligands, giving the higher charge mobility and thus the better catalytic performances to the corresponding NCs. In addition, it can still be noticed that the CdS-PD NCs display the highest photocurrent response and the charge-transfer ability among all of the samples, inferring that other factors contribute to the high performance besides electron delocalization. Further investigations were made by using transient emission spectroscopy measurements. According to the decay curves (Figure 2d) and the fitting results, the average lifetime of CdS-PD (5.26 ns) is longer than those of other ligand-modified CdS NCs ( $\tau < 4$  ns, Table S1). The prolonged lifetime demonstrates the decreased recombination of electron–hole pairs due to the capping of PD ligands, especially in contrast to BZ-capped CdS NCs with only one-atom change in the aromatic ring.

Therefore, apart from the above merits of pyridine ligands, which distribute uniformly on CdS-PD nanocrystals (Figure S9), we speculate that the exposed pyridine sites on the CdS-PD NCs can serve as the active centers to mediate the

reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> on the basis of the following experiments. First, cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements (Figure S10) were carried out at room temperature under an Ar or CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere and using a three-electrode cell. The results show that the current of CdS-PD under the CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere is relatively higher than that obtained under Ar, suggesting the electrocatalytic activity of CdS-PD for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction (Figure S10a). It should be noted that the CV of CdS-PD shows one irreversible reduction wave at  $-0.55$  V vs NHE, attributing to the reduction of protonated pyridinium ligands under the CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere.<sup>51</sup> As comparable counterparts, the electrochemical behaviors of other non-pyridine ligands CdS-R NCs (R = BZ, NA, OA, MPA, and BF<sub>4</sub>) were also investigated by CV measurements. As shown in Figure S10b–f, the reduction peaks of CdS-R from  $-0.87$  to  $-0.91$  V are attributed to the reduction of Cd<sup>2+</sup> ions on the surface of CdS-R NCs.<sup>56</sup> These results suggest that when compared with CdS NCs capped with inactive ligands, the CdS-PD NCs possess extra electron-transfer mediums after pyridine is protonated. The protonation of pyridine ligands can also be elucidated by the measurement of  $\zeta$ -potentials. As shown in Figure 3a, without purging of CO<sub>2</sub>

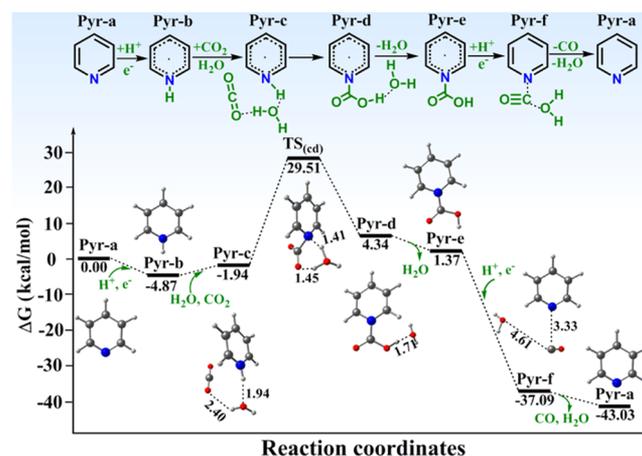


**Figure 3.** (a)  $\zeta$ -Potentials of CdS-PD NCs under Ar (red) and CO<sub>2</sub> (black). (b) Comparison of CO yields between CdS-PD and CdS-PD–Zn (with 4.8 mM ZnCl<sub>2</sub>).

to the reaction solution of CdS-PD NCs, which contains a trace amount of water (403 ppm), the  $\zeta$ -potential of CdS-PD NCs behaves electronegative ( $-43.3$  mV). In contrast, the potential becomes positive ( $30.3$  mV) when CO<sub>2</sub> is introduced into the solution of CdS-PD NCs. These observations indicate that the injection of acidic CO<sub>2</sub> gas leads to the protonation of pyridine, which can serve as the electron-transfer medium for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction. In addition, we further looked into the effect of the water content on the photocatalytic performance by adjusting the amount of water from 156 to 403 ppm. The results (Figure S11) show a sharp increase of the photocatalytic activity in the range of 156–216 ppm, indicating that a small amount of water plays an important role in the formation of pyridinium catalysts and modulating the photo-

catalytic activity of CdS NCs. To further illustrate the precatalytic function of pyridine, zinc salt was added as the end-capper to coordinate with pyridine.<sup>57</sup> The results (Figure 3b) show that after adding Zn(II), the catalytic activity of the CdS-PD NC system basically disappeared, suggesting that the pyridine group plays a vital role in the catalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>.

**3.4. Density Functional Theory (DFT) Calculations for the Catalytic Mechanism.** To further verify the catalytic mechanism occurring at the pyridine sites, DFT calculations were operated (Figure 4). Initially, the neutral pyridine moiety



**Figure 4.** Proposed mechanism and energy diagram for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction catalyzed by pyridine. Optimized structures of the intermediates are shown with gray (carbon), white (hydrogen), red (oxygen), and blue (nitrogen).

(Pyr-a) undergoes a proton-coupled electron-transfer (PCET) process, resulting a protonated radical species (Pyr-b), which can be verified by the electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) signal in Figure S12 (black line),<sup>58</sup> and the in situ IR spectra (Figure S13) show observed vibrations increase at 1585 and 1660  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which are assigned to the C=C and C=N vibrations of pyridine, respectively, under light irradiation.<sup>59</sup> Next, Pyr-b can interact with H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> molecules via hydrogen bonds, corresponding to the Pyr-c species. Through a transition state (TS-cd), the proton can be transferred from the pyridyl nitrogen to the oxygen of CO<sub>2</sub>, forming a NCOOH adduct (Pyr-d). The changes of the EPR signal (Figure S12, red line) after CO<sub>2</sub> injection were speculated to the formation of new free radical species, from Pyr-c to Pyr-d. After dehydration (Pyr-e) and the second PCET process (Pyr-f), the C–O bond cleaved and evolved CO. In this process, water plays a key role in the photocatalytic process of CdS-PD nanocrystals. First, the presence of water can protonate pyridine to form pyridinium, which could accept photo-generated electrons from CdS nanocrystals under light irradiation. Second, the H<sub>2</sub>O molecule can interact with pyridinium and CO<sub>2</sub> via hydrogen bonds and form a six-membered ring intermediate, leading to a moderate reaction energy barrier, which is consistent with the experimental observations (Figures S11 and S13) and a previous report.<sup>60</sup> Finally, in the proton-coupled electron-transfer mechanism, H<sub>2</sub>O can supply the proton to form a NCOOH adduct and facilitate the cleavage of the C–O bond to evolve CO. In the above reaction pathway, the calculated energy barrier is ca. 30  $\text{kcal mol}^{-1}$ , which can be easily compensated by light

irradiation, and the whole reaction is exothermic, demonstrating the viability of the pyridine-assisted catalytic mechanism. Thus, it can be concluded that the pyridyl ligand in the CdS NCs can serve as the catalytic center for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, improving the charge separation and the photocatalytic performance.

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have successfully prepared a simple CdS-based photocatalyst system for highly efficient CO<sub>2</sub> reduction concomitant with superior selectivity, using dual-functional 4-mercaptopyridine as the surface ligand. The experimental and theoretical results highlight that the protonated pyridinium can delocalize photogenerated carriers and serve as the catalytic active site simultaneously, enhancing the separation and transmission efficiency of photogenerated carriers in contrast to the those of other CdS NCs possessing alkyl-chain and other conjugated capping ligands. Without any cocatalysts, stand-alone CdS-PD NCs achieve an excellent photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction activity with a CO yield of 20.35 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> and a CO selectivity of 95.3%. This work provides a novel and cost-effective strategy for designing high-performance, surface ligand-dependent NCs for artificial photosynthesis.

#### ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

##### SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsami.1c03606>.

<sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra comparison of oleic acid and CdS-PD; TEM images and the Mott–Schottky plots of CdS-R; mass spectrum for the gas generated from the photocatalytic reduction; and EPR spectra of CdS-PD NCs in the reaction solution (PDF)

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##### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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