



Incorporating a binuclear cobalt polymer into mesoporous TiO₂ to construct a new Z-scheme heterojunction for boosting artificial photosynthesis

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ABSTRACT

The construction of photocatalysts with Z-scheme heterojunction structures has been regarded as an effective strategy to enhance catalytic efficiency in artificial photosynthesis. However, the reported Z-scheme heterojunctions usually show small interfacial contact area, which are unbeneficial for highly efficient charge separation. Herein, a host-guest strategy was developed to precisely construct Z-scheme heterojunctions, with which a polymer (Co₂-P) containing binuclear cobalt catalytic centers was incorporated into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂, affording a new Z-scheme heterojunction of Co₂-P@TiO₂ with surrounding contact interfacial between Co₂-P and TiO₂. As a result, the resulting Co₂-P@TiO₂ heterojunction possesses large interfacial contact areas, and thereby exhibits an outstanding photocatalytic activity for the reduction of CO₂ to CO with H₂O as the electron donor. The CO production rate reaches as high as 139.2 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, which is 4.0, 4.2 and 3.1 times higher than the pristine TiO₂, Co₂-P, and a Z-scheme heterojunction of Co₂-P/TiO₂ conventionally prepared, respectively. Systematic studies demonstrate that the encapsulation of Co₂-P into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂ greatly accelerates charge separation and electron transfer, thus accounting for its enhanced photocatalytic activity. This study paves a new way to design efficient catalysts for artificial photosynthesis.

1. Introduction

The excessive emission of carbon dioxide (CO₂) has resulted in serious environmental problem [1,2]. Inspired by the natural photosynthesis, researchers believe that the conversion of CO₂ and H₂O into carbohydrates and O₂ by solar energy could be a promising approach to alleviate the environmental issue caused by the greenhouse gas CO₂ [3–5]. Nevertheless, it is still daunting to combine CO₂ reduction and H₂O oxidation with high catalytic efficiency in one photocatalytic system due to the inherent chemical inertness of both CO₂ and H₂O molecules [6–11]. Recently, various strategies have been developed to construct photocatalysts to achieve artificial photosynthesis [12–16], among which the fabrication of heterojunctions from different semiconductors (SC) is regarded as an effective strategy, as the heterojunction photocatalysts usually exhibit enhanced separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs over single component [17–21]. Among heterojunction photocatalysts, Z-scheme heterojunction photocatalysts possess a unique advantage over other heterojunctions because

of their improved position of both conduction and valence bands, not only hindering the rapid electron-hole recombination, but also enhancing the oxidation and reduction abilities [22–25]. At present, three main strategies have been developed to construct Z-scheme heterojunctions. The first one is to load small semiconductor nanoparticles on the surface of bulky semiconductors. The second one is to integrate two semiconductor nanoparticles with protected organic ligands. The third one is to compose semiconductor nanoparticles with Janus configuration. However, these Z-scheme heterojunctions often show small interfacial contact area (Scheme 1a), which are unbeneficial for accelerating charge separation [19–25]. Therefore, it is highly desired to develop efficient Z-scheme heterojunction photocatalysts for greatly promoting charge separation toward artificial photosynthesis.

Porous materials featuring high porosity and surface area, has attracted tremendous attention in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. They are not only favorable to the transport of substrates and products, but also have capability for the encapsulation of functional molecules inside the pores to form composites to greatly facilitate charge separation and

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further to enhance photocatalytic activity [26–30]. For example, Deng and coworkers prepared a series of metal-organic framework (MOF)-based composites by growing TiO_2 inside different pores of chromium-based MOFs for CO_2 photoreduction, which exhibit significantly enhanced catalytic activity for the reduction of CO_2 to CO and CH_4 compared with the pristine MOFs and TiO_2 [29]. Chen et al. developed a new catalytic system by encapsulating the cationic photosensitizer $[\text{Ru}(\text{phen})_3]^{2+}$ (phen = 1,10-phenanthroline) into the pores of an anionic MOF via electrostatic interaction, which shows an outstanding photocatalytic activity for the reduction of CO_2 to CO with triethanolamine (TEOA) as the electron donor [30]. Although many efforts have been devoted in this field, to our knowledge, the encapsulation of functional units into the pores of porous materials to construct Z-scheme heterojunctions for CO_2 photoreduction has not been documented so far.

As an important porous semiconductor, mesoporous TiO_2 has been recognized its great potential in photocatalysis due to its non-toxicity, low cost and high stability [31–34]. Although the photogenerated electrons and holes are prone to fast recombine in single mesoporous TiO_2 , leading to low photocatalytic efficiency, mesoporous TiO_2 might be an ideal model for incorporating functional units into its pores to construct Z-scheme heterojunctions to improve charge separation efficiency. Herein, for the first time, we incorporated a polymer ($\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$) containing binuclear cobalt catalytic centers into the pores of mesoporous TiO_2 through host-guest strategy, to fabricate a Z-scheme heterojunction photocatalyst of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}@ \text{TiO}_2$ with surrounding contact interfacial between $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and TiO_2 for artificial photosynthesis (Scheme 1b). Strikingly, the resulting $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}@ \text{TiO}_2$ heterojunction exhibits an excellent photocatalytic activity for the reduction of CO_2 to CO with H_2O as the electron donor, in absence of any additional photosensitizer and sacrificial agent. The CO generation rate of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}@ \text{TiO}_2$ is 4.0, 4.2 and 3.1 times higher than the pristine TiO_2 , $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and a Z-scheme heterojunction of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}/\text{TiO}_2$ conventionally prepared, respectively. The significantly enhanced photocatalytic performance of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}@ \text{TiO}_2$ heterojunction can be attributed to the improved charge separation efficiency, as demonstrated by the results of a series of photoelectrochemical experiments.

2. Experimental section

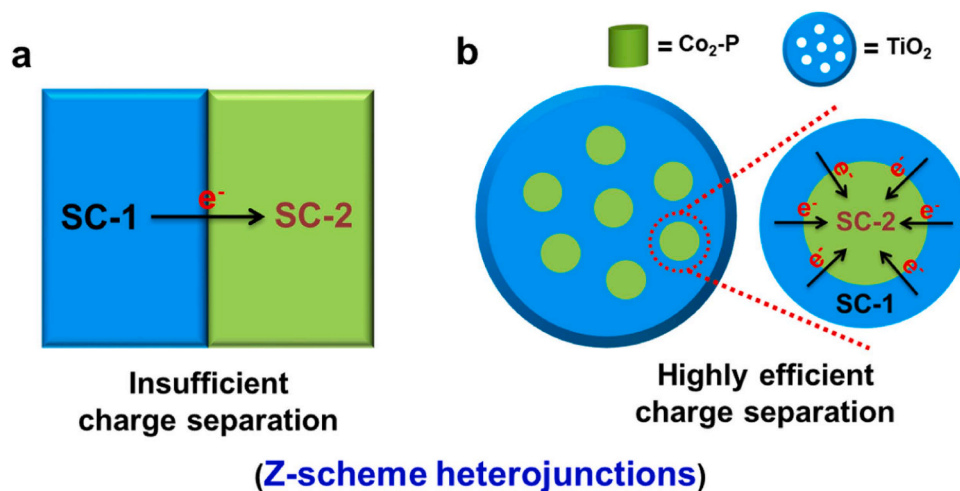
2.1. Materials and equipments

All chemicals were commercially available and used without further purification. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on

D8 ADVANCEX-Ray Diffractometers with Cu $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$). Nitrogen sorption measurements were conducted at 77 K using a multi-station specific surface micropore and vapor adsorption analyzer (BEL-SORP-Mas, Microtrac BEL, Japan). Solid-state UV–vis absorption spectra were obtained on a UV–vis spectrophotometer (UV-3600, Shimadzu, Japan). Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured with an F-4600 fluorescence spectrometer. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were conducted by using an X-ray spectrometer (ESCALAB 250 Xi spectrometer, Thermo Scientific, USA) with Al $\text{K}\alpha$ as the excitation source. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) mapping were acquired on a FEI-Quanta FEG 250 scanning electron microanalyzer. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) was conducted on transmission electron microscope with a LaB6 Gun (Tecnai G2 Spirit TWIN and Talos F200 X, FEI, USA) at an acceleration voltage of 120 kV. Raman spectra were recorded on a high-resolution laser confocal fiber Raman spectrometer (HORIBA EVOLUTION, HORIBA Jobinyvon, France). Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) was conducted using a Waters LC-MS system (UPLC I Class/Xevo G2-S QTOF, United States). The Co content was quantified by an inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS, iCAP RQ, Germany). The isotopes of ^{13}C for CO and ^{18}O for O_2 were analyzed using mass spectrometry (HPR-20 QIC). The photocurrent, Mott-Schottky plots, and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were performed on a CHI 660E electrochemical workstation. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) and *in situ* FT-IR spectra were recorded on Nicolet iS50 IR spectrometers, and samples were tableted with KBr as support. Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) measurements were performed on an electron paramagnetic resonance spectrometer (Bruker, EMXplus-6/1, Germany). The catalytic product in gaseous phase of the reaction system was analyzed by gas chromatography (GC-2014+ATF, 230 C, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with two automated gas sampling valves, which contain a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID).

2.2. Synthesis of mesoporous TiO_2

Mesoporous TiO_2 was synthesized according to the literature [35]. Typically, 1.6 g Pluronic F127, 2.0 mL AcOH, and 3.0 mL concentrated HCl were added to 30 mL tetrahydrofuran (THF), which was stirred for 10 min. Afterwards, 3.0 mL tetrabutyl titanate and 0.20 mL H_2O were added dropwise into the above solution, which was stirred vigorously. The obtained golden-yellow solution was transferred to oven to evaporate THF at 45 °C for 24 h to form monomicelle gel, which was added



Scheme 1. Schematic representation of (a) the reported Z-scheme heterojunctions with insufficient charge separation and (b) the new Z-scheme heterojunction with highly efficient charge separation.

into a 50-mL Teflon-lined autoclave and heated at 70 °C for 24 h. After cooling down to room temperature, the precipitates were collected by centrifugation and dried. Finally, the mesoporous TiO₂ microspheres were obtained after pyrolyzing in a tubular furnace under N₂ at 350 °C for 3 h, following by calcining in air at 400 °C for 3 h.

2.3. Synthesis of binuclear cobalt complex (Co₂-Br)

First, the 2,6-diformyl-4-bromophenol was synthesized according to the literature [36]. Then, a mixture of Co(ClO₄)₂·6 H₂O (548.9 mg, 1.5 mmol), 2,6-diformyl-4-bromophenol (0.344 g, 1.5 mmol), 2,2-dimethyl-1,3-diaminopropane (177.8 μL, 1.5 mmol), triethylamine (1.0 mL) and ethanol (15.0 mL) was stirred for 20 h at room temperature. The precipitate of Co₂-Br was obtained by centrifugation and washed with ethanol and deionized water.

2.4. Synthesis of binuclear cobalt polymer (Co₂-P)

The Co₂-P was synthesized through Sonogashira–Hagihara coupling reaction. Typically, Co₂-Br (70.6 mg, 0.1 mmol) and 2,2-dimethyl-1,3-diaminopropane (20.2 mg, 0.1 mmol) were added in a mixed solvent of dimethylformamide (DMF) (10 mL) and triethylamine (13.2 mL), which was purged with N₂ for 20 min to remove the dissolved oxygen. Afterwards, the tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium (34.6 mg, 0.03 mmol) was added into the above mixture, which was further purged with N₂ for 20 min. The mixture was stirred at 120 °C for 24 h. After cooling down to room temperature, the precipitate of Co₂-P was obtained by centrifugation and washed with DMF and methanol.

2.5. Synthesis of Co₂-P@TiO₂

First, Co₂-Br (70.6 mg, 0.1 mmol), 2,2-dimethyl-1,3-diaminopropane (20.2 mg, 0.1 mmol) and the tetrakis(triphenylphosphine)palladium (34.6 mg, 0.03 mmol) were added in a mixed solvent of DMF (10 mL) and triethylamine (13.2 mL), which was purged with N₂ for 20 min to remove the dissolved oxygen. Afterwards, the above mixture was injected into three-necked flask containing mesoporous TiO₂ (30.3 mg) under reduced pressure, which was stirred at 120 °C for 24 h. After cooling down to room temperature, the precipitate of Co₂-P@TiO₂ was obtained by centrifugation and washed with DMF and methanol.

2.6. EPR measurement

EPR measurements were carried out by using 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide (DMPO) as the radical trapping agent. ·OH and ·O₂ can be trapped by DMPO to form DMPO-·OH and DMPO-·O₂, respectively. 5.0 mg photocatalysts, 20 μL DMPO and 1.0 mL H₂O were added to 10 mL glass bottle for ·OH detection. In addition, 1.0 mL methanol was used to replace 1.0 mL H₂O to detect ·O₂ radicals. EPR measurements were performed in the dark and after 3 min of light irradiation.

2.7. Photocatalytic experiment

The photocatalytic CO₂ reduction measurements were carried out in a 50 mL sealed quartz bottle. First, 1.0 mg photocatalysts was dispersed into 400 μL ethyl acetate, which was deposited onto the surface of filter paper. Then, the filter paper and 20 μL deionized water was loaded into the reactor, which was degassed with CO₂ to remove O₂ and other gases, followed by a 300 W Xe lamp irradiation (λ > 320 nm). The generated gaseous products were analyzed with gas chromatography.

2.8. Photoelectrochemical measurement

Photocurrent and EIS measurements of Co₂-P@TiO₂, TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂ were performed via a standard three-electrode system in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solution with a working electrode, a platinum plate as the

counter electrode, and a saturated Ag/AgCl electrode as a reference electrode. A 300 W xenon lamp was used as the light source. 2 mg sample was dispersed into a solution of 50 μL 5 wt% Nafion and 0.95 mL ethanol. Then, the mixture was deposited onto FTO surface with an area of 4 cm² and left in the air for drying to obtain working electrode. Photocurrent were recorded at 0.6 V. EIS measurement was carried out at −0.6 V in the dark.

2.9. In situ FT-IR spectra measurement

The *in situ* FT-IR spectra were collected under light irradiation with the incremental time upon the introduction of a mixture of CO₂/H₂O vapour. A mixture of 1.0 mg Co₂-P@TiO₂ and 50 mg KBr was ground for 10 min. Then the mixture was sealed in the chamber for purging with N₂ for 20 min.

2.10. In situ XPS measurement

In situ XPS were conducted on an X-ray spectrometer with Al Kα as the excitation source and a quartz light window. In a typical process, 2.0 mg Co₂-P@TiO₂ was ground for 10 min, which was sealed in the chamber and kept under vacuum. The XPS spectrum of Co₂-P@TiO₂ was first recorded in the dark. After visible light irradiation for 5 min, the XPS spectrum was recorded again.

3. Results and discussion

The powder XRD pattern of TiO₂ shows diffraction peaks at 27.4, 36.1, 39.1, 41.3, 43.9, 54.3, 56.6, 62.9, 64.0, 69.0, and 69.7, which can be assigned to the 110, 101, 200, 111, 210, 211, 220, 002, 310, 301, and 112 diffractions of rutile, indicating its highly crystalline phase (Fig. S1) [35]. The SEM image demonstrates that TiO₂ comprises the dehiscent microspheres with the size of about 4 μm (Fig. S2). N₂ adsorption measurement of TiO₂ at 77 K and 1 atm reveals a reversible type IV isotherm with an obvious hysteresis loop in the desorption isotherm, suggesting the presence of mesopores (Fig. S3). The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area is 77.3 m² g^{−1} and the pore size distribution is 12–33 nm (Fig. S4). In addition, the LC-MS of Co₂-Br shows the ion peaks at *m/z* 750.93 and 860.06, corresponding to the species of [(Co₂-Br)(HCOO)]⁺ and [(Co₂-Br)(OH)(C₂H₅OH)(CH₃OH)(CH₃CN)]⁺, respectively (Fig. S5). Powder XRD pattern of Co₂-Br shows the amorphous natures (Fig. S6). The above results illustrate the successful synthesis of the mesoporous TiO₂ and the binuclear cobalt complex of Co₂-Br.

Subsequently, Co₂-Br, 4,4'-diethynylbiphenyl and tetrakis(triphenylphosphine) palladium as a catalyst were introduced into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂, which was heated at 120 °C for 24 h to generate Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite with binuclear cobalt polymer (Co₂-P) incorporated into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂ (Scheme S1) [37,38]. The FT-IR spectrum of Co₂-P@TiO₂ exhibits a characteristic peak at 2207 cm^{−1}, which can be assigned to the stretching vibration of unsymmetrical alkyne bond (−C≡C−), suggesting the formation of alkynyl linkages (Fig. S7) [39,40]. The Raman spectrum of Co₂-P@TiO₂ shows a characteristic peak at 2208 cm^{−1}, corresponding to the unsymmetrical alkyne bonds (−C≡C−), further verifying the presence of alkynyl linkages (Fig. S8) [10]. The XPS of Co₂-P@TiO₂ shows the binding energies of C, N, O, Co and Ti (Fig. S9). Moreover, no palladium signal was observed in XPS spectrum, which may be attributed to its low concentration (0.83 wt%) in the Co₂-P@TiO₂ as realized from ICP-MS analysis. The powder XRD pattern of Co₂-P@TiO₂ is identical to that of TiO₂, implying the structural integrity of TiO₂ in Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite and the absence of long-range order of Co₂-P polymer (Fig. S10). The above results suggest that the Co₂-P with alkynyl linkages has been successfully synthesized on Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite. Additionally, the SEM image demonstrates that the size and morphology of Co₂-P@TiO₂ are almost identical to the pristine TiO₂ (Fig. 1a and S2). EDS mapping of

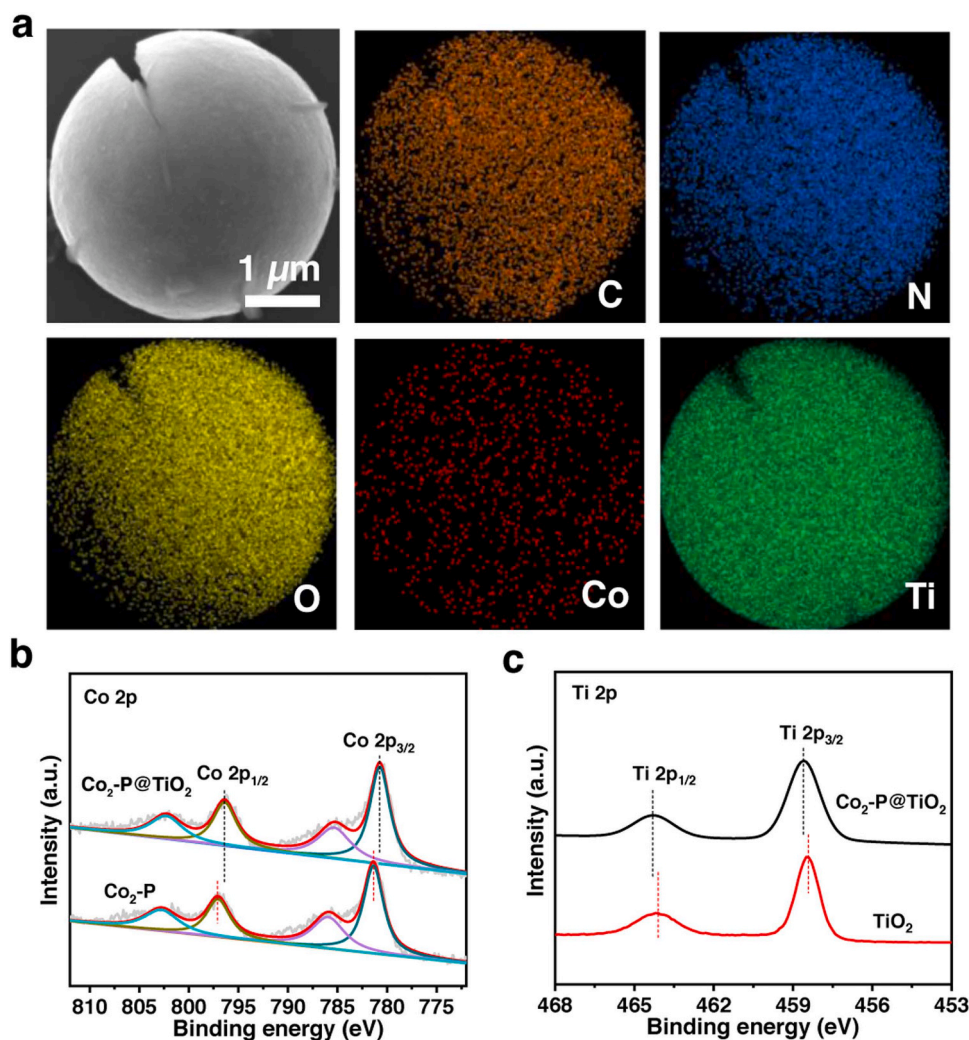


Fig. 1. (a) SEM image and EDS mapping of C, N, O, Co and Ti elements of Co₂-P@TiO₂. (b) XPS spectra for the Co 2p of Co₂-P and Co₂-P@TiO₂. (c) XPS spectra for the Ti 2p of TiO₂ and Co₂-P@TiO₂.

Co₂-P@TiO₂ reveals the homogeneous distribution of C, N, O, Co and Ti (Fig. 1a). TEM image of Co₂-P@TiO₂ demonstrates that some dark dots were observed, suggesting the incorporation of Co₂-P in TiO₂ (Fig. S11a). HR-TEM image of Co₂-P@TiO₂ shows clear interface between Co₂-P and TiO₂, and the lattice fringe of 0.32 nm is attributed to the (110) face of TiO₂ (Fig. S11b) [35]. The BET surface area and pore size of Co₂-P@TiO₂ are 16.2 m² g^{−1} and ~4.1 nm respectively, sharply reduced compared with the pristine TiO₂ (Figs. S3 and S4). These results suggest that the Co₂-P was successfully incorporated into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂ [41,42]. The ICP-MS analysis reveals that the Co content in Co₂-P@TiO₂ is 1.97 wt%, corresponding to the Co₂-P content of ~12.49 wt% in Co₂-P@TiO₂. In addition, for comparison, pure Co₂-P was also synthesized by the solvothermal reaction of Co₂-Br and 4, 4'-diethynylbiphenyl at 120 °C for 24 h. The FT-IR and Raman spectra of Co₂-P display obvious characteristic peaks at 2209 and 2208 cm^{−1} respectively, hinting the formation of alkynyl linkages (Figs. S12 and S13). The SEM image of Co₂-P shows cubic morphology with the size of approximately 300 nm (Fig. S14). The result of powder XRD pattern for Co₂-P demonstrates that it exhibits the amorphous natures (Fig. S6).

To reveal the valence and interfacial charge transfer of Co₂-P and Co₂-P@TiO₂, the XPS characterization was carried out. As shown in Fig. 1b, the XPS spectrum of Co₂-P shows two characteristic peaks at 781.3 and 797.0 eV in Co 2p spectrum, which can be attributed to the binding energies of Co 2p_{3/2} and Co 2p_{1/2}, respectively. Furthermore, two corresponding satellite peaks at 785.9 and 802.8 eV are also

observed, indicating that the oxidation state of Co species in Co₂-P is +2 [43,44]. For Co₂-P@TiO₂, the binding energies of Co 2p_{3/2} and Co 2p_{1/2} locate 780.7 and 796.4 eV, respectively. There are also two corresponding satellite peaks, demonstrating the +2 oxidation state of Co species in Co₂-P@TiO₂ (Fig. 1b). It is worth noting that the binding energies of Co 2p_{3/2} and Co 2p_{1/2} in Co₂-P@TiO₂ show negative shift compared with those in Co₂-P, and the binding energies of Ti 2p_{3/2} and Ti 2p_{1/2} in Co₂-P@TiO₂ displays positive shift compared with those in TiO₂ (Fig. 1c). These results imply that the electron transfers from TiO₂ to Co₂-P, and there are strong interfacial interactions between TiO₂ and Co₂-P.

The light absorbance of TiO₂ and Co₂-P was investigated by solid UV–vis spectra. As shown in Fig. 2a, the TiO₂ mainly absorb ultraviolet light. The band-gap energy (E_g) of TiO₂ is 3.00 eV, as estimated by the Kubelka-Munk (KM) method based on its solid UV–vis absorption spectroscopy (Fig. S15) [45–48]. By contrast, Co₂-P can absorb both ultraviolet and visible lights with the E_g of 2.10 eV (Fig. 2a and S16). Moreover, Mott-Schottky measurements of TiO₂ and Co₂-P were performed with the frequencies of 0.5, 1.0, and 1.5 kHz. The C^{2-} values (vs. applied potentials) of them show positive slopes, indicating that they exhibit the character of n-type semiconductors (Figs. 2b and 2c). The flat band potentials of them are about −1.18 and −1.34 V vs. Ag/AgCl (that is, −0.98 and −1.14 V vs. NHE) respectively, which are determined by the intersection points.

These values are equal to the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital

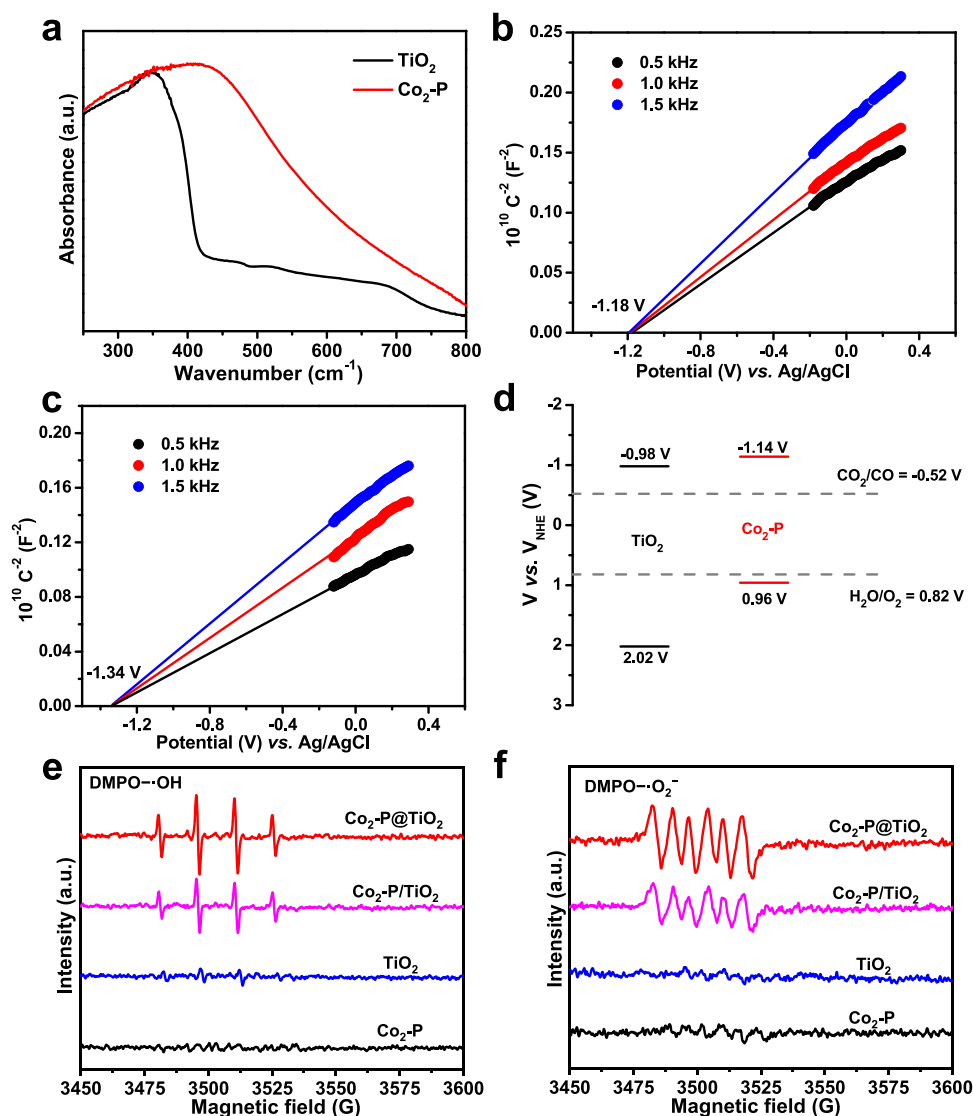


Fig. 2. (a) UV-vis spectra of TiO₂ and Co₂-P. (b) Mott-Schottky plots of TiO₂. (c) Mott-Schottky plots of Co₂-P. (d) Band-structure diagram for TiO₂ and Co₂-P. EPR spectra of (e) DMPO-·OH and (f) DMPO-·O₂⁻ for Co₂-P, TiO₂, Co₂-P@TiO₂ and Co₂-P/TiO₂ under light irradiation.

(LUMO). Therefore, the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of them are calculated to be 2.02 and 0.96 V vs. NHE, respectively (Fig. 2d). Obviously, the LUMO potentials of both TiO₂ and Co₂-P are more negative than those of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions to CO (-0.52 V vs. NHE), CH₄ (-0.24 V vs. NHE), and HCOOH (-0.61 V vs. NHE), implying that they are theoretically feasible for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. Moreover, the HOMO potentials of them are more positive than that of H₂O oxidation to O₂ (0.82 V) [11]. Additionally, TiO₂ and Co₂-P display a staggered band structure (Fig. 2d), suggesting that Z-scheme heterojunction in Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite may be formed upon light irradiation, which possibly improves the charge separation efficiency in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction [24].

To confirm if the Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite is the Z-scheme heterojunction photocatalyst, the EPR measurements of Co₂-P, TiO₂ and Co₂-P@TiO₂ with DMPO as a probe were carried out to monitor the generation of ·OH and ·O₂⁻ radicals [22–25]. As shown in Fig. 2e, the characteristic DMPO-·OH signals of TiO₂ and Co₂-P@TiO₂ were observed under light irradiation, while no distinct DMPO-·OH signal was observed for Co₂-P, owing to its insufficient oxidizing potential (0.96 V vs. NHE) for the oxidation of H₂O to ·OH (1.90 V vs. NHE) [49]. We note that Co₂-P@TiO₂ shows stronger DMPO-·OH signals than TiO₂, suggesting that more photogenerated holes of TiO₂ on Co₂-P@TiO₂

composite are retained compared with the pristine TiO₂. In addition, the characteristic signals of DMPO-·O₂⁻ were detected for Co₂-P, TiO₂ and Co₂-P@TiO₂, among which Co₂-P@TiO₂ exhibits stronger DMPO-·O₂⁻ signals than both Co₂-P and TiO₂, implying more photogenerated electrons of Co₂-P on Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite than the pristine Co₂-P and TiO₂ (Fig. 2f). Moreover, no DMPO-·OH and DMPO-·O₂⁻ signals were detected in the dark for Co₂-P, TiO₂ and Co₂-P@TiO₂, demonstrating that the ·OH and ·O₂⁻ species were produced by photogenerated holes and electrons, respectively (Figs. S17 and S18). The above results strongly confirm that the Z-scheme heterojunction was formed between Co₂-P and TiO₂ in Co₂-P@TiO₂ composite via electrostatic interactions upon light irradiation, which can promote charge separation in photocatalysis (Fig. S19

and Scheme S2). Also, the alkyne bonds (-C≡C-) in Co₂-P can be used as the electron withdrawing group to further facilitate charge transfer between TiO₂ and Co₂-P in Co₂-P@TiO₂ [50]. For comparison, a Z-scheme heterojunction of Co₂-P/TiO₂ was also conventionally fabricated by simply physical mixture of Co₂-P and TiO₂ via electrostatic interactions (Figs. 2e, 2f and S19).

Encouraged by the analysis above, the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions over Co₂-P@TiO₂, TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂ were conducted in a CO₂-saturated gas-solid reactor with H₂O as the electron

donor. For all evaluated photocatalysts, the CO is the main reduction product with a small quantity of H₂ by-product. After 8 h of light irradiation, the CO yield of Co₂-P@TiO₂ is 1113.6 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ (corresponding to the production rate of 139.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$). In sharp contrast, TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂ exhibit significantly lower CO generation rates of 34.9, 32.9 and 44.8 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively (Fig. 3a and S20). The photocatalytic activity of Co₂-P@TiO₂ is about 4.0, 4.2 and 3.1 times higher than those of TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂, manifesting the best photocatalytic activity of Co₂-P@TiO₂ for CO₂ reduction among the tested photocatalysts. Furthermore, the CO generation rate of Co₂-P@TiO₂ is superior to most of the reported heterogeneous photocatalysts by using H₂O as the electron donor (Table S1). The excellent activity of Co₂-P@TiO₂ could be attributed to the construction of Z-scheme heterojunction between Co₂-P and TiO₂. It should be noted that though Co₂-P/TiO₂ is also a Z-scheme heterojunction constructed from two same semiconductors of Co₂-P and TiO₂, the photocatalytic activity of Co₂-P/TiO₂ is only slightly higher than those of Co₂-P and TiO₂. These results illustrate that the greatly enhanced photocatalytic activity of Co₂-P@TiO₂ is not only related with formation of Z-scheme heterojunction, but also closely related with the formation mode of the Z-scheme heterojunction. In Co₂-P@TiO₂, Co₂-P is incorporated into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂, thus the interfacial contact area between Co₂-P and TiO₂ is much larger than that in Co₂-P/TiO₂. In this case, the photogenerated electrons of TiO₂ could quickly transfer to Co₂-P from all around, thus the reaction dynamics of CO₂ reduction over Co₂-P@TiO₂ could be greatly accelerated in contrast to Co₂-P/TiO₂ with smaller interfacial contact area and only one direction of electron injection (Scheme 1). This result demonstrates that the incorporation of Co₂-P into the pores of mesoporous TiO₂ to form Z-scheme heterojunction is an effective strategy to improve catalytic performance for CO₂ photoreduction. In addition to CO, low H₂ production rates of 11.8, 6.6, 10.2 and 3.0 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ are detected for Co₂-P@TiO₂, TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂, respectively (Fig. S21), revealing that most

photogenerated electrons take part in the CO₂ reduction with CO selectivities of 92.2, 84.1, 76.3 and 93.7 %, respectively. Additionally, the O₂ was also detected in the catalytic system, with the O₂ formation rate of 75.4 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ for Co₂-P@TiO₂. Note that the stoichiometric ratio of CO/H₂ and O₂ is about 2:1, suggesting the mode of artificial photosynthesis (Fig. 3b). Additionally, the apparent quantum efficiency of Co₂-P@TiO₂ was 0.022 %, which was measured at 365 nm.

A series of control experiments demonstrate that negligible and even no CO product was detected in the absence of Co₂-P@TiO₂, CO₂, H₂O or light irradiation (Fig. S22). To confirm the carbon source of CO generated, the ¹³CO₂ isotope trace experiment for Co₂-P@TiO₂ was carried out. The mass spectrum (MS) shows a ¹³CO signal peak at $m/z = 29$, verifying that the carbon source of CO originates from CO₂ (Fig. 3c) [6]. Moreover, the H₂¹⁸O isotope trace experiment over Co₂-P@TiO₂ was conducted to identify the electron source for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction to CO. The result of MS exhibits a signal peak at $m/z = 36$, which is attributed to ¹⁸O₂, confirming that the electron source for CO₂ photoreduction comes from the oxidation of H₂O (Fig. S23) [6]. The catalytic durability of Co₂-P@TiO₂ was further evaluated. As shown in Fig. 3d, the photocatalytic activity for CO₂ reduction of Co₂-P@TiO₂ is retained during the five consecutive cycles. The powder XRD and Raman spectrum of Co₂-P@TiO₂ after the photocatalytic reaction are similar to those of freshly prepared (Figs. S24 and S25). These results demonstrate the excellent stability of Co₂-P@TiO₂ during the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction.

To illustrate the higher photocatalytic activity of Co₂-P@TiO₂ over TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂, photocurrent, EIS and PL measurements of them were performed [51,52]. As shown in Fig. 4a, Co₂-P@TiO₂ shows the highest photocurrent response among the four tested photocatalysts, demonstrating that it has the most efficient charge separation. The results of EIS indicate that in comparison with TiO₂, Co₂-P and TiO₂/Co₂-P, Co₂-P@TiO₂ exhibits the smallest semicircle radius, implying its lowest charge-transfer resistance (Fig. S26). The PL spectra show that

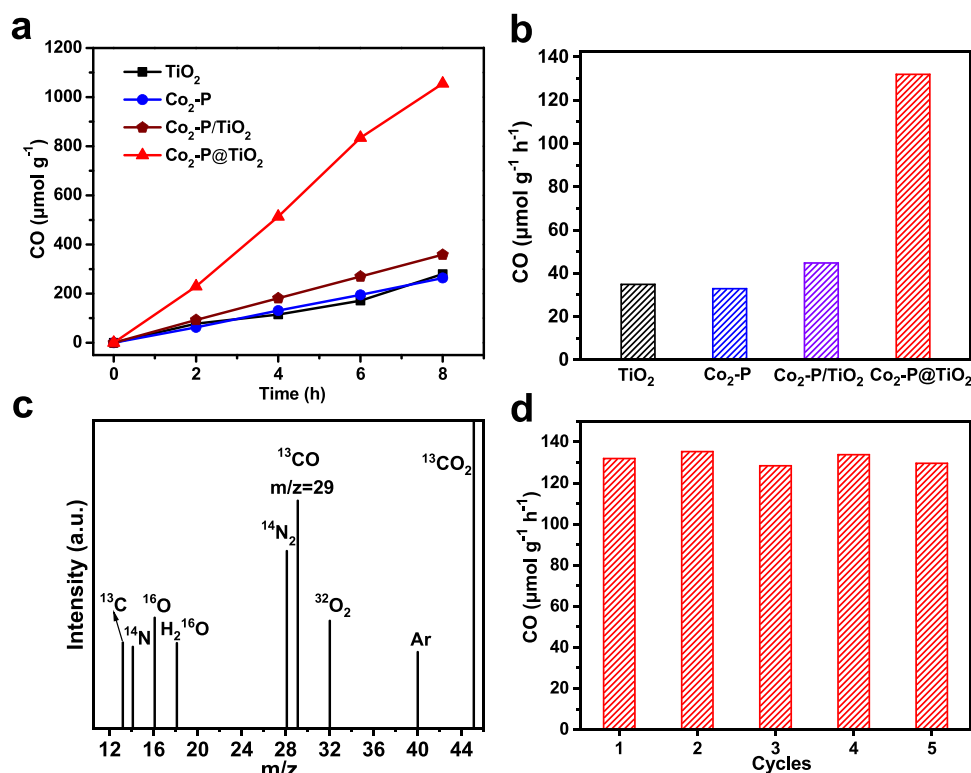


Fig. 3. (a) Time-dependent CO generation in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction over Co₂-P@TiO₂, TiO₂, Co₂-P and Co₂-P/TiO₂. (b) Yields of reduced and oxidized products over Co₂-P@TiO₂. (c) Mass spectrum of the gaseous product generated in the photocatalytic ¹³CO₂ reduction over Co₂-P@TiO₂. (d) The production rate of CO in five consecutive catalytic cycles over Co₂-P@TiO₂.

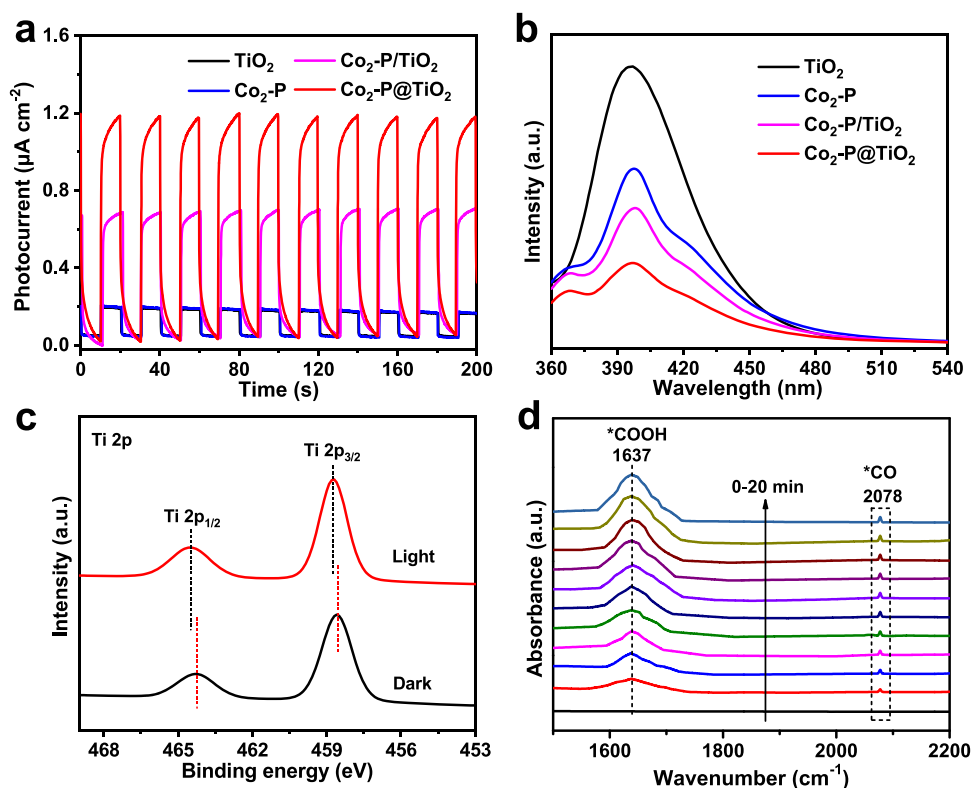


Fig. 4. (a) Photocurrent tests and (b) PL spectra of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$, TiO_2 , $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and $\text{TiO}_2/\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$. (c) XPS spectra for Ti 2p of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ in the dark and upon light irradiation. (d) *In situ* FTIR spectra of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ in the process of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction.

the emission intensity of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ is the weakest among all tested photocatalysts, suggesting that it has the fastest electron transfer (Fig. 4b). All the above results well support the best photocatalytic activity of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ for CO_2 reduction among the tested catalysts. These results also demonstrate that the incorporation of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ into the pores of mesoporous TiO_2 could really form a new Z-scheme heterojunction which can greatly accelerates the charge separation and electron transfer, thereby boosting the catalytic reaction dynamics of artificial photosynthesis.

The possible catalytic mechanism for CO_2 photoreduction coupled with H_2O oxidation over $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ were revealed by *in situ* XPS measurements. The Ti $2p_{3/2}$ and Ti $2p_{1/2}$ binding energies of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ locate at 458.5 and 464.2 eV in the dark, which shows positive shift to 458.8 and 464.5 eV respectively upon light irradiation (Fig. 4c). Moreover, the O 1s binding energy of Ti-O bond also displays positive shift after light irradiation. These results imply that TiO_2 donates electron (Fig. S27). By contrast, the Co $2p_{3/2}$ and Co $2p_{1/2}$ binding energies of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ exhibits negative shift upon light irradiation compared with those in the dark, suggesting that the Co^{2+} accepts electron (Fig. S28). As $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ is a Z-scheme heterojunction, upon light irradiation, both $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and TiO_2 of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ harvest light to generate electron-hole pairs, where the photogenerated electrons in the LUMO of TiO_2 are transferred to the HOMO of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ to combine with photogenerated holes. The retained photogenerated holes in the HOMO of TiO_2 can oxidize H_2O to O_2 , and the photogenerated electrons in the LUMO of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ are able to reduce adsorbed CO_2 to CO (Scheme S2). In order to monitor the key intermediates during the process of CO_2 photoreduction to CO over $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$, *in situ* FTIR measurements were performed. As shown in Fig. 4d, new infrared peaks at 1637 and 2078 cm^{-1} were detected, and their intensities gradually increase along with the incremental irradiation time. The two new peaks can be assigned to the signals of $^*\text{COOH}$ and $^*\text{CO}$ intermediates respectively, which are regarded as the key intermediates for CO generation in CO_2 reduction reaction [53,54].

4. Conclusions

In summary, by incorporation of binuclear cobalt polymer into the pores of mesoporous TiO_2 , a new Z-scheme heterojunction of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ with surrounding interfacial contact area between $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and TiO_2 was successfully constructed, which exhibits an excellent catalytic activity for CO_2 photoreduction to CO with H_2O as the electron donor, without addition of any photosensitizer and sacrificial agent. The CO production rate reaches as high as $139.2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, which is 4.0, 4.2 and 3.1 times higher than TiO_2 , $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and the conventionally prepared Z-scheme heterojunction of $\text{Co}_2\text{-P/TiO}_2$, respectively. Photoelectrochemical experiments unveil that in comparison with TiO_2 , $\text{Co}_2\text{-P}$ and $\text{Co}_2\text{-P/TiO}_2$, $\text{Co}_2\text{-P@TiO}_2$ exhibits the highest charge separation efficiency, which clearly accounts for its best catalytic activity. The results of *in situ* FTIR demonstrate that both $^*\text{COOH}$ and $^*\text{CO}$ reaction intermediates were successfully detected for the formation of CO. This work provides a facile approach to develop efficient catalysts for artificial photosynthesis.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Shan Wang: Investigation. **Yun-Nan Gong:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Investigation. **Jian-Hua Mei:** Investigation. **Hui-Jun Dong:** Investigation. **Tong-Bu Lu:** Supervision. **Di-Chang Zhong:** Supervision, Conceptualization.

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.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2024.124310.

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