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Enhanced photocatalytic $N_{\rm 2}$ fixation by promoting $N_{\rm 2}$ adsorption with a co-catalyst

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ABSTRACT

Photocatalytic N₂ fixation involves a nitrogen reduction reaction on the surface of the photocatalyst to convert N₂ into ammonia. Currently, the adsorption of N₂ is the limiting step for the N₂ reduction reaction on the surface of the catalyst. Based on the concept of photocatalytic water splitting, the photocatalytic efficiency can be greatly enhanced by introducing a co-catalyst. In this report, we proposed a new strategy, namely, the loading of a NiS co-catalyst on CdS nanorods for photocatalytic N₂ fixation. Theoretical calculation results indicated that N₂ was effectively adsorbed onto the NiS/CdS surface. Temperature programmed desorption studies confirmed that the N₂ molecules preferred to adsorb onto the NiS/CdS surface. Linear sweep voltammetry results revealed that the overpotential of the N₂ reduction reaction was reduced by loading NiS. Furthermore, transient photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy indicated that the charge separation was enhanced by introducing NiS. Photocatalytic N₂ fix a result, 1.0 wt% NiS/CdS achieved an ammonia production rate of 2.8 and 1.7 mg L⁻¹ for the first hour under full spectrum and visible light ($\lambda > 420$ nm), respectively. The catalyst demonstrated apparent quantum efficiencies of 0.76%, 0.39% and 0.09% at 420, 475 and 520 nm, respectively. This study provides a new method to promote the photocatalytic efficiency of N₂ fixation.

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1. Introduction

Ammonia (NH₃) is an essential chemical for the biological synthesis of fertilizer. The Haber-Bosch process, as a typical industrial NH₃ synthesis, is carried out at high temperatures (>300 °C) and pressures (>10 MPa) [1], which is an enormous energy- and money- consuming process of N₂ fixation. In nature, nodule bacteria are very good at biological nitrogen fixation at ambient conditions, although the reduction of N₂ to NH₃ is thermodynamically favored because its free energy is negative at ambient temperature and pressure. However, this does not commonly occur because N₂ is stable and inert due to the strong triple bond and low polarizability [2]. Photocatalytic N₂ fixation was reported with the use of wide bandgap TiO₂ about half a century ago. However, progress in the area has been slow [3,4]. The mechanism of N₂ fixation is as

follows [5-8]: N₂ absorbs onto the surface of the semiconductor. In the presence of light shining on the semiconductor, the photogenerated electron is transferred to the N₂ molecules. The sturdy triple bonds are weakened so that N₂ can be reduced, with the participation of water molecules. Unfortunately, both the degree of N₂ fixation and the conversion efficiency are quite low due to the inefficient electron transfer from the photocatalyst to N₂ molecules [9]. Thus, the critical issue is how to effectively combine the N_2 molecules with the photocatalyst to promote photogenerated electron transfer to the N₂ molecules and to weaken the triple bonds. Recently, Li et al. [10,11] demonstrated that BiOBr nanosheets with oxygen vacancies can be employed for N₂ fixation. Oxygen vacancies play a critical role in photocatalytic N₂ fixation by serving as an active site to promote the absorbance of N₂ molecules onto the BiOBr surface. On the other hand, oxygen vacancies can also induce a defect band, which is slightly lower than that of the CB of the catalyst. The photogenerated electron easily relaxes from the conduction band to the defect band. Thus, oxygen vacancies

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bridge the transfer route between the catalyst and the N_2 molecules for the excited electron. Following this idea, a few photocatalysts have been developed for photocatalytic N_2 fixation such as BiOX [12–14], TiO₂ [15,16], WO_x [8,17], g-C₃N₄ [18], LDH [19], and noble metals and alloys [20–22].

Recently, enormous progress has been made at promoting light absorption and charge separation [23-27]. In heterogeneous photocatalytic water splitting, co-catalysts (e.g., Pt nanoparticles) are often employed to promote the adsorption of the proton, enhance the charge separation and lower the overpotential of the surface reaction [28-31]. To increase the efficiency of photocatalytic N₂ fixation, N₂ has to be chemisorbed onto the surface of the catalyst, N₂ has to have a relatively low reduction potential on the catalyst surface and the process has to involve a highly efficient charge separation process. Based on the above analysis, we proposed a new strategy to construct a composite photocatalyst by introducing a co-catalyst to promote N₂ adsorption on the catalyst surface. In the photocatalytic water splitting system, there exists the cocatalyst, such as Pt nanoparticles, which works as a bridge between the catalyst and water molecules. Based on the concept of photocatalytic water splitting, we constructed CdS nanorods loaded with NiS nanosheets as the photocatalyst and co-catalyst composite catalyst. CdS was demonstrated as a visible light photocatalyst in a broad light adsorption range in the visible light region. The theoretical calculation and the results of thermal program desorption (TPD) of N_2 revealed that N_2 absorbs on the (211) lattice plane of the NiS nanostructure. Linear sweep voltammetry experiments illustrated that the overpotential of the N₂ reduction reaction was lower on NiS/CdS than that on CdS. Furthermore, the photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy results indicated that NiS/CdS composites had a higher charge transfer efficiency. The NiS/CdS composite catalyst was further employed for photocatalytic N₂ fixation. The ammonia production rate in the presence of 1.0 wt% NiS/CdS was 2.8 and 1.7 mg $L^{-1} h^{-1}$ for the first hour under full spectrum light and visible light $(\lambda > 420 \text{ nm})$, respectively, which was much higher than the corresponding N₂ fixation amount of CdS. The apparent quantum efficiency (AOE) of NiS/CdS reached 0.76%. 0.39% and 0.09% at 420. 475 and 520 nm, respectively. ¹⁵N labeling experiments showed that the nitrogen source of NH₃ was from N₂ molecules.

2. Materials and methods

All chemicals were of analytical grade and used without further purification. Cadmium acetate dihydrate, sodium nitroprusside and nickel acetate tetrahydrate were purchased from Macklin Co., Ltd. Ethane diamine, hydrazine hydrate, phenol and Nessler's reagent were of AR grade and purchased from J&K Chemicals Co., Ltd. Dimethyl sulfoxide, thiourea and sodium citrate were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Standard ammonia solution (1,000 mg L⁻¹ ammonia in water) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co., Ltd. ¹⁵N₂ gas was purchased from Aladdin Co., Ltd.

2.1. Preparation of CdS nanorods

Approximately 1 mmol of $Cd(Ac)_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ and 2 mmol of thiourea were dissolved in 30 mL of hydrazine hydrate under ultrasonication for 30 min. The solution was transferred into a 100-mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave, heated to 180 °C and maintained at this temperature for 24 h. Thereafter, CdS nanorods were obtained by centrifugation and washed with ethanol and DI water several times. Finally, they were dried at 60 °C in an oven for 12 h.

2.2. Preparation of NiS/CdS nanorods

Approximately 0.034 mmol of Ni(Ac)₂·4H₂O and 78 mg of thiourea were added to 40 mL of ethylenediamine containing 200 mg of the above CdS nanorods. After stirring for 30 min, the achieved suspension was transferred into a 100-mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave, heated at 180 °C and maintained at this temperature for 6 h. After the reaction, the precipitate was obtained by centrifugation and washed with ethanol and DI water several times. Finally, it was dried at 60 °C in the oven and denoted as 1.0 wt% NiS/CdS. The other NiS/CdS samples were synthesized by the same method, except that the amount of Ni(Ac)₂·4H₂O was changed. These samples were denoted as 0.1 wt% NiS/CdS, 0.5 wt% NiS/CdS and 3 wt% NiS/CdS, according to the weight ratios of NiS and CdS.

2.3. Characterizations

The thermal programmed desorption (TPD) spectra were obtained with a Quantachrome Instruments Chembet instrument. The concentration of ammonia was detected by Nessler's reagent with a UV-2600 spectrophotometer. The concentration of $NO_3^$ was detected by dual-wavelength spectrophotometry with a UV-2600 spectrophotometer. The crystal structures of the samples were determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD; Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer) with Cu K α radiation (λ = 0.15406 nm) as the incident beam at 40 kV and 40 mA. The morphologies of the samples were determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM; FEI Tecnai G2 F30) operated at 150 kV and scanning electron microscopy (SEM; Hitachi FE-SEM SU8000) operated at 10 kV. UV-Vis diffuse reflection spectroscopy (DRS) was carried out with a Shimadzu UV-2600 spectrophotometer using BaSO₄ as the reference. The electrochemical measurements were examined with an Autolab PGSTAT302N instrument in a conventional threeelectrode cell. It used a carbon electrode as the counter electrode and an Hg/Hg₂Cl₂ electrode as the reference electrode. The electrolyte was 0.5 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄. The working electrode was prepared on FTO glass, which had been previously cleaned by sonication in ethanol for 30 min and dried at 100 °C. FTO glass substrates with a coated area of about (1×1) cm² were used for both electrodes. Linear sweep voltammograms (LSVs) were obtained from -0.6 to -1.6 V versus Hg/Hg₂Cl₂ (0.5 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄) with a scan rate of 10 mV s⁻¹. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) experiments were carried out in the same configuration from 10⁵ to 10⁻¹ Hz with an AC voltage of 20 mV. Transient photocurrent measurements were carried out in the same configuration. Mott-Schottky values were recorded between -1.0 and 0.5 V versus Hg/Hg₂Cl₂ (0.5 mol L^{-1} Na₂SO₄). The ¹⁵N labeling experiments were performed by LC-MS (Agilent 1290 Infinity/6460 LC/QQQ MS). The pH value was determined with a pH meter (PHS-25/3C). The XPS measurements were obtained with a Kratos Axis-Ultra multifunctional X-ray spectrometer.

2.4. Computational methods

All spin unrestricted DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package [32,33] (VASP) with the PBE (Perdew-Burk-Ernzerhof) function [34]. The plane wave basis (the kinetic energy cutoff value was set at 520 eV) and PAW (projector-augmented wave) pseudopotential [35,36] were employed. The atomic positions were fully optimized, except when the Hellmann-Feynman force was <0.05 eV Å⁻¹, and the total energy convergence criteria was set at 1×10^{-4} eV. The two surfaces of CdS (002) and NiS (211) were involved in our calculation,

and 331 and 221 supercells were used, respectively. The atomic positions of the two top layers were optimized, while the other layers were fixed. To avoid interactions of the neighboring images, an approximate 15-Å vacuum layer was set at the direction of the *c* axis. The Monkhorst-Pack [37] k-point grid $2 \times 2 \times 1$ was set for all calculations.

2.5. Photocatalytic nitrogen fixation reaction

Photocatalytic nitrogen fixation was investigated as previously described [16]. Approximately 100 mg of catalyst (NiS/CdS) was dispersed in 100 mL of pure water under ultrasonication for 15 min. The solution was transferred into a double-walled quartz reactor. Highly pure N₂ was continuously bubbled with a dispersion rate of approximately 100 mL min⁻¹, and then the system was irradiated with a 300 W Xe lamp (Perfect Light Company Solaredge 300C) through the quartz window. The visible light was provided by a Xe lamp with a 420-nm cut-off filter $(\lambda > 420 \text{ nm})$. All runs were conducted at ambient pressure and 25 °C. A 2-mL portion of liquid was aliquoted from the solution at the indicated times for the measurement of the ammonia level. The concentration of ammonia was detected by the Nessler's reagent method and a UV-2600 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu). The concentration of nitrate was detected by the dualwavelength spectrophotometry method with a UV-2600 spectrophotometer. The wavelength-dependent nitrogen fixation was also measured in the N₂ fixation system with band-pass filters of 420, 475, 520, 600 and 650 nm. The apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) was estimated using the equation:

$$AQE = \frac{6 \times \text{the number of evolved ammonia molecules}}{\text{the number of incident photons}} \times 100\%$$

Cycle tests of the as-prepared composite materials (100 mg) of NiS/CdS were conducted in the nitrogen fixation system. Approximately 100 mg of the NiS/CdS nanoparticles was dispersed into 100 mL of pure water under conditions similar to those of the photocatalytic nitrogen fixation reaction. Approximately 2 mL of liquid was aliquoted from the solution after 1 h of visible light irradiation for the measurement of the ammonia level. The catalyst was collected by centrifugation, and then washed with ethanol and DI water several times. Finally, the recycled catalyst was disolved in fresh water, and its concentration was maintained constant for the second cycle of the N₂ fixation test. The three cycles of the N₂ fixation test were carried out in the same procedure.

3. Results and discussion

As reported by Zhang et al. [38], vacancies play an important role in photocatalytic N₂ fixation. The CdS nanorods with sulfur vacancies were synthesized in hydrazine solution as previously described. Fig. S1 (online) shows the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the as-prepared CdS nanorods with a length of \sim 150 nm and a diameter of \sim 50 nm. Fig. S2 (online) displays the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the CdS nanorods loaded with different amounts of NiS, which is indexed as the hexagonal wurtzite phase (JCPDS Card No. 41-1049). NiS was loaded onto the surface of CdS by the additional hydrothermal reaction of Ni(OAc)₂ and thiourea. There was no apparent change after loading the NiS by another hydrothermal reaction (Fig. S1 online). However, no NiS signal was observed in the XRD patterns, even when \sim 3.0 wt% NiS was loaded onto CdS. A slight shift toward a large theta ($\sim 0.06^{\circ}$) was observed in the XRD patterns, indicating that Ni²⁺ might have entered the lattice of CdS because the ionic radius of Ni^{2+} (72 pm) was smaller than that of Cd^{2+} (95 pm). Energydispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDAX) was carried out. The Ni element observed in the spectra (Fig. S3 online) confirmed the presence of the Ni element in the sample. The diffuse-reflectance (DR) UV–Vis spectra of CdS with different amounts of NiS are shown in Fig. S4 (online). All spectra exhibited broad and strong light absorption in the visible light region, which spanned the UV range to the band edge of ~500 nm. The corresponding optical band gap was 2.37 eV. The band tail gradually increased as the amount of NiS increased.

Fig. 1a-c shows transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution (HR) TEM images of NiS/CdS. The low magnification TEM image illustrates the morphology of the CdS nanorods with a length of (136.4 ± 11.4) nm and a diameter of (40.7 ± 4.2) nm. The HR TEM images show the main part with a lattice fringe spacing of 0.335 nm, which was associated with the (002) of CdS nanorods. A few nanorods with a length of $\sim 10 \text{ nm}$ and a width of (1.46 ± 0.2) nm covered the surface of the CdS nanorods. The lattice fringe spacing was 0.22 nm, which was assigned to the (211)of NiS. At the same time, a few different lattice orientation domains (red circles) were observed on the CdS nanorods. The corresponding lattice fringe spacing was ~0.22 nm. These findings indicated that the morphology of the NiS was in the shape of a nanoflake with a diameter of 5-10 nm and a thickness of ~1.5 nm. Furthermore, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was employed to verify the composition and valance state. Fig. S5 (online) shows the complete survey of the CdS nanorods before and after loading with NiS nanoflakes. Cd and S signals were observed at 404 and 162 eV, respectively. A weak Ni signal appeared at 857 eV in the NiS/CdS sample. Fig. 1e shows the HR XPS spectra of Cd 3d for the CdS and NiS/CdS nanorods. Two peaks at 404.8 and 411.9 eV corresponded to Cd 3d 5/2 and 3d 3/2, respectively. Each Cd 3d XPS peak could be assigned into two Lorentz peaks, 411.79 and 412.07 eV for Cd 3d3/2 and 404.96 and 404.34 eV for Cd 3d5/2, respectively. Compared with the CdS XPS standard, these binding energy values shifted slightly to lower bonding energies. According to the work of Zhang et al. [38], the components at the lower binding energies (404.34 and 411.79 eV) in the Cd 3d XPS spectra associated with Cd in the low valence or interstitial Cd in the CdS nanorods, indicating that the CdS nanorods contained S vacancies on the surface. Based on these results, we speculated that sulfur vacancies in both CdS and NiS/CdS nanorods existed. A weak Ni signal appeared at 857.6 eV in the HR XPS of Ni 2p in NiS/CdS (Fig. 1f). Based on these characterizations, the NiS nanoflakes were successfully loaded onto the CdS nanorod surface.

According to our hypothesis, NiS nanoflakes function as a cocatalyst within the NiS/CdS composite catalyst. It has three roles in enhancing catalytic activity, namely, enhancing the N₂ absorbance, lowering the reduction potential of N₂ reduction and promoting the charge separation of CdS. Firstly, the adsorption energies of N₂ on the surface of the catalyst were calculated based on the density functional theory (DFT). Fig. 2a shows the theoretical calculation of the N2 adsorption energy on CdS (002) and NiS (211), which was determined by the HR TEM images (Fig. 1d). The results indicate that it is difficult to adsorb N₂ onto the surface of CdS (002) because its adsorption energy was 1.16 eV (positive), indicating that the N2 adsorption process on the CdS was not a spontaneous process. However, the adsorption energy on NiS was -0.26 eV, implying that N₂ molecules tend to adsorb onto the NiS surface. The adsorption energy of N₂ molecules on the Ni doped CdS surface was also calculated. The adsorption energy was even lower (-0.55 eV), indicating that N₂ molecules prefer to adsorb onto the Ni doped CdS surface. The temperature programmed desorption (TPD) technique allows one to determine the interaction of gaseous molecules with the solid surface. Therefore, TPD is a powerful tool to evaluate the active sites on the catalyst surface and to understand the reaction mechanism, which involves adsorption,



Fig. 1. Characterization of NiS/CdS. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high resolution (HR) TEM images of NiS/CdS (a-d). High resolution X-ray photoelectron spectrum (XPS) of Cd 2p (e) and Ni 2p (f) for CdS and NiS/CdS.



Fig. 2. N_2 adsorption on CdS and NiS/CdS nanorods. The theoretical adsorption energy of N_2 molecules on the CdS (002) surface (a), NiS (211) surface (b) and Ni doped CdS (002) surface (c). (d) Temperature programmed desorption (TPD) curves of N_2 on CdS and NiS/CdS.

surface reaction and desorption. The TPD behavior of N₂ on the CdS nanorod and NiS/CdS is shown in Fig. 2b. Both samples exhibited two desorption peaks of N₂. The desorption peaks at 377 K were related to the physical adsorption. The corresponding peak area was about 12.0 and 11.9, respectively, indicating that the physical adsorption of N₂ on CdS and NiS/CdS was similar. The peaks at 631 and 637 K were assigned to the chemical adsorption of N₂ on CdS and NiS/CdS surfaces, respectively. However, the peak areas were 5.4 and 25.1 for CdS and NiS/CdS, respectively. Although the adsorption energy of the N2 molecule onto the CdS (002) surface was a positive value according to the theoretical calculation, the defects on the surface might have resulted in the adsorption of the N₂ molecule. TPD results confirmed that N₂ had a much stronger adsorption on NiS/CdS than that on pure CdS. Both theoretical and experimental results illustrated that N2 molecules preferred to adsorb onto the NiS/CdS surface.

The electrochemical N₂ reduction reaction (NRR) test was performed to determine the nitrogen reduction ability of the catalyst CdS and NiS/CdS by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV). LSV measurements (Fig. 3a) were carried out in an Ar and N₂ saturated environment to distinguish between HER and NRR. When the potential was <-0.69 and -0.46 V vs. RHE in the Ar saturated environment, the current density increased for both CdS and NiS/CdS, indicating that HER occurs at these potentials. In the case of the N₂ saturated solution, the current density increased to about -0.68 V vs. RHE for CdS, indicating that NRR hardly occurred for CdS due to the competition of HER. In the case of NiS/CdS, NRR could occur at a potential as low as -0.33 V vs. RHE. Compared with CdS, the NRR overpotential decreased significantly by introducing the co-catalyst of NiS. With regard to the NiS/CdS sample, the LSV curves intersected at -0.88 V vs. RHE under an Ar and N₂ saturated environment, indicating that the NRR occurred at a more positive value than that of HER. HER superseded RHE when the potential was more negative than the potential of RHE (-0.88 V vs. RHE) [39,40]. Thus, NRR should be carried out in the potential range from -0.88 to -0.33 V vs. RHE for NiS/CdS. Based on the LSV, NiS dramatically decreased the overpotential for the NRR reaction, which agreed with the theoretical and TPD results because a high N₂ adsorption resulted in high NRR activity.

To determine the function of NiS, transient photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were used. CdS and NiS/CdS were deposited onto the FTO for the photoelectrode. As shown in Fig. 3b, the CdS sample displayed a weak photocurrent response due to the rapid recombination of the photogenerated charge carrier. NiS/CdS provided a much higher photocurrent density than CdS, which confirmed the enhanced separation and transfer of the photogenerated electron and holes in the NiS/CdS sample. These findings indicate that the NiS co-catalyst effectively promoted the charge separation for the composite photocatalyst NiS/CdS [30]. This was beneficial to photocatalysis, thereby enhancing the efficiency of photocatalytic NRR. The role of NiS in prompting charge separation and transfer can also be reflected by the EIS spectra. The EIS Nyquist plots of CdS and NiS/CdS are presented in Fig. 2c. As shown in the equivalent circuit (inset, Fig. 3c), the charge transfer resistance (R_p) at the catalyst/electrolyte interface could be evaluated by the semicircle radius of the Nyquist plots based on the R-C equivalent circuit. The corresponding R_p values are listed in Table S1 (online). The R_p of CdS was 980 Ω , which was related to the characteristics of CdS. After loading NiS, the $R_{\rm p}$ decreased to 782 Ω , which revealed a lower resistance. These findings indicated that NiS/CdS had a better charge separation efficiency than pure CdS. Furthermore, the $R_{\rm p}$ decreased to 624Ω after exposure to light irradiation, implying that light can further promote the charge separation process. Based on these results, NiS can enhance N₂ adsorption, lower the overpotential of the N₂ reduction reaction and promote the charge separation process. Thus, NiS functions as a co-catalyst in the photocatalytic N₂ reduction reaction.

The next issue was assessing the photocatalytic activity of NiS/ CdS for N₂ fixation because NiS could function as a co-catalyst in photocatalysis. Photocatalytic experiments were performed in N₂ saturated water under full-spectrum and visible light $(\lambda > 420 \text{ nm})$ irradiation at ambient conditions without any sacrificial agent. The ammonia concentration was measured by the Nessler's reagent method, and the calibration curves are shown in Fig. S6 (online). Fig. 4a shows the photocatalytic N₂ fixation of CdS in the presence of different amounts of NiS. CdS exhibited a weak photocatalytic activity of 0.03 mg L^{-1} within the first hour. After loading 1.0 wt% NiS, the photocatalytic activity increased significantly to 2.8 mg L⁻¹ within the first hour of irradiation. However, the ammonia production rate decreased with the increase of the reaction time. To understand the reason for the decrease in the ammonia production rate, the pH of the solution was monitored with the reaction time. The pH continued to increase from 6.7 to 7.8 over 12 h of the photocatalytic reaction due to the production of ammonia (Fig. S7 online). According to the results of Hirakawa et al. [15] a high pH can depress the photocatalytic NRR reaction. Thus, the increasing pH resulted in a decrease of the N₂ fixation rate in the reaction solution. Accompanied by the NRR reaction of the photogenerated electron, an oxidation reaction involving the holes might have occurred to balance the charge, which would include water oxidation and ammonia oxidation. To confirm the ammonia oxidation reaction, NO_3^- was detected by the spectral method according to GB11894-89, China M. HJ, 2012, 636: 2012. The calibration curve of NO_3^- is shown in Fig. S8 (online). Fig. S9 exhibits the NO_3^- concentration increase with the reaction time for NiS/CdS. No NO₃⁻ was detected for CdS as a photocatalyst. These findings indicate that ammonia was oxidized by the photogenerated holes when the ammonia concentration reached a certain value. Thus, we conjecture that an increased



Fig. 3. Electrochemical performance of the photocatalysts. (a) Linear sweep voltammetry of CdS and NiS under an Ar and N₂ saturated solution. (b) Transient photocurrent of CdS and NiS/CdS. (c) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of CdS and NiS/CdS under light irradiation and dark conditions.



Fig. 4. Photocatalytic performance of the photocatalysts. (a) NH₄⁺ production changes with the reaction time under full spectrum light irradiation. (b) NH₄⁺ production changes with the reaction time under the visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) within 1 h. (c) NH₄⁺ production under different conditions (darkness, DMSO as solvent and water + light + N₂ or Ar) and exposure to visible light. (d) Apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) of NiS/CdS under visible light with different band pass filters (420, 475, 520, 600 and 650 nm). (e) NH₄⁺ production changes with the reaction time under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) for 12 h. (f) Recycling experiment of NiS/CdS for five continuous cycles under visible light irradiation. The catalyst amounts were 100, 92, 81, 74 and 69 mg, respectively. The reaction dispersion concentration was maintained at 1 mg mL⁻¹ for the five cycles.

pH and ammonia oxidation were the main reasons for the decrease in the ammonia production rate with the increase of reaction time. Thus, CdS was recognized as a visible light photocatalyst with a light adsorption range that can reach 550 nm. The visible light photocatalytic N₂ fixation process is shown in Fig. 4b. Pure CdS exhibited almost zero N₂ fixation in the visible light irradiation range ($\lambda > 420$ nm) within 1 h. After loading NiS, N₂ fixation activity was enhanced significantly. The N₂ fixation rate reached ~1.0 mg L⁻¹ h⁻¹ after loading 0.1 wt% NiS. It further increased to ~1.7 mg L⁻¹ h⁻¹ after loading 1.0 wt% NiS. However, an excessive amount of NiS resulted in a decreased N₂ fixation rate.

To confirm the light and water functions, the photocatalytic N_2 fixation reaction was performed in the dark and in the presence of DMSO solution, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4c, no ammonia was detected both in the dark and the DMSO-containing solution, indicating that no ammonia was produced without light irradiation and water. According to the mechanism of N_2 fixation [5,13]. CdS was excited by light to produce the excited electron for the reduction of N_2 and water to provide the proton to produce the ammonia. Thus, light and water are required for the N_2 fixation reaction.

The apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) was measured at different wavelengths in the visible region. The AQEs were 0.76%, 0.39% and 0.09% at 420, 475 and 520 nm, respectively, which agree with the UV-Vis absorption spectrum of NiS/CdS. For the stability of catalyst is characterization as well. Fig. 3e shows that the amount of ammonia increased after 12 h of exposure to visible light irradiation (λ > 420 nm). It also exhibits a gradual decrease in the N₂ fixation rate with a continuous increase of the reaction time because the pH continued to increase and the as-produced ammonia could be oxidized in the reaction solution. To characterize the stability of the catalyst, another method was employed. Each cycle was carried out for 1 h and then the catalyst was recycled by centrifugation, washed with water and ethanol and dried at 60 °C for >12 h. The recycled catalyst was dissolved in fresh water, and its concentration was maintained constant for the second cycle of the N₂ fixation test. Fig. 3f shows the results of the NiS/CdS cyclic experiment after five cycles of visible light irradiation $(\lambda > 420 \text{ nm})$. The catalyst amount is marked on the graph. Apparently, the degree of N₂ fixation decreased slightly with each cycle. However, it increased when the decrease of the catalyst amount



Fig. 5. The mass spectra of the indophenol prepared and UV–Vis absorption spectra from different atmosphere. (a) UV–Vis absorption spectra of the solutions from the nitrogen fixation reaction with ${}^{14}N_2$ or ${}^{15}N_2$ gas followed by the indophenol assay. Photos show the color change of the ${}^{14}N_2$ and ${}^{15}N_2$ solutions by the indophenol assay. MS spectra of derived indophenol solutions from (b) ${}^{14}N_2$ and (c) ${}^{15}N_2$.

was taken into account. In the first cycle, the ammonia concentration was about 1.7 mg L⁻¹ for 100 mg of catalyst within 1 h. After five cycles, the ammonia concentration was about 1.5 mg L⁻¹ for 69 mg of catalyst within 1 h. Thus, there was no obvious decrease in activity as evidenced by the five continuous photocatalytic cycles [19].

To confirm the origin of the ammonia from N₂ in the current system, a photocatalytic N₂ fixation reaction was carried out with isotope-labeled ¹⁵N₂ gas as previously described [15,41,42]. Approximately 30 mg of catalyst was dispersed in 30 mL of water by ultrasonication for 15 min. The reaction solution was transferred into a reactor and bubbled with Ar for 30 min. The closed system reactor was turned on. Thereafter, 30 mL of ¹⁵N₂ gas was injected into the closed reactor and light irradiated for 55 h. The control sample was obtained by injecting 30 mL of high pure N₂ gas. The as-prepared ammonia amounts were 6.8 and 6.7 mg L^{-1} for ¹⁵N₂ and ¹⁴N₂, respectively, indicating that the amounts of ammonia from both N₂ sources were similar. The obtained solution (0.5 mL) reacted with 0.1 mL of a 1.0% phenolic solution in the presence of NaClO as the oxidant and Na(Fe(CN)₅NO) as the catalyst. As shown in Fig. 4a, both solutions showed a clear absorption peak at 660 nm that corresponded to indophenol. However, no adsorption peak was observed for both solutions in the absence of light irradiation. The respective solutions were characterized by liquid chromatography-mass spectroscopy (LC-MS). Fig. 5b and c display the MS spectra of the indophenol solution from $^{14}N_2$ and $^{15}N_2$. The $^{14}N_2$ solution exhibited two peaks at m/z 198 and m/z 199, which were assigned to the indophenol anion. The ratio of ¹⁴N:¹⁵N was about 88/12 for the ¹⁴N₂ gas, whereas the ratio of ¹⁴N:¹⁵N was 24/76 for the ¹⁵N₂ gas. These results confirm that the N_2 gas is the source of the ammonia.

4. Conclusions

In this report, we proposed to load co-catalyst NiS nanoflakes on CdS nanorods with defects. The NiS co-catalyst clearly manifested multiple functions in photocatalytic N₂ fixation. The NiS enhanced the adsorption of N₂ molecules on the catalyst surface, and its surface adsorption energy changed from 1.16 to -0.55 eV. The TPD experiment also showed that NiS/CdS possessed a higher chemisorption of N₂. The LSV results indicated that NiS could significantly decrease the overpotential of NRR from -0.88 V to -0.33 V vs. RHE, which effectively promoted NRR. The transient photocurrent and EIS studies showed that NiS could promote the charge separation process of the photocatalytic reaction. Based on the aforementioned results, the photocatalytic N₂ fixation was characterized. The results indicated that NiS/CdS exhibited an excellent N₂ fixation capability, reaching 2.8 and 1.7 mg L⁻¹ within

the first hour under full spectrum and visible light ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) irradiation. Finally, the ¹⁵N₂ isotope labeling experiment revealed that the ammonia originated from N₂.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

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Author contributions

X. Gao, D. Qu and Z. Sun conceived and designed the photocatalytic N_2 fixation experiments. X. Gao performed the most experiments. Y. Chai, L. An and S. Sun carried theoretical calculation. W. Jiang and Y. Wen assisted with the material characterizations and data analysis. S. Sun and X. Liu gave the constructive comments on the manuscript. All authors contributed to the discussion.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Additional characterizations by SEM, XRD, EDAX, UV-Vis spectra and XPS, as well as the calibration curve as PDFs, can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2019.05.009.

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