

In–N–In Sites Boosting Interfacial Charge Transfer in Carbon-Coated Hollow Tubular In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ Heterostructure Derived from In-MOF for Enhanced Photocatalytic Hydrogen Evolution

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was rationally designed by growing thin-layered ZnIn₂S₄ on the surface of carbon-coated hollow tubular In₂O₃ (C/HT-In₂O₃) that was derived from In-MOF as a photocatalyst for the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution (PHE) reaction. The fast interfacial charge transfer and significantly enhanced PHE activity could be ascribed to the narrowed band gap of C/ HT-In₂O₃ and the inclined formation of the staggered heterostructure between $C/HT-In_2O_3$ and $ZnIn_2S_4$. The former was caused by the coordinated In-N-In sites as revealed by EXAFS analysis, while the latter was proved by density functional theory (DFT) calculation. Additionally, the high electronic conduction of carbon for bridging charge separation from C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄ further accelerated the protonation process. It was found that the optimum H₂ evolution rate reached 920.5 μ mol/m²



when the mass proportion of counterparts was set at 1:2, about 13.2 and 6.6 times higher than that of pristine C/HT-In₂O₃ and ZnIn₂S₄, respectively. This work demonstrated the feasibility of establishing coordinated In-N-In sites in the interface of the carbon-coated HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure for boosting charge transfer and introduced an ideal light-activated catalyst for PHE reactions from water.

KEYWORDS: In–N–In sites, In-MOF, carbon coated, hollow tubular $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$, heterostructure, interfacial charge transfer, photocatalytic hydrogen evolution

1. INTRODUCTION

To survive and develop in the background of limited fossil energy reserves is currently an important topic, as fossil fuels are irreplaceable for the moment and possibly even longer.^{1–3} Thus, the exploration of alternative energy would be highly beneficial to postpone the end of the "fossil energy era" and alleviate an energy crisis in the future. $^{4-6}$

Under the dual requirements of environmental protection and energy utilization, hydrogen has always been a broad public interest in recent years because of its ideal calorific value and zero carbon energy attributes, meaning that it can act as a $\frac{7-9}{2}$ potentially green and sustainable energy in the long term.⁷ Focusing on cheaply producing hydrogen in large quantities, studies have always been searching for the high efficiency of catalysts for photocatalytic hydrogen evolution (PHE) to achieve the solar-to-hydrogen conversion. Currently, many exciting investigations toward enhancing PHE reactions have been successively reported, contributing significantly to the design and synthesis of advanced photocatalysts.¹⁰⁻¹⁶ Though the PHE reaction was regarded as a single-electron-reduction process, the prolonged lifetime of photogenerated electrons and the rate of hydrogen production in this field have not yet lived up to expectations because of the inefficiency of catalysts, all

demonstrating an insufficient PHE response for solar-tohydrogen conversion with large-scale quantities. To solve the economic unreliability of PHE reactions, many ingenious strategies have been, therefore, adopted by adjusting the band alignment of semiconductors,¹⁷ regulating ion/metal deposition,¹⁸ fabricating heterojunction structures,^{19,20} making atomically dispersed metal sites,^{21,22} and so on. Among them, the engineering of a hierarchical heterostructure was considered to be a pioneering strategy to effectively drive the separation of charge carriers. $^{23-26}$ However, not all materials were suitable for the fabrication of a heterostructure, and in most cases, the heterostructure required that the energy levels of the matched counterparts should be overlapped partially.²⁷ Even though not all constructed heterostructures spontaneously promoted the charge separation in PHE reactions because of the induction of

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Scheme 1. Schematic Illustration of the Synthetic Process of C/HT-In $_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$



light, the adsorption of water molecules, the dynamic recombination, and separation of electron-hole pairs were complex and mixed together;²⁸ thus, we were usually uncertain about the specific species and only judged the PHE efficiency by measuring the final hydrogen production rate or amount. The atomic investigation of species at the heterostructure interface was, therefore, of significant importance for clarifying these issues. Additionally, the electronic configuration at an interfacial heterostructure was different from that of a single component, while the precise revelation of atomic collocation and local phase composition to favor the PHE reactions have not been clarified until now. More importantly, the determination of explicit species and profound understanding of electron transfer pathways in interfacial region for promoting charge separation were still challenging. According to what we have known so far, unfortunately, the deep-seated studies that clearly revealed interfacial sites for boosting electron transfer in heterostructure at atomic levels were more interesting but still rarely investigated.

Herein, inspired by the synthetic protocol developed by Lou et al.²⁹ to deeply reveal the promotion of interfacial species on charge transfer in heterostructure channels and to solve the inefficient charge separation as well as the limited hydrogen production performance, this work gave particular emphasis to a cost-effective solution for constructing In-MOF precursors via a solvothermal reaction of In3+ ions with organic ligand of 2aminoterephthalic acid and then obtained the carbon-coated hollow tubular In2O3 (C/HT-In2O3), which was partially coordinated with In-N-In sites through calcining In-MOF at elevated temperature under nitrogen atmospheres. Followed with further in situ synthesis of thin-layered ZnIn₂S₄ growing on the surface of C/HT-In₂O₃ via a facially hydrothermal method, the hierarchical C/HT-In $_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructure could be formed and obtained for PHE reactions from water under simulated sunlight irradiation as illustrated in Scheme 1.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Chemical Reagents. The detailed chemical reagents related to experiments are available in Supporting Information.

2.2. Sample Preparation. 2.2.1. Synthesis of In-MOF. In a typical method, 0.598 g of $In(NO_3)_3$.4.5H₂O and 0.234 g of 2-aminoterephthalic acid were together added into 20 mL of DMF and stirred vigorously for 2.5 h at room temperature. The mixture was then transferred to a Teflon-lined autoclave and maintained at 125 °C for 5 h. After being cooled down to room temperature, the dark yellow solid products were filtered and

washed three times with alcohol. Finally, the In-MOF samples could be obtained after vacuum drying overnight.

2.2.2. Synthesis of C/HT-In₂O₃ Samples. The above In-MOF precursors were put into a crucible and covered with aluminum foil to prevent it from floating. Followed with calcination in flow N₂ atmosphere for 2 h, the carbon-coated hollow tubular In₂O₃ samples could be obtained and donated as C/HT-In₂O₃ briefly. The temperature-induced (450, 500, 550 °C) carbon-coated HT-In₂O₃ samples were separately labeled as C/HT-In₂O₃-450, C/HT-In₂O₃-500 and C/HT-In₂O₃-550. For comparison, the In-MOF precursors calcined in air atmosphere were also collected and named as S–In₂O₃. The In₂O₃ samples that decomposed directly from In(NO₃)₃ were donated as D-In₂O₃.

2.2.3. Synthesis of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ Catalysts. Different mass ratios of the above synthetic C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄ (1:4, 1:2, 1:1, 2:1, 4:1) were designed to prepare the composite C/ HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ photocatalysts via a facilely hydrothermal method.²⁹ In detail, by using the 1:2 mass ratio of C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄ as an example, 9 mg of C/HT-In₂O₃ was dispersed in 8 mL of water (pH = 2.5) and 2 mL of glycerol with ultrasound treatment for 30 min and kept stirring for another 30 min. After totally being dispersed, 0.0816 g of ZnCl₂, 0.1758 g of InCl₃. $4H_2O$ and 0.09 g of thioacetamide (TAA) were sequentially added into the above dispersion and stirred vigorously for 30 min. Afterward, the mixture was placed and heated in an oil bath at 80 °C with the rate of agitator being fixed at 300 rpm. After mild agitation for 90 min, the resulting products were collected by washing two times with ethanol and drying in vacuum overnight, finally yielding targeted C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ samples.

2.2.4. Synthesis of Comparative Samples. The synthesis procedure of $S-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$, $D-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$, $C-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ were similar to that of $C/HT-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ with $C/HT-In_2O_3$ being substituted by corresponding In_2O_3 samples. The catalyst obtained by simply mixing $C/HT-In_2O_3$ with $ZnIn_2S_4$ was entitled as mechanical mixing sample.

2.3. Material Characterization. The characterization methods are supplemented in Supporting Information.

2.4. Photocatalytic Hydrogen Evolution. Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution (PHE) was initiated in a closed container connecting to a gas circulation externally. The light source was a 300 W Xe lamp (Perfect Light, Beijing Co., China) and the temperature was controlled at 20 °C by cooling circulating water. In detail, 5 mg of synthesized photocatalyst was added to 100 mL of deionized water containing $Na_2S \cdot 9H_2O(0.35 \text{ M})$ and



Figure 1. SEM images of (a) In-MOF, (b) C/HT-In₂O₃, (c, d) C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄; (e) TEM images of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄. (f, g) HRTEM images of ZnIn₂S₄. (h) Heterostructure interface of C/HT-In₂O₃ with ZnIn₂S₄, the marked 1, 2, 3 ellipses represent C/HT-In₂O₃, ZnIn₂S₄ and interface, (i-k) amplified lattice distance of C/HT-In₂O₃, ZnIn₂S₄; (l-r) mapping profiles of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure. Note: the 1:2 proportion of C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄ was used for SEM and TEM images.



Figure 2. Morphology of catalyst with different proportions of C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄. (a,b) 1:4; (c,d) 1:1; (e,f) 2:1; (g,h) 4:1.

 Na_2SO_3 (0.25 M) as sacrificial agents. Pt (2 wt%) was also employed in this system as a cocatalyst by in situ photodeposition of H₂PtCl₆. After it was dispersed for 30 min, the composite dispersion was transferred to a quartz reactor and evacuated by a vacuum pump. The production was sampled by extracting gases every 60 min and monitored using a gas chromatograph fitted with a 5 Å molecular sieve column and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

The apparent quantum efficiencies (AQEs) for photocatalytic H_2 evolution was measured using different monochromatic light filters (320, 350, 400, 420, 450 nm), and the AQEs were calculated according to the following equation:

AQEs (%) =
$$\frac{2 \times \text{number of evolved H}_2\text{molecules}}{\text{number of incident photons}}$$

= $\frac{2 \times n_{\text{H}_2} \times N_A \times h \times c}{S \times P \times t \times \lambda} \times 100\%$

where $n_{\rm H_2}$ is the amount of H₂ molecules, $N_{\rm A}$ is the Avogadro constant, *h* is the Planck constant, *c* is the speed of light, *S* is the irradiation area, *P* is the intensity of irradiation light which is measured by an optical power meter (CEL-NP2000, CEAU-LIGHT Co., Ltd.), *t* is the photoreaction time, and λ represents the wavelength of monochromatic light.

2.5. EXAFS Measurement and Theoretical Calculation. Both of these parts can be found in Supporting Information.



Figure 3. (a) XRD patterns. (b) Raman spectra. (c) UV-vis. DRS spectra of various catalysts. (d–f) High-resolution XPS spectra of C, N, O in the C/HT-In₂O₃ sample.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Morphology and Structure. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images successfully demonstrated the solid rod of In-MOF and hollow-like structure of C/HT-In₂O₃ (Figure 1a,b), which was derived from the calcination treatment. After suffering a facilely hydrothermal process, it was obvious to find that both inside and outside of the C/HT-In₂O₃ were totally covered by thin-layered ZnIn₂S₄ in regular orders to rationally fabricate the targeted C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure (Figure 1c,d). While unspecific morphology and aggregation of pristine ZnIn₂S₄ were observed as shown in Figure S1. Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images further proved the bolt body of In-MOF with 600 nm in width (Figure S2a,b) and C/HT-In₂O₃ with 500 nm in diameter (Figure S2c,d, the inset 0.42 nm lattice spacing represented the (211) crystal plane of In_2O_3), in which the thinner diameter might be caused by inhomogeneous shrinkage of microcrystalline during pyrolysis in nitrogen atmosphere.³⁰ The hierarchical structure of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ and clustered state of pristine ZnIn₂S₄ discussed above were surely corroborated as shown in Figure S2e-h. Moreover, the elemental mapping distributions (Figure S3) sufficiently supported the formation of carbon-coated hollow tubular In₂O₃, and it was worth noting that the atomic concentration of carbon reached 30.55%, indicating organic ligand derived carbon persisted well in this hollow structure. The enlarged TEM image as shown in Figure 1e presented the spatial arrangement of the C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure, and the marked 0.32 nm could be attributed to the (102) crystal plane of $ZnIn_2S_4$ (Figure 1f,g). The coexistence of C/HT-In₂O₃,

ZnIn₂S₄, and its heterostructure interface, additionally, were circled with number 1, 2, and 3 (Figure 1h), which were further identified according to the 0.32 and 0.42 nm lattice spacing in HRTEM images (Figure 1i–k). Besides, the elemental mappings (Figure 1l–r) and EDS profiles (Figure S4) evidently confirmed the successful regulation of hierarchical carbon-coated HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure.

At the same time, by managing different proportions of counterparts, the controllable morphology could also be obtained as displayed in Figure 2, indicating a feasibly applied strategy for the synthesis of the C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure. Though the morphology of solid In₂O₃ (S- In_2O_3) that was derived from calcining In-MOF in air was basically maintained, the excessive loss of carbon in S-In₂O₃ was ineluctable as the atomic concentration had seriously reduced to 5.73%, which also might be responsible for the narrower diameter at about 260 nm (Figure S5). However, the thinner In₂O₃ was not beneficial to the formation of the heterostructure any longer, as the growing of ZnIn₂S₄ on its surface required a large external contact area. Thus, the corresponding $S-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ composites as shown in Figure S6 barely maintained their appearance, and the heterostructure interfaces between S-In₂O₃ and ZnIn₂S₄ could not be clearly distinguished in this situation. Similar results were observed in the mechanical mixing of C/HT-In₂O₃ with ZnIn₂S₄ as shown in Figure S7-S8, and the heterostructure interfaces could not be identified at all. To clarify the effect of calcination conditions on the formation of C/HT-In₂O₃, thermogravimetry (TG) curves were further analyzed as shown in Figure S9-S10. The slowly



Figure 4. (a) Normalized XANES spectra. (b) FT-EXAFS spectra of In *K*-edge. (c,d) EXAFS fitting curves of *k* and *R* space in C/HT-In₂O₃; the purple balls and red balls represent In and O atoms, and the blue balls are N atoms. (e-f) Wavelet transform plots of commercial In₂O₃ and C/HT-In₂O₃.



Figure 5. (a–c) TEM and HRTEM images to observe the distribution of carbon in the $C/HT-In_2O_3$ sample. The determined lattice space of (d) derived In_2O_3 and (e) partially graphitized carbon species.

changing TG and DTG curves of In-MOF in nitrogen meant a stable pyrolysis process of metal organic framework below 400 $^{\circ}$ C, indicating that the protective atmosphere was necessary to stabilize the catalyst structure with carbon coated and the required temperature to form a stable frame was about 500 $^{\circ}$ C appropriately.

XRD patterns (Figure S11) showed that the diffraction peaks at 21.5°, 30.6°, 35.5°, 51.0° and 60.7° were well consistent with (211), (222), (400), (440), (622) crystal planes of indium oxide, indicating that the cubic In_2O_3 was the finally resulted nanomaterial and this sample was derived from calcining In-MOF in nitrogen atmosphere. As can be seen obviously, the



Figure 6. (a) LSV curves. (b) Tafel plots. (c) Photocurrent response of $C/HT-In_2O_3$ and $S-In_2O_3$ samples. (d) Time-dependent curves of H_2 evolution. (e) H_2 evolution rate with gradient proportions of the counterpart in catalysts. (f) H_2 generation activity of comparative samples. (g) Cycle stability test. (h) Temperature-dependent induced $C/HT-In_2O_3$ coupling with $ZnIn_2S_4$ (1:2) catalysts for H_2 generation. (i) Apparent quantum efficiencies under 320, 350, 400, 420, and 450 nm at monochromatic light.

appeared peaks at 21.6°, 27.7°, 47.2°, 52.4°, and 55.6° corresponded well to (006), (102), (110), (116), and (022) crystal planes of hexagonal ZnIn₂S₄,^{31,32} and were all displayed in C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ accompanied with cubic In₂O₃ (Figure 3a). The enhanced peak intensity of C/HT-In₂O₃ was clearly observed with an increase in the proportion, suggesting the successful synthesis of a heterostructure with high crystallinity. Raman spectra demonstrated the partially graphitized carbon in C/HT-In₂O₃ as the intensity of the D band was weaker than that of the G band (Figure 3b) and graphitized carbon had been widely reported to facilitate electron transfer, leading to an enhanced photocatalytic reaction.^{33–35} However, the increased I_D/I_G value of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2) implied a slight damage to the graphitized carbon in simply hydrothermal synthesis process. The optical properties (Figure 3c) illustrated a superior light absorption capacity of carbon-coated HT-In₂O₃,

and the optical performance of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure was largely affected by the different mass proportions of components, in which gradually elevated contents of C/HT- In_2O_3 tended to promote stronger light absorption capacity of a heterostructure because of the increased carbon contents,³ whereas too much carbon in C/HT-In₂O₃ might be useless to boost photocatalytic reaction because of the blocked carrier flow process.³⁷ The XPS survey spectra (Figure S12) revealed the existence of Zn, In, S, O, N elements, and the high-resolution XPS spectra of C and N in C/HT-In₂O₃ are shown in Figure 3d,e. The binding energies located at 284.6, 285.8, and 288.0 eV of C 1s could be attributed to the contaminated carbon, C-N bond, and C=O bond,³⁸ while the divided peaks at 398.6 and 400.2 eV of N 1s were assigned to lattice N and C-N bond.³⁹ Though the similar binding energy position of N 1s in the XPS spectrum could be found at ca. 398.6 eV, 40,41 the main In₂O₃

Table 1. Comparison of the Photocatalytic Activity of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ Sample with Different Catalysts for H₂ Production under Simulated Sunlight Irradiation

catalysts	overall H_2 evolution $(\mu mol/g)^a$	overall H_2 evolution $(\mu mol/m^2)^b$	$\frac{S_{\rm BET}}{({\rm m}^2/{\rm g})^c}$
ZnIn ₂ S ₄	12314	139.6	88.2
C/HT-In ₂ O ₃	3406	69.5	49.0
C/HT - $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ (1:4)	26462	758.2	34.9
C/HT - $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ (1:2)	37466	920.5	40.7
C/HT - $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ (1:1)	52400	433.1	121.0
$C/HT\text{-}In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4\ (2{:}1)$	47684	415.7	114.7
$C/HT-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ (4:1)	6288	67.3	93.5
D-In ₂ O ₃ /ZnIn ₂ S ₄	12576	535.1	23.5
C-In ₂ O ₃ /ZnIn ₂ S ₄	14408	184.5	78.1
mechanical mixing	18080	350.4	51.6
$S-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$	30360	177.5	171.0
$C/HT\text{-}In_2O_3\text{-}450/ZnIn_2S_4$	38776	500.9	77.4
$C/HT\text{-}In_2O_3\text{-}550/ZnIn_2S_4$	34322	356.4	96.3

^{*a*}Overall H₂ amount produced after 4 h of light irradiation per unit mass of catalyst. ^{*b*}Overall H₂ amount produced after 4 h of light irradiation per unit surface area of catalyst. ^{*c*}Measured BET surface area.

containing system was totally different from the reported In oxynitrides and InN substances as confirmed by the above XRD patterns. The attributable peaks of C 1s and N 1s in C/HT-In₂O₃ samples initially certificated the coexistence of lattice N atoms and coated carbon species, which were all expected to be from In-MOF precursor and fixed in hollow tubular In₂O₃ during pyrolysis. Moreover, the O 1s spectra (Figure 3f) mainly consisted of lattice O (530.0 eV), C=O (531.4 eV), and O–H group (533.0 eV), which might come from the adsorbed surface water molecules.^{42,43} After coupling with the ZnIn₂S₄ thin-layer, unapparent binding energy shifts of Zn 2p, In 3d, and S 2p were observed (Figure S13), confirming a stable surface chemical composition of the as-prepared C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2) heterostructure.

3.2. Determination of Coordinated In–N–In Sites. To accurately confirm the local species in C/HT-In₂O₃, the corresponding hard X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) were investigated. Results showed that unobvious changes of XANES spectra between commercial In₂O₃ (C- In_2O_3) and C/HT-In_2O_3 were observed as exhibited in Figure 4a, while EXAFS clearly revealed a different coordinated structure of C-In2O3 and C/HT-In2O3 (Figure 4b, Figure S14–S15). For C/HT-In₂O₃, the fitting results in K and R space (Figure 4c,d) were further analyzed, and the first peak of *R* space in EXAFS curve could be cocontributed by dominant In-O and In-N coordinated species at about ~1.65 Å. The detailed fitting parameters are listed in Tables S1-S2. Wavelet transform (WT) EXAFS plots (Figure 4e,f) also demonstrated the signal of coordinated In-N sites in C/HT-In₂O₃ in comparison with that of the other counterpart. These results all brought insight into the local structural of In species at the atomic level that were coordinated by both O and N atoms in C/HT-In₂O₃, which were in good agreement with XPS analysis. Combining the coordinated In-N sites with the above evidence had confirmed the existence of lattice N in C/HT-In₂O₃ samples by the determination of XPS results; thus, the In-N-In sites could be subsequently proposed. What's more, the microporous structure with a large surface area of In-MOF (483 $m^2 g^{-1}$) is presented in

Figure S16, providing energetic advantages for the homogeneous formation of In–N–In sites dispersing in hollow tubular structure. Notably, the seriously reduced surface area of C/HT-In₂O₃ (49 m² g⁻¹) indicated a damaged pore structure of In-MOF in pyrolysis process (Figure S17), and the increased surface area of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ might be caused by the regular arrangement of thin-layered ZnIn₂S₄ flakes as proved in Figure S18.

3.3. Revelation of Carbon Species. The potential function of carbon in this system was another important aspect that is worthy to be investigated because a large percentage of carbon content (30.55%) had been confirmed in the as-prepared C/ HT-In₂O₃. Though the characteristic XRD diffraction peak of carbon in C/HT-In₂O₃ did not appear, the partially graphitized carbon had been indeed confirmed on the basis of the above Raman analysis. Moreover, the random distribution of carbon and observation of the lattice space of partially graphitized carbon around In₂O₃ samples as marked in Figure 5 strongly proved the formation of carbon species accompanied with the stabilization of In-N-In sites in the pyrolysis process. However, the EXAFS result did not expose any carbon atoms that were linked to In clusters in C/HT-In₂O₃ samples. Therefore, based on the evidence collected so far, the main existence of coated carbon was still a large number of amorphous state that stacked randomly. From the perspective of material synthesis, the stacked carbon maintained the necessary diameter of C/HT-In₂O₃ for the growth of crystal ZnIn₂S₄ because the thicker tube might not provide enough grasping surface to equalize the distribution of $ZnIn_2S_4$, leading to a redundant coated $ZnIn_2S_4$ mode as shown in Figure S19. The function of carbon on material synthesis was one aspect, but more importantly, the high electric conductivity of carbon was decisive as it had been widely investigated and reported for promoting the separation and transfer of photogenerated charge carriers in boosting photocatalytic activity.^{44,45}

3.4. Photoelectrochemical Activity and Photocatalytic Hydrogen Evolution Performance. To objectively evaluate the promotion of carbon on charge migration, the photoelectrochemical activity of different S-In2O3 samples that calcined In-MOF in air for 60 and 120 min were investigated and compared with that of C/HT-In₂O₃. Under simulated sunlight irradiation, the optimum linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves of C/HT-In₂O₃ samples (Figure 6a) illustrated the considerable transfer and separation of photoinduced carriers than $S-In_2O_{34}^{46}$ in which the current density was gradually decreased with carbon burned away, proving the importance of carbon for the transmission of electrons to participate in the reduction of water to hydrogen. Similar results were also observed in the Tafel slope as shown in Figure 6b, where with the assistance of carbon for electron migration, a slope of C/HT- In_2O_3 catalyst was calculated at 396 mV dec⁻¹, smaller than the other S-In₂O₃ catalysts, confirming the benefits of conductive carbon to electron migration for hydrogen evolution.⁴⁷ In addition, the comparison of photocurrent curves (Figure 6c) fully gave a positive support to the above conclusion. In general, the derived carbon accelerated the charge-transfer efficiency as an electronic transmission bridge in C/HT-In₂O₃ samples, resulting in an enhanced photoelectrochemical activity.

Though lots of determination of photocatalytic hydrogen evolution (PHE) rates with per mass of catalyst as unit had been reported, the relationship between PHE rates and mass of catalysts was not necessarily linear, and the geometric effects might also contribute to the reactions, which could not



Figure 7. TEM images of (a) used C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2). (b–d) Observation of deposited Pt nanoparticle. (e) XRD patterns of fresh (black line) and used (red line) photocatalysts. (f–h) High-resolution XPS spectra of In, S, Zn after recycling over C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2).

accurately measure the actual efficiency of the catalyst anymore.^{48,49} To express with a more scientific way, the PHE performance was thoroughly normalized by measuring the surface area of the catalysts.^{50,51} The apparent observation of a series of comparative catalysts were shown in Figure S20, and the nitrogen sorption isotherms of various catalysts were supplemented in Figures S21-S22. It could be seen that the pristine ZnIn₂S₄ played a dominant catalyst in photocatalytic hydrogen generation, giving an evolution of 139.6 μ mol/m² during 4 h of reaction, while for pristine C/HT-In₂O₃, only an amount of 69.5 μ mol/m² of H₂ was released (Figure 6d). Nonetheless, a substantially increased PHE rates was achieved after constructing the C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure (1:2), bringing to an amount of 230.1 μ mol/m²/h at the highest level for hydrogen evolution, about 6.6 and 13.2 times higher than that of pristine $ZnIn_2S_4$ and $C/HT-In_2O_3$ (set as base 1), respectively (Figure 6e). Comparison of PHE performance with reported literatures was summarized in Table S3, illustrating the superior photocatalytic activity among ZnIn₂S₄-based materials. In addition, the mass ratio of C/HT-In₂O₃ in heterostructure regularly affected the PHE reactions and the difference of

catalytic activity caused by gradient ratio of C/HT-In₂O₃ could be analyzed according to the morphologic diversity (Figure 2), in which thickly covered ZnIn₂S₄ prevented C/HT-In₂O₃ from being irradiated and stimulated, meaning a nearly single component of ZnIn₂S₄ acted on this occasion rather than a heterostructure. On the contrary, a small amount of ZnIn₂S₄ seriously reduced the catalytic activity because it was the main active substrate for the trigger of PHE reactions. Meanwhile, the PHE performance of several comparative samples were also investigated as shown in Figure 6f, demonstrating the superior activity of the targeted C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure. A cyclic stability test of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2) without any sacrificial supply was also evaluated by operating reactions for successive five cycles, and the steadily increased hydrogen evolution curves with little fluctuation showed an excellent hydrogen evolution ability (Figure 6g). More importantly, the PHE activity of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2) in a real water environment was also estimated, and an obvious hydrogen production in tap and river water bodies was subsequently exhibited (Figures S23-S25), all confirming a potential promising catalyst of the as-prepared C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄. It



Figure 8. (a) Steady-state PL spectra. (b) Time-resolved PL spectra. (c) Transient photocurrent responses. (d) EIS Nyquist plots of synthesized photocatalysts. Note: the proportion of C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄ was set at 1:2.

was noted that different calcination-temperature-induced C/ HT-In₂O₃ affected PHE performance distinctly after coupling with $ZnIn_2S_4$, as exhibited in Figure 6h. Possible reasons might be ascribed to the different amount of formed In-N-In sites that had anchored in C/HT-In2O3 within the temperature range. Additionally, the selectivity of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (1:2) to sacrificial agent was thoroughly examined, and results showed that the weak alkaline benefited a lot (Figure S26). As a conclusion, to be more intuitive, all the overall photocatalytic H₂ evolution activities both with the unit of μ mol/g and μ mol/m² are shown in Table 1, where indeed it is illustrated that the highest catalytic H₂ efficiency per mass of catalysts did not mean the strongest focus spot with the unit of per surface area. Furthermore, the almost positive correlation between PHE performance and wavelength of incident light proved that the stronger light absorption intensity would excite more carriers and led to a higher catalytic activity as shown in Figure 6i. It was also noted that the apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) was largely affected by the wavelength of incident light, and the optimized AQE at 350 nm ran up to 12.18%, a relatively high value in $ZnIn_2S_4$ composites until now (Tables S3-S4). However, the lower AQE in the ultraviolet region would be associated with the natural characteristics of catalyst that mainly responded under visible light, and the inactive state of catalysts in the wavelength beyond 420 nm might be caused by the insufficient light energy utilization. On the whole, the H₂ generation activity, together with the higher reported AQE

value, signified a useful catalyst of $C/HT\text{-}In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ for photocatalytic reactions.

3.5. Stability Test of Photocatalysts. The recycling of the catalyst was an important part of stability assessment;⁵² ³ thus, the property testing experiments of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ after utilization were further conducted by observing morphology, XRD patterns and XPS spectra. First of all, the change of morphology was one of the most direct indicators to reflect the stability of photocatalyst. The retained hierarchically hollow tubular heterostructure, therefore, indicated inconspicuous morphology changes before and after use (Figure 7a), proving the structural stability of the as-synthesized photocatalysts for PHE reactions. Besides, the clear observation of Pt nanoparticles that deposited on the surface of $ZnIn_2S_4$ thin-layer (Figure 7bd, Figure S27) further favored the effective reduction of protons to hydrogen and boosted PHE performance due to the more provided photocatalytic center sites.⁵⁴ The observation and statistically significant diameter of deposited Pt nanoparticles on the surface of ZnIn₂S₄-based catalysts were proved to be similar at about 7-8 nm as shown in Figure S28, indicating that the improvement of catalytic performance was originated from the microstructure of the catalyst itself, not the size and distribution of the Pt cocatalyst. The recovered crystal composition could also be useful to measure the stability of catalysts; however, the insignificant XRD patterns revealed the perfectly reserved crystallinity of used C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ as shown in Figure 7e, demonstrating the superior stability of the as-prepared photocatalysts. Furthermore, XPS spectra of In 3d, S 2p, Zn 2p



Figure 9. (a,c) Atomically fabricated structures. (b,d) Density of states (DOS) for the $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ and $C/HT-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructures. The Fermi level of the heterostructure was set as the reference zero. Colors in (a,c): purple balls are In; yellow balls are S; gray balls are Zn; red balls are O; blue balls are N. Colors in (b,d): Black line is total DOS; red line is projected DOS (PDOS) of $ZnIn_2S_4$; blue line is PDOS of In_2O_3 or $C/HT-In_2O_3$; green line is PDOS of N. The magnitude of PDOS for In_2O_3 , $C/HT-In_2O_3$, and N is amplified by 3 fold.

(Figure 7f–h) released a similar peak signal without obvious decline in comparison with that of the fresh catalysts, in which the weak peak emerged at around 169 eV of S 2p spectra could be well ascribed to the oxidized state of SO_4^{2-} that came from the sacrificial agent, guaranteeing a stable chemical composition environment in the heterostructure. These results all synthetically supported the superior stability of the C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure after suffering long-time PHE cyclic utilization.

3.6. The Investigation of Charge-Transfer Behaviors. To deeply reveal the charge separation/recombination efficiency of different samples, the photoelectrochemical characterizations were correspondingly carried out. According to the principle of solid state photoluminescence (PL), the more photogenerated electrons and holes combined, the stronger the fluorescence signal would be.⁵⁵ Thus, the decreased steady-state PL spectrum of the heterostructure indicated an effectively blocked recombination of charge carriers in comparison with pristine $ZnIn_2S_4$ (Figure 8a). Moreover, the charge-carrier decay dynamics of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ (Figure 8b) displayed an average lifetime of 7.16 ns, which was longer than that of pure $ZnIn_2S_4$ (1.47 ns) based on the fitting results, further proving the less recombination and faster charge separation efficiency.⁵ The investigation of charge transfer was also examined by the behavior of photocurrent under simulated sunlight irradiation.⁵⁸ The strongest photocurrent response during five light-on and

light-off cycles caused by the rapidly transient charge transfer confirmed the optimal capability for separating carriers of heterostructure as shown in Figure 8c. Additionally, the smallest semicircle Nyquist plots (Figure 8d) induced by lower resistance for charge migrating intuitively demonstrated an accelerated charge transfer of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure, ^{59,60} while the large arc radius reflected the poor performance of a single component for electron transmission. These photoelectrochemical results all identically revealed the significantly inhibited recombination of charger behaviors and fast transfer efficiency, resulting in an enhanced photocatalytic performance, which was consistent with the hydrogen evolution results.

3.7. Theoretical Calculation. To obtain the band alignment, the atomic structure and density of states (DOS) of $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ and $C/HT-In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructure were additionally calculated according to density functional theory (DFT) method. Using our recently developed interface prediction method,⁶¹ we first constructed the $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructure and investigated the electronic structures, as shown in Figure 9a. To model the interface, we glued two slab models consisting of 0.5 nm In_2O_3 and 2 nm $ZnIn_2S_4$ layers in a surface supercell with dimensions 10.40×14.09 Å²; altogether, this corresponded to 234 atoms per unit cell. The orientation relationships of the $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructure were $(110)_{In2O3}/(001)_{ZnIn2S4}$. Both $ZnIn_2S_4$ and In_2O_3 were semiconductors, with bandgaps of 0.7 and 2.5 eV, respectively. The



Figure 10. Illustration of the formation mechanism of staggered C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure and possibly smooth interfacial charge-transfer pathways.

density of states (DOS) in Figure 9b showed that the valence band maximum (VBM) and conduction band minimum (CBM) of $ZnIn_2S_4$ were -0.2 and 0.5 eV relative to the Fermi level, while VBM and CBM of In_2O_3 were -1.8 and 0.6 eV relative to the Fermi level. As a result, the $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructure had a Type-I straddling gap. Next, we investigated the electronic structures of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ as shown in Figure 9c,d. In the C/HT-In₂O₃, 2% O atoms were replaced by N. Our results showed that ZnIn₂S₄ had a bandgap of 0.8 eV, similar to that in pure In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄. However, C/HT-In₂O₃ had a new peak around the Fermi level, which decreased its bandgap to 1.8 eV, smaller than that in pure $In_2O_3/ZnIn_2S_4$ heterostructure (i.e., 2.5 eV). More importantly, the band diagram of C/HT-In $_2O_3/$ $ZnIn_2S_4$ changed to a type-II staggered gap, where VBM of C/ HT-In₂O₃ was higher than that of ZnIn₂S₄. These results indicated that the lattice In-N-In sites not only induced the narrow band gap of C/HT-In₂O₃ (Figure S29) but also favored the formation of staggered heterostructure for boosting charge separation.

3.8. Possible Photocatalytic Mechanism. From the aspects of experimental results, to understand the conduction band (CB) of C/HT-In₂O₃ and ZnIn₂S₄, a Mott–Schottky plot of each counterpart was acquired as shown in Figure S30. Usually about 0.2 V difference between SCE and normal hydrogen electrode (NHE) existed;⁶² thus, the accurate CB of C/HT-In₂O₃ and ZnIn₂S₄ was predicted to be -0.71 and -0.51 V, which all met the potential requirement of reducing H⁺ to hydrogen. To make clear the valence band (VB) of C/HT-In₂O₃

and ZnIn₂S₄, valence-band XPS spectra as well as Kubelka–Munk conversion were analyzed. 63,64 The valence band (VB) of C/HT-In₂O₃ was then estimated at 1.90 V according to $E_{\rm NHE}/V$ = Φ + 2.51 eV - 4.44⁶⁵ ($E_{\rm NHE}$: potential of normal hydrogen electrode and Φ of 3.83 eV: the electron work function of the analyzer) and the band gap of $ZnIn_2S_4$ was about ~2.46 eV as shown in Figure S31. Therefore, the specifically matched band structure of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ and possible transfer pathways of photoinduced carriers are displayed in Figure S32, consisting well with the computational results. Putting these theoretical and experimental results together, the possible photocatalytic mechanism for boosting interfacial charge transfer and enhancing hydrogen evolution was eventually proposed as exhibited in Figure 10. The excited carriers all migrated from In2O3 to ZnIn2S4 as observed in straddling heterostructure upon light irradiation, and this kind of moving path in the same direction failed to promote the separation of charges, leading to an aggravated recombination and reduced photocatalytic performance in the In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ photocatalyst. On the contrary, with a narrowed valence band of $C/HT-In_2O_3$ by In-N-In sites anchored in the heterostructure of C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄, a model of photocatalytic mechanism had turned to a staggered one, and this bidirectional transfer pathway favored the fast separation of electrons and hole pairs as much as possible when reactions occurred, resulting in the boosted interfacial charge transfer and enhanced photocatalytic hydrogen evolution performance understandably. Besides, on the basis of stronger electron donating ability of In-N-In sites and high

electronic conduction of carbon for charge separation from C/ $HT-In_2O_3$ to $ZnIn_2S_4$, the smooth distribution and conducive transfer of carriers at the interface of heterostructure were also responsible for the enhancement of photocatalytic activity.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, a hierarchically C/HT-In₂O₃/ZnIn₂S₄ heterostructure was directionally fabricated by growing ZnIn₂S₄ thinlayer on the carbon-coated hollow tubular In_2O_3 (C/HT-In₂O₃) as targeted catalyst for photocatalytic hydrogen generation. On one hand, the particular structure of C/HT-In₂O₃ derived from In-MOF retained coordinated composition of In-N-In species, which deduced narrow band gap of In₂O₃ and favored the formation of staggered heterostructure for boosting charger transfer between C/HT-In₂O₃ and ZnIn₂S₄. On the other hand, the high electronic bridge function of carbon for promoting charge separation from C/HT-In₂O₃ to ZnIn₂S₄ counterpart further accelerate the protonation process, synergistically resulting in a significant promotion of photocatalytic hydrogen evolution performance. However, the detailed effect of temperature-induced composition and amount of In-N-In sites on improving the photocatalytic performance was still in progress.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.0c05520.

Additional details on chemical reagents, materials characterization, theoretical calculation methods; SEM images, TEM images, EDS spectra, mapping profiles; TG and DTG curves; XRD patterns; higher resolution of XPS spectra; EXAFS fitting parameters and results; N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms; photocatalytic hydrogen production in tap and river water; effect of sacrificial agents on photocatalytic performance; narrowed band gap of C/HT-In₂O₃ by In–N–In sites; Mott–Schottky plots; Valence-band XPS spectra; schematic illustration of transfer pathways of photogenerated carriers; comparison of photocatalytic hydrogen evolution with reported literatures; summarized data for AQE calculation (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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