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Multi-node CdS hetero-nanowires grown with defect-rich oxygen-doped MoS₂ ultrathin nanosheets for efficient visible-light photocatalytic H₂ evolution

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ABSTRACT

Developing low-cost and high-efficiency photocatalysts for hydrogen production from solar water splitting is intriguing but challenging. In this study, unique one-dimensional (1D) multi-node MoS₂/CdS hetero-nanowires (NWs) for efficient visible-light photocatalytic H₂ evolution are synthesized via a facile hydrothermal method. Flower-like sheaths are assembled from numerous defect-rich O-incorporated {0001} MoS₂ ultrathin nanosheets (NSs), and {11 $\bar{2}$ 0}-facet surrounded CdS NW stems are grown preferentially along the *c*-axis. Interestingly, the defects in the MoS₂ NSs provide additional active S atoms on the exposed edge sites, and the incorporation of O reduces the energy barrier for H₂ evolution and increases the electric conductivity of the MoS₂ NSs. Moreover, the recombination of photoinduced charge carriers is significantly inhibited by the heterojunction formed between the MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs. Therefore, in the absence of noble metals as co-catalysts, the 1D MoS₂ NS/CdS NW hybrids exhibit an excellent H₂-generation rate of 10.85 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ and a quantum yield of 22.0% at $\lambda = 475$ nm, which is far better than those of Pt/CdS NWs, pure MoS₂ NSs, and CdS NWs as well as their physical mixtures. Our results contribute to the rational construction of highly reactive nanostructures for various catalytic applications.

1 Introduction

Recently, energy shortage has been a significant threat to the sustainable development of humans [1]. To meet the future fuel demands, the production of H₂ from water splitting by utilizing sunlight is regarded as

a promising solution [2]. Thus, considerable efforts have been directed toward exploring efficient semiconductor photocatalysts for H₂ formation. Among the semiconducting materials, CdS is of great interest owing to its effective absorption of sunlight, suitable band-structure alignment, and simple fabrication [3, 4].

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Nevertheless, pure CdS is usually not active and stable towards photocatalytic H₂ generation [5]. Recently, noble metals, transition metals, and layered transition-metal dichalcogenides (TMDs, such as MoS₂ and WS₂) [6] have been extensively utilized as co-catalysts [7, 8] for CdS, exhibiting enhanced H₂ formation activities owing to the dramatically reduced recombination of charge carriers [9, 10]. Because of the low-cost, rich-deposit, and unique layered structure of TMDs, integrating CdS with TMDs to form hybrids is an attractive method for improving the capability of photoinduced H₂ production.

In heterogeneous catalysis, it is widely considered that smaller nanoparticles with larger surface areas are more reactive towards catalytic reactions than larger ones. However, in reality, irregular nanoparticles with smaller sizes do not always exhibit better activity in catalysis and other surface structure-sensitive reactions [11–13]. The architecture and active sites on specific facets of nanomaterials play a critical role in obtaining outstanding properties. Currently, the design and morphology-controlled synthesis of nanostructures with well-defined reactive crystal planes has become one of the most popular research topics [14–20]. The unsaturated S atoms on the exposed edges of MoS₂ nanosheets (NSs) are the active sites for H₂ generation [21–23]. The under-coordinated S and Cd atoms on the lateral facets of CdS nanowires (NWs) can also be catalytic active sites. Additionally, compared with zero-dimensional nanoparticles, owing to the quantum confinement in the longitudinal and transverse directions of NSs and NWs, respectively, electrons can be transferred selectively along the two-dimensional and one-dimensional (1D) space, which favors the separation of electron–hole pairs, promoting the photocatalytic reactions.

For most of the reported MoS₂/CdS systems, the products were CdS nanoparticles coated with MoS₂ layers [24, 25], in which the amount of active edge S atoms of MoS₂ layers and the surface reactive S and Cd atoms of CdS nanoparticles were decreased with calcination treatment. Moreover, the granular CdS component is unfavorable for the directional transfer of charge carriers [26]. In this study, novel 1D segmented-flower MoS₂/CdS hetero-NWs were prepared under hydrothermal conditions. The flowers comprised

numerous defect-abundant O-incorporated MoS₂ {0001} ultrathin NSs, and the backbones of the CdS NWs were exposed predominantly by {11 $\bar{2}$ 0}. Importantly, the defects introduced into the MoS₂ NSs provided additional active S edge sites for H₂ evolution. A lower energy barrier for H₂ generation and a higher electric conductivity were achieved by incorporating the MoS₂ NSs with O [27]. Furthermore, an intimate heterojunction was formed between the MoS₂ and CdS, which promoted the fast separation and transfer of photogenerated electrons and holes. Benefiting from the above advantages, the 1D multi-node hetero-NWs exhibited excellent activity for photocatalytic H₂ evolution compared with Pt/CdS NWs, pure MoS₂ NSs, and CdS NWs, as well as their physical mixtures.

2 Experimental

All the chemicals were of analytic grade and purchased from SCRC, Shanghai Co., Ltd. They were used for the sample preparation without further purification.

2.1 Synthesis of CdS NWs

In a routine preparation, 0.08 g of Cd(Ac)₂·2H₂O and 0.016 g of S powder were dispersed into 9 mL of ethylenediamine under agitation. After stirring for ~45 min, a light yellow suspension was formed, which was then transferred into a 10-mL autoclave and kept at 200 °C for 5 h. Finally, the yellow product was washed with ethanol by centrifugation three times and dried under vacuum conditions.

2.2 Synthesis of MoS₂ NSs

The MoS₂ NSs were synthesized by a previously reported method with some modifications [28]. In a typical procedure, 0.03 g of Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O and 0.06 g of thioacetamide were dissolved in 20 mL of water with ~20 min of agitation. Subsequently, the solution was put into a 40-mL autoclave and heated at 200 °C for 24 h. After the reaction, the black product was rinsed with ethanol by centrifugation three times before being dried in a vacuum oven.

2.3 Synthesis of MoS₂ NS/CdS NW hybrids

A specified amount of prepared CdS NWs was added

to 20 mL of water under ultrasonication. The suspension was further sonicated for ~5 min before it was moved to an agitator. Next, 0.04 g glucose was dissolved in the suspension with 2 min of agitation, and then 0.03 g of $\text{Na}_2\text{MoO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.06 g of thioacetamide were added to the suspension. The mixture was stirred for 20 min. Subsequently, the suspension was transferred into a 40-mL autoclave and kept at 200 °C for 24 h. The product was cleaned with ethanol by centrifugation three times and dried in the vacuum oven. It was denoted as MC x ($x = 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30, \text{ or } 0.35$), where x represents the quantity (in grams) of CdS NWs used. For comparison, an experiment was performed without using glucose.

2.4 Characterizations

The crystal phases of the products were detected via X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis using a Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer employing Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed using a Thermo Fisher ESCALAB 250 Xi spectrometer with monochromatic Al K α X-ray sources (1486.6 eV) at 2.0 kV and 20 mA. Raman signals were collected using a LabRAM HR Evolution Raman spectrometer. Ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) absorption spectra were recorded using a Shimadzu UV 3600 spectrometer. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), high-resolution TEM (HRTEM), dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM), and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) element mapping were performed using an FEI Tecnai G2 F20 S-Twin microscope operated at 200 kV. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed using a Hitachi S5500 Field Emission Gun Scanning Electron Microscope at 5 kV. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) specific surface areas and pore-size distributions were measured using a Micromeritics Tristar 3020 II automatic adsorption instrument. Inductively coupled plasma (ICP) emission spectroscopy was performed using 2RIS Intrepid II XSP ICP-OES equipment. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and differential thermal analysis (DTA) were performed using a NETZSCH STA 449F3 analyzer with Ar as the protection gas. The electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) signals were obtained at 113 K using a JEOL FA-200 spectrometer. The photoluminescence (PL)

spectra were obtained using a Varian Cary Eclipse Fluorescence spectrophotometer under excitation by laser light at $\lambda = 400 \text{ nm}$.

2.5 Photoelectrochemical performance

Photoelectrochemical water reduction was conducted for photocathodes of CdS NWs, MoS $_2$ NSs, and MoS $_2$ /CdS composites using a three-electrode CHI 650D electrochemical workstation. The counter electrode was a Pt sheet, and the reference electrode was a saturated calomel electrode (SCE). For the preparation of the working electrode, the catalyst suspension (200 μL , 5 $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ in ethanol) was dropped onto the F-doped s glass (2 cm \times 2 cm) surface, forming a film after drying naturally for 24 h, and then the catalyst-decorated working electrodes were calcined at 450 °C for 1 h to counter the peeling of the catalyst that occurred during the measurement. An aqueous solution containing 0.5 M Na $_2$ S and 0.5 M Na $_2$ SO $_3$ was used as the electrolyte. The photoelectrochemical activity was measured using the linear-sweep voltammetry method with a scanning rate of 10 $\text{mV}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and a bias potential of 0.01 mV. A 300-W Xe lamp equipped with a 400-nm cutoff filter was employed for the irradiation, and a shutter was used to modulate the light and dark conditions during the test.

2.6 Electrochemical measurements

Galvanostatic electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed using a Princeton workstation with the same three-electrode setup that was used for the photoelectrochemical water reduction, with a 0.5 M Na $_2$ SO $_4$ aqueous solution as the electrolyte. The amplitude and frequency range were 0.1 mA and 0.1–10 5 Hz, respectively. A bias current of 0.3 mA was utilized for the test.

The Mott–Schottky curves were also examined using the Princeton workstation employing the same three-electrode configuration that was used for the photoelectrochemical water reduction with the 0.5 M Na $_2$ SO $_4$ aqueous electrolyte. Here, the amplitude and frequency were 0.01 V and 1 kHz, respectively.

2.7 Photocatalytic property of H $_2$ evolution

The photocatalytic H $_2$ -generation activities of CdS

NWs, MoS₂ NSs, Pt/CdS NWs, a physical mixture of MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, and MoS₂/CdS hybrids were measured with visible-light irradiation. Before each test, 0.1 g of the catalyst was dispersed in 100 mL of a lactic-acid aqueous solution (10 vol.%) after ultrasonication for ~5 min. To determine the effect of the lactic-acid concentration on the H₂ formation, the volume of lactic acid was changed to 10, 20, 30, 50, and 70 mL. The reactions were conducted using a photocatalytic H₂ evolution system furnished by PerfectLight, Beijing Co., Ltd. The visible-light source was a 300-W Xe lamp equipped with a 400-nm cutoff filter. To determine the quantum yields of photocatalytic H₂ generation with different irradiation wavelengths, bandpass filters of 420, 450, 475, 500, and 520 nm were used for the reaction. The testing temperature was maintained at 5 °C using a homeothermic cooling circulation pump. A gas chromatograph containing a thermal-conductivity detector was used to detect online the formation of H₂ every hour.

The quantum yield was calculated using the following equation [29]

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Quantum yield} &= \frac{\text{Number of reacted electrons}}{\text{Number of incident photons}} \times 100\% \\ &= \frac{2 \times \text{number of formed H}_2 \text{ molecules}}{\text{Number of incident photons}} \times 100\% \\ &= \frac{2 \times N_{\text{H}_2}}{N_i} \times 100\% \\ &= \frac{2 \times N_{\text{H}_2}}{\frac{I \times A \times t \times \lambda}{h \times c}} \times 100\% \end{aligned}$$

Here, N is the number of electrons, photons, or molecules; I is the light intensity; $A = 24.6 \text{ cm}^2$ ($r = 2.8 \text{ cm}$) is the irradiation area; $t = 3,600 \text{ s}$ is the irradiation time; λ is the wavelength of incident light (nm); $h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}$ is the Planck constant; and $c = 3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ is the speed of light.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Morphology and structural characterizations of MoS₂/CdS heterostructures (HRSs)

The CdS NWs were prepared using an ethylenediamine-

assisted solvothermal method, and the MoS₂ NSs were obtained under hydrothermal conditions. For the construction of MoS₂ NS/CdS NW composites (denoted as MC x , where $x = 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30,$ or 0.35 and is the input amount (grams) of CdS NWs), MoS₂ NSs were grown on the surface of CdS NWs via the hydrothermal method. The XRD patterns for the MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, and their hybrids are shown in Fig. 1(a). The signals corresponding to CdS are evident for all the composites; however, the MoS₂ signal is only observed at higher loading percentages, such as MC0.05 and MC0.10, possibly because of the small amount and weak crystallinity (broadened diffraction peaks) of the MoS₂ NSs in the HRSs. For the individual CdS NWs and their hybrids, all the diffraction peaks of CdS can be assigned to the wurtzite structure (JCPDS card No. 80-0006). Interestingly, compared with the pristine 2H-MoS₂ phase (JCPDS card No. 75-1539), the (002) diffraction peak of the synthesized MoS₂ NSs was significantly shifted from ~14° to a position lower than 10°, indicating the formation of a new lamellar structure [27] with enlarged interlayer spacing (d spacing increased from 6.26 to 9.50 Å). In accordance with the XRD results, the Raman signals shown in Fig. 1(b) confirm the phase purity of the CdS NWs (1LO 302 cm⁻¹) [30, 31] and MoS₂ NSs (E_{2g}¹ 380 cm⁻¹, A_{1g} 404 cm⁻¹) [32, 33] in the individual products and their composites. Mo–O bond vibrations (B_{2g} 282 cm⁻¹, B_{1g} 337 cm⁻¹) [27, 34] were identified in both the MoS₂ NSs and the MoS₂/CdS HRSs (e.g., MC0.05), suggesting the incorporation of O in the MoS₂ crystal structure. As previously reported [27], MoS₂ ultrathin NSs with an increased interlamellar spacing are accompanied by O incorporation (existing as Mo–O bonds). In contrast to the MoS₂ NSs prepared by Zhou W. [28] and Weng B. [35], our MoS₂ NSs exhibited a dramatic shift of the (002) XRD diffraction to a lower angle, which shows that the layer spacing of our MoS₂ NSs was far larger than those of the former two. Weng et al. [35] employed a reaction volume of 50 mL, which is larger than the volume of 40 mL used in our synthesis. Interestingly, when the reaction temperature was increased from 200 to 220 °C, the (002) XRD peak of the MoS₂ NSs product (Figs. S1 and S2 in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)) moved to the same position

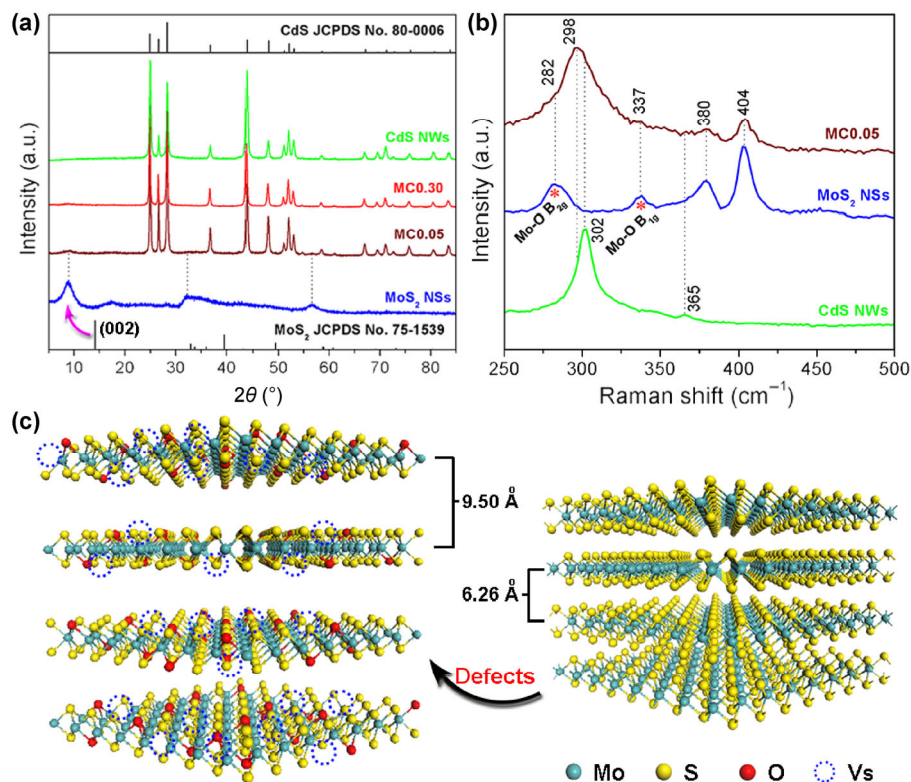


Figure 1 (a) XRD patterns for MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, and hybrids of MC0.05 and MC0.30. (b) Raman spectra for MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, and MC0.05. (c) Atomic modes showing the enlargement of the interlayer spacing when the O and S vacancies were incorporated in the MoS₂ structure.

as that of the reference JCPDS card (No. 75-1539), indicating that the interlayer spacing of the MoS₂ product decreased to the common value of 6.26 Å. Moreover, the Mo–O bonds were absent in the MoS₂ NSs fabricated at 220 °C (Fig. S3 in the ESM), which precludes the O doping in this product. Therefore, the O doping in the MoS₂ ultrathin NSs could have been due to the lower synthesis temperature and insufficient reaction course, which caused part of the Mo–O bonds from the molybdate precursor to remain in the obtained MoS₂ NSs.

To identify the reason for the expansion of the interlayer spacing of our MoS₂ NSs, the TGA and DTA curves of the O-incorporated MoS₂ NSs were measured in the temperature range of 50 to 600 °C (Fig. S4 in the ESM). We observed little weight loss and no apparent endothermic or exothermic peak. Thus, the notable increase in the layer spacing of our MoS₂ NSs is mainly attributed to their specific structure rather than the intercalated molecules. MoS₂ is a layered material [36] composed of covalently bonded

S–Mo–S sheets that are bound by weak van der Waals forces. The bond length of Mo–O is smaller than that of Mo–S; thus, the interlamellar spacing of the MoS₂ layers could have been increased when a portion of the Mo–S bonds were replaced by Mo–O bonds through the O incorporation, owing to the weakened attraction between the layers. Moreover, there were abundant defects in the ultrathin MoS₂ NSs—including Mo⁵⁺ and S₂²⁻ species (discussed later), S vacancies (as confirmed by the intense and broadened EPR signal at $g = 2.07$ (Fig. S5 in the ESM)) [37], and numerous additional edges formed by the relatively disordered atomic arrangement on the NS basal plane (elaborated below)—which may have contributed to the increase of MoS₂ layer spacing by intensifying the lattice expansion [38, 39]. A schematic of 2H-MoS₂ cell models displaying the enlargement of the interlayer spacing with O doping and S vacancies is presented in Fig. 1(c).

TEM images of individual MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs with uniform morphologies are shown in Figs. 2(a) and 2(d), respectively. The MoS₂ NSs exhibit a small

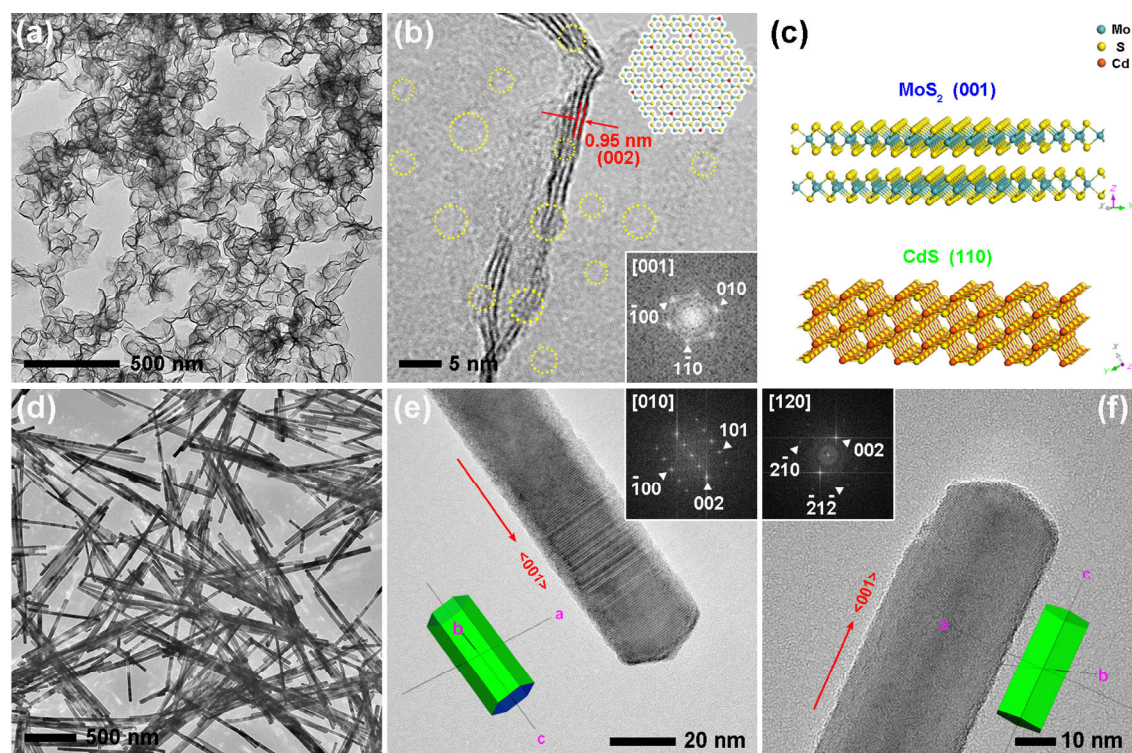


Figure 2 TEM and HRTEM images of ((a) and (b)) MoS₂ NSs and ((d)–(f)) CdS NWs. (c) Atomic structures of MoS₂ {0001} and CdS {11 $\bar{2}$ 0}.

thickness of approximately 3–5 nm and a lateral size of ~200 nm, and the CdS NWs exhibit a major diameter of 20–50 nm and a length of approximately 1–1.5 μ m. Figure 2(b) shows an HRTEM graph of the MoS₂ NSs, indicating that rich defects (such as dislocations and distortions, as marked by the yellow dashed circles) were present in both the basal surface and the cross section of the NSs. An enlarged interlayer spacing of 0.95 nm was detected, which corresponds to the (002) crystal plane of 2H-MoS₂. According to the fast Fourier transformation (FFT) analysis for one periodic area of a MoS₂ NS, the lattice fringes were indexed to [001] diffraction. Hence, the basal planes of the NS perpendicular to the [001] zone axis were fixed as {001} (equivalent to {0001} facets). According to the HRTEM and FFT results shown in Fig. 2(e), the top and bottom planes of the CdS NW perpendicular to the [010] zone axis were ($\bar{2}$ 10) and ($\bar{2}$ 10) (equivalent to {11 $\bar{2}$ 0} facets), and the growth of the CdS NW was parallel to <001> (equivalent to <0001>), i.e., along the *c*-axis. When the CdS NW was in the [120] direction, the lattice fringes terminated sharply at the ($\bar{2}$ 10) and ($\bar{2}$ 10) boundaries,

confirming that these two edges formed the facets of the NW surface. Therefore, the CdS NW was surrounded by six {11 $\bar{2}$ 0} facets and stretched preferentially along the *c*-axis, whereas the MoS₂ NS was exposed exclusively by {0001} facets. To clarify the related orientations, simulated models are shown in the insets for the corresponding samples. The atomic structures of MoS₂ {0001} and CdS {11 $\bar{2}$ 0} are illustrated in Fig. 2(c). For comparison, the structures of CdS {01 $\bar{1}$ 0} and {0001} are shown in Fig. S6 in the ESM.

The morphology evolution of the MoS₂ NS/CdS NW HRSs with varying composite ratios was examined using TEM and SEM. At a large MoS₂ concentration of MC0.05 (Fig. 3(a)), the product exhibited a homogeneous segmented-flower NW architecture, in which the flowers were assembled by numerous intersecting ultrathin NSs. The stereo appearance of the MC0.05 sample was clearly verified by SEM (Fig. 3(d)). When the MoS₂ percentage was reduced to a moderate value, e.g., MC0.15 (Fig. 3(b)), the bigger flowers were scattered into many smaller ones that were distributed uniformly on the NW surface. When the MoS₂ content

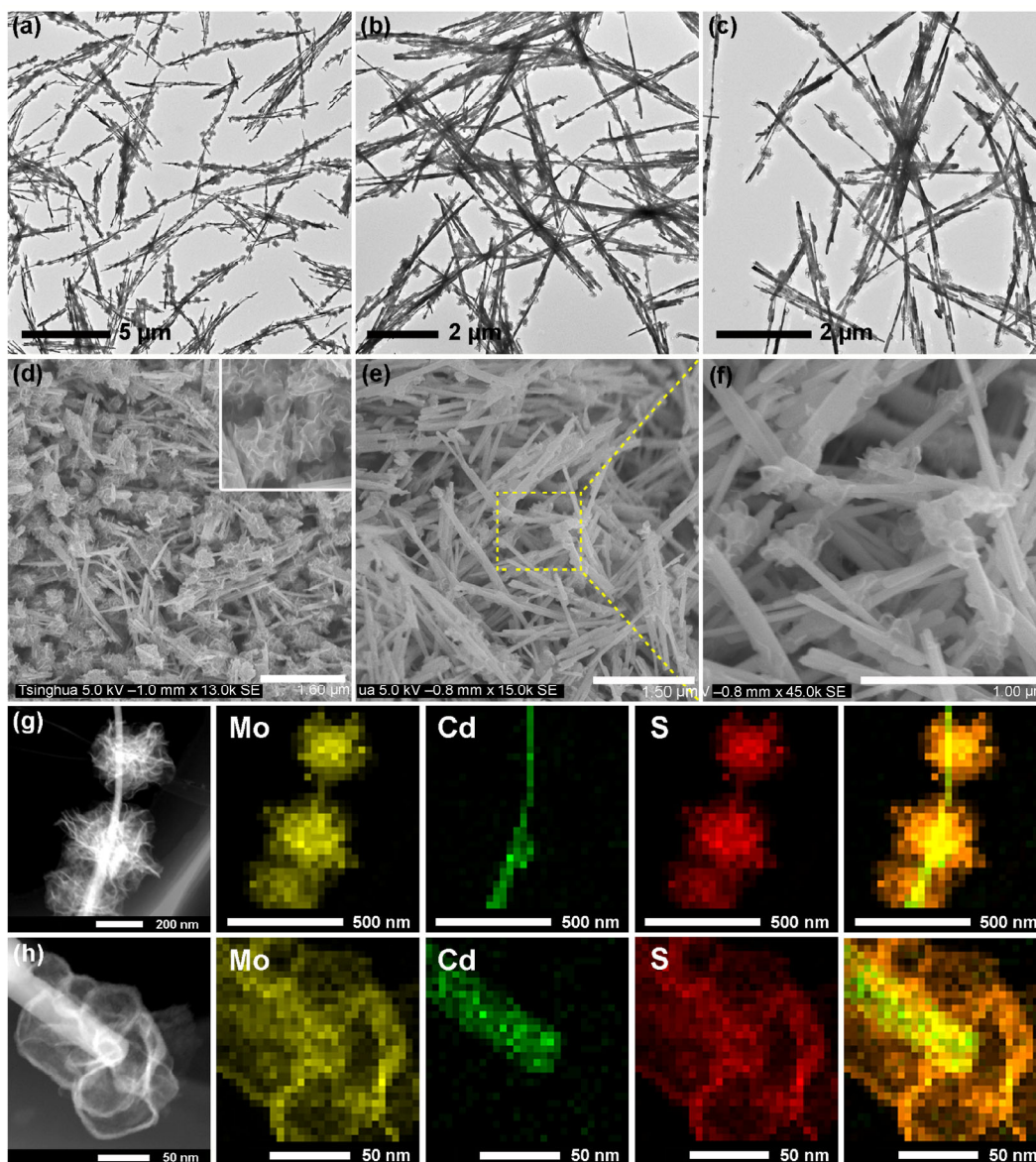


Figure 3 TEM and SEM graphs of the MoS₂ NS/CdS NW HRSs ((a) and (d)) MC0.05, (b) MC0.15, and ((c), (e), and (f)) MC0.30. The corresponding STEM and element-mapping results for MC0.05 and MC0.30 are presented in (g) and (h), respectively.

was further reduced, e.g., MC0.30 (Fig. 3(c)), the number of flowers wrapped around the NW was diminished, and the small flowers comprised only several NSs. The morphology of the MC0.30 product was examined by SEM, as shown in Fig. 3(e), which was amplified to obtain Fig. 3(f). The dark-field STEM photographs and corresponding EDX element-mapping results for the MC0.05 and MC0.30 hybrids are shown in Figs. 3(g) and 3(h), respectively. The images clearly show that the ultrathin NSs encircling the NWs were solely composed of MoS₂ and that the NWs should

be attributed to the CdS component.

An HRTEM image of MC0.30 is shown in Fig. 4, indicating the layered structure of the NSs and the single-crystalline characteristic of the NWs. Similar to the individual MoS₂ NSs (Fig. 2(b)), the MoS₂ NS sheath after hybridization exhibited an increased interlayer spacing of 0.95 nm (assigned to the (002) plane) and numerous defects throughout the basal plane and cross section. According to the HRTEM graph and the corresponding FFT analysis of the CdS NW stem, the NW was [010]-oriented and extended

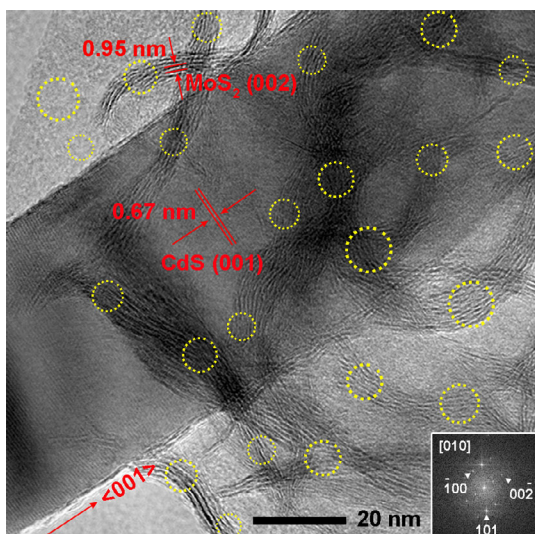


Figure 4 HRTEM photo of the MoS₂/CdS composite MC0.30.

the crystal lattices preferentially along the $\langle 001 \rangle$ axis. In a comparison experiment, the glucose was eliminated from fabrication of MC0.05. The resulting product is shown in Fig. S7 in the ESM. Compared with MC0.05, the product synthesized without glucose exhibited significant nonuniformity: Some NWs were heavily coated by NSs, but the majority of them were merely encircled by a few NSs. Therefore, glucose played an important role in improving the dispersity of the MoS₂ NSs grown on the CdS NW surface. To investigate the formation mechanism of our MoS₂/CdS multi-node hetero-NWs, the growth processes of MC0.05 were examined. Figure 5 shows that when the reaction was suspended at 6 h (Fig. 5(a)), many tiny scattered particles were generated on the NW surface (indicated by yellow triangles), which could have been the C nanocrystals produced by the decomposition of glucose at the high temperature of 200 °C [40]. When the reaction time was extended to 12 h (Fig. 5(b)), the morphology of the product remained nearly unchanged. After 18 h of the reaction (Fig. 5(c)), small pieces of NSs started to appear on the NWs (indicated by red dashed circles). Finally, after 24 h of the reaction, uniform MoS₂/CdS multi-node NWs were formed (Fig. 5(d)). Therefore, because of the lower content of dissolved glucose (0.01 M), the as-formed C component only occupied a small area on the CdS surface (Fig. 5(a)) and had a negligible effect on the intimate contact between the MoS₂ and CdS. Because of the smaller size and amount of C species on the NWs, it was difficult to fix the

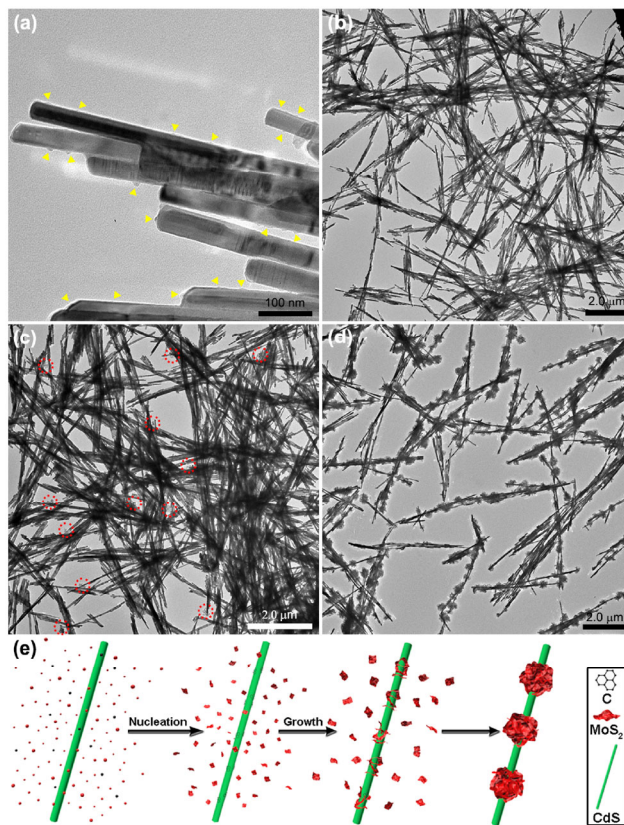


Figure 5 TEM graphs of the MoS₂/CdS hybrid obtained after reaction for (a) 6, (b) 12, (c) 18, and (d) 24 h. (e) Proposed growth process for the 1D MoS₂ NS/CdS NW hybrids.

specific composition. According to Ref. [40], the C component might be amorphous and is capable of enhancing the electrical conductivity of the hybrid. Moreover, compared with the glucose-free preparation, the uniformly dispersed C nanocrystals on the CdS NWs could have provided numerous additional nucleation sites, improving the homogeneity of the MoS₂ growth. According to the aforementioned results, the formation (Fig. 5(e)) of the multi-node MoS₂/CdS hetero-NWs probably occurred as follows. Initially, in the first few hours, the glucose was decomposed into numerous small C nanoparticles [40], which emerged on the pre-existing CdS NWs surface through the heterogeneous nucleation [41, 42] at 200 °C under hydrothermal conditions. Subsequently, the molybdate precursor MoO₄²⁻ slowly transformed into MoS₂ seeds by reacting with thioacetamide molecules during the longer reaction courses. Then, after the concentration of the seeds reached a supersaturated point [43, 44], the MoS₂ NSs nuclei evolved on the NWs surface via

heterogeneous nucleation and adsorption by C species. Finally, the segmented MoS₂ flowers encircling the NWs were gradually formed via the further growth and assembly of the NSs, which was induced by the Ostwald ripening.

The interaction between the MoS₂ and CdS components in the hybrid MC0.30, as well as the related surface composition and elemental valence states, were investigated using XPS. According to the fitting results, before hybridization, the major Mo 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2} binding energies in individual MoS₂ NSs were determined as 228.5 and 231.8 eV (Fig. 6(a)), respectively, which are assigned to Mo⁴⁺ species [45, 46]. The satellite Mo 3d peaks around 229.2 and 233.0 eV are attributed to the Mo⁵⁺ chemical state [47, 48], which probably originated from the incorporation of O. The presence of the Mo⁵⁺ component was verified by the EPR signals at $g = 1.92, 1.94, \text{ and } 1.97$ (Fig. S5 in the ESM) [48–50]. Regarding the Cd element in the pure CdS NWs, the Cd 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2} signals located at 405.0 and 411.8 eV (Fig. 6(b)) correspond to the Cd²⁺ state [51]. After the

hybridization of the MoS₂ NSs with CdS NWs, the binding energies of Mo 3d in MC0.30 exhibited an apparent redshift of ~0.3 eV compared with that for individual MoS₂ NSs. In contrast, the Cd 3d peaks in MC0.30 exhibited a blue-shift of ~0.3 eV with respect to that for individual CdS NWs (Fig. 6(b)). Therefore, the electronic density of Mo in MC0.30 was higher than that for pure MoS₂ NSs; however, MC0.30 had a lower electronic density of Cd than individual CdS NWs. These results indicate that the transfer of electrons from CdS to MoS₂ occurred after the two materials were combined [52], which agrees well with the fact that the electronegativity of Mo is higher than that of Cd (in Pauling scale, 2.16 and 1.69 for Mo and Cd, respectively). Consequently, the formation of heterojunctions and Cd–S–Mo bonds at the interfaces was expected. Apart from the Raman vibrations (Fig. 1(b)), the incorporation of O in the MoS₂ NSs both before and after hybridization was confirmed by the presence of the Mo–O bond signal (~235.6 eV) [47] in the Mo 3d spectra (Fig. 6(a)), as well as by the

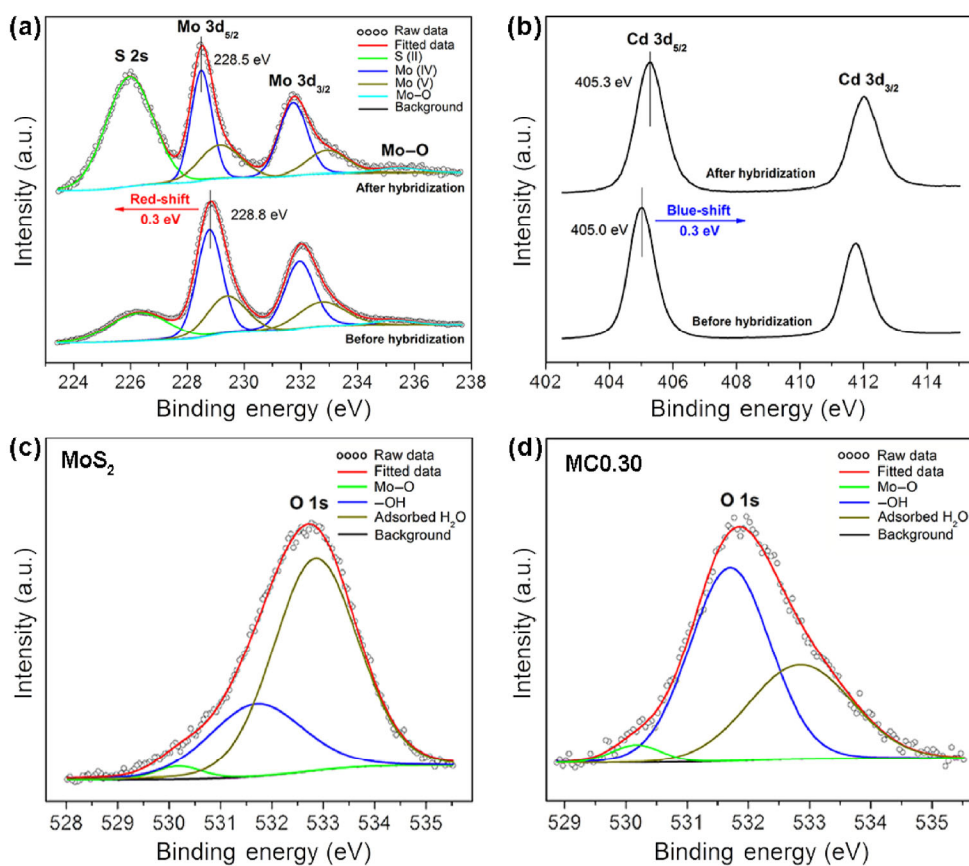


Figure 6 (a) Mo 3d, (b) Cd 3d, and ((c) and (d)) O 1s XPS spectra for MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, and the composite MC0.30.

Mo^(IV)–O bond peak (~530.1 eV) [53] in the O 1s spectra for both the MoS₂ NSs and the MC0.30 HRSs (Figs. 6(c) and 6(d)). These results suggest that O was incorporated in the MoS₂ lattices and replaced S at the S sites. In addition, the S 2p spectra for the CdS NWs, MoS₂ NSs, and MC 0.30 HRSs, together with the O 1s spectrum for the CdS NWs, were analyzed, as shown in Fig. S8 in the ESM. Interestingly, in contrast to the S²⁻ component, another set of doublets with binding energies around 163.1–164.3 eV was indicated by the S 2p signals for both the MoS₂ NSs and the MC0.30 hybrid, suggesting that S₂²⁻ ligands were present in these two samples [48, 54]. Generally, S₂²⁻ species are accompanied by the emergence of Mo⁵⁺ [47], and both S₂²⁻ and Mo⁵⁺ can serve as active sites for the H₂ evolution reaction [48]. Analysis of the peak area revealed that the Mo⁵⁺ content in the MoS₂ NSs and MC0.30 was approximately 36% and 31%, respectively. The S₂²⁻ content in the MoS₂ NSs and MC0.30 was calculated to be approximately 26% and 18%, respectively. In accordance with the EPR analysis

(Fig. 1), the ratio of Mo to S in the MoS₂ NSs was determined by ICP to be 1:1.80, indicating the presence of S vacancies. Hence, the defect-rich structure of the MoS₂ NSs was recognized from the ICP results and the quantified data for the S₂²⁻ and Mo⁵⁺ species.

3.2 Photocatalytic properties

In the reaction of photoelectrochemical water reduction, the photocathode of the MoS₂ NS/CdS NW HRS MC0.30 exhibited a significantly higher photocurrent density than those of individual MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs (Fig. 7(a)), suggesting that the MC0.03 composite had the best performance for generating and suppressing the recombination of photoinduced charge carriers [29]. Thus, the hybrid MC0.30 is anticipated to exhibit outstanding photocatalytic reactivities. Figure 7(b) shows the averaged H₂ formation rate with different photocatalysts under visible-light irradiation ($\lambda > 400$ nm), where MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, Pt-loaded (3 wt.% Pt) CdS NWs, and the physical mixture of MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs are all of lower activities.

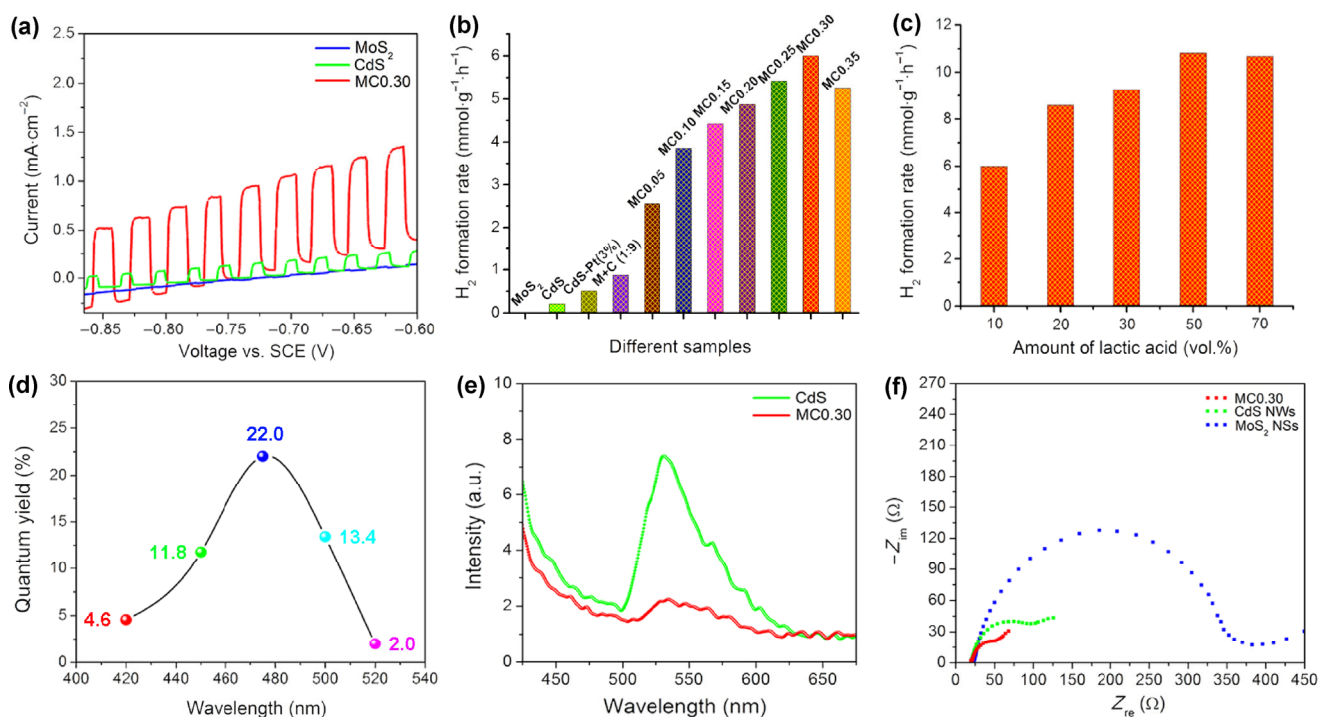


Figure 7 (a) Comparison of the photoelectrochemical performance among MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, and MC0.30. (b) Averaged H₂ evolution rate of MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, Pt/CdS NWs, a physical mixture of MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, and 1D MoS₂/CdS hybrids with different Mo-to-Cd ratios. (c) H₂-generation rates of MC0.30 at varying volume proportions of lactic acid to water. (d) Irradiation wavelength-dependent quantum yield of photocatalytic H₂ formation by MC0.30. (e) PL emission spectra and (f) EIS Nyquist plots for MoS₂ NSs, CdS NWs, and MC0.30.

Interestingly, the H₂ evolution performance was significantly improved when the 1D MoS₂ NS/CdS NW HRSs (MC_x, $x = 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30,$ and 0.35) were used as the catalysts, and the highest H₂-generation rate of 6.02 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ (~28 times that of pure CdS NWs) was obtained for MC0.30 (see Fig. S9 in the ESM for details on the H₂ evolution with respect to the irradiation time). Moreover, the average H₂ evolution rate of MC0.30 remained steady during the continuous photocatalytic reaction for 10 h (Fig. S10 in the ESM), indicating that our MoS₂ NS/CdS NW HRSs had good stability for photocatalytic H₂ evolution. The BET specific areas, adsorption isotherms, pore-size distributions, and ICP results for these HRSs are shown in Fig. S11 and Table S1 in the ESM. To determine the effect of the amount of hole scavengers on the H₂-formation activity of MC0.30, different ratios of lactic acid to water were employed for the reaction. The highest rate of 10.85 mmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ was achieved at a lactic-acid dosage of 50 vol.% (Fig. 7(c)). The H₂ evolution rate in our study is far better than those of most previously reported MoS₂/CdS composite systems (see Table S2 in the ESM) [4, 24, 25, 48, 55]. Moreover, the dependence of the quantum yield of the photocatalytic H₂ evolution of MC0.30 on the irradiation wavelength was examined in detail (Fig. 7(d)). The maximum quantum yield of 22.0% was obtained at $\lambda = 475$ nm. The quantum yield of MC0.30 increased from 2.0% to 22.0% when the illumination wavelength was changed from 520 to 475 nm, which is consistent with the enhancement of the light absorption of the photocatalyst (Fig. S12 in the ESM). Nevertheless, when the excitation wavelength was changed from 475 to 420 nm, MC0.30 exhibited a slight increase in light absorption but a decrease in quantum yield. A careful comparison between the absorption spectra of MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs indicates that in the wavelength range of 475 to 420 nm, the light absorption slightly increased for the CdS NWs, whereas the absorption capability of the MoS₂ NSs decreased. Therefore, the decline in the quantum yield of MC0.30 in the wavelength range of 475 to 420 nm is mainly attributed to the reduced light harvest from the grown MoS₂ NS component. To identify the origin of the activity improvement, the PL spectra for MC0.30 HRSs, pure MoS₂ NSs, and pure CdS NWs were compared

(Fig. 7(e)). The HRSs exhibited a far lower PL intensity than the CdS NWs, suggesting that they had a better separation efficiency for photogenerated electrons and holes [56]. This agrees well with the photocurrent-response analyses. The PL signal for the MoS₂ NSs was negligible (not shown), which could be related to its luminescence-inactive multilayer structure [36, 57]. The electrochemical impedance spectra for the MC0.30 HRSs and individual MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs are shown in Fig. 7(f). The arc radius of the Nyquist curve is substantially smaller for MC0.30 than for the pure MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, indicating that the composite had a significantly lower charge-transfer resistance than the two single components [58–60]. Accordingly, owing to the higher conductivity of MC0.30 compared with the MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, the capability of MC0.30 for photoelectrochemical water reduction was enhanced, which was confirmed by the increased photocurrent intensity of MC0.30, as shown in Fig. 7(a). Therefore, compared with the bare MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, as a result of the improved separation of charge carriers and the reduced charge-transfer resistance of the MC0.30 composite, the photoelectrochemical and photocatalytic water reduction by electrons on the catalyst surface was facilitated to a greater degree for MC0.30 (similar for the other MoS₂ NS/CdS NW HRSs). This explains the remarkably boosted activities of these composites with regard to the photocurrent response and photocatalytic H₂ evolution.

3.3 Structural elucidations for enhanced photocatalytic activities

To elucidate the relationship between the structure and performance of the 1D multi-node MoS₂/CdS hetero-NWs, the electronic band structures of the MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs were investigated. As shown in Figs. 8(a) and 8(b) (as well as Fig. S12 in the ESM), the bandgaps of pure CdS NWs and MoS₂ NSs were determined via Kubelka–Munk methods to be 2.42 eV (direct type) and 1.65 eV (indirect type), respectively. The bandgap of bulk MoS₂ is ~1.3 eV [57]. In this study, the bandgap of the ultrathin MoS₂ NWs increased to 1.65 eV, mainly owing to the quantum size effects [61]. The Mott–Schottky data for the CdS NWs and MoS₂ NSs were obtained with an alternating-current

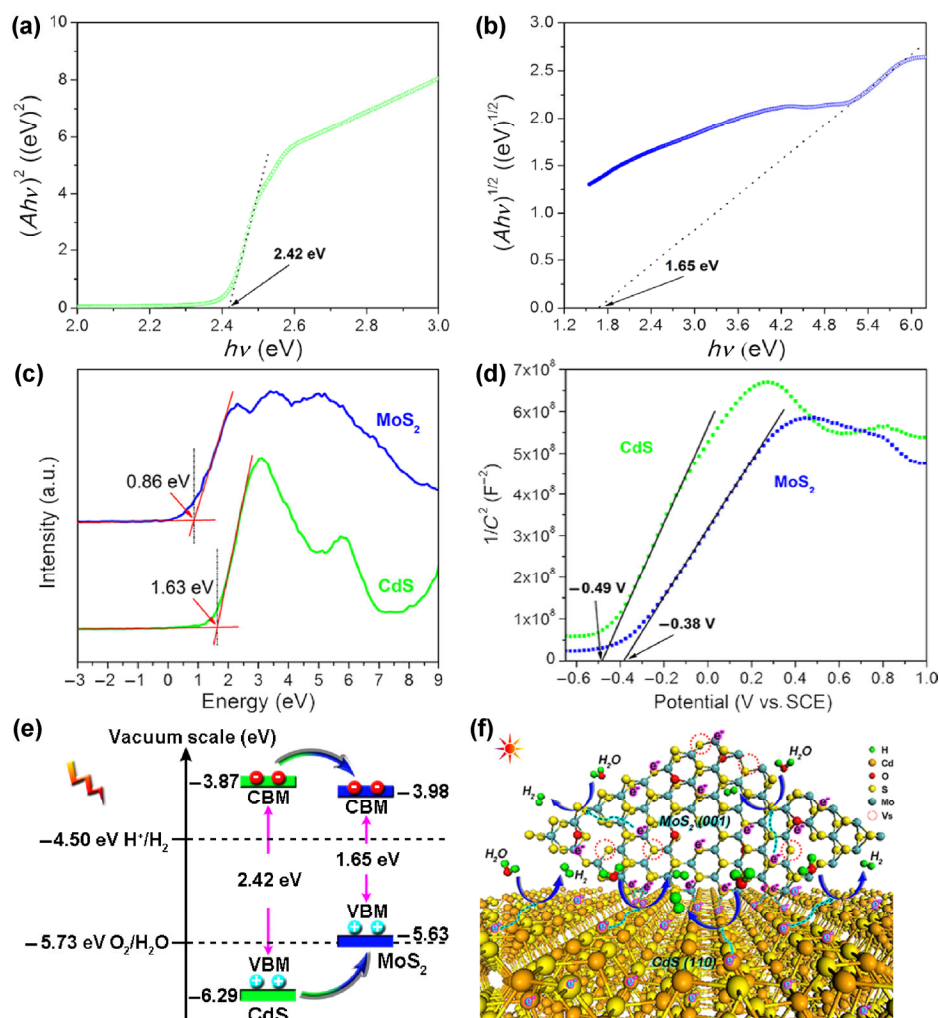


Figure 8 Determination of bandgap energies of (a) CdS NWs and (b) MoS₂ NSs. XPS valence-band spectra and Mott–Schottky curves for MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs are shown in (c) and (d), respectively. (e) Energy-band alignments of individual MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs. (f) Schematic of photocatalytic H₂ evolution with the MoS₂/CdS HRSs.

frequency of 1 kHz in a 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution (Fig. 8(d)). Both the samples exhibited positive slopes, indicating that the CdS NWs and the MoS₂ NSs were n-type semiconductors [62, 63]. The Fermi energy levels of individual CdS NWs and MoS₂ NSs were identified by the intercepts of the curves with the horizontal axis [64–66] to be –0.49 and –0.38 V vs. SCE, which were calibrated [67] by the value of 0.653 V (Fig. S13 in the ESM) to 0.163 and 0.273 V, respectively, vs. a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) (–4.66 and –4.77 eV, respectively, in vacuum scale). The XPS valence-band spectra shown in Fig. 8(c) indicate that the valence-band maxima (VBM) of the MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs were 0.86 and 1.63 eV lower than their corresponding Fermi levels, respectively. By combining

the Fermi energy levels of the CdS NWs and MoS₂ NSs with their bandgap energies and XPS valence-band spectra, the corresponding band structures were established (Fig. 8(e)). According to the constructed energy-band alignments, the Fermi levels for both the CdS NWs (–4.66 eV) and the MoS₂ NSs (–4.77 eV) were closer to their respective conduction bands than to the valence bands, which suggests that the synthesized CdS NWs and MoS₂ NSs were n-type semiconductors, agreeing well with the analysis of the Mott–Schottky curves. As shown in Fig. 8(e), the position of the conduction-band minimum (CBM) for the CdS NWs was higher than that for the MoS₂ NSs, while the VBM for the CdS NWs was lower than that for the MoS₂ NSs. Therefore, for the MoS₂ NS/CdS NW

HRSs, under irradiation, the photogenerated electrons were transferred spontaneously from the CdS CBM to the MoS₂ CBM through the formed junction interfaces. In contrast, the holes remaining in the VBM of CdS were injected into the VBM of MoS₂. Consequently, the recombination of photoexcited electrons and holes was significantly slowed by the MoS₂/CdS composites, improving their activities for the photoelectrochemical and photocatalytic reactions. In addition, according to the Gibbs free energies of H₂ adsorption on the catalyst edges calculated theoretically by Xie J. et al. [27], compared with the pristine MoS₂ system, the O-incorporated MoS₂ slab exhibited smaller differential binding free energies at different H coverages, revealing that the latter required a lower energy barrier to drive the H₂ evolution reaction. Moreover, according to Xie J. et al. [27], the calculated density of states indicated that the bandgap of a pristine 2H-MoS₂ slab was narrowed after the incorporation of O. Thus, the O incorporation in the MoS₂ ultrathin NSs could have led to additional charge carriers and a higher intrinsic conductivity, facilitating the H₂ generation. Consequently, for the MoS₂/CdS HRSs, the grown MoS₂ ultrathin NSs with O incorporation may have had a lower energy barrier for H₂ evolution and a higher electric conductivity compared with the pristine counterpart, enhancing their photoelectrocatalytic capabilities. On the other hand, there were numerous unsaturated S and Cd atoms on the defect-rich {0001} faceted MoS₂ NSs and {11 $\bar{2}$ 0} surrounding CdS NWs, which functioned as catalytic active sites to reduce the reaction activation energy and thus improve the reactivities. The 1D well-crystallized CdS stems in the HRSs may have provided a pathway along the longitudinal dimension for the fast transfer and separation of charge carriers, facilitating the catalytic reactions. The photocatalytic H₂ formation under visible-light irradiation at the MoS₂ {0001}/CdS {11 $\bar{2}$ 0} interface is illustrated in Fig. 8(f).

4 Conclusions

We prepared 1D multi-node MoS₂/CdS hetero-NWs with different Mo-to-Cd ratios under hydrothermal conditions for the first time, in which flower-like sheaths were assembled by O-incorporated defect-rich

ultrathin {0001} MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs were surrounded by {11 $\bar{2}$ 0} facets parallel to the *c*-axis. The MoS₂ NS/CdS NW hybrids demonstrated excellent visible-light photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution from water splitting compared with Pt/CdS NWs, individual MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, and their physical mixtures. The enhanced photocatalytic capability of the MoS₂/CdS composites is attributed to the abundant active sites of MoS₂ NSs and CdS NWs, the intimate heterojunctions formed between the MoS₂ and CdS, and the well-defined 1D nano-architecture. Our findings may inspire the development of methods for the engineering and construction of novel nanostructures for advanced applications.

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Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material (UV–vis absorption spectra, BET surface areas, ICP data, EPR spectrum, TGA-DTA analyse, N₂ adsorption isotherms and pore-size distribution, additional XRD, TEM, and XPS results, and time-resolved H₂ evolution curves of synthesized MoS₂/CdS heterostructures; calibration of SCE to RHE; atomic structural models of CdS {01 $\bar{1}$ 0} and {0001} planes; and comparison of the H₂ formation activities of MoS₂/CdS hybrids reported previously) is available in the online version of this article at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12274-017-1497-3>.

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