


Article

One Stone Two Birds: Utilization of Solar Light for Simultaneous Selective Phenylcarbinol Oxidation and H₂ Production over 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ Schottky Junction

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Abstract: Precise regulation and control solar-light-driven charges photoexcited on photocatalysts for separation-transfer and target redox reactions is an attractive and challenging pathway toward sustainability. Herein, 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ Schottky junction was fabricated for simultaneous selective phenylcarbinol conversion into value-added aldehydes and production of clean energy H₂ by directly utilizing photoexcited holes and electrons in one reaction system under mild reaction conditions. In contrast to pure water splitting and pure In₂S₃, the reaction thermodynamics and kinetics of H₂ evolution on the Pt/In₂S₃ were significantly enhanced. The optimized 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ exhibited the highest and most stable photocatalytic activity with 22.1 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ of H₂ production rate and almost 100% selectivity of benzaldehyde production. Notably, this dual-function photocatalysis also exhibited superiority in contrast to sacrificial-agent H₂ evolution reactions such as lactic acid, Na₂S, methanol and triethanolamine. The turnover frequency (TOF) could reach up to ~2394 h⁻¹. The Pt clusters anchored at the electron location and strong metal-support interactions (SMSI) between Pt and In₂S₃ synergistically improved the spatial charge separation and directional transportation (~90.1% of the charge transport efficiency could be achieved over the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid), and thus result in significant enhancement of photocatalytic H₂ evolution with simultaneous benzaldehyde production.

Keywords: photocatalytic H₂ production; selective oxidation; 2D nanosheets; photocatalytic organic synthesis; metal-support interactions



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1. Introduction

Since Fujishima and Honda reported electrochemical photolysis of water for hydrogen (H₂) production at a TiO₂ electrode in 1972 [1], photocatalytic H₂ production (PHP), as one of the most promising strategies to address the severe issues of environment and energy, has attracted extensive and ongoing attention [2–5], because PHP can be driven by inexhaustible solar energy and the reaction conditions are not as rigorous as traditional industrial methods such as coal gasification and electrolytic processes [3–7]. For instance, 15,364 scientists from 184 countries made a joint appeal to humans in 2017: “World Scientists’ Warning to Humanity: A Second Notice”. One of the noteworthy appeals was sustainable development [8]. Clean energy instead of fossil fuels is ineluctable in the future. More recently, European Union and other countries have made incentive schemes for green hydrogen fuel. However, PHP faces many challenges for practical application [9–12]. Two

critical points are the design of efficient photocatalysts with high and stable quantum efficiency and the enhancement of output-input ratio. For photocatalytic overall water splitting into hydrogen (H_2) and oxygen (O_2), a lot greater than zero of the Gibbs free energy change and the sluggish oxidation half-reaction both make PHP hard in terms of thermodynamics and kinetics [12–14]. Although sacrificial-reagent PHP is in favor of improvements of both reaction thermodynamics and kinetics, sacrificial reagents simultaneously bring waste of the photoexcited holes, the increase in cost and the burden on the environment such as emissions of greenhouse-gas, inorganic salt and organic pollutants [14–16]. Moreover, the charge carrier recombination is still one of the challenging limitations for the photocatalysis technologies [17–24]. Recently, PHP coupled with organics transformation has held great attention [25–30]. In this dual-function photoredox reaction system, not only can the photoexcited electrons be utilized for reducing H^+ / H_2O into H_2 , the photoexcited holes can also be used for oxidizing organics into fine chemicals. For instance, aromatic aldehydes and H_2 can be simultaneously obtained by the photocatalytic splitting of aromatic alcohols in one reaction system [31–33]. However, the photocatalysts suitable for this dual-function photoredox reaction system with efficient reaction kinetics still need to be explored.

To drive this dual-function photoredox reaction, choosing photocatalysts with a proper band gap and suitable band positions is the initial step. Among various photocatalysts, low-dimensional metal sulfides showed tremendous potential for this dual-function photoredox reaction because of their appealing optical–electrical characteristics and appropriate band structures [34–36]. However, metal sulfides used as photocatalysts still face various problems: low utilization of visible light, photocorrosion and recombination of photoexcited charge carriers, which significantly inhibit its reaction kinetics and stability [37–39]. To address the problems, many approaches have been developed such as doping [40,41], noble-metal deposition [30,42,43], cocatalysts [5,31,44] and heterojunction composites [45–47]. After modification, the photocatalytic activity and stability of the pristine metal sulfides ($Zn_3In_2S_6$, CdS, $Zn_xCd_{1-x}S$ and $ZnIn_2S_4$) both are improved. However, precise regulation and control solar-light-driven charges photoexcited on photocatalysts for separation-transfer and target redox reactions is still a challenge.

Herein, 0D/2D-3D Pt/ In_2S_3 heterostructure was prepared by sequential hydrothermal-photodeposition methods and was applied for PHP with simultaneously selective phenylcarbinol conversion under simulated sunlight irradiation. In the previous study, In_2S_3 exhibited potential applications in photocatalytic pollutant degradation [48], selective oxidation [49,50], H_2 production [22–24], etc. It may have been an alternative photocatalyst for this dual-function photoredox reaction. In addition, In_2S_3 possesses smaller band-gap energy (~ 2.0 eV) [51] than $Zn_3In_2S_6$ (~ 2.9 eV) [14], CdS (~ 2.4 eV) [52,53], $Zn_{0.5}Cd_{0.5}S$ (~ 2.6 eV) [45] and $ZnIn_2S_4$ (~ 2.4 eV) [31,54], suggesting more and broad light absorption. The 0D/2D-3D Pt/ In_2S_3 hierarchical structure has the following advantages: 2D nanosheets and 3D spheres of In_2S_3 hierarchical structure facilitate light harvesting via multi-layer reflection, 0D Pt deposition and close contact, and sedimentary separation from the reaction system. On the other hand, the exposed 0D Pt clusters can make full use of Pt atoms and save costs. Therefore, the 0D/2D-3D hierarchical structure is significant for PHP. Moreover, it has been demonstrated that the Schottky junction can improve charge separation [55]. In this study, 0D Pt clusters were anchored at the separated electron location of In_2S_3 by an in situ photoreduction process. The formed Pt/ In_2S_3 Schottky junction coupled with strong metal–support interactions (SMSI) between 0D Pt clusters and 2D In_2S_3 nanosheets can improve the electron separation and transportation from In_2S_3 into Pt for PHP and reserve the holes at In_2S_3 for selective oxidation of phenylcarbinol, and thus result in significant enhancement of PHP with almost 100% selectivity of benzaldehyde production. Notably, benzaldehyde is important for chemical raw material, methylene reagents, perfume, herbicide intermediates, etc. In addition, the as-prepared 0D/2D-3D Pt/ In_2S_3 heterostructure exhibits superiority for PHP coupled with phenylcarbinol in contrast to sacrificial agents such as lactic acid, Na_2S , methanol and triethanolamine. Moreover, the photocatalytic mechanism was also studied profoundly by several recognized techniques such as the

photoelectrochemical (PEC) test, in situ electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) and in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFT), etc.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Catalysts Characterization

The micro-structures of 2D-3D In_2S_3 and 0D/2D-3D $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ were characterized by scanning electron microscope (SEM), transmission electron microscope (TEM) and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM). As shown in Figure 1a–c, the In_2S_3 presented spherical-like morphology. The 3D sphere was further composed of many crisscross nanosheets. Clearly, the as-prepared In_2S_3 possessed a 2D-3D hierarchical structure. Compared to the pervious reported 2D In_2S_3 nanosheets [49] and 0D In_2S_3 nanocrystal [48], the 2D-3D In_2S_3 can facilitate light harvesting via multi-layer reflection. It also has advantages with respect to the previous method of 2D-3D In_2S_3 preparation [50], in which an amino acid (aspartic acid, serine or glycine) was necessary for assisting formation of 2D-3D hierarchical structure. Notably, the 2D-3D nanosheet-sphere structure of In_2S_3 was kept after loading Pt (Figure 1d–f). The Pt nanoparticles were not observed on the SEM image, which may have been caused by the small size of Pt. The micro-structures of In_2S_3 and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ were further investigated by TEM and HRTEM images. As displayed in Figure 2a,b, the nanosheet-sphere structure of 2D-3D In_2S_3 can be clearly observed and the nanosheets of In_2S_3 were uniform and homogeneous. Moreover, the unambiguous lattice fringes with the d-spacing value of 0.62 nm correspond to the (111) crystal plane of cubic In_2S_3 (Figure 2c,d). After Pt photo-deposited on In_2S_3 , the morphology of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ was very similar to that of In_2S_3 (Figure 2e). In addition, small and distinguishable Pt clusters with a mean size of about 0.8 nm were observed on the nanosheets of In_2S_3 (Figure 2f). The d-spacing value of the distinct lattice fringes was also 0.62 nm, which was assigned to the (111) crystal plane of cubic In_2S_3 (Figure 2g,h). The energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDX) results indicate that $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ was composed of Pt, In and S elements, and Pt was uniformly dispersed on the In_2S_3 (Figure 2i,j).

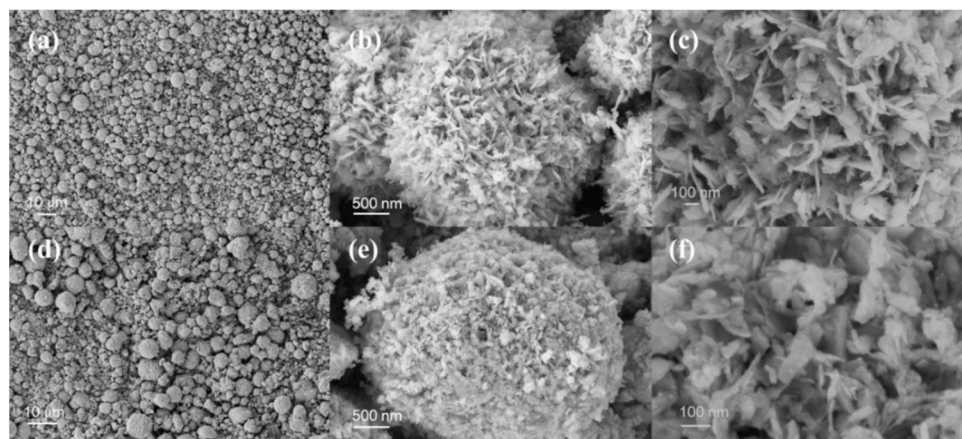


Figure 1. SEM images of (a–c) In_2S_3 and (d–f) $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$.

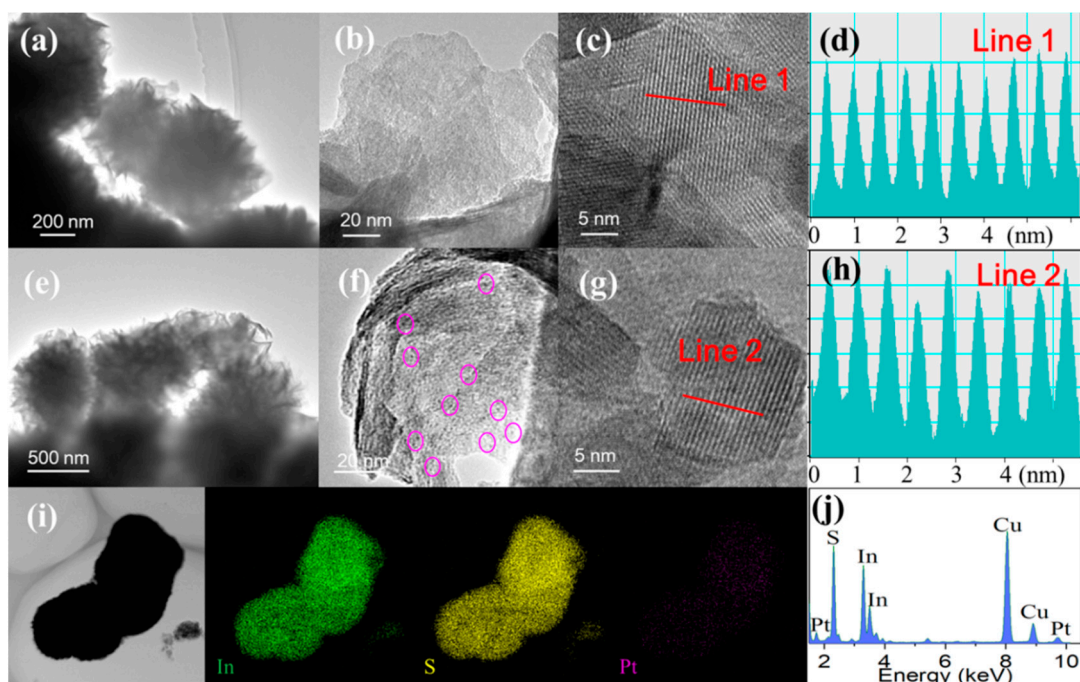


Figure 2. (a,b) TEM, (c) HRTEM and (d) corresponding FFT images of In_2S_3 . (e,f) TEM and (g) HRTEM and (h) corresponding FFT images of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ (the Pt clusters are shown in the purple circles). (i) EDX-mapping images and (j) EDX spectrum of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$.

The crystal phase, chemical composition and state were studied by powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ hybrid exhibited the similar PXRD pattern to the pristine In_2S_3 (Figure 3a), and the diffraction peaks of In_2S_3 and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ both can be indexed to cubic $\beta\text{-In}_2\text{S}_3$ with $\text{Fd-3m}(227)$ space group (JCPDS No. 65-0459). No Pt diffraction peaks were observed in the PXRD pattern of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$. It was expected because of the cluster state of Pt, i.e., due to the dispersion and low content of Pt. The ICP-OES indicated that the practical weight ratio of Pt in 1% $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ was about 0.7%. The PXRD peaks located at about 14.2, 23.3, 27.4, 28.7, 33.2, 36.3, 41.0, 43.6, 47.7, 50.0, 55.9, 56.6, 59.3, 66.6, 69.7, 77.1 and 79.5° were attributed to the diffraction of the (111), (220), (311), (222), (400), (331), (422), (511), (440), (531), (533), (622), (444), (731), (800), (662) and (840) crystal planes of cubic $\beta\text{-In}_2\text{S}_3$ (JCPDS No. 65-0459, $a = b = c = 10.77 \text{ \AA}$), respectively. The PXRD results were consistent with the above HRTEM analysis (Figure 2c,g). In the light of the above results, it can be seen that the 2D-3D morphology and crystal phase of In_2S_3 did not change after the deposition of Pt clusters. These results also indicate the stability of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ because $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ was obtained in the PHP process of In_2S_3 by reducing $[\text{PtCl}_6]^{2-}$. Figure 3b–d presents the high-resolution XPS spectra of In 3d, S 2p and Pt 4f, respectively. For the pure In_2S_3 , two peaks of In 3d observed at 445.2 and 452.7 eV were attributed to In 3d_{5/2} and In 3d_{3/2} (Figure 3b), and two peaks of S 2p located at 161.9 and 163.1 eV belonged to S 2p_{3/2} and S 2p_{1/2} (Figure 3c), respectively.

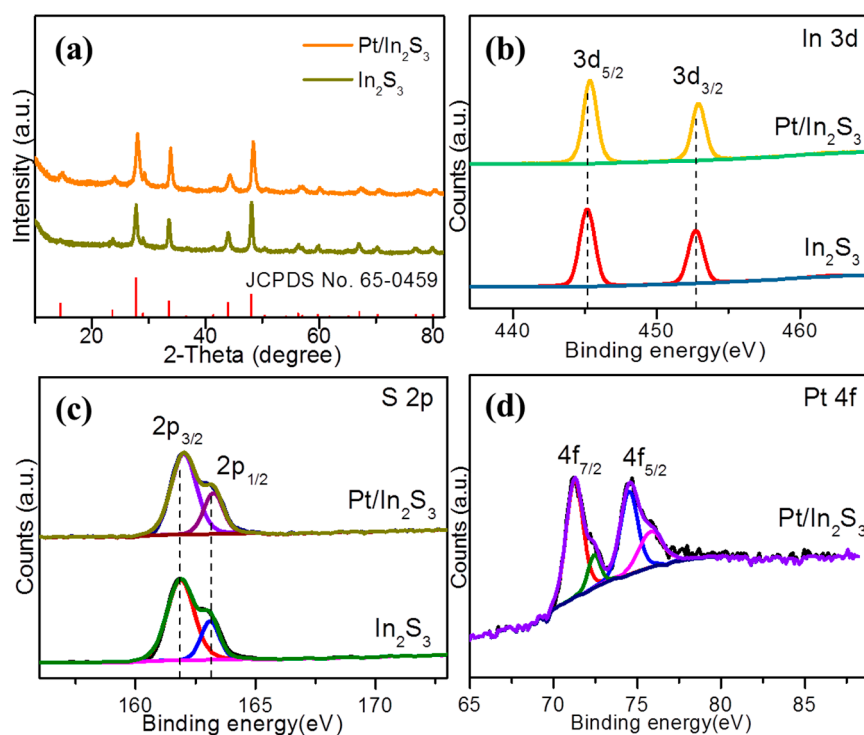


Figure 3. (a) XRD patterns of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃. XPS spectra of (b) In 3d, (c) S 2p and (d) Pt 4f.

Moreover, the spin-orbit separations of In 3d and S 2p were 7.5 and 1.2 eV, respectively. These results demonstrate that the chemical states of In and S in the as-prepared In₂S₃ were In³⁺ and S²⁻. For the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid, the XPS peaks of In 3d and S2p were similar to that of the pure In₂S₃. The Pt 4f exhibited two group peaks at 71.9 and 72.1 eV (4f_{7/2}), which corresponded to the Pt⁰ and Pt²⁺, respectively (Figure 3d). Of note, the binding energies of In 3d and S 2p of the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid were shifted to high energy (0.1–0.2 eV) with respect to the pure In₂S₃. It was demonstrated that the binding energy shift was derived from the electronic interaction between two contacted nanomaterials, and the positive and negative shifts mean electrons were lost and gathered, respectively [31,56,57]. Thus, the strong metal-support interactions (SMSI) occurred in the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid. Specifically, after Pt photo-deposited on In₂S₃, the majority carriers (electrons for n-type semiconductors) of In₂S₃ were migrated into Pt, and the Pt was electron enriched. The strong metal-support interactions could result in photoexcited charge separation and H₂ evolution conveniently. This is discussed further below.

The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas, optical properties and band-energy positions of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ were studied by the nitrogen adsorption–desorption method, UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-vis DRS) and Mott–Schottky (M-S) measurements. Both In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ presented type-IV isotherms with an H3 hysteresis loop (Figure 4a). This meant that the presence of porous structures resulted from the 2D-3D In₂S₃ hierarchical structure. Correspondingly, the average pore diameters of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ were about 13.91 and 13.64 nm, respectively. The BJH cumulative volume of pores of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ were approximately 0.41 and 0.30 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively. The BET surface areas of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ were approximately 63.1 ± 2.1 and 63.3 ± 2.9 m² g⁻¹, respectively. Evidently, after Pt clusters were loaded on 2D-3D In₂S₃, the surface area change was negligible, while the pore volume and pore diameter were decreased. It is normal to observe these results because the 2D-3D In₂S₃ hierarchical structure was not altered when Pt clusters were loaded on the surfaces of In₂S₃ nanosheets. The UV-vis DRS spectra indicate that both In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ possessed well visible light absorption below 600 nm (Figure 4b). Based on DRS spectra, the band-gap energy (E_g) was determined by the Kubelka–Munk function: $(\alpha h\nu)^2 = A(h\nu - E_g)$, where A, h, α , and ν are proportion-

ality constant, Planck constant, absorption coefficient and frequency, respectively [33,58]. Compared to the pure In_2S_3 , the light absorption of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ diminished (Figure 4b), while the E_g of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ showed no noticeable change (both about 2.1 eV, Figure 4c). Moreover, the positive slopes of M-S plots were observed on both In_2S_3 (Figure 4d) and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ (Figure 4e), indicating that the n-type property of In_2S_3 semiconductor had not changed after Pt deposition. Interestingly, the flat potential of In_2S_3 was negatively shifted from -0.25 to -0.51 V (vs NHE) after Pt deposition. Generally, for n-type semiconductors, the flat potential lies beneath the conduction band (CB) at about -0.1 eV [56]. Therefore, the CB of In_2S_3 and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ was located at -0.35 and -0.61 eV, respectively. According to the function: $E_g = E_{\text{VB}} - E_{\text{CB}}$ (E_{VB} and E_{CB} were the valence band energy and the CB energy, respectively), the valence band (VB) of In_2S_3 and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ lies at 1.75 and 1.49 eV, respectively. Evidently, with respect to the pure In_2S_3 (Figure 4f), VB and CB of $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ were uplifted by 0.26 and 0.26 eV, respectively, demonstrating that the photoexcited holes showed faster mobility, thus facilitating PHP reaction [31,59]. The strong metal–support interactions between Pt and In_2S_3 resulted in electron migration from In_2S_3 into Pt. Thus, the energy bands of In_2S_3 swept upward when In_2S_3 was contacted with Pt.

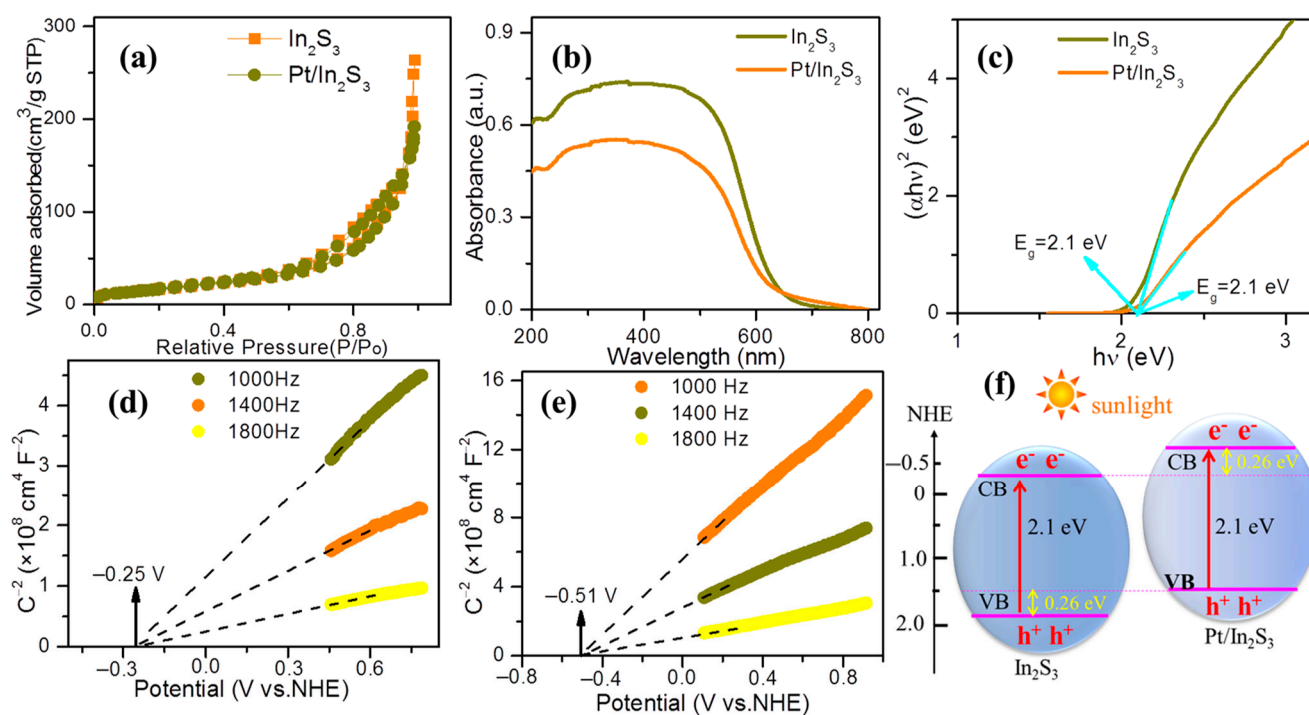


Figure 4. (a) Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms, (b) UV-vis DRS spectra and (c) band-gap energies of In_2S_3 and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$. M-S plots of (d) In_2S_3 and (e) $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$. (f) The relationships of band energy positions between In_2S_3 and $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$.

To gain more insights into the charge carrier transportation between Pt and In_2S_3 over the $\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$ hybrid, the work function of In_2S_3 was measured by an ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS). As presented in Figure 5a, the work function of In_2S_3 was 4.66 eV ($21.22 - (16.77 - 0.21) = 4.66$). It was smaller than the work function of Pt (5.65 eV) [14]. Moreover, the carrier densities (N_D) of In_2S_3 and Pt-modified In_2S_3 ($\text{Pt}/\text{In}_2\text{S}_3$) were detected from M-S plots via the function: $N_D = (2/e\epsilon\epsilon_0)[dU_{\text{FL}}/d(1/C^2)] = (2/e\epsilon\epsilon_0)(1/k_{\text{M-S}})$. Here, e , ϵ_0 , ϵ , $k_{\text{M-S}}$, U_{FL} and C are elementary charge, vacuum permittivity, relative permittivity (8.4 for In_2S_3 [23]), the slope of the M-S curve, Fermi level potential and capacitance, respectively. Evidently, after Pt deposition on In_2S_3 , the carrier density of In_2S_3 was always reduced under different frequencies (Figure 5b). Based on the results of work function and carrier density, the metal–support interactions and consequential electron transportation between Pt and In_2S_3 are illustrated in Figure 5c–e. The In_2S_3

possessed a higher Fermi level ($E_F = E_{vac} - W_F$, where W_F , E_{vac} and E_F are work function, vacuum level and Fermi level, respectively) than Pt (Figure 5c). Thus, the electrons were transported from In_2S_3 into Pt, which resulted in a N_D decrease in In_2S_3 and the formation of the Schottky junction (Figure 5d). The Schottky barrier with height of 0.99 eV would facilitate photoexcited electrons transportation from In_2S_3 into Pt and inhibit the backflow of electrons from Pt into In_2S_3 again (the barrier height is the difference of Fermi levels of In_2S_3 and Pt ($-4.66 - (-5.65) = 0.99$)). Simultaneously, the photoexcited holes left at In_2S_3 (Figure 5e). Consequently, the photoexcited electron-hole pairs of In_2S_3 were separated spatially through Pt/ In_2S_3 Schottky junctions. In the light of the above analyses, the Pt/ In_2S_3 hybrid may be fit for PHP.

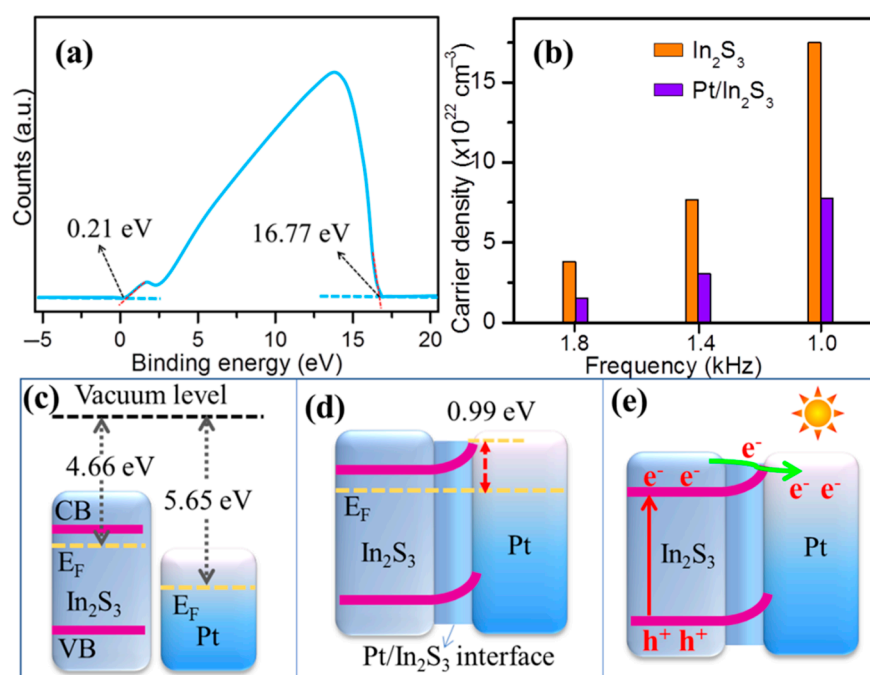


Figure 5. (a) UPS spectrum of In_2S_3 . (b) Carrier densities of In_2S_3 before and after Pt modification. Energy level diagrams for In_2S_3 and Pt (c) before and (d) after interfacing. (e) Illustration of photoexcited electrons transfers from In_2S_3 into Pt over Pt/ In_2S_3 interface under light irradiation.

2.2. Evaluation of PHP Activity

The PHP activity was evaluated by photocatalytic selective oxidation of phenylcarbinol ($PhCH_2OH$) under simulated sunlight. The two control groups (with photocatalyst in the dark and without photocatalyst under light irradiation) were firstly performed and showed no H_2 production. Then, we detected PHP activities of In_2S_3 and Pt/ In_2S_3 composites with different content of Pt (0.1%, 0.3%, 0.5% and 1%). As depicted in Figure 6a, the pure In_2S_3 exhibited low PHP activity (H_2 : $0.9 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$). However, the PHP activity of the In_2S_3 was significantly enhanced by loading a low amount of Pt. The photocatalytic H_2 evolution rates of 0.1%, 0.3%, 0.5% and 1% Pt/ In_2S_3 hybrids were about 4.1, 22.1, 17.1 and $14.6 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, respectively. The PHP activities of these Pt/ In_2S_3 hybrids appeared to have a volcano-like distribution. The 0.3% Pt/ In_2S_3 hybrid exhibited the highest PHP activity, which was approximately 24.56 times that of the pure In_2S_3 . It indicates that the apparent PHP kinetics of In_2S_3 was meaningfully improved by loading Pt clusters. The as-synthesized Pt/ In_2S_3 also exhibited a higher H_2 production rate ($7.97 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) under visible light irradiation than the reported Pt/ $Zn_3In_2S_6$ [14], Pt/CdS [42], etc [21–24]. (Table 1). Moreover, negligible PHP activity was detected for pure water splitting over 0.3% Pt/ In_2S_3 because of the sluggish oxidation half-reaction and significant Gibbs free energy change ($H_2O = H_2 + 1/2O_2$, $\Delta G \approx 238 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \gg 0$). Compared to PHP through overall water splitting, the thermodynamics of PHP was also remarkably ameliorated ($PhCH_2OH$

= PhCHO + H₂, $\Delta G \approx 28 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$). It should also be noted that the oxidized products of phenylcarbinol over the 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid were almost entirely benzaldehyde (the selectivity was nearly 100%). It may have been caused by the suitable oxidative potential of Pt/In₂S₃ for selectively oxidizing PhCH₂OH into PhCHO. Evidently, in the dual-function photoredox reaction system, Pt/In₂S₃ not only can selectively oxidize phenylcarbinol into fine value-added chemicals (benzaldehyde) with high selectivity but also can obtain clean energy (H₂) simultaneously. Moreover, the turnover number (TON) based on the amount of Pt was calculated to be about 9576 after 4 h. Notably, the corresponding turnover frequency (TOF) was about 2394 h⁻¹, which is comparable with the traditional thermal catalytic system (1109 h⁻¹) [27,60].

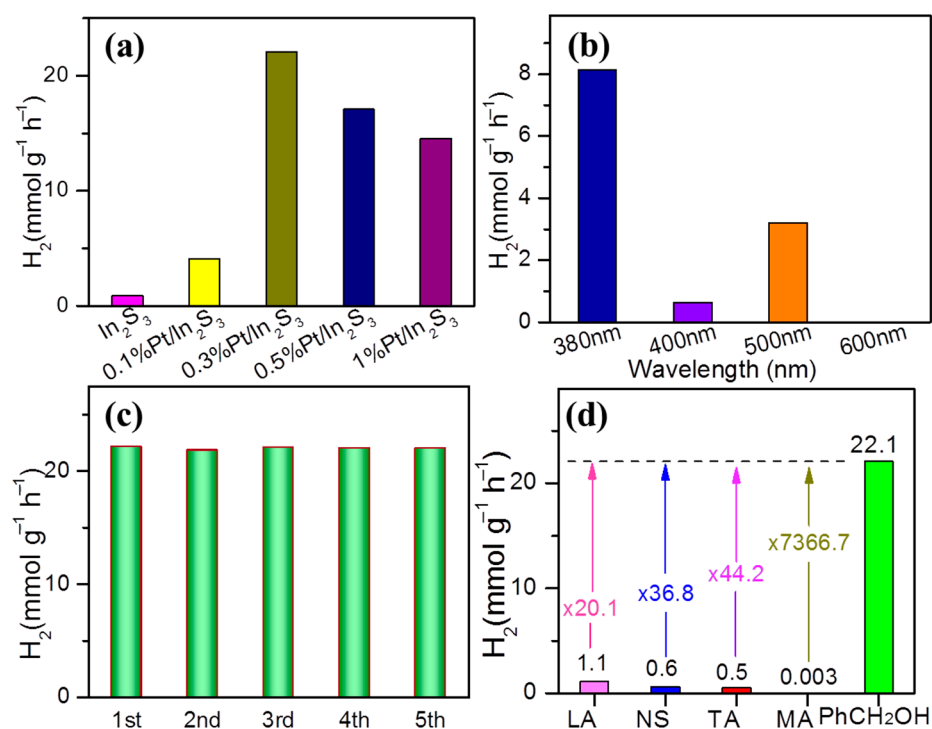


Figure 6. (a) The PHP activity of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃ with different Pt weight ratios for photocatalytic selective oxidation of phenylcarbinol and H₂ production under simulated sunlight irradiation. (b) The PHP activity of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ under monochromatic light irradiation with different wavelengths. (c) The PHP activity of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ under simulated sunlight irradiation for 5 recycles. (d) Comparison of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ PHP activity in different reaction systems (LA, NS, TA, MA and PhCH₂OH presents aqueous solutions of lactic acid, Na₂S, triethanolamine, methanol and phenylcarbinol, respectively) under simulated sunlight irradiation.

Table 1. Comparison of photocatalytic performance over different photocatalysts for photocatalytic H₂ production.

Photocatalyst	Light Source	Reagents	H ₂ Evolution (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Ref.
Pt/In ₂ S ₃	$\lambda \geq 420 \text{ nm}$	PhCH ₂ OH	7.97	This Work
Pt/CdS	$\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$	PhCH ₂ OH	4.9	[42]
Pt/Zn ₃ In ₂ S ₆	$\lambda \geq 420 \text{ nm}$	PhCH ₂ OH	0.9	[14]
Pt/g-C ₃ N ₄	$\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$	TEOA	3.02	[21]
MoP/In ₂ S ₃	$\lambda \geq 420 \text{ nm}$	Lactic acid	0.5	[22]
Zn ₃ In ₂ S ₆ In ₂ S ₃	$\lambda > 400 \text{ nm}$	bisphenol A	0.08	[23]
PdS/In ₂ S ₃	$\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$	Na ₂ S/Na ₂ SO ₃	3.6	[24]

Figure 6b shows the PHP activity of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ under monochromatic light with different wavelengths. The 380 nm-light and 500 nm-light driven PHP activities were higher than 400 nm. It indicates that the PHP activity of Pt/In₂S₃ was not only dependent on its light absorption spectrum. It is comprehensible because the PHP activity was an overall effect of light absorption, incident light intensity and light energy. Pt/In₂S₃ was inactive under 600 nm light because it was longer than the excitation wavelength of In₂S₃ (<590 nm). Nevertheless, the PHP activity of Pt/In₂S₃ under 500 nm light could still reach up to 3.2 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ with 3.72% of apparent quantum efficiency. In addition, the 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid demonstrated good photocatalytic stability with little H₂ production decrease (<0.5%) after five recycles (Figure 6c). To compare this dual-function photoredox reaction system with the sacrificial agent PHP, the classic sacrificial agents: lactic acid (LA), Na₂S (NS), triethanolamine (TA) and methanol (MA) were chosen [20]. Figure 6d depicts PHP comparisons between sacrificial agents and PhCH₂OH over 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ under the same reaction conditions. Specifically, the PHP rates of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ only reached 1.1, 0.6, 0.5 and 0.003 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ when LA, NS, TA and MA were added into the reaction system, respectively. Clearly, the superior PHP rate of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ was achieved through using phenylcarbinol, which was about 20.1, 36.8, 44.2 and 7366.7 times higher than that using LA, Na₂S and TEOA, respectively. These results confirm the superiority of photocatalytic selective conversion organics coupled with photocatalytic H₂ production, in which organics were selectively transformed into high value-added chemicals and simultaneous H₂ with the enhanced production rate that could be obtained.

2.3. Photocatalytic Mechanism

The photocatalytic activity demonstrated that it was mainly influenced by three factors: light absorption, active sites (likely surface area) and photoexcited charges separation and transportation [61–63]. Specifically, the photocatalysts are excited by the incident light to produce electron-hole pairs, which are then separated and transferred onto the active sites for redox reactions. Based on the above characterizations, after Pt clusters deposition on the 2D-3D In₂S₃, the light absorption did not become stronger (Figure 4b), and the surface area underwent a negligible change (Figure 4a). The surface area was not the main factor for the enhanced PHP activity, which is consistent with the reported Pt-loaded photocatalysts [64,65]. Therefore, light absorption and surface area are not the main factors for the boosted PHP activity. However, the electron circulating and the uplifted energy bands were observed on Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid as the result of the strong metal–support interactions between In₂S₃ and Pt. To understand the reasons behind the enhanced photocatalytic activity, the photoexcited charge behaviors were investigated. As shown in Figure 7a, the photocurrent of the Pt/In₂S₃ improved 2.08 times in contrast to the pure In₂S₃ under simulated sunlight illumination, suggesting efficient charge separation and transfer [66,67]. In addition, the photocurrent of the Pt/In₂S₃ still increased 1.85 times when MVCl₂ was added into the bath solution as an electron scavenger (Figure 7b). Moreover, the charge transport efficiency (η_{tra}) can be evaluated by the function: $\eta_{\text{tra}} = J_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}/J_{\text{MVCl}_2}$ ($J_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and J_{MVCl_2} are the photocurrent densities of the sample with and without MVCl₂, respectively) [68–70]. As expected, 90.1% of the charge transport efficiency could be achieved over the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid, which was approximately 1.13 times of the pure In₂S₃. These results indicate that the separation and transportation of In₂S₃ can be improved by loading Pt clusters. To further evaluate the impact of strong metal–support interactions on charge separation and transportation, the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) [71] and linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) tests were carried out [5,14]. Pt/In₂S₃ exhibited a smaller arc radius than In₂S₃ (Figure 7c), and the charge transport resistance of Pt/In₂S₃ (30.5 Ω) was weaker than that of In₂S₃ (33.9 Ω). This means that the loaded Pt clusters can speed charge separation and transportation of In₂S₃. This result is in line with the photocurrent analysis and can be further confirmed by LSV curves. As displayed in Figure 7d, compared to the pure In₂S₃, the current density of Pt/In₂S₃ exhibited a visible enhancement under light irradiation. In addition, the H₂ evolution overpotential

of Pt/In₂S₃ (−0.64 V) was 0.34 V lower than that of In₂S₃ (−0.98 V), which is conducive to H₂ evolution. Consequently, it can be concluded that the improved charge separation-transportation and the reduced H₂ evolution overpotential contribute to the efficient PHP activity of Pt/In₂S₃.

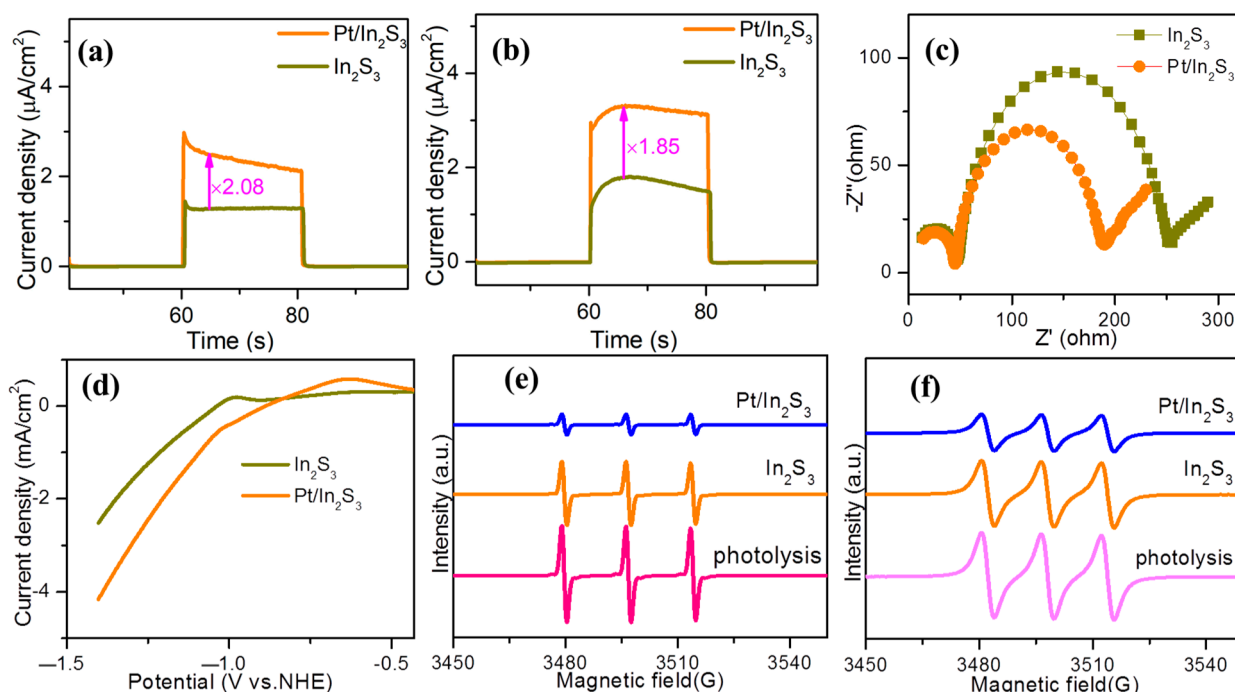


Figure 7. Transient photocurrent responses of catalysts (a) without and (b) with methyl viologen dichloride (MVCl₂). (c) EIS plots, (d) LSV curves, (e) TEMPO-e⁻ EPR spectra and (f) TEMPO-h⁺ EPR spectra of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃.

To understand the in-depth information behind these results, the utilization rates of photoexcited electrons (e⁻) and holes (h⁺) were studied through in situ electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) measurements [68]. As the control group, photolysis refers to the reaction system without photocatalysts (Figure 7e,f). In other words, the signal of photolysis is the intrinsic signal of the active TEMPO. The EPR signal intensity is reduced when TEMPO is captured by photoexcited electrons or holes [68]. When In₂S₃ or Pt/In₂S₃ was added into the reaction system, the EPR signals were both reduced for detecting electrons (Figure 7e) and holes (Figure 7f). This indicates that the photoexcited electrons and holes can be separated and transported on the surfaces of In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃. Notably, the EPR signal of Pt/In₂S₃ for photoexcited electrons was significantly lower than that of In₂S₃ (Figure 7e). This suggests efficient electron separation and transportation from In₂S₃ to Pt for reducing water/protons to H₂. In addition, the weaker EPR signal of TEMPO on Pt/In₂S₃ was also observed than that on In₂S₃ in the presence of PhCH₂OH under simulated sunlight illumination (Figure 7f). This indicates efficient hole transportation from the In₂S₃ component of Pt/In₂S₃ to reactive molecules of PhCH₂OH. Thus, the efficient separation and transportation of the photogenerated holes and electrons contribute to the enhanced PHP activity of the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid. The photoexcited holes can be fleetly consumed by PhCH₂OH to produce PhCHO. Simultaneously, the photoexcited electrons were spent by H⁺/H₂O to produce H₂.

To further inspect the conversion process of PhCH₂OH in this dual-function photocatalysis system, the in situ EPR with the addition of DMPO and in situ DRIFT were carried out [5,31,72–74]. As presented in Figure 8a, PhCH₂OH with DMPO under light irradiation could not produce EPR signals (photolysis). However, sextet peaks belonging to carbon-centered radicals (.CH(OH)Ph) [5,68] were observed on In₂S₃ and Pt/In₂S₃. This

means that the conversion process of PhCH₂OH is a free radical reaction. Moreover, the EPR intensity of Pt/In₂S₃ was more intense than In₂S₃, implying efficient charge separation-transportation and fast PhCH₂OH dehydrogenation on Pt/In₂S₃. In addition, one peak at 1703 cm⁻¹ ($\nu_{C=O}$) fell to the carbonyl group (C=O) of benzaldehyde (PhCHO) and doublet peaks at 2873 and 2935 cm⁻¹ (ν_{C-H}), attributed to the carbon-hydrogen bond (C-H) of the aldehyde group, were clearly observed on Pt/In₂S₃ under simulated sunlight (Figure 8b). These results indicate that PhCH₂OH is selectively oxidized into PhCHO via a carbon-centered radical process. The effects of the reactive species on PHP were also investigated by the trapping experiments (Figure 8c). Triethanolamine (TA) and carbon tetrachloride (CTC) were used as trapping agents for photoexcited holes and electrons, respectively. When TA was added into the reaction system, the H₂ production rate decreased. This indicates that the dehydrogenation of PhCH₂OH to H₂ production is restrained by TA. For the trapping agent CCl₄, a relatively large decrease was observed in the H₂ production rate. This indicates that the photogenerated electrons are major reductive species for the reduction in protons to H₂. These results suggest that synergistic effect occurred between PhCH₂OH dehydrogenation and H₂ production.

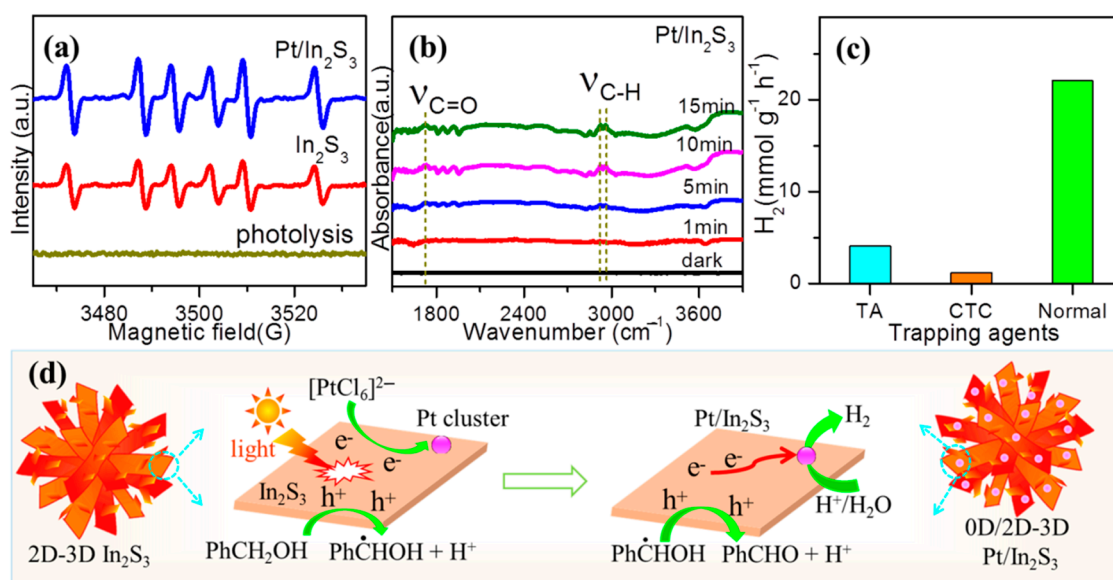


Figure 8. (a) EPR spectra of DMPO-CH(OH)Ph over different photocatalysts. (b) In situ DRIFTS spectra of the 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid with the existence of PhCH₂OH under simulated sunlight. (c) The effect of the trapping agents on the PHP over the 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid. (d) Illustration of the formation and photocatalytic mechanism of the 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructure.

From the above analysis, the photocatalytic mechanism was proposed as depicted in Figure 8c. Under simulated sunlight irradiation, the photoexcited electrons and holes were generated on the In₂S₃ nanosheets. Then, on the one hand, PhCH₂OH was oxidized into $\cdot\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{Ph}$, and the $\cdot\text{CH}(\text{OH})\text{Ph}$ free radical was further oxidized into PhCHO by the photoexcited holes located at In₂S₃. On the other hand, the photoexcited electrons were first consumed by [PtCl₆]²⁻ to produce Pt clusters and were then separated and transported from In₂S₃ into Pt clusters efficiently to produce H₂ by reducing H⁺/H₂O. During this redox process, [PtCl₆]²⁻ was reduced by the photoexcited electrons on the surfaces of In₂S₃, and Pt⁰ was anchored at the separated electron location. Thus, the as-synthesized Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructure would facilitate the electron transportation from In₂S₃ into Pt and improve PHP activity. Due to the competing reactions of H₂ evolution, the Pt cluster was in the optimized state for H₂ production. During the coupled redox reaction of PhCH₂OH oxidation and H₂ evolution, one molecule of PhCH₂OH was oxidized into one molecule of PhCHO by consuming two photoexcited holes. Simultaneously, one molecule of H₂ was produced by expending two electrons. Thus, the efficient, stable and atom-economic

dual-function photocatalytic reaction system was achieved on the 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructures.

3. Experiments and Methods

3.1. Materials

5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide (DMPO) and 2,2,6,6-Tetramethylpiperidin-1-oxyl (TEMPO) for EPR-spectroscopy were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Indium chloride tetrahydrate (InCl₃·4H₂O, 99.9%), thioacetamide (C₂H₅NS, ≥99.0%), chloroplatinic acid hexahydrate (H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O, Pt ≥35.7%), potassium ferrocyanide trihydrate (K₄[Fe(CN)₆]·3H₂O, ≥99.5%), phenylcarbinol (C₇H₈O, ≥99.0%), lactic acid (C₃H₆O₃, 85%), triethanolamine (C₆H₁₅NO₃, ≥99.0%), sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄, ≥98%), potassium chloride (KCl, 99.8%), potassium ferricyanide (K₃[Fe(CN)₆], 99%) and other used reagents were all analytical reagents and were used directly with no further purification.

3.2. Preparation of 2D-3D In₂S₃ and 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃

The 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructure was prepared as depicted in Figure 9. Briefly, InCl₃ was wholly dissolved into acid solution and reacted with thioacetamide (TAA) to form [In(TAA)₄]³⁺ and [In(TAA)₆]³⁺ complexes via In-S bonds [75]. Then, these complexes underwent the hydrothermal process to produce 2D-3D In₂S₃. In₂S₃ was easily formed because the solubility product constant (K_{sp}) of In₂S₃ was very small (5.7×10^{-74}) [75]. Finally, Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructure was obtained by an in situ photodeposition process. Namely, the Pt/In₂S₃ was synthesized in the process of PHP coupled with simultaneously selective phenylcarbinol conversion.

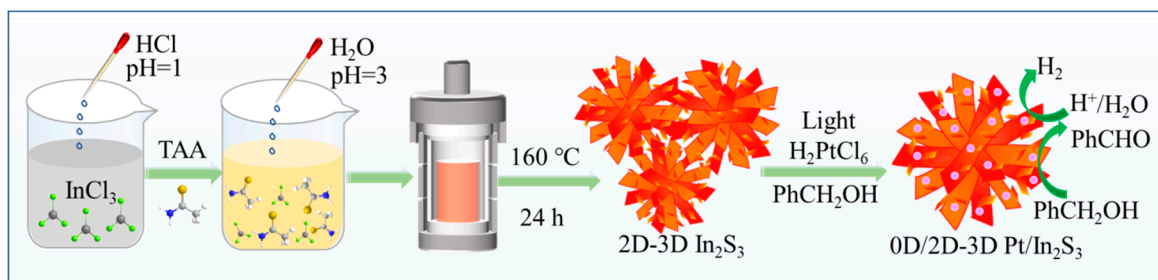


Figure 9. The preparation procedure of the 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructure.

In a typical synthesis, 1 mmol InCl₃·4H₂O was dissolved in deionized water, and the pH of the InCl₃ solution was adjusted to 1.0 by adding HCl to prevent InCl₃ hydrolysis. Then, 2.5 mmol C₂H₅NS was gradually added into the above solution and constantly stirred. The pH of the above solution was adjusted to 3.0 again by adding H₂O. The above solution was transferred to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel reactor and held at 180 °C for 24 h. After natural cooling to 25 °C, the orange precipitate was collected and washed with distilled water and anhydrous ethanol several times. Finally, the sediments were dried in a vacuum oven at 60 °C for 2 h. The pure 2D-3D In₂S₃ was obtained. The 0D/2D-3D Pt/In₂S₃ heterostructure was obtained by an in situ photodeposition method in the process of photocatalytic selective conversion of phenylcarbinol into benzaldehyde and H₂. The details are presented in the following section.

3.3. Photocatalytic Activity Test

The photocatalytic H₂ generation was carried out in a gas-tight Pyrex reactor. The 300 W Xenon lamp (PLS-SXE300D, Perfect Light Co., Beijing, China) was used as the simulated solar light. Typically, 10 mg In₂S₃ powders were dispersed in 10 mL phenylcarbinol solution and then different amounts of H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O were added. After bubbling argon to remove dissolved oxygen, the suspension was irradiated for photocatalytic H₂ production. After irradiation for 2 h, the H₂ was quantified using a gas chromatograph spectrometer.

(GC 9790II, Fuli, Wenling, China) equipped with a molecular sieve 5A column. The reaction liquor was detected by high performance liquid chromatography (HP-LC, watersE2695, MA, USA). The detector of the HP-LC was PDA 2998. The mobile phase consisted of 40% deionized water and 60% acetonitrile with a flow rate of 1 mL min^{-1} . Finally, the precipitate (Pt/ In_2S_3) after light exposure was collected, washed with ethanol and dried at 60°C for 2 h. Catalysts with different Pt content added were rewritten as $x\%$ Pt/ In_2S_3 (x is a weight ratio of Pt in the Pt/ In_2S_3 composite, $x = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1.0$). For comparison, the pure In_2S_3 was also quantitatively analyzed for H_2 production without adding $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$. The apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) for H_2 evolution was obtained by the following equation: $\text{AQE} = (2 \times N_{\text{H}}/N_{\text{p}}) \times 100\%$, where N_{H} and N_{p} are the numbers of evolved H_2 molecules and incident photons, respectively. Turnover number (TON) was calculated based on the quantity of H_2 and Pt: $\text{TON} = N_{\text{H}}/N_{\text{pt}}$, where N_{pt} is the number of Pt. The turnover frequency (TOF) was measured via TON divided by reaction time. Benzaldehyde selectivity was calculated by the equation: $\text{Selectivity} = [C_{\text{CHO}}/(C_0 - C_{\text{OH}})] \times 100\%$, where C_0 , C_{OH} and C_{CHO} are the concentrations of phenylcarbinol, the residual phenylcarbinol and the corresponding aldehydes, respectively.

3.4. Characterization

Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) pattern of the sample was determined by a Bruker D8 X-ray powder diffractometer using Ni-filtered Cu $K\alpha$ radiation. The microstructure and morphologies of the prepared samples were carried out by scanning electron microscope (SEM, Regulus 8200, Hitachi Limited, Tokyo, Japan) and transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM2100, JEOL, Akishima-shi, Japan). Elemental mappings were measured using an energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDX). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Thermo Scientific, Massachusetts, America) measurements were performed on Thermo Scientific ESCA Lab250 spectrometer. All the binding energies were referred to the C 1s peak at 284.6 eV of the surface adventitious carbon. UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of the powders were obtained on a UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-3600, Kyoto, Japan), with BaSO_4 used as a reference. Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas were tested on a Micromeritics ASAP 2460 instrument. In situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFT) measurements were detected on a Nicolet 8700 FTIR spectrometer. The carbon-centered radicals and the photoexcited charges (electrons and holes) were in situ seen on an electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR, A300, Karlsruhe, Bruker, Germany) by DMPO and TEMPO as trapping agents, respectively. The work function of the In_2S_3 was obtained on an ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS, Thermo ESCALAB 250XI, Waltham, MA, USA). The actual Pt content in the Pt/ In_2S_3 sample was measured by an inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Agilent 5110, Santa Clara, CA, USA).

3.5. Photoelectrochemical Property Test

The photoelectrochemical (PEC) tests were carried out on a CHI-660E electrochemical workstation (CH Instruments, Bee Cave, TX, USA). An Ag/AgCl and a Pt wire were used as the reference electrode and the counter electrode, respectively. The sample powder was deposited on the FTO ($50 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm}$) as a working electrode. Typically, a uniform solution was obtained by ultrasonically dispersing 5 mg samples into 400 μL deionized water. Then, 20 μL of the above solution were deposited on the FTO substrate. The working electrode was obtained after drying at room temperature. The transient photocurrent responses, linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) plots and Mott–Schottky (M-S) plots were detected in a 0.2 M Na_2SO_4 aqueous solution. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) Nyquist plots were detected in 0.1 M KCl solution containing 0.1 M $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]/\text{K}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$.

4. Conclusions

In summary, a 2D-3D In_2S_3 hierarchical structure decorated by 0D Pt clusters was successfully fabricated by the sequential hydrothermal process and in situ photodeposition.

The strong metal–support interactions (SMSI) of the Pt/In₂S₃ hybrid improved the charge separation and transportation. and thus. resulted in the significant enhancement of photocatalytic H₂ production. The optimized 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ exhibited the highest and stable photocatalytic activity with 22.1 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ of H₂ evolution rate and almost 100% selectivity of benzaldehyde production. In addition, the turnover frequency of 0.3% Pt/In₂S₃ reached up to approximately 2394 h⁻¹, and 3.72% of apparent quantum efficiency was achieved under 500 nm light irradiation. Coupling phenylcarbinol conversion with H₂ evolution was superior to the traditional sacrificial agents. The H₂ production using phenylcarbinol was approximately 20.1, 36.8, 44.2 and 7366.7 times higher than that using lactic acid, Na₂S, triethanolamine and methanol as sacrificial agents under the same reaction condition, respectively. Notably, in this dual-function photocatalysis, the photoexcited holes located at the In₂S₃ were utilized for selective oxidizing phenylcarbinol into value-added fine chemicals benzaldehyde; conversely, the photoexcited electrons on the In₂S₃ were used firstly for reducing [PtCl₆]²⁻ to fabricate Pt clusters anchored at the separated electron location and then transported from the In₂S₃ to the Pt clusters for H₂ production. The Pt clusters were stable, and the charge transport efficiency of In₂S₃ reached up to approximately 90.1% by the modification of the Pt clusters. Moreover, the synergistic effect occurred between PhCH₂OH dehydrogenation and H₂ production. This work is expected to aid the design of efficient and stable photocatalysts to simultaneously utilize photoexcited holes and electrons, thereby gaining the value-added fine chemicals and clean energy in one reaction system.

Author Contributions: H.Z.: investigation, data curation, writing—original draft preparation. P.X.: formal analysis, resources, writing—original draft preparation. B.L.: resources, methodology. Q.L.: software. X.Z.: resources, formal analysis, writing—review and editing. S.Z.: resources. Z.R.: validation. S.C.: funding acquisition, formal analysis, writing—review and editing, supervision. S.M.: Conceptualization, formal analysis, writing—review and editing, supervision, project administration, funding acquisition. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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