

VIP Artificial Photosynthesis Very Important Paper

International Edition: DOI: 10.1002/anie.202000929
German Edition: DOI: 10.1002/ange.202000929

Semiconductor/Covalent-Organic-Framework Z-Scheme Heterojunctions for Artificial Photosynthesis

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Abstract: A strategy to covalently connect crystalline covalent organic frameworks (COFs) with semiconductors to create stable organic–inorganic Z-scheme heterojunctions for artificial photosynthesis is presented. A series of COF–semiconductor Z-scheme photocatalysts combining water-oxidation semiconductors (TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃) with CO₂ reduction COFs (COF-316/318) was synthesized and exhibited high photocatalytic CO₂-to-CO conversion efficiencies (up to 69.67 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), with H₂O as the electron donor in the gas–solid CO₂ reduction, without additional photosensitizers and sacrificial agents. This is the first report of covalently bonded COF/inorganic-semiconductor systems utilizing the Z-scheme applied for artificial photosynthesis. Experiments and calculations confirmed efficient semiconductor-to-COF electron transfer by covalent coupling, resulting in electron accumulation in the cyano/pyridine moieties of the COF for CO₂ reduction and holes in the semiconductor for H₂O oxidation, thus mimicking natural photosynthesis.

Introduction

Excessive emission of carbon dioxide (CO₂) produced from the burning of fossil fuels has caused energy and environmental issues that need to be resolved.^[1] Inspired by natural photosynthesis, converting CO₂ and H₂O into carbohydrates and O₂ by solar energy is regarded as an ideal and green approach to solve this problem.^[2] However, it is still challenging to integrate the CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) and H₂O oxidation reaction into one photosynthetic system and to couple them effectively.^[2,3] Traditional Z-scheme heterojunctions assembled from two inorganic semiconductors into a single component with two separate functional sites has been considered as an approach that satisfies the

forementioned criteria.^[3a] This type of Z-scheme system has been widely used in water splitting, while only a few studies have been conducted in the field of the CO₂RR because many vital aspects are difficult to solve simultaneously in most all-inorganic Z-scheme system: i) efficient light absorption; ii) fast CO₂ adsorption and diffusion; iii) suitable redox sites and band structure for simultaneous CO₂ reduction and H₂O oxidation; iv) fast separation and migration of photo-generated electrons and holes to the adsorbed CO₂ and H₂O molecules, respectively, at the active sites.^[4] As a result, the photocatalytic efficiency of the CO₂ reduction for all-inorganic Z-scheme systems is still difficult to improve presently. The combination of functionalized organic components and inorganic semiconductors is an effective way to improve these factors, but the connectivity between them suffers from instability and the ineffectiveness of physical adsorption or the stacking force.^[4a,5] On the contrary, employing catalysts with well-defined structures to further systematically study the reaction mechanisms is of great significance.^[6]

Crystalline covalent organic frameworks (COFs), which have large surface areas and a tunable structure, are expected to provide an ideal scaffold for CO₂ adsorption, diffusion, and activation.^[7] With suitable building blocks and functional organic groups, COFs have been shown to have a high visible-light absorption capacity and fast charge-carrier mobility.^[8] Furthermore, many COF-based photocatalysts have been successfully used for the light-driven reduction of CO₂.^[6a,7c–e] Meanwhile, many inorganic semiconductors (SCs, such as TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, or α -Fe₂O₃) have been demonstrated to be outstanding photocatalysts that can achieve efficient H₂O photooxidation.^[9] On this basis, functionally combining the water-oxidizing inorganic semiconductor with CO₂ reduction COFs to form heterogeneous Z-scheme systems may be a feasible strategy to enhance the efficiency of artificial photosynthesis, that is, simultaneously reduce CO₂ and oxidize water. The key to achieve this integration is whether the charge carrier can be effectively transferred between the semiconductor and the COF. Connection via covalent bonds is a good choice to address these problems, as it also provides a high stability for the photocatalyst.^[10] However, no practical method for the effective covalent connection of organic porous materials and inorganic semiconductors is known yet.

In this work, we present a method for the fabrication of stable covalently linked organic–inorganic Z-scheme systems comprising COFs and inorganic oxide semiconductors for artificial photosynthesis (CO₂RR with H₂O). Polyarylether-(PAE)-COFs are a class of COFs that are condensed through

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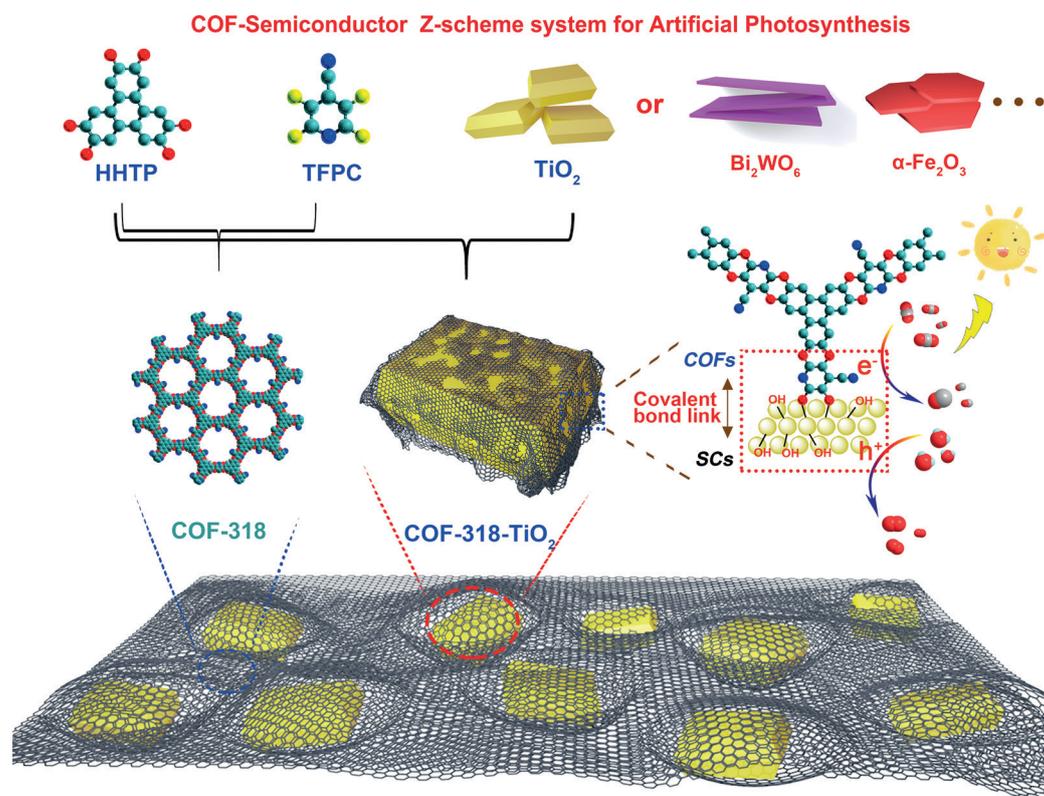
Supporting information and the ORCID identification number(s) for the author(s) of this article can be found under:
<https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.202000929>.

aromatic nucleophilic substitution between various *o*-difluorobenzene and catechol building blocks.^[11] We chose 2,3,6,7,10,11-hexahydroxytriphenylene (HHTP) and tetrafluorophthalonitrile (TFPN) or 2,3,5,6-tetrafluoro-4-pyridinecarbonitrile (TFPC) as precursors to obtain two PAE-COFs, named COF-316 and COF-318, respectively. The strong electron-withdrawing substituents on the TFPN and TFPC building blocks make TFPN/TFPC prone to nucleophilic attacks by hydroxyl functionalities.^[12] It is well known that various semiconductors can be functionalized by organic functional groups through covalent linking, especially oxide-semiconductors, which always contain hydroxyl functional groups on the surface.^[13] Through this feature, semiconductors can be covalently connected to PAE-COFs. As a proof of concept, a series of COF/oxide-semiconductor heterojunctions (COF-SC: COF-TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃) were designed and synthesized for photosynthetic gas-solid CO₂ reduction using H₂O as the electron donor, without the help of additional photosensitizers and sacrificial agents. As expected, the covalently linked COF-318-TiO₂ Z-scheme catalyst showed the highest CO production rate of 69.67 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, 5.2 times higher than the pure COF-318 (13.3 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) and six times higher than TiO₂ (11.8 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), also much higher than the plain physical mixture (29.3 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), which is one of the best performances of all the reported catalysts for overall CO₂ reduction with H₂O to our knowledge. Moreover, COF-318-TiO₂, in which pyridine and cyano moieties coexist, has a higher performance than COF-316-TiO₂ (57.16 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), which

only contains cyano groups. From experiment and density functional theory (DFT) calculations, we illustrate the electron-transfer direction and CO₂-reduction mechanisms. The photogenerated electrons driven by photo-irradiation transfer effectively from the semiconductor to the COF by covalent coupling, resulting in the electrons accumulating at the cyano/pyridine active sites of the COF for the CO₂RR, while positively charged holes in semiconductor enable H₂O oxidation, thus mimicking natural photosynthesis. From mechanism analysis, the coexistence of pyridine and cyano groups reduces the overall energy barrier for the reduction of CO₂. Our results provide a versatile route for the future construction of COF-semiconductor heterojunctions and new possibilities for the development of high-performance organic-inorganic Z-scheme systems applied for artificial photosynthesis.

Results and Discussion

The COF-318/316-semiconductor (COF-318/316-SC) composites were synthesized by condensation of HHTP, TFPC/TFPN, and hydroxyl-containing oxide semiconductors (TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃; Scheme 1). The structures and successful preparation of COF-318 and COF-318-TiO₂-1/2/3/4 (20%, 25%, 40%, and 55% mass loading of TiO₂, respectively, abbreviated as COF-318-TiO₂ for 40 wt% content of TiO₂) were confirmed by powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD)



Scheme 1. Schematic representation of the preparation of COF-318-SCs via the condensation of COF-318 and semiconductor materials.

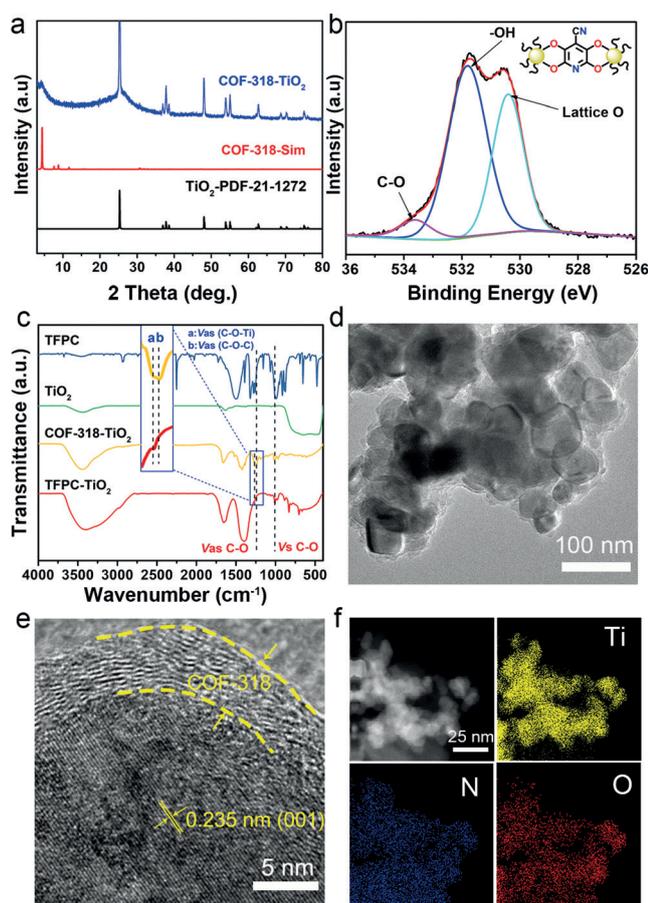


Figure 1. Characterization and morphology of COF-318-TiO₂. a) Experimental and simulated PXRD patterns of COF-318-TiO₂ (40 wt% for TiO₂); b) High-resolution O 1s XPS spectrum of model compound TFPC-TiO₂; c) FTIR spectrum of COF-318-TiO₂; d) TEM image of COF-318-TiO₂; e) HRTEM image and lattice fringes (the lattice fringe of 0.235 nm is attributed to the (001) face of TiO₂); f) High-angle annular-dark-field element mapping of COF-318-TiO₂.

patterns as shown in Figures 1a and S1,S2 (Supporting Information).

The presence of characteristic diffraction peaks at 4.38°, 7.53°, 8.82°, and 30.67° were attributed to the crystalline COF-318. The residual peaks in COF-318-TiO₂ agreed with the simulated PXRD patterns of anatase TiO₂ (PDF-21-1272). Proof of the covalent-bond connection was provided by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, and DFT calculations. The XPS results showed that C–O bonds exist in the model compounds TFPC-TiO₂ and COF-318-TiO₂ (Figures 1b and S9–S15). In the FTIR spectrum (Figure 1c), the signal at 1012 cm⁻¹ could be assigned to the symmetric stretching vibration of the dioxin C–O bond of COF-318-TiO₂, and it also existed in TFPC-TiO₂. The peak at 1243 cm⁻¹ was assigned to the C–O–C asymmetric stretching vibration of COF-318 (b: Vas C–O–C in Figure 1c), while the signal at 1265 cm⁻¹ was assigned to the C–O–Ti asymmetric stretching vibration (a: Vas C–O–Ti in Figure 1c). All these evidences illustrate that TiO₂ was successfully attached to COF-318/TFPC through C–O covalent bonds. The structure of the as-prepared COF-318-

Bi₂WO₆ (40 wt% of Bi₂WO₆) and COF-318- α -Fe₂O₃ (40 wt% of α -Fe₂O₃) were also confirmed by PXRD (Figures S3,S4) and FTIR (Figures S7,S8). Similarly, the structures and successful preparation of COF-316 and COF-316-TiO₂ were confirmed by PXRD as shown in Figures S5,S6. The porous structures and surface areas of these samples were evaluated by N₂ sorption measurements at 77 K (Figures S16–S18). The surface area of COF-318-TiO₂ was calculated to be 196.386 m² g⁻¹ using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method, which is smaller than that of pure COF-318 (461.295 m² g⁻¹). The difference is due to the presence of TiO₂, which has a low surface area (26.484 m² g⁻¹). The pore size of COF-318 is distributing between \approx 1.6 nm and \approx 2.8 nm, which was calculated from the N₂ adsorption isotherms. This kind of pore also exists in COF-318-TiO₂ due to the introduced nonporosity of TiO₂. The TiO₂ mass content of COF-318-TiO₂ was calculated from thermogravimetric analysis (TGA; Figure S20).

The morphology of the COF-318-SCs was investigated by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Figures S21,S22 show SEM and TEM images of pure COF-318 and TiO₂. They reveal that the bulk COF-318 consists of graphene-like layered assemblies in thin nanosheets. The synthesized TiO₂ was in the anatase type with an average diameter of circa 50 nm. Significantly, from the TEM images of COF-318-TiO₂ (Figures 1d and S23), all TiO₂ was completely covered by COF-318, which indicates that there is a strong bonding interaction between TiO₂ and the COF. In the high-resolution TEM (HR-TEM) image (Figure 1e) of COF-318-TiO₂, the lattice fringe of 0.235 nm was attributed to the (001) face of TiO₂, while the outer covering with a thickness of 5–10 nm was attributed to the COF shell. Figure 1f shows the high-angle annular dark field (HAADF) image and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) elemental mapping of the COF-318-TiO₂ samples, signifying that the Ti, N, and O are evenly distributed within the COF-318-TiO₂ nanostructure. The morphologies and elemental mappings of COF-318-Bi₂WO₆ and COF-318- α -Fe₂O₃ are shown in Figures S24,S25. It can be clearly seen that Bi₂WO₆ and α -Fe₂O₃ are uniformly covered by COF-318 as well. The morphology of COF-316-TiO₂ was also investigated and is shown in Figure S26. These results indicate that the selected semiconductors are all encapsulated uniformly by the selected COFs, confirming the versatility of this approach.

Previous studies have confirmed that a high CO₂ adsorption capability is favorable to the improvement of the photocatalytic performance.^[5b,14] CO₂ capacity measurements were performed for the synthesized hybrid materials COF-318-TiO₂ as well as pure COF and TiO₂ (Figures 2a and S19). The results show that COF-318-TiO₂ has high CO₂ uptakes of 27.5 and 19.0 cm³ g⁻¹ at 273 K and 298 K, respectively. This large absorption ability is kinetically advantageous for CO₂ reduction.^[15] After that, UV/Vis absorption measurements were performed, followed by a Tauc plot, to estimate the band gap for the as-prepared COF-318 and TiO₂ (Figure 2b) as well as Bi₂WO₆ and α -Fe₂O₃ (Figures S27,S28). Mott–Schottky (MS) measurements were conducted to determine the electronic band positions of the as-prepared materials (Figures 2c and S29–S32). The conduction-band position is -0.55

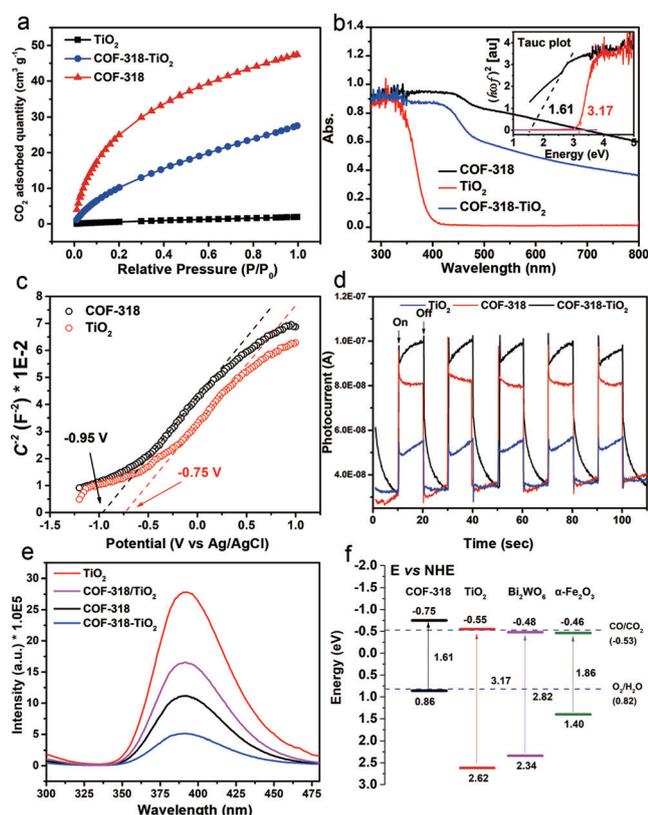


Figure 2. CO₂ adsorption and optical properties of the COF-SCs. a) CO₂ adsorption curves of COF-318, TiO₂, and COF-318-TiO₂ measured at 273 K; b) Solid-state UV/Vis absorption spectra of COF-318, TiO₂, and COF-318-TiO₂ (Inset: Tauc plot); c) Mott–Schottky plot for COF-318 and TiO₂; d) Transient photocurrent response of COF-318-TiO₂, TiO₂, and COF-318-TiO₂; e) PL of COF-318, TiO₂, and COF-318-TiO₂; f) Band-structure diagram for COF-318, TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃.

and -0.75 eV (vs. NHE) for COF-318 and TiO₂. Combined with the band gap of COF-318 and TiO₂ from UV/Vis absorption data, the valence-band position of them can be determined as 0.86 and 2.62 eV, respectively.

The electron-transfer direction between COF-318 and TiO₂ and whether a Z-scheme or a type-II heterojunction was formed will be discussed in detail below. We based this on the idea that the existence of covalent-bond linking in the COF-318-TiO₂ heterojunction causes the superior photo-induced electron separation/transport efficiency compared to conventional heterojunctions. As a proof of concept, transient photocurrent response and photoluminescence (PL) measurements were conducted to investigate the charge-transfer behaviors (Figure 2d). As expected, the intensity of the transient photocurrent response of COF-318-TiO₂ turned out to be 3 times and 1.5 times higher than that of pure TiO₂ and COF-318, respectively. The transient-photocurrent-response intensities of COF-318-Bi₂WO₆ and COF-318- α -Fe₂O₃ were also much higher than those of COF-318, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃, as shown in Figures S33,S34. The PL of COF-318-TiO₂ showed the weakest intensity of all (Figure 2e), much lower than that of the physical-mixture composite COF-318/TiO₂.

All these results illustrate that the covalently linked heterojunction can effectively enhance electron–hole separation and prevent electron–hole recombination, which is attributed to an efficient electron transfer through the covalent bonds. At the same time, the electronic conductivity of the COF-SCs was also found to be better than that of the semiconductors in electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements, as indicated by the radius of the preceding semicircle (Figures S35–S37), suggesting that the covalent linkage of COF and semiconductor can clearly enhance the charge transfer.

Theoretically, a photocatalyst needs a more negative conduction-band-minimum (CBM) potential than the theoretical CO₂ reduction potential to complete the CO₂RR. As for the H₂O oxidation reaction, a more positive valence-band-maximum (VBM) potential is needed to catalyze the H₂O/O₂ conversion.^[6a] The optical band-structure diagrams of COF-318, TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃ are displayed in Figure 2f. The results show that COF-318 is capable of reducing CO₂ to many reductive carbon-based products (such as CO, CH₄, or HCOOH), and these semiconductors are capable of oxidizing H₂O to O₂. Based on this, the efficient bonding between COF-318 and semiconductors has great potential to complete the overall reaction (that is, CO₂RR with H₂O as the electron donor).

The photocatalytic CO₂-reduction performance was investigated with the gas–solid method under simulated sunlight irradiation ($\lambda = 380$ –800 nm), without an additional photosensitizer, sacrificial agent, or co-catalyst. Detailed descriptions of the photocatalytic CO₂-reduction measurement are presented in the Supporting information (Section S3). Before the gas–solid photocatalytic reaction measurements, the COF-SCs were soak-washed with 60 °C *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) and H₂O for 12 h, then transferred to a Soxhlet extractor and washed with tetrahydrofuran for 24 h. Finally, the product was evacuated at 150 °C under dynamic vacuum overnight to yield the activated sample. As shown in Figures 3a and S38, COF-318-TiO₂ displays an optimal CO formation rate of 278.7 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$, much higher than 53.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ for bulk COF-318 and 47.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ for bulk TiO₂, revealing the advantage of the heterostructure. We also tested the performance of the other COF-SC heterojunctions COF-318-Bi₂WO₆ and COF-318- α -Fe₂O₃ (Figures 3b and S39). After forming a heterojunction with COF-318 and COF-316, in all cases the CO₂ reduction activity greatly improved compared to the bulk component. More importantly, the covalently connected COF-318-TiO₂ shows a much higher value than the physical mixture COF-318/TiO₂ (117.2 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$, 40 wt% content of TiO₂), showing the superiority of the covalently linked heterojunction. This is, to our knowledge, one of the best performances reported for the overall CO₂ reduction with H₂O (see Table S1). The CO₂ reduction performance of the composites with different TiO₂ content shows a volcanic shape, and the performance is the highest at 40 wt% content, which is most likely due to the increased active-site exposure and more efficient electron transfer of the composites in an appropriate proportion.

During the photoreduction, this catalyst can simultaneously achieve the reaction of H₂O oxidation to O₂, which was

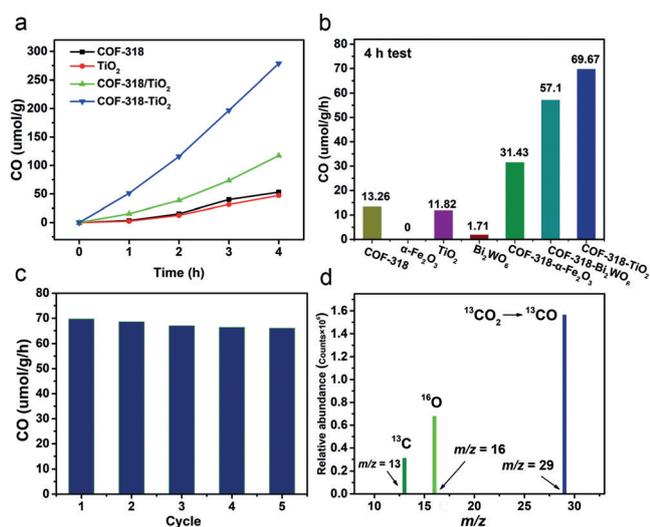


Figure 3. Photocatalytic CO₂RR performance of COF-SCs. a) Photocatalytic CO₂-to-CO performances of COF-318-TiO₂ for gas–solid CO₂ reduction compared with COF-318, TiO₂, and COF-318/TiO₂; b) Photocatalytic performances of various COF-318-SCs as well as bulk COF-318, TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃; c) Durability measurements of COF-318-TiO₂; d) Mass spectroscopy of ¹³CO ($m/z = 29$) produced from the photocatalytic reduction of ¹³CO₂.

confirmed by isotope-labeling experiments through mass spectrometry. The stability of the COF-318-TiO₂ hybrid was investigated by five consecutive runs with each run lasting 4 h under light irradiation. Here, the performances showed only negligible drops (Figure 3c). We then performed isotope-labeling experiments to ascertain the carbon and oxygen sources of the resulting products. As shown in the mass spectrum in Figure 3d, ¹³CO ($m/z = 29$) was detected when using ¹³CO₂ as a substrate. Moreover, when H₂O was replaced by H₂¹⁸O, ¹⁸O₂ ($m/z = 36$) and ¹⁸O¹⁶O ($m/z = 34$) were detected after the reaction (Figures S40,S41), affirming that the generated ¹⁸O₂/O₂ is derived from the oxidation of H₂¹⁸O/H₂O. Crystallinity and structural integrity of the COF-318-SCs were retained after the reaction, as confirmed by PXRD (Figures S42–S44).

To investigate the connection mode between COF-318 and the semiconductor TiO₂, we investigated the adsorption of COF-318(010) on the TiO₂(001) and (101) facets from a theoretical point of view. Both adsorptions are thermodynamically favorable through the formation of a C_{COF}–O_{TiO₂}[–]–Ti_{5c} covalent connection ($d_{\text{Ti5c-O}} = 2.04\text{--}2.10 \text{ \AA}$), while the adsorption on TiO₂(001) is more stable than on (101), as shown in Figures S45,S46 (–0.80 vs. –0.72 eV). A more careful comparison of the density of states (DOS) for the individual components (TiO₂(001) and COF) and the COF-318(010)-TiO₂(001) composite shows interesting electronic characteristics (Figures 4a and S47). Through the connection, a new valence band (VB) and conduction band (CB) was formed by the insertion of C(2p) and N(2p) bands between the O(2p) and Ti(3d) bands of pure TiO₂(001), with a band gap of only 0.35 eV, indicating a photonic sensitization of the TiO₂ substrate by the COF layer. The Fermi level of COF-318(010)-TiO₂(001) moves inside the valence band by an

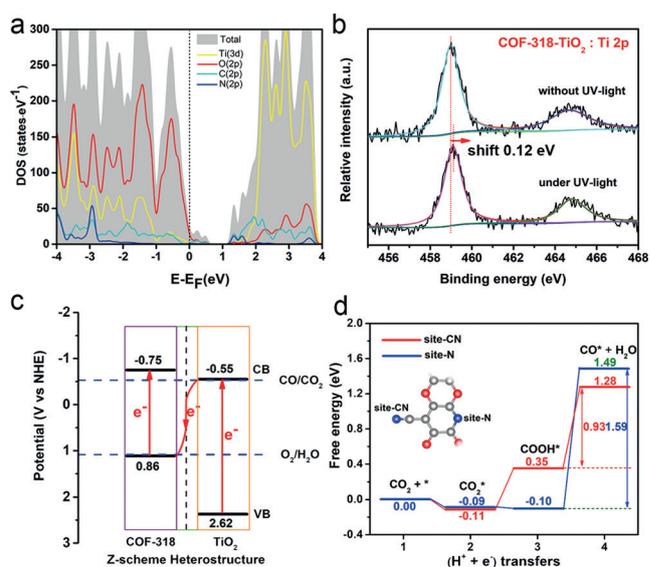


Figure 4. Mechanism and DFT calculations. a) Atom-projected density of states for COF-318(010)-TiO₂(001). b) High-resolution in-situ XPS for Ti 2p of COF-318-TiO₂ in the dark and under 365 nm LED irradiation; c) Schematic illustration of the charge-transfer process under light irradiation with the Z-scheme model; d) CO₂RR process on COF-318-TiO₂ based on DFT calculations.

increase of the energy of the O(2p) and Ti(3d) states. On the contrary, the lowest unoccupied Ti(3d) states are elevated to 1.5 eV due to the adsorption of COF-318. Consequently, a photoelectron would potentially transfer from TiO₂ to the COF-318 layer.

To clarify the electron-transfer direction between COF-318 and TiO₂ experimentally and whether it complies with the Z-scheme or type-II heterojunction pathway, high-resolution in-situ XPS measurements for the Ti 2p states of COF-318-TiO₂ were conducted (Figure 4b). The positive shift in the Ti 2p binding energy under UV irradiation is due to the electron-density decrease at the Ti sites.^[16] These results show that the migration direction of the photogenerated electrons is from TiO₂ to COF-318, which is in line with the theoretical results. The proposed transfer path of the photogenerated electrons is shown in Figure 4c. In detail, by irradiation with UV/Vis light, both COF-318 and TiO₂ in COF-318-TiO₂ can be excited to generate electrons and holes, while the excited electrons of TiO₂ tend to transfer to COF-318 and, finally, accumulate at the pyridine/cyano moieties. Simultaneously, the remaining positive holes accumulate in the VB of TiO₂. The entire electron-transfer path forms a Z-scheme. Importantly, the Z-scheme of COF-318-TiO₂ takes advantage of the high photoreduction potential of COF-318 and the powerful photooxidation ability of TiO₂. Furthermore, the CO₂ reduction pathway was investigated via the computational hydrogen electrode model using DFT. Referring to the primitive steps for CO₂ reduction to CO, as presented in Figure 4d, the second proton-coupled electron-transfer step (*COOH → *CO) serves as the potential-determining step (PDS). To identify the specific active sites for CO₂ reduction in the COF, two possible reactive sites—N atoms in pyridine (site-N) and the cyano group (site-CN)—were considered for the reduc-

tion. The required free-energy change for the PDS is calculated to 1.59 and 0.93 eV for site-N and site-CN, respectively, suggesting a lower required overpotential for site-CN. Therefore, we propose that the cyano group could be a promising catalytic site for CO₂ photoreduction. From another point of view, the cyano group plays the role of an electron acceptor.^[17] It should be noted that the ability to capture CO₂ is almost equivalent on both sites, while the CO₂ activation to *COOH is more favorable on site-N. This may lead to another possible pathway on pyridine N, lowering the difference between site-N and site-CN. Hence, the photo-generated electrons tend to aggregate at the cyano group, which is more conducive to the reduction of CO₂. As the second electron and proton inject into the $\text{C}\equiv\text{N}-\text{*COOH}$ unit, the *COOH finally turns into CO molecules and desorbs. The H₂O oxidation process in hole-doped TiO₂ has already been extensively studied and unanimously recognized. Overall, we can conclude that the pyridine group is beneficial to the first step of CO₂ activation to *COOH, and the cyano group is favorable for the second proton-coupled electron-transfer (*COO \rightarrow *CO). Therefore, the presence of both pyridine and cyano groups lowers the overall energy barrier for the reduction of CO₂. As a result, compared with isolated cyano active sites in COF-316-TiO₂, the combination of pyridine and cyano groups causes a higher CO₂ reduction activity.

Conclusion

In summary, we developed a strategy to fabricate COFs coupled to inorganic oxide semiconductors through stable covalent bonds, forming organic-inorganic Z-scheme heterojunctions for artificial photosynthesis. Three types of semiconductors (TiO₂, Bi₂WO₆, and α -Fe₂O₃) and two types of COFs (COF-316 and COF-318) were selected to construct COF-semiconductor heterojunctions and used for photosynthetic gas-solid CO₂RR using H₂O as the electron donor, without additional photosensitizers, sacrificial agents, and co-catalysts. The covalently linked COF-318-TiO₂ Z-scheme heterojunction shows the highest CO production rate of 69.67 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, which is about six times higher than that of the pure COF-318 and TiO₂, and also much higher than that of the physical-mixture composites. Through comprehensive characterization and DFT calculations, we confirmed that the effective covalent coupling between organic framework and semiconductor enables photo-generated electrons to transfer efficiently between organic functional groups and the semiconductor. This feature results in the photoexcited electrons and holes accumulating in the COF and TiO₂, respectively, and can be efficiently used for CO₂ reduction and H₂O oxidation, thus simulated the artificial photosynthesis. Experiment and DFT calculations suggest the superiority of the coexistence of pyridine and cyano active sites in the COF photocatalyst for CO₂ reduction. This strategy represents a new insight for the future rational design of Z-scheme organic-inorganic heterojunctions for artificial photosynthesis.

Acknowledgements

This work was financially supported by NSFC (No. 21871141, 21871142, 21701085, and 21901122), the NSF of Jiangsu Province of China (No. BK20171032), the Natural Science Research of Jiangsu Higher Education Institutions of China (No. 17KJB150025 and 19KJB150011), and funded by the China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (No. 2018M630572 and 2019M651873), the Postgraduate Research & Practice Innovation Program of Jiangsu Province (KYCX19_0781), the Priority Academic Program Development of Jiangsu Higher Education Institutions, and the Foundation of Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Center of Biomedical Functional Materials.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: artificial photosynthesis · CO₂ photoreduction · covalent organic frameworks · semiconductors · Z-scheme

How to cite: *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2020**, *59*, 6500–6506
Angew. Chem. **2020**, *132*, 6562–6568

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Manuscript received: January 18, 2020

Revised manuscript received: January 26, 2020

Accepted manuscript online: January 27, 2020

Version of record online: February 25, 2020