

Carbon dots-assisted cobalt ions anchored on graphitic carbon nitride enables highly efficient photocatalytic CO₂ conversion

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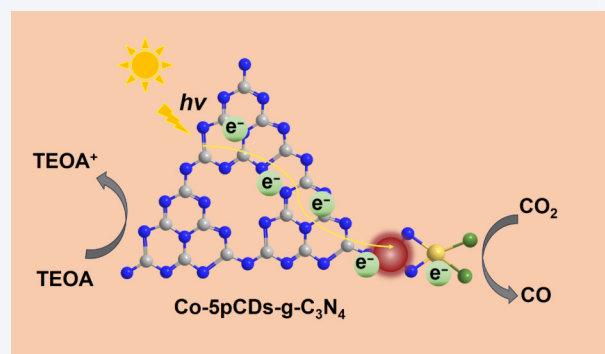
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ABSTRACT: Artificial photosynthesis that converts solar energy and CO₂ into value-added chemicals such as CO represents a highly promising route for sustainable energy production. However, the inherent limitations of graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄), including the lack of efficient active sites and sluggish charge transfer, significantly hinder its photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance. Herein, a novel strategy is proposed in which amino-functionalized carbon dots (pCDs) mediate the construction of Co-N coordination active centers on g-C₃N₄ nanosheets (Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄). Advanced characterizations reveal that Co ions are anchored on the surface of the pCDs through Co-N coordination with amino groups, while the structural incorporation of the pCDs effectively reduces the lateral dimensions of the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. This structural design markedly enhances charge-carrier separation within Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, promotes charge migration toward the Co-N active centers, and enables highly selective CO₂ to CO conversion. Notably, Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ achieves a remarkable CO production rate of 616.1 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, 91 times higher than Co-g-C₃N₄ with a CO selectivity of 92%. Femtosecond transient absorption (fs-TA) spectroscopy provides crucial mechanistic insights into the improved performance. The incorporation of pCDs significantly prolongs the average lifetime of photogenerated charge carriers, whereas the introduction of Co further extends this lifetime by promoting charge separation and suppressing recombination. Owing to the dual functions of pCDs in modulating charge dynamics and tailoring the coordination environment, the resulting catalyst demonstrates markedly enhanced photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance, underscoring its strong potential for advanced solar-driven catalytic applications.



KEYWORDS: carbon dots, graphitic carbon nitride, photocatalysis, CO₂ conversion, charge carrier dynamics

1 Introduction

Efficient carbon capture and utilization are urgently needed to address rising CO₂ emissions and mitigate climate change [1, 2]. Solar-driven photocatalytic CO₂ conversion, mimicking natural photosynthesis, offers a promising route for carbon neutrality and renewable energy use [3]. However, current photocatalysts suffer

from low efficiency and poor stability, limiting their practical applications [4–6]. Developing catalysts with high activity, stability, and scalability is therefore crucial.

Among various photocatalytic materials, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) has attracted considerable attention due to its suitable bandgap, excellent chemical and thermal stability, earth-abundant composition, and facile synthesis [7–11]. However, bulk g-C₃N₄ still suffers from a high exciton binding energy, limited specific surface area, and rapid recombination of photogenerated charge carriers, all of which severely restrict its efficiency in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction [12]. To address these limitations, numerous strategies involving structural and electronic modulation have been proposed to enhance its light-harvesting ability and charge separation efficiency [13, 14]. Typical modification approaches include

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morphology engineering to enlarge the reactive interface and shorten charge migration paths, as well as doping [15–20], morphology control [21, 22], or heterojunction construction to promote charge transport [23–25]. Among these modification strategies, carbon dots (CDs) engineering has demonstrated distinct advantages in photocatalytic systems, owing to their excellent electron-mediating and reservoir capabilities, co-catalytic functions, and abundant surface functional groups [26–28]. CDs typically consist of a crystalline carbon core and a functionalized shell, enabling them to serve as electron mediators or cocatalysts in photocatalytic processes, thereby extending the light absorption range and suppressing electron–hole recombination [29–32]. The surface functional groups of CDs act as electron-transfer “bridges”, forming covalent connections between the photosensitive units and the carbon core, thereby accelerating electron migration and enhancing the overall photocatalytic efficiency. Meanwhile, these functional groups can also coordinate metal ions [33–35]. Especially, metal–nitrogen/oxygen (M–N/O) coordination environments are capable of activating small molecules such as CO_2 and O_2 through hydrogen bonding, metal– CO_2 coordination, or van der Waals interactions, and thus have been widely recognized as highly active sites for CO_2 reduction [36–40]. However, many previously reported strategies that rely on $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ substrates to anchor catalytic active centers suffer from intrinsic limitations such as severe charge-carrier recombination, sluggish charge migration, and low metal-ion loading [41–43]. Therefore, simply introducing metal species into pristine $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ may not achieve efficient charge separation while simultaneously maximizing the enhancement of photocatalytic performance.

In this work, *p*-phenylenediamine (PPD) was used as the precursor to synthesize CDs rich in $-\text{NH}_2$ functional groups, which were subsequently copolymerized with urea via a thermal polymerization process to establish covalent linkages between the amino-functionalized carbon dots (pCDs) and the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ framework. As shown in Fig. 1, the amino groups on the surface of pCDs can effectively anchor Co ions, enabling the formation of well-defined Co–N coordination environments on $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets ($\text{Co-5pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$), which are expected to enhance catalytic activity. Benefiting from favorable energy-level alignment, photogenerated electrons can migrate from $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to the crystalline pCDs core for temporary storage, and subsequently transfer to Co active sites coordinated with surface functional groups, thereby facilitating the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 . Photoluminescence (PL) and electrochemical measurements demonstrate that the introduction of pCDs and cobalt ions significantly enhances the separation of photogenerated charge carriers. Femtosecond

transient absorption (fs-TA) spectroscopy at 650 nm further elucidates the carrier dynamics: The incorporation of pCDs increases the average lifetime of photogenerated carriers from 53.27 to 74.19 ps, while the cooperative effect of Co ions suppresses recombination and enhances charge-separation efficiency, thereby extending the lifetime to 122.77 ps. Benefiting from the dual functions of pCDs in modulating charge dynamics and tailoring the coordination environment, the resulting catalyst exhibits markedly improved photocatalytic CO_2 reduction activity. $\text{Co-5pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ achieves a CO production rate of $616.1 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, 91 times higher than $\text{Co-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and with a CO selectivity of 92%. In addition, $\text{Co-5pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ shows excellent recyclability, as its original catalytic performance can be fully restored after simple re-metalation over five consecutive cycles. This work provides a new design strategy for tuning cobalt coordination structures via CDs engineering, thereby substantially boosting the CO_2 reduction performance of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ -based photocatalysts.

2 Experimental

2.1 Chemical reagents

PPD was obtained from Adamas-beta. Urea and acetonitrile (CH_3CN) were acquired from J&K Scientific, and triethanolamine (TEOA) was purchased from Aladdin. Dehydrated ethanol (EtOH) was provided by Tianjin Fuyu Fine Chemical Co., Ltd. $\text{CoCl}_2\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. All chemicals were used without further purification. Ultrapure water ($18.2 \text{ M}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$) was produced by a Barnstead Nanopure water purification system.

2.2 Fabrication of catalysts

2.2.1 Preparation of pCDs

200 mg of PPD was dissolved in 20 mL of EtOH using ultrasonic treatment. The homogeneous solution was then transferred into a 100 mL of polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)-lined autoclave and heated at 180°C for 12 h. Upon completion of the reaction, pCDs were obtained with a concentration of $10 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$.

2.2.2 Preparation of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

To prepare the powdered $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample, 20 g of urea was weighed into a crucible and loosely covered with aluminum foil to allow for gas exchange. The crucible was then transferred to a muffle furnace and heated to 550°C using a programmed heating rate of $3^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. After maintaining this temperature for 2 h, the sample was allowed to cool naturally to room temperature.

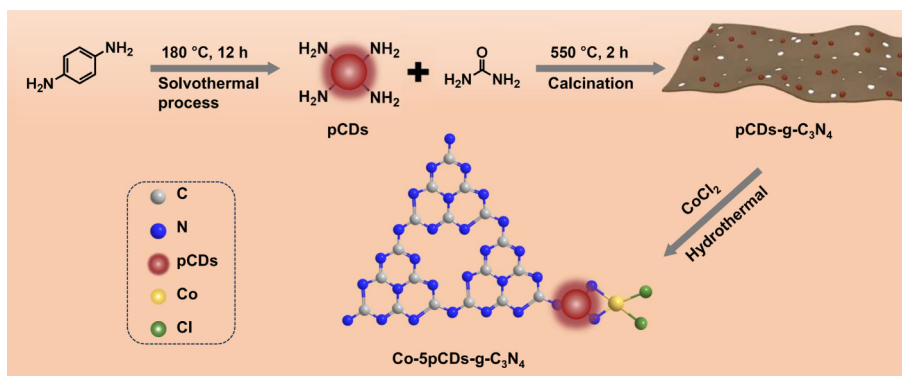


Figure 1 Schematic illustration of the synthetic route for $\text{Co-5pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

2.2.3 Synthesis of $x\text{pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

The $x\text{pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples were synthesized by thoroughly mixing 20 g of urea with x mg of pCDs ($x = 1, 2.5, 5$, or 10) solution, followed by grinding the mixture in a mortar. The homogeneous powder was then transferred to a crucible and calcined at 550 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 3 °C·min⁻¹.

2.2.4 Preparation of $\text{Co-}x\text{pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

A mixture of 50 mg of $x\text{pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was dispersed in 10 mL of deionized water and sonicated for 30 min. Whereafter, 5 mg of $\text{CoCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was added, and the solution was further sonicated for 15 min before being transferred to a 15 mL PTFE vial. The reaction was carried out at 100 °C for 12 h. After cooling to room temperature, the product was washed three times with water and once with EtOH, followed by oven drying. The resulting samples were labeled as $\text{Co-}x\text{pCDs-g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ($x = 1, 2.5, 5$, or 10).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Synthesis and characterization

The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image (Fig. 2(a)) reveals that the pCDs exhibit a nearly spherical morphology with

high monodispersity, and the statistical analysis of 100 individual nanoparticles (inset in Fig. 2(a)) indicates a particle size distribution ranging from 2.00 to 4.29 nm, with an average diameter of 2.92 nm. Furthermore, the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image (Fig. S1 in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM)) displays clear lattice fringes with an interplanar spacing of 0.21 nm, corresponding to the (100) plane of graphitic carbon [44]. The optical absorption properties of the pCDs were analyzed by ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. S2 in the ESM, the pCDs exhibit a strong characteristic absorption at 208 nm, attributed to the $\pi-\pi^*$ transition of C=C bonds in aromatic domains, along with a weaker and broader band around 430 nm, arising from the $n-\pi^*$ transition of C=N bonds, further confirming the successful synthesis of the CDs [45]. To characterize the surface functionalities of the pCDs, Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy was employed. As shown in Fig. S3 in the ESM, the sharp peak at 1512 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the C=C skeletal vibration, while the peak at 1253 cm⁻¹ corresponds to the C–N stretching vibration. The distinct feature at 1607 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the stretching vibration of the C=N bond. Moreover, the broad peak in the range of 3000–3500 cm⁻¹ arises from the stretching vibrations of $-\text{NH}_2$ groups [46]. These results confirm that the synthesized CDs are rich in $-\text{NH}_2$ functional groups.

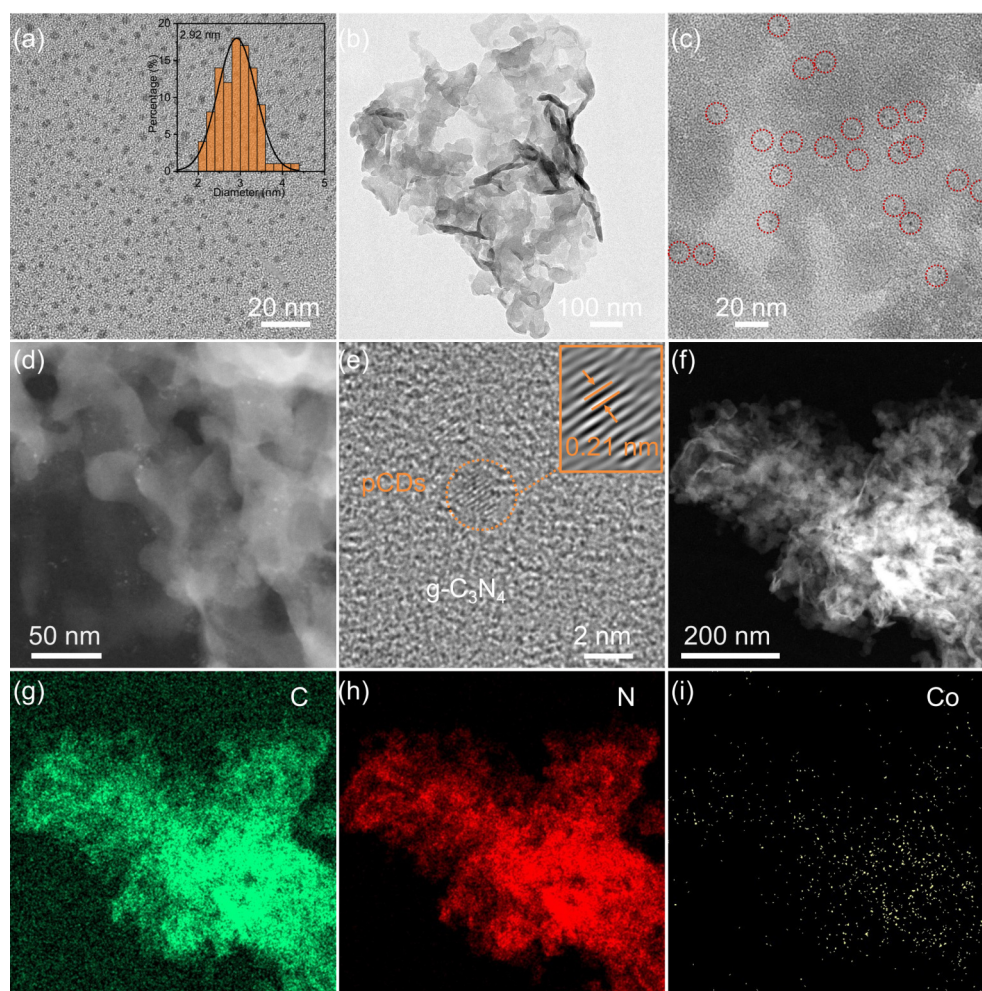


Figure 2 TEM images of (a) pCDs (inset: size distribution) and (b) 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. (c) Enlarged TEM image of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ with pCDs highlighted by red circles. (d) TEM dark-field image showing bright pCDs in 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. (e) HRTEM image of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (inset: lattice fringes of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄). (f)–(i) Elemental mapping of Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ for C, N, and Co.

To further investigate the coordination interaction between surface amino groups of the pCDs and cobalt ions, the optical properties of pCDs with varying concentrations of Co ions were examined by PL spectroscopy [47, 48]. As shown in Fig. S4 in the ESM, the PL spectrum of pCDs exhibits a distinct emission peak at 600 nm under an excitation wavelength of 400 nm. With increasing cobalt ion concentration, the fluorescence intensity progressively decreases, whereas the blank control shows negligible change, indicating that the surface amino groups of pCDs can effectively interact with cobalt ions, leading to fluorescence quenching.

Subsequently, the as-prepared pCDs and urea were thermally copolymerized via a top-down approach to obtain pCDs-g-C₃N₄. The morphology and structure of the as-prepared pCDs-g-C₃N₄ samples were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and TEM. SEM (Fig. S5(a) in the ESM) and TEM images (Fig. 2(b)) show that 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ retains the sheet-like structure of pristine g-C₃N₄ (Fig. S6 in the ESM), while the introduction of pCDs leads to a significant reduction in nanosheet size. TEM observations further confirm the porous architecture, with dark pCDs clearly visible on the surface of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (highlighted by circles in Fig. 2(c) and Fig. S5(b) in the ESM). Nevertheless, the chemical composition of the pCDs is similar to that of g-C₃N₄, resulting in comparable contrast and making it difficult to accurately determine the pCDs concentration in conventional TEM images, especially over larger fields of view. The higher crystallinity of the pCDs, yet, allows them to be more readily distinguished from g-C₃N₄ in the TEM dark-field images of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. As shown in Fig. 2(d) and Fig. S5(c) in the ESM, the bright white spots correspond to the pCDs, while the darker regions represent g-C₃N₄. The pCDs are clearly observed to be widely and uniformly distributed within the g-C₃N₄ framework. The HRTEM image was used to further confirm that the nanoparticles on 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ are indeed pCDs, which exhibit well-defined lattice fringes with an interplanar spacing of 0.21 nm, embedded within the amorphous g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 2(e)). This lattice spacing is consistent with that of the pCDs prior to thermal polymerization, demonstrating the intimate integration of the pCDs into the g-C₃N₄ framework. The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms at 77 K were used to further analyze the microstructural features of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, including its specific surface area and pore structure. As shown in Fig. S7 in the ESM, the isotherms display a typical Type-IV curve with an H₃-Type hysteresis loop, indicating the presence of abundant mesopores. The calculated Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ is 117.7 m²·g⁻¹, showing a slight increase compared with pristine g-C₃N₄ (99.9 m²·g⁻¹). In addition, relative to g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ exhibits a marked increase in pore density around 1.8 nm, along with the emergence of new mesopores centered at approximately 5.2 nm (Fig. S8 and Table S1 in the ESM). Zeta potential measurements indicate that the pCDs can modulate the surface charge environment. The 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ still carries an overall negative surface charge, similar to g-C₃N₄; yet the absolute value is reduced due to the interaction with the positive surface charge of the incorporated pCDs (Fig. S9 in the ESM).

To analyze the surface chemical structures of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, the FT-IR spectroscopy was conducted, and g-C₃N₄ was used as a control. As shown in Fig. S10 in the ESM, the absorption peak at 800 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the bending vibration of the triazine ring, while the bands in the range of 1200–1720 cm⁻¹ correspond to the stretching vibrations of aromatic heterocycles (C–N and C=N). All samples exhibit these characteristic peaks, confirming that the g-

C₃N₄ framework remains intact after the introduction of pCDs. Additionally, due to the low pCDs content and the overlap of their absorption features with those of g-C₃N₄, the characteristic peaks of the pCDs are not distinctly observed.

The metallized Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ prepared from 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ retains its original morphology (Fig. S11 in the ESM), and the elemental mapping results (Figs. 2(f)–2(i)) show that C, N, and Co are uniformly distributed across the nanosheets, confirming the homogeneous incorporation of cobalt ions into the composite. In addition, inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) analysis shows that the Co loading in Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ is approximately 0.204 wt.% (Table S2 in the ESM). XRD analysis (Fig. 3(a)) reveals that g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ display two characteristic diffraction peaks at about 27.9° and 13.0°, corresponding to the (002) and (100) planes of g-C₃N₄, respectively. These peaks arise from the interlayer stacking of aromatic planes and the in-plane periodicity of tri-s-triazine units. Notably, with the incorporation of pCDs, the (002) diffraction peak shifts from 27.9° to 27.8°, reflecting a slight expansion of the interlayer spacing in the modified materials (inset in Fig. 3(a)). This structural evolution is consistent with the observed increase in specific surface area and decrease in particle size of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, indicating that pCDs incorporation can effectively modulate the microstructure of g-C₃N₄. Importantly, no new diffraction peaks are observed after cobalt ions loading (Fig. 3(a)), suggesting that metal incorporation does not alter the crystalline structure of the 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ framework.

To investigate the elemental composition and coordination environment of cobalt in Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed, with g-C₃N₄ and 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ used as reference samples. Figure S12 in the ESM shows the survey XPS spectra of the three samples, in which only signals corresponding to C and N are observed, confirming that they share a similar elemental composition. The high-resolution C 1s spectrum of g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 3(b)) can be deconvoluted into three characteristic peaks located at 284.80, 286.03, and 288.08 eV, corresponding to C=C, C–O, and sp²-hybridized carbon in the triazine ring (N=C–N), respectively [49]. The peak area at 284.80 eV increases from 4.69% for g-C₃N₄ to 6.00% for 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (Table S3 in the ESM), while the C/N atomic ratio slightly rises from 0.79 to 0.80 (Table S4 in the ESM). These results indicate the successful incorporation of pCDs into the g-C₃N₄ framework and preservation of the C=C structural integrity. The high-resolution N 1s spectrum of g-C₃N₄ (Fig. 3(c)) can be fitted into three main peaks centered at 398.60, 399.98, and 401.01 eV, assigned to sp²-hybridized nitrogen in triazine rings (C–N=C), tertiary nitrogen (N–(C)₃), and terminal –NH_x groups, respectively. The relative intensity of the –NH_x peak increases from 12.10% for g-C₃N₄ to 14.75% for 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (Table S5 in the ESM), which may originate from surface –NH_x functionalities on pCDs. Moreover, the main C–N=C peak shifts slightly toward lower binding energy (from 398.60 to 398.53 eV), suggesting covalent coupling between pCDs and the g-C₃N₄ framework. For the Co 2p spectrum of the Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ sample, two characteristic peaks appear at 781.80 and 797.00 eV (Fig. 3(d)), corresponding to Co(II) 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2}, respectively, confirming that the cobalt species predominantly exist in the +2 oxidation state. Moreover, the –NH_x peak shifts toward lower binding energy (Fig. 3(c)), implying the presence of interactions between –NH_x groups and Co ions, suggesting that the Co species are captured by the amino groups on the surface of the pCDs.

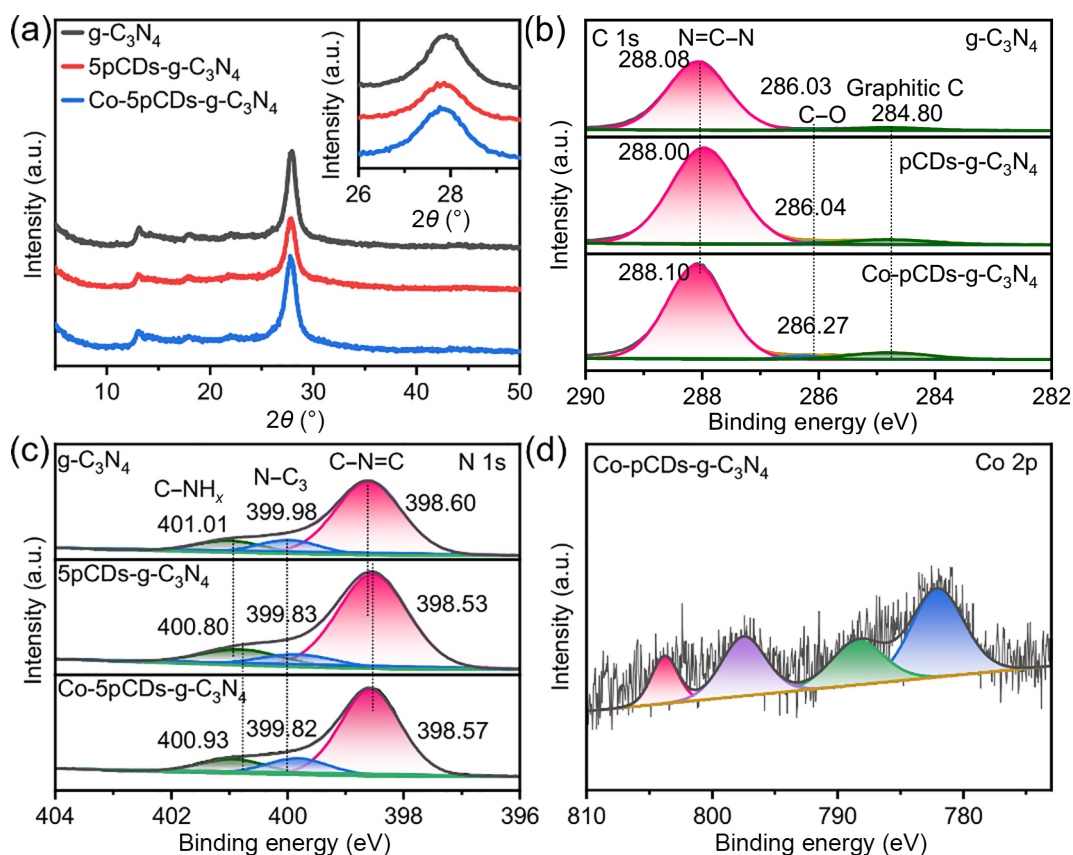


Figure 3 (a) XRD patterns of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (inset: enlarged region). High-resolution XPS (b) C 1s and (c) N 1s spectra of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. (d) High-resolution XPS Co 2p spectrum of Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄.

3.2 Photocatalytic performance of Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄

The increased specific surface area and introduction of Co-N active sites are expected to enhance the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity. As a proof-of-concept, the photocatalytic performance of Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ was evaluated in CH₃CN with TEOA as a sacrificial agent under irradiation from a 5 W light-emitting diode (LED) lamp. As shown in Fig. 4(a), the CO production rate reaches 616.1 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, with an H₂ production rate of 50.9 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, corresponding to a CO selectivity of 92%. Based on the measured Co loading, the time-dependent turnover number (TON) was calculated, as shown in Fig. S13 in the ESM. The TON for CO formation reaches 17 h⁻¹. To further elucidate the critical role of pCDs, a control sample (Co-g-C₃N₄) was prepared under identical conditions using pristine g-C₃N₄ as the support. The result indicates that pure g-C₃N₄ exhibits almost no photocatalytic activity (Fig. 4(b)), while Co-g-C₃N₄ shows only weak CO₂ reduction capability (6.8 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹). ICP-MS analysis (Table S2 in the ESM) reveals that the Co loading in Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (0.204%) is 12 times higher than that in Co-g-C₃N₄ (0.016%), whereas the CO generation rate increases by approximately 91 times, confirming that cobalt ions coordinated via pCDs possess superior intrinsic catalytic activity. To investigate the effect of pCDs doping on catalytic performance, pCDs-CN samples with different pCDs contents are synthesized and used for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. As shown in Fig. 4(c), the CO evolution rate increases gradually with the pCDs content, reaching a maximum at a pCDs loading of 5 mg. Beyond this threshold, the photocatalytic activity declines, likely due to the structural disruption of the g-C₃N₄ triazine

framework, which hinders the charge separation and transfer. Furthermore, the cyclic stability test (Fig. 4(d)) shows a noticeable decrease in CO production after three consecutive cycles. Interestingly, re-metalization of the catalyst after five cycles almost fully restores its photocatalytic activity. ICP-MS measurements performed on the samples before and after re-metalization (Table S2 in the ESM) reveal that the cobalt content in the used catalyst decreases to 0.019%, significantly lower than that in the fresh Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ (0.204%). After re-metalization, the Co content recovered to 0.179%, indicating that the loss of active Co species during the reaction was primarily responsible for the decreased activity. These results suggest that cobalt ions anchored by nitrogen-containing functional groups on the outer surface of pCDs are relatively unstable and may leach during the reaction, while the catalytic activity can be effectively restored through simple re-immobilization of metal ions. Moreover, the morphology of the sample after the reaction still exhibits visible CDs and nanosheet structures on the Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ matrix, demonstrating the excellent photostability of the catalyst (Fig. S14 in the ESM).

To investigate the carbon source of CO produced in the photocatalytic experiments using Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ as the catalyst, control experiments were conducted, including reactions in the dark, without TEOA, and an inert atmosphere such as N₂. As shown in Fig. 4(e), no CO was detected in the absence of light or TEOA. Similarly, when CO₂ was replaced with N₂, no CO signal was observed, indicating that CO formation depends on the synergistic effect of light, the catalyst, and the sacrificial agent. ¹³C isotopic labeling combined with gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) provides a more direct and effective strategy

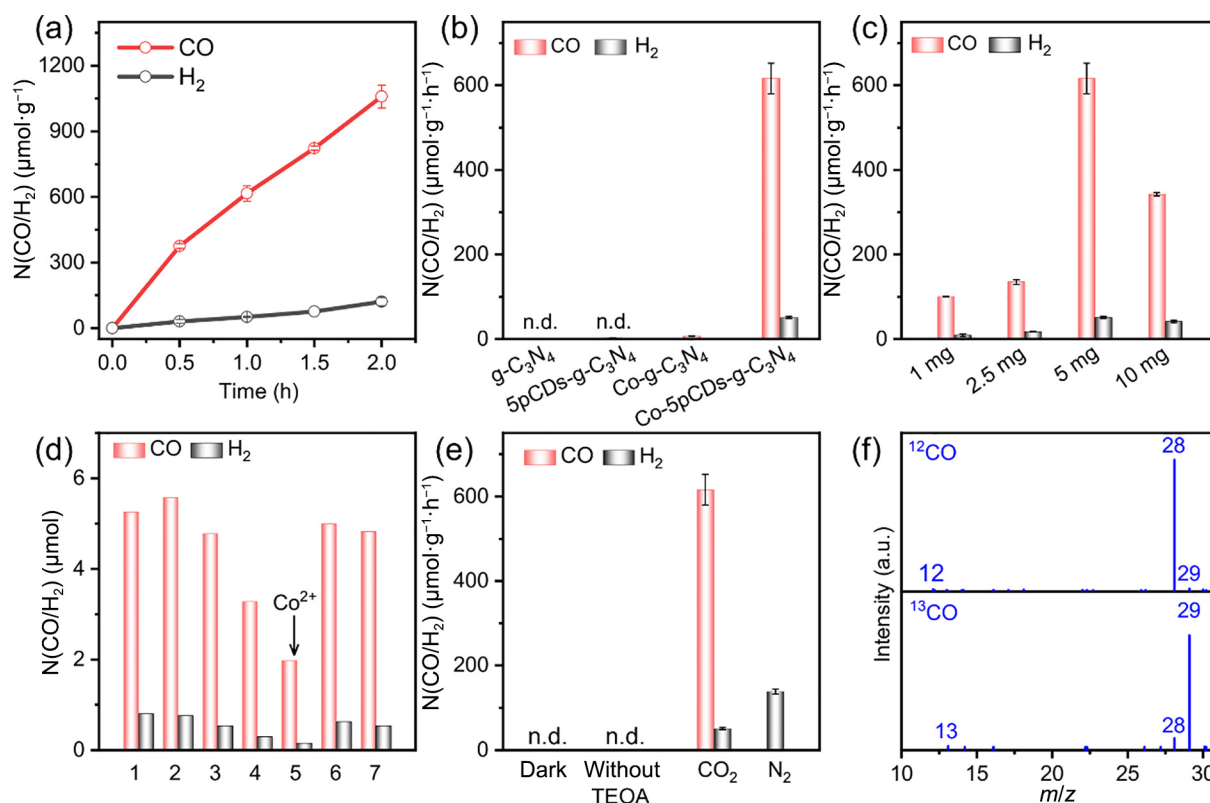


Figure 4 (a) Time-dependent CO and H₂ production over Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ under 5 W LED irradiation. (b) Effect of Co incorporation on catalytic activity compared with pristine g-C₃N₄. (c) Performance comparison with different pCDs loadings. (d) Cycling stability of Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ for CO₂ reduction, with metal reloading after the fifth cycle. (e) Control experiments under dark conditions, without sacrificial agent, or without CO₂. (f) GC-MS comparison of CO produced using CO₂ and ¹³CO₂ as feed gases.

for tracing the origin of CO₂ photoreduction products and ruling out interference from carbon contaminants in the photocatalyst or reaction system [50]. The retention time and component chromatograms (Fig. S15 in the ESM) show a peak at approximately 3 min corresponding to CO₂, while a small peak at around 15 min is assigned to CO. The GC-MS results show that the characteristic mass spectra of CO₂ and ¹³CO₂, corresponding to molecular ion peaks at $m/z = 44$ and 45 , respectively, are presented in Fig. S16 in the ESM. Figure 4(f) presents the MS spectra of the main product, CO. Specifically, when ¹³CO₂ was used as the reactant gas, a signal at $m/z = 29$ corresponding to ¹³CO was detected, whereas a signal at $m/z = 28$ corresponding to ¹²CO was observed when ¹²CO₂ was used. The control experiments and isotopic tracing studies unambiguously demonstrate that the generated CO originates from the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂, rather than from the decomposition of the catalyst, sacrificial agent, or solvent.

3.3 Photophysical behaviors

To elucidate the intrinsic origin of the remarkably enhanced photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance of the Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ sample, the charge separation and transfer behaviors were systematically investigated to establish a rational structure–activity relationship. As shown in Fig. 5(a), the optical absorption properties of g-C₃N₄ and 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ were analyzed by UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS). In the visible light range of 300–800 nm, the absorption edge of the pCDs-g-C₃N₄ sample exhibits a red shift with the incorporation of pCDs, indicating an effective modulation of the band structure and further confirming the successful incorporation of pCDs into the g-C₃N₄ framework.

The corresponding Tauc-plots (Fig. S17 in the ESM) revealed that the bandgap decreased from 2.74 to 2.49 eV, consistent with the trend reported in previous literature. According to the Mott–Schottky plots (Fig. S18 in the ESM), the flat-band potentials (pH = 7, vs. NHE) of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ were determined to be -1.28 , -1.25 , and -1.15 V, respectively. The corresponding valence band positions were calculated to be 1.36, 1.14, and 1.02 V (Fig. 5(b)). Notably, the conduction band potentials of all three samples are more negative than the CO₂/CO reduction potential (-0.53 V), suggesting the thermodynamic feasibility of CO₂ reduction. PL spectra (Fig. 5(c)) further reveal the charge separation and recombination behaviors. Pristine g-C₃N₄ exhibits a strong emission peak at approximately 430 nm, indicating severe recombination. In contrast, the PL intensity of 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ is markedly reduced, accompanied by the appearance of a new emission peak at 469 nm. This result suggests that the introduction of pCDs alters the carrier recombination pathways and constructs new electron transport channels between g-C₃N₄ and pCDs, thereby facilitating charge separation. Upon further coordination with cobalt ions, the PL intensity is further quenched, indicating an enhanced efficiency of charge separation and migration. Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) decay curves (Fig. 5(d)) were fitted using a biexponential model (Table S6 in the ESM). The average lifetimes of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ were 5.32, 3.16, and 2.26 ns, respectively. The pronounced reduction in lifetime confirms that both pCDs incorporation and Co coordination accelerate the separation and transfer of photogenerated charge carriers. Photoelectrochemical (PEC) measurements (Fig. 5(e)) under intermittent light irradiation

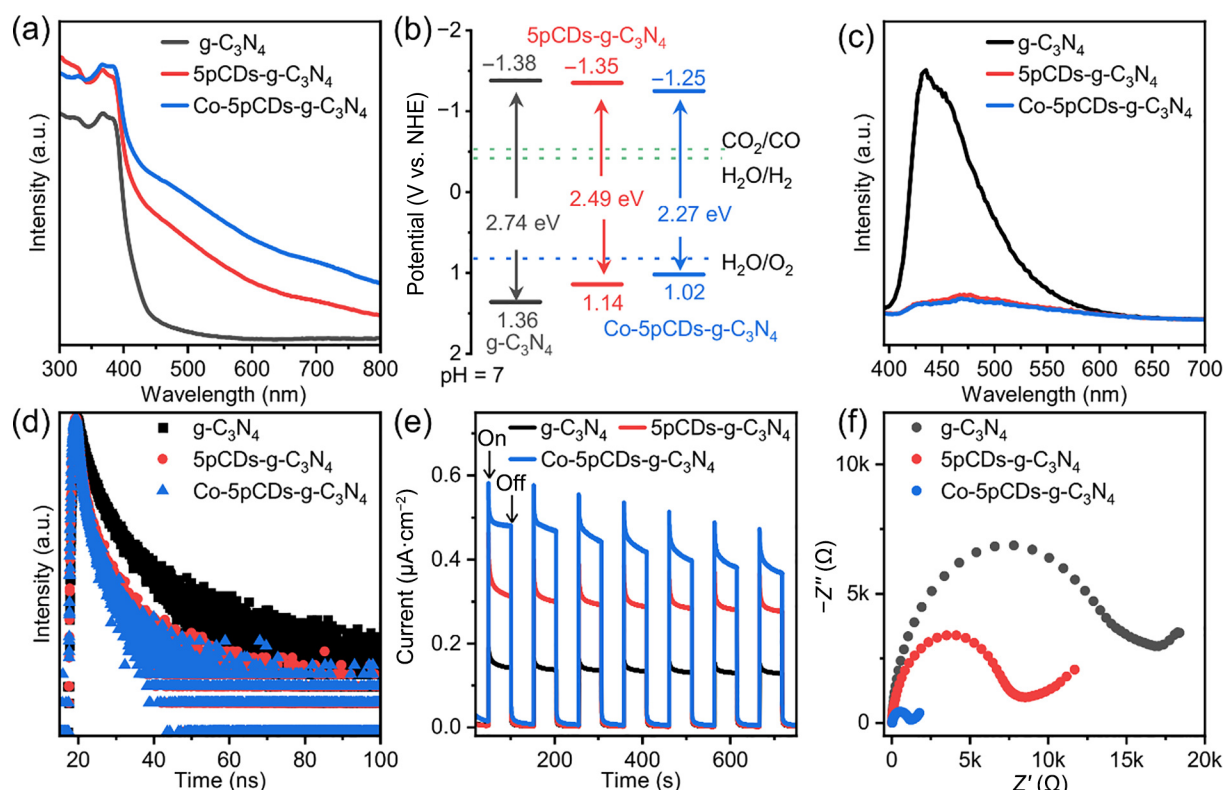


Figure 5 (a) UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. (b) Band structures of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. (c) Fluorescence emission spectra and (d) transient fluorescence lifetime spectra under 375 nm excitation of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. (e) Photocurrent density-time response curves and (f) electrochemical impedance spectra of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄.

show that Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ delivers the highest and most stable transient photocurrent density, significantly exceeding those of g-C₃N₄ and 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄. This finding demonstrates that the g-C₃N₄/pCDs interface forms an efficient charge transport channel, which promotes the directional transfer of electrons toward Co active centers. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS, Fig. 5(f)) results further support this observation: Both 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ display a markedly smaller semicircle radius in the Nyquist plots, indicative of a reduced interfacial charge-transfer resistance. The lower resistance facilitates faster electron migration to the catalytic sites, favoring CO₂ activation and subsequent reduction reactions.

To further elucidate the ultrafast charge carrier dynamics, fs-TA spectroscopy was conducted to probe the carrier transfer behavior. As shown in Figs. 6(a), 6(d), and 6(g), the fs-TA contour plots display the time-resolved spectral evolution under 365 nm excitation. For pristine g-C₃N₄, an evident negative signal appears below 520 nm, which can be attributed to stimulated emission (SE) and ground-state bleaching (GSB) [51–53]. Meanwhile, a dominant positive signal emerges in the region of 550–750 nm, corresponding to excited-state absorption (ESA) of photogenerated electrons, holes, or electron-hole pairs. To gain further insight into the spectral evolution dynamics, the fs-TA spectra of g-C₃N₄, 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄, and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ at various delay time (0 ps–1 ns) are compared in Figs. 6(b), 6(e), and 6(h). Compared with pristine g-C₃N₄, the negative SE signals in 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ almost disappear, while the ESA region extends from 550–700 nm to a broader range of 470–750 nm. This spectral broadening highlights the markedly improved charge separation and transfer dynamics induced by the co-anchoring of

CDs on the g-C₃N₄ framework. To quantitatively analyze the decay kinetics of ESA, the transient absorption decay curves at representative wavelengths of 610 and 650 nm were fitted using a tri-exponential decay model (Figs. 6(c), 6(f), and 6(i)). The fitting parameters are summarized in Table S7 in the ESM. Compared with g-C₃N₄, the average lifetime of photoexcited carriers in 5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ is significantly prolonged from 53.75 to 74.14 ps at 610 nm, and 53.27 to 74.19 ps at 650 nm, indicating slower carrier recombination dynamics and a longer-lived shallow-trap carrier process. Upon Co incorporation, this effect is further enhanced, suggesting that the Co-N coordination promotes charge separation and prolongs carrier lifetimes (76.32 ps at 610 nm and 122.77 ps at 650 nm). These results collectively confirm that the formation of long-lived photoinduced electrons plays a dominant role in enhancing CO₂ photoreduction activity.

CO₂ temperature-programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD) was performed to probe the surface acid-base properties of g-C₃N₄ and Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ and to elucidate the role of Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ in CO₂ adsorption and activation. As shown in Fig. S19(a) in the ESM, the desorption feature at ~100 °C is assigned to physisorbed CO₂, whereas signals in the range of 200–300 °C correspond to chemisorbed species [54]. Compared with g-C₃N₄, Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ exhibits a pronounced desorption peak shifted to higher temperatures (260–340 °C), indicating a stronger interaction with CO₂. Moreover, an additional high-temperature desorption peak appears for Co-5pCDs-g-C₃N₄ above 370 °C, which is absent for g-C₃N₄, suggesting the presence of newly introduced strong adsorption sites, plausibly associated with metal active centers. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations further support these observations. As shown in Fig. S20 in the ESM, the CO₂ adsorption

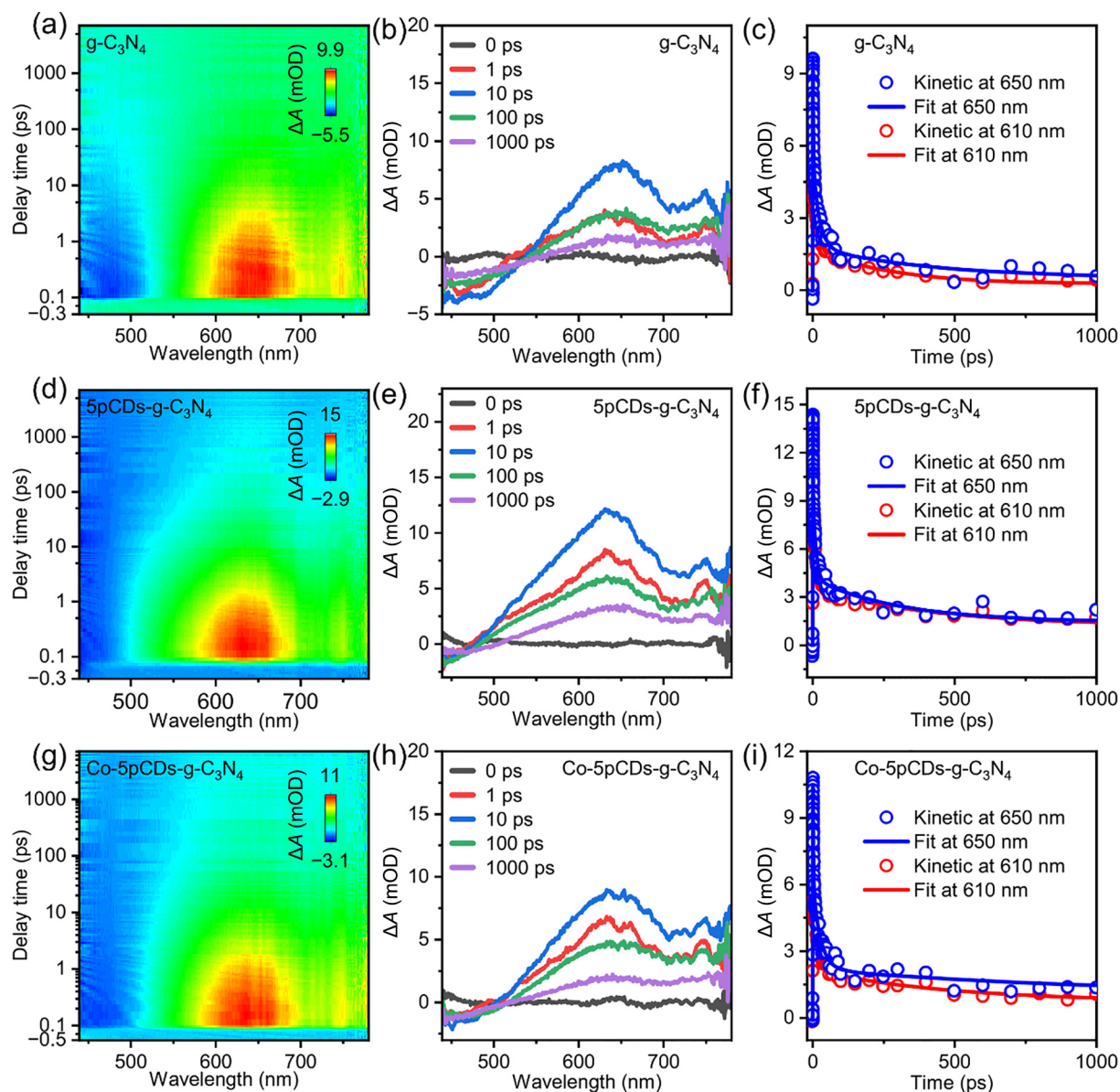


Figure 6 fs-TA data of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, 5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$; ((a), (d), and (g)) time-resolved contour plots, ((b), (e), and (h)) fs-TA spectra at different delay times (0 ps–1 ns), and ((c), (f), and (i)) kinetic decay and fitting of excited-state absorption at 650 and 610 nm, respectively.

energy on Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (−1.29 eV) is higher than that on $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (−0.32 eV), consistent with the CO_2 -TPD results. CO -TPD was additionally conducted to gain mechanistic insight (Fig. S19(b) in the ESM). A distinct CO desorption feature appears below 100 °C, with Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibiting a lower desorption temperature than $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, indicating facilitated CO desorption. Taken together, these results suggest that Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ enhances CO_2 adsorption and activation while promoting CO release, accounting for its superior catalytic performance.

In brief, the results from fs-TA, PL, TRPL, EIS, and photocurrent measurements collectively demonstrate that the synergistic integration of pCDs and Co active centers into the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ framework remarkably enhances the separation and transfer efficiency of photogenerated charge carriers. This enhancement, coupled with the improved CO_2 adsorption/activation and facilitated product desorption evidenced by CO_2 -TPD and CO -TPD analyses, ultimately accounts for the superior photocatalytic CO_2 reduction performance of the Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ catalyst.

4 Conclusions

In summary, the photocatalyst Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ was fabricated for the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 . Various characterizations were performed on $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, 5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, and Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to investigate their physicochemical properties and the transfer behavior and pathways of photogenerated charge carriers. The TEM and other characterization results confirm that the bottom-up copolymerization strategy enables the pCDs to be uniformly incorporated into the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ framework, while the amino functional groups of the pCDs effectively anchor cobalt ions to form well-defined catalytic active centers. Meantime, the pCDs-induced modification of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ framework greatly promotes the charge separation, and the incorporation of cobalt ions further extends the charge-carrier lifetimes, collectively leading to a pronounced increase in the carrier lifetime of Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Therefore, the photocatalyst Co-5pCDs- $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibited the highest photocatalytic performance, achieving a CO evolution rate

of 616.1 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ with a selectivity of 92% over H_2 , which represents an increase of 91 times compared with the Co-g- C_3N_4 catalyst, while maintaining excellent recyclability. Overall, this study not only provides new insights into the design of highly efficient photocatalysts for CO_2 reduction but also offers viable strategies for constructing and tuning the coordination environment of catalytic active centers.

Electronic Supplementary Material: Supplementary material (the details of all sample characterizations, electrochemical measurements, photoelectrochemical measurements, and photocatalytic CO_2 reduction, SEM/TEM images of 5pCDs-g- C_3N_4 and Co-5pCDs-g- C_3N_4 , BET surface area and N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms, pore-size distribution profiles of g- C_3N_4 and 5pCDs-g- C_3N_4 , SEM/TEM images of Co-5pCDs-g- C_3N_4 after photocatalytic reaction, TON profiles of CO and H_2 over Co-5pCDs-g- C_3N_4 , GC curves from ^{13}C isotopic tracing experiments, MS spectra of CO_2 and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, Tauc-plots for bandgap determination, Mott-Schottky plots, surface elemental composition and relative proportions of surface C and N species from XPS, ICP analysis, PL decay, and fs-TA kinetic fitting results of g- C_3N_4 , 5pCDs-g- C_3N_4 , and Co-5pCDs-g- C_3N_4) is available in the online version of this article at <https://doi.org/10.26599/NR.2026.94908500>.

Data availability

All data needed to support the conclusions in the paper are presented in the manuscript and the Electronic Supplementary Material. Additional data related to this paper may be requested from the corresponding author upon request.

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Declaration of competing interest

All the contributing authors report no conflict of interests in this work.

Author contribution statement

S. D. C.: Data curation, project administration, validation, writing manuscript, experimental design. J. J. W.: Project administration, writing manuscript. T. W.: Writing – review & editing. S. H. L.: Auxiliary experimental operation. S. F. T.: Project administration, funding acquisition, writing manuscript. F. B.: Project administration, funding acquisition. All the authors have approved the final manuscript.

Use of AI statement

None.

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