Integrating Z-scheme heterojunction of Co1-C3N4@α-Fe2O3 for efficient visible-light-driven photocatalytic CO2 reduction†

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Photocatalytic CO2 reduction coupled with water oxidation provides a fascinating approach to mitigating the issues of global warming and energy shortage. Herein, a direct Z-scheme heterojunction of Co1-C3N4@α-Fe2O3 comprising a g-C3N4-supported single-atomic Co site catalyst (denoted as Co1-C3N4) and α-Fe2O3 nanorod arrays is fabricated for efficient CO2 reduction. A CO production rate of 14.9 μmol g−1 h−1 with a high CO selectivity (>99%) is achieved under visible-light irradiation without any sacrificial agents other than water. Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) analysis reveals that both the Z-scheme mechanism and the single-atomic Co sites contribute to the prolonged lifetime of the photo-induced excitons. Moreover, the formation of the Z-scheme heterojunction would lead to an altered charge density of the single-atomic Co sites. In situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier-transform spectroscopy and anion adsorption measurements reveal that the key intermediate CO2− could be efficiently stabilized by the positively charged Co sites in Co1-C3N4@α-Fe2O3, thus enhancing the CO2 reduction performance. This work offers a new direction for the rational design of single-atomic site catalysts in artificial photosynthesis.

Introduction

The rapidly growing consumption of fossil fuels with excessive emission of CO2 has been contributing to the severe global warming problem and the potential energy shortage.1,2 Utilizing solar energy to convert CO2 into fuels provides a promising approach to solving the above problems, and scientists have devoted tremendous attention to developing various photocatalysts for CO2 reduction.3–9 Recently, graphitic carbon nitride (g-C3N4)-supported single-atomic site catalysts have emerged as remarkable photocatalysts.10–13 By virtue of the lone pair electrons, the N atoms in the framework can capture various transition metal ions, thus forming single-atomic metal sites on g-C3N4. In addition, the charge densities of the coordinated metal atoms would be altered by the neighboring N atoms, which may in turn change the adsorption strength and reaction barriers. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations have suggested that single-atomic Pd or Pt loaded on g-C3N4 can act as effective catalytic sites for photocatalytic CO2 reduction, leading to two different preferential products, HCOOH and CH4, respectively.14 With the aid of triethylamine (TEA), single-atomic Co2+ sites on C3N4 with different loadings have been successfully synthesized, and the optimized sample with a cobalt loading of 0.128 μmol mg−1 exhibits a CO production rate of approximately 25.5 μmol g−1 h−1 under 60 mW cm−2 incident light in the presence of triethanolamine (TEOA) as a sacrificial electron donor.15 Recently, we have developed an efficient photocatalyst for CO2 reduction by implanting single titanium oxide species on g-C3N4.16 In the presence of the Co(bpy)3Cl2 co-catalyst and TEOA, a CO production rate of 283.9 μmol g−1 h−1 has been achieved under visible light irradiation. These results strongly demonstrate the viability of g-C3N4-supported single-atomic site catalysts for photocatalytic CO2 reduction. However, the use of TEOA makes these catalysts less attractive since TEOA is much more expensive than CO. Therefore, it still remains a great challenge to develop low-cost and robust g-C3N4-based photocatalysts with high efficiency for CO2 conversion using water as an electron source.

Owing to the wide band gap (~2.7 eV), g-C3N4 can only utilize a marginal portion of visible light (λ < 460 nm).17 Moreover, the water oxidation capacity of g-C3N4 is poor due to the high energy level of the valence band.18–20 In this situation, integrating g-C3N4 with an appropriate semiconductor possessing a narrower band gap and a more positive valence band to establish a Z-scheme heterojunction has been acknowledged.
as an effective strategy, because the Z-scheme heterojunction not only facilitates the spatial separation of the photo-induced electron–hole pairs, but also preserves the maximum capacities for reduction and oxidation of the composites.

Herein, we construct a direct Z-scheme heterojunction of Co1-C3N4@α-Fe2O3, which composes by single-atomic Co sites loaded on g-C3N4 (Co1-C3N4) integrated with α-Fe2O3 nanorod arrays, for efficient visible-light-driven CO2 reduction coupled with water oxidation. The light-absorption range of Co1-C3N4 is greatly extended to the entire visible-light region and the lifetime of photo-induced charge carriers is significantly prolonged by the successful incorporation of α-Fe2O3. Moreover, benefiting from the charge transfer induced by the different Fermi levels between α-Fe2O3 and Co1-C3N4, the charge density of single-atomic Co can be further regulated. The results of anion adsorption measurements imply that the stability of the critical intermediate CO2− is more efficient on the single-atomic Co sites with a higher positive charge. Compared with Co1-C3N4, the constructed Z-scheme heterojunction shows a substantial improvement for photocatalytic CO2 conversion to CO, with 2.8 times higher than that of Co1-C3N4 under visible light irradiation and almost 100% CO selectivity.

**Experimental**

**Materials**

FeCl3·6H2O (99%, AR) and CoCl2·6H2O (99%, AR) were purchased from Aladdin. Urea (99%, AR), NaOH (96%, AR) and Na2SO4 (99%, AR) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Reagent Factory. Nafion 117 solution (~5% in alcohol/water) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. CO2 (99.999%) was purchased from Tianjin Huanyu Gas company. 13CO2 (99%) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and H2 18O (99%) was purchased from Energy Chemical. All chemicals were used as received without further purification. The ultra-pure water (Milli-Q water) with an electrical resistivity of 18.2 MΩ cm was used in all experiments.

**Synthetic procedures**

The α-Fe2O3 nanorod arrays were fabricated by a modified strategy reported previously. In brief, a piece of fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass (1 cm × 2.5 cm) was sonicated in pure water (Milli-Q water) with an electrical resistivity of 18.2 MΩ cm. The FTO glass was sonicated in pure water before and after the synthesis.

The g-C3N4-supported Co single-atom catalyst was prepared by using a two-step strategy. Specifically, urea (15 g) was put into a crucible with a cover, and calcined at 550 °C for 4 h with a ramping rate of 10 °C min−1. After cooling down naturally, the product was heated again at 500 °C for 2 h to obtain exfoliated g-C3N4. For the synthesis of the g-C3N4-supported single-atomic Co site catalyst (Co1-C3N4), g-C3N4 (10 mg) was well dispersed in water (10 mL) by vigorous sonication for 30 min. Next, an aqueous solution (300 μL) containing CoCl2·6H2O (0.336 mM) was dropped into the g-C3N4 suspension under magnetic stirring. Subsequently, the suspension was stirred for 12 h at 80 °C in an oil bath. The above mixture was then frozen by liquid nitrogen and further dried in vacuum for 48 h by using a lyophilizer. The obtained sample was placed in a porcelain boat and heated to 400 °C for 2 h with a ramping rate of 5 °C min−1 under Ar atmosphere. Similar procedures were applied for the synthesis of the g-C3N4-supported CoO nanoparticle catalyst (CoNP-C3N4), except that the concentration of CoCl2·6H2O was increased to 3.36 mM. To fabricate the Z-scheme system, a well-dispersed aqueous suspension (300 μL) of Co1-C3N4 (1 mg mL−1, 0.3 mg in total) was first drop-coated onto the α-Fe2O3 nanorod arrays under 60 °C. To strengthen the contact between α-Fe2O3 and Co1-C3N4, the sample was transferred to a tube furnace and calcined at 200 °C for 2 h, with a ramping rate of 5 °C min−1 under Ar atmosphere. The obtained sample was denoted as Co1-C3N4@α-Fe2O3. C3N4@α-Fe2O3 and CoNP-C3N4@α-Fe2O3 were fabricated according to the same method as that of Co1-C3N4@α-Fe2O3, except that Co1-C3N4 was replaced by g-C3N4 and CoNP-C3N4, respectively.

**Characterization**

The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded by using a Rigaku SmartLab 9 kW with Cu-Kα radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å). A Thermo scientific ICAP RQ inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) was used to determine the Co content. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed using a FEI Verios 460L scanning electron microscope. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images and High-Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HRTEM) images were obtained on FEI Tecnai G2 Spirit Twin and FEI Talos F200X transmission electron microscopes, respectively. Atomic-resolution aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images and elemental mapping were obtained by using a FEI Titan Themis Cubed G2 60–300 transmission electron microscope. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were carried out by using a Thermo Scientific ESCALAB250Xi photoelectron spectrometer equipped with Mg Kα (1253.6 eV) as the X-ray source. Ultraviolet–visible (UV-vis) spectroscopic measurements were performed by using a PerkinElmer Lambda 750 UV/VIS/NIR spectrometer. A PerkinElmer Frontier Mid-IR FTIR spectrometer was employed to obtain Fourier-transform infrared spectra. The steady-state photoluminescence spectra (PL) were recorded on a Hitachi F-4600 fluorescence spectrometer. The time-resolved photo-
Results and discussion

The composite structure comprising \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) and Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) was fabricated by a multi-step strategy (Fig. 1a). Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) exhibits a two-dimensional morphology without any distinguishable clusters, as shown in Fig. 1b and Fig. S1†. The results of elemental mapping indicate the uniform dispersion of Co species on g-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) (Fig. 1c). The XRD pattern for Co\(_x\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) also shows no peaks other than those corresponding to g-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) (Fig. S2†). The atomic dispersion of Co sites was further verified by using a HAADF-STEM image, in which the bright spots represent Co atoms and no aggregation of the bright spots was observed (Fig. 1d). The line-scan profiles also confirm that the Co atoms are well isolated (Fig. S3†). ICP-MS was employed to determine the actual loading of Co. As listed in Table S1† the mass loading of Co is 0.07% for Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\). A sample comprising CoO nanoparticles on g-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) was also prepared, with a Co mass loading of 0.81% (denoted as CoNP-C\(_3\)N\(_4\), Fig. S4†). SEM and TEM images (Fig. 1e and Fig. S5†) show that the \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanorods grown on fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass have an average length of ~500 nm and an average diameter of ~50 nm. The HRTEM image (Fig. 1f) displays lattice fringes with a lattice spacing of 0.25 nm, which can be assigned to the (110) planes of crystalline \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\). The top view for the composite photocatalyst clearly shows that the \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanorod arrays are covered by highly corrugated Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) nanosheets (Fig. S6†). Fourier-transform infrared spectrum for Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) shows a series of characteristic peaks of g-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) as those reported in the literature (Fig. 1g). Notably, the peak at 806 cm\(^{-1}\) is assigned to the breathing mode of the triazine unit in carbon nitride, is blue-shifted to 808 cm\(^{-1}\) when Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) is integrated with \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanorods. Similar shifts are also found for the peaks at 1200 to 1650 cm\(^{-1}\), which correspond to the stretching vibration modes characteristic of aromatic g-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) heterocycles. The blue shift can be attributed to the charge transfer between Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) and \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\), which strongly evidences the successful formation of heterojunctions.

UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy was employed to explore the light-harvesting ability of the as-prepared photocatalysts (Fig. S7†). The absorption edge for Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\)@\( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) is significantly extended to 700 nm, covering almost the entire visible region. On the basis of the Tauc plots (Fig. S8†), the band gaps of the \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanorod and Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) were determined to be 2.12 eV and 2.66 eV, respectively. The energy band structures were further resolved by Mott–Schottky plots (Fig. S9†). The positive slopes of the Mott–Schottky plots indicate the n-type characteristics for both the \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanorod and Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\). The flat band potentials of \( \alpha \)-Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) and Co\(_1\)-C\(_3\)N\(_4\) were calculated to be 0.36 V and ~0.94 V versus the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE), respectively. For the n-type semiconductor, the flat band potential is close to the bottom of the conduction band (CB).† The band structure of the composite can be drawn based on UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectrum for the composite structure, as shown in Fig. 2c. To validate the Z-scheme route for the photo-induced charge carriers, ESR spectroscopy was employed to detect \( ^{1} \)OH.
and $'O_2$ species with DMPO as the trapping agent (Fig. 2a and b). For pristine $\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$, only a weak signal attributed to $'OH$ was observed under visible-light irradiation; for pristine Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4$, only the signal attributed to $'O_2$ was detected with four identical peaks. These results are understandable by comparing the energy band positions with the reaction potentials of $O_2'/O_2$ and $H_2O'/OH$ (OH$^-$/OH). When Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4@\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ was employed as the photocatalyst, the signals of both $'OH$ and $'O_2$ were observed with much stronger intensities than that for each single component. In addition, neither of the two species was observed for Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4@\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ under dark conditions (Fig. S10†), suggesting that the reactive oxygen species mentioned above were generated upon incident light. Therefore, we can conclude that the photo-induced charge carriers follow a Z-scheme mechanism rather than a Type II mechanism (Fig. 2c).$^8,33$

With the Z-scheme mechanism for Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4@\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ validated, now we are in a position to investigate the efficacy of the composite structure in promoting photocatalytic CO$_2$ reduction. Fig. 3a shows the average CO evolution rates in CO$_2$ overall splitting for the as-prepared catalysts under visible light ($\lambda > 400$ nm). No product was detected for $\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ nanorod arrays, as the potential of the conduction band is too positive to trigger the reduction of CO$_2$. The CO production rate for Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4@\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ was substantially elevated to 14.9 μmol g$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$, 2.9 times as high as that for Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4$ (5.2 μmol g$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$) and 6.5 times as that for C$_3$N$_4@\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ (2.3 μmol g$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$). These results imply that the construction of the Z-scheme heterojunction and the introduction of Co favor the photocatalytic reduction of CO$_2$ under visible light. When ultraviolet light was also introduced to the photocatalytic system (by the removal of the cut-off filter), a CO production rate as high as 25.2 μmol g$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$ was achieved, demonstrating the excellent CO$_2$ reduction capability for Co$_1$-C$_3$N$_4@\alpha$-Fe$_2$O$_3$ under full spectrum. To evaluate the utilization efficiency of the solar energy, apparent quantum efficiencies (AQEs) for CO gene-
It is noteworthy that neither H₂ nor CH₄ was detected in the gaseous products for a continuous 12-hour photocatalytic test, suggesting the high selectivity for CO (Fig. 3b). To the best of our knowledge, the performance of Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ here is among the top levels in comparison with other g-C₃N₄-based and single-atomic site catalysts in photocatalytic CO₂ coupled with water oxidation (Table S5†). To further examine the essentiality of the single-atomic character of Co in CO₂ reduction, CoNP-C₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ was employed for comparison. The result shows that the CO production rate for CoNP-C₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ is much lower (4.8 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), suggesting the critical role of single-atomic Co sites in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction. A similar irradiation test under Ar atmosphere was conducted on Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃, and no CO was detected. To further identify the origin of CO, we traced the carbon source in the reduction process using a ¹³C isotopic label. Fig. 3c shows the mass spectrum of CO obtained with ¹³CO₂ as a substrate under identical photocatalytic reaction conditions; a distinct ¹³CO peak (m/z = 29) was observed, indicating that the CO indeed originates from CO₂. H₂¹⁸O, instead of H₂¹⁶O, was also adopted to verify the water oxidation half-reaction, and a clear ¹⁸O₂ peak (m/z = 36) was observed in the mass spectrum. Moreover, molecular oxygen was detected as the product by liquid-phase oxygen measurement system, further confirming that the CO₂ reduction is coupled with water oxidation (Fig. S12†). As shown in Fig. 3d and S13†, the production rate and selectivity of CO for Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ remained almost unchanged during the six consecutive cycles (4 h each), and no aggregation of Co species appeared after the stability test, validating the excellent stability for the Z-scheme system under visible light.

Given the above results, a question naturally arises: What role does the Z-scheme play in enhancing the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction? In addition to the significantly broadened light-absorption range, the dynamic behaviors of the photoinduced charge carriers are also effectively regulated. The photocurrent responses were recorded under intermittent visible-light irradiation in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution (Fig. S14†). The photocurrent density for Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ is higher than those for α-Fe₂O₃ and Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄, suggesting the more efficient photo-induced electron-hole separation for improved CO₂ reduction.† Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted to reflect the charge transfer resistance (Fig. S15†). The Nyquist plots reveal that Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ has the lowest charge transfer resistance, which is beneficial for the separation and migration of the photoinduced charge carriers.† To investigate the lifetime of the electron-hole pairs, we employed PL spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. S16†, the main emission peak located at 442 nm can be ascribed to the inter-band recombination of photoinduced charge carriers. The dramatically quenched PL intensity for Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ indicates the faster electron migration and the efficient suppression of the carrier recombination.† To gain in-depth information for the carrier dynamics, TRPL decay curves for the as-prepared photocatalysts were recorded. As revealed in Fig. 4a and S17†, Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄@α-Fe₂O₃ shows a significantly slower decay kinetics than α-Fe₂O₃ and Co₁₋ₓC₃N₄. The PL lifetimes are listed in Table S2†. The shorter lifetime τ₁ is related to the non-radiative relaxation, and the longer lifetime τ₂ is attributed to the inter-band recombination of the photo-induced excitons, which mainly contributes to the
photoluminescence.\(^{21}\) Notably, the average lifetime (\(\tau\)) of \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\) is prolonged to 5.17 ns, suggesting the high efficacy of the Z-scheme heterojunction. Specifically, the photo-induced electrons in the conduction band of \(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\) can efficiently annihilate the holes in the valence band of \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\), thus suppressing the recombination of photo-induced excitons inside each component. As a consequence, more photo-induced electrons would be preserved on the conduction band of \(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\) under different irradiation conditions with the existence of \(\text{CO}_2\) and \(\text{H}_2\text{O}\). \((d)\) X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy spectra of the Co 2p core levels for \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\) and \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\) in Fig. 4c. The N 1s spectrum for \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\) demonstrated the formation of \(\text{CO}_2\)-derived species, which is generally regarded as the rate-determining step in \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction.\(^{4,43-45}\) The stabilization of \(\text{CO}_2^-\) has a great impact on the overall performance of the photocatalytic \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction, and largely depends on the local charge density of the active sites.\(^{46-48}\) In our Z-scheme heterojunction, the electrons in \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\) with a relatively high Fermi level would spontaneously migrate to \(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\), and more photo-induced holes would be preserved on the conduction band of \(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\), thus leading to superior photocatalytic performances. Furthermore, the incorporation of single-atomic Co sites also results in prolonged average lifetimes with significantly altered \(\tau_1\) and \(\tau_2\). The atomically dispersed Co can act as effective trap sites to capture the photo-induced electrons from the conduction band of \(\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\), thereby inhibiting the recombination of the electrons with the VB holes.\(^{36,37}\) Therefore, for \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\), the Z-scheme structure and the single-atomic Co sites collaboratively contribute to the efficient separation of the photo-induced excitons.

To shed light on the role of single-atomic Co sites at the catalytic interface during photocatalytic \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction, \(\text{CO}_2\) adsorption was employed to determine the chemisorption capacities of these catalysts. As depicted in Fig. 4b, \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\) adsorbs a much larger amount of \(\text{CO}_2\) than bare \(\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\), suggesting the efficacy of the single-atomic Co sites. It is also worth pointing out that the integration of \(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\) significantly reduces the \(\text{CO}_2\) uptake, which can be attributed to the poor \(\text{CO}_2\) adsorption ability of \(\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\) nanorod arrays. To unravel the possible reaction pathway that occurs on \(\text{Co}_1\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4\@\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3\), we carried out \textit{in situ} DRIFTS measurements to explore the key intermediates in photocatalytic \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction. As illustrated in Fig. 4c, the peaks at 1618 cm\(^{-1}\), 1723 cm\(^{-1}\), and 1868 cm\(^{-1}\) can be assigned to bidentate carbonate (b-\(\text{CO}_3^2-\)), chelating bridged carbonate (c-\(\text{CO}_3^2-\)), and multi-bridged CO (m-CO) on the \(\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\) substrate, respectively.\(^{38,39}\) The carbonate species are formed by the interaction of the surface O atoms of \(\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4\) with adsorbed \(\text{CO}_2\).\(^{38}\) During the 60 min irradiation, the peak intensity of b-\(\text{CO}_3^2-\) remained unchanged, whereas the peak intensity of c-\(\text{CO}_3^2-\) significantly decreased. Meanwhile, an obvious increase was observed in the m-CO peak. These results can be explained by the catalytic effect that c-\(\text{CO}_3^2-\) is converted into m-CO during the photocatalytic \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction. More importantly, a peak at 2152 cm\(^{-1}\) emerged and the intensity of the peak gradually increased with the irradiation time. This peak can be assigned to the stretching vibration of CO adsorbed on an isolated Co site.\(^{40,41}\) This result further highlights the key role of the single-atomic Co sites in CO evolution. Moreover, another peak at 1685 cm\(^{-1}\) attributed to \(\text{CO}_2\)-adsorbed Co sites was observed, the intensity of which noticeably increased after 60 min irradiation.\(^{38,42}\) Therefore, it can be inferred that the \(\text{CO}_2\)-to-CO conversion on the isolated Co sites proceeds via the formation of \(\text{CO}_2^-\), which is generally regarded as the rate-determining step in \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction.\(^{4,43-45}\) The stabilization of \(\text{CO}_2^-\) has a great impact on the overall performance of the photocatalytic \(\text{CO}_2\) reduction, and largely depends on the local charge density of the active sites.\(^{46-48}\)
static interaction with the more positively charged Co sites.\textsuperscript{45} To confirm the superiority of Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}@\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} in CO\textsubscript{2} \textsuperscript{-} stabilization, the adsorption of OH\textsuperscript{-} and SO\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{2-} (as proper surrogates for CO\textsubscript{2}) \textsuperscript{-} was conducted.\textsuperscript{34–56} In order to eliminate any possible disturbance, we prepared a non-heterojunction mixture comprising \textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} nanorod arrays and Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4} with the assistance of Nafion solution rather than via the subsequent thermal treatment (denoted as Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}/\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}). The oxidative linear sweep voltammograms (LSV) in NaOH aqueous solution reveal that the potential of OH\textsuperscript{-} oxidative linear sweep voltammograms (LSV) in NaOH aqueous solution reveal that the potential of OH\textsuperscript{-} adsorption for Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}@\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} is 19 mV lower than that for Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}/\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} (Fig. 4e). This difference becomes more prominent in the adsorption of SO\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{2-}. As shown in Fig. 4f, a potential of 1.14 V vs. Ag/AgCl is required for the adsorption of SO\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{2-} on Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}@\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}, 120 mV lower than that on Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}/\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} (1.26 V vs. Ag/AgCl). Since the lower potential implies a stronger binding of the anion, these results strongly indicate that the Z-scheme Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}@\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} can efficiently stabilize the key intermediate CO\textsubscript{2} \textsuperscript{-}, thereby facilitating CO evolution.

### Conclusions

In summary, we have constructed a Z-scheme heterojunction of Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4}@\textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} comprising Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4} and \textalpha-Fe\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} nanorod arrays for efficient visible-light-driven CO\textsubscript{2} reduction coupled with water oxidation. The introduction of the Z-scheme heterojunction into a single-atomic catalyst of Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4} not only promotes the separation of the photo-induced charge carriers for benefiting CO\textsubscript{2} reduction, but also enhances the capability of water oxidation. XPS analysis reveals that the single-atomic Co sites in Co\textsubscript{1}-C\textsubscript{3}N\textsubscript{4} become more positively charged after the formation of the heterojunction, which contributes to the efficient stabilization of CO\textsubscript{2} \textsuperscript{-} and hence facilitates the CO\textsubscript{2} reduction, as verified by the \textit{in situ} DRIFTS spectra and anion adsorption test. As a result, a CO generation rate of 14.9 \textmu mol g\textsuperscript{-1} h\textsuperscript{-1} with over 99\% CO selectivity is achieved under visible-light irradiation using water as an electron source. Our findings here underline the importance of the charge regulation on single-atomic sites by the Z-scheme heterojunction for enhancing catalytic performances, and offer a new approach to developing high-efficiency single-atomic site catalysts for artificial photosynthesis.

### Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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