

# **Simultaneously Utilizing Excited Holes and Electrons for Piezoelectric-Enhanced Photoproduction of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> from S-Scheme 2D S-doped VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> Nanostructures**

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## Abstract

The simultaneous use of excited holes and electrons in photocatalytic research has become a strong driving force for rationalizing materials in design and development. As a promising strategy, step-scheme (S-scheme) photocatalysts have enormously ignited the photocatalytic community in recent decades. Introducing piezoelectric fields under light irradiations to generate valuable chemical products, such as hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ), has also gained current interest in enhancing the large-scale production of these chemicals. In the research, we reported the fabrication of 2D S-doped  $\text{VO}_x$  deposited on 2D g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  to produce  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  via the piezo-photocatalytic process. The finding pointed out that adding sulfur to  $\text{VO}_x$  can help improve the catalytic outcomes by modifying the electronic and morphological properties of pristine  $\text{VO}_x$ . In addition, when coupled with g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ , the presence of sulfur limits the formation of graphene in the  $\text{VO}_x/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  composites, causing shielding effects in the materials. Besides, the research also sheds light on the charge transportation between g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  and S- $\text{VO}_x$  under irradiation and how the composites work to trigger the formation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . It turned out that the formation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  significantly relies on the reduction of oxygen to generate oxygenic radical species at g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  sites. Meanwhile, S- $\text{VO}_x$  provides oxidative sites in the composites to oxidize water molecules to generate  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . This study confirms the validation of S-scheme piezo-photocatalysts, thus encouraging further research on developing heterojunction materials with high catalytic efficiency, which can be used in practical conditions.

**Keywords:** Vanadium oxides ( $\text{VO}_x$ ), g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$ , S-scheme charge transfer,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production, piezo-photocatalysis

## 1. Introduction

Sustainable hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) production is fascinating since  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  finds its essential role in various fields, ranging from water treatment to fuel cells [1, 2, 3]. It has been

predicted that the global demand for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by 2030 will be US\$ 15.4 billion, increasing from US\$ 10.4 billion in 2022 [4]. However, over 95 % of the current supply has come from the traditional manufacturing of anthraquinone oxidation (AQ), posing some associated demerits of environmental deterioration and intensive cost and energy consumption [5]. Thereby, there is an urgent need to produce this chemical from alternative methods in which solar-to-H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> conversion offers the potential avenue to realize the expectations.

With inspiration from natural photosynthesis, artificial photosynthesis has been waking up for decades since the splitting of water under UV irradiation on a titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) electrode was published [6]. Various semiconductors, such as ZnO, WO<sub>3</sub>, and so forth, have been reported to potentially be used as photocatalysts. Multivalent vanadium oxides (VO<sub>x</sub>) would be regarded as a competitive candidate. However, the photoactivity from VO<sub>x</sub> is relatively unsatisfactory due to the sluggish charge carrier separation [7]. Thus, coupling VO<sub>x</sub> with other materials might become a reasonable approach to accelerate the catalytic performance of this exciting oxide. Earliest reports have revealed the catalytic enhancement when uniting VO<sub>x</sub> with other oxides, such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, or SnO<sub>2</sub> [8, 9, 10]. In addition to other metal oxides, coupling VO<sub>x</sub> with carbon-based photocatalysts, such as 2D graphitic carbon nitrides (2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>), is also recorded in the literature [11]. Thanks to the unique properties of 2D structures, depositing VO<sub>x</sub> on 2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> has captured scientific interest. For example, 0D V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> nanoparticles or nanodots on 2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were earliest fabricated by Liu and co-workers to remove rhodamine B and amoxicillin in water [12, 13]. Later, various V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> morphologies anchored 2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were recorded in the literature, such as nanobelts [14], 1D nanorods [15, 16], nanoribbons [17], and recently 2D nanoflakes [18]. Although VO<sub>x</sub> with various dimensions and shapes decorated 2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> were reported, there are limited studies on 2D VO<sub>x</sub> nanosheets decorated 2D g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets for photocatalysis, resulting in a knowledge gap in understanding the unique composites. Thus, synthesizing 2D-2D layer structures of VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> would be worth exploring in this regime.

To accurately understand charge transfer in heterojunction photocatalysts, in 2019, step-scheme (S-scheme) photocatalysts were introduced by Yu's group after identifying some problems from traditional type-II or Z-scheme mechanisms [19, 20]. Theoretically, an S-scheme heterojunction catalyst comprises two semiconductors, with one being an oxidative photocatalyst in contrast to the reductive photocatalyst from the remaining part. As a result, to form an S-scheme heterostructure, the composites require two materials with highly oxidative and highly reductive properties from separate sides [21, 22]. Due to the efficacy of S-scheme charge transfer routes in recent years, substantial attention has been drawn to fabricating S-scheme photocatalysts to produce  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  [23]. Besides that, 2D/2D van der Waals heterostructures are believed to possess some distinct features, including accessibility of active sites and maximum charge separation and transportation at the interfaces due to face-to-face interactions [24]. Understandingly,  $\text{VO}_x$  and g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  can form the S-scheme heterojunction photocatalysts due to the suitable band edge positions of these materials, in which  $\text{VO}_x$  plays as an oxidative catalyst, and g- $\text{C}_3\text{N}_4$  contributes as a reductive side [11]. Nonetheless, less attention has been paid to this exciting composite, and there is no report on the production of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  by using van der Waals S-scheme  $\text{VO}_x/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  in the literature based on our knowledge. Therefore, establishing van der Waals S-scheme  $\text{VO}_x/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  for generating  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  might become meaningful in exploring and realizing the concept of solar-to- $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  conversion in terms of sustainability.

Although S-scheme heterojunction photocatalysts are more efficient regarding charge separation and transfer behaviors, there is still room for electron-hole pair recombination at the interfaces due to structural defects [25]. However, these defects can be a gift for other electric fields, in which a win-win situation can be achieved to enhance catalytic outcomes. In recent years, external stress induced by ultrasound to promote the piezoelectric effects, which can suppress the charge recombination, on the materials has enormously gained scientific interest [26]. This phenomenon frequently originated from non-centrosymmetric structures of the

materials, in which polarizing materials' surfaces can boost the strength of piezoelectricity [27]. A previous study showed that S-scheme g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>/V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> enhanced the removal of tetracycline under simultaneous irradiation of light and ultrasound [28]. Thus, combining the internal electric field (IEF) from S-scheme heterojunctions with the surface piezoelectric effects prompted by sonication can help overcome the structural defects and reach satisfactory performance. Furthermore, elemental doping can be useful in this regime to polarize VO<sub>x</sub> surfaces. For example, Jang and colleagues fabricated 2D sulfur (S) -doped V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and observed some unique features in the optical and electrical properties of the materials [29]. Hence, it is intriguing to understand the role of S in 2D S-doped VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> van der Waals S-scheme heterojunction piezo-photocatalysts regarding the field of solar H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

From the above analyses, we fabricated 2D S-doped VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (S-VOCN) S-scheme heterojunction piezo-photocatalysts for the accelerated generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The results showed that S-VOCN exhibits relatively better activity at 20.27 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> compared to other materials, as demonstrated in Table S1. From the findings, sulfur helps to enhance the formation of porosity on VO<sub>x</sub> structures to accelerate catalytic performance and enrich the number of defective sites to boost process efficiency. The characterization results show that the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> would rely on the formation of oxygenic radical species and water oxidation. Supported by the highly oxidative holes in S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites, water can be directly oxidized to produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and partially generate singlet oxygen (<sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>), which was later reduced to form H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Meanwhile, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> sites mainly contribute to the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> based on oxygen reduction pathways. These simultaneous reactions can enhance catalytic outcomes, which would strongly validate the usefulness of S-scheme charge transfer and encourage the growth of materials design and development.

## 2. Catalyst Preparation

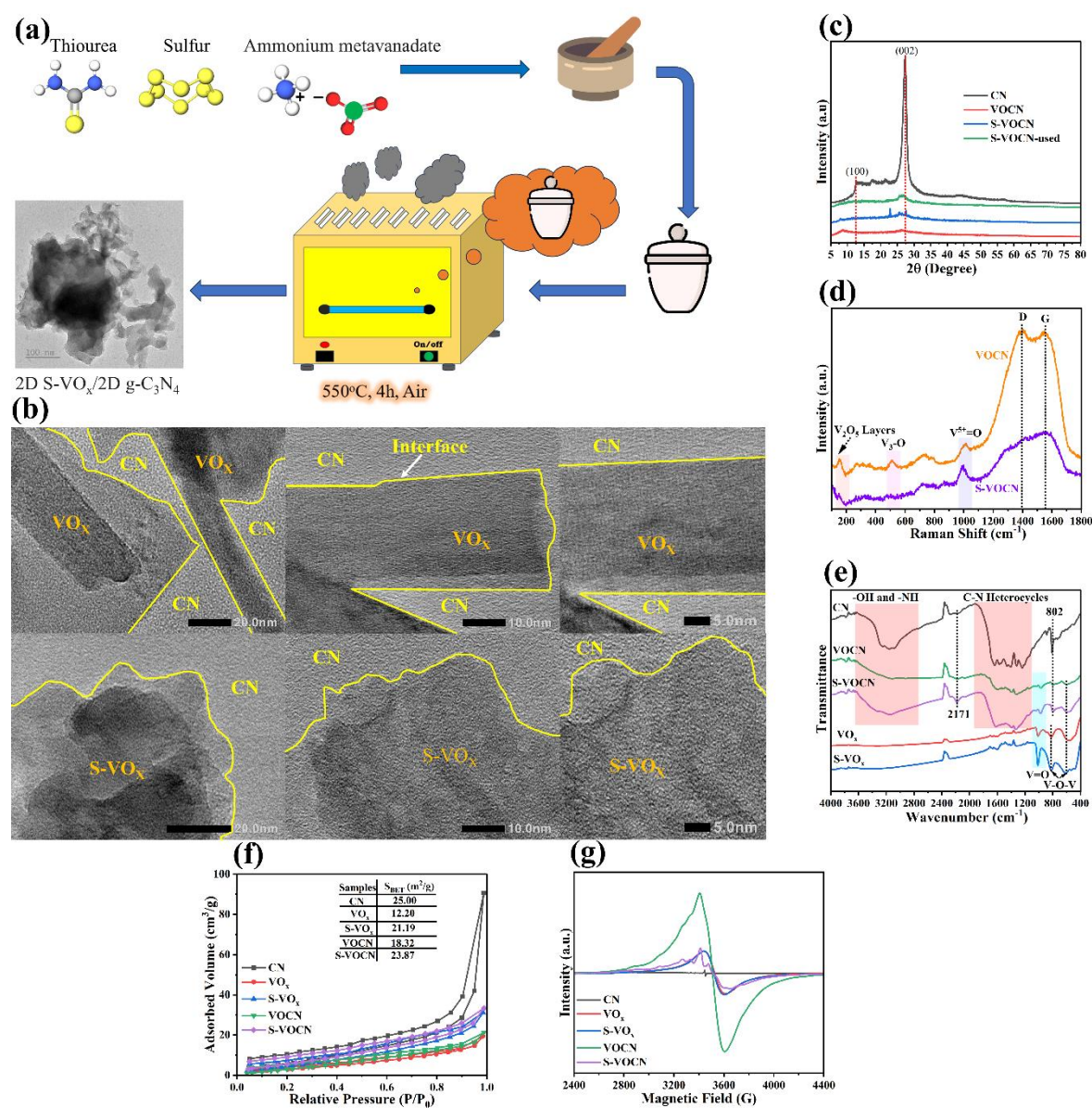
The S-VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composites, denoted as S-VOCN, were prepared via a simple one-step calcination process, which involved grinding 10 g of thiourea, 2 g of sulfur, and 9 mmol of ammonium metavanadate (NH<sub>4</sub>VO<sub>3</sub>). The mixtures were placed in a crucible wrapped with aluminum foil and calcinated at 550 °C for 4 hours in the presence of air. After cooling to room temperature, the synthesized products were ground, washed, and stored for further use. For comparison, pure g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (CN), VO<sub>x</sub>, VOCN, and S-VO<sub>x</sub> were synthesized via the identical procedure without adding sulfur and V<sup>5+</sup> for CN, or thiourea for S-VO<sub>x</sub>, or sulfur for VOCN, and sulfur and thiourea for VO<sub>x</sub>.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Morphological, Chemical, and Physical Properties

Fig. 1a illustrates the synthetic scheme of S-VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> composites by the one-step calcination method. The morphologies of all samples characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) are exhibited in Fig. S1. The results show that all samples appear to have sheet-like structures with some differences. Regarding VO<sub>x</sub> and VOCN, the sheets are perfectly pristine with no evidence of damage. However, the introduction of sulfur in the synthesis led to the formation of many fragments in the S-VOCN samples. It can be hypothesized that sulfur tends to be oxidized by oxygen to become SO<sub>x</sub> and evaporate during the calcination, causing fragments in the final catalytic structures. Furthermore, the morphologies of the VOCN and S-VOCN samples are analyzed by high-resolution TEM and shown in Fig. 1b. It is easy to see that without the addition of sulfur, the sheets of VO<sub>x</sub> on CN are intact and long, which is consistent with the TEM results. In contrast, the S-VO<sub>x</sub> sheets on CN are dimensionless. The HRTEM images did not show any lattice spacing of both samples, indicating that the composites tend to be more amorphous rather than crystalline structures.





**Fig. 1.** Schematic Preparation of S-VO<sub>x</sub>/g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> (a); HRTEM images of VO<sub>x</sub> (above) and S-VO<sub>x</sub> (below) (b); XRD patterns of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, and S-VO<sub>x</sub> after four-cycle irradiation (c); Raman spectra of VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> (d); FTIR spectra of the as-prepared samples (e); N<sub>2</sub> adsorption-desorption isotherms of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, VO<sub>x</sub>CN, and S-VO<sub>x</sub>CN (f); solid-state EPR spectra of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, VO<sub>x</sub>CN, and S-VO<sub>x</sub>CN (g)

To further probe the evidence from the TEM results, the crystallinity of the as-prepared catalysts was characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), and the XRD patterns of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, and S-VO<sub>x</sub>CN after catalysis are presented in Fig. 1b. The XRD patterns of VO<sub>x</sub> and

S-VO<sub>x</sub> are included in Fig. S2a. The as-prepared oxides exhibit the presence of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and V<sub>6</sub>O<sub>11</sub> in the material's structures. Based on the XRD evidence, while VO<sub>x</sub> tends to be more crystalline, S-VO<sub>x</sub> has contradicting features with a more amorphous phase in its structures. These proofs indicate the roles of sulfur not only in inducing more porous structures but also in impeding the growth of crystal planes in the synthesized catalysts. For the CN pattern, it is evident that the materials exhibit two distinct features of graphitic structures with two diffraction peaks for (100) and (002) planes. The former peak depicts the replication of heptazine units in the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> structures, while the latter illustrates the layer-layer stacking in the materials [30]. When forming the composites, the materials become amorphous, as demonstrated in the TEM results with the disappearance of all CN peaks. These features recommend that the addition of other components hinder the growth of CN during the calcination period. Due to the less crystallinity inducing the enhancement in non-centrosymmetric structures, the piezo-catalytic properties of the as-prepared materials can improve. In addition, after catalysis, the peak of around 22.8° of S-VOCN disappeared, recommending changes in the materials' structures under catalytic conditions.

Furthermore, Raman and Fourier-transformed infrared (FTIR) spectroscopies are used to determine the chemical structures of the as-prepared catalysts. Fig. 1d represents the Raman spectra of VOCN and S-VOCN with the presence of the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> layer's structures, V<sub>3</sub>-O, and V=O. Interestingly, the presence of D and G bands at around 1400 and 1600 cm<sup>-1</sup> in VOCN validates that the composites contain some graphene-like regions in the materials [31]. The phenomenon is unclear in S-VOCN, suggesting the hindrance of carbon-species growth in the composites. Graphene is believed to act as an electron acceptor [32]. Thus, the excited electrons can be stored under irradiations, avoiding charge recombination and effectively boosting the catalytic activity. In addition, Fig. S2b points out the full Raman spectra of VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> with similar peak positions, matching well with the orthorhombic V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> structures [33].



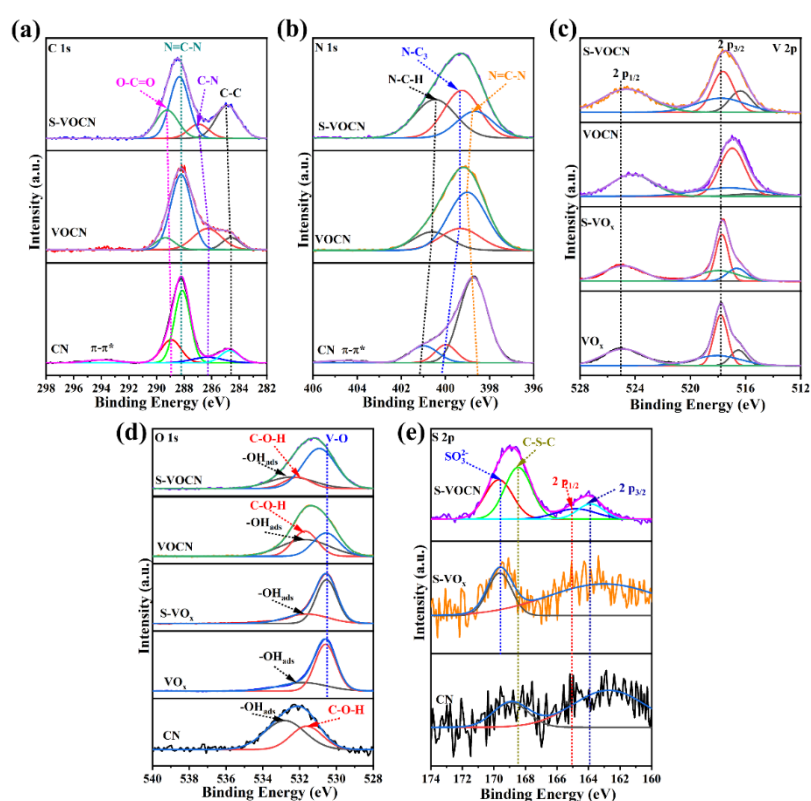
With regard to the FTIR spectra, CN shows a well-known pattern of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> with the presence of C-N heterocycles, -OH, and -NH bonds in the spectra [34]. For VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> spectra, the regions under 1200 cm<sup>-1</sup> typically prove the presence of V=O and V-O-V bonds, which are in excellent accordance with the Raman spectra [16]. The spectra of CN, VOCN, and S-VOCN exhibit the presence of cyano groups on the catalyst's structures at 2171 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which could help to harvest incident photons in visible regions effectively [35]. Compared to CN and VOCN, S-VOCN possesses a clear feature for this functional group. Notably, the formation of the composites limits the numbers of -OH and -NH<sub>x</sub> groups on the surface of the catalysts, which would shift the selectivity toward the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> instead of H<sub>2</sub>O in the reactions [36]. Moreover, solid-state <sup>13</sup>C nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy was applied in this work, as presented in **Fig. S3c**. From the results, the addition of other components during calcination hinders the growth of carbon species in the materials, leading to no peaks in the NMR spectra of VOCN and S-VOCN compared to the distinct features of CN. These results meaningfully validate the changes in the catalyst's structures, enhancing polarizations in which the piezo-catalytic activities can be improved.

It is known that surface charge can influence the catalytic outcomes of the catalysts. Thus, the zeta potential measurements were carried out to understand the surface charge of the synthesized materials. As seen in Table S2, all materials exhibit negative potential in pure water, which could favor attracting more protons to accelerate the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. From the results, when sulfur was introduced to VO<sub>x</sub>, the surface potential dropped from -35.8 to -27.4 eV, recommending the changes in VO<sub>x</sub> electronic structures. However, the composites between VO<sub>x</sub> and CN exhibit the lowest surface potential value at -12.6 mV compared to -20.2 mV from S-VOCN. The results suggest that VOCN tends to be more challenging in attracting protons to the surface than S-VOCN. In other words, due to the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> requiring the continuous supplements of protons, the more negative value of surface potentials would be one of the indicators of higher catalytic activity. However, due to rapid charge recombination,

component catalysts exhibit lower catalytic performance even though these materials possess higher proton adsorption ability.

In order to study the surface area and porosity of the materials, nitrogen adsorption-desorption measurements were conducted. As seen in Fig. 1f, all samples exhibit a type IV isotherm with H3 hysteresis loop according to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller classification [37]. Based on the BET surface area, CN presents the highest surface area, in contrast to the lowest one from VO<sub>x</sub>. When sulfur was added to the calcination, the surface area of S-VO<sub>x</sub> increased nearly 1.7 times compared to pure VO<sub>x</sub>. Similarly, the surface area of S-VOCN is also higher than that of VOCN. It is believed that more surface area will lead to lower selectivity in the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> based on g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>-based catalysts due to increasing the number of primary amine groups on the surface, limiting the interactions between O<sub>2</sub> and catalysts [36]. This is true in the case of pure CN in the prepared samples. However, with the formation of the composites, the primary amines in the catalysts' structures are removed, as validated by the FTIR spectra, thus eliminating the barriers in reactant-catalyst interactions. In addition, the effective charge transfer in the heterojunction structures leads to enhanced catalytic outcomes. From the data, it is believed that the presence of sulfur induces many defective sites, which can boost the adsorption and activation of O<sub>2</sub> to accelerate the catalytic performance. Additionally, the average pore size of the prepared samples is presented in Table S2. From the data, VO<sub>x</sub> shows the smallest pore size value. The pore size increased 10 times in S-VO<sub>x</sub>, confirming the role of sulfur in creating porosity in the catalysts' structures. The composites also exhibit high pore size values compared to the pristine CN. Understandably, the in-situ calcination between CN and VO<sub>x</sub> precursors produces a large volume of various gases, which will release and etch the final catalysts to induce the porous structures. Regarding VOCN and S-VOCN, these samples present the same phenomenon as VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> in which the addition of sulfur enlarges the pore size of the materials. These results are consistent with TEM analyses.

Fig. 1g depicts the room-temperature electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra of the as-prepared materials under darkness. As can be seen in the figure, CN exhibits feeble EPR signals compared to other samples, illustrating the small numbers of free electrons in CN. The signal tends to overlap regarding  $\text{VO}_x$  and S- $\text{VO}_x$  spectra, suggesting a similar fraction of free electrons in these samples. However, a significant increase in the intensity was observed in VO-CN, while the signal became less intense in S-VO-CN. It is hypothesized that free electrons would accumulate in VO-CN in a large portion due to the presence of graphene-like structures, leading to the enhancement in the EPR spectra. Although more free electrons can be associated with the improvement in catalytic activities, VO-CN did not produce the highest catalytic outcomes due to the lack of active sites, as pointed out by BET results with low surface area and higher charge recombination rate, which will be discussed in the next section.



**Fig. 2.** Core-element XPS spectra of the prepared materials: C 1s (a); N 1s (b); V 2p (c); O 1s (d); S 2p (e)

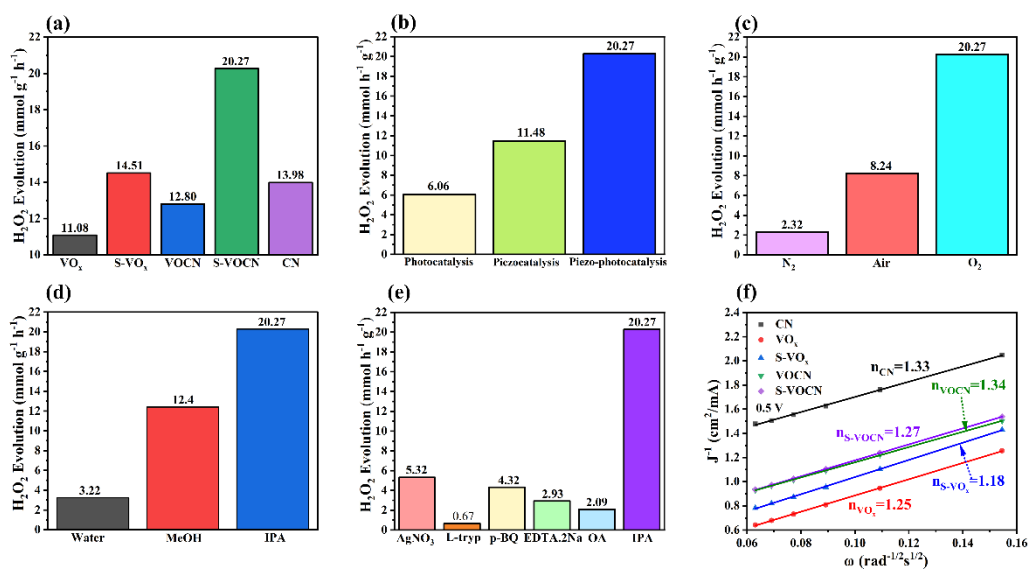
X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was also performed in this study to understand each element's charge transfer and oxidation states in the synthesized catalysts. Fig. 2a and 2b show the C 1s and N 1s spectra of S-VOCN, VOCN, and CN. All samples contain C-C, C-N, N=C-N, and O-C=O bonds in the C 1s spectra, while N=C-N, N-C<sub>3</sub>, and N-C-H bonds are present in the N 1s spectra with minor shifts. The results validate the presence of g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> structures in the synthesized composites. A careful characterization without deconvoluted peaks shows that VOCN and S-VOCN exhibit the peaks at higher binding energy regions, confirming the charge transfer from CN to VOCN or S-VOCN under darkness to balance the Fermi level [37, 38, 39, 40]. Similarly, the V 2p spectra in Fig. 2c show the oxidation state of V at +5 [41]. Between the composites and the pristine samples, the general peaks without deconvolutions appear at lower binding energy regions, pointing out that VOCN and S-VOCN receive electrons to enrich the electron densities in the VO<sub>x</sub> sites of the composites. The results would be consistent with the EPR results. Due to oxygen in all samples, the O 1s spectra in Fig. 2d exhibit different charge transfer phenomena compared to V 2p. If oxygen is only present in the oxide phases, the binding energy of the composites would be in the lower regions, as followed by the patterns of V 2p due to the electron density enrichment phenomenon. The observations are in the opposite direction, in which the binding energy peak of the composites is between CN and VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub>. Thus, using the O 1s spectra to understand the charge transfer phenomenon is hard. Based on this analysis, it can be thought that the spectra of C 1s, N 1s, and V 2p could be reasonably used to estimate the charge transportation under darkness. Finally, Fig. 2e exhibits the presence of S 2p in CN, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, and S-VOCN with different S species with the oxidation of +2 in the samples, including SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> and C-S-C [42, 43]. As a result, the evidence from the XPS spectra validates the successful synthesis of the designed composites and the charge transportation under darkness to balance the Fermi level of the composites from CN to VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub>, which would be related to S-scheme charge transfer mechanisms in the dark.

### 3.2 Piezo-photocatalytic Performance

The piezo-photocatalytic performance of the as-prepared catalysts toward the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was recorded in this work to estimate the catalytic efficacy of the materials. Fig. 3a shows the comparison results between different catalysts comprising CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, VOCN, and S-VOCN. As can be observed from the data, both CN and VO<sub>x</sub> exhibit the evolution rate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 13.98 and 11.08 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Adding sulfur helps enhance the catalytic outcomes, with the figure being 14.51 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> compared to pristine VO<sub>x</sub>. It can be inferred that sulfur induced multiple defects in the structures, which can help to effectively trap excited electrons to prevent charge recombination, causing enhancement in the catalytic outcomes. When S-VO<sub>x</sub> is coupled with CN to form S-VOCN, the catalytic result significantly increases to 20.27 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, owing to multiple surface defects in the structures. However, the composites between VO<sub>x</sub> and CN exhibit low catalytic outcomes at just 12.80 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, which was higher than that of VO<sub>x</sub> but lower than CN. This phenomenon can be due to the presence of graphene in the VOCN composites, as demonstrated by the Raman spectra. With the appropriate percentage of graphene, the catalytic outcomes can be enhanced since graphene can act as an electron acceptor. However, with the excess amount of graphene, the composites will turn dark, which could produce the shielding effects to diminish the catalytic outcomes [44]. Adding sulfur reduced the possibility of graphene formation to avoid shielding effects and increased surface defects, acting as active centers to enhance catalytic results. Thus, the results would be understandable, and S-VOCN was selected to proceed with more insightful experiments. Besides that, the stability of S-VOCN is shown in Fig. S3a, where the catalytic performance nearly remained unchanged after four running cycles, suggesting the long-term uses of the as-prepared catalysts.

Furthermore, piezo-catalytic, photocatalytic, and piezo-photocatalytic experiments based on S-VOCN were conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of the piezo-photocatalytic process. In Fig. 3b, the results show the comparison data between photocatalytic, piezo-catalytic, and piezo-photocatalytic processes. In particular, if the system only shines with light,

the generation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was at  $6.06 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ . Meanwhile, solely sonicating the catalysts in the dark can produce  $11.48 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . The results are consistent with previous records [30, 45]. This is because of the significant differences between ultrasonic and light intensity. In addition, the absorption of incoming photons from the materials is favored at specific wavelengths, and incident photons come from just one direction, which can limit the catalytic outcomes. In contrast, the absorption of vibration energy from the materials is more efficient since ultrasound spreads from all directions of the reactors, leading to better results in the piezo-catalytic process. Moreover, combining light and ultrasound can increase the yield of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  up to  $20.48 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , nearly 3.3 and 1.77 times when compared with only light or ultrasound, respectively, proving the existence of synergistic effects between light and ultrasound during the catalytic process.



**Fig. 3.** Piezo-photocatalytic performance of CN,  $\text{VO}_x$ , S- $\text{VO}_x$ , VOCN, and S-VOCN (a); Photocatalysis, piezo-catalysis, and piezo-photocatalysis of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production from S-VOCN (b); Piezo-photocatalysis of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  from S-VOCN under different gas conditions (c); Piezo-photocatalysis of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  from S-VOCN from using different sacrificial agents (d); Piezo-photocatalytic generation of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  from S-VOCN with using different scavengers (e); Koutecky-Levich plots of CN,  $\text{VO}_x$ , S- $\text{VO}_x$ , VOCN, and S-VOCN (f)

Undoubtedly, the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is mainly based on the direct or indirect reduction of O<sub>2</sub> or the oxidation of water [46]. Thus, different gases were used to bubble the solution during the process. Understandably, introducing O<sub>2</sub> in the reaction will favor the generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, leading to the highest catalytic performance. Expectedly, when N<sub>2</sub> was introduced to the reactor, the lowest catalytic outcome was recorded at 2.32 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. It can be suggested that the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the inert atmosphere can originate from water oxidation instead of oxygen reduction pathways. The possible mechanism will be discussed in detail in the next section. Moreover, for industrialization purposes, it is more likely to generate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> under ambient conditions to reduce manufacturing costs rather than using pure oxygen as a reactant. Therefore, the reaction was also run under air conditions, with the generation rate of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> being recorded at 8.24 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. Although the catalytic performance under air conditions was lower than under oxygen, this can be a good sign for validating the potential of generating H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by piezo-photocatalysis under air conditions, which can help diminish the cost and obtain the target of on-site H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

Comprehensively, the presence of sacrificial agents would influence the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> due to the hole-scavenging properties to avoid charge recombination. Thus, the control experiments with and without using a sacrificial agent were undertaken. As can be seen in Fig. 3d, the use of pure water would anticipatedly produce a limited quantity of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, with the data being 3.22 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, while the catalytic outcome increases nearly 3.9 and 6.3 times when adding methanol (MeOH) or isopropanol (IPA) in the reaction. It is because excited holes were consumed by these agents to prevent electron-hole pair recombination, accelerating the production yield.

Further radical trapping experiments were conducted to study the roles of radicals in generating H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Notably, silver nitrate (AgNO<sub>3</sub>), L-tryptophan (L-tryp), and para-benzoquinone (p-BQ) were added to the solution to scavenge excited electrons (e<sup>-</sup>), <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, and



superoxide ( $^{\cdot-}\text{O}_2$ ), respectively [47]. The catalytic performance in Fig. 3e exhibits the strong dependence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  on forming oxygenic radicals, indicating that the catalytic mechanism entails the radical pathways from the reduction and oxidation of oxygen species. There is no doubt that  $\text{AgNO}_3$  will compete with  $\text{O}_2$  to consume excited electrons, and the production of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was limited due to the unavailability of electrons to reduce oxygen. However, the catalytic outcomes seriously decreased when oxygen species radicals were trapped, as presented in the case of trapping superoxide and  $^1\text{O}_2$ .

Further proof from the nitrotetrazolium blue chloride (NBT) degradation Fig. S3b certifies the continuous superoxide formation in the solution because NBT was known to react with superoxide to produce monoformazan [48]. It is understandable that in the case of pure water, the produced concentration of superoxide was low, leading to the low degradation yield of NBT. However, when IPA was added, the amount of  $^{\cdot-}\text{O}_2$  enormously increased over time due to the effectiveness of avoiding charge recombination, resulting in a high NBT degradation rate. Interestingly, when L-tryptophan was added with NBT in the reaction, the degradation performance of NBT reduced, recommending the competition of excited holes and NBT to react with  $^{\cdot-}\text{O}_2$  to produce  $^1\text{O}_2$  or monoformazan, sequentially. In the case of trapping excited holes ( $\text{h}^+$ ), ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium (EDTA-2Na) and oxalic acid (OA) were used. Consequently, the excited hole scavenging evidence shows that the water oxidation partially takes part in producing  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . These fascinating results give insight into the catalytic mechanisms involving water oxidation and oxygenic radical pathways and the charge transfer mechanism in the heterojunction catalysts, associating with S-scheme charge transfers, which will be fully explained in the next section.

Eventually, the work employed electrocatalytic techniques, including linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV), by using a rotating disk electrode (RDE) to validate the findings from piezo-photocatalytic experiments. All samples exhibit the reduction

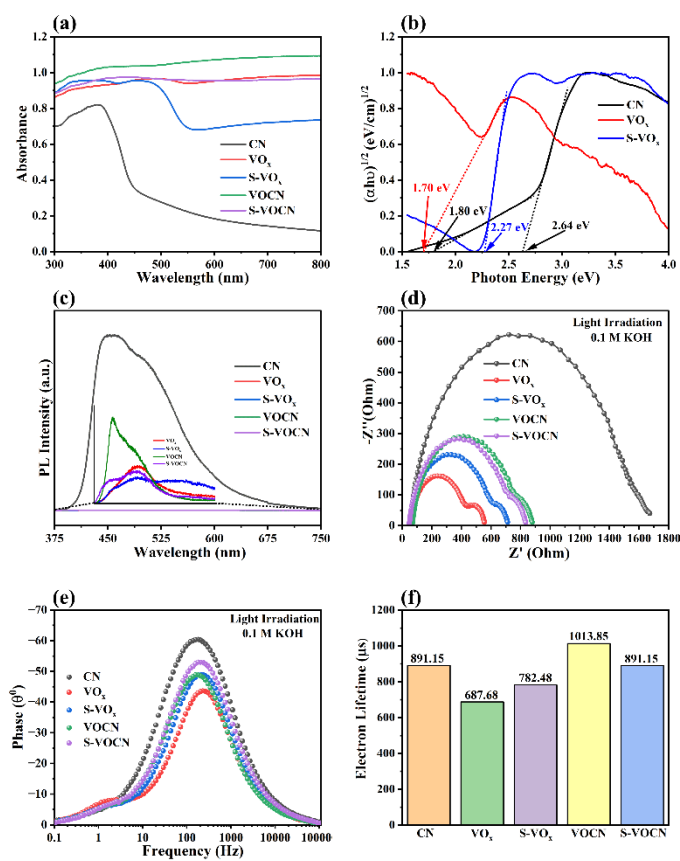
ability toward oxygen from CV measurements, as presented in Fig. S4, with the reduction peak being around 0.5 V vs. RHE. Additionally, the LSV measurements of all samples in Fig. S5 show an increase in the reduction when the rotating speeds accelerate. These results validate the ability to reduce oxygen to produce water or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. From the LSV data, the number (n) of electron transfers is calculated and shown in Fig. 3f, where all samples depict the n values that are higher than 1 and lower than 2, suggesting the reduction toward the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> from oxygen via single-electron and dual-electron transfers. The data is consistent with the results from the piezo-photocatalytic performance, where the way to generate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is mainly from oxygenic radical species.

### 3.3 Optical and Charge Transfer Behaviors

Optical properties are one of the essential factors for obtaining insights into photocatalytic studies. Thus, to understand this contributing factor, Ultraviolet diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-DRS) was employed. Fig. 4a presents the UV-DRS spectra of all samples, in which the characteristics of CN are consistent with the literature [49]. It is easy to see that VO<sub>x</sub> illustrates the broad spectra in the UV-DRS measurements, while S-VO<sub>x</sub> exhibits more apparent peaks in the UV and visible regions. Understandably, the absorption peak is not as strong due to multi-oxidation states in VO<sub>x</sub>, which used to be observed in the preliminary publication [50]. A similar phenomenon was observed in the case of VOCN and S-VOCN. However, the absorbance increases in both cases, indicating that the formation of heterojunction photocatalysts effectively boosts the light absorption capacity, potentially correlated to the enhanced catalytic outcomes.

Furthermore, the bandgap energy of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, and s-VO<sub>x</sub> was exported based on a Kubelka-Munk model, and the results are illustrated in Fig. 4b. The exported bandgap energy of VO<sub>x</sub> and CN are 1.70 and 2.64 eV, respectively, which is in good agreement with the published value [51, 52]. The addition of sulfur modifies the optical properties of VO<sub>x</sub>, leading to the increase in the bandgap energy to 2.27 eV, which can significantly contribute to the

catalytic performance due to the shift in the conduction band (CB) or valence band (VB) of the materials, which will clarify in the catalytic mechanism section. The midgap energy is also observed in the CN sample, owing to the presence of defective states in the materials, which is believed to accelerate the catalytic outcomes by reducing the needed incident photon energy to excite the catalysts [53, 54]. These results further confirm the roles of sulfur in modifying VO<sub>x</sub> electronic structures to enhance catalytic outcomes of a single component and a composite of VO<sub>x</sub> and CN.



**Fig. 4.** UV-DRS spectra of the prepared catalysts (a); Optical bandgap energy of the materials exported from a Kubelka-Munk model (b); Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, VO<sub>2</sub>CN, and S-VO<sub>2</sub>CN (c); Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) of the synthesized materials under light irradiation (d); Bode-phase plots of the EIS spectra of the as-prepared samples (e); and Photoelectron lifetime of all samples exported from Bode-phase plot results (f)

Photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy was recruited in this research to understand the charge recombination properties of the materials. As presented in Fig. 4c, CN shows the most significant intensity with the peak centering around 460 nm compared to other samples, indicating that the charge recombination rate in this sample is serious, corresponding to its low catalytic activity. On the contradictory side, VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub>, and two composites exhibit low intensity with the intensity following VOCN > VO<sub>x</sub> > S-VOCN > S-VO<sub>x</sub>. This result illustrates two convincing conclusions. First, constructing the composites between CN and metal oxides circumvents charge recombination. Secondly, doping sulfur to VO<sub>x</sub> and VOCN can help reduce the materials' charge recombination rate, certifying better catalytic results. In addition, PL spectroscopy is also a beautiful technique for understanding defect states in the materials [55]. Hence, the results demonstrate that S-VO<sub>x</sub> presents more defective states on the surface to quench the photoluminescence properties.

To confirm the PL results, EIS techniques were employed in the work, with the results being depicted in Fig. 4d. It is accepted that the higher radius in the EIS result can illustrate the higher resistance, relating to lower charge transfer efficiency in the sample [56]. Thus, based on the results, CN exhibited lower charge transfer efficiency than other samples, which can be in good agreement with the PL measurements. One notable feature is that VO<sub>x</sub> presents a lower radius in the Nyquist plot than S-VO<sub>x</sub>, while the radius of S-VOCN is slightly lower than that of VOCN. The Nyquist radii of VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> illustrate the contrast phenomenon with the PL spectra. It is understandable that when sulfur is added to VO<sub>x</sub>, the materials become more defective compared to VO<sub>x</sub>. These defective states can act as electron traps on the surface and active sites to accelerate catalytic rates. In the electrocatalytic measurements, these defects can limit the flexibility of electrons, leading to higher resistance, as frequently observed in the literature [57, 58]. Hence, the PL and EIS results confirm the roles of defective states in different measurements, which could impact the specific catalytic processes. Both techniques give the

same conclusion with better catalytic activity when forming heterojunction photocatalysts due to easing serious charge recombination situations.

Furthermore, the Bode-phase plots were exported from EIS measurements to interpret the electron transfer capability and photoelectron lifetimes. As shown in Fig. 4e, the Bode-phase plot of CN exhibits the peak at a low-frequency region compared to that of other samples. In the case of VO<sub>x</sub>, a higher frequency was observed. However, when sulfur was doped to VO<sub>x</sub>, S-VO<sub>x</sub> represents the lower frequency, indicating that sulfur doping modified the photo properties of VO<sub>x</sub>, which can help to prolong the charge lifetime. From the Bode-phase plots, the lifetime of photoelectrons can be estimated via the expression (1):

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2\pi f} \quad (1)$$

where  $f$  is the frequency and  $\tau$  is the photoelectron lifetime.

The calculated lifetimes are illustrated in Fig. 4f, in which CN exhibits a lifetime of 891.15  $\mu\text{s}$ , near the reported value [59]. The estimated values for VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> are 678.68 and 782.48  $\mu\text{s}$ , which can further validate the role of surface traps in lengthening the longevity of excited electrons to avoid charge recombination. Interestingly, the lifetime of VOCN appears to be the highest value in all samples, with the data being 1013.85  $\mu\text{s}$ , which further indicates the electron acceptance of graphene in VOCN samples, leading to the highest value in the electron lifetime. Although the result turns out that VOCN potentially tends to exhibit the highest generated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the catalytic performance is the opposite way, further certifying the essential role of an appropriate amount of graphene and surface-active sites in the composites to accelerate catalytic outcomes. In addition, S-VOCN has higher surface-active sites with the addition of sulfur. Thus, even if the charge lifetime is not as good as VOCN, the catalytic outcomes are still better. The other observation under light irradiation of these calculated values in two composites shows that excited electrons under light irradiation tend to stay at CN sites

rather than VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> or transfer between CN and VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub>. If some electrons were transported from CN to VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub>, the values of charge lifetime should be in the middle of two semiconductors. Likewise, if excited electrons in the composites were likely to remain at VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites, the calculated values should be near these semiconductors. However, the observation is in the opposite direction, indicating that excited electrons would stay in CN sites, which can correlate to the S-scheme charge transfer mechanism under light irradiation.

### 3.4 Possible Catalytic Mechanisms

From the previous discussion, the possible catalytic mechanisms of the composites may follow two main pathways, including radicals and water oxidation, based on the radical trapping experiment data. XPS-VB spectra were undertaken to elucidate the results further and determine the VB position in the redox scale of the as-prepared materials. As exhibited in Fig. 5a to 5c, the valance band maximum (VBM) of the materials was exported, with the figures being 2.02, 3.07, and 3.15 eV for CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, and S-VO<sub>x</sub>, respectively. The VB and CB positions and work functions of the materials are exported via Equations (2), (3), and (4) [60, 61, 62].

$$E_{VB} = \Phi + E_{XPS-VB} - 4.44 \quad (2)$$

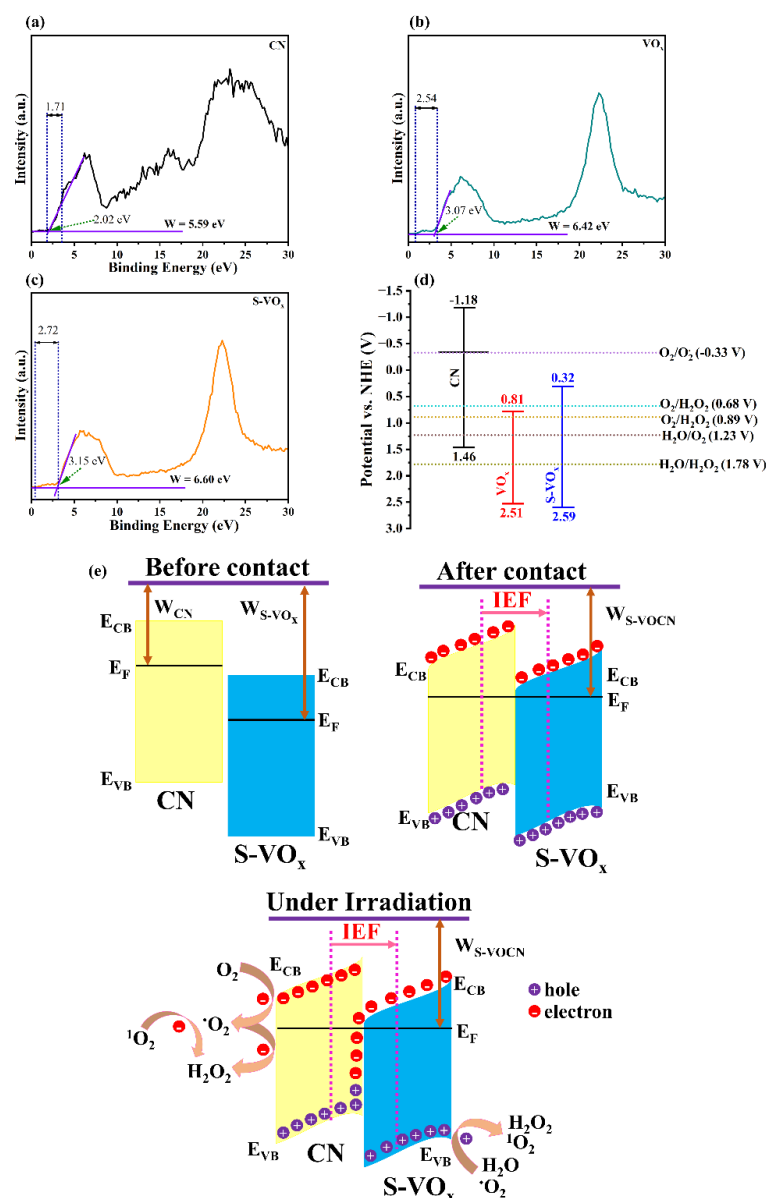
$$E_{CB} = E_{VB} - E_g \quad (3)$$

$$W = \Delta V + \Phi \quad (4)$$

where E<sub>VB</sub>, E<sub>CB</sub>, and E<sub>g</sub> are the VB, CB, and bandgap energy (eV), respectively, E<sub>XPS-VB</sub> is the VBM exported from XPS-VB, Φ is the working function of the analyzer that is equal to 3.88 eV, W is the work function of the materials, and ΔV is the contact potential difference from XPS-VB.

From the calculations, the VB positions of CN, VO<sub>x</sub>, and S-VO<sub>x</sub> are 1.46, 2.51, and 2.59 eV, respectively, while the CB positions of these samples are, in turn, -1.18, 0.81, and 0.32 eV. Based on the calculations, the band structure diagram of these samples is exhibited in Fig. 5d.

It is intriguing to observe that adding sulfur would shift the CB position of  $\text{VO}_x$  to the lower position, with  $\Delta E$  being nearly 0.5 eV, indicating the increase in reducibility of the S- $\text{VO}_x$  sample. The work function of CN,  $\text{VO}_x$ , and S- $\text{VO}_x$  are also computed via the distance between two inflection points in the XPS-VB spectra, with the results being 5.59, 6.42, and 6.6 eV. The proofs meaningfully reveal that the charge transfer happens under irradiation of the composites to generate  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , following strictly S-scheme heterojunction charge transfer mechanisms.



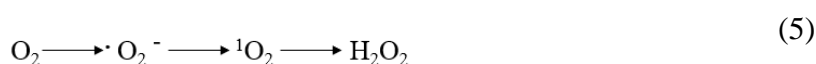
**Fig. 5.** XPS-VB spectra of CN (a),  $\text{VO}_x$  (b), and S- $\text{VO}_x$  (c); Band structure diagram of CN,  $\text{VO}_x$ , and S- $\text{VO}_x$  (d); and Possible S-scheme charge transfer mechanism (e)



Due to the similarity in charge transfer of VOCN and S-VOCN, the charge transfer mechanism was drawn for only S-VOCN and presented in Fig. 5e. In particular, the Fermi level of two semiconductors, CN and S-VO<sub>x</sub>, shows the difference before joining into contact. When two components come into contact, the electrons flow from CN to S-VO<sub>x</sub> to balance the Fermi level. Such movements induce the negative and positive charge layers at the interfaces between CN and S-VO<sub>x</sub>. The formation of these layers leads to the establishment of an internal electric field (IEF) directing from CN to S-VO<sub>x</sub> to guide electrons moving in a specific direction. When reaching equilibrium, upward and downward band bending occurs at CN and S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites near the interfaces, respectively, to ensure the stable alignment of the Fermi level in the composites. Under irradiation, the useless electrons from S-VO<sub>x</sub> and useless holes from CN tend to recombine at the interface due to coulombic force. Meanwhile, the highly reductive electrons and oxidative holes under excited states will be maintained at the CB of CN and VB of S-VO<sub>x</sub> to help proceed with the redox reactions effectively, accelerating the catalytic outcomes [23, 63].

From the above mentions, it is easy to know that the potential to convert O<sub>2</sub> to <sup>-</sup>O<sub>2</sub> is nearly -0.33 eV, which, from our result, just CN can have sufficient strength to conduct since VO<sub>x</sub> and S-VO<sub>x</sub> exhibit the positive CB potential. Based on the trapping experiments, the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> strongly relies on the formation of <sup>-</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, indicating that the reduction of O<sub>2</sub> to superoxide mainly occurs by the accumulation of excited electrons at CN sites. Otherwise, less radical dependence was observed in the research. In addition, the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the inert environment illustrates the opposite direction of excited holes, in which water molecules were oxidized at VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites to produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. If excited holes from CN oxidized water molecules, the product would be mainly O<sub>2</sub> since the CB potential of VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> can not reduce O<sub>2</sub> to produce superoxide. The direct reduction from O<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> can happen in S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites due to partially excited electrons. However, this phenomenon is less favorable because the

flow of electrons would thermodynamically recombine with excited holes at the interfaces of heterojunction photocatalysts. Thus, the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the inert atmosphere would be primarily from the direct oxidation of water at VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites. Even with the evolution of O<sub>2</sub> from water oxidation at VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites, the generation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> from these sites is still likely unable to occur at VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites due to the abovementioned reasons. The reduction of born O<sub>2</sub> can occur at CN sites to generate superoxide before turning into H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. This situation also points out that CN sites are reductive and VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites are oxidative, which accords with the S-scheme charge transfer.



Based on the results, Equations (5) and (6) would summarize the formation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Briefly, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was generated under irradiation from S-VOCN and VOCN according to S-scheme heterojunction charge transfers, described in the following steps. O<sub>2</sub> was reduced based on excited electrons at CN sites to produce <sup>-</sup>O<sub>2</sub> prior to reacting with other excited electrons to form H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Meanwhile, excited holes from VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> partially oxidized <sup>-</sup>O<sub>2</sub> to generate <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, which can be further reduced by excited electrons to manufacture H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. At the same time, water oxidation potentially occurs at the VO<sub>x</sub> or S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites to generate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or O<sub>2</sub>, which can be reduced at CN sites to produce final products.

#### 4. Conclusion

In synopsis, the research shows the roles of sulfur-doped in VO<sub>x</sub>, which can help modify the synthesized materials' electronic and morphological properties. When cooperating with g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, the presence of sulfur in the synthesis prevents the formation of access graphene sites, which would induce shielding effects and reduce catalytic outcomes. The S-scheme charge

transfer heterojunction piezo-photocatalysts based on S-VO<sub>x</sub> and g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> turn out with high efficiency and the ease of synthetic method. In this work, the simultaneous use of excited holes and electrons would enhance the catalytic outcomes. At the g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> sites, oxygen reduction to oxygenic radicals is favorable, while water oxidation at S-VO<sub>x</sub> sites is the main reason for generating H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Our analyses certify the use of S-scheme heterojunctions to take advantage of both excited holes and electrons simultaneously, which can help realize the practical application of photocatalytic research in industrial and real-world contexts. Finally, these results would hope to motivate other scientists to further fabricate materials by taking away toxic agents and multi-step synthesis, which would violate the sustainability goals as well as the reproducibility of catalysts.

### **Supporting Information**

Materials, Characterizations, Experiment Procedures, A summary of catalytic results from the literature and our work, Physical properties of as-prepared materials, TEM and SEM images, XRD patterns, Raman spectra, NMR spectra, Catalytic results, Electrocatalytic results

### **Acknowledgments**

We acknowledge Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HCMUT), VNU-HCM, and Prof. Phung K. Le for supporting this study. Hoai-Thanh Vuong thanks the support from the Vingroup Science and Technology Scholarship program and the UCSB Chancellor Fellowship.

### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### **Data Availability Statement**

The data that support the findings of the study are available from the co-responding authors upon the reasonable request.

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