

Full paper

A photocatalyst of sulphur depleted monolayered molybdenum sulfide nanocrystals for dye degradation and hydrogen evolution reaction

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ABSTRACT

Molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂) has a theoretical catalytic activity comparable to Pt but in practice is a poor catalyst in bulk form due to the scarcity of metal edge sites and low electrical conductivity. Recent developments on MoS₂ monolayers (MLs) are more encouraging in developing cheap and efficient catalysts, but the majority metal atoms are on the basal plane and catalytically inactive. The rapid recombination of the electron-hole pairs and electronic band structure of the most stable 2H-MoS₂ MLs are also unsuitable for efficient photocatalysis, especially for solar-driven water splitting. Here, we show that reducing the lateral size and creating sulphur (S) vacancies of MoS₂ MLs not only increases dramatically the density of catalytically active sites, but also adjusts the band structure to become highly suitable for solar-driven catalysis. In addition, this preparation efficiently avoids fast charge recombination associated with MoS₂, improves light harvesting, and gives a newly formed metallic state to transfer electrons for photocatalytic reactions. By way of example, we have demonstrated remarkable photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB) and methylene orange (MO) dyes using the S-depleted Mo-S nanocrystals (NCs, 2–25 nm). The NCs are also promising to efficiently generate hydrogen (H₂) from water with sacrificial reagents and solar light irradiation. Our study shows how careful design and modification of materials can result in highly efficient photocatalysts, which give considerable opportunities of the transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) beyond just MoS₂ to develop highly efficient and economic catalysts.

1. Introduction

Catalysts promise to play a vital role in addressing the pressing energy and environmental crises affecting our society, but the most effective catalysts are based on expensive and rare precious metals such as Pt and Au. Calculations suggest that transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDs) may offer cheaper and more readily available catalysts [1]. For example, MoS₂ nanoparticles or nanoflakes have significant catalytic activity and have been used in hydrogen evolution [2,3] and low carbon alcohol synthesis reactions [4]. However, the catalytic activity of MoS₂ is poor in practice due to the low charge mobility and scarcity of metal edge sites which are the only catalytically active part of the material [5–10]. Improvements in MoS₂ catalytic performance

have been made by increasing the number of exposed edge sites [3–8], and with monolayered MoS₂ sheets with increased electrical conductivity but the majority of metal on the basal plane of MLs still remains catalytically inactive [11–13]. The direct semiconductor nature [14] of the most stable 2H-MoS₂ MLs and defect levels lying lower than the potential for water reduction [15,16] also restrict their photocatalytic efficiency, especially for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) from water.

Previously, we have achieved high yield monolayered 2H-MoS₂ NCs (2–25 nm width, average size ~ 12.9 nm) with a simple method, which involves the intercalation of bulk layered MoS₂ with potassium. De-intercalation of the K intercalated MoS₂ in H₂O/EtOH solvent under ultrasonication led to the exfoliation and disintegration of MoS₂ to

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Fig. 1. (a) A diagram shows synthetic route from MoS₂ flakes (~ 2 μm) to monolayered MoS₂ NCs (the intercalated K reacted with EtOH/H₂O, exfoliated and disintegrated MoS₂ sheets to monolayered NCs under ultrasonication), and to monolayered MoS_{1.65} NCs with S vacancies (partial S atoms were removed by cation exchange resin); (b–e) TEM image (b), AFM image (c), HRTEM images (d, e) and FFT patterns (e inset) of the MoS_{1.65} NCs.

monolayered NCs (Fig. 1a, also see Method [17]. S-depletion of NCs using a cation exchange resin (Fig. 1a; further see Method and Supplementary Fig. S1) has led to stable 2H-MoS_{1.65} NCs with super-electrochemical performance for HER [17]. The improvement of the electrochemical performance was mainly due to the increased number of catalytically active sites. Here, with the same S-depleted NCs (MoS_{1.65}), we show that S-vacancies and a metallic nature (semiconducting core with metallic surrounding region) also make monolayered Mo-S NCs highly efficient photocatalysts for both dye degradation and hydrogen generation. In addition to the increased density of catalytically active sites (compared with large MLs), new trapping and metallic sites created by S vacancies promote photogenerated carrier separation and prevent them from rapid recombination during photocatalytic reactions. The enlarged band gap (compared with large MLs) of monolayered NCs, due to quantum confinement effects, also makes them highly promising photocatalysts for HER.

2. Experimental

2.1. Preparation of monolayered Mo-S NCs

MoS₂ and S-depleted NCs were identical to those used in our previous work [17]. The monolayered MoS₂ NCs were created *via* exfoliation and disintegration of MoS₂ layers. As demonstrated in Fig. 1a, K was intercalated into the interlayer of MoS₂ flakes *via* simple heating under vacuum conditions. The K intercalated MoS₂ was reacted with EtOH/H₂O under ultrasonication, which exfoliated and disintegrated monolayered MoS₂ NCs. The formed monolayered MoS₂ NCs were then separated from residual MoS₂ flakes *via* centrifugation (Supplementary Fig. S1a–b). EtOH in the NCs suspension was evaporated, and K⁺ was removed by either dialysis or cation exchange resin. Upon the reaction with the cation exchange resin, removal of K⁺ was accompanied by NCs changing to a dark color and undergoing partial S-depletion (H₂S formed during this treatment; Supplementary Fig. S1c).

Fig. S1d shows the reaction of MoS₂ NCs with the cation exchange resin (left image: MoS₂ NCs; right image: 30 s after the mixture of MoS₂ NCs with resin). The S-depleted NCs were thermally unstable and tended to agglomerate together under high concentration and heating (Supplementary Fig. S1e, left side). However, these could be diluted and re-dispersed again with simple ultrasonication treatment (Supplementary Fig. S1e, right side). The agglomerated S-depleted Mo-S NCs were collected as powder (Supplementary Fig. S1f) for characterizations. Our previous characterization showed that the exfoliated and disintegrated NCs were monolayered MoS₂ with highly crystallized 2H structure, clearly terminated edges and strong luminescence (quantum yield = 7.9%) [17]. The S-depleted NCs were confirmed as MoS_{1.65} with S vacancies on the basal plane and rough crystal edges.

2.2. Characterization

UV/Vis spectra were recorded from solutions using a PerkinElmer Lambda 900 Spectrometer (10 mm cuvette light path) at room temperature. Raman spectra were recorded on a Renishaw in plus laser Raman spectrometer with an excitation wavelength $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 514.5$ nm. XPS was performed on a Kratos AXIS Nova X-ray photoelectron spectrometer with an excitation source of Al K α . The binding energy of XPS was calibrated based on C1s (284.6 eV). Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was performed using a VEECO Dimension 3100 system in tapping mode. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained using a JEOL 2010F transmission electron microscope with a field emission gun operated at 200 kV. Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were recorded using a Hitachi F-4500 Fluorescence Spectrophotometer at 20 °C. Time resolved PL (TPRL) and PL excitation (PLE) spectra were recorded using an Edinburgh FS5 fluorescence spectrometer.

2.3. Photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue (MB) and methyl orange (MO)

Solar-driven photocatalysis measurements were conducted by irradiating the sample with a Newport Oriel full spectrum solar simulator (92250A-1000, 1.5 G, 150 W Xenon lamp). The average intensity of irradiation on the solution surface was measured (at nine different positions) to be 5.2 mW cm⁻² by an ILT 550-RAA spectroradiometer (International Light Technologies, measurement range from 250 to 900 nm). Before purification, the amount of KOH in the MoS₂ NC suspension was calculated from 0.6 g K used for the preparation of NCs [17]. Therefore, in the control experiment of MoS_{1.65} NCs, the necessary addition of KOH into the NCs suspension was defined to keep the same concentration as that of MoS₂ NCs before purification. Since we could not monitor effectively the photodegradation of MB (Sigma-Aldrich, product no: M9140) catalyzed by MoS_{1.65} NCs with KOH by optical absorption, we recorded a *Supplementary Video* to demonstrate how the MB was degraded rapidly. In this *video*, each addition of MB was of a concentrated solution containing an equal amount of MB to that used in the cyclic tests, which was equivalent to 100 mL of a dilute 20 ppm concentration of MB. We performed the *video* experiment by adding the concentrated MB into a MoS_{1.65} NC suspension identical to that used in the cyclic tests. We also estimated photocatalytic (driven either by full solar spectrum or visible light only with wavelengths < 390 nm cut off with 1 M NaNO₂, Sigma-Aldrich, product no: S2252) degradation of MO (100 mL, 20 ppm, Alfa Aesar, product no: 17874) by monitoring the change in absorption of 465 nm wavelength light, with different amounts of MoS_{1.65} NCs (20 mg for solar-driven catalytic reaction, 5 mg for both solar and visible light-driven catalytic reactions). The content of the total organic carbon (TOC) in the reacted solutions were analyzed by an HAD-2000A TOC analyzer.

2.4. Hydrogen generation measurement

The measurement was performed on a Shimadzu GC-2010 Plus gas chromatograph (GC) with a barrier ionization discharge (BID) detector. Hydrogen generation was performed in a 700 mL cylinder-shaped quartz container with an irradiation area of 19.6 cm². The quartz container had two side joint connections with one connected to a pure Ar (99.999%) source and the other to a GC instrument. The quartz container was initially evacuated and then replaced by the pure Ar. The solution was then gently stirred with a magnetic stirrer with air flow cooling (20 °C) and irradiated using an AM 1.5G solar simulator as the light source (Newport Oriel full spectrum solar simulator, 150 W Xenon lamp) with and without a 350 nm long-pass cut off filter. Before each sampling, a low flow of Ar (5 mL/min) was introduced into the container and the outlet gas was measured by GC. After each test, the solar simulator was switched off and the gas inside the quartz was replaced and purged by high flow (200 mL/min) for 10 min before the reactor was irradiated again and the reaction time was counted sequentially. During breaks in the cyclic test, the quartz container was kept in a completely dark environment. Further experiments followed this procedure but with the use of a 420 nm long-pass filter to remove all UV light irradiation. As for D₂O experiment, it was the same as the standard hydrogen generation experiment above, except the H₂O was replaced by D₂O. Before the experiment, the catalyst suspensions were repeatedly distilled with a rotary evaporator and replaced by absolute ethanol. After running for 10 h, the gas inside the reactor was carried to (with 10 mL/min air) and measured by Hiden Analytical's QGA for detection of H₂ and D₂.

2.5. Electrochemical measurement

All the electrochemical measurements were performed on a CHI 650C electrochemical workstation with three electrodes [reference electrode: Ag/AgCl, 1 M KCl, E (potential) = 0.235 V *vs* RHE (reversible hydrogen electrode); counter electrode: Pt; working electrode: ITO (indium tin oxide coated glass)]. Photo-generated current was measured with a 0.5 M KCl electrolyte. Identical masses of MoS₂ and S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NCs (around 0.57 mg) were deposited on separate 1 × 1 cm² area ITO surfaces and then air-dried overnight. Electrochemical measurements were performed with a bias voltage of 0.1 V with and without AM 1.5G solar light illumination (Newport Oriel full spectrum solar simulator, 150 W Xenon lamp) in an otherwise dark environment. Mott-Schottky analysis was performed using the impedance-potential technique and 0.5 M KCl electrolyte (pH close to 7) and a scan frequency of 10 Hz. AC impedance measurements were carried out at 80 mV overpotential and a frequency range from 105 Hz to 0.01 Hz. Double layer capacitance (C_{dl}) of NCs before and after S-depletion was estimated by capacitance-voltage (CV) measurements at scan rates of 60, 100, 140 and 180 mV s⁻¹ with potential range of 0.035–0.235 V (1 M H₂SO₄). The slope of the plot, the difference between anodic and cathodic currents at 0.15 V (*vs* RHE, 0.15 V was normally used in the measurement for MoS₂ materials [17]) against different scan rates, is the C_{dl} . 5 μ L (275 μ g/mL, see *Supplementary Methods* for the confirmation of the mass and concentration) NCs were immobilized on the electrode for the above impedance and CV measurements. In these measurements, the potential, $E_{(\text{RHE})}$, was calculated with the Nernst equation:

$$E_{(\text{RHE})} = E_{(\text{Ag/AgCl})} + 0.059 \times (\text{pH}) + 0.235$$

where $E_{(\text{RHE})}$ is the potential *versus* RHE, $E_{(\text{Ag/AgCl})}$ is the potential of reference electrode *versus* RHE, and pH is the pH value of the electrolyte.

Fig. 2. (a–c) Raman (a) and XPS spectra (b–c) of as-prepared $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs; (d) Comparison of the solar-driven self-degradation of MB, and photo-degradation of MB catalyzed by MoS_2 and S-depleted $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs under identical experimental conditions, shown as OD_{670} of the MB solution as a function of irradiation time.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Characterizations of monolayered Mo-S NCs

The treatment of NCs with cation exchange resin led to the removal of $\sim 18\%$ S from MoS_2 , giving chemical composition of $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ (Supplementary Fig. S2a, the XPS survey). We characterized the prepared $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs before the demonstration of their photocatalytic performance. As shown in TEM (Fig. 1b) and AFM images (Fig. 1c), the NCs had a diameter of 2–25 nm. Fig. 1c highlights three typical Mo-S NCs with thickness around 1 nm, corresponding to that of monolayers [18] (EDS of these NCs is shown in Supplementary Fig. S2b). These prepared $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs were still crystallized, though point defects were commonly found (Fig. 1d). More structural information in Fig. 1e further revealed defects and rough edge of the NC. Nevertheless, confirmed by fast Fourier transform (FFT) patterns (Fig. 1e inset), the NC still exhibited hexagonal structure of 2H- MoS_2 .

The 2H structure of NCs was further confirmed by Raman and XPS analyses. As shown in Fig. 2a, Raman spectroscopy showed that the underlying 2H crystal structure of the original raw materials remained in NCs, with E_{2g} at 382.2 cm^{-1} and A_{1g} Raman modes at 402.6 cm^{-1} , corresponding to those of 2H- MoS_2 [18]. Fig. 2b and c are the S(2p) and Mo(3d) XPS of the $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs, respectively. Deconvolution of the spectra gave S $2p_{3/2}$ (162.2 eV), S $2p_{1/2}$ (163.4 eV), Mo $3d_{3/2}$ (232.3 eV) and Mo $3d_{5/2}$ (229.2 eV), which well correspond to the XPS of 2H- MoS_2 [18,19]. In the prepared $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs, the oxidation state of Mo and S should be minimal due to the absence of prominent peaks at around 236 eV of Mo(3d) and $168\text{--}170\text{ eV}$ of S(2p) [18,19]. Besides, the NCs exhibited defect states, whose S $2p$, Mo $3d_{3/2}$ and Mo

$3d_{5/2}$ were found at 163.9 , 233 and 229.8 eV respectively (Fig. 2b and c) and close to those previously discovered in defect-containing Mo-S NCs [19]. In the Mo (3d) XPS spectrum, there were another two peaks at 231.9 and 228.7 eV , which should be raised from the metallic phase on $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs [19]. These metallic phases were also discovered in pure NCs without S-depletion [17] and will be important for photocatalytic reactions.

We compared the UV/Vis (ultraviolet to visible) spectra of monolayered Mo-S NCs before (MoS_2) and after S-depletion ($\text{MoS}_{1.65}$). Our spectroscopy of 2H- MoS_2 NCs suggested three evident absorption peaks at around 470 (2.64 eV), 390 (3.12 eV) and 318 nm (3.90 eV) (Supplementary Fig. S3c), which might be the excitonic absorption peaks (A, B and C at K point of the first Brillouin zone from low to high energy) [14] and close to those discovered in 2H- MoS_2 nanoclusters ($\sim 4.0\text{--}4.5\text{ nm}$ in diameter) [20]. Unlike pure MoS_2 NCs (without S-depletion) with relative weak absorption of visible light (Supplementary Fig. S3a–b), the $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs can strongly absorb visible light, which is also reflected by their dark brown color (initial MoS_2 NCs were faint yellow; Supplementary Fig. S1). The increased absorption of S-depleted NCs from initial MoS_2 NCs at visible light region is believed as the result of the formation of new in-band defect levels (will be further confirmed in detail). These new defect levels made excitonic absorption peaks of S-depleted NCs un conspicuous, leaving a wide absorption tail from 2 to 5 eV and an absorption edge close to 2 eV (Supplementary Fig. S3d). The defect level also quenched photon recombination of NCs (no clear luminescence of $\text{MoS}_{1.65}$ NCs was found with excitation wavelength from 200 to 900 nm), and should be beneficial to photocatalytic reactions. By contrast, pure monolayered MoS_2 NCs have intense luminescence (quantum yield of $\sim 7.9\%$), as we

previously discovered [17]. It is well known that MoS₂ monolayers are a direct semiconductor with PL generated by the recombination from A and B excitations (A and B excitations are from the spin-split of the valence band in monolayers) [14]. We further conducted a series of PL and PLE measurements of MoS₂ NCs, which confirmed that the luminescence is mainly contributed by the recombination from the energy levels at around 470 (2.64 eV) and 390 nm (3.12 eV), respectively (see [Supplementary Fig. S4](#) for details). This further confirmed that the discovered absorptions at around 470 (2.64 eV) and 390 nm (3.12 eV) are excitations A and B respectively, and suggested an average optical band of around 2.9 eV (average value of the excitations A and B) of monolayered MoS₂ NCs. The high photon recombination rate (quantum yield of ~ 7.9%) from excitations A and B, and large band gap (~ 2.9 eV) of monolayered MoS₂ NCs means that the photocatalytic activity of Mo edges would be largely suppressed. Nevertheless, S-depleted Mo-S NCs could be promising materials to capture and convert solar energy for practical uses (*e.g.* photocatalyst and solar-cell) because of the possible formed defect levels.

3.2. Highly efficient photocatalytic dye degradation using monolayered Mo-S NCs

We investigated solar-driven photocatalysis using S-depleted monolayered MoS_{1.65} NCs by monitoring the photocatalytic degradation of a MB solution based on the change in absorption indicated by the main characteristic peak (670 nm). 20 mg MoS_{1.65} was dispersed in 75 mL water (see [Supplementary Methods](#) for mass calculation) in a beaker (inner diameter of 5 cm) under simulated solar irradiation

(1.5G) with magnetic stirring at room temperature (20 °C). Then, 25 mL 80 ppm fresh MB was added to the beaker to form an overall concentration of 20 ppm with an initial optical density (OD₆₇₀) of 1.87 (~ 5.2 mW cm⁻² of incident irradiation intensity). Control measurements of MB under identical conditions were performed but with the MoS_{1.65} NCs either removed completely or replaced by 20 mg MoS₂ NCs (before S-depletion, including KOH in the solution since it is difficult to remove without loss of the NCs). With no NCs, the photodegradation of MB was slow [*e.g.* only 50% was degraded after 440 mins ([Fig. 2d](#))]. Inclusion of the stoichiometric MoS₂ NCs resulted in complete MB photodegradation after 180 min but when catalyzed by S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NCs this was completed in only 7 min ([Fig. 2d](#)). TOC of the reacted solution (with MoS_{1.65} NCs catalyst) was measured as around 0.34 mg/L, implying that over 97% MB (in 100 mL solution) had been degraded during the catalytic reaction. To check the influence of KOH on the reaction with the low defect MoS₂ NCs, photocatalytic measurements using S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NC with added KOH (same concentration as the NC suspension, see [Method](#)) were carried out. The results revealed that MB degraded within only a few seconds ([Supplementary Video](#)) and the degradation rate was too rapid for us to monitor effectively (this catalytic performance is far beyond that of the most developed catalysts). This improvement is understandable since OH⁻ suppressed the agglomeration of MoS_{1.65} NCs, and improved the adsorption of MB (positively charged) by MoS_{1.65} NCs (positively charged). We performed cyclic tests of the solar-driven degradation of MB catalyzed by MoS_{1.65} NCs (no addition of KOH). Following the full degradation of MB from a previous cycle, the MoS_{1.65} NCs were re-dispersed by ultrasonication and the next cycle started after 1 mL

Fig. 3. (a) Solar-driven photo-degradation of MO (100 mL, 20 ppm) catalyzed by 20 mg MoS_{1.65} NCs; (b) Cyclic (the 1st and 11st day) measurements of solar-driven hydrogen gas generation from water with MoS_{1.65} NCs. Also shown in the 1st day is solar-driven H₂ generation with irradiation wavelengths above 350 nm (black dot) and 420 nm (blue dot), and H₂ generation with irradiation wavelengths above 350 nm without Ar purge (purple dot); (c) Relationship between H₂ production in 1 h and catalyst dosage; (d) Relationship between H₂ production in 2 h and the concentration of Na₂SO₃/Na₂S complex.

2000 ppm fresh MB was added to restore its concentration to 20 ppm. The high repeatability of the photodegradation over eight cycles (Supplementary Fig. S5a) demonstrates that the photocatalytic activity of S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NCs remained stable under solar irradiation.

The S-depleted NCs also showed remarkable photocatalytic behavior in the degradation of more stable MO. With 20 mg MoS_{1.65} NCs, we found that MO (100 mL, 20 ppm) fully degraded within 3 min (Fig. 3a), which is more rapid than the degradation of MB (20 ppm in 7 min; MO are negative charged leading to easy adsorption by positive charged MoS_{1.65} NCs). Only ~ 0.2 mg/L TOC was remained in the reacted solution, which suggest that over 98% MO was completely degraded. The photodegradation of MO catalyzed by MoS_{1.65} NCs is far more rapid than other photocatalysts [21,22]. For example, degradation of 100 mL 20 ppm MO required hours under 300 W UV irradiation with 20 mg nitrogen-fluorine co-doped TiO₂ catalyst [22]. Even with a low concentration of MoS_{1.65} NCs (5 mg), full degradation of MO only required 24 and 28 mins under full-solar and visible-solar (wavelength > 390 nm only; λ < 390 nm was cut off by 1 M aqueous NaNO₂ solvent; the cut off efficiency has been already confirmed in our previous report [21]) light irradiation, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S5b-c).

3.3. Efficient solar-driven hydrogen evolution reaction using monolayered Mo-S NCs

As-prepared monolayered MoS_{1.65} NCs were also efficient photocatalysts of H₂ generation from water. We placed 20 mg MoS_{1.65} NCs in a quartz cylinder with 450 mL of different aqueous solvents to leave 250 mL head space in the container before irradiating the top surface (5 cm efficient irradiation diameter, ~ 4.7 mW cm⁻² on the top of solution inside the cylinder) with a solar simulator (1.5G) at room temperature (20 °C). A 5 mL/min flow of pure Ar (99.999%) was passed through the quartz container and its content from the reaction vessel measured by gas chromatography (GC, see Method for details). A methanol solvent (100 mL methanol, 350 mL deionized water, pH adjusted to 13 by KOH to improve the dispersity of NCs) achieved H₂ production of 8.4 μmol h⁻¹. By comparison, using non-S-depleted MoS₂ NCs under otherwise identical experimental conditions produced negligible H₂, possibly due to the large optical band gap (2.9 eV) and high photon recombination rate (quantum yield = 7.9%) of these NCs. Negligible H₂ was produced when using S-depleted NCs in pure water (350 mL, Mo and S were also slightly oxidized after days reaction, Supplementary Fig. S6a-b), but H₂ production could be restored once 100 mL methanol was added, suggesting the methanol acted sacrificially to remove liberated oxygen, suppress O₂ formation and restore the catalytic activity of the active sites. We further verified that the detected H₂ was indeed generated from water splitting by replacing H₂O with D₂O in which case only D₂ was detected by mass spectrometry (Supplementary Fig. S6c).

The rate of H₂ production with S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NC catalysts could be increased with the use of other sacrificial reagents. Aqueous lactic acid (13 mL lactic acid, 437 mL deionized water, adjusted to pH 4 by KOH) resulted in H₂ evolution of 34.6 μmol h⁻¹ while this reached 160 μmol h⁻¹ using aqueous Na₂SO₃/Na₂S (450 mL deionized water, 10 g Na₂SO₃ (0.176 M) and 4.4 g Na₂S (0.125 M); again, the sacrificial reagents prevented O₂ generation (Supplementary Fig. S6d)). The large improvement of the H₂ production in the case of using Na₂SO₃/Na₂S should be also contributed by the high pH (> 7) value which benefited the dispersion of positively charged NCs. We conducted H₂ gas evolution for eleven days (~ 7 h each day; sample stored in darkness between reactions each day) and found that the MoS_{1.65} NCs exhibited a nearly constant rate of H₂ production through this time period (see Fig. 3b to compare the 1st and 11th day). During this experiment, the solvent pH increased to ~ 14, which should assist the catalytic activity of the NCs. It is not clear whether this pH change was due to the consumption of sacrificial reagents. After catalytic reaction, SO₄²⁻ and

S₂O₃²⁻ were produced in the Na₂SO₃/Na₂S solution (analysis followed the reported method [23]), which was the same as that previously reported on the photocatalytic hydrogenation reaction with Na₂SO₃/Na₂S solution [23–25]. XPS, UV/Vis, and Raman analyses of the NCs (> 85% NC collected) after this time plus 6 months in darkness also showed they had good stability with 2H semiconductor structure remained (Supplementary Fig. S6a-b and Fig. S7a-b).

However, the above H₂ production might be an overestimate since the photochemical reaction of Na₂SO₃/Na₂S also generates H₂ [we also found H₂ generated with H₂S production (Supplementary Fig. S7c)] [24]. Removing light below 350 nm wavelength (similar to that used by other researchers for HER in Na₂SO₃/Na₂S) [24] with an optical filter avoided photoreactions of sacrificial reagents (H₂ generation from aqueous Na₂SO₃/Na₂S alone became negligible) but reduced the H₂ production rate to 89.2 μmol h⁻¹ (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Fig. S7d), i.e. 4460 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹ of MoS_{1.65} NC photocatalyst (representing an efficient photocatalytic H₂ generation from water). It also linearly reduced with the decrement of light intensity (> 350 nm; a quartz cover was applied to reduce the light intensity; see Supplementary Fig. S8 for details). The H₂ production rate further reduced to 32.3 μmol h⁻¹ under aerobic conditions (no Ar purge was used, Fig. 3b). With identical light irradiation (> 350 nm), we found that the H₂ production rate was highly dependent on the concentration of both the NCs and the Na₂SO₃/Na₂S sacrificial reagents. As shown in Fig. 3c, the H₂ production in 1 h linearly increased with the dosage of NCs < 40 mg, but the H₂ production rate per gram catalyst gradually reduced with more NCs added (> 40 mg/mL). This phenomenon is reasonable since more added NCs gave a darker solution, which reduced light transmittance of the solution. Fig. 3d shows the relationship between the H₂ production in 2 h and the concentration of Na₂SO₃/Na₂S (20 mg NCs). In the studied range, the H₂ production nearly linearly increased with the concentration of Na₂SO₃/Na₂S complex (the linear dependency is similar to that previously reported [26]). The irradiation light with wavelengths below 420 nm was filtered to study the visible-light driven catalysis. In this case, a H₂ production of 18.8 μmol h⁻¹ was still achieved (Fig. 3b), reflecting the activity of the intermediate band gap states of MoS_{1.65} NCs. The above catalytic performance for H₂ production is much higher than that of many other reported catalysts with similar Na₂S/Na₂SO₃ sacrificial reagents (see Table 1). For example, the hybrid material of ZnS, graphene and MoS₂ had H₂ production of 2258 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹ with incident light intensity of 125 mW/cm² [28], whilst our prepared Mo-S NCs yielded 4460 and 940 μmol h⁻¹ g⁻¹ H₂ at wavelength > 350 and > 420 respectively (incident light intensity ~ 4.7 mW cm⁻²).

3.4. Defect levels of monolayered Mo-S NCs for highly efficient photocatalysis

According to our previous study, MoS₂ NCs appear to be metallic, and the metallicity is improved with S-depletion [17]. The metallic character is limited to the NC edge and near-edge regions while the inner NC core remains semiconducting, recovering electronic proper-

Table 1.
Catalytic performance for H₂ production of different catalysts (AM 1.5G).

Catalyst	Lamp: mW/cm ²	H ₂ Production (μmol h ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)		
		> 300 nm	> 350 nm	> 420 nm
Mo-S NCs	4.7 (150 W)		4460	940
ZnO [27]	1.0 (300 W)	293		
B-ZnO [27]	1.0 (300 W)	576.6		
C-CdO [25]	– (300 W)			3
ZnS/graphene/MoS ₂ [28]	125 (300 W)	2258 (full light irradiation)		
MoS ₂ /TiO ₂ [29]	600 (300 W)	1600 (full light irradiation)		

ties close to those of MoS₂ monolayers (MLs) [17]. We found here through photocurrent measurements (Supplementary Fig. S7e) that the improved metallicity of MoS_{1.65} NCs compared to pure MoS₂ NCs efficiently increased the NCs' photo-activity. However, the improved metallicity is insufficient to explain the remarkable photocatalysis of S-depleted Mo-S NCs. The improved light absorption at the visible light region of Mo-S NCs upon S-depletion (the introduction of defect levels) should be fully considered.

To understand the intra-band transitions of MoS_{1.65} NCs and the photocatalysis improvement upon the S-depletion, we calculated the electronic band structure of NCs before and after S-depletion from density functional theory using a projector-augmented wave method [30] as implemented in the Vienna *ab initio* Simulation Package (VASP) [31] (details in Supplementary Method). We predict here a fundamental band gap (different with optical band gap) of ~ 2.0 eV of NCs, which is slightly larger than that of MLs (1.7 eV, Supplementary Fig. S9) within the local density approximation (LDA). The latter is known, however, to be systematically underestimated [32]. As suggested by previous GW calculations and further supported here by our hybrid functional calculations (HSE, see Supplementary Fig. S9), the correct value should be 0.7–1.0 eV larger [32,33]. This corresponds to a fundamental band gap in the range 2.7–3.0 eV, which is fully compatible with the optical measurements we described previously (~ 2.9 eV), assuming that excitonic binding energies are strongly reduced in NCs compared to MLs. Such a reduction in NCs is expected from the presence of a metallic surrounding region [34].

The existence of mono-S vacancies in the core region of NCs (c-NCs) slightly reduces the band gap (0.2 eV) and induces the appear-

ance of in-gap electronic defect states, located ~ 0.7 eV below the bottom of the conduction band of MoS₂ c-NCs (Fig. 4a). This location is robustly predicted in our calculations and is independent on the functional used (LDA or HSE, Supplementary Fig. S9). It is also comparable to the location of mono-S vacancies in MoS₂ MLs (~ 0.6 eV below the bottom of the conduction band) [16]. Adding S vacancies in the edge regions of NCs does not affect further the electronic properties of the core region (Fig. 4a). The intra-band transitions of MoS_{1.65} NCs are, therefore, likely to involve these vacancy-induced raised defect levels to give increased optical absorption in the visible region (Supplementary Fig. S3a-b). The ~ 2.9 eV band gap of MoS₂ NCs as suggested from our optical absorption measurements above might be too large for efficient solar-driven catalysis. Assuming that the core S-vacancies slightly reduce the band gap (0.2 eV) and create defect states 0.7 eV below the calculated conduction band minimums (CB), these defect states will lie ~ 2.0 eV above the valence band maximum (VB). This corresponds to a reduced effective band gap in the S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NCs very close to the optimal gap value for solar-driven catalytic applications. Our PLE (Fig. 5a) investigation of the MoS_{1.65} NCs suggested three excitation peaks at around 413 (3.0 eV), 502 (2.47 eV) and 601 nm (2.06 eV) with detection wavelength of 660 nm (close to maximum emission position, though the PL is negligible). In this spectrum, the observation of the PLE peak at around 538 nm was due to the Raman response of H₂O at around 660 nm (verified with pure H₂O). The peaks at around 413, 502, and 601 nm can be attributed to the shifted B and A excitations and new defect levels, respectively. Therefore, the average optical band gap (A and B peak at K point) of the MoS_{1.65} NCs changed to around

Fig. 4. (a) Calculated DOS of pure MoS₂ and the core of the S-MoS_{1.65} NCs. The DOS unit is states.eV⁻¹f.u.⁻¹ (f.u.: formula unit); (b) Diagram of the band position change of MoS₂ from bulk to monolayers. The conduction band (CB), valence band (VB) and defect levels (DF) are shown in the diagram. The calculated CB and VB of pure NCs are around -0.6 and 2.3 eV, respectively. The band edge of bulk phase and monolayered sheets are presented based on the reported data [15,16]; (c) Schematic illustration of the photo-reaction on a s-depleted Mo-S NC; (d) Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) spectra of MoS₂ (emission ~ 470 nm) and MoS_{1.65} NCs (emission ~ 580 nm) with 360 nm wavelength optical excitation.

Fig. 5. (a) PLE spectrum of MoS_{1.65} NCs with detection emission at around 660 nm (close to the maximum emission wavelength); (b) Mott-Schottky plot of the MoS_{1.65} NCs suggests that the MoS_{1.65} NCs are n-type semiconductor with minus slope and a flatband potential at around −0.1 V (this value is close to the conduction band position of n-type semiconductor); (c) Plots of capacitance from CV curves in [Supplementary Fig. S10](#) giving capacitances of 0.533 and 1.255 mF/cm² for MoS₂ and MoS_{1.65} NCs, respectively; (d) Nyquist plots showing EIS response with real (Z') and imaginary (Z'') impedance components of MoS₂ and MoS_{1.65} NCs.

2.74 eV (from ~ 2.9 of MoS₂ NCs) with a defect level 0.68 eV below, which is very close to above calculations (0.7 eV below the CB) and highly suitable for solar-driven catalytic reactions.

3.5. Band edge positions of monolayered Mo-S NCs for highly efficient HER

We have further evaluated the positions of the band edges of MoS_{1.65} NCs using an approach based on the band gap of semiconductors and the geometrical average of experimental electro-negativities of relevant atoms [35], which has been successfully applied to many semiconducting materials including MoS₂ and TiO₂ [36]. The calculated effective conduction band and valence band edges potential of the NCs with S-vacancies are around −0.2 and +1.8 V, respectively (Fig. 4b, [Supplementary Fig. S9](#)). These cover the H₂O reduction/oxidation potentials (Fig. 4b), suggesting that the band edge positions of the MoS_{1.65} NCs with respect to the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE) are ideally placed for photocatalytic hydrogen generation from water. Our Mott-Schottky plot of the MoS_{1.65} NCs (Fig. 5b) shows the slope of n-type semiconductor. The flatband potential from this plot is around −0.1 V (*vs* NHE), which is the same as the Fermi level and close to the conduction band value (−0.2 V) in n-type semiconductors [37].

In addition to the change in band structure, S-depletion also increased the density of catalytically active Mo atoms and the metallicity ([Supplementary Fig. S9](#)). The increased density of catalytically active sites was confirmed by the double layer capacitance (*C_{dl}*) measurements (see [Methods](#) and [Supplementary Fig. S10](#)) with identical mass of NCs. As suggested in Fig. 5c, *C_{dl}* of MoS_{1.65} (1.255 mF cm^{−2}) increased from that of MoS₂ NCs (0.533 mF cm^{−2}),

which should be linearly proportional to the number of catalytically reactive sites [17]. The increased metallicity was also confirmed by impedance spectroscopy (EIS) of both NCs with identical mass (see [Methods](#)), as the charger transfer resistance (*R_{ct}*) ~ 47 Ω of MoS_{1.65} NCs decreased from 98 Ω of MoS₂ NCs. These metallic Mo sites are likely to serve as co-catalysts in a reaction, transferring electrons in the photocatalytic process (Fig. 4c) [38]. Fast charge recombination within MoS_{1.65} NCs was also prevented by the metallic Mo sites and S-vacancy-related defect levels, giving increased relaxation time and higher photocurrent than that of MoS₂ NCs (Fig. 4d, [Supplementary Fig. S7e](#)). The combination of band gap, band edge position and defect states is likely to be the reason why H₂ can be produced from water (as well as the very rapid photo-degradation of organic pollutants) with S-depleted MoS_{1.65} NCs as a photocatalyst and without recourse to further co-catalysts.

4. Conclusion

In summary, we have shown a feasible method (by size reduction and S-depletion) to increase the density of active sites and tune the electronic structure of MoS₂ monolayers for photocatalytic reactions. The prepared Mo-S_{1.65} NCs (2–25 nm) exhibited unexpectedly high activities on photo-degradations of methylene blue and methylene orange. It was also efficient to generate H₂ from mixed aqueous solution of Na₂SO₃ (0.176 M) and Na₂S (0.125 M), giving hydrogen production rate of 4460 and 940 μmol h^{−1} g^{−1} under irradiations (incident solar light intensity: 4.7 mW/cm²) with wavelengths > 350 and > 420 nm, respectively. We have demonstrated how the size reduction and S-depletion of MoS₂ monolayers adjusted the band

structure to become highly suitable for solar-driven catalysis (*e.g.* hydrogen evolution reaction). As-prepared monolayered MoS₂ NCs consisted of metallic surrounding region and 2H semiconducting core. They had an optical band gap ~ 2.9 eV which was very close to the real band gap due to the existence of metallic region (excitonic binding energy strongly reduced). S-depletion of NCs increased metallicity and reduced the effective band gap to ~ 2.0 eV, giving effective conduction and valence band edges potential at around -0.2 and $+1.8$ V, respectively. The defect states and metallic sites formed on monolayered S-depleted NCs also served as co-catalysts in a reaction, transferring electrons in the photocatalytic process and preventing fast charge recombination. Our experimental and theoretical studies here show how careful modification of MoS₂ monolayers can result in highly efficient photocatalysis, and the avenues we have explored may help the development of cheap and effective non-precious metal based materials for catalysis. These results also would be highly valuable in developing highly efficient energy harvesting systems (*e.g.* hybrid Mo-S NCs and graphene structure building solar cell with high quantum efficiency).

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.nanoen.2017.06.008.

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