



# CdS/COF core-shell nanorods with efficient chemisorption, enhanced carrier separation, and antiphotocorrosion ability for U(VI) photoreduction

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**ABSTRACT** Reduction of soluble U(VI) to insoluble U(IV) based on semiconductor photocatalysts is a favored U(VI)-extraction method, because of its simplicity, environmental friendliness, and high efficiency. The key to implement this technology is the development of efficient photocatalysts with high activity and stability for sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction. Herein, we report a new type of CdS/covalent organic framework (COF) core-shell photocatalysts (CdS@COF-X, X = 5, 10, 15, and 20) with efficient chemisorption, enhanced carrier separation, and antiphotocorrosion ability for U(VI) photoreduction without additional sacrificial agents. The two-dimensional COF, formed by the polycondensation of 2,4,6-triformylphloroglucinol and 1,3,5-tris(4-aminophenyl)triazine, was selected to construct the hybrid materials due to its high chemical stability, matching band gaps and efficient chemisorption for U(VI). Remarkably, CdS@COF-10 realized a record high U(VI) extraction capacity of 1825.6 mg g<sup>-1</sup> after 90 min. Moreover, the reduction ratio of uranium was up to 82.5%, and the product was identified as uranium dioxide (UO<sub>2</sub>) after reaction. Further mechanistic studies indicated that the COF shell not only provided chemisorption sites for U(VI) to decrease the activation energy of U(VI) reduction, but also formed a strong built-in electric field at the interface with the CdS core to promote the carrier separation. More importantly, for all CdS@COF-X, CdS@COF-10 with appropriate COF shell content balanced the crystallinity, interfacial contact integrity, light absorption of CdS core, and number of U(VI) chemisorption sites, achieving the highest carrier separation efficiency and U(VI) photoreduction performance.

**Keywords:** covalent organic frameworks, core-shell structures, U(VI) photoreduction, carrier separation, antiphotocorrosion

## INTRODUCTION

Efficient uranium extraction from nuclear wastewater is a crucial environmental concern owing to the high chemical toxicity and radioactivity of uranium [1–3]. The solubility of uranium oxidation states widely varies, making it effective to extract uranium by reducing soluble U(VI) to insoluble U(IV) [4–6]. Among the available reduction methods, U(VI) photoreduction is a favored reduction method because of its simplicity, environ-

mental friendliness, and high efficiency, where the key to implement this technology is the development of advanced photocatalysts [7,8]. Up to now, various semiconductor materials have been explored for U(VI) photoreduction, including transition metal sulfides, transition metal oxides, and organic semiconductors [9–16]. Among them, transition metal sulfides are particularly promising, due to their low cost, strong light absorption, and ability to realize U(VI) photoreduction without additional sacrificial agents [17–20]. For instance, the complex SnO<sub>2</sub>/CdCO<sub>3</sub>/CdS nanocomposite attained a U(VI) extraction efficiency of 80% after 70 min towards sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction [17]. Recently, Dong *et al.* [18] developed the Te-doped CdS nanobelts for U(VI) photoreduction, realizing a U(VI) extraction efficiency of 97.4% and a U(VI) extraction capacity of 836 mg g<sup>-1</sup> after 140 min without any sacrificial agents. However, the reported transition metal sulfides generally suffer from severe deficiency of U(VI) chemisorption sites, photogenerated carrier recombination, and photocorrosion issues, leading to catalyst damage and activity decline [7]. Therefore, developing photocatalysts with excellent activity and stability for sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction is an urgent requirement, but undoubtedly remains a grand challenge.

Designing heterojunction for carrier transfer through the interface is a traditional but effective approach for carrier separation [21,22]. In particular, constructing a core-shell structure can maximize the contact effect and reduce the carrier transport distance, further optimizing the carrier separation efficiency [23,24]. Additionally, the shell materials in the core-shell structure can effectively constrain the core materials, providing the antiphotocorrosion ability [25,26]. More importantly, selecting shell materials with U(VI) chemisorption sites is able to compensate for the lack of these sites in core materials and promote photocatalytic performance.

As a new type of porous materials, covalent organic frameworks (COFs) have garnered extensive attention for their applications in adsorption, catalysis, energy storage, and so on [27–29]. Due to their fast carrier transfer and strong visible absorption performance, COFs are ideal shell materials for combining with semiconductors [30,31]. Furthermore, thanks to their adjustable ordered pores and active sites and the composition of the different structural units and functional groups, COFs are also excellent adsorbents for U(VI) extraction [32–34]. In fact, various covalently linked COFs have been used for U(VI)

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photoreduction, including imine, hydrazone, and  $\beta$ -ketoenamine [35,36]. Among them, the  $\beta$ -ketoenamine COFs were synthesized by the combination of reversible imine polycondensation and irreversible proton tautomerism (from enol structure to keto structure), possessing the advantages such as easy synthesis, high stability, and large specific surface area, and thus have attracted much attention [37]. For example, Hu's research group [38] constructed the  $\beta$ -ketoenamine COF containing triazine unit (TpTt), which showed good U(VI) adsorption and photoreduction properties, achieving the U(VI) removal ratio of 76%. Recently, Hu's research group [39] further synthesized a series of isostructural  $\beta$ -ketoenamine COFs with different functional groups for U(VI) photoreduction. Although methanol was used as a sacrificial agent to capture holes in these studies, it is undeniable that  $\beta$ -ketoenamine COFs exhibit excellent potential for U(VI) photoreduction. Thus, utilizing transition metal sulfides as core materials and  $\beta$ -ketoenamine COFs as shell materials to construct novel catalysts with core-shell structures is a potential pathway to achieve high activity and stability towards U(VI) photoreduction.

Herein, we combined the advantages of CdS and COFs to elaborately design a new type of CdS/COF core-shell photocatalysts with high activity and stability for sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction. The two-dimensional (2D)  $\beta$ -ketoenamine COF, formed by the polycondensation of 2,4,6-triformylphloroglucinol (TFP) and 1,3,5-tris(4-aminophenyl)triazine (TAPT), was selected to construct the hybrid materials due to its high chemical stability, matching band gaps and efficient chemisorption for U(VI) [40]. Furthermore, a series of CdS/COF core-shell nanorods with different amounts of COF shell (CdS@COF- $X$ ,  $X = 5, 10, 15$ , and  $20$ ) were synthesized through *in-situ* growing COF shell around CdS nanorods. Remarkably, CdS@COF-10 realized the fast extraction of U(VI), with the extraction rate constant of  $0.092 \text{ min}^{-1}$  and removal ratio of 98.8% after 90 min in a U(VI) solution with an initial concentration of  $1 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ . Moreover, the U(VI) extraction capacity *via* CdS@COF-10 reached up to  $1825.6 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  after 90 min when the solid-to-liquid ratio was  $0.1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ . In addition, CdS@COF-10 displayed outstanding stability during U(VI) photoreduction because of the excellent antiphotocorrosion ability derived from the protection of the COF shell. Further mechanistic studies indicated that COF shell not only provided chemisorption sites for U(VI) to decrease the activation energy of U(VI) reduction, but also formed a strong built-in electric field at the interface with CdS core to promote the carrier separation. More importantly, for all CdS@COF- $X$ , CdS@COF-10 with appropriate COF shell content balanced crystallinity, interfacial contact integrity, light absorption of CdS core, and number of U(VI) chemisorption sites, achieving the highest carrier separation efficiency and U(VI) photoreduction performance.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### Preparation of P-CdS

Firstly, 228 mg of  $\text{CdCl}_2 \cdot 2.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was dissolved in a mixture of 30 mL of ethylenediamine and 1 mL of deionized water with vigorous stirring. Next, 32 mg of sulfur powder and 3 mL of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  were added sequentially to the resulting solution. After stirring for 30 min, the mixture was then heated to react at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 8 h. The resulting product was collected by cen-

trifugation, washed thoroughly with water and ethanol on three separate occasions, and subsequently dried under vacuum to obtain the pure CdS (P-CdS).

### Preparation of P-COF

The pure COF (P-COF) was prepared through a typical process. TFP (200  $\mu\text{mol}$ ) and TAPT (200  $\mu\text{mol}$ ) were added into a pressure tube, along with 2 mL of dioxane, 2 mL of *n*-butanol, and 0.5 mL of glacial acetic acid (AC). The mixture was subjected to ultrasound for 10 min and reacted at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h. After that, the product was collected by suction filtration, and washed successively with dimethyl formamide (DMF) and methanol. The resulting powder was dried under vacuum to obtain P-COF.

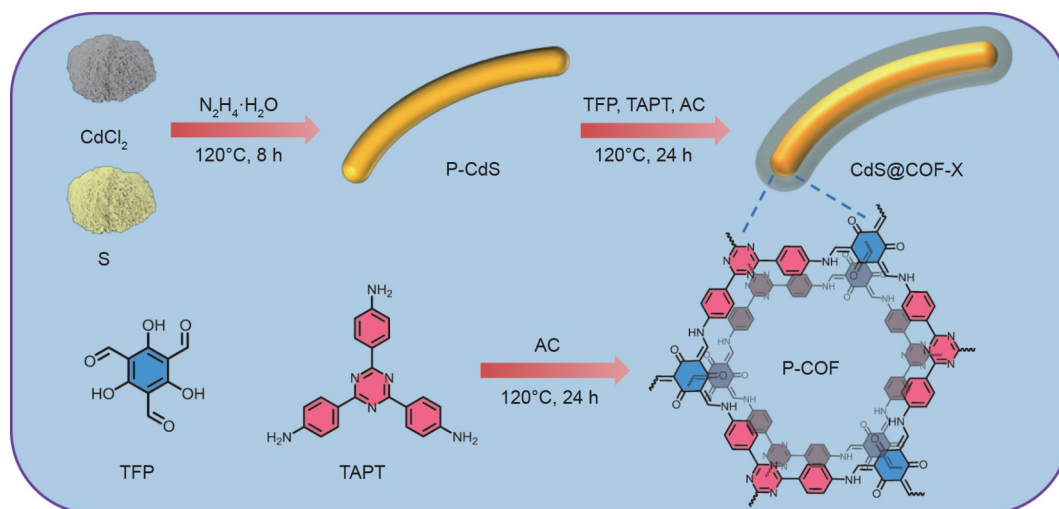
### Preparation of CdS@COF- $X$

Firstly, 20 mg of CdS and 400 mg of polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) were dispersed in 10 mL of ethanol and stirred vigorously for 12 h. The resulting mixture was washed with ethanol and *n*-butanol, and then dispersed in 2 mL of *n*-butanol in a pressure tube to form a suspension. Next, TFP ( $X \mu\text{mol}$ ) and TAPT ( $X \mu\text{mol}$ ) were added into the pressure tube, along with 2 mL of dioxane. After ultrasound for 10 min, 0.1 mL of glacial AC was added to the pressure tube, which was then filled with nitrogen and reacted at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h. CdS@COF- $X$  ( $X = 5, 10, 15$ , and  $20$ ) was obtained by collecting the resulting product through suction filtration, followed by sequential washing with DMF and methanol. The product was then dried under vacuum to ensure complete dryness.

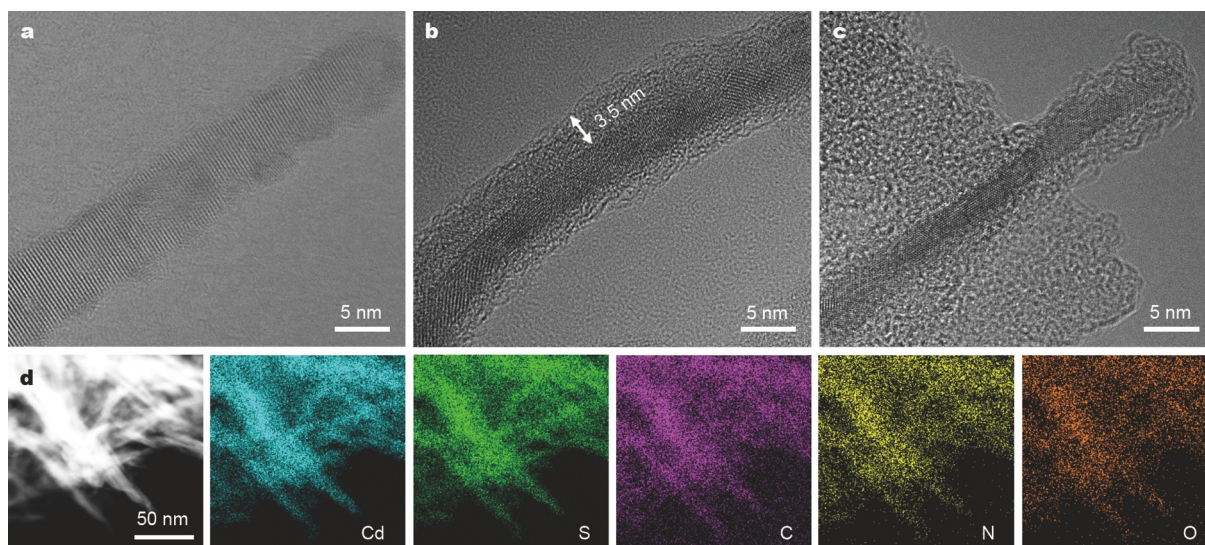
## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Synthesis and structural characterizations

As illustrated in Fig. 1, P-COF was synthesized by the polycondensation of TFP and TAPT under solvothermal conditions using AC as catalyst. Besides, P-CdS was obtained by reducing a mixture of  $\text{CdCl}_2 \cdot 2.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and sulfur powder by  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  under solvothermal conditions. Furthermore, P-CdS was dispersed in the *n*-butanol and dioxane mixed solution containing TFP, TAPT, and AC. Then, the resulting suspension was heated at  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for *in-situ* growing COF shell to obtain CdS@COF- $X$  ( $X = 5, 10, 15$ , and  $20$ ) with different composition ratios of the shell and core. The  $^{13}\text{C}$  solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectrum was demonstrated that P-COF formed a more stable keto structure than enol structure through tautomerism (Fig. S1) [40,41]. Fig. 2a displays the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of P-CdS, where the lattice fringes of nanorods were clearly visible. As for the TEM images of CdS@COF-10 (Fig. 2b) and CdS@COF-20 (Fig. 2c), the morphologies of nanorods were well maintained and completely covered by COF shells. Furthermore, the COF shell thickness of CdS@COF-10 was just  $\sim 3.5 \text{ nm}$ , while CdS@COF-20 possessed a COF shell thickness of over 10 nm. The high-angle-annular-dark-field scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM) image shows multiple cross-over CdS@COF-10 nanorods (Fig. 2d). As indicated by the associated energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) elemental mapping images of CdS@COF-10, a uniform coating of the COF shell around the CdS core was evident as Cd, S, C, N, and O elements exhibited coincident distribution. As for CdS@COF-20 (Fig. S2), the distinct discrepancy in the distribution of Cd and S elements as compared with that of C, N, and O elements and even the



**Figure 1** Schematic illustration for the synthesized process of CdS@COF-X.



**Figure 2** TEM images of (a) P-CdS, (b) CdS@COF-10, and (c) CdS@COF-20. (d) HAADF-STEM and the corresponding EDX elemental mapping images of CdS@COF-10.

presence of COF without CdS core were observed.

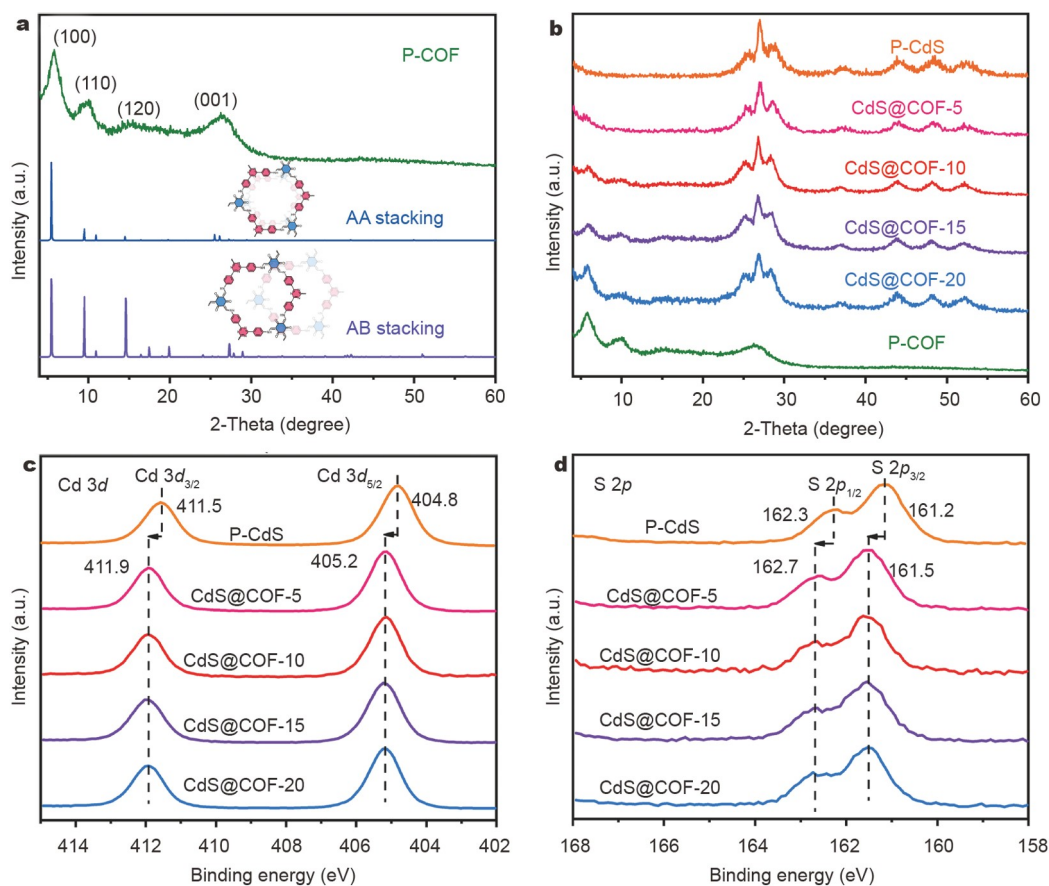
The crystal structures of P-COF, CdS@COF-X and P-CdS were further investigated by powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD). As shown in Fig. 3a, the structure of P-COF was ascribed to the AA stacking model, where the diffraction peaks at  $\sim 5.6^\circ$ ,  $\sim 9.7^\circ$ ,  $\sim 14.8^\circ$ , and  $\sim 26.1^\circ$  were assigned to the (100), (110), (120), and (001) facet, respectively. Furthermore, all the diffraction peaks in the PXRD pattern of P-CdS are consistent with the greenockite CdS phase (PDF#41-1049) (Fig. S3). As for the CdS@COF-X hybrid materials (Fig. 3b), the PXRD patterns were indexed to the mixture of CdS and COF without impurity phases. Notably, with the increase of COF shell content, the intensity of characteristic peaks at  $\sim 5.6^\circ$  and  $\sim 9.7^\circ$  gradually increased. In addition, the electronic properties of the samples were further investigated by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Fig. S4). As shown in the Cd 3d spectra (Fig. 3c), the peaks at 411.5 and 404.8 eV were attributed to Cd 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Cd 3d<sub>5/2</sub> for P-CdS, while the peaks of Cd 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Cd 3d<sub>5/2</sub> for CdS@COF-X shifted to 411.9 and 405.2 eV, respectively [42,43]. Furthermore,

Fig. 3d shows the S 2p spectrum of P-CdS, in which the main peaks are located at 162.3 and 161.2 eV belonging to S 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and S 2p<sub>3/2</sub>, respectively [42,43]. Compared with P-CdS, the binding energies of S 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and S 2p<sub>3/2</sub> in CdS@COF-X both displayed a positive shift. Thus, the changes in the binding energies of Cd and S indicated a strong interaction between the CdS core and the COF shell for CdS@COF-X hybrid materials, excluding simple physical contact [42,43]. In addition, two fitted component peaks at 400.0 and 398.7 eV belonged to N-C and sp<sup>2</sup>-hybridized N atoms in triazine units (C-N=C) for the N 1s XPS spectra (Fig. S5), respectively [40]. As for O 1s XPS spectra (Fig. S6), two peaks were attributable to C=O at 531.5 eV and the surface adsorbed oxygen species (O\*) at 532.9 eV, respectively [41].

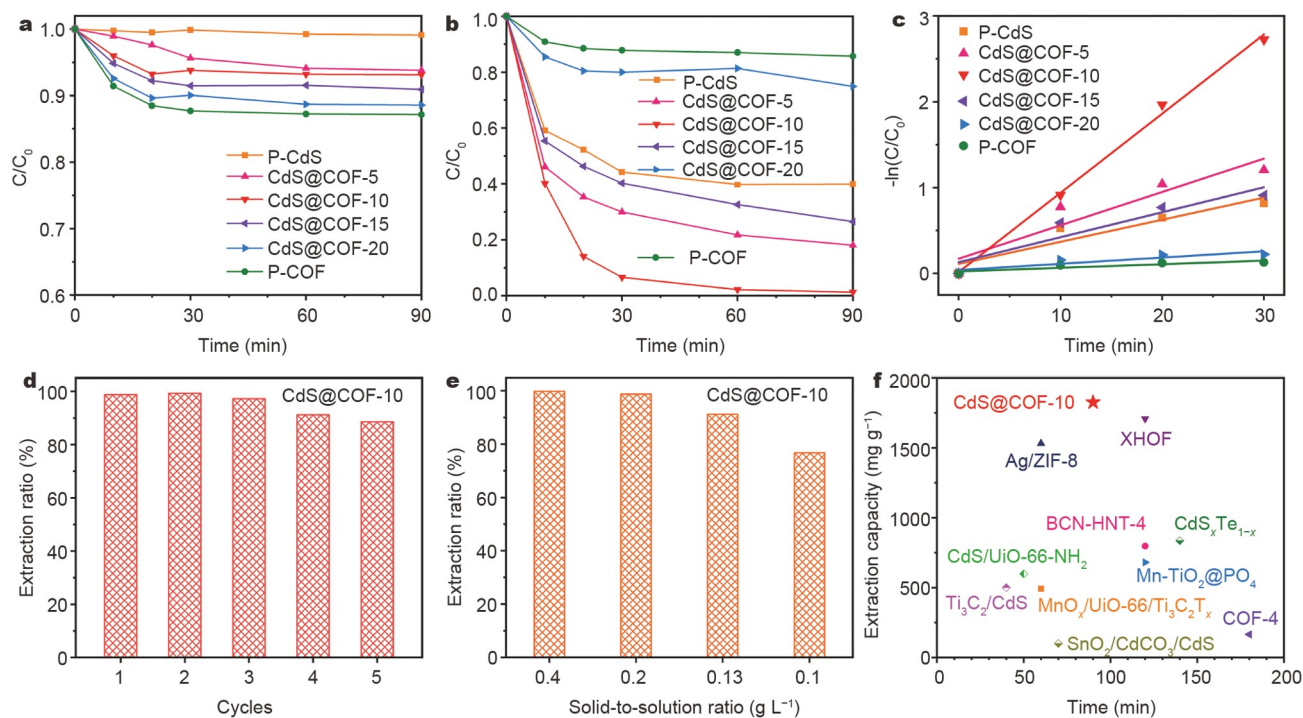
#### Uranium extraction experiment

The obtained samples were utilized as photocatalysts for sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction in an air atmosphere. Fig. 4a shows the U(VI) adsorption profiles of various samples





**Figure 3** (a) PXRD patterns for experimental and different simulation of P-COF. (b) PXRD patterns of P-CdS, CdS@COF-X, and P-COF. (c) Cd 3d and (d) S 2p XPS spectra of P-CdS and CdS@COF-X.



**Figure 4** Concentration of U(VI) versus time via P-CdS, CdS@COF-X, and P-COF (a) under dark conditions and (b) under light conditions. (c) Reaction kinetics plots of U(VI) photoreduction via P-CdS, CdS@COF-X, and P-COF. U(VI) extraction ratios via CdS@COF-10 (d) over the course of five successive reaction rounds and (e) with different solid-to-solution ratios. (f) U(VI) extraction capacity via CdS@COF-10 and other reported catalysts towards U(VI) photoreduction without sacrificial agents.

over time under dark conditions. Without light irradiation, P-CdS demonstrated almost no adsorption effect on U(VI). With the increase in COF shell content, the adsorption capacity of CdS@COF-*X* on U(VI) increased gradually. When it came to P-COF, the U(VI) removal ratio and adsorption capacity were 12.9% and 153.5 mg g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. We further used the kinetic models to describe the adsorption behavior of P-COF. As shown in Fig. S7, the U(VI) adsorption over P-COF conformed to the pseudo-second-order kinetics ( $R^2 = 0.99842$ ) rather than pseudo-first-order kinetics ( $R^2 = 0.67591$ ), indicating the dominance of chemisorption. When a xenon lamp with the wavelength of full-spectrum and the intensity of 200 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> was utilized to irradiate the reaction system, P-COF displayed practically identical U(VI) extraction behavior as in the absence of light (Fig. 4b). Interestingly, the extraction capacity and kinetics of U(VI) by P-CdS and CdS@COF-*X* were significantly enhanced under illumination. In particular, the extraction efficiency of U(VI) by CdS@COF-10 in a U(VI) solution with an initial concentration of 1 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> reached 98.8% after 90 min. To further assess the reaction kinetics, the extraction rate constant (*k*) was calculated on different samples. Fig. 4c illustrates the fitting outcomes, where the order of *k* values is as follows: CdS-COF-10 (0.092 min<sup>-1</sup>) > CdS-COF-5 (0.039 min<sup>-1</sup>) > CdS-COF-15 (0.029 min<sup>-1</sup>) > P-CdS (0.026 min<sup>-1</sup>) > CdS-COF-20 (0.007 min<sup>-1</sup>) > P-COF (0.004 min<sup>-1</sup>). As such, CdS-COF-10 with appropriate COF shell content exhibited the highest U(VI) extraction capacity under illumination.

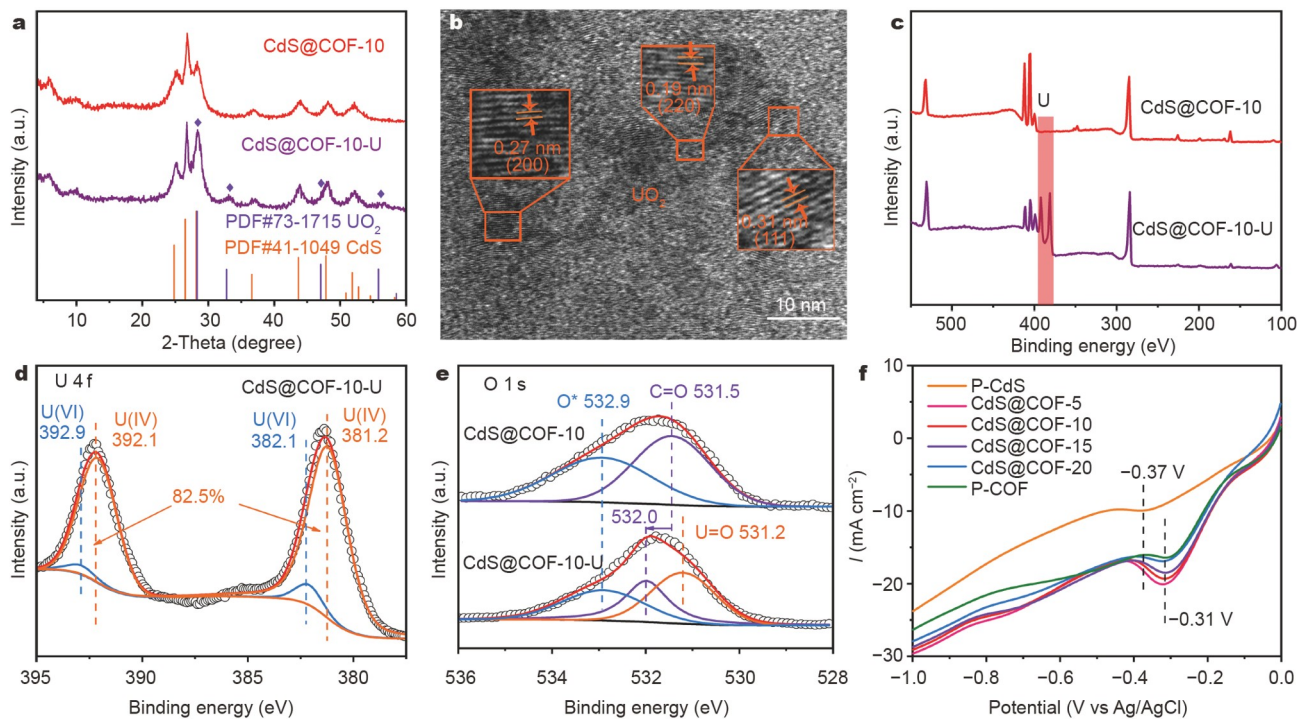
In order to investigate the photocorrosion resistance of CdS@COS-10, the concentration of cadmium (Cd) in solution during the photoreaction was measured. The Cd element was released gradually into the solution with the duration of irradiation for P-CdS, reaching a concentration of 69.8 mg L<sup>-1</sup> after

90 min (Fig. S8). As for CdS@COF-10, the Cd concentration in solution was just 6.9 mg L<sup>-1</sup> after 90 min, indicating the excellent antiphotocorrosion ability caused by the protection of the COF shell. Moreover, the repetitive U(VI) photoreduction cycles were further conducted *via* CdS@COF-10 to evaluate its stability and reusability. As shown in Fig. 4d, the U(VI) removal ratio *via* CdS@COF-10 remained as high as 88.5% even after five cycles, indicating the outstanding stability during U(VI) photoreduction.

In addition, the U(VI) photoreduction experiments over CdS@COF-10 under different solid-to-liquid ratio, pH and coexisting ion conditions were systematically executed. As shown in Fig. 4e, when the solid-to-liquid ratio was increased to 0.1 g L<sup>-1</sup>, CdS@COF-10 still maintained the U(VI) removal ratio of 76.7% after 90 min, corresponding to the U(VI) extraction capacity of 1825.6 mg g<sup>-1</sup>. The U(VI) extraction capacity *via* CdS@COF-10 towards sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction is also superior to most reported catalysts (Fig. 4f and Table S1). Furthermore, CdS@COF-10 displayed brilliant U(VI) extraction ratio at pH from 3 to 7 (Fig. S9). Moreover, CdS@COF-10 also possessed excellent U(VI) extraction ratio and selectivity when U(VI) coexisted with 11 cations of rare-earth metals, transition metals, and alkaline earth metals (Fig. S10).

#### Photocatalytic mechanistic studies

To elucidate the mechanism of U(VI) extraction under light, CdS@COF-10 after the reaction were collected (named as CdS@COF-10-U) and analyzed. As shown in Fig. 5a, the diffraction peaks of CdS and COF were maintained well in the PXRD pattern of CdS@COF-10-U, indicating its good stability in the process of U(VI) photoreduction. More importantly, the



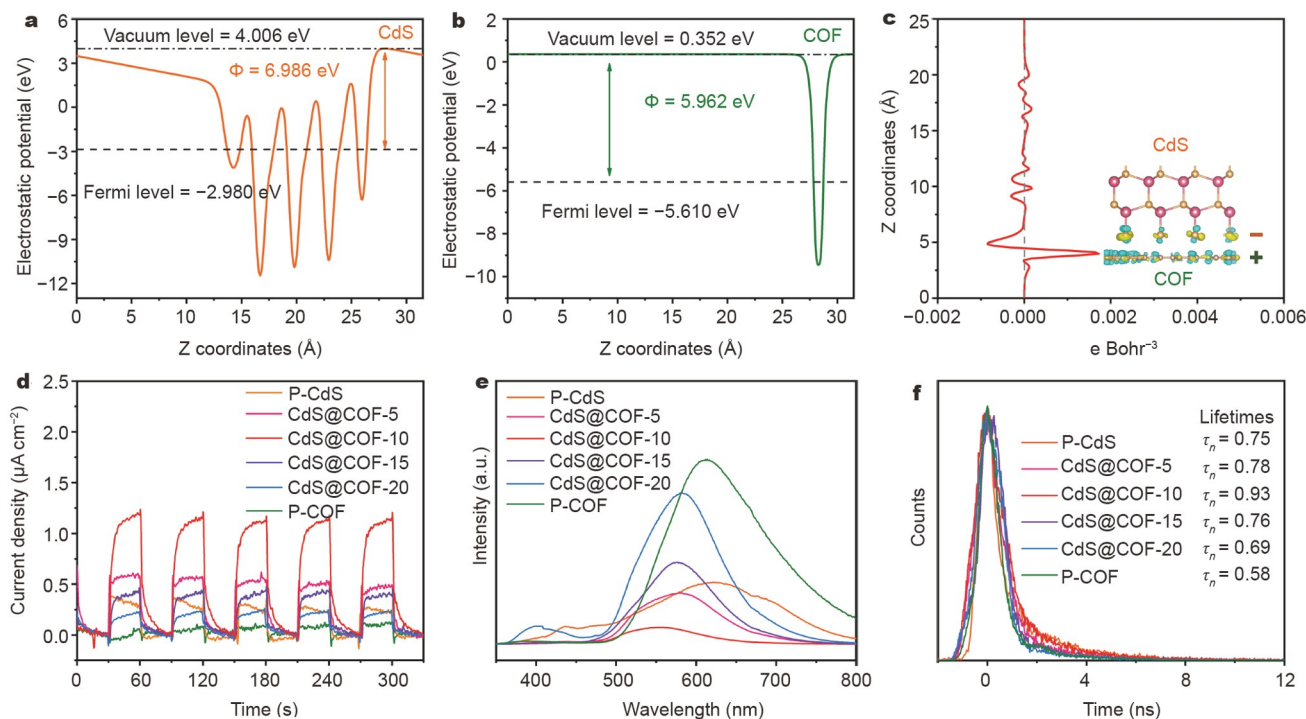
**Figure 5** (a) PXRD patterns of CdS@COF-10 and CdS@COF-10-U. (b) TEM image of CdS@COF-10-U. (c) Full XPS spectra of CdS@COF-10 and CdS@COF-10-U. (d) U 4f XPS spectrum of CdS@COF-10-U. (e) O 1s XPS spectra of CdS@COF-10 and CdS@COF-10-U. (f) LSV curves of U(VI) reduction *via* P-CdS, CdS@COF-*X*, and P-COF.

PXRD pattern of CdS@COF-10-U displayed the characteristic signals of uranium dioxide (UO<sub>2</sub>). Accordingly, the HAADF-STEM image and the associated EDX elemental mapping images displayed the distribution of uranium across the entire nanorod for CdS@COF-10-U (Fig. S11). Furthermore, the characteristic lattice spacing of UO<sub>2</sub> was also observed in the TEM image of CdS@COF-10-U (Fig. 5b), in which the lattice spacings of 3.1, 2.7, and 1.9 Å were corresponding to the (111), (200), and (220) crystal planes, respectively. In addition, the signal of uranium was found in the XPS spectrum of CdS@COF-10-U (Fig. 5c). In the U 4f XPS spectrum of CdS@COF-10-U (Fig. 5d), four constituent peaks were fitted, corresponding to U(VI) at 382.1 and 392.9 eV together with U(IV) at 381.2 and 392.1 eV, respectively [44–46]. The integral areas of U(IV) were much larger than those of U(VI), indicating that most of the extracted uranium was reduced *via* CdS@COF-10 during the reaction. Furthermore, the reduction ratio of uranium on CdS@COF-10-U was further calculated as 82.5%. As for the O 1s XPS spectrum of CdS@COF-10-U (Fig. 5e), the peak at 531.2 eV was ascribed to U=O [44]. More importantly, the binding energy of the C=O peak for CdS@COF-10-U was shifted from 531.5 to 532.0 eV compared with that for CdS@COF-10. Similarly, the positive shift of C–N binding energy for CdS@COF-10-U was also found in the N 1s XPS spectra (Fig. S12). Since the adsorption of U(VI) decreased the local electron density, C=O and the adjacent C–N were proved to be the main U(VI) chemisorption sites for CdS@COF-10 [47]. To highlight the importance of chemisorption of COF shell for CdS@COF-10 towards U(VI) photoreduction, we further measured the linear scanning voltammetry (LSV) curves in an electrolyte containing U(VI). As illustrated in Fig. 5f, P-CdS showed the weak U(VI) reduction peak at –0.37 V *versus* Ag/AgCl. The U(VI) reduction peaks of CdS@COF-X and

P-CdS, located at –0.31 V *versus* Ag/AgCl. This is attributed to the chemisorption of COF shell that can increase the effective collision between electrons and U(VI), and thus decreased the overpotential and activation energy of U(VI) reduction, which directly led to the outstanding catalytic activity towards U(VI) photoreduction for CdS@COF-10 [10].

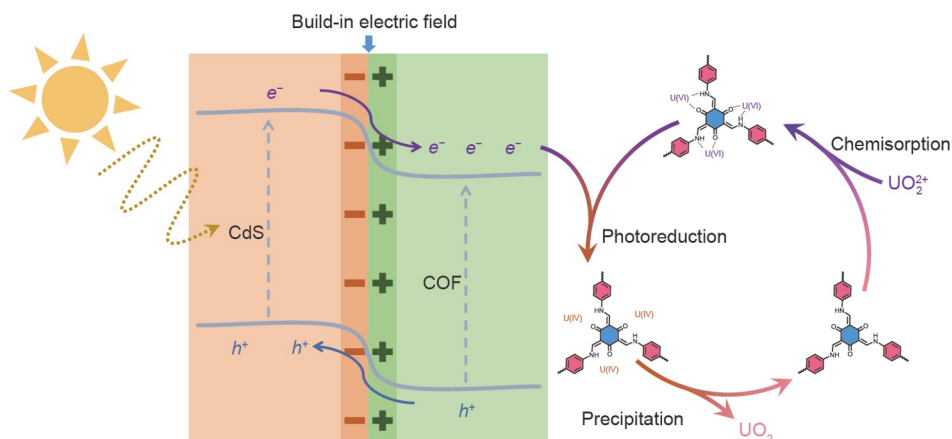
To explain the significant activity of CdS@COF-10 in U(VI) photoreduction, the optical properties and band structures were further characterized. The enhancement in visible light absorption with increasing COF shell content was clearly observed in the ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectra of P-CdS and CdS@COF-X (Fig. S13). Furthermore, the band gaps of P-CdS and P-COF were calculated to be 2.56 and 2.43 eV by using Tauc plots, respectively (Fig. S14). In addition, based on the results of valence-band XPS spectra, the valence band (VB) positions of P-CdS and P-COF were determined to be 1.56 and 1.88 eV *versus* reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE), respectively (Fig. S15). Combining their band gap values, the conduction band (CB) positions of P-CdS and P-COF were obtained to be –1.00 and –0.55 eV *versus* RHE, respectively (Fig. S16).

To clarify the charge transfer direction and electronic coupling behavior of CdS core and COF shell after the coupling, we calculated their work functions and the charge redistribution between the heterojunction contact interfaces using density functional theory (DFT). As shown in Fig. 6a, b, the work functions of CdS and COF models were calculated to be 6.986 and 5.962 eV, respectively. In general, the electrons tend to cluster on the side of the material with larger work function after coupling, forming a typical built-in electric field [48,49]. In addition, the charge density differences are shown in Fig. 6c, where the blue and yellow regions represent the depletion and



**Figure 6** Calculated electrostatic potentials for (a) CdS and (b) COF models. (c) Profile of the plane-averaged differential charge density (*z*-axis) of the interface of CdS and COF models, with the simulated electron density distributions (illustration). (d) Transient photocurrent responses, (e) steady-state PL spectra, and (f) time-resolved PL spectra of P-CdS, CdS@COF-X, and P-COF.





**Figure 7** Schematic presentation of the reaction process over CdS@COF-10 towards U(VI) photoreduction.

accumulation of electrons, respectively. The heterojunction contact interface of CdS and COF models exhibited a significant surface charge redistribution phenomenon. The band topology calculations revealed that each COF model transferred  $0.607 e^-$  to the corresponding CdS model. Therefore, the electrons flowed from the COF shell into the CdS core after coupling, forming the built-in electric field at the interface for CdS@COF-*X*, which was favorable for carrier transfer at the interface.

In order to further explain the impact of the COF shell content on the photoreduction performance of CdS@COF-*X*, the transient photocurrent response of the synthesized samples was measured using photoelectrochemical methods. As shown in Fig. 6d, compared with P-CdS and P-COF, CdS@COF-*X* exhibited significant and stable photocurrents, with CdS@COF-10 showing the highest photocurrent intensity. The photocurrent intensity of the samples also corresponded to their performance towards U(VI) photoreduction. Moreover, we further analyzed the photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the samples to obtain the concrete evidences of transfer and recombination of photogenerated charge. Fig. 6e displays the steady-state PL spectra of obtained samples, in which P-COF and CdS@COF-10 show the highest and lowest intensities, respectively. As the COF shell content increases, the carrier separation efficiency of CdS@COF-*X* showed a pattern of increasing first and then decreasing. More importantly, we further studied the average emission decay time ( $\tau_n$ ) of photogenerated carriers by using time-resolved PL spectroscopy. As illustrated in Fig. 6f, the values of  $\tau_n$  followed the order of CdS@COF-10 (0.93 ns) > CdS@COF-5 (0.78 ns) > CdS@COF-15 (0.76 ns) > P-CdS (0.75 ns) > CdS@COF-20 (0.69 ns) > P-COF (0.58 ns). Thus, for CdS-COF-5, the COF shell with low content was considered to have poor crystallinity and incomplete encapsulation, resulting in the generation of defects and incomplete interface contact, causing obstacles to carrier transfer [50]. As for CdS-COF-15 and CdS-COF-20, the COF shell with high content was believed to dominate light capture and hinder light absorption of the CdS core [51,52]. Therefore, CdS-COF-10 with appropriate COF shell content exhibited the highest photocurrent intensity, the most efficient carrier separation, and the longest carrier lifetime, contributing to the significant catalytic activity towards U(VI) photoreduction.

Based on the above results, the schematic diagram of the reaction mechanism for CdS-COF-10 towards U(VI) photo-

reduction was proposed (Fig. 7). First, the free U(VI) was bonded with C=O and the adjacent C-N on the COF shell by chemisorption. Under light, both the COF shell and the CdS core absorbed energy to produce photogenerated electrons and holes. Because of the strong built-in electric field at the interface, photogenerated electrons located in the CB of CdS were easily transferred to the CB of the COF shell and further effectively reduced the bound U(VI), leading to the precipitation of UO<sub>2</sub>.

## CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the CdS/COF core-shell nanorods (CdS@COF-10) with efficient chemisorption, enhanced carrier separation, and antiphotocorrosion ability were successfully constructed as highly active and stable catalyst for sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction. The COF shell not only provided chemisorption sites for U(VI) to decrease the activation energy of U(VI) reduction, but also formed a strong built-in electric field at the interface with the CdS core to promote the carrier separation. As such, the photogenerated electrons located in the CB of CdS were easily transferred to the CB of the COF shell and further effectively reduced the bound U(VI), leading to the precipitation of UO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, for all CdS@COF-*X*, CdS-COF-10 with appropriate COF shell content balanced the crystallinity, interfacial contact integrity, light absorption of the CdS core, and number of U(VI) chemisorption sites, achieving the highest carrier separation efficiency and a record high U(VI) extraction capacity of 1825.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup> after 90 min. This work not only provides a catalyst with excellent performance for sacrificial agents-free U(VI) photoreduction, but also expands the understanding of core-shell structure photocatalysts.

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**Author contributions** Yu K, Li Y, and Ma L designed the studies and wrote the paper. Yu K, He N, Dong C, and Jiang B synthesized the catalysts and performed the catalytic tests with support from Li X. Yu K, Zou Y, and Pei X performed material characterizations. He P performed DFT calculations. All authors contributed to the general discussion.

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

**Supplementary information** Experimental details and supporting data are available in the online version of the paper.



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## 具有高效化学吸附、增强的载流子分离及抗光腐蚀能力的CdS/COF核壳结构纳米棒用于光催化还原铀

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**摘要** 基于半导体光催化剂将可溶的六价铀(U(VI))还原为不可溶的四价铀(U(IV))是一种简便、环保、高效的铀提取方法。实现该技术的关键是开发在无牺牲剂情况下对于光催化还原铀具有高活性和稳定性的催化剂。本文报道了一种新型CdS/COF核壳结构光催化剂(CdS@COF-10), 该催化剂具有高效的化学吸附、增强的载流子分离和抗光腐蚀能力, 无需额外的牺牲剂即可用于高效的光催化还原铀。COF壳层不仅为U(VI)提供了化学吸附位点, 降低了U(VI)还原的活化能, 而且在与CdS核的界面处形成了内建电场, 促进了载流子的分离。更重要的是, 具有适当COF壳含量的CdS-COF-10在结晶度、界面接触完整性、CdS核的光吸收和U(VI)化学吸附位点数量之间取得了平衡, 获得了最高的载流子分离效率和光催化还原铀性能。