Electronic materials

Preparation of $C-TiO₂$ photocatalyst with $Ti₃C₂$ MXene as precursor by molten salt method and its hydrogen production performance

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, Ti₃C₂ was completely oxidized at a high temperature (350 °C, 400 °C and 450 °C) to form a composite catalysts: $TiO₂$ nanoparticles with fragmentary carbon supporting, using the $ZnCl₂$ molten salt method. The generated disordered carbon forms an inseparable connection with $TiO₂$ nanoparticles grown in situ on the surface, which reduces the recombination of photocarriers and increases the specific surface area. $ZnCl₂$ plays an important role in delaying the oxidation rate, thus inhibiting the abnormal growth of $TiO₂$ grain and retaining more carbon, which led to a suitable composition of the catalyst, so as to obtain a better hydrogen production performance. $ZnCl₂$ existence might also prevent the collapse of the accordion structure during the calcination process. The hydrogen production activity of $C-TiO₂$ photocatalyst prepared by molten salt method with 3 wt% Pt as cocatalyst is up to 2.3 mmol/ g/h, about 5.4 times and 2 times of that of calcination without molten salt and pure P25, respectively.

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

Introduction

Environmental pollution and energy crisis are the two major issues that urgently need to be solved [[1\]](#page-11-0). Hydrogen (H_2) , as a kind of renewable green energy, with high combustion value and free pollution, has been widely concerned by researchers. The principle of photocatalysis is to convert the inexhaustible solar energy into chemical energy by using semiconductor photocatalysts [[2,](#page-11-0) [3](#page-11-0)], which is considered to be one of the most effective strategies to prepare hydrogen energy [[4,](#page-11-0) [5](#page-11-0)]. Hydrogen production performance of catalysts mainly depends on their absorption capacity of sunlight, the separation and transference efficiency of the generated photocarriers and the quantity of active sites on the reaction surface $[6-8]$ $[6-8]$.

 $TiO₂$ has been widely used in the fields of $H₂$ generation and pollutant degradation due to the advantages of cost-effective and simple preparation process and plays an important role in various photocatalytic and photo-electrocatalytic processes because of the suitable H^+ reduction potential, environmental friendliness and excellent chemical stability [\[9](#page-12-0)]. However, the photocatalytic performance of $TiO₂$ is seriously limited owing to the large band-gap energy (3.2 eV), causing the mere absorption of UV light and rapid recombination of photocarriers, which greatly hinders its utilization of sunlight and H2 production efficiency [[10,](#page-12-0) [11](#page-12-0)]. Currently, the modification of $TiO₂$ is addressed to solve the issues above, and the common methods adopted include the element doping, heterojunction construction, precious metal deposition and crystal plane regulation [[12–14\]](#page-12-0)

In recent years, the interest in two-dimensional (2D) photocatalysts has been increasing. MXenes is a general term for 2D transition metal carbides and carbonitrides with remarkable electronic conductivity [[15–17\]](#page-12-0). Ti₃ C_2 , as one of the most widely studied members of MXenes since 2011, has been synthesized by etching aluminum atoms in layered $Ti₃AIC₂$. The unique accordion-like structure of $Ti₃C₂$ has a high specific surface area, which can provide a large number of active sites for photocatalysts materials to exhibit high photocatalytic H_2 evolution [\[18](#page-12-0), [19\]](#page-12-0). The surface of $Ti₃C₂$ usually contains hydrophilic groups, such as $-O$, $-OH$ [[20,](#page-12-0) [21\]](#page-12-0), which is favorable for the $H₂$ products. Due to the distinct advantages, it is effective for $Ti₃C₂$ to compound with most semiconductor materials $[22-30]$. When $Ti₃C₂$ was strongly oxidized, $TiO₂$ generated. As further oxidation proceeded, the $Ti₃C₂$ disappeared, some carbon oxidized to produce $CO₂$ and the left C-layers were covered with TiO₂. Therefore, C–TiO₂ was produced $[31, 32]$ $[31, 32]$ $[31, 32]$ $[31, 32]$ $[31, 32]$. C can promote the separation of electrons and holes and narrow the band gap. Therefore, $C-TiO₂$ is considered to be a potential photocatalyst [\[12](#page-12-0), [14\]](#page-12-0). At present, Naguib et al. [\[33](#page-13-0)]. proved that $Ti₃C₂$ powder could be rapidly oxidized by calcination at 1150 \degree C for 30 s, and that $TiO₂$ nanocrystals were obtained to grow inter-layers and at the edge of layers, and embedded into the disordered graphite carbon structure. The studies proved that the in situ growth of TiO₂ on the surface of multilayer Ti₃C₂ was

achieved by calcination and hydrothermal treatment [\[34](#page-13-0)]. These studies indicated the feasibility of in situ growth of $TiO₂$ on $Ti₃C₂$ nanosheets. At present, Shu Wang et al. [\[35](#page-13-0)] used tetrabutyl titanate (TBOT) as raw materials to prepare $C/TiO₂$ by sol–gel method with a H_2 evolution rate of 0.577 mmol/ h/g , which reached 1.560 mmol/h/g after reduction treatment. Yang et al. $[36]$ $[36]$ showed that TiC@C–TiO₂ cored-shell photocatalyst was prepared by calcination of TiC, and the maximum H_2 production capacity was 0.558 mmol/g. Guangri et al. $[31]$ $[31]$ synthesized C-TiO2 under low-temperature hydrothermal treatment of Ti₃C₂. The H₂ yield reaches 0.033 mmol/h/g. Yuan et al. $[32]$ $[32]$ obtained the C/TiO₂ composites by oxidizing Ti_3C_2 in a CO_2 atmosphere, and the optimal H2 evolution rate under visible light could reach 0.024 mmol/h/g. Based on the above work, the highest yield of hydrogen for $TiO₂/C$ currently investigated is 1.560 mmol/h/g.

Molten salt method is to take one or more salts with low melting point in the molten state as the calcination medium and the raw material is placed in the molten salt system for reaction. Crystal growth is in the liquid molten salt under which the morphology is easily controlled [[37\]](#page-13-0). Molten salt method has the advantages of better crystal morphology, simple operation, and lower synthesis temperature compared with those without salts.

In this paper, $C-TiO₂$ was prepared with molten salt method. Ti₃C₂ was used as the precursor, and $ZnCl₂$ was added as the molten salt. $C-TiO₂$ catalyst was prepared at different temperatures (350, 400 and 450 $^{\circ}$ C) by molten salt method. The effect of the addition of $ZnCl₂$ during the process of calcination on $C-TiO₂$ growth was investigated for the photocatalytic hydrogen production performance. In this design, the ''accordion'' structure of C– $TiO₂$ was tested by photoluminescence spectra to discuss the diffusion recombination for photoexcited electrons and holes, by UV–visible diffuse reflectance to discuss UV–visible light utilization capacity, and by electrochemical test to study the separation and transfer efficiency of photocarriers.

Materials and methods

Materials

All chemical reagents were analytical grade and used directly without further purification: HF (49%, Shanghai McLin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd), $Ti₃AIC₂ (> 98%$ purity, Shanghai McLin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd.), triethanolamine (Tianjin Fuyu Fine Chemical Co., Ltd.), $H_2PtCl_6·6H_2O$ (Tianjin Guangfu Fine Chemical Research Institute), and the deionized water (Harbin Yongchang Chemical Reagent Company).

Methods

Synthesis of $Ti₃C₂$ MXenes

 2 g of Ti₃AlC₂ was powdered into a plastic beaker, and 50 mL 49% HF solution slowly was add for etching. After ultrasonic for 8 h (KQ-600DE, Kunshan Ultrasound Instrument Co., Ltd), the solution was placed into a water bath and stirred at 40 \degree C for 72 h. Then the suspension was washed with deionized water and centrifuged (H1850, Xiangyi Centrifuge Instrument Co., Ltd) for dozens of times until pH $>$ 6. Finally, the solution was poured into petri dishes and dried in vacuum at 60 \degree C for 12 h. The black powder $Ti₃C₂$ was obtained, then which was grinded with an agate mortar and stored in a brown bottle away from light.

Synthesis of $C-TiO₂$ composites

Briefly, 0.2 g of $Ti₃C₂$ and 1 g of $ZnCl₂$ were placed into a quartz crucible and mix them evenly and calcined at 350 °C, 400 °C and 450 °C for 4 h in muffler furnace (KSL-1100X, Shuyan Heat Treatment Equipment Manufacturing Co., LTD.). Heating rate was $5 °C/min$. The samples were thoroughly washed with dilute hydrochloric acid solution and washed and centrifuged 6 times with deionized water and anhydrous ethanol at 5000 rad/min. After vacuum drying at 60 \degree C for 12 h, the gray powder C–TiO₂ was obtained. Finally, grind it with an agate mortar and store in a brown bottle away from light. 0.2 g $Ti₃C₂$ was calcined at 400 \degree C for 4 h as control group. The samples were named T-Z-350, T-Z-400, T-Z-450 and T-400, respectively. Moreover, 0.6 g and 1.4 g of $ZnCl₂$ molten salts were used for 0.2 g of Ti₃C₂ calcination under $400 °C$ for comparison and the calcined sample was named for $T-Z_1-400$ and $T-Z_m-400$, respectively.

Characterization

Room temperature X-ray diffraction measurements were characterized by powder X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Netherlands, X'Pert PRO) in the range of 40 kV, 40 mA, 2θ 5–80°. The microscopic morphology images of samples were obtained using transmission electron microscope (TEM, Japan, JEM-2100) and scanning electron microscope (SEM, Netherlands, FEI Sirion 200). The elemental compositions of catalysts were determined using X-ray fluorescence (XRF, PANalytical Axios). The elementary composition and valence state of samples were tested by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, USA, ESCALAB 250Xi). The crystal structure of the material is determined using a Raman spectrometer (Raman, USA, DXR Microscope). Fourier transform infrared spectra were tested by a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (FT-IR, USA, NICOLET iS10). Photoluminescence spectra were evaluated on a fluorescence spectrophotometer (pL, Japan, RF-5301PC). The UV– visible diffuse reflectance spectra of the samples were recorded on a UV–visible spectrophotometer (DRS, Japan, UV-2600i) with barium sulfate fine powder as control. The Bruner–Emmett–Taylor specific area (S_{BET}) of the sample was measured by N₂ adsorption at liquid nitrogen temperature (BET, USA, ASAP 2010). The photochemical properties of the samples were tested by a electrochemical workstation (China, CHI660E) using a three-electrode system. 2 mg of the sample was added to a mixture of 1 mL ethanol and 10 μ L naphthol, and the suspension (200 μ L) was dropped onto the ITO glass substrate and dried at room temperature. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was carried out using ITO coated with photocatalyst as working electrode, platinum as counter electrode, saturated calomel as reference electrode, and $Na₂SO₄$ solution (0.25 M) as electrolyte. Mott-Schottky tested at frequencies of 500 Hz, 700 Hz, and 900 Hz, with potentials ranging from -0.4 V to 0.4 V and an AC voltage amplitude of 5 mV. The combination of visible light filter $($ 420 nm) and 300 W Xe lamp was used as the light source to test the photocurrent-time curve.

Photocatalytic hydrogen production

The photocatalytic hydrogen production experiment was tested in the all-glass Automatic online Trace Gas Analysis System (China, Labsolar-6A). The

photocatalytic experiment was tested as follows. First, 10 mg of the photocatalyst was added to 50 mL triethanolamine (TEOA) aqueous solution (20 wt%). Then, 3 wt% chloroplatinic acid solution was used as the cocatalyst, and the mixed solution was placed in an ultrasound machine for 30 min. Under the irradiation of 300 w Xe lamp, chloroplatinic acid solution was used as the precursor, and Pt was in situ supported on the photocatalyst by photo-deposition. During the whole photocatalytic reaction, water cooling at 5° C was maintained, and the reaction solution was continuously stirred to keep the mixture evenly distributed. Vacuum the system with a vacuum pump to make the system pressure close to 0.8 kPa, so as to ensure the vacuum state of the internal system. The generated H_2 was detected by gas chromatograph (China, Techcomp GC9790) and thermal conductivity detector (TCD) every 60 min.

Results and discussion

XRD and XRF analysis

XRD test was used to investigate the crystal structure. The typical diffraction peaks of $Ti₃AIC₂$ (JCPDS No. 52-0975) at 9.5°, 19.1°, 34.0°, 38.7°, 41.7° and 56.4° are shown in Fig. [1a](#page-4-0) (bottom). After HF etching, the diffraction peaks at the 2θ of 8.8°, 18.3°, 27.5°, 36.9° and 41.9° appeared as shown in Fig. [1a](#page-4-0) (top). In addition, the diffraction peak at $2\theta = 38.7^\circ$ disappeared with HF etching, indicating that the aluminum atom layer was completely removed and $Ti₃C₂$ samples have been successfully prepared [\[38](#page-13-0)]. Figure [1b](#page-4-0) shows the XRD patterns of the samples obtained under different preparation conditions. The sharped peaks at the 2 θ of 25.1°, 37.7°, 47.9°, 53.9° and 62.5° are related to the plane diffraction of (101), (004), (200), (105) and (204) of anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS No. 21-1272), respectively. It indicates that $Ti₃C₂$ has been transformed into anatase $TiO₂$ by calcination. By comparing the XRD curves of T-Z-350, T-Z-400, T-Z-450 and T-400, it can be seen that with the increase of calcination temperature, the diffraction peak corresponding to $TiO₂$ gradually enhanced, indicating that the crystallinity of $TiO₂$ is improved. The particle size of TiO₂ can be calculated by Scherrer formula $[39]$ $[39]$, expressed as $D = K\lambda/(\beta cos\theta)$ (K stands for constant; λ stands for the wavelength of X-ray; β is half width of diffraction peak; θ is diffraction angle). The grain

Figure 1 The XRD pattern of **a** Ti₃C₂; **b** T-400, T-Z-350, T-Z-400 and T-Z-450..

sizes of T-Z-400 and T-400 are 23.19 nm and 30.84 nm. Comparing T-Z-400 and T-400 prepared at the same temperature, it can be seen that the $TiO₂$ prepared by molten salt method has smaller grain size.

In addition, XRD can also reflect the relative yield of $TiO₂$ to a certain extent. The characteristic peak value of T-400 is the highest, followed by T-Z-450, and the lower peak value is for the T-Z calcinated at lower temperature. XRF results (Table 1) shows the mass fraction content of $TiO₂$ in each catalyst. At the same calcination temperature (400 $^{\circ}$ C), the existence of molten salts resisted the direct contact between external gas and $Ti₃C₂$ and therefore reduced the oxidation rate of $Ti₃C₂$ compared with that by the direct calcination without molten salts resulting in the highest $TiO₂$ content: 93.71 wt%. However, in the presence of molten salt, the higher the calcination temperature was, the more $TiO₂$ was produced and the better the crystallinity was, which is easy to understand: high temperature provides high energy, accelerates the flow of oxygen, and accelerates the oxidation rate of the sample; thus, more $TiO₂$ is generated. XRF cannot determine the content of element C, and the content of C is not given here. Moreover, T-Z-350 contains less $TiO₂$ determined by XRF, which also indicates that part of $Ti₃C₂$ in T-Z-

Table 1 $TiO₂$ content of different catalysts

Samples	T-400	T-Z-350	$T-Z-400$	$T-Z-450$
$TiO2$ content (wt%)	93.709	78.313	91.996	94.769

350 has not been oxidized, which is consistent with the conclusion of XRD.

TEM analysis

Figure [2A](#page-5-0) is a TEM image of T-Z-400, and Fig. [2](#page-5-0)b is a magnified view of Fig. [2](#page-5-0)a. As shown in the figure, $TiO₂$ presents irregular morphology, located on the surface of carbon and embedded in the middle of carbon. Figure [2](#page-5-0)c is the local HRTEM image of Fig. [2](#page-5-0)b. TEM image shows that the lattice spacing of it is about 0.35 nm, corresponding to the (101) crystal plane of anatase TiO₂ [[40\]](#page-13-0). It can be seen that Ti₃C₂ has been completely transformed into C-TiO₂. Moreover, the existence of other crystal phases, including Ti_3C_2 , ZnO and Zn_2TiO_4 , was not determined in multiple locations.

SEM analysis

The morphology of the photocatalysts plays an important role in the catalytic activity. The microstructures of the photocatalysts were further observed by SEM. Figure [3a](#page-5-0) shows the microscopic morphology of raw $Ti₃AIC₂$, showing obvious massive structure as shown in Fig. [3](#page-5-0)b, the as-prepared $Ti₃C₂$ had an "accordion" structure after exfoliation [[41–43\]](#page-13-0), and the interlayers distance can be clearly observed. The surface of $Ti₃C₂$ after calcination became rough, and small particles formed on it (see Fig. [3](#page-5-0)c, d). Figure [3c](#page-5-0) is the SEM image of T-400. The surface particles are larger, and "accordion" structure disappears. Figure [3d](#page-5-0) shows the SEM image of T-Z-400 prepared by molten salt method. Comparing

Figure 2 TEM image of b T-Z-400, b Partial enlargement, c Partial enlargement.

Figure 3 SEM image of a Ti_3AIC_2 , b Ti_3C_2 , c T-400, d T-Z-400, e Ti element, f O element, g C element, h EDX spectra of T-Z-400.

Fig. 3c, d, it can be seen that the addition of $ZnCl₂$ helps to maintain the "accordion" structure, and the $TiO₂$ nanoparticles with the same particle size are uniformly attached to the surface and between the layers of the disordered graphite sheets. According to EDS analysis (see Fig. 3e–g), T-Z-400 samples contained three elements: Ti, C and O, further confirming that the samples are $C-TiO₂$. Figure 3h is the EDS spectrum of T-Z-400 sample. No other elements are introduced into the sample by molten salt method except for O element, and XPS also confirms this (Fig. [4](#page-6-0)).

XPS analysis

The elemental states of T-Z-400 and T-400 samples were characterized by XPS. Ti2p curves in Fig. [4](#page-6-0)a were fitted into two peaks: 458.33 eV (Ti $2p_{3/2}$) and 464.03 eV (Ti $2P_{1/2}$) attributing to Ti–O bond of TiO₂ [[44\]](#page-13-0). As can be seen from Fig. [4](#page-6-0)b, C1s spectrum shows two obvious peaks at 284.4 eV and 287.78 eV, which are the characteristic peaks of C–C bond and C–O bond, respectively. The relative strength of C–C bond is relatively high, indicating that C–C bond is the main form of C in the sample. The C–O bond

Figure 4 .High-resolution XPS spectra of T-Z-400 and T-400 a survey spectrum; b Ti 2p; c C 1 s; d O 1 s.

exists but no C=O or C–O–T band detected indicates that there is no carbon doping in T-Z-400 sample [\[45–47](#page-13-0)]. As is shown in Fig. 4c, regarding O1s XPS spectrum, the peak at 529.58 eV is attributed to Ti–O– Ti (lattice oxygen), and the small peak at 531.1 eV indicates the existence of partial oxygen vacancies in T-Z-400 sample. Figure 4d–f shows the Ti2p, C1s and O1s curves of T-400 sample. By comparison with the XPS diagram of T-Z-400 prepared by molten salt method and T-400, almost no difference in element distribution and bonding is detected.

Moreover, the characteristic peaks of the T-Z-400 sample are in full agreement with those of anatase $TiO₂$ in the XRD pattern and each diffraction peak does not shift, which indicates that no other crystalline substances exists in the sample and the element doping can be excluded. SEM mapping results show that there three elements of Ti, C and O exist, while Zn element is absent. According to the XPS characterization analysis in previous literature, Zn 2p owns corresponding peaks at 1028 and 1052 eV, however, which were not detected in of T-Z-400 sample (see full spectrum Fig. S2).

FT-IR analysis

Figure [5](#page-7-0) shows the FT-IR diagram of the obtained samples, whose locations absorption peaks are nearly the same (wave number 1171 $\rm cm^{-1}$). It may be caused by the stretching vibration of C–C bond indicating that all the samples contain carbon layer.

Raman analysis

The structural information of $C-TiO₂$ and the carbon existence were further identified by Raman scattering measurement. In Fig. [6](#page-7-0), seven vibration spectra appear for the T-Z-400 and T-400 samples. The characteristic peaks of 150 cm^{-1} , 202 cm^{-1} , 391 cm^{-1} ,

 W avenumber $(cm⁻¹)$

Figure 5 The FT-IR spectra of T-Z-350, T-Z-400, T-Z-450 and T-400.

Figure 6 Raman pattern of T-Z-400 and T-400.

501 cm⁻¹ and 636 cm⁻¹ belong to anatase type TiO₂, which was consistent with the XRD results. There were two characteristic peaks of graphite carbon at 1571 cm^{-1} (G band) and disordered graphite structure 1397 cm^{-1} (the D band), respectively, which indicates the existence of free carbon phase. A slight difference in the intensity of two bands $(I_D \text{ and } I_G)$ of the T-Z-400 and T-400 is observed. Composite catalyst prepared without molten salts is able to promote graphitization, but the carbon production is relatively higher for the composite catalyst by molten salt method. Based on the XRD, XRF, TEM, and XPS results above, it can be confirmed that $Ti₃C₂$ almost chemically converted to $TiO₂$ and C at calcination

temperatures higher than 400° C using the molten salt method.

UV–Vis analysis

DRS and the calculated band gap are presented in Fig. [7](#page-8-0). Analysis of Fig. 7a shows that all $Ti₃C₂$ MXene-derived $C-TiO₂$ samples exhibited significantly enhanced absorbance in the ultraviolet region. The Ti_3C_2 shows absorption of the visible region, due to its black color [\[48](#page-13-0)]. The absorption capacity of T-Z-400 in visible light region is the highest, which may be due to the low crystallinity of $TiO₂$ nanoparticles after the addition of $ZnCl₂$. Although some C has been doped into $TiO₂$ according to the XPS results, C- $TiO₂$ (T-Z-400 with the determined band gap width 3.05 eV) has obvious absorption to UV light but almost no absorption to visible light, as shown in Fig. [7](#page-8-0)b. The influence of doping on energy band greatly depends on doping position and amount [[49,](#page-13-0) [50\]](#page-13-0), which needs further investigations.

PL analysis

In order to further understand the photocatalytic mechanism of $C-TiO₂$ photocatalyst, the photoelectron–hole pair recombination behavior was investigated by photoluminescence (PL). The corresponding results are shown in Fig. [8](#page-8-0). The spectra of all samples were tested at 350 nm excitation wavelength. It was well known that the weaker emission peak reflects the better separation of photogenerated charge, which indicates a more efficient photocatalytic performance [[51\]](#page-13-0). The intensity of T-Z-400 emission peak was lower than that of T-400, which proves that T-Z-400 has better separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers.

Electrochemical analysis

In Fig. [9](#page-9-0)a, the transient photocurrent response of all samples is shown. The T-Z-400 exhibits the highest photocurrent response (photocurrent density 0.67 μ A/cm²), indicating a good interfacial charge transfer [[52\]](#page-13-0). And the charge transfer resistance of the samples was determined through Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (Fig. [9b](#page-9-0)). The T-Z-400 has the smallest arc radius, which means it has the least resistance during charge transfer. Figure [9c](#page-9-0), d is the Mott–Schottky M–S diagram of T-400

Figure 7 a DRS spectra of C–TiO₂ and Ti₃C₂, b band gap distribution of C–TiO₂.

Figure 8 Photoluminescence spectra of photocatalyst.

and T-Z-400 sample, respectively, which shows that the flat band potentials of T-400 and T-Z-400 are $- 0.69$ eV and $- 0.66$ eV. Considering that the potential difference between saturated calomel electrode and standard hydrogen electrode is 0.245 eV, therefore, the conduction band potential of T-400 and T-Z-400 is calculated to be $-$ 0.445 eV and $-$ 0.415 eV (vs. NHE, $pH = 7$), respectively, which is more negative than the reduction potentials of hydrogen and meets the thermodynamic requirements of photocatalytic hydrogen production. Combined with the band gap widths, we can conclude that the valence band potential of T-400 and T-Z-400 samples is 2.695 eV and 2.635 eV respectively (vs. NHE, $pH = 7$). Figure [9](#page-9-0) reveals that T-Z-400 has higher photogenerated carrier separation efficiency and faster charge trans-fer efficiency [\[53](#page-13-0)].

The series resistance (Rs), parallel resistance (Rct) and capacitance (CPE) of the sample were obtained by simulation software fitting based on the equivalent circuit diagram in EIS diagram. As shown in Table [2](#page-9-0), T-Z-400 sample has the minimum resistance and maximum capacitance, which proves that T-Z-400 has the highest electrochemical activity.

BET analysis

 N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms and pore size distribution of $Ti₃C₂$, T-400 and T-Z-400 are shown in Fig. [10](#page-10-0). A distinct hysteresis loop between adsorption and desorption could be observed in Fig. [10](#page-10-0)a, which demonstrates the presence of a mesopore (2–50 nm). It is observed in Fig. [10](#page-10-0)b that the pore size distributions of Ti_3C_2 , T-400 and T-Z-400 are very similar. The high specific surface area and mesoporous structure of T-Z-400 samples enable it to have more light adsorption and active sites, which is conducive to improving the photocatalytic activity [\[54](#page-14-0)].

Table [3](#page-10-0) shows that the specific surface area and pore volume of T-400 and T-Z-400 are significantly increased compared with $Ti₃C₂$, which is attributed to the formation of a large number of nanosized $TiO₂$ particles after calcination (confirmed by XRD and XRF) and leaving structural defects by oxidation. Compared with T-400, the increase in pore volume and pore size of T-Z-400 may be caused by the increased interlayer space due to the addition of $ZnCl₂$. And the proportion of pores with larger size in T-Z-400 is relatively large as shown in Fig. [10b](#page-10-0)). It is worth noting that the SBET of T-400 is higher than that of T-Z-400, which may be affected by the

Figure 9 a Photocurrent response profiles, b electrochemical impedance spectrum, c Mott–Schottky plot of T-400, d Mott–Schottky plot of T-Z-400.

Table 2 The fitting data of EIS

	$T-Z-350$	$T-Z-400$	$T-Z-450$	T-400
$\text{Rs }(\Omega)$	25.74	18.78	25.49	20.3
$Rct(\Omega)$	$6.499E+5$ 45.15		9466	$5.283E + 5$
CPE $(\mu F/cm^2)$		$2.189E - 5$ $4.613E - 5$ $3.108E - 5$ $2.13E - 5$		

difference in the generated $TiO₂$ (including content, crystallinity, size and intercrystalline pore). And the amount of residual carbon and its structural defects also affected the SBET. On the whole, the deep oxidation of $Ti₃C₂$ increased the overall specific surface area of the catalyst, and the supplemental XRF characterization (Table [1\)](#page-4-0) showed that the $TiO₂$ content of T-400 was much greater than that of T-Z-400, thus resulting in a higher SBET. The high activity of T-Z-400 at a lower specific surface area indicates that composition and structure of the composite catalyst play a more dominant role in the activity.

Photocatalytic activity

The photocatalytic activity of $C-TiO₂$ was evaluated under full spectral irradiation. Figure [11](#page-10-0)a shows the comparison of photocatalytic H_2 production activities of T-Z-350, T-Z-400, T-Z-450 and T-400. With the increase of calcination temperature, H_2 production efficiency increases first and then decreases. This may be because the low calcination temperature of T-Z-350 results in less $TiO₂$ content and low absorbance. The higher calcination temperature of T-Z-450 increases the crystallinity of $TiO₂$, but excessive $TiO₂$ stacked together without intimate combination with disordered graphite sheets will affect the mobility of photogenerated electrons, thus limiting the utilization of light. T-Z-400 has the highest H_2 production efficiency of 2.3 mmol/ h/g , 5.4 times that of T-400 and twice that of P25. As shown in Fig. [11](#page-10-0)b, T-400 exhibits H_2 evolution rate as low as 0.425 mmol/h/g, which may be due to the collapse of disordered graphite sheets in the calcination process, resulting in the decrease of pore volume and aperture, thus to

Figure 10 a N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of Ti₃C₂, T-400 and T-Z-400, b pore size distribution of Ti₃C₂, T-400 and T-Z-400.

Table 3 Specific surface area, pore volume and pore size distribution

Sample	$S_{\rm BET}$ (m ² /g)	V_{total} (cm ³ /g)	D (nm)
Ti_3C_2 $T-400$	36.74 197.82	0.074 0.24	8.07 4.92
$T-Z-400$	138.32	0.31	8.81

lower the migration rate of photocarriers and the activity of photocatalytic reaction. In addition, T-Zl-400 and T-Z_m-400 exhibit 0.879 and 2.291 mmol/h/ $gH₂$ evolution rate, respectively, which indicates that little different exists in the hydrogen production activity for the prepared catalysts calcined within the enough molten salts. However, insufficient molten salts reduced the catalytic activity of the catalysts, where the calcination environment was close to that without molten salts.

Cycling photocatalytic stability over T-Z-400 seems not meet expectations (Fig. S3). The photocatalytic H_2 production shows a significant attenuation caused by the pore-like structural damage (Fig. S4) on the sample surface even in the sample interior after 3 cyclic runs of photocatalytic H_2 production. The cause and avoidance of such performance attenuation and structural damage may be the focus of the subsequent research.

Photocatalytic mechanism

Figure [12](#page-11-0) is a schematic diagram of the photocatalytic hydrogen generation mechanism of $C-TiO₂$. The carbon produced plays an important role. On the one hand, under sunlight irradiation, according to the basic principle of photocatalytic semiconductor, electrons from the valence band of $TiO₂$ transfer to the conduction band. Due to the good electrical conductivity of amorphous carbon, electrons will be

Figure 11 a Photocatalytic H₂ production for C–TiO₂, **b** H₂ production histogram.

Figure 12 The schematic illustration of photocatalytic hydrogen production of $C-TiO₂$.

further transferred to the graphite carbon and react with H^+ and H_2O to produce H_2 , while the H^+ in the valence band will be consumed by the triethanolamine reaction. The effect of the produced graphite carbon is better than $Ti₃C₂$, which can be confirmed by our experimental results and others [\[33](#page-13-0)]. On the other hand, the formation of carbon can change the overall light absorption of the catalyst. XPS results confirm that under our experimental conditions, part of C–O bonds formed, and C replaced Ti, which did not promote the absorption of visible light. Therefore, experimental conditions may be further optimized in the future to solve the problem of visible light absorption. Moreover, more reaction sites can be added only when $TiO₂$ grows uniformly on amorphous graphite carbon instead of stacking. The addition of $ZnCl₂$ has a certain effect on the expansion of layer spacing, and molten salt can inhibit the abnormal growth of $TiO₂$ grain, thus reducing the grain size. In summary, the recombination efficiency of photoelectron–hole pair is reduced and the process of photocatalytic hydrogen production is accelerated.

Conclusions

In conclusion, we successfully prepared $C-TiO₂$ composite photocatalyst by using $Ti₃C₂$ as precursor through simple molten salt method. The $TiO₂$ is located between disordered graphite sheets, which facilitates the separation of photogenerated carriers. The calcination temperature has a certain effect on the optical and photocatalytic properties. T-Z-400 exhibits significant hydrogen evolution activity due to suitable light absorption, low photocarrier recombination rate, high electron transfer efficiency, and abundant active sites. Using 3 wt% Pt as cocatalyst,

T-Z-400 showed excellent photocatalytic hydrogen production performance of 2.3 mmol/ g/h . This study opens up a new idea for the preparation of high efficiency and low-cost $TiO₂$ base photocatalysts with $Ti₃C₂$. It is believed that the most important role of $ZnCl₂$ is to delay the oxidation rate; therefore, it ensures that when $Ti₃C₂$ is completely oxidized to $TiO₂$, the $TiO₂$ has relatively smaller grains and more C retains, which led to a suitable composition of the catalyst, so as to obtain a better hydrogen production performance.

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Declarations

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

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