



Mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals for photocatalytic pure water splitting

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ABSTRACT Semiconductor mesoporous single crystals have attracted considerable attention due to the merits of excellent light absorption ability and large surface area for photocatalysis capability. However, most of the materials have a relative large size (~ μm), which can hardly suppress the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes. In this work, we synthesized a series of nano mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals (brookite and rutile) with high carrier transfer efficiency, improved mass transfer and diffusion abilities, which are crucial for the outstanding photocatalytic performance. Meanwhile, the key factors in the growth process and mechanism of the mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals were addressed. With the assistance of Pt nanoparticles, H₂ and H₂O₂ production can be simultaneously achieved and the efficiencies can reach up to 9.46 ± 0.56 and $3.29 \pm 1.28 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively. The H₂ evolution rate is 2.8-fold higher than that of the reported TiO₂ nanoparticle catalyst ($3.34 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$). The excellent photocatalytic efficiency can be attributed to the special mixed crystal structure of the mesoporous TiO₂ crystals. This work provides new ideas and guidance for precise synthesis of nano mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals and enhancing their water splitting performance with high value-added products.

Keywords: mesoporous TiO₂, mixed crystal, photocatalytic water splitting, hydrogen, hydrogen peroxide

INTRODUCTION

Mesoporous materials with large specific surface area, high porosity, adjustable structure and pore size distribution, have attracted extensive attention in various fields, such as photocatalysis, dye-sensitized solar cells, and lithium ion batteries [1]. TiO₂ mesoporous single

crystals (MSCs) have been extensively applied in photocatalysis due to the merits of nontoxicity, stability and low cost [1–3]. So far, various methods for the synthesis of TiO₂ MSCs have been reported, including hydrothermal method [2,4–11], template method [12–20], self-assembly method [16,21,22] and sol-gel method [23–26]. Various TiO₂ MSCs possessing different morphologies, such as sphere [4,9,10,16,22,27], rodlike [13,19], cuboid [2,16,20,23], network [12,15], have been obtained. However, most of them were in micron scale [2,4,9,10,12,16,21,22,27] and more easily led to carrier recombination [20,28–30]. Nano TiO₂ MSCs possess the advantages of shorter carrier migration distance and more favorable mass transfer and diffusion conditions. Therefore, controllable synthesis of nano TiO₂ MSCs to promote the efficiencies of photogenerated charge separation, light absorption and increase the active sites is desired [31–33].

Up to now, most of the applied TiO₂ MSCs are anatase. Although they have strong reducing capacities, they are not suitable for pure water splitting due to the unsuitable depth of electron-trap. It has been confirmed that the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ is related to the depth of electron-trap, and brookite has the suitable depth of electron-trap compared with anatase and rutile to photocatalyze water oxidation and reduction [34,35]. Therefore, brookite is a promising material to achieve photocatalytic pure water splitting. Furthermore, the mixed-phase TiO₂ possesses a higher photocatalytic performance than the single-phase TiO₂ due to the better electron separation ability [36–40]. In this work, brookite-rutile mixed-phase TiO₂ was chosen as the model material for discussion, which has improved charge se-

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paration and photocatalytic ability due to its energy band structure and interfacial properties [41]. The nano mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals (brookite and rutile) in this work was prepared by a novel and simplified method for photocatalytic pure water splitting with high value-added H₂ and H₂O₂ as the products. The enhanced photocatalytic activity is due to its nanometer size, mesoporous structure and mixed crystal effect. This work provides a promising strategy for synthesizing mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals with excellent photocatalytic pure water splitting performance.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Chemical materials

Hydrochloric acid (HCl), ethylalcohol, methanol, sodium hydroxide and titanium tetrachloride (TiCl₄) were purchased from Beijing Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. H₂PtCl₆ and 3,3'-dimethyldiphenylamine were obtained from J&K Scientific Ltd. Titanium butoxide (TBT) was purchased from Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd. 420840-LUDOX[®] AS-40 colloidal silica was purchased from Aldrich.

Preparation of seeded templates

First, 300 μL of TiCl₄ aqueous solution (3 mol L⁻¹) was added into 30 mL of 22-nm colloidal silica with stirring in a 80°C water bath for 1 h. Then the mixture was transferred to an oven for drying at 80°C for 12 h and calcinated at 300°C for 2 h in a muffle.

Preparation of mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals

The mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals were prepared by a silica-templated hydrothermal method. First, 20 mL of deionized water was mixed with 20 mL of concentrated HCl and stirred for 5 min at room temperature. Then 800 μL of TBT was added into the mixture and stirred for 5 min, and 800 mg of seeded silica templates was added subsequently to the solution. Then, the reactor was transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (200 mL-volume) and heated at 180°C for 12 h. After that, the silica templates were removed by sodium hydroxide solution (3 mol L⁻¹) at 80°C. Then the mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals were collected by centrifugation and washed with deionized water and ethanol twice, respectively, then dried at 80°C for 12 h. Pt nanoparticles (NPs) were loaded by an *in-situ* photo-deposition method in a methanol solution (3 mL of methanol and 20 mL of deionized water) with H₂PtCl₆ (1 wt% Pt in the sample) as the precursor. The suspension

was centrifuged after 1 h of UV light irradiation and dried at 80°C for 12 h to remove the remaining methanol and water.

Photocatalytic reaction

The as-prepared Pt/TiO₂ hybrid (1 mg) was dispersed in 20 mL of deionized water in a sealed quartz reactor. The dissolved gas was removed by being purged with argon flow for 30 min, then the suspensions were irradiated with a 500 W Hg lamp under magnetic stirring at room temperature (25°C). The evolved H₂ in the gas phase was examined by a Techcomp gas chromatography (GC-7900) with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD), 5 Å molecular sieve columns and Ar carrier.

The H₂O₂ detection method

The hydrogen peroxide was determined in 2.0 mL of reaction suspension. A 0.5 mL-volume indicator (1% *o*-toluidine in 0.1 mol L⁻¹ HCl) was added to the suspension and the mixture reacted for 10 min at room temperature. The color of the suspension turned to blue. Then 2.0 mL of HCl (1.0 mol L⁻¹) was added to the mixture, and the color turned to yellow immediately. After centrifugation, the absorption spectrum of the supernate was measured by a UV-vis spectrophotometer. The characteristic maximum at 438 nm of absorption spectrum belongs to 2-electron oxidized toluidine.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Mesoporous structure not only provides a large surface area and pore volume, but also offers an improved channel for the transport of reactants and products [5,42]. The formation of mesoporous structure is related to many factors, such as hydrothermal temperature [9] and crystallization ion environment [22]. In this work, we adjusted these conditions to obtain the sample with mesoporous structure in nanoscale.

The silica template hydrothermal method is the most widely used method to synthesize mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals. In this work, a novel method was introduced by modifying the size of template and simplifying the step for seed growth. Fig. 1 illustrates the synthetic process of nano mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals. In step 1, the TiCl₄ and SiO₂ nanospheres were mixed and seeded by a simple gelation and sintering method rather than the complicated traditional method [18]. In step 2, the crystal grew in the silicon template under different conditions by varying the temperature, reaction time, concentrations of HCl and TBT. The silica template was etched with NaOH to obtain samples with good

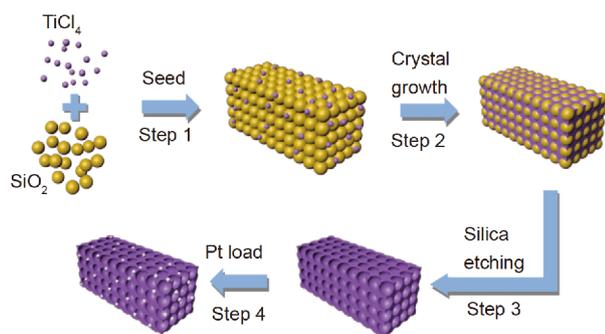


Figure 1 Schematic diagram of the synthesis process.

morphology preservation in step 3. Finally, the Pt NPs were loaded by *in-situ* photodeposition to obtain Pt/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

The key factors affecting the crystal phase and crystallinity

The performance of catalyst relates to many factors, such as crystallinity, surface area and surface properties [18,19]. The crystallization time, temperature and ionic environment significantly affect the crystallinity of materials. Fig. 2a shows the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns

of mesoporous TiO₂ mixed crystals, according well with the standard brookite (JCPDS No. 29-1360) and rutile (JCPDS No. 21-1276). It is obvious that the crystallinity improves with prolonging reaction time. Brookite phase is the dominant product (~88%) with rutile phase accounting for a proportion of ~12% at 12 h (the calculation method is referred to Zhang *et al.* [43]). The crystallization process consists of the nucleation and crystal growth, and the products are poorly crystallized at the beginning of the reaction. After 2 h, the crystal begins to grow and tends toward stabilized crystallinity [44]. As shown in Fig. 2c, d, with the increase of hydrothermal temperature, the crystallinity of the sample becomes higher and the content of brookite becomes stable. The Raman spectra (Fig. S1a) are also consistent with the above results. The bands located at 153 and 332 cm⁻¹ are assigned to brookite, and the bands located at 449 and 610 cm⁻¹ are attributed to rutile [45–47]. Under sufficient reaction time, the relatively high temperature is conducive to improving the crystallinity of materials [9,44]. So, the reaction time and temperature are important factors for the crystallinity.

During the formation of TiO₂ crystal, the crystal phase

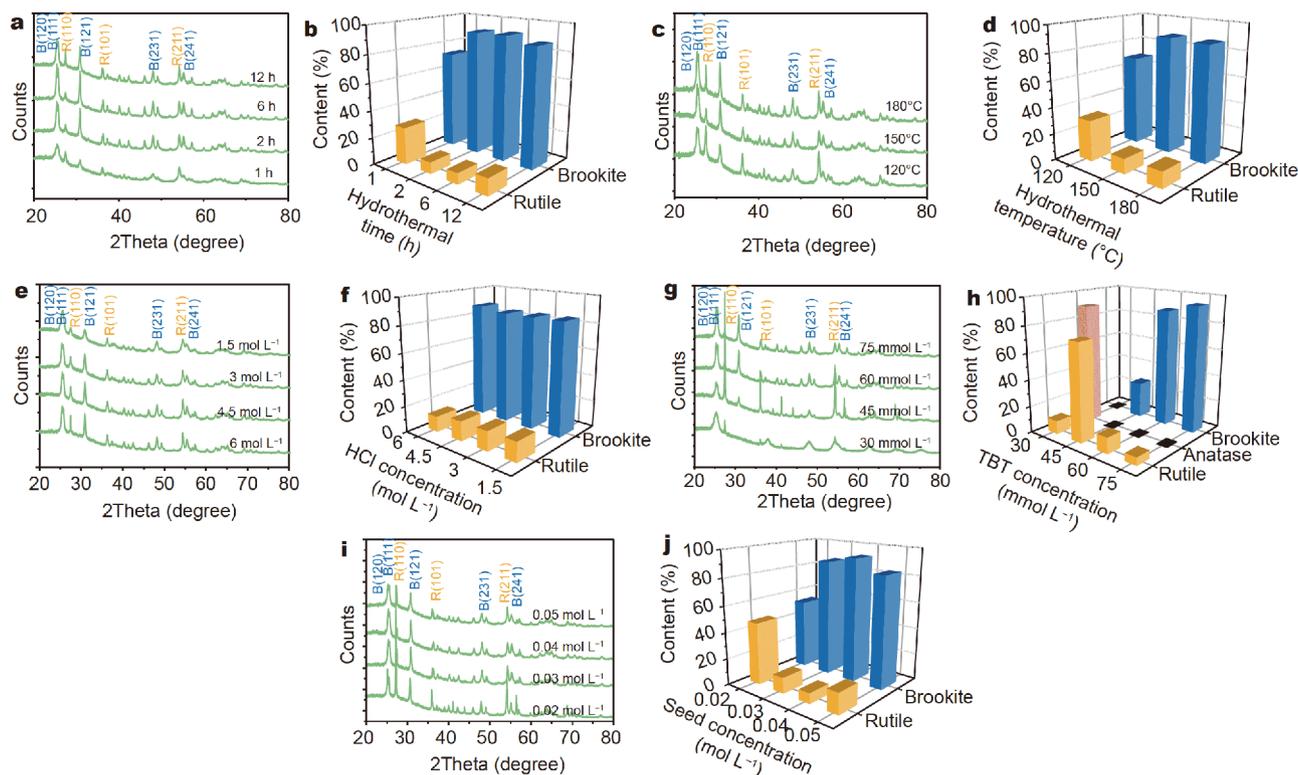


Figure 2 XRD patterns and contents of different crystal phases of the samples obtained at different hydrothermal times (a, b), hydrothermal temperatures (c, d), HCl concentrations (e, f), TBT concentrations (g, h), and seed concentrations (i, j).

has a direct relationship with the connection modes of $[\text{TiO}_6]$ octahedra precursors and the acidity greatly influences the number of shared edges of the $[\text{TiO}_6]$ octahedra by OH ligands. Rutile with two shared edges is easy to form at low pH, while anatase with four shared edges prefers to be obtained at a high pH value. A suitable pH value between them will facilitate the formation of brookite with three shared edges [39,41]. In this work, the pH of reaction media in silicon template is 9.1, which is suitable for the formation of brookite. However, the hydrolysis control agent out of silicon template is HCl, and therefore, in the initial reaction stage, the high concentration of HCl is beneficial to the formation of rutile [48]. The HCl concentration decreases in the silicon template as the reaction goes on and the proportion of brookite increases and stabilizes ultimately. Therefore, the pH value has a close relationship with the TiO_2 crystal phase.

Apart from that, the species and concentration of ions in the crystallization environment also have important impact on crystallinity [18,19]. Seen from the XRD patterns in Fig. 2e, g, and Raman spectra in Fig. S1b, c, with the increasing concentrations of HCl and TBT, the sample with high crystallinity can be obtained. It is proposed that the supersaturation of precursors has an effect on crystallization, and higher supersaturation is beneficial to crystal growth [49] because a high concentration of precursor can provide enough ions for the crystal growth. Notably, although the concentration of HCl has an influence on the crystallinity, it has no influence on the crystal phase (Fig. 2e, f). By contrast, the concentration of TBT has a great impact on the crystal phase. At low TBT concentration, the sample consisted of anatase and rutile, because only a small number of Ti^{4+} were involved in the formation of rutile. Meanwhile, the anatase was derived from the seed crystal encapsulated in the SiO_2 template. At this stage, brookite phase did not form. When the TBT concentration increased to 45 mmol L^{-1} , anatase phase disappeared and the sample consisted of brookite and rutile, with rutile as the main phase. Until the TBT concentration increased to 60 mmol L^{-1} , the brookite became the major phase. Because at the low TBT concentration, the concentration of Ti^{4+} diffused into templates was low and rutile could easily form at the shallow layer of the template. Only when the concentration of Ti^{4+} increased to a certain degree, the brookite could be obtained in the bulk of template. In addition, seed concentration also has a close relationship with the phase of the product. As shown in Fig. 2i, j, both lower and higher seed concentrations are conducive to the formation of

rutile.

In conclusion, the reaction temperature and time not only affect the crystallinity of samples, but also significantly affect the formation of different crystal phases, just as the key ions (Ti^{4+}) do. With the appropriate hydrothermal temperature and reaction time, HCl and TBT control the supersaturation of the precursor to affect the crystal formation simultaneously.

The key factors affecting the morphology

The aspects for morphology optimization were discussed. Fig. 3 shows the growth of the sample with prolonging hydrothermal time. First, small NPs formed within ~ 1 h. As the crystallization time increased, mesoporous structures gradually formed in 2 h. Further prolonging to 12 h, the size reached about 320 nm with the morphology and size becoming stable. On the basis of dynamic balance and crystal growth theory, the crystallization process includes nucleation and crystal growth. The nucleus is firstly formed at the seed and with the time prolonging, the equilibrium state moves towards crystallization, and then the size of crystal gets larger [48,50]. After 1 h of reaction, the crystal just formed but did not have mesoporous morphology. The crystal growth during the period of 2–12 h enabled the crystal to obtain the complete mesoporous mixed crystal morphology with a larger size.

Hydrothermal temperature also has a significant effect

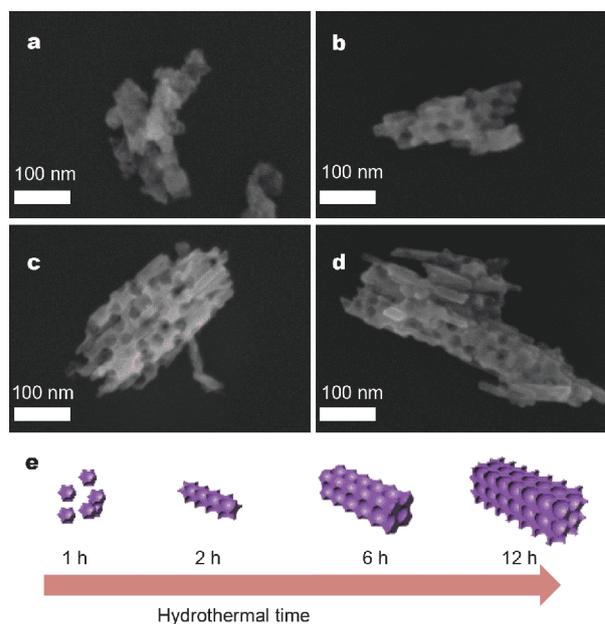


Figure 3 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the samples obtained at different hydrothermal times: (a) 1 h, (b) 2 h, (c) 6 h, (d) 12 h; (e) diagram of samples at different times.

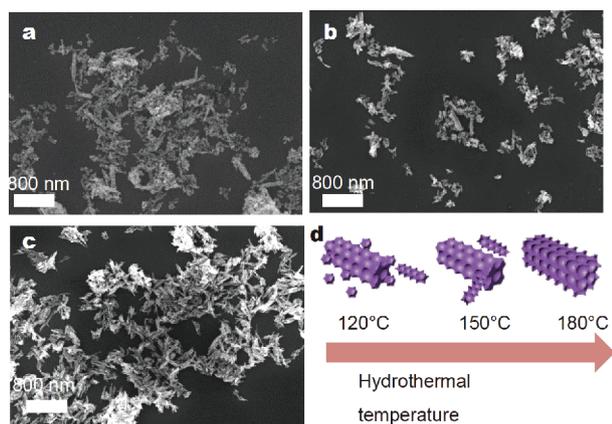


Figure 4 SEM images of the samples at various hydrothermal temperatures: (a) 120°C, (b) 150°C, (c) 180°C; (d) diagram of samples at various hydrothermal temperatures.

on the crystallization process. As shown in Fig. 4, some TiO₂ NPs were formed accompanied by mesoporous crystals at low temperature (120°C). When the temperature was raised up to 150°C, NPs disappeared and mesoporous fragments appeared. As the temperature continued to rise to 180°C, there were only mesoporous crystals. Therefore, the hydrothermal temperature affected both the crystallization rate and crystal size [18]. According to Arrhenius formula, the rate constant of hydrothermal reaction increases with temperature [50], and higher temperatures favor the formation of larger crystals [44]. So, some seeds just grow to particles or fragments at a low temperature. At higher temperature, faster crystallization rate enables the formation of larger size mesoporous crystals at a certain seed concentration and avoids the generation of particles or fragments. As a result, with the increasing temperature, the sample tends to be uniform.

The HCl concentration also has a great influence on the morphology. As shown in Fig. 5, at high concentration of HCl (6 mol L⁻¹), mesoporous crystals were obtained. With decreasing concentration of HCl, mesoporous structure gradually decreased, and NPs appeared. When the concentration of HCl decreased to 1.5 mol L⁻¹, mesoporous crystals were totally replaced by NPs. When the concentration of HCl increased to 7.5 and 9 mol L⁻¹, the samples did not show mesoporous morphology (Fig. S2c, d). These phenomena may be attributed to the effect of HCl on the hydrolysis rate of TBT. High concentration of HCl can slow down the hydrolysis rate of TBT to reduce the number of nuclei, resulting in larger crystals [51]. As the concentration of HCl decreases, the rate of hydrolysis of TBT increases and too many crystal nuclei form,

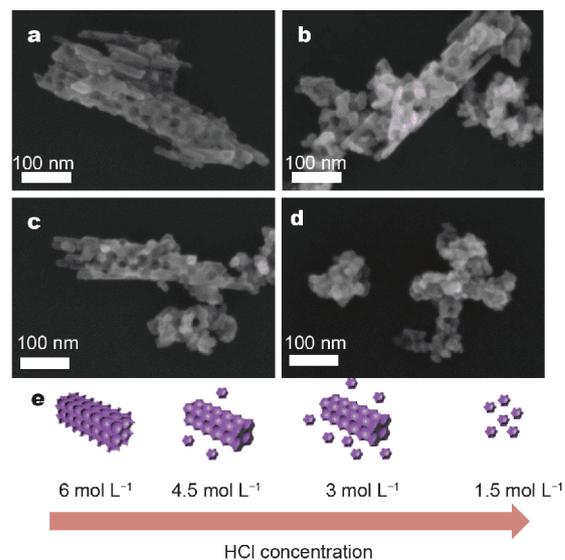


Figure 5 SEM images of the samples at a series of HCl concentrations: (a) 6 mol L⁻¹, (b) 4.5 mol L⁻¹, (c) 3 mol L⁻¹, (d) 1.5 mol L⁻¹; (e) diagram of samples at different HCl concentrations.

leading to the formation of small particles.

The concentration of TBT has a positive correlation with the size of the crystals. Only NPs were obtained at a low concentration of TBT (30 mmol L⁻¹, Fig. 6 and Fig. S2a, b). When the concentration of TBT increased to 45 mmol L⁻¹, small size mesoporous fragments appeared. The complete MSCs were obtained when the concentration of TBT was above 60 mmol L⁻¹. High concentration

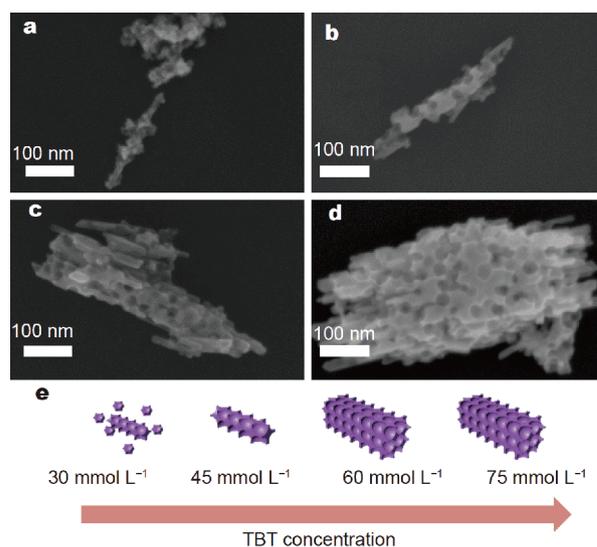


Figure 6 SEM images of the samples at different TBT concentrations: (a) 30 mmol L⁻¹, (b) 45 mmol L⁻¹, (c) 60 mmol L⁻¹, (d) 75 mmol L⁻¹; (e) diagram of samples at different TBT concentrations.

of precursor can effectively promote the nucleation and growth of crystals [52]. At low concentration of titanium source, there were not enough Ti^{4+} for the growth of complete morphology. And when the Ti^{4+} concentration reached to a certain value, the crystal morphology was not affected any more by increasing the concentration of TBT.

By contrast, seed concentration has a negative correlation with the size of the crystals. As shown in Fig. 7, at low seed concentration (0.01 mol L^{-1}), the large size mesoporous crystals can reach $1 \mu\text{m}$ in length. With the increase of seed concentration, the sizes of the crystals decrease and some fragments appear at the high seed concentration (0.05 mol L^{-1}). Therefore, the size of the mesoporous crystal is greatly affected by the template seed concentration. At a low seed concentration, there were plenty of space for crystal growth around the seed and enough Ti^{4+} were involved in the crystallization. With the increase of seed concentration and shrinking space caused by the steric hindrance effect, the size of the crystal decreased and the crystal growth space and the amount of Ti^{4+} were not enough to generate large mesoporous crystal, so that small size crystals and fragments were obtained. This result was consistent with previous report [18].

Fig. S3 shows the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the samples synthesized with different conditions and high resolution TEM (HRTEM) images of mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals. The lattice spacing of

0.347 and 0.325 nm can be ascribed to the brookite (111) and rutile (110) facets, respectively, [41,46,53–55], which proves that the materials are mixed crystals.

In conclusion, the mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals with better crystallization and complete morphology can be obtained at appropriate hydrothermal temperature, time, concentrations of crystal seed, HCl and TBT. Seed density controls the growth space of the crystal in the template. TBT provides the raw material for crystal growth, and HCl affects the nucleation and growth by controlling the rate of hydrolysis of TBT. The samples can be obtained with suitable size of growth space, adequate precursor and appropriate precursor hydrolysis rate.

The photoelectric and photocatalysis performances of the nano mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals

Based on the above analyses, we found that the reaction temperature, concentrations of HCl and TBT greatly affect the morphology and crystallization of the mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals. To evaluate their photocatalytic performances, selected materials were applied. As shown in the UV-vis absorption spectra (Fig. S4), all samples exhibit obvious absorbance in the UV region. The samples obtained at different temperatures and TBT concentrations show a similar absorbance, while the absorbance increases with the decreasing concentration of HCl. The observed band gap of the samples are between 2.80 and 2.95 eV , due to the influence of both phases of brookite and rutile and the samples' different particle sizes [41,46,56]. Effective separation of photogenerated electron hole pairs is the guarantee of high photocatalytic water splitting efficiency. Transient photocurrent test and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) are common methods to characterize the charge separation and charge transfer efficiency of catalysts. The high photocurrent indicates an improved electron hole separation ability and the smaller radius in the Nyquist curve represents a better electron transfer efficiency [5,16,57]. As shown in Fig. 8a, b, all three samples show obvious transient photocurrent when the light is on, and the sample obtained at 150°C exhibits the highest current density at the beginning; however, it decays fast. By contrast, the sample synthesized at 180°C possesses the best charge separation and transfer ability, due to its good crystallinity and mesoporous morphology [58]. Fig. 8c, d shows the electrochemical properties of the samples obtained at different HCl concentrations. With the increase of HCl concentration, the current density increases and the impedance decreases, indicating better photoelectrochemical property. This relates to the good crystallinity

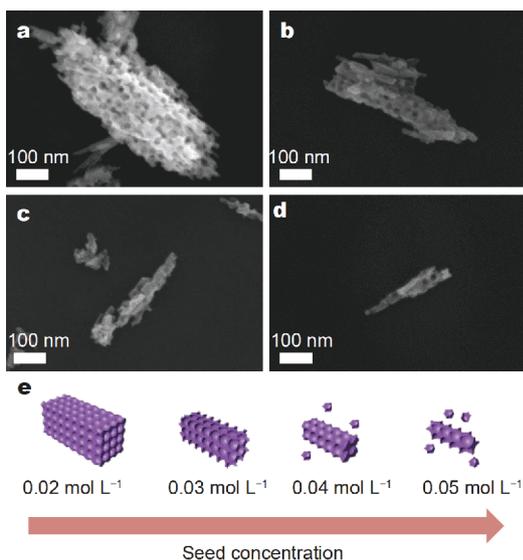


Figure 7 SEM images of the samples obtained at different seed concentrations: (a) 0.02 mol L^{-1} , (b) 0.03 mol L^{-1} , (c) 0.04 mol L^{-1} , (d) 0.05 mol L^{-1} ; (e) diagram of samples at various seed concentrations.

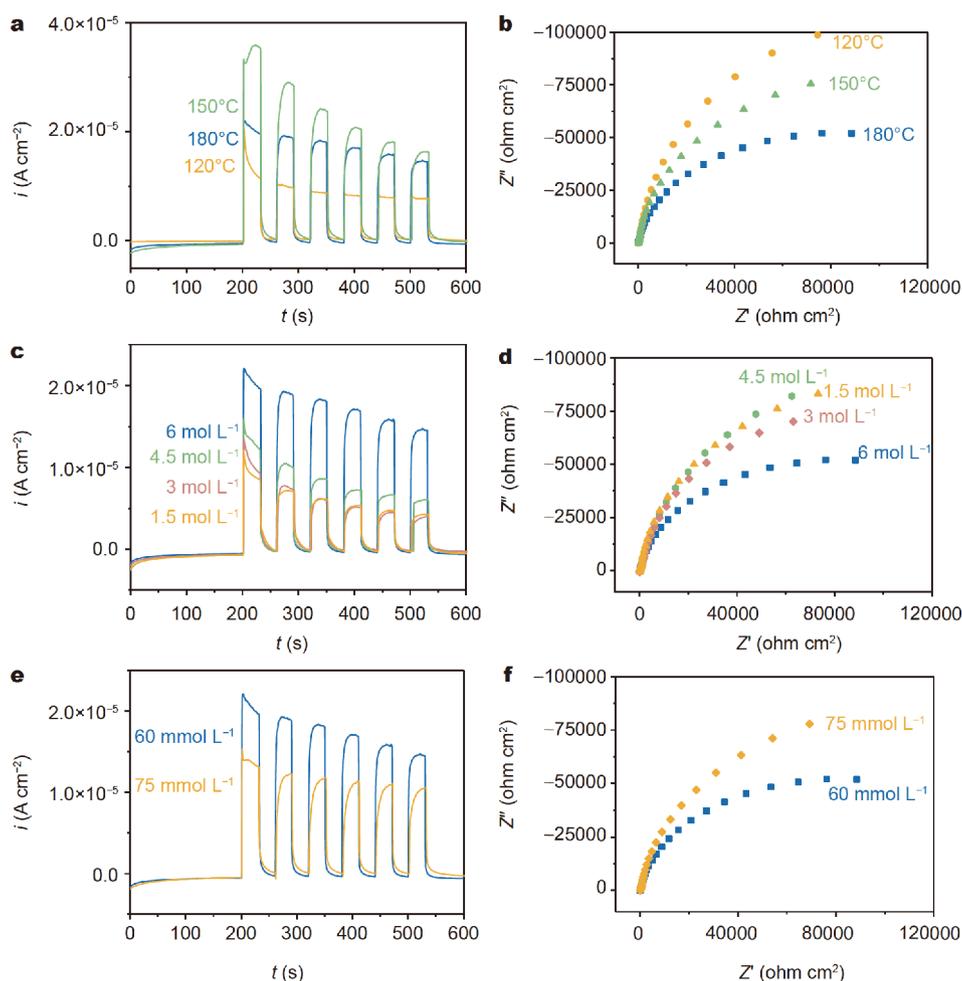


Figure 8 Transient photocurrent responses (a, c, e) and EIS spectra (b, d, f) of the samples obtained at different temperatures, HCl concentrations, and TBT concentrations, respectively.

and morphology of sample obtained at a high HCl concentration. As shown in Fig. 8e, f, the sample obtained at the TBT concentration of 60 mmol L⁻¹ exhibits a better photoelectrochemical property. In conclusion, the samples with better crystallinity and morphology demonstrate better charge separation and transfer ability.

Fluorescence spectroscopy can reflect the transfer and separation ability of photon-generated carriers. Fig. S5 shows the photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the samples excited at 315 nm. With the temperature increasing, the fluorescence intensity is suppressed, and the sample synthesized with 60 mmol L⁻¹ TBT and 6 mol L⁻¹ HCl shows the lowest emission, suggesting the faster carrier transfer efficiency and efficient carrier separation ability [59], which is consistent with the photoelectrochemical results.

The photocatalytic pure water splitting performance

and the effects of synthesis conditions on the activity of samples were evaluated based on the morphology, crystallization and photoelectric chemical properties. Pure water splits into H₂ and H₂O₂ in this system, and no oxygen is detected. The formation of H₂O₂ is due to the two-electron reaction of water oxidation, which has a kinetic advantage than the four-electron reaction [60–62]. Two ·OH radicals formed by water photo-oxidation dimerize into H₂O₂. So ·OH radical is the significant intermediate species in the photocatalytic oxidation reaction. As shown in Fig. S6, the electron spin resonance (ESR) results prove the formation of ·OH radicals with 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline-*N*-oxide (DMPO) as the ·OH radical trap. The signal of DMPO-·OH radical adduct (1:2:2:1, aN=aH=15.4G) was observed after 60 s UV light irradiation for the catalyst in pure water, illustrating the facilitated formation of ·OH radicals [60]. The X-ray

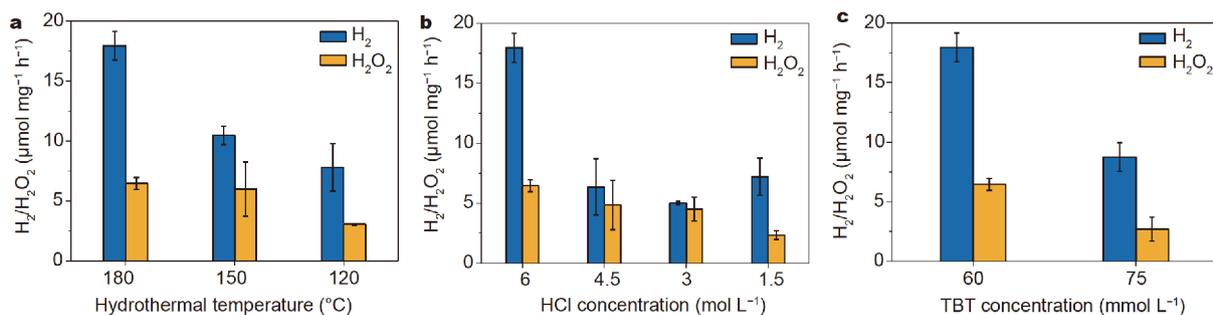


Figure 9 Photocatalytic activity of samples obtained at various hydrothermal temperatures (a), HCl concentrations (b), and TBT concentrations (c).

photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra further confirm the existence of abundant adsorbed $-\text{OH}$ on the TiO_2 surface leading to the formation of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals (Fig. S7). The peaks at 531.7 and 533.1 eV of O 1s indicated the amounts of $-\text{OH}$ and physisorbed water on the surface of the sample, respectively. Both peaks increased for the sample with UV light irradiation, indicating that the Pt/ TiO_2 had a modified hydrophilic surface and improved $-\text{OH}$ amount after irradiation [60,63]. Based on the above analyses, H_2O_2 was formed by the two-electron transfer process ($2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$).

Samples synthesized at higher temperatures show a better performance of hydrogen production due to the good crystallinity, charge separation and transfer ability [5,44] (Fig. 9a). As shown in Fig. 9b, the hydrogen production rate of the sample synthesized at high HCl concentration (6 mol L^{-1}) is higher than others, because mesoporous morphology obtained with the high HCl concentration ensures the charge transfer ability, resulting in the high activity. Besides, the sample obtained with 60 mmol L^{-1} TBT concentration (Fig. 9c) has a higher activity than that with a higher TBT concentration, probably due to its proper mixed crystal ratio.

The N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and pore size distribution curves of the samples demonstrate that the sample synthesized under the condition of 180°C , 1.5 mol L^{-1} HCl and 60 mmol L^{-1} TBT possesses the largest surface area ($94.924 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) and the sample obtained at 180°C , 6 mol L^{-1} HCl and 60 mmol L^{-1} TBT takes the second place (Fig. S8). However, the latter exhibits the highest photocatalytic performance because both large surface area and good crystallinity improve the charge separate and transfer efficiency.

Under optimized conditions, the mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals with Pt NPs as a cocatalyst achieve a high H_2 evolution activity of $9.46 \pm 0.56 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, which is 2.8-fold higher than the highest TiO_2 -based overall

water splitting system ever reported ($3.34 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) (Fig. S9a) [64]. And the rate of H_2O_2 production could reach $3.29 \pm 1.28 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. The increase of H_2O_2 is not obvious with the increase of irradiation time. It may be related to the adsorption of H_2O_2 on the surface of the catalyst. The system also exhibits an outstanding photocatalytic stability, which can maintain for more than 40 h (Fig. S9b). It is proposed that the excellent photocatalytic performance of mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals is related to the large surface area, porous structure and good crystallinity.

CONCLUSIONS

To improve the performance of TiO_2 in photocatalytic pure water splitting, nano scale mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals was firstly prepared in this paper. The synthetic protocol which affects the structures and properties of the materials is illustrated, including seed concentration, hydrothermal conditions and crystal growth environment. Appropriate crystallization time, reaction temperature and ionic concentrations are essential to obtain mesoporous TiO_2 mixed crystals with the high photocatalytic efficiency. Under optimized conditions, the H_2 and H_2O_2 production rates can reach up to 9.46 ± 0.56 and $3.29 \pm 1.28 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, respectively. The H_2 evolution rate is 2.8-fold higher than that of the reported TiO_2 -based overall water splitting catalyst ($3.34 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$). This work confirms that the photocatalytic performance can be enhanced by nano crystallization to improve the carrier transport efficiency, increase the reactivity surface and control the suitable conditions for mass transfer and diffusion.

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Supplementary information Supporting data are available in the online version of the paper.



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介孔混晶TiO₂光催化全分解水研究

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摘要 半导体介孔单晶具有良好的光吸收能力和较大的比表面积, 因而受到广泛关注. 但多数材料的尺寸较大(~ μm), 难以抑制光电子与空穴的复合. 在本工作中, 我们准确地合成了一系列载流子转移效率高、传质和扩散能力强的纳米介孔板钛矿-金红石TiO₂混晶. 同时, 详细研究了介孔TiO₂混晶生长的关键因素和机理. 以Pt纳米颗粒作为助催化剂, 实现了全分解水产氢气和过氧化氢, 氢气和过氧化氢的生成速率分别达到 9.46 ± 0.56 和 $3.29 \pm 1.28 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. 氢气产率是目前报道的TiO₂($3.34 \mu\text{mol mg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)的2.8倍. 介孔TiO₂晶体的纳米尺度和混合晶体结构使其具有优异的光催化效率. 本工作为纳米介孔TiO₂混合晶体的精准合成, 以及光催化全分解水制备高附加值产品提供了新思路.