

In situ synthesis of bowl-shaped TiO₂/C from MXene heat treatment for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction

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Abstract The *in situ* synthesis of TiO₂ semiconductor photocatalysts using Ti₃C₂ MXene materials offers a highly effective approach to mitigate environmental and energy challenges by selectively reducing CO₂ to valuable chemicals like CH₄. However, the transformation of Ti₃C₂ into TiO₂ is usually accompanied by severe agglomeration of particles, which leads to a reduction in the number of intrinsic active sites, adversely affecting the adsorption and conversion of CO₂. To address this problem, polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) was employed as a hard template to fabricate a bowl-shaped TiO₂ supported on carbon layer (TiO₂/C) hybrid photocatalyst by a calcination method. The results showed that the obtained sample had a sufficiently large specific surface area and numerous active sites for CO₂ adsorption and activation. The excellent conductivity of the carbon layer facilitated the separation of photogenerated carriers produced by TiO₂, enabling the obtained TiO₂/C complexes exhibit CO₂ reduction rates to CO and CH₄ of 1.84 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ and 5.32 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, respectively, with the CH₄ selectivity of 74%. The precise utilization of templates to refine the morphology of MXene oxidation products was thus demonstrated, offering a practical approach for the application of MXene in the photocatalysis.

Keywords photocatalytic; CO₂ reduction; TiO₂; Ti₃C₂ MXene; CH₄

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MXene 热处理原位制备碗状 TiO₂/C 及其光催化 CO₂ 还原性能研究

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摘要 使用 Ti₃C₂ MXene 材料原位合成 TiO₂ 半导体光催化剂, 通过将 CO₂ 选择性还原为 CH₄ 等有价值的化学物质, 为缓解环境和能源挑战提供了一种非常有效的方法。然而, Ti₃C₂ 转化为 TiO₂ 的过程中通常伴随着严重的颗粒团聚, 这导致固有活性位点数量减少, 对 CO₂ 的吸附和转化产生不利影响。为了解决这个问题, 使用聚甲基丙烯酸甲酯 (PMMA) 作为硬模板, 通过煅烧法制备了碗状碳层负载 TiO₂ (TiO₂/C) 混合光催化剂。结果表明: 所得样品具有足够大的比表面积和丰富的 CO₂ 吸附和活化位点。此外, 碳层的优异导电性有利于 TiO₂ 产生的光生载流子的分离。所得 TiO₂/C 复合物的 CO₂ 还原为 CO 和 CH₄ 的速率分别为 1.84 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹ 和 5.32 μmol·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, CH₄ 选择性为 74%。该工作展示了利用模板精确控制 MXene 氧化产物形貌的方法, 为 MXene 在光催化的应用提供了一种切实可行的实践方案。

关键词 光催化; 二氧化碳还原; 二氧化钛; 碳化钛; 甲烷

Photocatalytic technology has garnered increasing attention due to its potential to address the energy crisis and global warming stemming from the extensive consumption of fossil fuels^[1-3]. Among various photocatalytic reactions, photocatalytic CO₂ reduction

technology holds significant promise. It can mitigate the greenhouse effect while converting CO₂ into valuable chemicals and fuels, such as carbon monoxide (CO) and methane (CH₄)^[4-5]. Among the reduction products, CH₄ is particularly advantageous owing to its high

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energy density and the carbon-neutral nature of its combustion byproducts^[6]. Over the past few years, semiconductor materials like TiO_2 ^[7], CdS ^[8], $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ ^[9], BiOBr ^[10], and In_2O_3 ^[11] have been extensively investigated for photocatalytic CO_2 reduction. Among these, TiO_2 has emerged as a popular candidate material, thanks to its suitable band structure, excellent chemical stability, environmental and biological compatibility, and low cost^[12-14]. However, the catalytic performance and selectivity of bare TiO_2 nanomaterials for photocatalytic CO_2 conversion into CH_4 are significantly hindered by their weak light absorption and rapid recombination of photogenerated carriers.

To address the aforementioned issues, various strategies have been proposed to enhance the photocatalytic performance of TiO_2 , such as morphology regulation^[15], elemental doping^[16], heterojunction construction^[17] and cocatalysts loading^[18]. In particular, the combination of TiO_2 with cocatalysts can significantly improve its ability to capture photogenerated electrons, thereby promoting the migration and separation of photogenerated carriers and enhancing its catalytic efficiency for CO_2 conversion^[19-20]. In recent years, carbon materials have garnered significant attention as ideal cocatalysts due to their excellent chemical stability, tunable surface properties, and large specific surface area^[21-22]. However, conventional methods for preparing C-doped TiO_2 materials typically involve the use of additional carbon sources, such as polymers^[23], organic solvents^[24], and carbon-containing inorganic salts^[25], which may introduce impurities.

As a novel two-dimensional transition metal carbide, Ti_3C_2 MXene has sparked extensive research interest since its breakthrough synthesis in 2011^[26]. The atomic-scale thickness coupled with superior electronic conductivity renders it a superior co-catalyst in photoelectrochemical systems. More importantly, the surface of Ti_3C_2 MXene is rich in functional groups such as $-\text{OH}$ and $-\text{O}$. These functional groups can promote the oxidation of Ti atoms. Through a self-sacrificial mechanism, they can activate the $\text{Ti}-\text{C}$ bonds, enabling the in situ preparation of TiO_2 and the formation of a carbon layer, thereby synthesizing a binary hybrid catalyst^[27]. When the C layer is coupled

with TiO_2 , the excellent electrical conductivity of the C layer facilitates rapid electron transfer at the interface, thereby enhancing the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers in TiO_2 ^[28-30].

Nevertheless, after oxidation, Ti_3C_2 tends to stack and aggregate, which severely affects the catalyst's ability to adsorb and activate CO_2 molecules, thereby limiting the CO_2 conversion efficiency. Currently, most studies report that template methods can be used to control the morphology of the catalyst to address the issue of insufficient surface active sites^[31-33]. Compared with other polymers, polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) is easier to remove, has a rich surface functional group, and has a mature production process, making it a relatively perfect template^[34-37]. However, to date, there have been few reports using PMMA as a template to control the morphology of Ti_3C_2 for the preparation of TiO_2 -based materials.

In this study, a combination of templating and calcination methods was employed to oxidize Ti_3C_2 and synthesize TiO_2/C composite materials. PMMA was used as a template, and its rich surface groups enabled tight bonding with Ti_3C_2 , forming a PMMA/ Ti_3C_2 core-shell structured compound. This structure stabilized the morphology of Ti_3C_2 during the oxidation process. Calcination not only facilitated the kinetics of Ti_3C_2 oxidation but also removed the PMMA sacrificial template, resulting in the fabrication of TiO_2/C composite materials with a bowl-like structure. This structure significantly mitigated the aggregation of TiO_2 , thereby enhancing the catalytic activity and selectivity in a gas-phase CO_2 reduction system. Infrared spectroscopy revealed the key intermediate species involved in the adsorption and transformation of CO_2 on the surface of the bowl-like TiO_2/C catalyst, providing insights into the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction mechanism.

1 Materials and methods

1.1 Materials

The Ti_3AlC_2 (98%) powder was acquired from Forsman Technology (Beijing) Co., Ltd. HCl (AR), LiF (AR), ethanol (AR), sodium bicarbonate

(NaHCO₃, AR) and sulfuric acid solution (2 mol·L⁻¹) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA, AR) was offered by Lianlianfa Plastics & Chemicals.

1.2 Material preparation

1.2.1 Preparation of ultrathin Ti₃C₂ nanosheets

A HF-free LiF-HCl etching strategy was employed to prepare Ti₃C₂ nanosheets. Specifically, 5 g of LiF was dispersed in a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) beaker containing a mixture of 25 mL deionized water and 75 mL hydrochloric acid (HCl). Ti₃AlC₂ powder was then slowly added to the mixture. After heating at 50 °C for 10 h, the product was collected by vacuum filtration and subsequently dried under vacuum at 60 °C for 12 h. The resulting product was then added to deionized water and sonicated in an ice bath for 4 h. Finally, the Ti₃C₂ nanosheets were obtained via freeze-drying.

1.2.2 Synthesis of bowl-like TiO₂/Ti₃C₂

PMMA (0.2 g) was added to a beaker containing

50 mL deionized water and ultrasonicated for 10 min to form a homogeneous mixture. Subsequently, 0.02 g of Ti₃C₂ was added and stirred for another 10 min to allow complete combination of PMMA and Ti₃C₂ through electrostatic interactions. The resulting mixture was then centrifuged at 10000 r·min⁻¹ and dried at 60 °C for 12 h to obtain the composite named TP, where T and P represent Ti₃C₂ and PMMA, respectively.

The TP samples were placed in an air atmosphere at 450 °C and calcined for different durations, namely 0.5, 1, 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15 h, to obtain samples designated as TP-*x*, where *x* signifies the calcination time. The synthetic process for preparing samples is illustrated in Fig. 1. For the control experiment, the same procedure was used to directly calcine Ti₃C₂ nanosheets for 9 h to obtain the T-9 sample. Additionally, the TP-9 sample was calcined at 550 °C for 4 h to produce the TiO₂ sample.

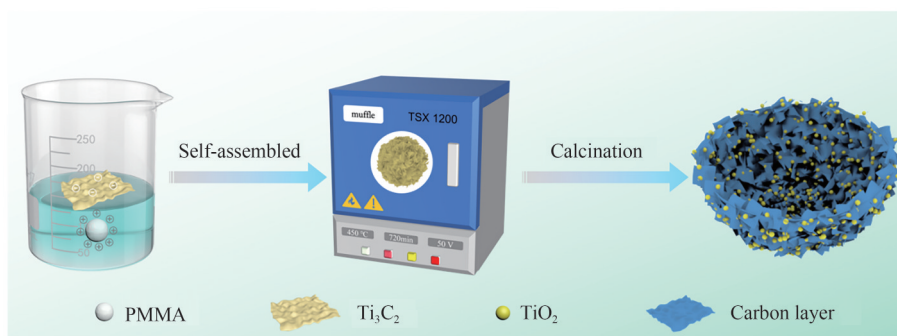


Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of the preparation process of the TiO₂/C sample.

图1 TiO₂/C样品制备流程图

1.3 Characterization

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded using an X-ray diffractometer (D8 ADVANCE, Bruker) with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056 \text{ \AA}$) at a scanning rate of 5°·min⁻¹ over a 2θ range of 10° to 80°. Raman spectra were obtained using a laser confocal Raman spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, DXR 2xi). The morphology of the samples was observed using a SU8010 (Hitachi) field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) and a Talos F200X (Thermo Scientific) transmission electron microscope (TEM). The composition of the samples was investigated using high-angle annular dark-field scanning/transmission electron microscopy

(HAADF-STEM, Talos F200s, Thermo Scientific) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS). The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were recorded using a nitrogen adsorption-desorption apparatus (ASAP2020, Micromeritics) to determine the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area (S_{BET}) of the catalysts, with degassing at 200 °C prior to measurement. Pore size distribution curves were derived from the adsorption isotherm data. UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra (UV-vis DRS) were tested using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (UV2550, Shimadzu). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Escalab 250xi, Thermo Scientific) was used to collect information on the composition and chemical

states of the samples, with all binding energies referenced to the C 1s line at 284.8 eV obtained from adventitious carbon. *In situ* diffuse reflection infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (*In situ* DRIFTS) was conducted using a Bruker Tensor II infrared spectrometer. The C and O elemental contents of the samples were measured using a CHNS elemental analyzer (Vario EL cube) and a rapid oxygen determinator (Rapid OXY cube).

1.4 Photocatalytic activity testing

Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity tests were conducted in a glass automatic online gas analysis system (Labsolar-6A, Perfect Light) using a 300 W xenon lamp (PLS-SXE300, Perfect Light) to simulate sunlight. The photocatalytic activity test mainly consisted of three steps: catalyst coating, *in situ* CO₂ generation, and photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction. First, 30 mg of the photocatalyst was dispersed in 10 mL of deionized water to form a suspension, which was then dried to form a surface film. Second, 2.1 g of NaHCO₃ powder was placed at the bottom of a homemade reactor, and the coated sample was placed directly above a quartz tripod. After sealing, the air inside the reactor was evacuated. Subsequently, 20 mL sulfuric acid (2 mol·L⁻¹) was added to the reactor to react with NaHCO₃ and generate CO₂. Finally, the reactor was placed under the xenon lamp for 4 h. Meanwhile, the Labsolar-6A gas analysis system extracted a certain amount of gas from the reactor every hour and injected it into a GC-2014 gas chromatograph equipped with flame ionization detector (FID) and thermal conductivity detector (TCD) detectors to detect the reaction products.

1.5 Photoelectrochemical measurements

Transient photocurrent response (TPR) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) photoelectrochemical measurements were performed in a three-electrode system (CHI760E electrochemical workstation, Shanghai, China). The electrolyte was 0.5 mol·L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution, and the light source was a 365 nm LED lamp. For TPR and EIS measurements, the working electrode was prepared by coating the sample onto a 0.9 cm × 1.1 cm fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass electrode. A platinum wire and an Ag/AgCl electrode were used as the

counter electrode and reference electrode, respectively. The frequency range was from 0.1 to 1000 Hz.

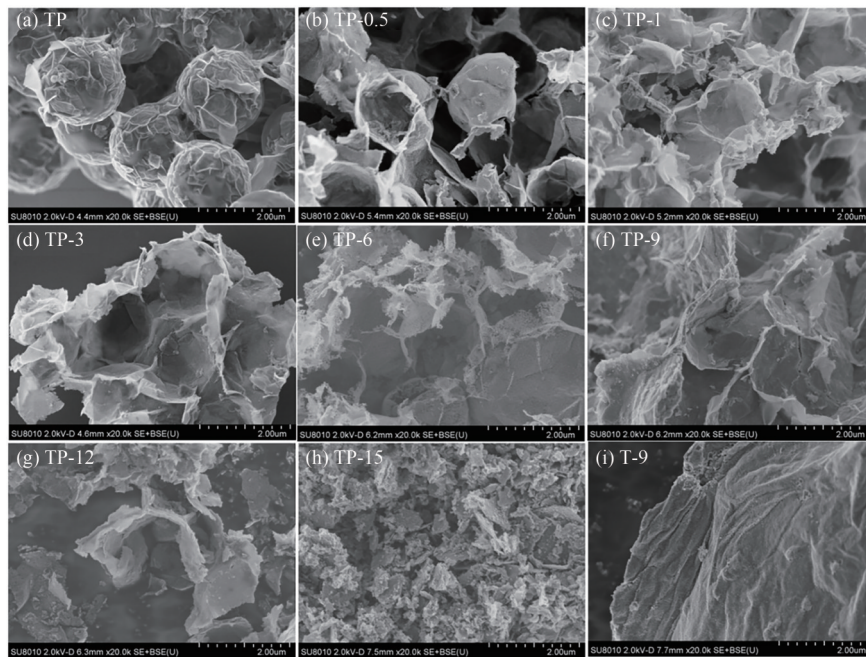
2 Results and Discussion

2.1 Morphological and structural analysis

The morphology and structure of the samples were analyzed using FESEM and STEM. The Ti₃C₂ prepared by the LiF-HCl etching method exhibited a monolayered sheet-like structure^[38]. After being combined with PMMA, the Ti₃C₂/PMMA (TP) sample presented a core-shell structure with a wrinkled spherical morphology, with the size of the spheres being approximately 1 μm (Fig. 2(a)). As observed in Fig. 2 (b) - (f), following calcination, the PMMA, which served as the "core" structure in the TP sample, began to disappear, resulting in the formation of bowl-like structures. With further increase in calcination time (>12 h), the bowl-like structures became increasingly incomplete and gradually transformed into irregular, small-sized nanosheets (Fig. 2 (g) - (h)). Additionally, as shown in Fig. 2(i), direct calcination of Ti₃C₂ resulted in a multilayered sheet-like stacked structure rather than a bowl-like structure, demonstrating that PMMA played a crucial role as a template in the formation of the thin-walled bowl-like structures.

Further observations of the sample composition using STEM revealed that after calcination, Ti₃C₂ was transformed into a semi-transparent carbon layer and TiO₂ nanoparticles with a size of approximately 30 nm. Additionally, the 2D structure morphology was observed to curl up after calcination, with the surface no longer being flat (Fig. 3(a)). In contrast, the TP-9 sample, prepared by calcining Ti₃C₂ loaded on a PMMA template, maintained a 2D sheet-like structure even after the same duration of calcination (Fig. 3(h)), without undergoing the deformation seen in Fig. 3(a).

The HRTEM images of the T-9 and TP-9 samples showed a lattice spacing of 0.35 nm, confirming the presence of anatase TiO₂ (101). The absence of other lattice fringes, combined with the XRD results, confirms that the TiO₂ in both T-9 and TP-9 samples primarily exists in the anatase phase (Fig. 3 (b) and (i)). The layered structure of the substrate originated from amorphous carbon rather than Ti₃C₂, thereby confirming



(a) TP; (b) TP-0.5; (c) TP-1; (d) TP-3; (e) TP-6; (f) TP-9; (g) TP-12; (h) TP-15; (i) T-9

Fig. 2 Morphological characterization of the materials

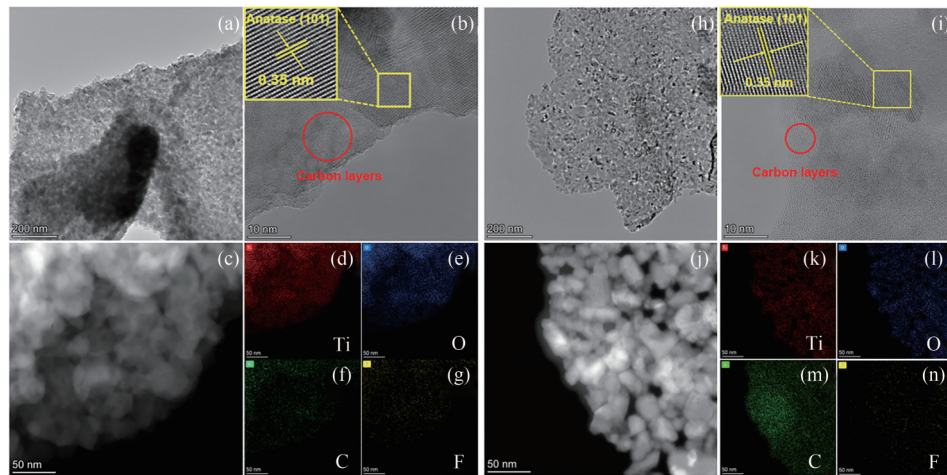
图2 材料的形貌表征

the successful preparation of the TiO₂/C binary composite after calcination of Ti₃C₂.

Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis results (Fig. 3©-(g) and Fig. 3(j)-(n)) revealed that both the T-9 and TP-9 samples were composed of C, Ti, O, and F elements. However, the elemental content was different between the two samples. Considering that EDS exhibits data fluctuations in elemental analysis depending on the measurement location, the elemental composition of the samples was further analyzed using an elemental analyzer (for C, H, N, S) and a rapid oxygen determinator (for O). The results measured for TP-9 and T-9 in Tab. 1 showed that the mass ratio of C to TiO₂ was 0.06 in TP-9 and 0.07 in T-9, indicating of relatively lower carbon content in TP-9. This demonstrated that employing PMMA as a template not only controlled the sample's morphology and prevented the stacking of carbon nanosheets, but also promoted the oxidation of the carbon layer, thereby reducing the light-shielding effect.

The structural composition and crystalline properties of the samples were analyzed through XRD and Raman. As shown in Fig. 4(a), the prepared TP samples exhibited characteristic peaks of PMMA ($2\theta = 15^\circ$) and the strongest diffraction

peak of the (002) plane of Ti₃C₂ ($2\theta = 9.1^\circ$), indicating the successful combination of Ti₃C₂ and PMMA^[39]. To elucidate the mechanism behind the successful formation of PMMA/Ti₃C₂ composites, the Zeta potentials of PMMA and Ti₃C₂ were measured. The results demonstrated that PMMA and Ti₃C₂ exhibited Zeta potentials of 12.6 mV and -8.2 mV, respectively, suggesting of their opposite surface charges. This charge complementarity clearly indicated that Coulombic interactions served as the predominant binding mechanism between these components. After calcination, the characteristic diffraction peaks of PMMA and Ti₃C₂ disappeared, and the characteristic peaks of anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS card NO. 71-1167) emerged. Observing the characteristic peak of the (101) plane of anatase TiO₂ at $2\theta = 25.4^\circ$, it could be seen that the peak intensity increased with prolonged calcination time, indicating enhanced oxidation of Ti₃C₂^[40]. Fig. 4(b) further illustrated that with extended calcination time, the D and G band peaks of amorphous carbon in the TP-x samples gradually weakened, and the characteristic spectrum of TiO₂ appeared. This indicated that Ti₃C₂ was oxidized to anatase TiO₂, but the residual D and G band peaks suggested that in addition to TiO₂, the oxidation of Ti₃C₂ also



(a) TEM, (b) HRTEM, (c) HAADF-STEM and EDS mapping images of (d) Ti, (e) O, (f) C, and (g) F atoms of T-9 sample; (h) TEM, (i) HRTEM, (j) HAADF-STEM and EDS mapping images of (k) Ti, (l) O, (m) C, and (n) F atoms of TP-9 sample

Fig. 3 Morphological and element characterization of the materials.

图3 样品的形貌和元素分析表征

Tab. 1 C, O element content and the mass ratio of C to TiO₂

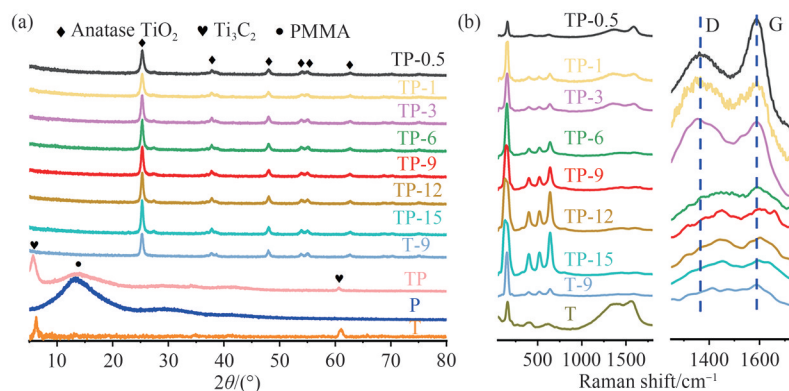
表1 样品C、O元素百分比含量和C与TiO₂的质量比

Sample	Atomic percent/%		<i>w</i> (C): <i>w</i> (TiO ₂)
	C	O	
T-9	0.67	1.85	0.07
TP-9	0.92	2.80	0.06

generated a carbon layer, thereby confirming that the prepared samples were composites of the carbon layer and TiO₂. The significantly lower intensity of the amorphous carbon peak in the T-9 sample compared to the TP-9 sample indicated that the TP-9 sample had more carbon layers to facilitate the separation and transfer of carriers.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) is used to characterize the chemical and electronic states of the samples for structural analysis of the substance. As observed in Fig. 5 (a), the XPS

spectrum of the T sample (Ti₃C₂) exhibited characteristic peaks of F 1s and Cl 2p, which were attributed to surface groups of Ti₃C₂. However, after calcination, the TP-9 sample only showed peaks for Ti 2p, O 1s, and C 1s, which were characteristic of TiO₂ and C. The absence of F element indicated that there was almost no residual Ti₃C₂ in the TP-9 sample. The D and G band peaks observed in Fig. 4 (b) belonged to C rather than Ti₃C₂. What is more, the high-resolution XPS spectrum of Ti 2p in Fig. 5 (b) confirmed this finding. Notably, the Ti 2p peaks of the TP-9 sample shifted to lower binding energies by approximately 0.1 eV compared to those of pure TiO₂. This shift suggested that the photogenerated holes in TiO₂ were transferred to the carbon layer^[41]. Therefore, the carbon layer not only serves as a



(a) XRD patterns and (b) Raman spectra of TP, TP-0.5, TP-1, TP-3, TP-6, TP-9, TP-12, TP-15, and T-9 samples

Fig. 4 Characterization of phase constituent of the materials

图4 材料的物相组分表征

carrier to enhance the light absorption properties of TiO₂ but also facilitates the separation efficiency of

photogenerated electron-hole pairs, thereby improving the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂.

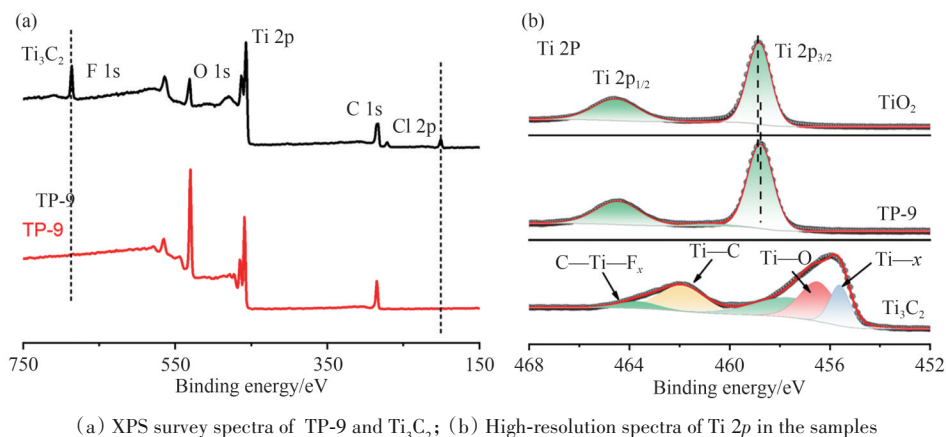


Fig. 5 Chemical state and compositional characterization of the samples

图5 样品的化学态和组成表征

2.2 Photocatalytic performance

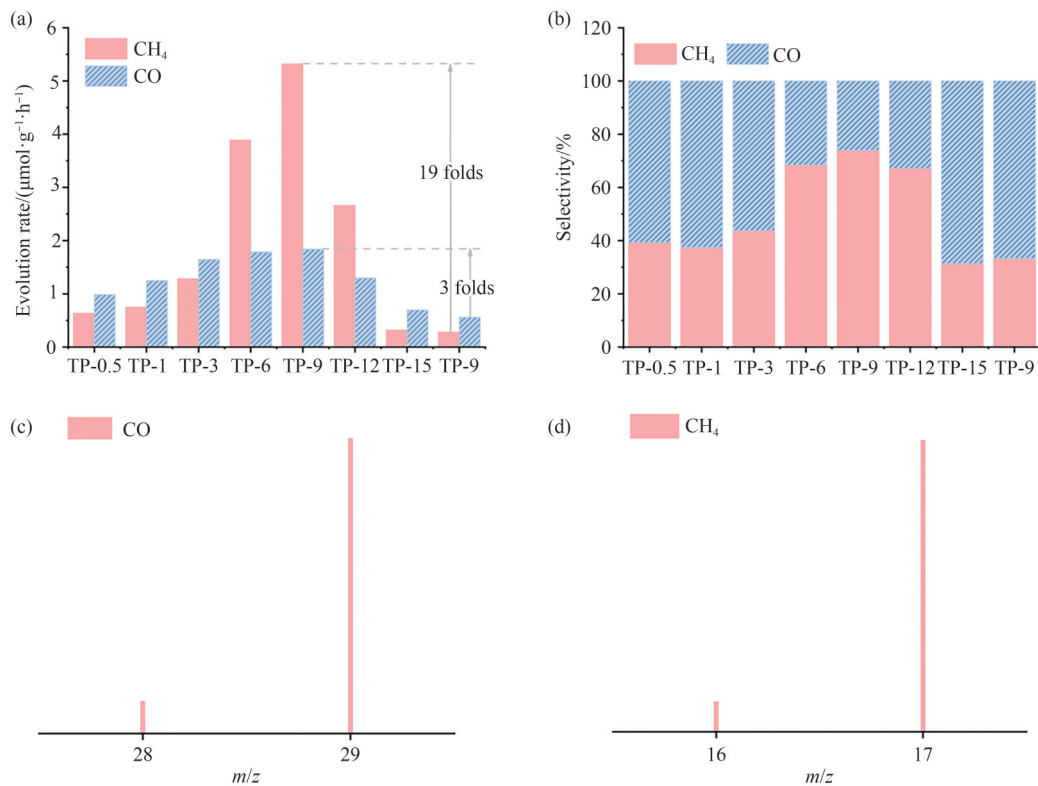
The photocatalytic performance of the prepared samples was verified through CO₂ reduction tests. As shown in Fig. 6(a), the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction ability of the samples first increased and then decreased, exhibiting a volcano-shaped trend. Among them, the T-9 sample, obtained by directly calcining Ti₃C₂ without PMMA, had the lowest CO₂ conversion efficiency. In contrast, the TP-9 sample with a bowl-like morphology, prepared using PMMA-loaded Ti₃C₂ in the same calcination condition (450 °C, 9 h), showed the best performance. The generation rates of CH₄ and CO from CO₂ conversion reached 1.84 and 5.32 μmol · g⁻¹ · h⁻¹, respectively, which is about 8.5 times higher than that of the T-9 sample in terms of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction efficiency. In addition, the TP-9 sample showed a higher selectivity towards CH₄ conversion, reaching 74% (Fig. 6(b)). To verify the carbon source of the generated products, isotopic labeling experiments were conducted. As shown in Fig. 6(c) and (d), strong peak signals appeared at $m/z = 17$ and $m/z = 29$ in the reaction products, which correspond to ¹³C-labeled ¹³CH₄ and ¹³CO, respectively. This indicated that the generated CH₄ and CO mainly originated from the reduction of CO₂, rather than from the sample or other impurity carbon sources.

To verify the reason behind the enhanced CO₂ reduction performance of the samples, nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm tests were employed for

characterization. As depicted in Fig. 7 (a), the nitrogen adsorption behavior of each sample was presented across a broad spectrum of relative pressures. All isotherms displayed typical IV characteristics, indicating the presence of a mesoporous structure within the material. Notably, in the low relative pressure region, TP-9 exhibited a significantly higher adsorption capacity compared to T-9. This was evidenced by their specific surface areas of 54.0 cm³ · g⁻¹ and 20.2 cm³ · g⁻¹, respectively. The abundant microporous structure of TP-9 was conducive to the preferential adsorption of gas molecules at low pressure. Fig. 7 (b) provided insight into the specific surface activity of the sample. Here, TP-9 stood out with the highest CO and CH₄ generation rates per unit surface area, as well as the highest specific surface activity. Consequently, TP-9 demonstrates the most outstanding CO₂ reduction performance.

2.3 Photocatalytic mechanism

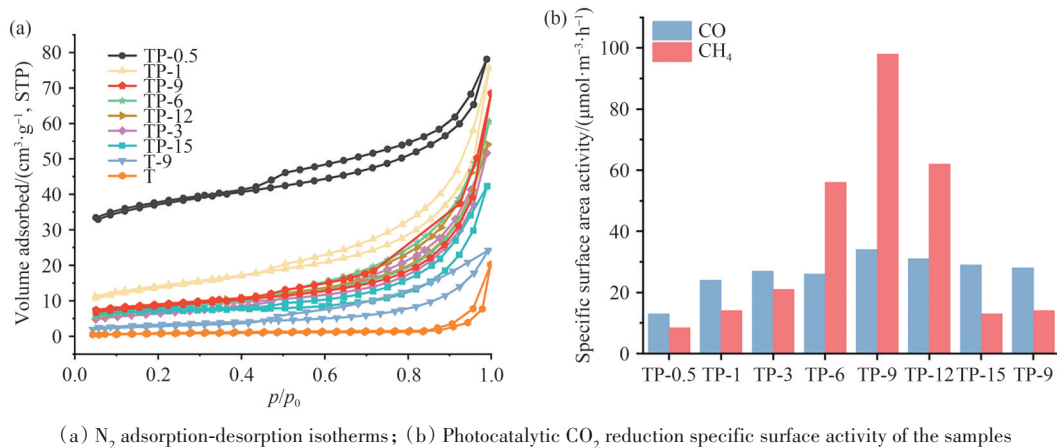
To explore the factors influencing the activity of the samples, their light absorption properties were characterized using UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy. As shown in Fig. 8a, all the samples except the TP sample exhibited an absorption edge, which was consistent with that of TiO₂, indicating that the TP sample were successfully converted to TiO₂ upon calcination. With prolonged calcination time, the carbon content in the samples gradually decreased, accompanied by a visible color lightening, resulting in reduced visible-light absorption. Compared to T-



Comparison of (a) photocatalytic CO₂ reduction rates and (b) product selectivity of the samples; Mass spectra of (c) ¹³CH₄ and (d) ¹³CO of TP-9

Fig. 6 Photocatalytic performance and selectivity of the samples for CO₂ reduction

图6 样品的光催化CO₂还原性能和产物选择性表征



(a) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms; (b) Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction specific surface activity of the samples

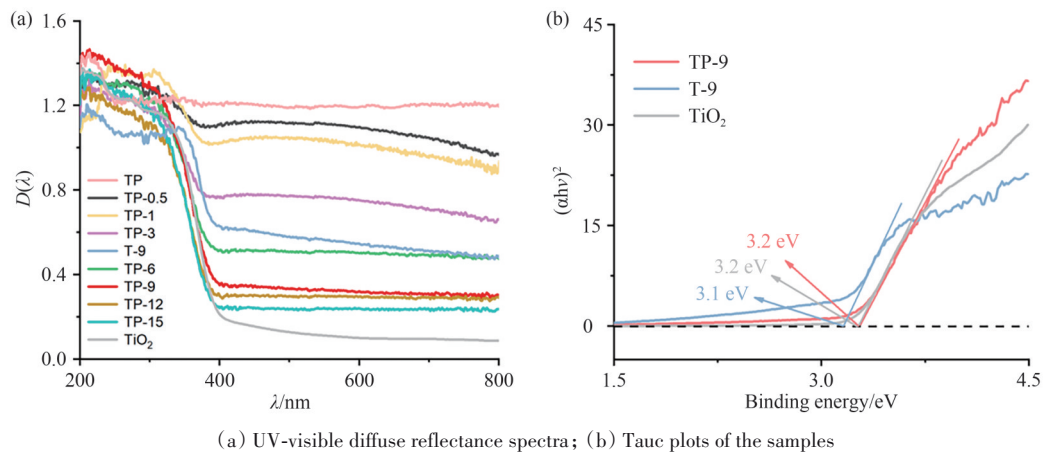
Fig. 7 Specific surface area characterization of the samples

图7 样品的比表面积表征

9, the TP-9 sample exhibited lower carbon content and consequently weaker light-shielding effects, which ultimately enhanced its photocatalytic performance. However, since the oxidation of Ti₃C₂ only forms anatase TiO₂, the absorption edges of all calcined samples are consistent, suggesting that the increase in calcination time has a minimal impact on the band structure of the catalysts. Fig. 8b presented the Tauc plot curves of the samples. The band gaps of T-9 and TP-9 were 3.1 eV and 3.2 eV,

respectively, which were close to that of the TiO₂ sample. This indicates that the band gap structure is not the determining factor for the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance.

The transfer and separation abilities of photogenerated carriers in the samples were characterized through photocurrent and impedance measurements. As shown in Fig. 9 (a), the TP-9 sample exhibited the strongest photocurrent response intensity, followed by TP-0.5, TP-1, TP-15, and



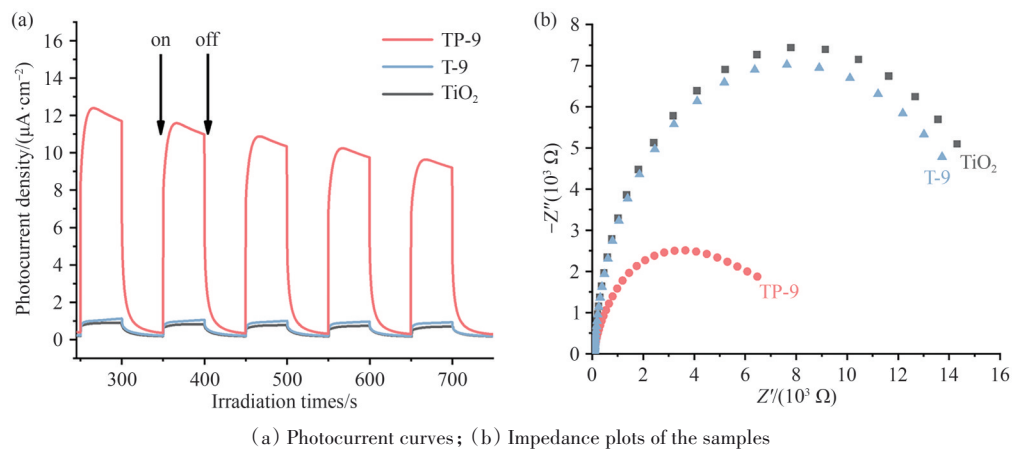
(a) UV-visible diffuse reflectance spectra; (b) Tauc plots of the samples

Fig. 8 Optical absorption characterization of the samples

图8 样品的光吸收性能表征

T-9, which was consistent with the order of photocatalytic performance of the samples. Conversely, the order of impedance magnitudes shown in Fig. 9(b) was opposite to that of the photocatalytic

performance. This result indicates that the TP-9 sample has the best photogenerated carrier separation performance, which endows it with the best photocatalytic CO₂ reduction efficiency.



(a) Photocurrent curves; (b) Impedance plots of the samples

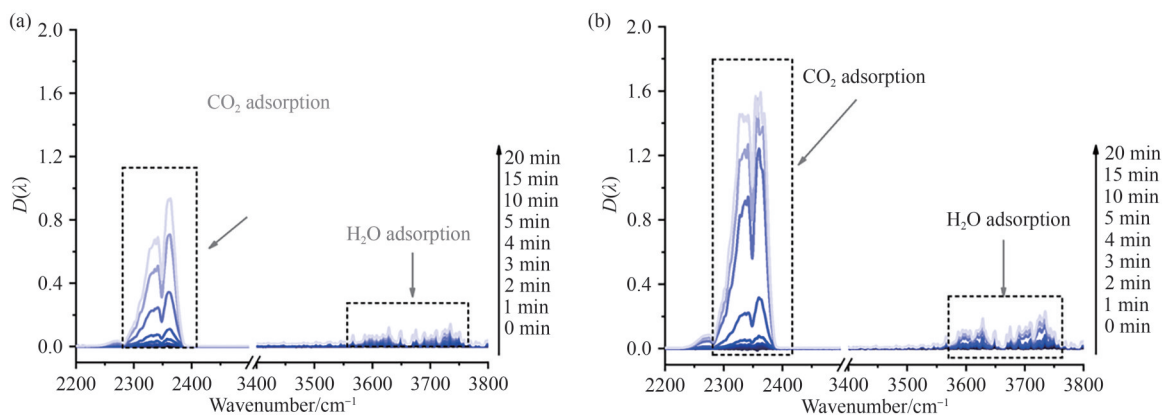
Fig. 9 Photoelectronic property characterization of the samples

图9 样品的光电性能表征

To investigate the CO₂ adsorption capabilities of the T-9 and TP-9 samples, a semi-quantitative method was employed to study their dark adsorption processes using *In situ* Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS). As shown in Fig. 10, after 20 minutes of CO₂ adsorption, the peak intensities in T-9 (Fig. 10(a)) were significantly lower than those in TP-9 (Fig. 10(b)), indicating that TP-9 had a much stronger CO₂ adsorption ability. Specifically, the CO₂ adsorption amount on TP-9 reached the same level as T-9 after only 10 minutes, which was half the time required for T-9 to achieve the same adsorption amount after 20 minutes. This finding confirms that the bowl-like morphology of TP-9 facilitates CO₂ adsorption, which is always the key

factor for CO₂ reduction performance.

To elucidate the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction mechanism of the TP-9 sample, *In situ* DRIFTS was employed to observe the functional group changes during the photocatalysis process. As illustrated in Fig. 11, upon light irradiation, the adsorbed CO₂ on the TP-9 sample reacted with photogenerated electrons to form *COOH. Subsequently, *COOH combined with H⁺ to produce H₂O and CO. The CO further reacted with H⁺ and electrons to form CH₃O*, which eventually converted to CH₄. The peak intensity of CH₃O* initially increased and then decreased, indicating its transformation into CH₄. The higher peak intensity of CH₃O* compared to COO⁻ also explains the higher selectivity of CH₄ in this sample. The specific mechanism



In situ DRIFTS curves for CO₂ and H₂O adsorption over (a) T-9 and (b) TP-9 in the dark state

Fig. 10 CO₂ adsorption performance of the samples

图 10 样品的 CO₂ 吸附性能表征

is described by the following: $\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow * \text{COOH} \rightarrow * \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO} / * \text{CHO} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_4$ [42].

CH₄ with trace amounts of CO.

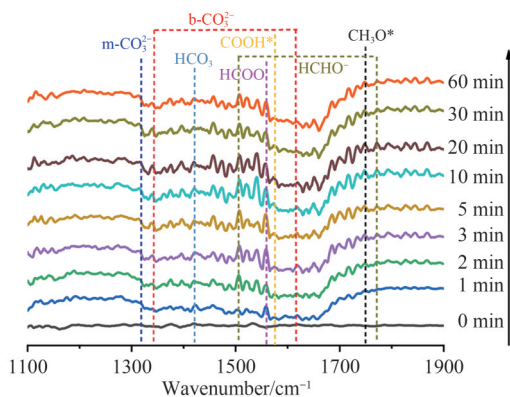


Fig. 11 In situ DRIFTS curves of the TP-9 under light irradiation

图 11 TP-9 样品在光照下的原位 DRIFTS 曲线

Based on the experimental findings, a plausible mechanism has been elucidated to account for the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ by the TiO₂/C composite catalyst, as depicted in Fig. 12. Upon light irradiation, TiO₂ is excited by light, prompting the electrons in the valence band to jump to the conduction band. This process generates a substantial quantity of electron-hole pairs. Owing to the exceptional conductivity of the carbon layer, a significant portion of the h⁺ is transferred to the carbon layer. This transfer effectively suppresses the recombination of holes and electrons, thereby ensuring an adequate supply of electrons to participate in the CO₂ reduction reaction. Furthermore, the unique bowl-shaped structure significantly enhances the CO₂ adsorption capacity of the catalyst. This facilitates the reaction between CO₂ molecules and electrons to form CH₃O* intermediates, ultimately leading to the predominant production of

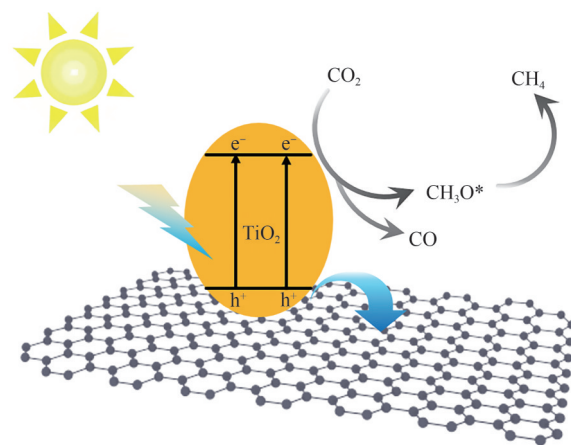


Fig. 12 Schematic diagram of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction mechanism

图 12 光催化 CO₂ 还原机理图

3 Conclusion

In this study, PMMA was employed as a template to composite with Ti₃C₂ through electrostatic interactions, and then a calcination method was used to prepare bowl-like TiO₂/C composites. In these samples, the contact between TiO₂ and the C layer allows the photogenerated holes produced on the surface of TiO₂ to transfer to the C layer due to its high electrical conductivity. This transfer promotes the separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and induces more electrons to reduce CO₂. Moreover, the unique bowl-like morphology formed by calcining the PMMA-Ti₃C₂ composite not only provides a larger surface area but also facilitates the adsorption and activation of CO₂ molecules. The synergistic effects of the high conductivity of the C layer and the special morphology of the composite significantly improve the

photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance and increase the selectivity for CH₄ production. This approach offers a promising solution for mitigating the environmental impact of CO₂.

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