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► **To cite this version:**

P. Afanasiev. MoS₂ "inorganic fullerenes" combined with TiO₂ in water-methanol suspensions: Highly active hydrogen production photo catalysts operating via transfer of accumulated electrons. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2020, 45 (29), pp.14696-14712. 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2020.03.191 . hal-02773838

HAL Id: hal-02773838

<https://hal.science/hal-02773838>

Submitted on 10 Aug 2022

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1 **MoS₂ “inorganic fullerenes” combined with TiO₂ in water-methanol**
2 **suspensions: highly active hydrogen production photo catalysts operating via**
3 **transfer of accumulated electrons.**

4
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6
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13
14 **ABSTRACT**

15 Water-methanol suspensions of size-tuned hollow MoS₂ “inorganic fullerenes” (IF) combined
16 with high surface area anatase TiO₂ efficiently promote photo catalytic hydrogen evolution
17 reaction (PHER). Despite low amount of the MoS₂ slabs edges in the structure of closed-shell
18 IF-MoS₂ particles and relatively poor dispersion of co-catalyst, the best composite catalysts
19 were nearly 50% as active as Pt/TiO₂ benchmark and considerably more active than the
20 reference MoS₂-TiO₂ catalysts containing highly dispersed MoS₂ slabs. Straightforward
21 experimental evidence is given that hydrogen is formed due to transfer of trapped (accumulated)
22 electrons from the TiO₂ particles to the IF-MoS₂ particles in liquid suspension. Electrochemical
23 flat band potential measurements support the possibility of electrons transfer from TiO₂ to IF-
24 MoS₂.

25
26 **Keywords:** Titanium oxide; Molybdenum sulfide; Photocatalysis; Hydrogen production;
27 Inorganic fullerenes

28
29 **1. Introduction**

30 Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution reaction (PHER) over semiconductor photocatalysts for
31 converting solar energy into H₂ chemical energy is among the most intensely developing
32 research topics [1, 2]. Despite a tremendous effort to develop alternative materials, titanium
33 oxide (TiO₂) remains arguably the most efficient semiconductor for PHER, because it combines
34 low cost, high stability and excellent activity under UV irradiation [3, 4]. Many studies are
35 directed on the PHER using organic molecules as hole scavengers, one on the most popular
36 among them being methanol [5]. As the reaction rate on bare titania is low, a co-catalyst is

1 usually added to titania in order to accelerate hydrogen release. PHER using methanol or
2 methanol-water mixtures and TiO₂ semiconductor has been tried with a wide range of co-
3 catalysts, the noble metals (Pt, Pd, Au) being the most active [6].

4 As an alternative to noble metals, sulfides of transition metals are widely studied, in particular
5 lamellar MoS₂ and WS₂ [7]. Different techniques have been applied to prepare MoS₂-TiO₂
6 photo catalysts, such as mechanochemical [8], solvothermal [9] and others. The works on the
7 MoS₂-TiO₂ composites have been recently reviewed [10]. With many respects, the design of
8 PHER catalysts is inspired by the research carried out in the field of (photo)electro catalytic
9 HER cells (PEC) on one side and in the heterogeneous catalysis on the other side. The role of
10 fine dispersion of MoS₂ and the necessity of its good interaction with the substrate is
11 emphasized for the MoS₂ materials developed for PEC or for lithium batteries [11, 12]. In the
12 same lines, the importance of a tight contact between the TiO₂ surface and highly dispersed
13 MoS₂ co-catalyst for PHER has been postulated [13]. In order to improve the quality of contact
14 between two phases and to facilitate the charge transfer, versatile methods have been applied.
15 For example, MoS₂ supported on TiO₂ with face-selected epitaxial deposition was prepared
16 [14] or MoS₂/TiO₂ composites were additionally doped with 1D and 2D conductors, such as
17 exfoliated graphite or CNTs [15]. As the electric resistance along the basal plane of MoS₂ is
18 three orders of magnitude smaller than perpendicularly to the stacked layers [16,17], the MoS₂
19 fringes connected by edges to the TiO₂ semiconductor have been fabricated in order to improve
20 the electrons transfer [18].

21 However, despite a great number of studies, the optimal design parameters of TiO₂
22 semiconductor and MoS₂ co-catalyst as well as their optimal interaction that would provide the
23 highest PHER rates are still not totally clear. The problem is overly complex, due to the
24 multitude of PHER process steps and to a large gap between lifetime scales of charge carriers,
25 trapped species and the characteristic time of chemical reactions. By this reasons the common
26 knowledge acquired in heterogeneous catalysis and PEC research seems to be not directly
27 transposable on PHER. Thus, we previously observed that lesser dispersion of MoS₂ provides
28 higher PHER activity at equal MoS₂ loadings [19]. Additional insights are therefore necessary
29 into the interactions of MoS₂ and TiO₂ and their influence on the PHER efficiency.

30 For the fundamental understanding of the properties–activity relationships, onion-like or hollow
31 MoS₂ particles, also known as inorganic fullerenes (IF-MoS₂) [20] seem very interesting, as
32 they possess particular properties and provide unique possibility of morphology control.
33 Several techniques were proposed for IF-MoS₂ synthesis, including oxides sulfidation, [21, 22]
34 laser ablation [23] or metal-organic CVD [24]. Recently size controlled fullerenes have been

1 prepared in a wide range of temperatures, which allows fine tuning of the slabs curvature and
2 of the defects concentration [25].

3 From the viewpoint of current paradigm dominating PHER research, the IF-MoS₂ materials are
4 expected to be poor PHER co-catalysts for TiO₂. Indeed, IF-MoS₂ particles of ≥ 20 nm size
5 should be considered as poorly dispersed, if compared with short and weakly stacked 3-5 nm
6 MoS₂ slabs supported on TiO₂, available from standard impregnation technique. Moreover
7 closed-shell IF-MoS₂ particles preferentially expose chemically inert basal planes. The IF-MoS₂
8 surfaces expose quite low (residual) amounts of slabs edges and therefore have lower
9 electrochemical HER efficiency than optimized highly dispersed MoS₂, even if non-negligible
10 catalytic activity of curved and/or broken basal planes IF-MoS₂ was demonstrated [26].

11 In the present study we report on the unexpectedly high HER activity of mixed IF-MoS₂ - TiO₂
12 water-methanol slurries, which are at the level of the best photocatalysts of this type ever
13 reported. Then we demonstrate that an essential step of the PHER mechanism in these systems
14 includes transfer of long-live accumulated electrons between TiO₂ and IF-MoS₂ particles.

15

16 **2. Experimental**

17 *2.1.1. Preparation of IF-MoS₂ materials.*

18 The IF-MoS₂ materials were prepared as described in ref. [25]. In brief, size-tuned Scheelites
19 AMoO₄ (A=Ca, Sr, Ba) nanoparticles (NP) were prepared and then transformed into hollow
20 sulfide particles. Scheelites NP of variable size were obtained from non-aqueous metathesis as
21 described previously [27]. To prepare the IF-MoS₂ materials, Scheelites NP were treated in a
22 quartz reactor under gas flow containing H₂S and CCl₄, in the temperature range 450 -750 °C.

23 To prepare the IF-MoS₂ water –methanol suspensions, after cooling and inerting, the freshly
24 sulfided solid (ca. 1 g) was washed upon stirring with 200 ml of distilled water purged with
25 bubbling nitrogen. The washing was repeated several times to remove soluble chloride MCl₂
26 (M=Ca, Sr, Ba), until negative AgNO₃ test. Then distilled water was replaced with methanol or
27 water –methanol mixture and the sample was treated with ultrasound for 1h in an ultrasonic
28 cleaner bath BPAC 120 W. As a result of sonication stable dark suspension was obtained. To
29 remove agglomerates and to provide better size uniformity, the suspension was centrifuged for
30 10 min at 3000 s⁻¹. The precipitate was discarded whereas the remaining suspension was further
31 utilized as a source of IF-MoS₂ particles. The overall yield of IF-MoS₂ remaining in the
32 suspension depended on the gas-phase reaction temperature and on the type of precursor, but

1 stayed between 30 and 60 %. The IF-MoS₂ materials are designated as IF-MoS₂-xx-xxx, where
2 xx is the (precursor) particle size and xxx is the preparation temperature (°C), Table S1.
3 To prepare mixed suspensions, weighted amount of CristalACTiV™ PC500 anatase TiO₂ or
4 other titania powder was dispersed by ultrasound, to give a concentrated 50 g/L aqueous slurry.
5 Then an aliquot of IF-MoS₂ suspension was added and sonication was continued for additional
6 10 min. The suspension was kept for several hours, which resulted in decantation of the solid,
7 leaving a clear liquid phase. The ultrasound treatment and decantation was repeated in pure
8 methanol and then methanol was added up to obtain 20 g/L slurry of the catalyst. For the
9 catalytic experiments, this concentrated mixture was rapidly re-dispersed by ultrasound and
10 mixed with calculated amounts of water and methanol.
11 “Deposited” 1% MoS_x/TiO₂ solid was prepared by means of aqueous deposition of MoS_x using
12 thioacetamide as a sulfur source [19]. The preparation technique for “deposited” solids is a
13 simplified version of hydrothermal method by Liu et al [28]. The reference bulk MoS₂ was
14 prepared from the decomposition of ammonium thiomolybdate (ATM) at 450 °C as described
15 in [25]. The benchmark reference catalyst 0.5 wt.% Pt/TiO₂ was prepared by impregnation,
16 drying and reduction with H₂, as described in [29].

17

18 2.2. Characterizations

19 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out on a JEOL 2010 device with an
20 accelerating voltage 200 keV. The samples were dispersed in ethanol by ultrasound and then
21 put onto a lacey carbon on a copper grid. The analysis of images was carried out using Gatan
22 Digital Micrograph™ software. Nitrogen adsorption isotherms were measured on a
23 Micromeritics ASAP 2010 instrument. Specific surface area was determined using BET
24 equation. Prior to measurements, the samples were outgassed in vacuum at 300 °C for 4h. The
25 Mo content in the solids was determined, after dissolution in a HNO₃/H₂SO₄ mixture, by
26 plasma-coupled atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-ES Activa Jobin Yvon). Elemental
27 analysis of light elements (CHNS) was performed on an analyzer Thermo Fisher Flash 2000.

28 Hydrodynamic size distribution was measured using Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) on a
29 Wyatt Nanostar device. Aqueous suspensions containing 0.25 – 0.5 g/L of solids were applied
30 for the DLS measurements. Size distribution was obtained from averaging 10 series of 100
31 single measurements, 2 s each. Autocorrelation function was cut below 1.5 and above 1500 nm.
32 Surface areas were measured by low temperature nitrogen adsorption and calculated using BET
33 equation.

1 Zeta- potential (ZP) was determined from electrophoretic mobility in aqueous suspensions on
2 a CAD Zetacompact device. Weighted amounts of powders about 100 mg of were ultrasonically
3 dispersed in 200 ml of 10^{-3} M KNO_3 solution. The pH values were adjusted with either HClO_4
4 or KOH 0.1 M solutions. Electrophoretic migration rate was converted to zeta potential by the
5 Helmholtz-Smoluchowski equation. Low values of ZP close to IEP are highly uncertain since
6 the mobility is influenced by current-induced flows, making the apparent ZP strongly dependent
7 on the laser position. To decrease uncertainty, at each pH we determined ZP in several points
8 outside the stationary position and built the curves of ZP vs. focal position. Then we compared
9 the corresponding curves for different pH.

10 Reflectance UV–visible spectra were collected and converted to Kubelka Munk function using
11 a Perkin-Elmer Lambda 35 scanning spectrometer equipped with an integrating sphere over the
12 spectral range 200–2500 nm (6.2–0.5 eV). BaSO_4 powder was applied as a reference. The band
13 gap energies were determined by Shapiro [30] and Tauc [31] methods using Kubelka Munk
14 function.

15
16 A three-electrode electrochemical cell was used to characterize the nanoparticle layers via
17 electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The cell consists of the FTO glass slides (7Ω
18 cm^{-2} , Sigma-Aldrich) working electrode, a Pt wire as counter electrode, and an SCE (3M KCl)
19 reference electrode. The working electrodes were fabricated by electrodeposition or drop
20 coating as described earlier.³² The impedance spectra were recorded on a VMP300, Biologic
21 potentiostat with the Software EC-Lab, between 0.1 Hz and 1 MHz with an amplitude of 25
22 mV in a 0.1 M NaClO_4 electrolyte in the range of pH between 6 and 10 adjusted with NaOH or
23 HClO_4 . For each applied potential an equilibration time of 10 min was applied to reach a steady-
24 state current before the impedance measurement.

25

26 2.3. Catalytic tests.

27 A batch slurry photoreactor was used in all experiments. A weighted amount of powder catalyst
28 or of methanol slurry containing from 0.6 to 90 mg of the catalyst was added to 30 ml of pure
29 methanol or water-methanol reaction mixture. A 125 W high-pressure mercury lamp was
30 applied with the window of 21 cm^2 area. A quartz optical window and a Pyrex window cutting
31 light below 300 nm were positioned between the lamp and the reaction mixture. The
32 photoreactor had gas inlet and outlet used to purge the system with argon before the reaction
33 and to sample the gases during the reaction. The gases were analyzed with Agilent 3000A micro
34 gas chromatograph. The volume of (water-) methanol slurry was 30 mL and catalyst

1 concentration was from 0.02 to 2.5 g L⁻¹. Before the irradiation, the solution was stirred for 10
2 min and the reactor was purged with Ar flow. PHER rate and methanol conversion were
3 calculated from the integration of chromatographic peaks during the reaction period of 3 h. To
4 check the stability, the experiments were repeated for several times with the same reaction
5 mixture, after refreshing methanol and purge with Ar. The methanol conversion in all
6 experiments was below 0.1 %. No CO₂, CO or other secondary methanol conversion products
7 were detected, in agreement with the literature findings demonstrating that the primary reaction
8 is dehydrogenation to formaldehyde, equation (1) [33,34].



10 The apparent photonic efficiency (PE) was calculated by dividing the amount of released H₂ by
11 the integrated absorbable photon flux [35]:

$$12 \quad PE = \frac{r_{\text{H}_2}}{\Phi_{\text{phot}}} \quad (2)$$

13

14 where r_{H_2} is the hydrogen formation rate and Φ_{phot} is the absorbable photon flux. The UV lamp is
15 polychromatic (Fig. S1), the flux of absorbable photons Φ_{phot} is 1370 $\mu\text{mol/h}$.

16

17 **3. Results and discussion.**

18

19 *3.1. Properties of the IF-MoS₂ materials*

20

21 The IF-MoS₂ size-tuned sulfide particles were obtained from solid–gas reaction of Scheelites
22 AMoO₄ (A=Ca, Sr, Ba) with H₂S and CCl₄ vapor. The reaction produces MoS₂ and soluble
23 ACl₂ chlorides, which are removed by washing [36]. The properties of size-tuned IF-MoS₂
24 including characterizations with multiple physical techniques (XRD, XPS, Raman, TPR, etc.)
25 were discussed in detail in ref. [25]. For the present study, several preparations were selected
26 that give weakly agglomerated and isotropic particles with the mean radius 18, 35 and 71 nm,
27 prepared at 450 or 750 °C (Table S1, Fig. S2). The amount of residual slabs edges on the
28 surface of IF particles depends on the preparation temperature but not on the particle size. On
29 the other hand, the IF-MoS₂ particle size is determined by the particle size of the Scheelite
30 precursor. Therefore the particle size and the amount of surface defects were controlled
31 independently. The major part of experiments was focused on the IF-MoS₂ with sizes at the
32 extremities of the series (“small”, 18 nm and “large”, 71 nm) treated at the two most distant

1 temperatures (“low”, 450 °C and “high”, 750 °C). Note that already at the lowest preparation
2 temperature (450 °C) the residual amount of slabs edges exposed by IF-MoS₂ is much lower
3 that the corresponding value for the disordered ATM-MoS₂ [37]. In most experiments four IF-
4 MoS₂ solids as described were associated in different ratios with anatase PC500 TiO₂.
5 Intermediate 35-nm radius IF-MoS₂ particles, treatment temperatures intermediate between
6 450° and 750° as well as different titanias including TiO₂ rutile nanorods and Degussa P25 TiO₂
7 were also applied when necessary to better illustrate the observed effects.

8

9 3.2. Suspensions and composite catalysts

10

11 Even if in the PHER tests the IF-MoS₂ and TiO₂ particles were usually associated only *in situ*
12 in the catalytic slurry, in the further discussion we consider these systems as composite catalysts
13 IF-MoS₂/TiO₂ with variable Mo loading. Prior to being associated, IF-MoS₂ and TiO₂ were
14 suspended separately in water or water-methanol mixtures and the suspensions were
15 characterized with DLS and Zetametry.

16 Freshly sulfided IF-MoS₂ solids unloaded from the sulfidation reactor and washed with water
17 upon stirring, remained compact and could be easily decanted. However even after gentle
18 sonication, dark aqueous dispersions of IF-MoS₂ were formed, stable for a prolonged time (at
19 least for weeks). The suspensions stability depended on the particle size, smaller particles being
20 expectedly more stable, Fig S3. The hydrodynamic particle size was determined by DLS. The
21 DLS curves attest narrow size distributions and good correlation between primary TEM particle
22 size and the DLS size (Fig. S4). However the DLS hydrodynamic size is systematically larger
23 than the corresponding mean TEM values. Moreover DLS shows slight agglomeration of IF-
24 MoS₂ particles (Fig. S4). Even if their TEM sizes are similar [25], broader and more skewed to
25 higher size DLS distributions were obtained for the solids prepared at 450 °C, than for 750 °C
26 preparation. It happens probably because the IF-MoS₂-450 solid contains greater amounts of
27 surface functional groups and is more prone to agglomerate. After sonication, DLS shows size
28 stability for at least several hours, whatever the type of IF-MoS₂ particles (Fig. S5).

29 PC500 TiO₂ contains 5-10 nm size primary particles strongly agglomerated in the suspensions
30 at neutral pH. Both DLS and TEM studies showed porous agglomerates of 200 nm and greater
31 size (Fig. S6, S7, S8). TiO₂ agglomerate size depends on the slurry concentration and in
32 particular on the suspension pH [38]. Detailed investigation of such effects is beyond the scope
33 of this work. Under the conditions applied, PC500 TiO₂ exists in suspensions as 200-300 nm
34 size agglomerates (which count, by order of magnitude, ~10⁴ primary particles in one

1 agglomerate). After addition of IF-MoS₂ to TiO₂, DLS shows only large agglomerates of TiO₂
2 phase. Even for the highest loadings of IF-MoS₂ in the composite materials, no sizes
3 characteristic for the IF-MoS₂ particles were seen in the DLS distributions (Fig S8). Inclusion
4 of sulfide particles into the larger PC500 titania agglomerates is obvious as the composite
5 slurries settle down with formation of colored precipitates and colorless supernatant liquids.
6 Therefore otherwise stable suspensions of sole IF-MoS₂ are destroyed by contact with titania
7 PC500 agglomerates.

8 Stability of suspensions and particles charge was estimated from Zeta potential measurements.
9 Depending on the size and on the chemical nature of suspended particles a Zeta potential of 20-
10 30 mV is generally required to achieve reasonably stable dispersions. Figure 1 presents Zeta
11 potential for different TiO₂ powders and two IF-MoS₂ solids, measured in 1:1 water-methanol
12 mixture containing 0.001M KNO₃. TiO₂ materials show similar behavior with IEP at 6.0 for
13 rutile nanorods, 6.1 for PC500 and 6.8 for P25. Two IF-MoS₂ samples show similar behavior
14 with IEP < 2.5. For the two extreme cases of smaller particles heated at relatively low
15 temperature (IF-MoS₂-18-450) and large particles heated at high temperature (IF-MoS₂-71-
16 750), Zeta potential is negative in the whole range of pH > 2.5. Lower electrophoretic mobility
17 for IF-MoS₂-71-750 is probably related to lower surface area and decreased amount of surface
18 functional groups. At neutral pH applied for the catalytic tests, TiO₂ suspensions are not stable.
19 By contrast IF-MoS₂ samples have a net negative charge in these conditions. Though the values
20 of Zeta potential are moderate, low amount of functional groups on the surface of IF-MoS₂
21 probably allows stabilization even at these values. At neutral pH titania particles have a weak
22 positive zeta-potential, whereas IF-MoS₂ particles are negatively charged. Therefore
23 electrostatic attraction between titania and IF-MoS₂ particles should exist, explaining observed
24 adhesion of IF-MoS₂ on the exterior of PC500 agglomerates.

25 After catalytic tests the solids were separated from the slurries by decantation, dried in inert and
26 characterized by XRD, UV-visible reflectance spectroscopy and TEM, in order to access
27 possible interactions between IF-MoS₂ and TiO₂ and eventual changes in the structure of the
28 co-catalyst. As there appeared to be essentially no difference of the observed properties before
29 and after PHER tests, we present post-mortem characterizations for the most active composites
30 containing IF-MoS₂ and PC500 oxide.

31

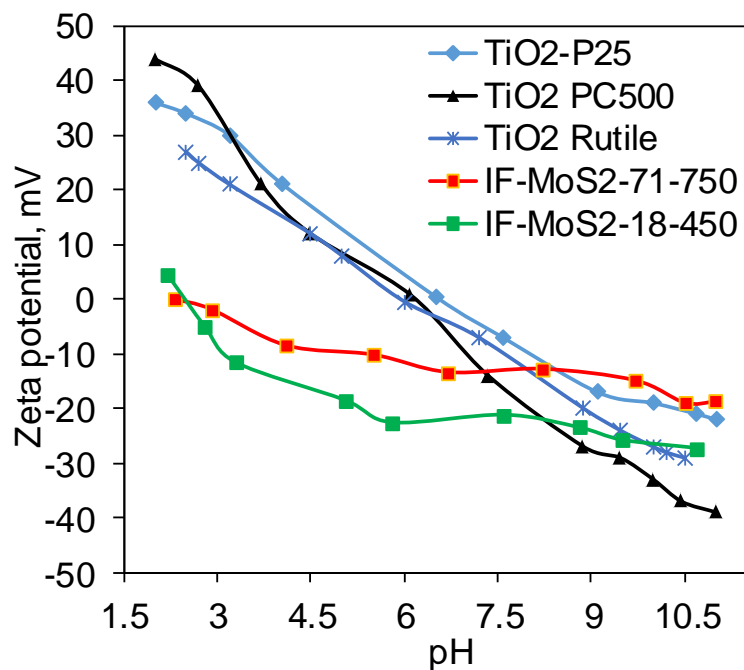
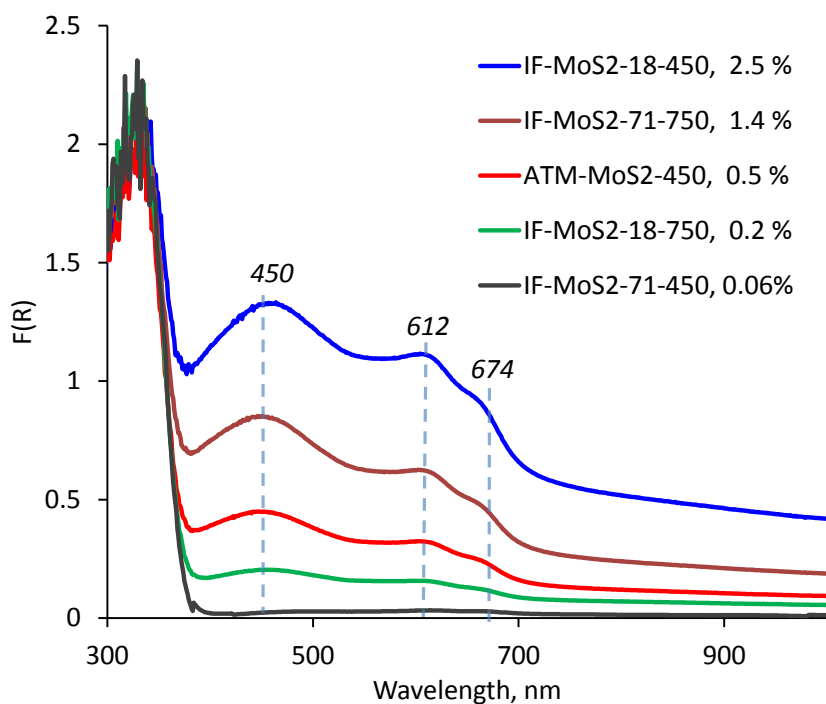
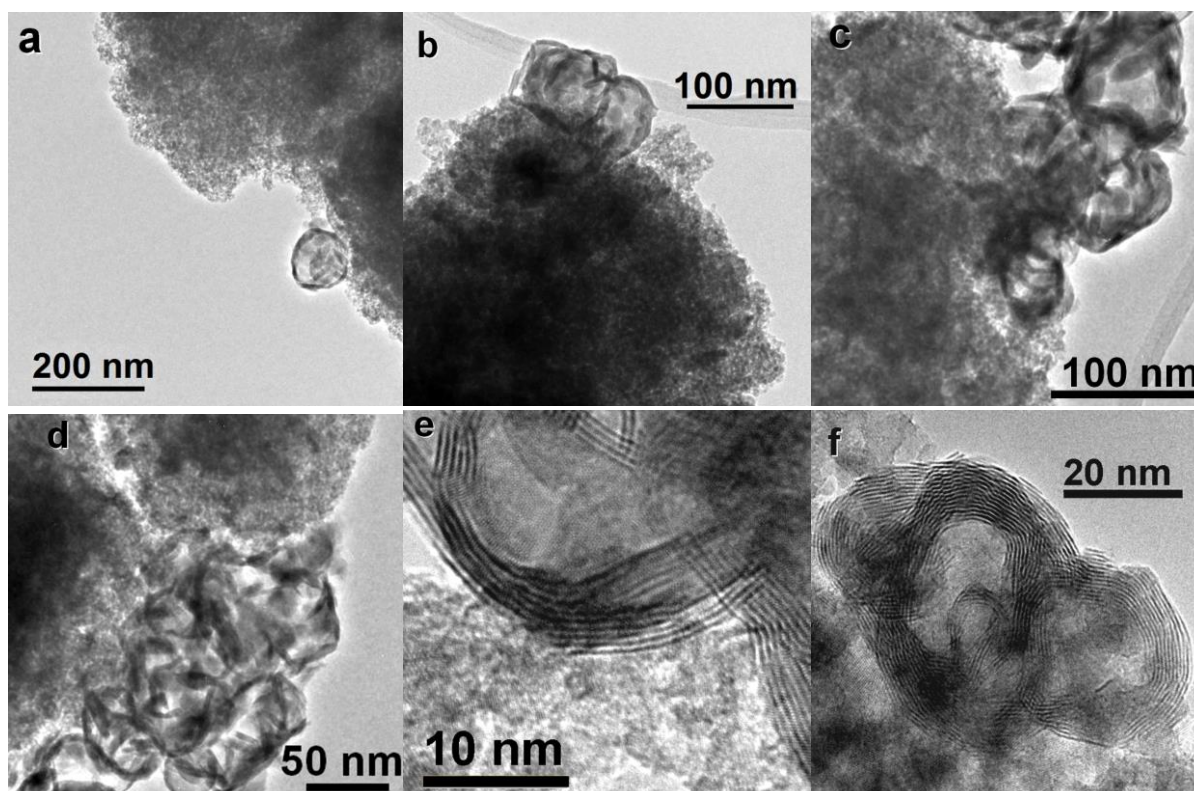


Fig. 1 Zeta potential of TiO₂ powders and two IF-MoS₂ samples as a function of pH in 10⁻³ M KNO₃ in 50 % vol. water-methanol mixture.

XRD patterns are not diagnostic of any interaction and expectedly show mechanical mixtures of MoS₂ and TiO₂ (Fig. S9). In the UV-visible spectra of composite catalysts after PHER test, the regions of absorption due to TiO₂ and MoS₂ are well distinguishable and weakly overlapping. Whatever the MoS₂ type and loading, the same features were observed. For MoS₂, beside the main ill-resolved peak at 450 nm, two characteristic lines at 612 and 674 nm are seen [39,40]. These lines do not change position and their intensity changes in step with the amount of MoS₂ in the composite. Closed-shell IF morphology does not modify the UV-vis absorption spectra: indeed, a mechanical mixture of TiO₂ with ATM –MoS₂ shows the same features of the UV-vis spectrum as IF-MoS₂ (Fig. 2). The band gap of TiO₂ remains at 3.24(4) eV in all samples, suggesting that the electronic properties of titania are not significantly modified. TEM images of the solids after catalytic test show isolated IF particles as well as agglomerates of several IF particles adhered to TiO₂ agglomerates (Fig. 3a-d). The IF-MoS₂ particles preserve their closed-shell morphology. The contact between MoS₂ and TiO₂ occurs via the basal planes of sulfide (Fig 3e, f). As far as TEM of dried samples represents the solid morphology in the slurry, it can be concluded that the IF-MoS₂ particles are located at the exterior of titania agglomerates.



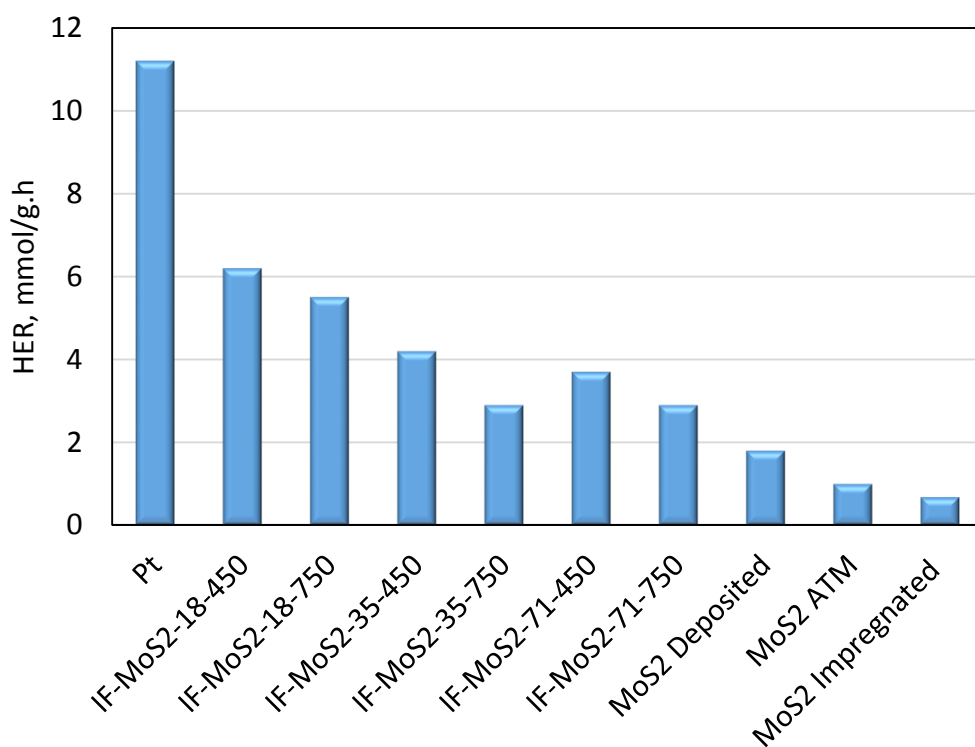
1
2 **Fig. 2. UV-Visible spectra of $\text{TiO}_2\text{-MoS}_2$ composite catalysts after the PHER test. The mixtures**
3 **were prepared with different MoS_2 loading indicated in legends (% wt.).**
4
5



6
7
8 **Fig. 3. TEM images of composite materials recovered after catalytic test (according to co-catalyst**
9 **used, all on PC500 TiO_2): IF-MoS₂-71-450 (a), IF-MoS₂-71-750 (b), IF-MoS₂-35-750 (c), IF-MoS₂-**
10 **35-450 (d), IF-MoS₂-18-450 (e) IF-MoS₂-35-750 (f).**
11
12

1 3. 3. Photocatalytic hydrogen production activity.

2 PHER rate was systematically studied as a function of several parameters. Firstly we focused
3 on the PHER rate versus the IF-MoS₂ properties, the slurry concentration and the relative
4 amount of IF-MoS₂ vs. TiO₂. Other factors were also studied including water – methanol ratio
5 and the nature of TiO₂. The catalysts were compared with Pt/TiO₂ reference and with similar
6 slurries containing non-IF molybdenum sulfide, generated from the decomposition of
7 ammonium thiomolybdate (ATM-MoS₂). PHER activity of impregnated and deposited 0.8 wt.
8 %. MoS₂/TiO₂ prepared according to ref. [19] was measured in a wide range of slurry
9 concentrations and compared with the systems under study to unravel the influence of the
10 preparation technique and of the MoS₂ morphology.



11
12 **Fig. 4. Specific PHER rate as a function of preparation technique for the MoS₂/TiO₂ catalysts, as**
13 **compared with Pt/TiO₂ reference (maximal observed value is given for each preparation type).**

14 The highest observed values of specific PHER rate for the MoS₂/TiO₂ materials prepared by
15 different techniques and for Pt/TiO₂ reference are shown in Fig. 4. Specific PHER activity as a
16 function of slurry concentration for three different IF sizes is depicted in Fig. 5 for the loading
17 corresponding to 0.8 %wt. IF-MoS₂/TiO₂. Activity as a function of IF-MoS₂ loading for
18 selected samples is presented in Fig 6. Additional data on the activity of these systems are
19 reported in the SI (Fig S10-S12).

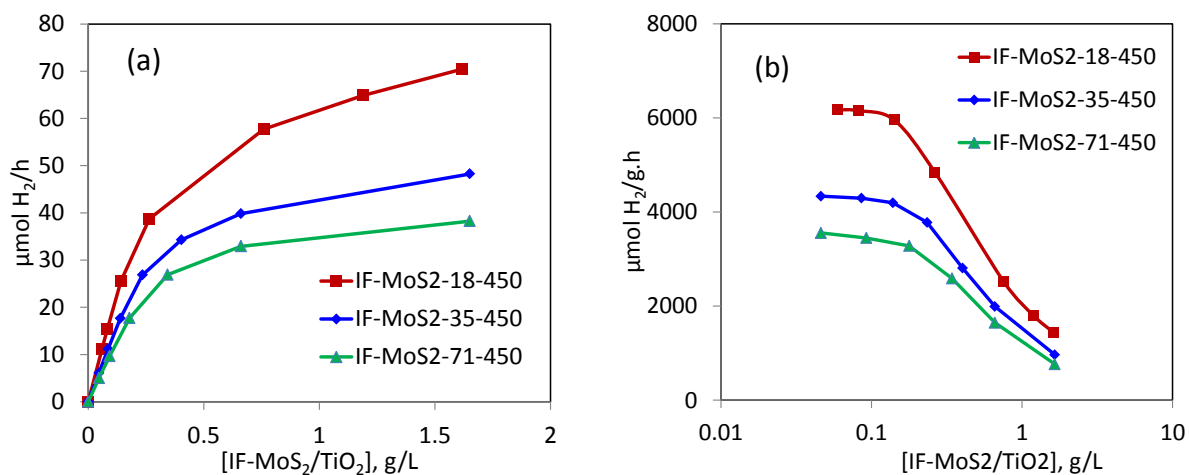


Fig. 5 Total (a) and specific (b) PHER rate as a function of slurry concentration for different IF-MoS₂ particle sizes. All IF-MoS₂ samples were prepared at 450 °C. MoS₂ loading is 0.8 % wt.

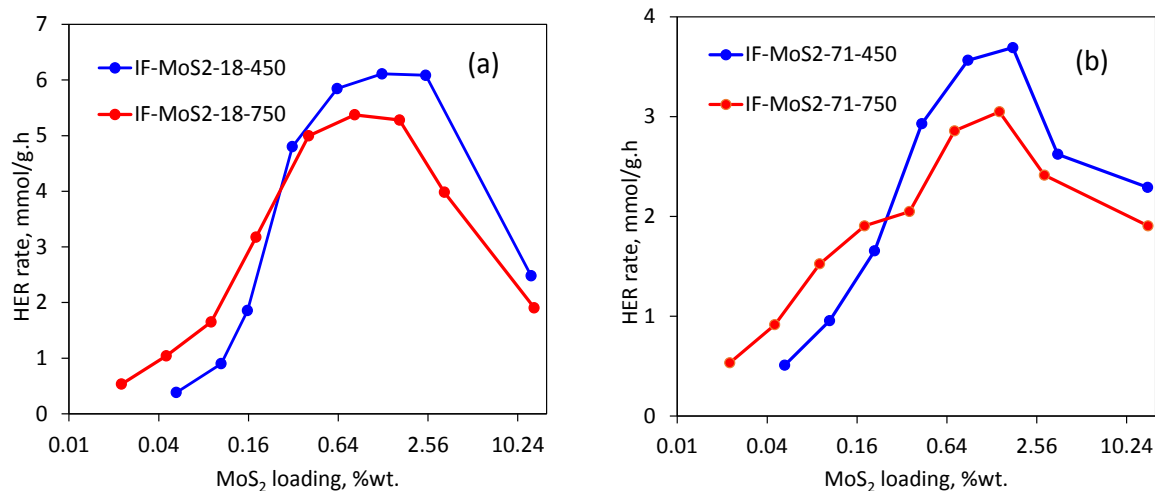


Fig. 6 Specific PHER rate as a function of MoS₂ (%wt.) loading on PC500 TiO₂ for IF-MoS₂-18 (a) and IF-MoS₂-71 co-catalysts (b), prepared at 450 and 750 °C. Slurry concentration is 0.1 g/L.

As follows from comparison with the (re-calculated) literature values (Table S2, refs [16, 41, 44, 46, 47, 48]), the IF-MoS₂/TiO₂ system is among the best reported PHER catalysts of this type. Note however, that direct comparison with the literature is difficult because even for similar MoS₂/TiO₂ systems, different conditions are used in different laboratories, such as light source and reactor geometry. More straightforward idea of the catalysts performance and ranking might be given by comparison with benchmark references. In comparison with 0.5% Pt/TiO₂, the best IF-MoS₂-450 co-catalyst gives nearly 50 % PHER rate (Fig. 4, Fig. S11). On the other hand, IF-MoS₂ showed greater PHER activity than all MoS₂-containing references tested in this work. Prepared using a similar procedure of mechanical mixing, non-IF bulk ATM-MoS₂ in a slurry with PC500 showed significantly lower activity (Fig. 4). Previously

1 studied impregnated and deposited MoS₂-TiO₂ catalysts are even less performant at equal Mo
2 loading and slurry concentrations. Remarkably, impregnated catalyst with the highest MoS₂
3 dispersion and the most exposed slabs edges was the least active. PHER activity of the
4 individual components has been also checked. No hydrogen production occurs in the presence
5 of sole IF-MoS₂ in pure methanol or water-methanol mixture. Bare PC500 titania has
6 measurable PHER activity (~35 μmol/g.1.h for 1.5g/L slurry), which is two orders of magnitude
7 lesser than for the best composite catalysts.

8 The nature of TiO₂ appears to be important. PC500 solid gives significantly higher PHER rates
9 than P25 titania. Rutile nanorods show inferior PHER rates which might be due to the intrinsic
10 advantage of anatase over rutile (Fig. S11).

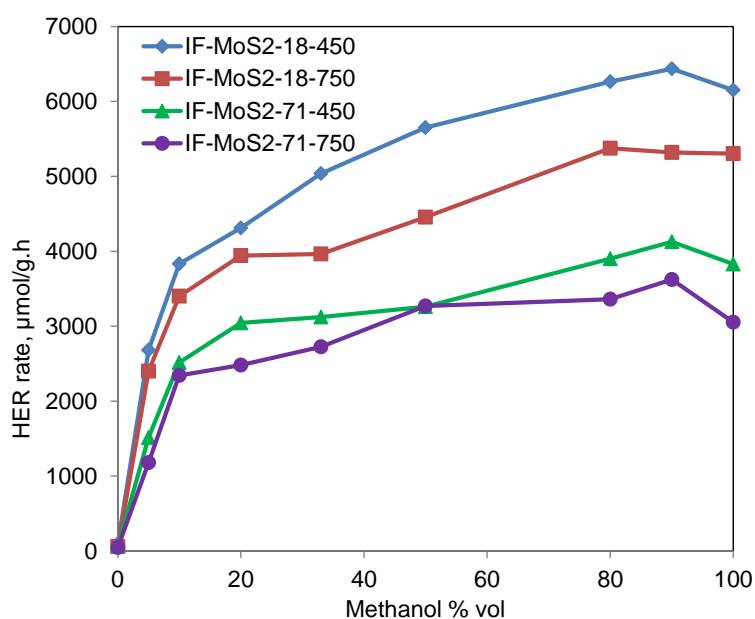
11 The IF-MoS₂ particle size has a clear impact on the observed PHER activity. Smaller IF-18
12 particles systematically give higher PHER rates than larger ones, in the sequence IF-18 > IF-
13 35 ≥ IF-71 (Fig 5, 6). The observed effect of IF particle size on the HER rate (nearly 50 %
14 relative value) is by far lesser than the variation of the specific surface area from IF-MoS₂-18
15 to IF-MoS₂-71, which is threefold (Table S1). The existing moderate difference might be related
16 to better interaction between MoS₂ and TiO₂ for the smaller particles and other fine details of
17 the mechanism. It should be emphasized again, that even “small” IF-MoS₂ particles are very
18 large as compared with those in the impregnated and deposited references.

19 The observed PHER rate as a function of MoS₂ loading has maximal values in the range of
20 loadings 0.5-2 wt. %, depending on the IF-MoS₂ sample (Fig. 6). At lower co-catalyst loadings
21 expected decrease of activity occurs. Whatever the mechanism of co-catalyst action, some
22 lowest amount of co-catalyst obviously exists, necessary to harvest the photo generated
23 electrons. Expectedly, for larger particles higher loadings are necessary to achieve this limit.
24 Therefore the decline of the PHER rate began at higher loadings for the IF-71-MoS₂ solids than
25 for IF-18-MoS₂ ones (Fig. 6). On the high loading side, for all co-catalysts, the PHER rate
26 decreased above 2% wt. (Fig. 6). Such decrease might be attributed to non-productive light
27 absorption by MoS₂ or to electron-hole recombination promoted by the co-catalyst (vide infra).
28 In the region of optimal mass loadings, the PHER rate has a plateau or a smooth maximum.

29 The influence of the IF-MoS₂ preparation temperature is illustrated in Figure 6. For both small
30 and large particles, the increase of the preparation temperature from 450°C to 750 °C leads to
31 a decrease of PHER rates, apparently because of the decrease of defects and edges concentration
32 upon sulfide annealing. Again, the magnitude of the effect on PHER is moderate and by far
33 lesser than the variation of the number of residual slabs edges. As determined in the previous
34 work [25] the amount of residual edges decreased by orders of magnitude from 450 to 750 °C.

1 This finding suggests that while edges and defects are obviously necessary for the PHER to
2 occur, reaction on the surface of MoS₂ is not the rate-limiting step for the whole process
3 (unlikely to heterogeneous catalysis and electrochemical HER).

4 The effect of water – methanol mixtures composition was studied for several selected catalysts
5 (Fig. 7). The activity had a smooth maximum at 10-20 % vol. H₂O then slowly decreased with
6 the amount of water, up to 90% H₂O. At low methanol concentrations, a sharp decrease was
7 observed. In pure water only a small residual activity was detected for a short time, but overall
8 water splitting was extinct after 1-2h.



9

10 **Figure 7 Specific HER rate as a function of water–methanol mixture composition.**

11

12 In summary, highly active composite catalysts were obtained, more performant than the
13 reference catalysts of the same type. Surprisingly, mechanically mixed in solution and poorly
14 dispersed IF-MoS₂ shows much greater activity than finely dispersed MoS₂ in an intimate
15 contact with titania surface (as it is present in the deposited and impregnated samples).
16 Moreover IF-MoS₂ systems are by far more stable than highly dispersed MoS₂ which is slowly
17 but steadily oxidized towards soluble Mo blues [42]. The influence of the properties of IF-MoS₂
18 nanoparticles on the PHER rate appears non-negligible but rather moderate. Provided that IF-
19 MoS₂ is dispersed in water-methanol slurry with PC500 titania in a 0.5-2 % wt. amount, high
20 PHER rates are always obtained. By contrast, the nature of TiO₂ and the preparation technique
21 of the MoS₂ co-catalyst (i.e. MoS₂ morphology and its interaction with TiO₂) play a crucial role
22 and may modify the PHER rate by an order of magnitude.

23

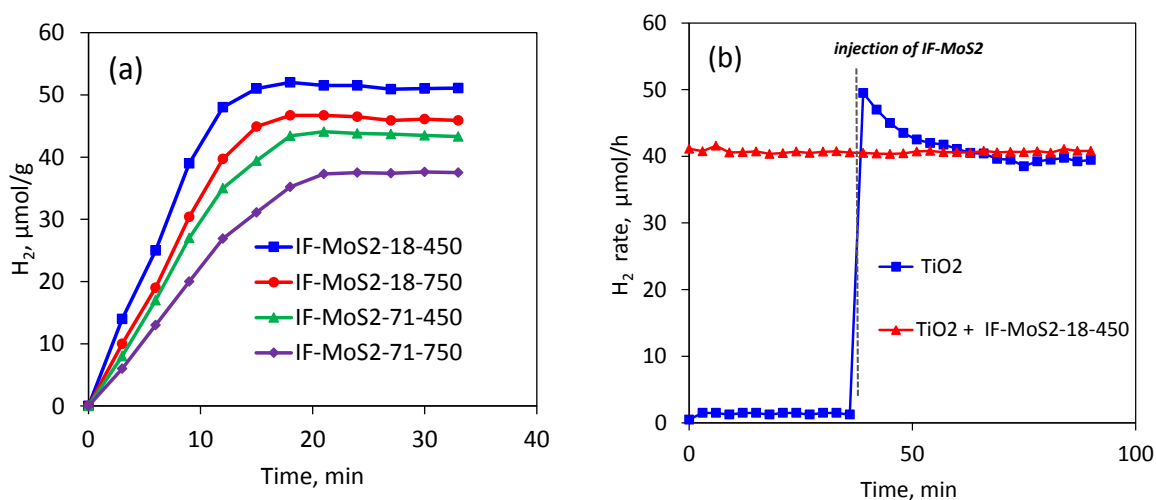
1 3.4. Demonstration of the trapped electrons transfer.

2 Liquid-phase PHER is a complex multistep process which includes light absorption, carriers
3 transport, chemical reaction, desorption and diffusion of the products. Depending on the
4 conditions, each step can become limiting for the whole PHER process. In an optimal
5 photocatalyst the rate limiting step is supposed to be that of the light delivery, i.e. all photons
6 are absorbed and used to produce H₂. The current efforts on PHER catalysts design are in a
7 great extent inspired by the field of photoelectrochemical devices. It is often (implicitly)
8 supposed that the bottleneck of the overall PHER process is related to the reaction on the co-
9 catalyst or to the interface transfer of charge carriers. By consequence the best PHER
10 performance is striven to be achieved by optimizing these properties. In particular, good contact
11 and easy charge transfer between MoS₂ and TiO₂ is considered mandatory for high PHER
12 performance [43, 44]. To this aim, MoS₂-TiO₂ epitaxy, the use of metallic exfoliated MoS₂
13 phase [45] or doping with conducting materials [46, 47] were applied. At the same time, TiO₂
14 is modified with respect of morphology and crystalline facets exposure [48, 49] whereas the
15 MoS₂ co-catalysts are optimized to expose the highest possible amount of active edges, [50, 51]
16 by analogy with the MoS₂-based electrochemical HER catalysts [52].

17 However, as demonstrated in the previous section, highly active catalysts could be obtained by
18 mechanical mixing of TiO₂ and IF-MoS₂ suspensions assisted with a gentle ultrasound
19 treatment. Taking into account spherical shape and relative inertness of IF-MoS₂, the contact
20 between MoS₂ and TiO₂ is by far lesser than in the impregnated and deposited references.
21 Moreover, the surface of IF-MoS₂ exposes mostly inert basal planes, albeit curved. The
22 catalysts under study are quite poorly dispersed as compared with the impregnated counterparts.
23 Even the smallest particles in the IF-MoS₂-18 are by three orders of magnitude more massive
24 than 4-5 nm MoS₂ slabs in the supported MoS₂/TiO₂. Moreover, as shows TEM study, the MoS₂
25 particles are localized at the exterior of large TiO₂ agglomerates, never penetrating inside them.
26 With respect to the existing literature the observed results seem highly counterintuitive.

27 In addition to the results of the section 3.2, we observed that sonication even for prolonged
28 periods (up to 4h) that would improve the components mixing, does not significantly modify
29 the PHER rates (Fig. S13). Post mortem inspection of the best composite catalysts revealed that
30 a considerable part of TiO₂ agglomerates do not contain adhered IF-MoS₂ particles, as
31 exemplified in Fig S7. Therefore transfer of active species between TiO₂ and IF-MoS₂ probably
32 occurs upon collisions in the slurry. Taking into account large size of TiO₂ agglomerates and

1 considerable part of bare TiO₂ in the optimal catalysts, for such an interaction to be efficient,
 2 the transferred species should be long – live and highly mobile, in order to survive between the
 3 collisions and to travel along the distances of 200-300 nm (typical size of TiO₂ agglomerates.
 4 It is well-known that photo generated electrons are highly mobile in the polycrystalline TiO₂
 5 agglomerates. Indeed, the mobility of electrons in polycrystalline TiO₂ specimens was shown
 6 to extend up to the micrometer scale, being by several orders larger than the mobility of holes
 7 [53, 54]. On the other hand, long-live species are described in the literature known as trapped
 8 electrons (TE), alternatively called accumulated or stored electrons. They appear upon UV
 9 illumination of bare titania in the presence of hole scavengers (e.g. in alcohol medium) and
 10 cause its blue coloration as TE are apparently located at a metal ion (Ti³⁺ species) with an
 11 oxygen vacancy [55,56,57]. The possibility of using TE to reduce molecular species has been
 12 demonstrated earlier in organics hydrogenation [58,59] or nitrogen fixation [60].
 13 Our experimental observations suggest that TE are transferred from the TiO₂ particles to IF-
 14 MoS₂, where they generate molecular hydrogen. To prove this, a series of experiments was
 15 carried out in which accumulated electrons were used to produce hydrogen from methanol in
 16 the dark. In such experiments, bare titania was illuminated for 1h, then light was switched off
 17 and a calculated amount of sulfide suspension (1% IF-MoS₂ by weight on TiO₂) was injected
 18 into a blue TiO₂ slurry via a septum. Rapid release of H₂ was observed in all cases, which ended
 19 within the first 10-20 minutes after the injection (Fig. 8a). The amount of TE has been estimated
 20 from the limiting amount of hydrogen released in the dark. It has the values of 30-50 μmol/g,
 21 in the same range as the amounts of stored electrons determined from photoacoustic
 22 spectroscopy and reactions with organics [53-55].



23
 24 **Fig. 8 H₂ release in the dark, after 1 h UV irradiation of bare TiO₂, followed by injection of IF –**
 25 **MoS₂ suspensions (a) and effect of IF-MoS₂ injection into a continuously illuminated titania slurry**
 26 **(b).**

1 In an ideal case, the same amount of H₂ should be released due to reaction of accumulated
2 electrons after the same illumination time, whatever the co-catalyst. However as the TE have
3 limited lifetime and traces of oxygen are unavoidable in the system, the co-catalysts having
4 slower PHER rates equally show lower amounts of H₂ released in the dark (Fig.8). Whatever
5 with this limiting amount, the results of dark experiment shown in Fig 8a give a direct evidence
6 that TE are transferred from the titania to the sulfide and then produce hydrogen.

7 In order to see how quickly the interaction is established and the steady state PHER rate is
8 attained, an aliquot of IF-MoS₂ suspension was injected into the slurry of bare TiO₂ upon
9 constant illumination. An abrupt PHER rate jump occurs immediately after the injection (Fig.
10 8b). During the first 20 min after the injection of IF-MoS₂ the PHER rate was greater than in
11 the steady state experiment, probably due to the release of the excess of accumulated electrons.
12 Then it settles down to the level of steady state (Fig. 7b). As the mixed suspension was not
13 sonicated after injection, it proves that the ultrasound treatment is not necessary to obtain highly
14 active catalysts.

15 The PHER rates reported up to this point refer to the catalysts produced by combining IF-MoS₂
16 and TiO₂ directly in the liquid phase. It could be questioned however if the composite catalysts
17 at stake have a potential to be further improved by increasing connectivity between the
18 components. Such improvement could be achieved by thermal treatment of the solid materials.
19 The composite catalysts were isolated as powders and treated in Ar or H₂ flow at different
20 temperatures in the range 400-750 °C. Figure S14 represents variation of PHER rate vs
21 temperature for the catalyst 0.8% IF-MoS₂-450. A slight increase of activity was observed after
22 heating or reduction at 350- 450 °C. Then the PHER activity decreased with pre-heating
23 temperature, more rapidly in H₂ than in Ar. A slight increase of the PHER rate might be
24 explained by the increase of titania connectivity, in lines with the work by Kowalska and coll,
25 who reported an improvement of interparticle electron transfer between thermally agglomerated
26 TiO₂ particles [61]. This result is also in good agreement with the work by Haruta and coll,
27 reporting an increase of PHER at low Pt loading on agglomerated titania [62]. However this
28 effect (about 10-15% relative PHER rate increase) might be fully explained by better
29 connectivity of TiO₂ agglomerates as observed in the previous works, without evoking MoS₂-
30 TiO₂ interactions. The PHER rate dropped upon further increase of the treatment temperature
31 above 400 °C, probably because the decrease of specific surface area overweighs the
32 improvement of connectivity (Fig. S14).

33

34 *3.5. Flat band potential measurements*

1 To get a better insight into the transfer of accumulated electrons, the energy bands alignment in
2 the corresponding solids is considered in this section. Both TiO₂ and 2H-MoS₂ are
3 semiconductors. The band gap E_g of MoS₂ depends on the material properties (particle size,
4 layers stacking, doping) but is comprised between 1.2 and 1.9 eV, i.e. is always considerably
5 lesser than 3.2 eV band gap of anatase. The VB edge of MoS₂ containing a major contribution
6 of S 3p orbitals is commonly recognized to be significantly higher than VB edge of TiO₂, which
7 has mostly O 2p character [63]. However as concerns the CB bands alignment, there is some
8 controversy in the literature.

9 In a majority of works using electrochemical methods or high-vacuum XPS (UPS) techniques
10 as well as DFT calculations [64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69], the energy position of TiO₂ CB bottom is
11 found to be superior (more negative) than the bottom of CB in MoS₂, in agreement with
12 observed electrons transfer from TiO₂ to MoS₂. However, several recent works place the bottom
13 CB of MoS₂ above that of TiO₂ and advocate mechanistic schemes in which TiO₂ plays the role
14 of electrons acceptor and hosts the reduction sites, whereas MoS₂ donates photo generated
15 electrons and is responsible for the oxidation half-reaction [70, 71, 72, 73]. Unraveling this
16 controversy would probably deserve a dedicated investigation, far beyond the aims of this work.
17 However the CB alignment for the materials under study was checked under the conditions
18 close to those of the PHER experiment by means of flat band potential (U_{FB}) electrochemical
19 measurements. The flat-band potentials of the powders at various pH were evaluated using the
20 Mott–Schottky method [74], based on eq (3):

21

$$22 \quad \frac{1}{C^2} = \frac{2}{\epsilon\epsilon_0 e N_D} \left(V - U_{FB} - \frac{k_B T}{e} \right) \quad (3)$$

23

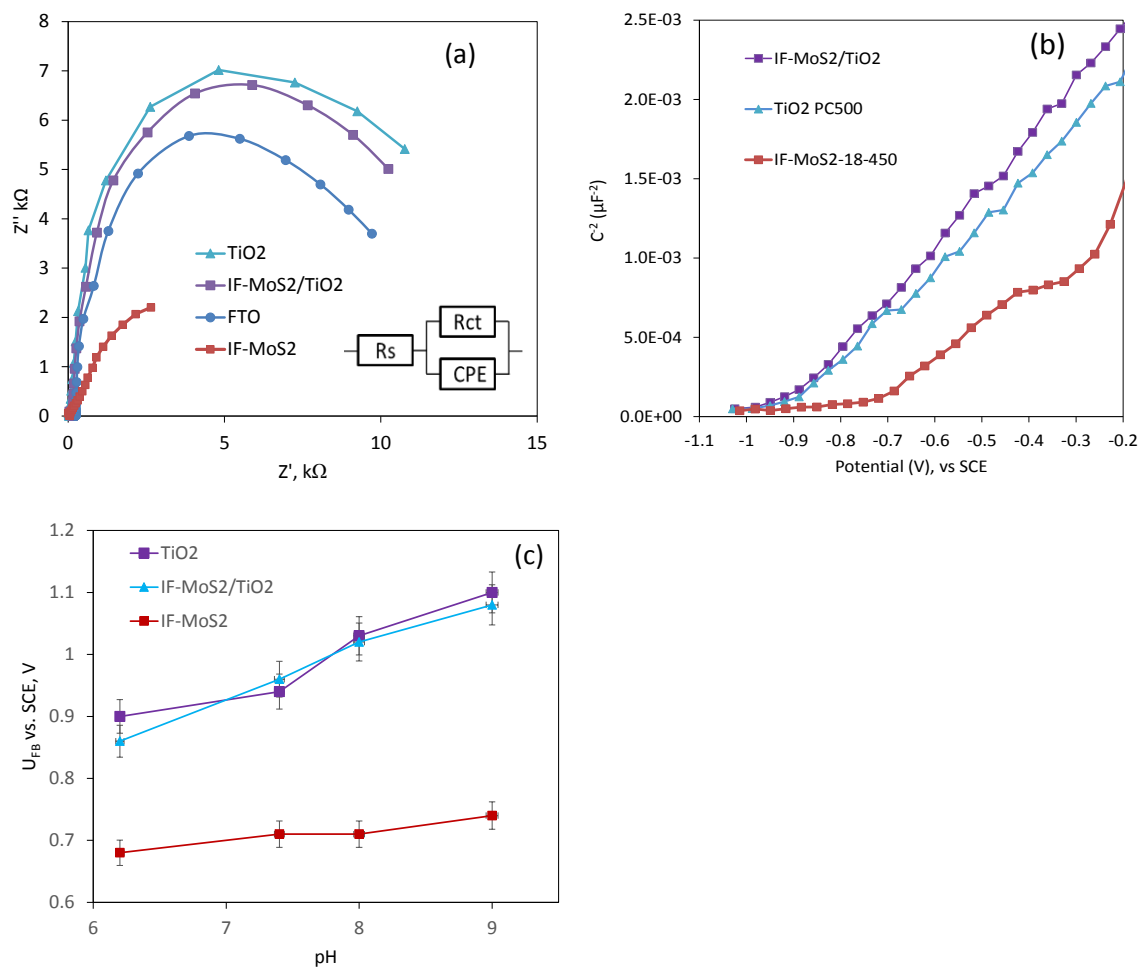
24 Where C is the normalized interfacial capacitance, ϵ and ϵ_0 are the dielectric constant of the
25 semiconductor and vacuum permittivity, N_D is the charges density, V is the voltage, k_B is
26 Boltzmann's constant, T is the temperature, e is the electron charge.

27 Nyquist EIS plots and Mott-Schottky (MS) plots for TiO₂, IF-MoS₂ and a composite material
28 containing 0.8 % IF-MoS₂ are depicted in Fig. 9. The EIS curves (Fig. 9a) provide general
29 information on the electrodes behavior, complementary to the MS measurements which are
30 carried out only at relatively high frequencies. In the frequency range 100 KHz -0.1Hz, Randles
31 circuit describes the response of the systems (Fig 9a, inset): R_S represents the series resistance
32 from the electrodes, electrolyte and contacts; R_{CT} describes the charge transfer resistance at the
33 electrolyte–electrode interface. Constant phase element (CPE) describes capacitance of the

1 electrode and deposited material (Fig. 9a, inset). Compared with the pure FTO glass, the charge
2 transfer resistance R_{CT} of the TiO_2 -coated FTO electrode is higher due to partial blocking of the
3 conducting FTO glass by the dielectric TiO_2 nanoparticles. Composite IF- MoS_2/TiO_2 material
4 shows behavior close to that of pure TiO_2 as only a small volume fraction and no percolation
5 network of MoS_2 is created. Deposit of IF- MoS_2 shows decreased charge transfer resistance due
6 to considerable conductivity of molybdenum sulfide (Fig. 9a).

7 The positive slopes of the MS plots (Fig. 9b) confirm that both TiO_2 and IF- MoS_2 are n-type
8 semiconductor. The U_{FB} obtained from the MS plots could be approximately regarded as equal
9 to the bottom of CB energy. Despite its simplicity, for deposited powders electrochemical FB
10 determination technique has several pitfalls, related, among others, to the influence of substrate
11 –electrolyte interface [75,76]. The MS plots of pure FTO and deposits were therefore compared.
12 In the zone -0.6-1.0 V vs. SCE, the C^{-2} values of pure FTO are several times higher (capacitance
13 lower) than for the deposits (Fig. S16). In this region the MS curves are related to the properties
14 of the powers under study and not to the electrolyte-FTO substrate interface. Therefore, despite
15 possible capacitive contributions from the electrode–solution interface, reliable values of U_{FB}
16 could be obtained. In the region -0.4-0 V vs. SCE, FTO contribution is important with U_{FB}
17 being in the range -0.4-0.6 V, depending on pH. At the potentials below -0.5-0.7 V vs. SCE, a
18 strong increase of the capacitance is observed because of contribution of the deposited
19 nanopowders. Convergence of U_{FB} measured at different frequencies has been checked as well
20 (Fig. S17). Taking into account different sources of systematic errors the measured U_{FB} values
21 have accuracy within at least 0.05 V range. The measured values of U_{FB} for TiO_2 showed
22 Nernstian dependence, i.e. shifted by 59 mV/pH unit over the pH range of 6–9. Composite IF-
23 MoS_2/TiO_2 material shows behavior similar to that of pure TiO_2 . By contrast pure IF- MoS_2
24 deposited on FTO has lower U_{FB} in the whole range of measurement and does not show
25 Nernstian behavior, but changes with a coefficient near 20 mV per pH unit (Fig. 9c). This
26 observation agrees with earlier literature. Many non-oxide (sulfides) systems show no clear pH
27 dependence of the U_{FB} but do show a Nernstian type dependence on the concentration of
28 potential determining ion. For example, in the CdS sulfide, U_{FB} depends on the S^{2-} concentration
29 [77]. It has been observed previously that MoS_2 does not show Nernstian behavior vs. medium
30 pH [78].

31



1

2

3 **Fig. 9** EIS curves (a) Mott-Shottky plots (b) and pH dependence of U_{FB} (c) for pure TiO₂ PC500,
 4 composite material containing 0.8 %wt. IF-MoS₂-18-450 and pure IF-MoS₂-18-450.

5

6 Nernstian behavior of U_{FB} observed for TiO₂ and its absence for IF-MoS₂ could be correlated
 7 with Zeta-potential measurements reported in the section 3.2. Indeed, the surface charge for
 8 TiO₂ strongly depends on the applied pH, whereas MoS₂ particles have weak negative charge
 9 in the whole range of pH studied, which much lesser slope. The literature discrepancies on the
 10 band alignment according to flat band potential measurements could be therefore tentatively
 11 explained by different conditions (pH, ionic species) applied for the measurements in different
 12 cases.

13 Overall, it follows from the U_{FB} measurements that CB bottom of IF-MoS₂ is located slightly
 14 below (less negative) than that of TiO₂. Therefore, both CB and VB edges of MoS₂ lie inside
 15 the forbidden zone of TiO₂ and transfer of both electrons and holes from the oxide to the sulfide
 16 should be favorable (Fig. 10a).

17 Note in addition that charge separation schemes in which molecular oxygen is formed on MoS₂
 18 seem hardly compatible with known corrosion of this sulfide which is easily oxidized with

1 ambient oxygen [42]. It seems more probable that MoS₂ (and in particular its chemically
2 reactive edges) would rather be oxidized by active species issued from the evolution of holes
3 than produce molecular O₂.

4

5 *3.5 Mechanistic considerations*

6 The TE transfer as evidenced in the previous section coherently explains most of the
7 experimental observations. Thus, greater activity observed for PC500 could be explained by
8 higher surface area and greater amounts of the accumulated electrons than on P25. On the other
9 hand, well-known longer lifetimes of TE on anatase as compared with rutile explain the
10 observed strong advantage of anatase samples over rutile nanorods.

11 However, despite the evidence that PHER mechanism involves the TE transfer, it remains
12 necessary to explain why high dispersion of MoS₂ on TiO₂ in the impregnated and deposited
13 samples leads to lower activity than that observed for poorly dispersed IF-MoS₂ (Fig. 4). In
14 other words, if the TE transfer occurs between TiO₂ and IF-MoS₂, then why does not it occur
15 with the same or even greater efficiency when supported MoS₂ is finely dispersed and tightly
16 interacting with TiO₂? Obviously, the amount of defects and slabs edges of the MoS₂ co-catalyst
17 is not a key parameter, as in this case impregnated and deposited systems would be much more
18 active. The only possibility to explain high PHER rates for the systems at stake is a lesser
19 electron – hole recombination. As pointed by Ohtani, charge separation and recombination
20 arguments are often abusively applied to explain the observed activity. This is in part related to
21 the difficulty of recombination measurements [79]. Here we present a mechanistic scheme
22 which with minimal assumptions qualitatively demonstrates how optimal PHER performance
23 vs. the co-catalyst loading might be achieved. To demonstrate that, the only required
24 assumption is that recombination on the co-catalyst is possible. The details of the mechanistic
25 scheme (e.g. the exact values of rate constants) require further study with physical techniques
26 such as, for example, photoacoustic spectroscopy [80]. The main point of the model is to explain
27 the existence of a maximum of PHER activity as a function of the amount of MoS₂ co-catalyst
28 in the presence of electron-hole recombination on it.

29 In the following we write down the mechanistic rate steps that involve the intermediate species
30 existing in the solid (electrons and holes). Stable chemical species whose concentrations are
31 supposed to be constant are put in the equations into curled brackets. The concentrations of
32 these species do not explicitly participate in the differential rate equations but enter into the
33 respective rate constants. Thus, concentrations of electrons [e] and holes [h] in titania are

1 supposed to be small with respect to the amount {TiO₂} of titania sites remaining unaffected
 2 by light. Similarly, the concentration of methanol {CH₃OH} is supposed to be constant
 3 throughout the reaction. Complex mechanisms of surface chemical reactions of protons
 4 reduction and methanol oxidation which in general follow Langmuir- Hinshelwood type
 5 kinetics, (as considered e.g. refs [34, 81]) are not considered here, as the conversions in all
 6 experiments are very low (< 0.1%). Therefore the rates for these complex reactions are just
 7 formally embedded within the respective constants.

8 Photogenerated electron-hole pairs in TiO₂ are produced at a constant rate (k1) but in the
 9 absence of chemical scavengers may rapidly recombine (k2):



12 The photo generated electrons in titania [e] may be either transferred to the MoS₂ co-catalyst
 13 where they form active intermediate species designated [eMo] (k3) or they may reduce protons
 14 to hydrogen directly on TiO₂, leading to small but measurable activity of bare titania (k4):



17 The electrons rapidly move within titania agglomerates. Their transfer towards the co-catalyst
 18 occurs after multiple electron hopping events between primary titania nanoparticles.
 19 Mesoporous agglomerates of the TiO₂ nanoparticles provide facile interparticle electrons
 20 transfer towards the co-catalyst. Such effect, referred as “antenna mechanism” was explained
 21 by considering the porous TiO₂ as antenna for the photogenerated electrons, enabling them to
 22 reach the TiO₂ surface [82, 83]. Even if [MoS₂] concentration does not explicitly participate in
 23 the rate equations, its amount obviously influences the apparent value of k3, which is an
 24 essential parameter of the model. Alcohol is known to suppress surface recombination due to
 25 holes consumption [84]. The methanol molecules easily diffuse inside the TiO₂ agglomerates
 26 and provide efficient holes trapping at hydroxyl surface groups [85, 86].



28 However, the holes can also be transferred to the co-catalyst (k6). Again, similarly to k3, the
 29 amount of MoS₂ is implicitly included in the constant k6.



31 As the transfer of both electrons and holes from TiO₂ to MoS₂ is favorable, MoS₂ can promote
 32 their recombination (k7, Fig. 9b).



1 Finally, the electrons transferred onto MoS₂ evolve on the MoS₂ surface to produce hydrogen
2 (k₈, Fig. 9c). As the PHER rates measured in all the experiments are fairly constant, stationary
3 state is attained in all instances (note that we do not make any assumptions about the nature of
4 the rate-limiting step).



6 As follows from the experimental results, production of hydrogen on bare titania, related to k₄
7 is small with respect to its production on the sulfide, k₈. Neglecting for simplicity hydrogen
8 production on TiO₂, the observed steady state PHER rate can be approximated as k₈*[eMo].

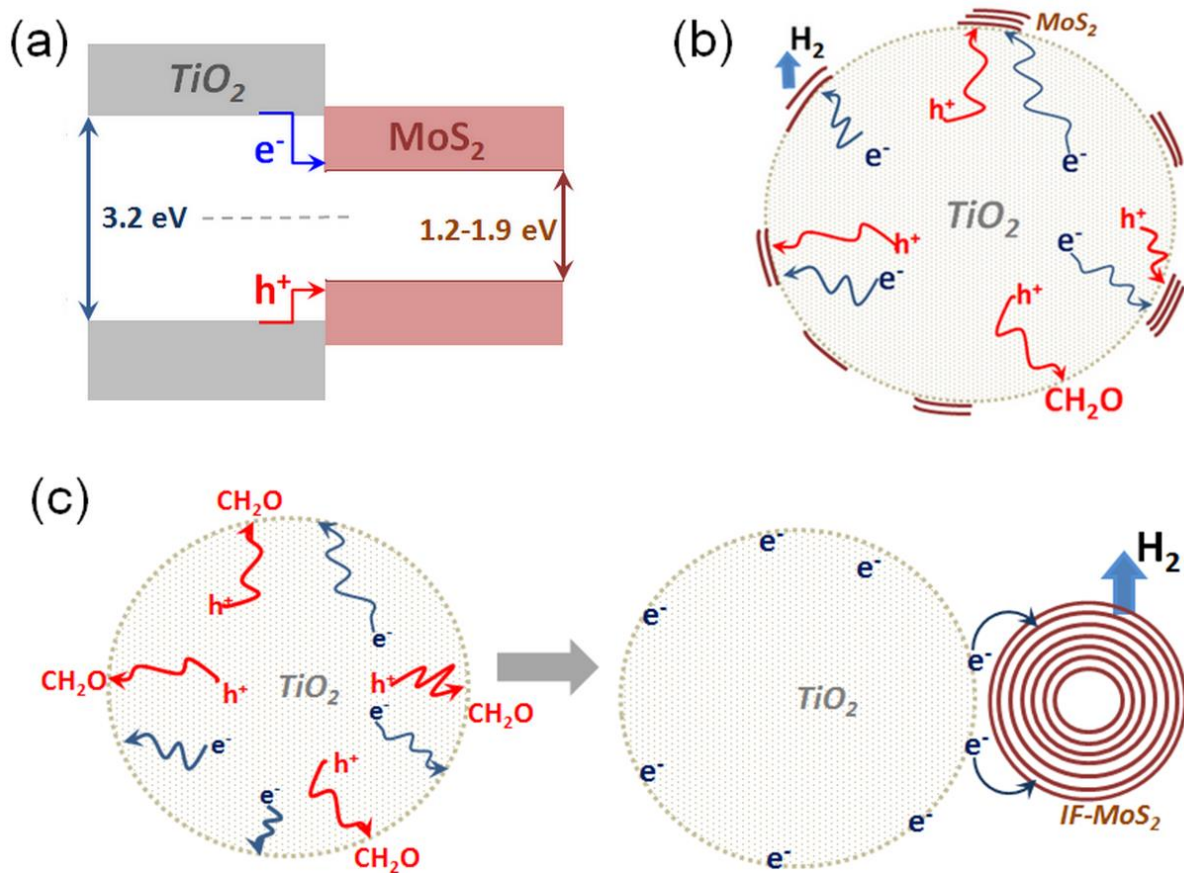
9 The rate steps k₁- k₈ give a simple system of differential equations that depends on four
10 variables [e], [h], [eMo] and [hMo]. Parametric analysis of this system has been carried out in
11 which each constant was varied by several orders of magnitude. Full account of this parametric
12 analysis is out of scope of this work. Here we aim at the qualitative demonstration of possibility
13 for the observed PHER rate to have a maximum as a function of the amount of co-catalyst
14 added. Numeric simulations show that in a wide range of constants k₁-k₈ steady the state is
15 rapidly attained, in agreement with the experiment (Fig S18). Parametric analysis within the
16 steady state region has been carried out vs. k₃ to follow the PHER rate (approximated as
17 k₈*[eMo]) as a function of MoS₂ amount. Indeed, the amount of co-catalyst influences k₃ and
18 k₆ (assuming them equal for the simplicity of parametric analysis). In a wide range of other
19 constants the steady state level of [eMo] vs. k₃ is a curve with a maximum (Fig. S19)
20 qualitatively similar to the experimental curves (Fig. 6). Therefore the mechanism k₁-k₈ is
21 capable to explain on a qualitative level why an excess of a co-catalyst might be detrimental for
22 the PHER rate.

23 In qualitative terms, when there are too many MoS₂ sites on the surface of titania, electrons and
24 holes mostly recombine on the sulfide instead of being used for the reaction (Fig. 9b). Note that
25 this model does not contain any speculative assumptions on the modified electronic properties,
26 improved separation of charges etc. but is based only on the experimentally proven or
27 physically obvious mechanistic steps. To give a better intuition of the model, the PHER might
28 be considered as a quasi-two-step process. First the holes are rapidly consumed by the alcohol
29 molecules and TE-bearing titania particles are formed; next these titania particles meet IF-MoS₂
30 co-catalyst, TE hops from TiO₂ on the sulfide and forms hydrogen (Fig 9c). Under continuous
31 illumination conditions this two-step mechanism is an abstraction, because all steps occur
32 simultaneously. However it becomes an exact qualitative description of reality for the
33 experiments using injection of IF-MoS₂ suspensions after illumination of TiO₂ (Section 3.4,
34 Fig. 8).

1 The examples of such behavior of overall activity vs. the amount of co-catalyst are well
2 described in the literature for different types of co-catalysts, yet not fully understood. Thus,
3 Mills et al attribute the decrease of PHER activity in methanol on Pt and Pd -loaded TiO₂ to the
4 overlapping of surface zones where the particles provide optimal electrons harvesting [87]. The
5 PHER rate is often deemed to be restricted by the relatively high recombination rate of electron–
6 hole pairs [88]. Higher concentrations of the co-catalyst are thought unfavorable because of its
7 own non-productive light absorbance and the possibility for electrons and holes to be
8 recombined on the same co-catalyst sink [89]. The mechanistic scheme k1-k8 considered above
9 shows that the latter condition is alone sufficient to explain the activity loss at high co-catalyst
10 loadings. Note that the behavior observed in the slurries might be qualitatively different from
11 that in the TiO₂-based PEC devices where charges recombination rate is decreased due to an
12 external bias [90,91].

13 It remains still unexplained why small and tightly contacting MoS₂ particles on the impregnated
14 and deposited catalysts demonstrate lesser PHER efficiency in the whole range of loadings. The
15 formal scheme k1-k8 is useless here, as it does not tackle the properties of MoS₂ as a function
16 of particle size. According to this formal model, impregnated and deposited catalysts should
17 give the same maximum of activity, but at much lesser MoS₂ loadings, which is not the case.
18 At this point we can only suppose that the intrinsic values of the rate constants depend on the
19 MoS₂ size.

20 This seems to be a specific property of MoS₂ catalysts, as for noble metals (e.g. Pt/TiO₂) high
21 activity was detected even for subnanometric particle size down to several-atom clusters [92].
22 It can be speculated that smaller MoS₂ have higher CB and the value k3 decreases due to
23 unfavorable electrons transfer. Verification of this hypothesis needs further experimental study.
24 Also, it seems probable that in smaller (3-5 nm) MoS₂ particles the electrons should have shorter
25 lifetimes than in IF-MoS₂. In the formal model that would be translated as lesser k3 and/or as
26 significant reversibility of the transfer with a new constant k-3.



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Fig. 9 (a) qualitative sketch of the electronic bands positions in anatase TiO₂ and 2H MoS₂: transfer of both electrons and holes from TiO₂ to MoS₂ is favorable; (b) poor PHER activity on highly dispersed MoS₂ smeared over the surface of TiO₂ is caused by rapid recombination of the e⁻ h⁺ pairs on the co-catalyst; (c) two stages of PHER on the TiO₂-IF-MoS₂ system: first the holes rapidly react with alcohol molecules, then accumulated electrons are transferred to MoS₂ where they form H₂.

9 In the same lines, faster recombination between e_{Mo} and h_{Mo} (greater k₇) would be expected
10 for smaller MoS₂ particles due to higher probability of the electron-hole interaction in a smaller
11 confined space, which would also result in a decrease of observed PHER rate. Variation of
12 MoS₂ electronic properties due to sulfide interaction with the support might be involved as well,
13 but remains beyond the scope of this study.

14

15 **4. Conclusion**

16 In summary, straightforward evidence is given in the present work that transfer of long-live
17 photogenerated trapped electrons (TE) from TiO₂ agglomerated particles to “inorganic
18 fullerenes” IF-MoS₂ provides an efficient mechanism of photo catalytic hydrogen production
19 (PHER) in water-methanol slurries. The PHER rates are at least as high as in the best systems
20 specially designed to optimize contacts between TiO₂ and MoS₂ phases and to maximize MoS₂

1 edges exposure. Recently synthesized size –tuned IF-MoS₂ materials available in wide range of
2 preparation temperatures allow a unique possibility to study variations of sulfide particle size
3 and defectness as independent parameters.

4 Important conclusions could be drawn for the practical design of this type of catalysts. The
5 results of the present study compel us to conclude that the MoS₂ edge concentration is not a
6 critical parameter for the PHER performance in such liquid slurries, because the IF-MoS₂
7 particles expose low amounts of edges. Moreover, neither a tight interfacial contact between
8 the sulfide co-catalyst and TiO₂ nor fine dispersion of sulfide particles is necessary to have high
9 PHER performance. Indeed, IF-MoS₂ particles are very large as compared with 3-5 nm MoS₂
10 slabs in the conventional catalysts. The surface of IF-MoS₂ is known to be relatively inert to
11 form mostly van der Waals non-bonding contacts with other surfaces. Nevertheless this is
12 sufficient to efficiently harvest TE from the exterior of several hundred nm-size TiO₂
13 agglomerates. It seems that mandatory condition to be met for high PHER rate is to protect the
14 generated TE from being non-productively consumed (recombined with holes). Provided that
15 TE have a sufficiently long lifetime, they are efficiently harvested by IF-MoS₂. Another
16 important property is excellent dispersibility of IF-MoS₂ in the slurries and stability of its
17 colloidal suspensions in water and water-methanol mixtures, first reported here. This allows
18 nanoscale homogeneous mixing of TiO₂ with the sulfide co-catalyst.

19 These findings open a new prospective for the catalysts design. Indeed, since the PHER co-
20 catalyst can be localized in the suspension outside the TiO₂ agglomerates and still efficiently
21 harvest the photo generated charges, new ways could be foreseen toward space-resolved water
22 splitting systems with oxidation and reduction functions separated at the nanoscale. The
23 preparation procedure is extremely soft as it involves mechanical mixing at ambient
24 temperature. The IF-MoS₂ stability is another advantage. As known from decades of the
25 hydrotreating catalysis research, the edges of MoS₂ slabs bearing catalytic sites are fragile and
26 prone to oxidation. As with IF-MoS₂ systems, they are much more stable and not subjected to
27 rapid oxidation due to their closed-shell structure. Finally, PHER catalysts using mechanical
28 mixtures of commercial titania with small amounts of MoS₂ should be easily scalable to
29 consider their practical use. Extreme simplicity of preparation, sulfur tolerance of MoS₂ and
30 low cost of such catalysts would open ways to investigation of their real-life applications, such
31 as biomass valorization.

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Graphical abstract

