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WS₂ as an Effective Noble-Metal Free Cocatalyst Modified TiSi₂ for Enhanced Photocatalytic Hydrogen Evolution under Visible Light Irradiation

Dongmei Chu¹, Chunyong Zhang¹, Ping Yang^{1,*}, Yukou Du¹ and Cheng Lu^{2,*}

- ¹ College of Chemistry, Chemical Engineering and Materials Science, Soochow University, Suzhou 215123, China; dmchu2015@126.com (D.C.); zhangchunyong@126.com (C.Z.); duyk@suda.edu.cn (Y.D.)
- ² Department of Chemistry, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5S 3H6, Canada
- * Correspondence: pyang@suda.edu.cn (P.Y.); clu@chem.utoronto.ca (C.L.); Tel./Fax: +86-512-6588-0089 (P.Y.); +1-416-978-4526 (C.L.)

Academic Editors: Di-Jia Liu and Jianguo Liu

Received: 23 July 2016; Accepted: 5 September 2016; Published: 10 September 2016

Abstract: A noble-metal free photocatalyst consisting of WS₂ and TiSi₂ being used for hydrogen evolution under visible light irradiation, has been successfully prepared by in-situ formation of WS₂ on the surface of TiSi₂ in a thermal reaction. The obtained samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDX), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The results demonstrate that WS₂ moiety has been successfully deposited on the surface of TiSi₂ and some kind of chemical bonds, such as Ti-S-W and Si-S-W, might have formed on the interface of the TiSi₂ and WS₂ components. Optical and photoelectrochemical investigations reveal that WS₂/TiSi₂ composite possesses lower hydrogen evolution potential and enhanced photogenerated charge separation and transfer efficiency. Under 6 h of visible light ($\lambda > 420$ nm) irradiation, the total amount of hydrogen evolved from the optimal WS₂/TiSi₂ catalyst is 596.4 µmol·g⁻¹, which is around 1.5 times higher than that of pure TiSi₂ under the same reaction conditions. This study shows a paradigm of developing the effective, scalable and inexpensive system for photocatalytic hydrogen generation.

Keywords: WS₂/TiSi₂ composite; noble-metal free; visible light; photocatalyst; hydrogen evolution

1. Introduction

Due to growing environmental concerns and increasing energy demands, hydrogen, as the highest energy density carrier per unit weight and an environmentally friendly energy source, has attracted great attention [1–6]. Since the discovery of hydrogen evolution through the photoelectrochemical water splitting on the TiO₂ electrode [7], photocatalytic water splitting to produce hydrogen under solar light irradiation has been considered as one of the most important approaches to meet the world energy demands and to solve environmental issues. However, TiO₂ as a photocatalyst for practical use is restricted by the low visible-light absorption and fast photogenerated electron-hole recombination [7–9]. To develop a novel, efficient, and cost-effective visible-light-driven photocatalyst is indispensable to realize the aim of applicable solar energy conversion [10–12].

Titanium disilicide (TiSi₂) is an excellent semiconductor material due to its high thermodynamic stability and excellent optical properties [13]. The band gap of TiSi₂ is in the range of 1.5 to 3.4 eV, suggesting that the absorption spectrum of TiSi₂ can cover almost the whole visible range and a part of the ultraviolet. The application of TiSi₂ for photocatalytic water splitting was first reported by Demuth et al. [14]. Using co-catalysts, such as RuO₂ and graphene, can further enhance the photocatalytic activity of TiSi₂-based catalyst, since electron-hole recombination is retarded [15].

As it is well known, the photocatalytic hydrogen production systems generally have two serious limitations: a high electron-hole recombination rate and a large hydrogen production overpotential [7–9]. In order to overcome these limitations, the most widely used approach is to use noble metal nanoparticles such as Pt as a co-catalyst [16–18]. However, high cost and a limited source of noble metals may have an adverse effect on the practical applications. Therefore, it is critical to develop a noble-metal free system for efficient photocatalytic hydrogen generation.

Transition-metal dichalcogenides, such as molybdenum disulphide (MoS_2) and tungsten disulphide (WS_2), have been used as co-catalysts and charge-transfer facilitators to improve the photocatalytic hydrogen production, owing to their graphene-like layered structure, high electron mobility, moderate bandgap, and rich active sites [19–23]. Since Guo's group first reported that WS_2 could efficiently improve the rate of H_2 evolution from TiO₂ under visible light irradiation [24], considerable progress has been made toward developing the WS_2 -containing photocatalyst for H_2 production from water [25–29]. However, their interactions with semiconductors are rarely discussed.

In this paper, WS₂ modified TiSi₂ hybrid composite (WS₂/TiSi₂) has been successfully fabricated via a two-step method: ultrasonic deposition and postcalcination. Postcalcination at a moderate temperature was found to be effective for forming the heterojunction structure between WS₂ and TiSi₂. Compared with TiSi₂, the as-prepared WS₂/TiSi₂ hybrid exhibited a more negative conduction band level and better photoexcited-charge separation efficiency. The optimal WS₂/TiSi₂ composite was proved to be a robust and effective photocatalyst for water-reduction to produce hydrogen under visible light irradiation.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Morphology and Structure

For convenience, the prepared catalyst samples were labeled as $WS_2-x/TiSi_2-y$, where *x* is the weight percentage of WS_2 in the sample and *y* stands for the calcination temperature. Figure 1 presents the XRD (X-ray diffraction) patterns of $WS_2-1/TiSi_2$ prepared at different calcination temperatures for 2 h. For comparison, the XRD pattern of commercial TiSi_2 is also included in the figure. TiSi_2 shows characteristic diffraction peaks at 39.2°, 42.3°, 43.2° and 49.8°, corresponding to the (311), (040), (022) and (331) orientations of the orthorhombic structure of TiSi_2 (JCPDS: 35-0785) [30]. The X-ray diffraction patterns of the $WS_2-1/TiSi_2$ catalysts prepared at different temperatures demonstrate the same patterns as TiSi_2, indicating that the TiSi_2 moiety of the catalyst is stable and keeps the orthorhombic structure during the thermal treatment. Interestingly, the intensity of the diffraction peaks increases obviously as the calcination temperature increases, which demonstrates that the thermal-treatment increases the crystallinity of the TiSi_2 moiety of the catalyst. However, no diffraction peaks can be assigned to the WS_2 moiety of the catalyst, which may be due to the low content and high dispersity of WS_2 on TiSi_2.



Figure 1. XRD (X-ray diffraction) patterns of (**a**) commercial $TiSi_2$ and WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ samples prepared at (**b**) 623; (**c**) 673; (**d**) 723; and (**e**) 773 K for 2 h.

Figure 2 shows the SEM images of the commercial TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723. The ball-milled TiSi₂ particles exhibit irregular shape with a size in the range of 0.5–2.5 μ m (Figure 2A). The morphology of WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 shows almost no change compared with that of TiSi₂ and the size of WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 is in the range of 0.5–3 μ m (Figure 2B). The elemental distributions of Ti, Si, W and S at the micro scale were determined by SEM-EDX (energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry) mapping and the corresponding results are displayed in Figure 2C–F. From these figures we can see that Ti and Si are the main components of the sample and the content of the W and S elements are much lower than that of Ti and Si, which is ascribed to the low ratio of WS₂ to TiSi₂. In addition, it can also be clearly observed that WS₂ is very uniformly dispersed on the surface of the TiSi₂ moiety.



Figure 2. SEM (scanning electron microscopy) images of (**A**) TiSi₂ and (**B**) WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723; (**C**–**F**) the corresponding EDX (energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry) mapping of the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 sample at a highlighted region shown in (**B**).

In order to further research the morphology of the samples and the interfacial junction structure between WS_2 and $TiSi_2$, TEM characterization was carried out on $TiSi_2$ and WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723. As displayed in Figure 3, the surface of pure $TiSi_2$ is smooth and clear; while for the WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 sample, a layer of rough material is coated on the $TiSi_2$ surface, which indicates that the layered WS_2 particles are intimately covered on the surface of $TiSi_2$.



Figure 3. TEM (transmission electron microscopy) images of (A) TiSi₂ and (B) WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723.

2.2. TG-DTA (Thermogravimetric-Differential Thermal Analysis) and XPS Analysis

Since WS₂ in the WS₂/TiSi₂ composite was converted from the precursor $(NH_4)_2WS_4$, the thermal decomposition behaviour of $(NH_4)_2WS_4$ was investigated by differential thermogravimetry under an N₂ atmosphere. As Figure 4A shows, the thermal decomposition curves of $(NH_4)_2WS_4$, presented as a TG curve, demonstrated two steps of weight loss. The first step of weight loss occurred at 473 K and ended at 573 K. The weight loss at this stage was 17.2%, demonstrating that $(NH_4)_2WS_4$ decomposed to WS₃, NH₃ and H₂S shown as Equation (1) (calc. 19.6 wt %). The intermediate product WS₃ appeared to be stable between 573 K and 623 K. When the sample calcined at higher temperature (>623 K), the second weight loss step occurred, the experimental weight loss for the second step is 9.3%, implying that WS₃ decomposed to WS₂, shown as Equation (2) (calc. 9.2 wt %) [31]. Exceeding 673 K, the slight weight loss can still be observed, mainly due to the sluggish decomposition or condensation of WS₂ at a high temperature.

$$(NH_4)_2WS_4 \rightarrow WS_3 + 2NH_3\uparrow + H_2S\uparrow \tag{1}$$

$$WS_3 \rightarrow WS_2 + S$$
 (2)

XPS spectra of the WS₂-1/TiSi₂ samples calcined at different temperatures are shown in Figure 4B. For both the samples calcined at 473 and 623 K, the W 4f peaks were observed at 35.7 and 37.9 eV, suggesting that tungsten existed as W^{6+} in the samples. When the calcination temperature increased to 673 and 723 K, the W 4f peaks shifted to 32.6 and 34.7 eV, indicating that tungsten transformed from W⁶⁺ to W⁴⁺ in the samples [26,32,33]. At a higher calcination temperature (~773 K), the XPS spectrum basically does not change, showing that W species loaded on TiSi₂ is stable over a relatively wide temperature range. Combining the results of TG-DTA and XPS, we concluded that (NH₄)₂WS₄ loaded on TiSi₂ was first decomposed to WS_3 and then to WS_2 in the calcining process (>673 K). The XPS spectrum of the S 2p regions for WS2-1/TiSi2-723 demonstrated the peaks located at 162.4 and 163.6 eV, confirming that the S element existed as S^{2-} in the sample (Figure S1). The Ti 2p high resolution XPS spectra of TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 are shown in Figure 4C. For the TiSi₂ sample, the weak peak centred at 453.1 eV belongs to $Ti^0 2p_{3/2}$, indicating that trace metallic Ti exists on the surface of TiSi₂. The other two strong peaks, centred at 458.95 and 464.75 eV, could be ascribed to $Ti^{4+} 2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$, respectively, demonstrating that the surface layer of TiSi₂ in the depth of XPS measurement (ca. 2.5–10 nm) is highly oxidized [14,15]. For the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 catalyst, the binding energy of Ti⁴⁺ 2p shifts slightly to the higher energy and the peak of Ti⁰ 2p_{3/2} disappeared, indicating that the Ti metal in the surface of Ti-Si has been oxidized in the pyrolysis process. Si 2p high resolution XPS spectra of TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 are shown in Figure 4D. The TiSi₂ sample shows two peaks centred at 98.65 and 102.59 eV, corresponding to Si⁰ $2p_{3/2}$ and Si⁴⁺ $2p_{1/2}$, respectively [14]. The positive shift of the binding energies of Si⁰ $2p_{3/2}$ and Si⁴⁺ $2p_{1/2}$ in WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 was also observed. Meanwhile, the intensity of the peak corresponding to Si⁰ 2p_{3/2} decreased greatly in WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723. The shifts of the binding energies of both Ti and Si indicate that some kind of chemical bonds, such as Ti-S-W and Si-S-W, might have formed at the interface of the TiSi₂ and WS₂ components.



Figure 4. (**A**) TG-TDA (thermogravimetric-differential thermal analysis) curves of the decomposition of $(NH_4)_2WS_4$; (**B**) XPS spectra of the W 4f regions for WS_2 -1/TiSi₂ calcined at (a) 473, (b) 623, (c) 673, (d) 723 and (e) 773 K for 2 h; (**C**) High-resolution XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy) spectra of Ti 2p in (a) TiSi₂ and (b) WS_2 -1/TiSi₂-723; (**D**) High-resolution XPS spectra of Si 2p in (a) TiSi₂ and (b) WS_2 -1/TiSi₂-723.

2.3. Optical and Photoelectrochemical Properties

The results of the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) for TiSi2 and WS2-1/TiSi2-723 electrodes are displayed in Figure 5A. The proton reduction potential of the TiSi₂ electrode is ca. -0.20 V vs. RHE (reversible hydrogen electrode), but it changes to -0.13 V vs. RHE for the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 electrode, indicating that the introduction of WS_2 can reduce the hydrogen evolution potential [34,35], which is a property that is usually demonstrated by the noble metal nanoparticles such as Pt [36]. The replacement of Pt by WS₂ apparently can offer an opportunity to create an inexpensive photocatalyst system for H_2 evolution. In order to further investigate the role of WS_2 , the flat band potentials of the $TiSi_2$ and WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 electrodes were measured respectively. The flat band potential (E_{fb}) was determined by the onset potential of the Mott-Schottky (M-S) plots [37]. As demonstrated in Figure 5B, both TiSi2 and WS2-1/TiSi2-723 electrodes exhibit a positive slope, indicating an n-type semiconductor feature [38]. The E_{fb} of the TiSi₂ electrode estimated from the x intercepts of the linear region of the MS plot is ca. -0.39 V vs. RHE, while it is ca. -0.77 V vs. RHE for the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 electrode. The results show that combining of TiSi2 and WS2 may shift the flat potential of the composite to a more negative position. Since the flat band potential of an n-type semiconductor may be considered approximately as the conduction band edge, the shift of the flat potential of the composite indicates that WS_2 -1/TiSi₂-723 has a higher electron donor level, which is beneficial for water reduction.

The optical band gap of semiconductors was determined by the Tauc equation [39]:

$$(\alpha h \mathbf{v})^n = A(h \mathbf{v} - E_{\varphi})$$

where α is the measured absorption coefficient, hv is the photon energy, A and n are constant, and E_g is the optical band gap energy. The value of n is 0.5 and 2 for the indirect and direct band gap, respectively. Since both TiSi₂ and WS₂ have a direct band gap, the value of n is 2. E_g is estimated by the intercept of the photon energy axis, obtained by extrapolating the linear region of the plot [40]. The Tauc plots (Figure 5C,D) show that the optical band gaps are 2.41 for TiSi₂ and 2.15 eV for WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723. The decrease of the optical band gap of WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723, which may be attributed to the interaction

6 of 12

between TiSi₂ and WS₂, is beneficial for the composite photocatalyst to respond to the visible light in a wider range. From the discussion above, we can estimate the band levels of pure TiSi₂ (E_{VB} = 2.02, E_{C} = -0.39 V vs. RHE) and the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 composite (E_{VB} = 1.38, E_{CB} = -0.77 V vs. RHE). The variation of the bandgap and the band edges indicates the strong interaction between TiSi₂ and WS₂ moieties, mostly occurred at the surface.



Figure 5. (**A**) The linear sweep voltammetry plots of the TiSi_2 and WS_2 -1/ TiSi_2 -723 electrodes scanning from -1.0 to 0 V vs. SCE (saturated calomel electrode) with a scan rate of 50 mV·s⁻¹, the proton reduction potential at 0 mA is -0.20 V for TiSi_2 and -0.13 V for WS_2 -1/ TiSi_2 -723; (**B**) the Mott-Schottky plots of the TiSi₂ and WS_2 -1/ TiSi_2 -723 electrodes. Tauc plots of (**C**) TiSi₂ and (**D**) WS₂-1/ TiSi_2 -723.

It is well known that the photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy could be useful to reveal the photo-generated charge transfer process. The PL spectra of TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 excited at 532 nm are shown in Figure S2. Both TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 display an emission peak centred at 600 nm, however, the PL intensity of WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 is much lower than that of TiSi₂ and the calculated quenching efficiency for WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 is 43.6%, indicating an efficient photoexcited electron transfer from TiSi₂ to WS₂.

A photoelectrochemical study was conducted to investigate the photoinduced charge separation and transfer processes at the electrode interface. As shown in Figure 6A, a prompt and reversible photocurrent response can be observed from both the $TiSi_2$ and WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 electrode under chopped light irradiation. The WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 electrode shows higher photocurrent density than pure $TiSi_2$, indicating that formation of the heterojunction structure in WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 results in better charge separation, as well as excellent incident light harvesting. Figure 6B shows the electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) of $TiSi_2$ and WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 electrodes presented as Nyquist plots. The radius of the plot of WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 is much smaller than that of $TiSi_2$. The fact demonstrates that the charge transfer resistance is significantly decreased on the WS_2 -1/ $TiSi_2$ -723 interface [41,42], which is in agreement with the results of photocurrent responses measurements. The transfer resistance decreases, so the rate of charge separation is accelerated, and the photocurrent is enhanced.



Figure 6. (A) Photocurrent of the electrodes made of (a) TiSi₂ and (b) WS_2 -1/TiSi₂-723 catalysts under UV-vis light irradiation at 0.5 V vs. SCE. The electrolyte was 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution. The illumination from a 150 W xenon lamp was interrupted every 50 s; (B) Nyquist plots of electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) for TiSi₂ and WS_2 -1/TiSi₂-723 in 5.0 mM K₃[Fe(CN)₆]/K₂[Fe(CN)₆] (1:1) aqueous solution at a potential of 0.2 V vs. SCE.

2.4. Photocatalytic Hydrogen Evolution

Firstly, the influence of calcination temperature on H_2 evolution rate of the WS₂-1/TiSi₂ sample was investigated. Figure 7A shows the influence of the catalysts calcined at different temperatures from 623 to 773 K on the rate of H₂ evolution. With the increase of the calcination temperature, the H_2 evolution rate of the catalyst increases gradually. The maximum H_2 evolution rate was obtained from the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 catalyst (99.4 μ mol·h⁻¹·g⁻¹). However, further increasing the calcination temperature, the rate of H₂ evolution decreases instead. As discussed above, 623 K is the temperature starting to form WS₂, and 773 K is the temperature at which WS₂ gets stabilized. The influence of calcination temperature may be attributed to the fact that the catalyst calcined at proper temperature may strengthen the junction formation between TiSi₂ and WS₂, which is beneficial for the photocatalytic activity of the catalyst. However, higher calcination temperature may cause the surface areas of the catalyst to decrease or even the formed heterojunction to collapse, resulting in a photocatalytic efficiency decrease. Figure 7B shows the influence of the ratio of $TiSi_2$ and WS_2 of the composite catalyst on the photocatalytic activity. For comparison, the photocatalytic results of pure TiSi2 and 1 wt % Pt modified TiSi2 (Pt-1/TiSi2) are also included in the figure. The catalyst loading with ca. 1 wt % WS₂ demonstrated the highest photocatalytic activity among all WS₂/TiSi₂-723 catalysts with various WS₂ loading. In 6 h visible light irradiation, WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 produced about 596.4 μ mol·g⁻¹ hydrogen, which was even higher than that of Pt-1/TiSi₂ (532.9 μ mol·g⁻¹). However, further loading of WS₂ on TiSi₂ led to a catalytic efficiency decrease, which may be attributed to the fact that the excess WS₂ on TiSi₂ may produce a light shading effect or introduce charge recombination sites [27]. The similar phenomena were also found in several other photocatalyst composites [21,34].



Figure 7. (**A**) The H₂ evolution rates of WS₂-1/TiSi₂-*y* catalysts prepared at different temperatures; (**B**) the hydrogen production of TiSi₂, WS₂-*x*/TiSi₂-723, and Pt-1/TiSi₂ catalysts over 6 h. Reaction conditions: 50 mg catalysts, 60 mL 0.005 M oxalic acid aqueous solution, irradiation source: a 150 W Xe lamp equipped with a cut-off filter at 420 nm.

The stability of the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 catalyst was estimated by performing recycling photocatalytic experiments and the results are shown in Figure 8. For comparison, the stability of pure TiSi₂ was also estimated under the same reaction conditions. After 6 h of visible light irradiation, TiSi₂ produced ca. 416.0 μ mol·g⁻¹ H₂ in the first cycle, while WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 produced ca. 596.4 μ mol·g⁻¹ H₂. Both activities of TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 were slightly reduced (348.5 μ mol·g⁻¹ and 525.6 μ mol·g⁻¹) in the second cycle. In the next three cycles, the amount of H₂ produced from TiSi₂ was still reduced, which was mainly due to the surface oxidation of TiSi₂ [14,43]. On the other hand, the amount of H₂ produced from WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 was basically unchanged. The above results demonstrate that the WS₂/TiSi₂ photocatalyst might be a promising candidate for photocatalytic water reduction to produce hydrogen under solar-light irradiation since it possesses higher photocatalytic activity, higher stability and lower fabrication cost.



Figure 8. The recycling photocatalytic experiments of (a) TiSi₂ and (b) WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723. Reaction conditions: 50 mg catalysts, 60 mL 0.005 M oxalic acid aqueous solution, a 150 W Xe lamp equipped with a cut-off filter at 420 nm.

The proposed mechanism of photocatalytic H_2 evolution on the WS₂/TiSi₂ catalyst is shown in Scheme 1. Under visible-light irradiation, the electrons in the valence band (VB) of TiSi₂ are stimulated to the conduction band (CB). Then, the photo-generated electrons transfer from the conduction band of TiSi₂ to the WS₂, where H^+ is reduced to hydrogen. The holes that remained on the valence band of TiSi₂ transfer to the surface and react with the oxalic acid in the solution. This process efficiently inhibits the photo-generated charges recombination, and significantly enhances the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution efficiency.



Scheme 1. A schematic illustration of the charge transfer for hydrogen evolution over the $WS_{2-x}/TiSi_{2}-y$ photocatalyst under visible light irradiation.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Synthesis

TiSi₂ was purchased from the J&K Company (Shanghai, China) and other chemical reagents were purchased from the Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Company (Shanghai, China). The commercial TiSi₂ powder was ball-milled for 4 h at the speed of 210 rpm (rotation per minute) in advance and other chemicals were used without further purification.

Ammonium tetrathiotungstate ($(NH_4)_2WS_4$) was prepared using the method described in the literature [44]. In a typical experiment, 5 g of ammonium tungstate was dispersed in a 50 mL NH₃ aqueous solution (6 M). H₂S gas was then bubbled into the above dispersed solution at 333 K for 4 h. After being cooled to room temperature, the reaction solution was put into a refrigerator and maintained at 278 K overnight. The precipitate of orange-yellow (NH₄)₂WS₄ crystals was isolated by filtration, rinsed with isopropanol and dried under vacuum.

The WS₂/TiSi₂ photocatalyst was prepared by ultrasonic deposition combined with postpyrolysis method. $(NH_4)_2WS_4$ aqueous solution was mixed with the ball-milled TiSi₂ powder under magnetic stirring, and then the mixture was ultra-sonicated for 5 h. The resulting $(NH_4)_2WS_4$ /TiSi₂ precursor was dried in a vacuum oven at 323 K. Finally, the solid powder was calcined in Ar atmosphere at different temperatures in the range from 473 to 773 K for 2 h, resulting in WS₂ modified TiSi₂ photocatalyst, in which the content of WS₂ could be adjusted by tuning the weight ratio of the precursors of $(NH_4)_2WS_4$ and TiSi₂. According to the decomposition process of $(NH_4)_2WS_4$, the weight percentage of WS₂ in the sample was calculated by supposing that the $(NH_4)_2WS_4$ was completely converted to WS₂.

3.2. Characterization

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) measurements were carried out on a Philips diffractometer (X'Pert-Pro MRD, Amsterdam, Netherland) using Ni-filtered Cu K α radiation in the range 20°–80° (2 θ). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and Energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDX) mapping measurements were taken on a Hitachi S-4700 microscope (Hitachi Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) studies were conducted using a transmission electron microscope (JEOL JEM-2100, JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) operating at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. TG-TDA curves of the decomposition of (NH₄)₂WS₄ were recorded by using differential thermal analysis/thermogravimetric equipment under a N₂ flow with the heating rate of 10 K/min. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) of the samples was taken on a Thermo Scientific ESCALA 250Xi XPS spectrometer (Kratos Analytical Ltd., Manchester, UK). Room temperature UV-vis diffuse reflectance absorption spectra (DRS) were measured on a UV-1800 SPC spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the samples were recorded on an Edinburgh PLS920 fluorospectrophotometer (Edinburgh Instruments Ltd., Edinburgh, UK).

3.3. Photoelectrochemical Measurements

The measurements of photoelectrochemical properties of the samples were performed by dipping a clean indium tin oxide (ITO) glass (1 × 2.5 cm) into the ethanol suspension of the relative catalyst several times and drying under a vacuum at 323 K as a working electrode. The measurements were carried out on a CHI 660D potentiostat/galvanostat electrochemical analyser (CH Instruments Inc, Shanghai, China) in a three-electrode system consisting of the working electrode, a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as a reference electrode and a platinum wire as a counter electrode. The electrodes were immersed in a 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution (pH ~6). During the measurement, the working electrode was irradiated by a GY-10 xenon lamp (150 W, Tian Jin Tuo Pu Instruments Co., Ltd, Tianjin, China). The electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS), displayed as a Nyquist plot, were carried out in the similar system except that the electrodes were immersed in a 5.0 mM solution of $K_3[Fe(CN)_6]/K_2[Fe(CN)_6]$ (1:1). The Mott-Schottky (M-S) plots were measured with a frequency of 1000 Hz.

3.4. Photocatalytic Reaction

The photocatalytic reaction was carried out in a 70 mL quartz flask equipped with a flat optical entry window. In a typical photocatalytic experiment, 50 mg of the as-prepared photocatalyst and 60 mL of oxalic acid aqueous solution (0.005 M) were added into the quartz flask whilst stirring [45]. The system was deaerated by bubbling argon into the solution for 30 min before the reaction. A 150 W xenon lamp with a 420 nm cut-off filter was used as the visible light source. The lamp was positioned ca. 10 cm away from the optical entry window of the reactor. The produced hydrogen gas was analysed with an online gas chromatograph (GC1650) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) (Ke Xiao Instruments Co., Ltd, Hangzhou, China) and 5 Å molecular sieve columns using argon as the carrier gas. The standard H₂-Ar gas mixtures of known concentrations were used for GC signal calibration.

4. Conclusions

In summary, a novel WS₂/TiSi₂ hybrid composite has been successfully synthesized and used for photocatalytic hydrogen evolution. The photocatalytic activity of TiSi₂ under visible light ($\lambda > 420$ nm) irradiation can be enhanced by loading WS₂ as a cocatalyst, and the activity of optimal WS₂/TiSi₂ composite is even higher than that of platinized TiSi₂ under the same reaction conditions. The junction formed between TiSi₂ and surface WS₂, together with the excellent H₂ evolution property of WS₂, is supposed to be responsible for the enhanced photocatalytic activity of the WS₂/TiSi₂ composite catalyst. This study shows a paradigm of developing the eco-friendly, cost-effective photocatalyst for hydrogen production from water.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/2073-4344/6/9/136/s1, Figure S1: XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy) spectrum of the S 2p regions for the WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723 sample. (The blue lines: the deconvolved peaks for S 2p3/2 and S 2p1/2 of WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723; the red line: the fitted result of the blue lines.). Figure S2: Photoluminescence spectra of TiSi₂ and WS₂-1/TiSi₂-723. Excited wavelength: 532 nm.

Acknowledgments: The authors gratefully acknowledge financial support of this research by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (21373143) and the Priority Academic Program Development of Jiangsu Higher Education Institutions (PAPD).

Author Contributions: The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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