

Chemistry A European Journal

 **Chemistry
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Accepted Article

Title: Chlorophyll based organic heterojunction on Ti₃C₂T_x MXenes nano-sheets for efficient hydrogen production

Authors: Yuanlin Li, Yuliang Sun, Tianfang Zheng, Yohan Dall'Agnese, Chunxiang Dall'Agnese, Xing Meng, Shin-ichi Sasaki, Hitoshi Tamiaki, and Xiao-Feng Wang

This manuscript has been accepted after peer review and appears as an Accepted Article online prior to editing, proofing, and formal publication of the final Version of Record (VoR). This work is currently citable by using the Digital Object Identifier (DOI) given below. The VoR will be published online in Early View as soon as possible and may be different to this Accepted Article as a result of editing. Readers should obtain the VoR from the journal website shown below when it is published to ensure accuracy of information. The authors are responsible for the content of this Accepted Article.

To be cited as: *Chem. Eur. J.* 10.1002/chem.202005421

Link to VoR: <https://doi.org/10.1002/chem.202005421>

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Chlorophyll based organic heterojunction on $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ MXenes nano-sheets for efficient hydrogen production

Yuanlin Li,^[a, b] Yuliang Sun,^[a, b] Tianfang Zheng,^[a, b] Yohan Dall'Agnese,^[c] Chunxiang Dall'Agnese,^[a] Xing Meng,^{*[a, b]} Shin-ichi Sasaki,^[d, e] Hitoshi Tamiaki^[d] and Xiao-Feng Wang^{*[a, b]}

[a] Dr. Y. Li, Y. Sun, T. Zheng, C. Dall'Agnese, Prof. X. Meng, X.-F. Wang, Key Laboratory of Physics and Technology for Advanced Batteries (Ministry of Education), College of Physics, Jilin University, Changchun 130012, PR China

[b] Dr. Y. Li, Y. Sun, T. Zheng, C. Dall'Agnese, Prof. X. Meng, X.-F. Wang, Key Jilin Key Engineering Laboratory of New Energy Materials and Technologies, Jilin University, Changchun 130012, P. R. China

[c] Prof. Y. Dall'Agnese, Institute for Materials Discovery, University College London, London WC1E 7JE, United Kingdom

[d] Prof. S. Sasaki, Prof. H. Tamiaki, Graduate School of Life Sciences, Ritsumeikan University, Kusatsu, Shiga 525-8577, Japan

[e] Prof. S. Sasaki, Nagahama Institute of Bio-Science and Technology, Nagahama, Shiga 526-0829, Japan

*E-mail: mengxing@jlu.edu.cn (Xing Meng), xf_wang@jlu.edu.cn (Xiao-Feng Wang).

Abstract

Z-scheme process is a photo-induced electron transfer pathway in natural oxygenic photosynthesis involving the electron transport from photosystem II (PSII) to PSI. Inspired by the interesting Z-scheme process, here we demonstrated a photocatalytic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) employing chlorophyll derivatives, Chl-1 and Chl-2, on the surface of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ MXenes with two-dimensional accordion-like morphology forming $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composite. Due to the frontier molecular orbital energy alignments of Chl-1 and Chl-2, the sublayer Chl-1 is a simulation of PSI whereas the upper layer Chl-2 is equivalent to PSII, and the resultant electron transport can take place from Chl-2 to Chl-1. Under the illumination of visible light (> 420 nm), the HER performance of $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ photocatalysts was found to be as high as $143 \mu\text{mol/h/g}_{\text{cat}}$, which was substantially higher than that of photocatalysts of either $\text{Chl-1@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ ($20 \mu\text{mol/h/g}$) or $\text{Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ ($15 \mu\text{mol/h/g}$).

Introduction

Energy shortage will become a serious problem in the near future with the global economy growth requiring increasing consumption of energy.^[1-3] Solar energy is a kind of abundant and clean energy, nearly four million exajoules (4×10^{18} J) of solar energy reaches the earth annually, which has the potential to meet the global demand of energy consumption.^[2, 4, 5] Photocatalytic water splitting for hydrogen evolution is one of the sustainable approaches to convert solar energy into chemical energy. However, the traditional semiconductor photocatalytic hydrogen production systems are moderately

efficient and high-cost.^[6]

Natural photosynthesis has evolved for billions of years, which converts solar energy into chemical energy based on their light-harvesting antenna and charge-separating reaction center systems. In recent years, photocatalytic fuel production systems were inspired by natural Z-scheme in oxygenic photosynthesis. The artificial systems have been studied by combining half-reactions to produce H₂ and O₂ through photocatalytic decomposition of water. The photosynthesis model system using dual semiconductors was introduced for water splitting in 1979.^[7] The Z-scheme is the two-step photo-induced charge separation from photosystem II (PSII) to PSI through an electron transfer chain. This potential Z-scheme of particular concern in photo-induced electron transport chain processes enlightened us to design dual photoexcitation-based photocatalysts. As one of the most abundant natural photosynthetic pigments on the earth, chlorophylls (Chls) were selected to convert solar energy into chemical energy based on absorbing sunlight and transferring absorbed energy, due to the delocalization of their excited electrons around the π -conjugated tetrapyrrole ring.^[8-10] The remarkable properties of charge transfer ability of Chls have been reported previously. It was shown that they can form aggregates to efficiently capture sunlight and transport charge compared with their monomers. Such properties of Chl derivatives have been applied in solar cells,^[11-13] energy storage,^[14] and photocatalytic hydrogen evolution.^[15] Compared with other photocatalysts using synthetic photoactive materials, Chls are cost-effective, environmentally friendly, easy to dispose, abundant, and nonpoisonous natural pigments. Therefore, introduction of Chls in the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) systems must

be of great potential.

Catalytic systems usually use noble metals as cocatalysts, such as Pt, Ru, Rh, and Pd, which increased the cost of catalytic systems, therefore limiting the commercialization for a large scale. MXenes, as a new family of two-dimensional (2D) nanostructured materials originally reported in 2011, are currently being widely studied for a wide variety of applications such as energy storage,^[16-18] photoelectric materials,^[19, 20] electromagnetic interference shielding,^[21, 22] water purification,^[23] and catalysis,^[24] due to their outstanding physicochemical properties.^[25] MXenes are prepared from MAX phases by etching an A layer (usually Al or Si) with a strong acid solution such as HF or LiF/HCl.^[26] The general formula of MXenes is $M_{n+1}X_nT_x$ ($n = 1-3$), where M represents an early transition metal such as Ti, V, Nb, Ta, or Mo, X is C and/or N, and T_x represents a surface terminating group such as -O, -F and -OH.^[18, 27, 28] It is worth noting that using $Ti_3C_2T_x$ MXenes as a co-catalyst presents remarkable advantages, such as good hydrophilicity, excellent metallic conductivity, good stability in aqueous solutions, and low cost.^[29] Considering the above-mentioned excellent characteristics of $Ti_3C_2T_x$, it has become a very promising co-catalyst material in photocatalysis for HER.^[30-32]

In our previous investigation, we combined zinc methyl 3-devinyl-3-hydroxymethyl-pyropheophorbide *a* (Chl-1) with $Ti_3C_2T_x$ MXene for HER, and we proved that hydrogen generated through the exciton transfer in Chl-1 aggregates followed by charge transfer to $Ti_3C_2T_x$.^[15] However, the performance of this system was still insufficient and requires further improvement. In this work, we employ two Chls with different physical characteristics, i.e., Chl-1 acts as a PSI simulator for accepting electrons and methyl 13¹-

deoxo-13¹-dicyanomethylene-pyropheophorbide *a* (Chl-2) acts as a PSII simulator for donating electrons. These Chls are deposited on Ti₃C₂T_x MXenes co-catalyst to form noble metal-free Chl-based organic heterojunction photocatalyst for HER. The photocatalytic performance of Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalyst exhibited a much higher hydrogen production than that of either Chl-1@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalyst or Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalyst. To understand this performance improvement, measurements of electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and transient photocurrent (TPC) responses were used to characterize these photocatalysts.

Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows the chemical structures of Chl-1 and Chl-2 used in the organic heterojunction photocatalysts. Their molecular structures are partially different on the C3- and C13-substituents of the chlorin macrocycle. Chl-1 has a hydroxymethyl group at the C3-position and a carbonyl group at the C13-position, whereas Chl-2 has a vinyl group at the 3-position and two cyano groups at the terminal of the 13¹-methylene moiety. In addition, Chl-1 has a central zinc ion in its tetrapyrrole ring, while Chl-2 is a free base. It is worth mentioning that the 3¹-hydroxy group, central metal zinc ion, and 13-carbonyl group along the molecular y-axis are of great significance for the self-assembly of Chl-1 to form *J*-aggregates.^[33, 34] This is due to the coordination of the oxygen atom in the 3¹-hydroxy group with the central zinc ion, and the formation of hydrogen bonds between the 3¹-hydroxy and the 13-carbonyl groups, thereby forming a strong intermolecular interaction of Zn⋯O–H⋯O=C.^[33, 35]

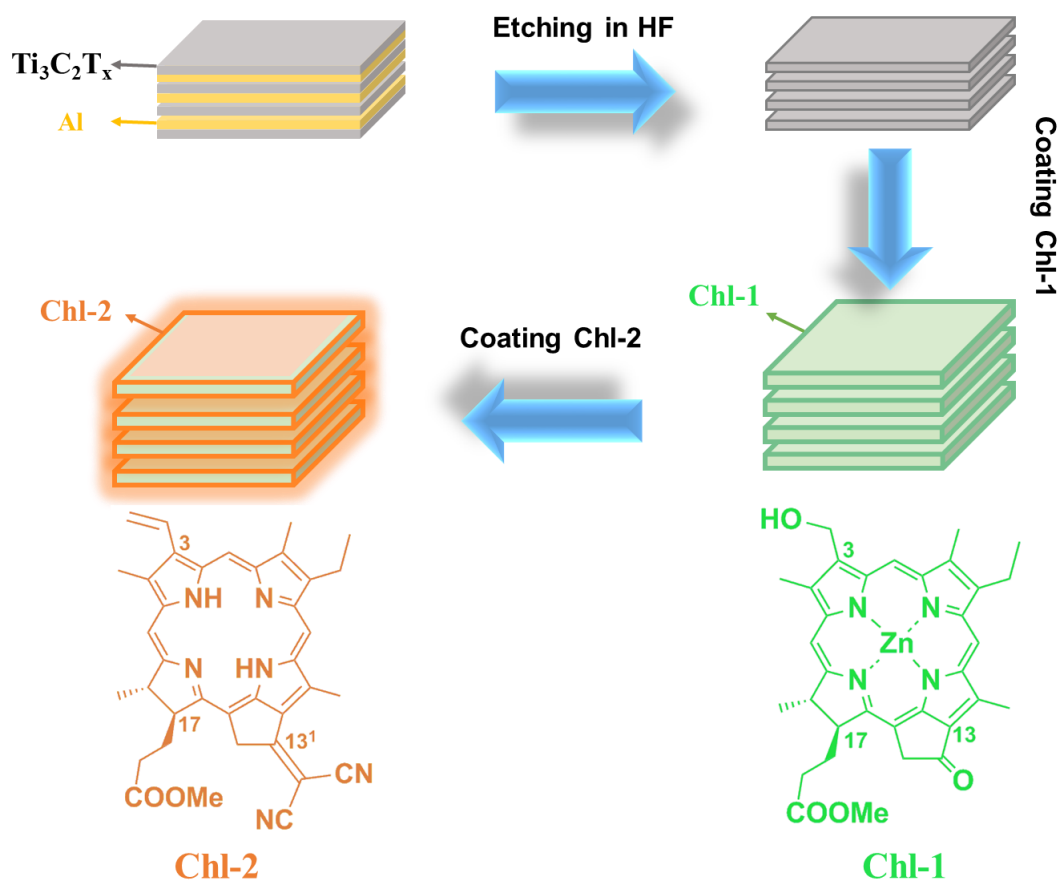


Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of the preparation process of Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x composites (upper) and molecular structures of the two Chl derivatives (lower).

Figure 2a shows the X-ray diffractometer (XRD) patterns of the raw materials and the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x composites. The (002) and (004) peaks of Ti₃AlC₂ move toward low angles in Ti₃C₂T_x and the strongest MAX phase peak at 39.0° disappeared, indicating that the Al layer was removed from Ti₃AlC₂. The XRD pattern of Chl-1 showed three typical peaks at 6.2°, 13.9°, and 25.2°, and Chl-2 showed three typical peaks at 5.6°, 9.0°, and 25.6°. The XRD pattern of the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalyst only showed the characters of Ti₃C₂T_x, and there were no typical peaks of Chl-1 and Chl-2. This is mainly due to the low mass ratio of Chls. The XRD patterns of the Chl-1@Ti₃C₂T_x

and Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalyst also only showed the characters of Ti₃C₂T_x (Fig. S1 in Supporting Information).

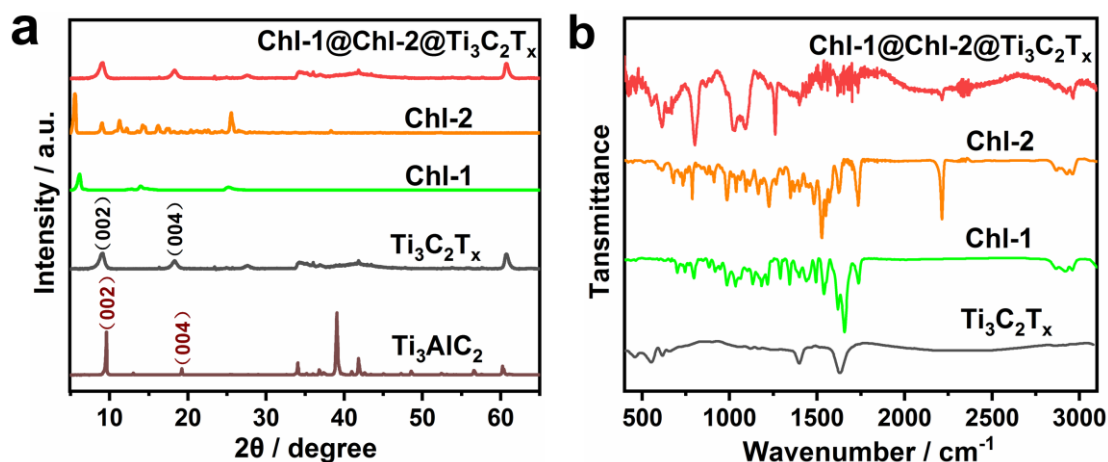


Fig. 2 (a) XRD patterns and (b) FT-IR spectra of the raw materials and the composites.

Figures 2b and S2 in SI show the Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) spectra of these raw materials and composites. As previously reported, the two signals at 1390 and 1650 cm⁻¹ could be attributed to O–H and C=O on Ti₃C₂T_x.^[36] The small peaks between 2750 and 3000 cm⁻¹ belong to the C–H in –CH₂ and –CH₃ of Chl-1 and Chl-2. Meanwhile, the peaks from 2200 to 2250 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to C≡N and C≡C. The FT-IR spectra of Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalyst is nearly identical to that of pure Chl-1, Chl-2 and Ti₃C₂T_x, indicating that formation of the composites are not through chemical bonding but physically combined.

Figure 3 shows the morphology of the Ti₃C₂T_x, Chl-1, Chl-2, and the composites by Scanning electron microscopy (SEM). As shown in Fig. 3a, a typical 2D nanosheet accordion-like structure could be clearly observed in the HF-etched Ti₃C₂T_x. In Figs. 3b and 3c, it could be seen that Chl-1 and Chl-2 were 2D materials with a layered structure.

Only the typical 2D nanosheet stack structure of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ was observed in $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ photocatalysts, and no other significant changes are observed, as shown in Fig. 3d. Figure S3 show the SEM morphological images of the $\text{Chl-1@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, and $\text{Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, respectively. One can easily observe the typical 2D nanosheet stack structure of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$. The TEM images of $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composites are shown in Figs. 3e and 3f. Only the layered structure of $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ could be observed, and Chl-1 and Chl-2 could not be observed. $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ was identifiable in the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image by their corresponding crystal plane distances of 0.26 nm.

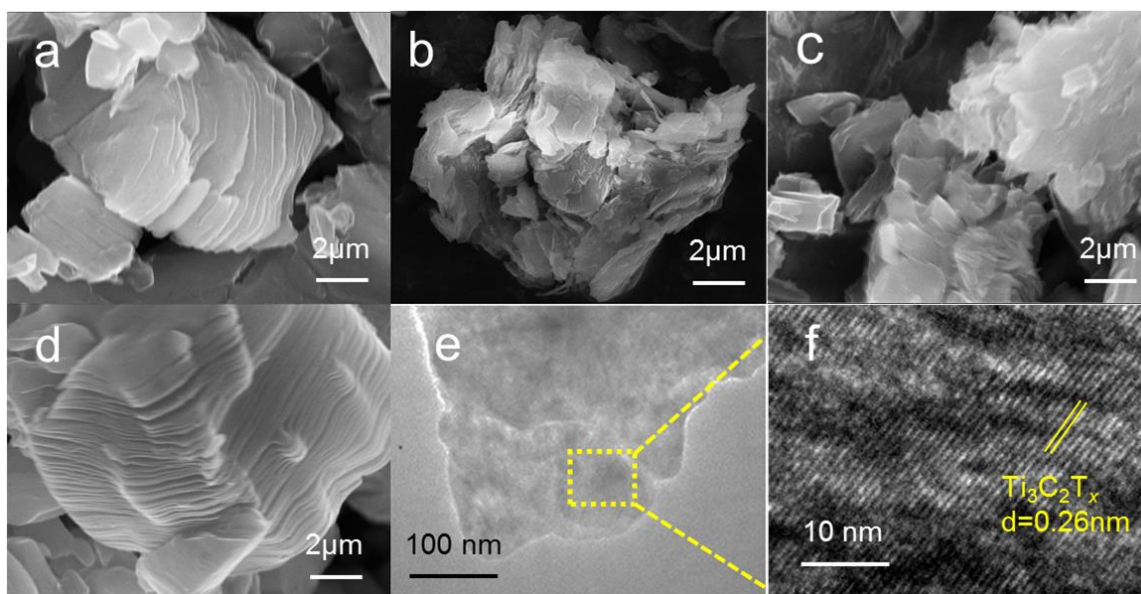


Fig. 3 SEM images of (a) $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, (b) Chl-1, (c) Chl-2, (d) $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$. (e) TEM and (f) HRTEM images of $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$.

Figure 4 displays the electronic absorption spectra of the raw and composite materials. As previously reported, $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ had no significant absorption peak due to its metallic properties.^[37] In the cases of Chls, however, their absorption spectra show

significant red shifts after deposition on $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, i.e., the Q_y bands shift from 647 nm in THF to 749 nm for Chl-1 and from 705 nm in THF to 752 nm for Chl-2: Chl absorption in THF can be found in Fig. S4 in Supporting Information. The red shifts in their absorption spectra are ascribable to the formation of *J*-aggregates. Thus, the absorption spectrum of the $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ shows clearly mixed characteristics from respective Chl aggregates rather than from respective Chl monomers, suggesting that these Chls remain structural intact in the bilayer structure. The “pure” *J*-aggregates formed by π - π stacking of respective Chl-1 and Chl-2 molecules would facilitate the exciton delocalization in each Chl layer.^[38]

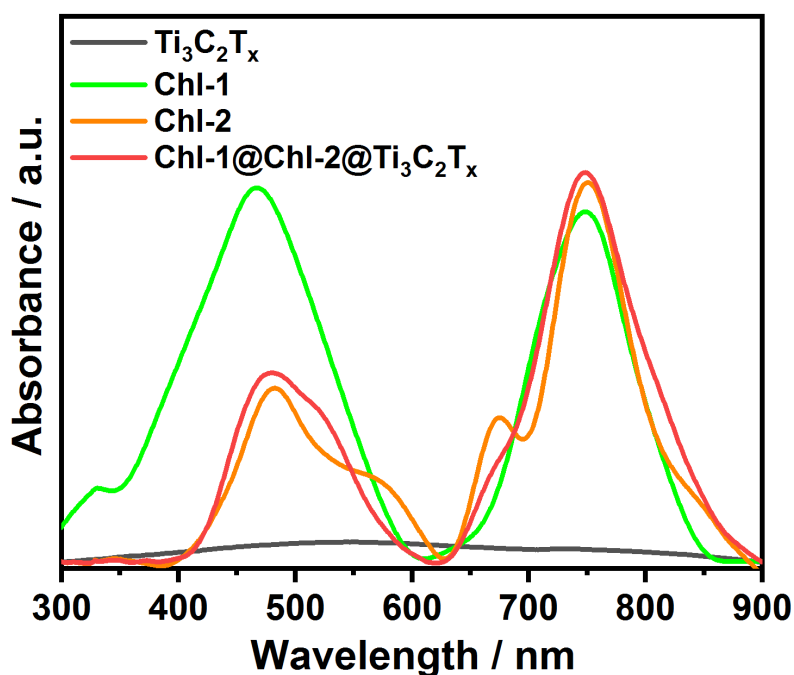


Fig. 4 Electronic absorption spectra of the three raw materials and the composites.

The HER performances of $\text{Chl-1@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, $\text{Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, and $\text{Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ photocatalysts as well as $\text{Chl-1+Chl-2+Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ mixture (Chl-1, Chl-2, and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ were together dissolved in THF and stirred at room temperature for 10 h until dry)

are shown in Fig. 5. The best performance achieved was as high as 143 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}_{\text{cat}}$ for the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts, which was higher than those of Chl-1@Ti₃C₂T_x (20 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}$) and Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts (15 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}$). The HER performance of Chl-1, Chl-2, and Ti₃C₂T_x mixture (Chl-1+Chl-2+Ti₃C₂T_x) was also measured, but the performance was poor (14 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}_{\text{cat}}$). The mass ratio optimization in Chl-1@Ti₃C₂T_x, Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x and Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts were obtained (see Fig. S5).

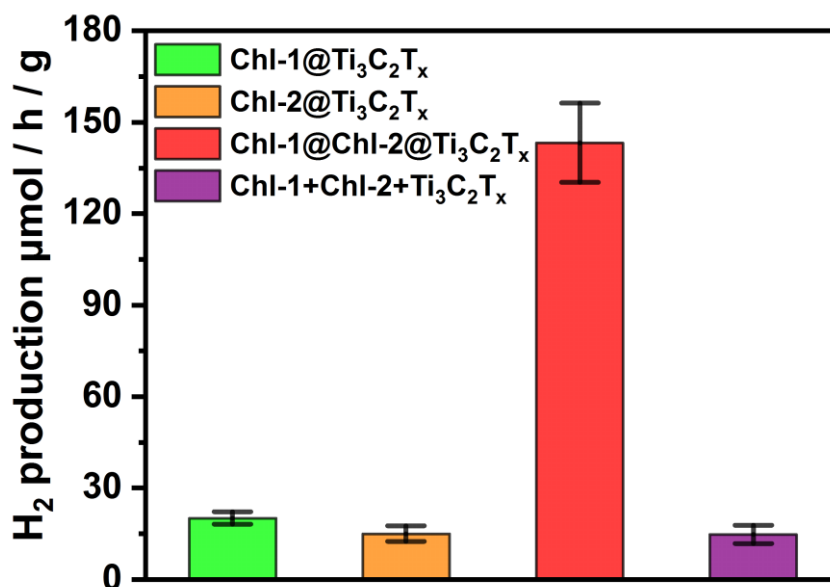


Fig. 5 Hydrogen production of Chl-1@Ti₃C₂T_x, Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x, Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x, and Chl-1+Chl-2+Ti₃C₂T_x.

EIS and TPC responses are shown in Fig. 6 to further study the improvement of carrier separation efficiency. The EIS Nyquist plot could be fitted to the equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 6a (inset), where R₁ is the electrolyte solution resistance and R₂ is the interface charge transfer resistance between electrode and electrolyte, while CPE and W₀ are the constant phase element and the Warburg impedance, respectively.^[39] As shown in

Fig. 6a, the radius of the semi-circle of the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts was much smaller than those of the others, indicating a lower electron transfer resistance on the electrode surface and more efficient separation of photoelectron-hole pairs. Based on the fitting model, the fitted data for the samples were summarized in Table S1, in which the R₂ value of the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts was the smallest among these samples, indicating a high electron-hole pair separation efficiency.

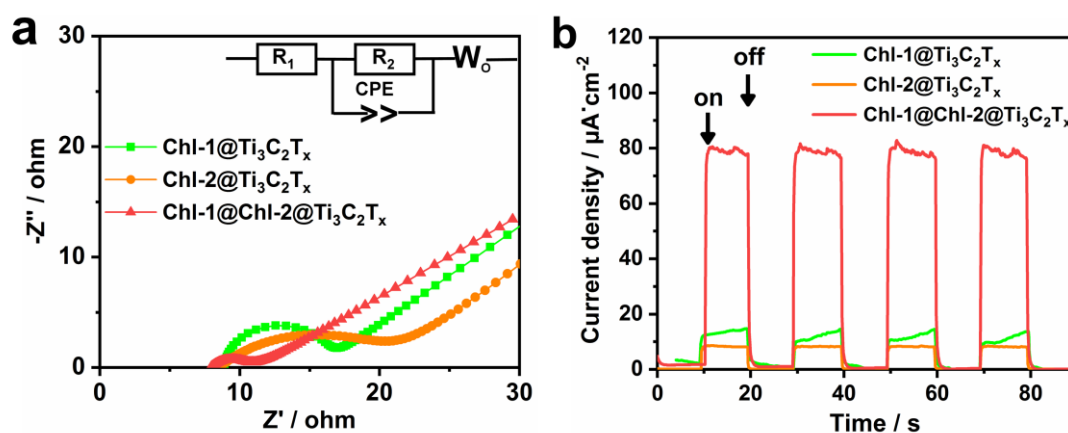


Fig. 6 (a) EIS Nyquist plots and (b) TPC responses of the hybrids.

TPC curves of different samples are shown in Fig. 6b. It could be seen that all samples showed an immediate rise of TPC response under illumination. Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts showed a much higher photocurrent than those of the other composites, indicating Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts could achieve higher photogenerated carrier separation and transfer efficiency. It was confirmed that the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts had an optimal charge transfer rate compared with the other composites, which explained its improved photocatalytic activity. The result of EIS and TPC response demonstrated that the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts have a larger potential than those single Chl-based composites, because the characteristics of the

suppression of electron-hole recombination, the improvement of carrier separation, and the reduction of transfer resistance of photogenerated holes and electrons are all essential for a highly efficient photocatalytic HER performance.

In natural photosynthesis, the so-called Z-scheme is the two-step photo-induced charge separation in PSII and PSI and an electron chain between the two photosystems (Fig. 7a).^[40-42] First, upon four photons absorption by PSII, electrons are generated from the charge separation step in PSII, and two water molecules are split into four protons with the generation of one oxygen molecule. Second, the excited electrons are then transferred to photo-induced holes of PSI through an electron transport chain. Finally, the excited electrons gains sufficient potential energy (-0.58 V vs NHE, pH = 7) to reduce the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP⁺).^[43] As a comparison, Figure 7b shows a hypothetical schematic diagram of the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x heterostructure for HER. Given that the HOMO and LUMO energy levels of Chl-1 are higher than those of Chl-2, respectively, Chl-1 functions similarly as P700 in PSI for accepting electrons and meanwhile Chl-2 mimics P680 in PSII for donating electrons. After the photo-excitation of Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x composites by irradiation of visible-to-near infrared light ($\lambda > 420$ nm), Chl-1 are excited from the ground state to the excited state. Then, the electrons of the excited state of Chl-1 can be transferred to co-catalyst Ti₃C₂T_x MXenes. Consequently, the electrons on Ti₃C₂T_x MXenes combine with H⁺ in aqueous ascorbic acid (AA) solution to generate hydrogen molecule. Meanwhile, the remaining hole of Chl-1 accepts an electron from Chl-2 of the excited state to reproduce Chl-1. This special

electron transport pathway enlarges the charge separated states of electrons and holes to improve the separation of electron-hole pair efficiency and suppressed their recombination simultaneously, resulting in a better photocatalytic hydrogen evolution activity. Besides, the holes of Chl-2 are reduced by the electron donor of AA, so that the photocatalyst Chl is completely regenerated.

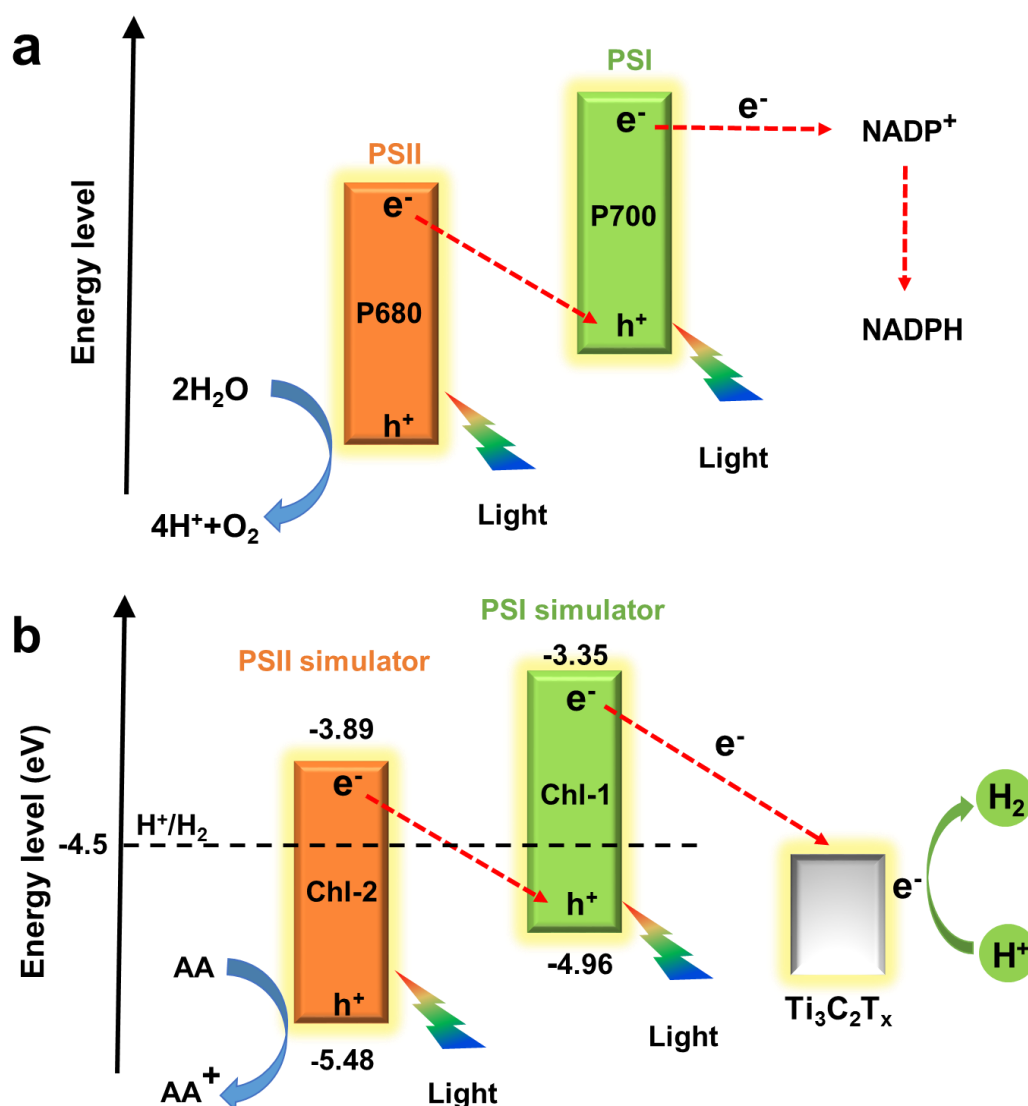


Fig. 7 (a) Schematic drawings of the photosynthetic natural Z-scheme and (b) schematic diagram of hydrogen production for Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x composites under visible light irradiation.

Conclusion

In summary, Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x organic heterojunction chlorophyll based noble metal-free photocatalysts was prepared by a simple alternative deposition process. In this novel photocatalyst structure, Chl-1 acts as a PSI simulator and Chl-2 acts as a PSII simulator to mimic the Z-scheme process of oxygenic photosynthesis. The best photocatalytic performance achieves 143 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}_{\text{cat}}$ under visible light illumination ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$), which was much higher than that of the control samples of either Chl-1@Ti₃C₂T_x (20 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}$) or Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x (15 $\mu\text{mol/h/g}$). This work established a new method to fabricate organic heterojunction photocatalysts with Z-Scheme architecture on the 2D nanosheets for potential high performance HER. Based on this work, we believe that not only chlorophyll derivatives but also other organic aggregate materials will also be applicable to this system. Therefore, the issues that were explored in this study can open new ways in the development of other organic aggregates materials systems for various applications. So that, this work will be more widely applied in HER in the future.

Experimental section

Synthesis of Chl and Ti₃C₂T_x MXenes

Chl-1 and Chl-2 were prepared as previously reported.^[33, 44] Ti₃C₂T_x MXenes are obtained by etching Ti₃AlC₂ (Forsman, 98%) in 49% HF as follows. 49% HF (20 mL) was stirred at 300 rpm, and Ti₃AlC₂ (2 g) were slowly added at room temperature for 24 h. After that, the obtained solution was washed and centrifuged with deionized water

several times until neutral pH was reached, then the $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ sediment was collected after discarding the supernatant. Finally, $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ MXenes was dried in vacuum oven at 50 °C for 12 h.

Preparation of Chl-1@Chl-2@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ composites

$\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ (3 mg) and a certain amount of Chl-1 were dissolved in tetrahydrofuran (THF). The mass ratios between Chl-1 and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ were 0.5% (15 μg), 2% (60 μg), 4% (120 μg), or 8% (240 μg). The Chl-1@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ mixture was stirred at room temperature for 10 h until dry. Then, Chl-1@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ mixture and a certain amount of Chl-2 were dissolved in chlorobenzene. The mass ratios between Chl-2 and $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ were 0.5% (15 μg), 2% (60 μg), 4% (120 μg), or 8% (240 μg). The Chl-1@Chl-2@ $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ mixture was stirred at room temperature for 48 h until dry.

Characterization

To characterize Chl-1, Chl-2, $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$, and the composites, an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 Advance, Bruker) was operated at 40 kV and 200 mA with Cu $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM, SU8000, Hitachi) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, JEM-2200FS, JEOL) were used to observe the morphology of the samples. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR, Vertex70, Bruker) was used to record the spectra of the samples in a range of 400 to 3100 cm^{-1} . Electronic absorption spectra of samples were measured with a UV-vis spectrometer (UV-3600, Shimadzu).

Photocatalytic activity measurements

Photocatalytic H_2 evolution was measured under a 300 W Xenon lamp (PLS-SXE

300, Beijing Perfectlight Technology): the light intensity was 100 mW/cm². A 6 mL photoreactor and a cut-off filter (usually $\lambda > 420$ nm) were used. Typically, 3 mg of as-prepared Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x photocatalysts composite was added in aqueous 55 mM AA solution (3 mL). The mixture was sonicated for 5 min before light irradiation to fully disperse the composite. Argon was purged to remove oxygen in the solution and the reactor for 10 min. The reactants were continuously stirred under irradiation of visible-to-near infrared light ($\lambda > 420$ nm). The hydrogen production was measured after the 6 h by a gas chromatograph (SP-3420A, Beijing Beifen-Ruili Analytical Instrument) with a thermal conductivity detector. The average values were obtained by five independent experiments. The carrier gas was argon and the column contained 5 Å molecular sieves.

Photoelectrochemical activity test

EIS measurements in the range of 0.1 Hz to 100 kHz were carried out with an electrochemical workstation (Bio-Logic SAS) in a standard three-electrode system. The working electrode was prepared by ultrasonically dispersing the Chl-1@Chl-2@Ti₃C₂T_x composite (10 mg) in a mixture of deionized water (250 μ L), ethanol (250 μ L) and Nafion solution (20 μ L, Sigma-Aldrich, 5 wt%) for 5 min, then the dispersion (20 μ L) was drop coated at room temperature onto an FTO square substrate (2 cm²).^[39] Ag/AgCl was used as the reference electrode and Pt plate was used as the counter electrode. The electrolyte was aqueous 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ solution containing AA (2 g/L). TPC response was measured in the same three-electrode system. A 300 W Xenon lamp with a cut-off filter ($\lambda > 420$ nm) was used as the light source. All measurements were conducted at room temperature.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 11974129 to X.-F. W.) and “the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities, Jilin University” and Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI Grant Number JP17H06436 (to H.T.).

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: Z-scheme • chlorophyll • $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ MXenes • organic heterojunction photocatalysts • hydrogen evolution reaction

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