

Master's Thesis
석사 학위논문

Artificial Photosynthesis:
Photocatalytic Conversion of CO₂ into Hydrocarbon Fuels

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Department of Energy Systems Engineering
에너지시스템공학전공

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by

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A thesis submitted to the faculty of DGIST in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in the Department of Energy Systems Engineering. The study was conducted in accordance with Code of Research Ethics¹

07. 18. 2014

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¹ Declaration of Ethical Conduct in Research: I, as a graduate student of DGIST, hereby declare that I have not committed any acts that may damage the credibility of my research. These include, but are not limited to: falsification, thesis written by someone else, distortion of research findings or plagiarism. I affirm that my thesis contains honest conclusions based on my own careful research under the guidance of my thesis advisor.

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Photocatalytic Conversion of CO₂ into Hydrocarbon Fuels

HyeRim Kim

Accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Science.

07. 18. 2014

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김혜림. HyeRim Kim. Artificial Photosynthesis: Photocatalytic Conversion of CO₂ into Hydrocarbon Fuels. Department of Energy Systems Engineering. 2014. 23 p.
Advisors Prof. Su-Il In, Co-Advisors Ph.D Soo-Keun Lee.

ABSTRACT

One of the major problems concerning environmental pollution and global warming is a rapid escalation in the level of carbon dioxide in atmosphere. The atmospheric CO₂ level can be reduced by converting it into useful products via thermochemical and photochemical processes. Amongst these conversion processes, the photochemical conversion is an environment effective and preferred process for the photoreduction of CO₂ into useful liquid fuels like methanol, formaldehyde, and methane gas. Photoreduction of CO₂ into hydrocarbon fuels on the surface of photocatalyst is one of the breakthroughs in the field of photocatalysis. At present various approaches have been investigated with the aim of increasing the CO₂ conversion efficiency. The reactor for photoconversion of CO₂ plays a vital role in experimental setup. In first study an attempt was made to testify a newly designed the photoreactor for conversion of CO₂ into useful products. The photoreactor was specifically designed for simple operation bearing features of temperature and pressure control. The reactor has been tested successively with the standard titania, Degussa P25 yielding methane with moderate production rate of 1007 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (16.11 ppm·g⁻¹·h⁻¹), under UVB lamp ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 365 \text{ nm}$). The methane yield obtained is comparable to the values reported in literature. In second study, CuO-TiO₂ nanostructure, a hybrid material photocatalyst was synthesized and tested for CO₂ photoreduction. The synthesis process involves the formation CuS nanostructure using electrochemical anodization followed by embedment of titanium isopropoxide as Ti precursor. The oxidation of the nanosctuctre is performed at temperature of 400 °C oxidizing Cu and Ti to form CuO-TiO₂ nanostructures.

Keywords: Photocatalyst, Carbon dioxide conversion, Artificial photosynthesis, Photoreactor, Tandem CuO-TiO₂ nanostructure.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

One of the recent problems concerning people is the sharp escalation in the level of carbon dioxide in regards to global warming. Industrial development and economic activity is increasing fossil fuel consumption [1]. It is known that the contribution to the greenhouse effect from carbon dioxide accounts for more than 80%, currently, the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is 400 ppm, but after 30 to 40 years it is expected to reach 550 ppm. To solve this problem, the Kyoto Protocol was negotiated in 1997 to limit or reduce the emissions of four greenhouse gases (GHG) (carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, sulphur hexafluoride) and two groups of gases (hydrofluorocarbons and perfluorocarbons) [2]. Various approaches have been investigated for reducing the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ to an adequate level by following two key research streams [3-4]: (1) CO₂ capturing and (2) its transformation into useful products.

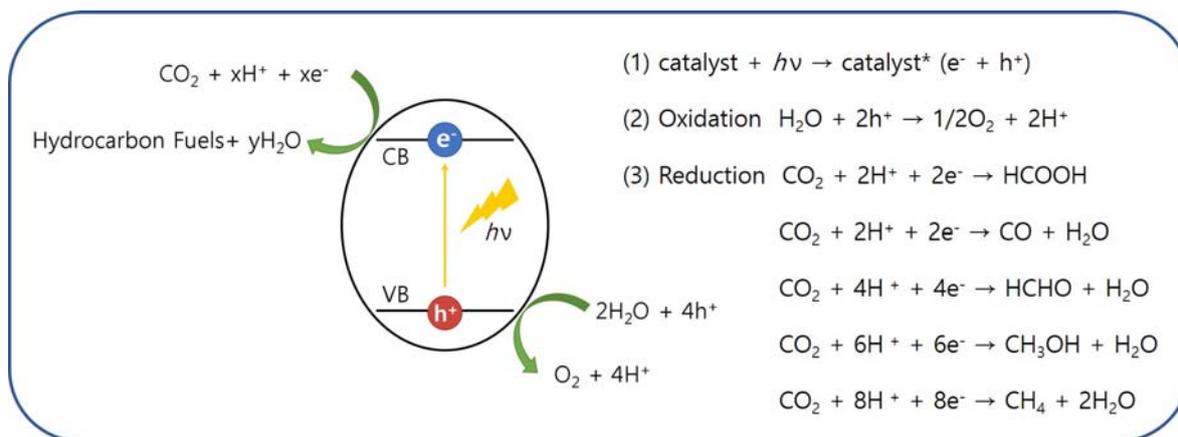
1.2 Photocatalytic CO₂ Conversion

The later research stream employs two main processes; thermochemical and photochemical for conversion of CO₂ into useable products. The thermochemical process is less preferred for the reasons of being energetically intensive and costly. The photochemical conversion is a cost effective and preferred process for the photoreduction of CO₂ into useful liquid fuels like methanol, formaldehyde, and methane gas.

In 1979, it was reported that carbon dioxide (CO₂) could be photochemically converted into several organic compounds using various materials such as TiO₂, ZnO, CdS, SiC, and WO₃ as photocatalyst [5]. In the wake of this paper, many researchers have studied how to develop an artificial photocatalyst that can convert carbon dioxide into hydrocarbon fuel using solar energy [6-7].

The possible photocatalytic reactions involved in photoreduction of CO₂ into CH₄ can be explained

on the basis of the commonly accepted two electron scheme [8]. Upon illumination, photocatalyst absorbs light and generates pairs of photoexcited electrons (e^-) and holes (h^+) which can be trapped by appropriate photocatalyst sites (Equation (1)). Meanwhile, the holes react with water giving rise to oxygen and protons (Equation (2)). CO_2 molecules can then interact with the electrons and protons to give methane or other useful products (Equation (3)).



To convert the carbon dioxide into hydrocarbon, the bandgap of a photocatalyst must straddle the redox potentials of each half reaction [2, 6].

1.3 Electrochemical Anodization

Electrochemical anodization is a simple, low cost and high-throughput method currently used to generate arrays of vertically oriented, self-organized nanopores and nanotubes in a variety of metal oxides. This includes, but is not limited to, Al_2O_3 , TiO_2 , Nb_2O_5 , Ta_2O_5 , Fe_2O_3 , WO_3 , ZrO_2 and $HfO_{2.29}$. Key advantages of anodization include the availability of multiple process variables such as the temperature, duration, electrolyte composition, anodization potential (or current), anodization ramp (or pulse) sequence and substrate patterning, to control the rates of competing processes and thereby obtain a tunable and reproducible morphology at the nanoscale. Anodization has not been hitherto employed for the growth of vertically oriented nanostructures in copper sulfide (CuS and Cu_2S).

2. RESEARCH EQUIPMENT

2.1 X-Ray Diffractometer (XRD)

X-Ray diffraction is a characterization analysis method that measures the crystallographic structure, lattice parameters, planar spacing, and crystallite size of materials. This method is based on the principle of Bragg's law, when atoms collide with incident X-ray at different angles, the intensity of X-ray is increased or decreased at specific angles.

XRD consists of an X-ray Generator, Goniometer for measuring the angle, Detector for measuring the intensity of X-ray, Control/Data Processing Unit and Computer. An accelerated electron by means of high voltage is crushed to a metal target in a vacuum state. At that time, most of the kinetic energy of the electron is transferred to heat, 0.1% of the electron is transferred to X-ray for analysis.

XRD was measured on all the samples using a MiniFlex600 X-ray diffraction system that utilized Cu K α radiation with $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$. Samples were in film form, and scans were run from 2θ values of 10° to 90° at a rate of 2° per minute.



Figure 1. Rigaku Miniflex 600 X-Ray Diffractometer

2.2 X-ray Photoelectron Spectrometer (XPS)

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy is an analytical method that measures the valence states, elemental composition and the empirical formula of the elements that are present within a material. XPS spectra are measured by crushing a material with X-rays while simultaneously measuring the kinetic energy and the number of electrons that escape from the material.

XPS spectrum consists of the number of electrons detected versus the binding energy of the electrons detected. Each element produces a characteristic set of XPS peaks at characteristic binding energy values that directly identify each element that exists in or on the surface of the material being analyzed. These characteristic spectral peaks correspond to the electron configuration of the electrons within the atoms, e.g., 1s, 2s, 2p, 3s, etc. The number of detected electrons in each of the characteristic peaks is directly related to the amount of element within the XPS sampling volume.



Figure 2. Thermo ESCALAB 250Xi

XPS experiments were performed on ESCALAB 250Xi. With monochromatic incident x-rays and detectors limit of energy resolution < 0.3 eV, improper calibration or shifts due to surface charging can cause incorrect identification of surface phases. At that time XPS spectrum is compensated for using C 1s region.

2.3 Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM)

Scanning electron microscope is a type of electron microscope that obtains images of a sample by collecting the secondary electron when a focused beam of electrons is injected to sample. SEM can achieve resolution better than 1 nanometer. SEM is consisted of electron gun for making and accelerating electron, electromagnetic lens for magnification, signal detector, high-voltage generator for supplying the voltage to electron gun and filament, stage, holder and vacuum system.

The samples were measured by using Hitachi S-4800 High Resolution Scanning Electron Microscope. The S-4800 is a cold field emission high resolution scanning electron microscope that can guarantee high resolution (1.4 nm) at low voltage. The accelerating voltage on the S-4800 is around 0.5 - 30 kV. The S-4800 has a specimen stage X = 0 ~ 50mm and Y = 0 ~ 50mm. The SEM utilizes vacuum conditions and uses electrons to form a high image resolution, special preparations was done to the samples. All samples, before and after the reaction, were totally dried from moisture to avoid the vaporization in the vacuum. Moreover, all samples were coated with a thin layer of conductive material (Platinum). This coating process was done by using a device called a sputter coater (HITACHI MC1000, coating condition: 15 μ A 30 sec).



Figure 3. Hitachi S-4800 High Resolution Scanning Electron Microscope

2.4 Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM)

Transmission Electron Microscopy is a microscopy technique in which a beam of electrons is transmitted through an ultra-thin specimen, interacting with the specimen as it passes through. TEM functions by generating a primary electron beam of high energy and high intensity that passes through a condenser to produce parallel beams that irradiate the sample. Magnified images of the sample are formed by combining the transmitted electrons using an electromagnetic objective lens. TEM is primarily used to give information on topography, morphology and crystal structure at with atomic resolution (0.1 nm).

The TEM micrographs were recorded on a Hitachi HF 3300 High Resolution Transmission Electron Microscope operating at 100 kV using formvar/carbon coated nickel grids. For making the thin sample in the chapter 4, the CuO-TiO₂ foil is sonicated in the ethanol and the solution including CuO-TiO₂ structure is dropped in the nickel grid and dry at room temperature for 30 min.



Figure 4. Hitachi HF 3300 High Resolution Transmission Electron Microscope

3. Photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ into hydrocarbon fuels with standard titania (Degussa P25) using newly installed experimental setup

3.1 Introduction

Energy is the “fuel of life.” It exists all around us in various forms such as heat, light and electricity. Living organisms must acquire energy in the form of minerals, proteins, carbohydrates etc. to survive on this earth. Most of the energy is generated from non-renewable resources like coal, fossil fuel oils, natural gas and nuclear resources (radioactive elements). Currently a large portion of energy in terms of heat and electricity arrives from oil and gas reserves. One of the key pollutants generated by the consumption of fossil fuels is CO₂ [9]. Utilization of fossil fuels and various industrial processes emit CO₂ leading to a rise in the level of atmospheric CO₂. Such emissions causes the serious issues of global warming and environmental pollution [2, 9].

Various approaches have been investigated for reducing the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ to a normal level by following two key research streams [3, 10]: (1) CO₂ capturing and (2) its transformation into useful products. The later research stream employs two main processes, thermochemical and photochemical for conversion of CO₂ into useable products. The thermochemical process is less preferred for the reasons of energetically intensive and costly. While, the photochemical conversion is an environment effective and preferred process for the photoreduction of CO₂ into useful liquid fuels like methanol, formaldehyde, and methane gas [4-5, 11-12]. Unfortunately, the yield of photochemical conversion product is much less. Thus requires gigantic efforts for improving the CO₂ photoreduction efficiency. Therefore, the photochemical reduction of CO₂ has the dual advantage of reducing atmospheric CO₂ concentration and producing useful products. However, the conversion efficiency still very low. An extensive amounts of research are being carried out to enhance the performance and productivity in this research area [10-12].

3.2 Method

The photoreduction of CO₂ was carried out using standard titania photocatalyst, Degussa P25. The experiment was performed using a newly designed photoreactor. The reactor assembly composes of a stainless steel platform, a circular photoreactor (Volume of the photoreactor = 15.4 cm³) bearing an inlet and outlet valves. The photoreactor has two side openings covered with rubber septum for sampling purposes and a thermocouple to measure inside temperature of the photoreactor. The schematic diagram of the experimental setup is shown in Figure 5.

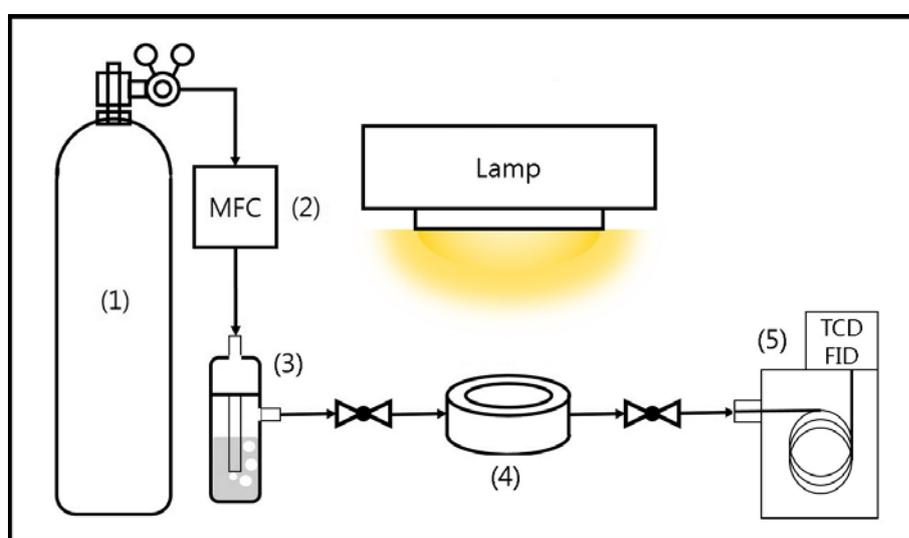


Figure 5. The schematic representation of the experimental setup for CO₂ photoreduction comprising of (1) CO₂ gas Cylinder, (2) Mass Flow Controller, (3) Gas bubbler containing deionized water, (4) Photoreactor for conversion of CO₂, (5) Gas Chromatography unit

The design of the photoreactor assembly is shown in Figure 6. The experimental setup consists of the following components:

1. CO₂ gas cylinder providing 99.999% CO₂.
2. Mass flow controller (MFC) installed in the inlet line before the reactor and a vacuum pump at the last preceding the outlet line.
3. Gas bubbler containing deionized water providing a mixture of CO₂ and H₂O to the photoreactor.

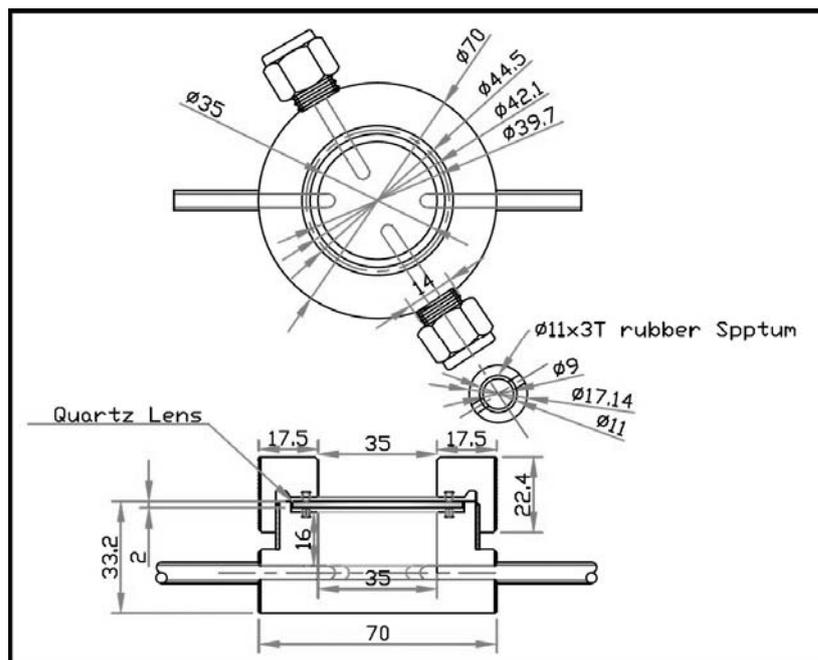


Figure 6. Design of photoreactor used for CO₂ photoconversion.

The complete experimental procedure from start to the final product involved various steps. The experimental procedure begins with the purging of the photoreactor using a vacuum pump. Both the photoreactor lines and the photoreactor are needed to be evacuated in order to remove any reactive gases or air in the reactor setup. Before the purging of the photoreactor, the line from CO₂ cylinder to the photoreactor was flushed with CO₂ for a long time to remove any air in the line if present. The CO₂ gas flow rate was controlled by a mass flow controller (MFC) installed in the feed line prior to the photoreactor as shown in Figure 5. The CO₂ was passed through the MFC and a gas bubbler containing deionized water to generate a mixture of CO₂ and H₂O. The inlet valve of the photoreactor was then closed to saturate the inlet line with CO₂ and H₂O. The flow range of the MFC was adjusted at 0-10 mL·min⁻¹. Just after opening the valve of CO₂ cylinder, the MFC displayed a flow rate of 10 mL·min⁻¹. As the CO₂ gas continues to flow, the flow rate was decrease and eventually reached to 0 mL·min⁻¹. This value was achieved for the reason of achieving zero pressure difference within the system (the photoreactor and the lines). At this point it was considered that the photoreactor and inlet line was saturated with a mixture of CO₂ and H₂O. Meanwhile, the photoreactor was purged by opening the outlet valve and purging was continued till the vacuum reaches a value of 2.0×10^{-2} Torr. Upon reaching the desired vacuum value the outlet valve of the photoreactor was closed gently while the in-

let valve was opened to pass CO₂ gas into it. Before the photocatalyst loading, the reactor was purged with CO₂ gas for 5 times in order to remove any air or other impurities present in the system using this method. The GC analysis of mixture gas (CO₂ and H₂O) in the photoreactor was conducted as a background test. The test shows no carbon containing compounds in the GC analysis and therefore used as reference data in further calculations.

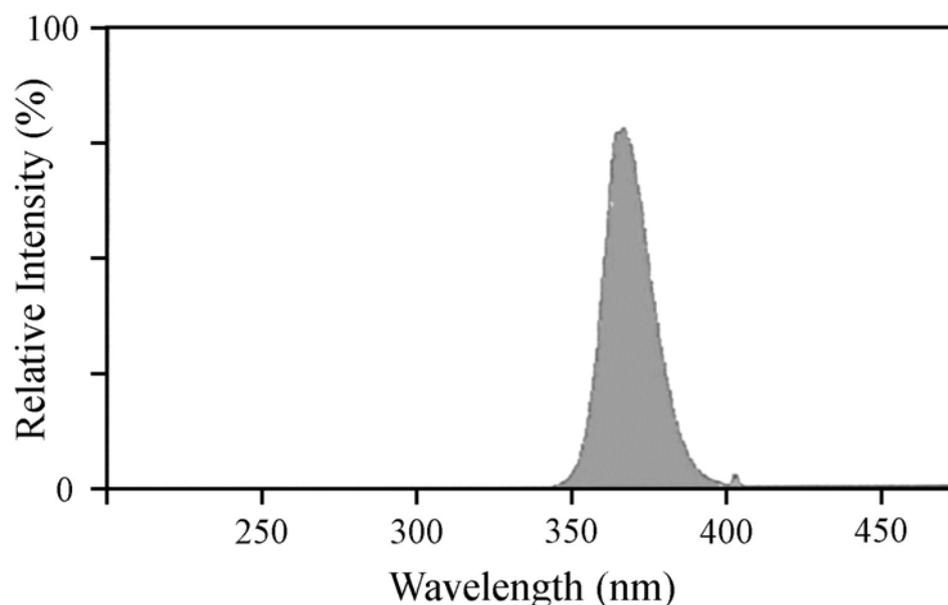


Figure 7. Spectral chart of UVB lamp (($\lambda_{\text{max intensity}} = 365 \text{ nm}$, UVP Inc. UVGL-58) referred to UVP Inc.

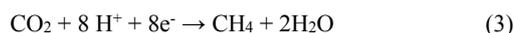
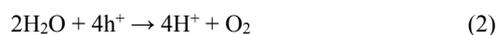
Afterwards the photoreactor was loaded with 50 mg of Degussa P25, the standard titania photocatalyst. The purging using high purity CO₂ gas was repeated with titania, Degussa P25 loaded the photoreactor for at least five times before illumination. The CO₂ gas from the cylinder was opened and CO₂ flows to the photoreactor through a gas bubbler containing deionized water. The photoreactor is considered to be saturated with CO₂ and H₂O mixture when MFC displays 0 mL·min⁻¹ flow rate, indicating no further flow of CO₂ gas from CO₂ cylinder into system. At this stage the inlet valve of the photoreactor was closed and was subjected to illumination for photoreduction of CO₂ into valuable products. The illumination was carried for one hours using light from a UVB lamp ($\lambda_{\text{max intensity}} = 365 \text{ nm}$, UVP Inc. UVGL-58, light intensity: 1200 μWcm^{-2} , Figure 7). The distance between photocatalysts and UVB lamp was 3 cm. The increase in the temperature of the photoreactor under illumination and rela-

tive humidity was also measured (80 %). After one hour illumination, the final temperature of the photoreactor was found to be 35 °C. This increase in temperature was considered to have negligible effect on the photocatalytic activity of P25 [13]. The products measurement was controlled using Shimadzu GC-2014 gas chromatograph (Restek Rt-QBond column, ID=0.53 mm, length=30 m) equipped with flame ionization (FID) and thermal (TCD) detectors.

3.3 Results and Discussion

The sample of the products was taken from the photoreactor by using a syringe (500 μL). The syringe was inserted in the photoreactor through side opening enclosed with a rubber septum. The sample was then injected to the GC for product analysis. The GC analysis of the product sample shows a dominant yield of methane with minor yields of other hydrocarbons such as ethane, propane, butane. The standard titania, Degussa P25 yield methane at a production rate of 1007 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (16.11 $\text{ppm}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$).

The possible photocatalytic reactions involved in photoreduction of CO_2 into CH_4 can be explained on the basis of commonly accepted two electron scheme [8]. Upon illumination, TiO_2 absorbs light and generate pairs of photoexcited electrons (e^-) and holes (h^+) which can be trapped by appropriate TiO_2 sites (Eq. (1)). Meanwhile, holes reacts with water giving rise to oxygen and protons (Eq. (2)). CO_2 molecules can then interact with the electrons and protons to give methane or other useful products (Eq. (3)).



4. Development of a Tandem TiO₂ Photocatalyst Covered with CuO Nanorods Layer for High-rate Solar Photocatalytic CO₂ Conversion to Hydrocarbon Fuels

4.1 Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is an effective greenhouse gas because it has a serious impact on the global temperature. Current fossil fuel consumption increases atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration monotonically [14]. Hence, the control of CO₂ release into the atmosphere is required to alleviate global warming [15, 16]. Photocatalysis, an ambient temperature and environmentally friendly technique, is a feasible technology condensing the atmospheric CO₂ and thus can minimize the impact of global warming. In addition photocatalysis can utilize sunlight for conversion of CO₂ into hydrocarbon fuels suitable for the energy infrastructure based on renewable energy policies [2, 17-18].

Many TiO₂ based materials have been tested for CO₂ conversion [7, 19, 20]. However the TiO₂ exhibits poor efficiency due to wider bandgap and high charge recombination [21, 22]. Despite of wider bandgap, the conduction band of TiO₂ appears at more negative potential than the CO/CO₂ potential [23]. Under the condition of high electron degeneracy, electrons can transfer to CO₂ from TiO₂ conduction band. Thus it is an effective strategy to couple TiO₂ with another co-catalyst which is able to take photogenerated electrons from the TiO₂ conduction band and transfer them to the adsorbed CO₂. Both platinum and copper have been selected to help charge carrier transfer between TiO₂ and the reactant species [24-26]. However instead of those metals it is useful to hire oxide photocatalysts with appropriate band positions such as Copper (II) oxide (CuO) [10]. CuO is a p-type semiconductor with a direct bandgap (E_g = 1.2 - 1.5 eV) [27]. Modification of CuO by synthetic combination with TiO₂ nanoparticles can result in multifunctional p-n heterojunctions. It is well known that coupling of the two semiconductors, CuO and TiO₂, results in 1) an enhanced stability against photocorrosion, 2) a higher separation of photogenerated charge carriers, and 3) a favorable shift of band edge [28-30].

One dimensional (1D) inorganic nano-structures have attracted considerable interest due to their

unique properties such as uniform size, well-defined morphology, low density, large surface area and many potential applications [31, 32]. As catalysts they can have more active sites and adsorption properties [33]. A variety of synthetic methods have been developed to produce 1D nano structures including thermal, chemical, electrochemical and template method [34, 35]. The morphologies of the nanorods prepared by template method are similar to those of the templates. However the removal of the templates by either thermal or chemical means is very inconvenient and energy-consuming. Therefore development of the template free method is very important.

In this study it is described a new tandem type nanostructured material, TiO₂ blocks decorated with vertically aligned CuO nanorods, that photocatalytically converts CO₂ into hydrocarbon fuels (methane etc.) at ambient temperature without any novel metal co-catalyst such as Pt. A simple route was designed to fabricate the tandem nanostructure comprised of electrochemical anodization followed by thermal oxidation method. The ability to combine TiO₂ blocks and CuO nanorods, which has not previously been accomplished in related hybrid nanostructures made using such simple methods, is important to widen the wavelength range of solar radiation that can be absorbed.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Materials

Copper substrate (Cu foil, WONIL CO., LTD., 99.9%) Titanium Foil (Ti, Sigma Aldrich, 99.7%), Sodium Sulfide (Na₂S, Sigma Aldrich), Titanium isopropoxide (TTIP, Ti[OCH(CH₃)₂]₄, Sigma Aldrich, 97%), Carbon paper (C, CNL energy, 420 μm), Acetone, Ethanol, Distilled water

4.2.2 Synthesis

The Cu substrate (Cu foil, 99.9%, WONIL CO., LTD.) was sized 2 x 3 x 0.01 cm. Before the anodization, the Cu foil was cleaned with acetone and ethanol, followed by a deionized water rinse. The anodization was performed using a two-electrode cell with Cu foil as the working electrode and carbon paper (CNL energy, 2 x 3 x 0.042 cm) as the counter electrode. Anodizations were carried out for about 1 min at a constant applied voltage of 3 V at room temperature in an aqueous solution of 0.2 M Na₂S (Sigma Aldrich). After anodization, the Cu foil was rinsed with water, and dried at 70 °C for 1

hour. The anodized Cu foil was let in and out the titanium isopropoxide as Ti precursor, and dried at room temperature for over 12 hours. To convert the $\text{Ti}(\text{OH})_2$ to anatase TiO_2 in the dry process, the as-prepared sample was annealed at 400 °C for 3 hours in air (flow rate of air gas: 30 mL·min⁻¹).

4.2.3 CO₂ conversion test method

After loading the sample (2X2 cm), the reaction chamber was evacuated to about 30 mTorr. Pure CO₂ (99.999%) was introduced into the chamber through a deionized water bubbler at a total flow rate of 10 mL·min⁻¹. The CO₂ loading/evacuation process was repeated five times. The relative standard deviation of the CO₂ concentration was about 1.5%, and the relative humidity was measured to be about 80%. A 300W Xe lamp (Newport corp. No. 66984) with an AM1.5 filter was used as a light source (light intensity: 100 mWcm⁻²). After the photocatalytic reaction was allowed to proceed for three hours, quantitative detection of reactants and products was performed using a Shimadzu GC-2014 gas chromatograph (Restek Rt-QBond column, ID=0.53 mm, length=30 m) equipped with flame ionization (FID) and thermal conductivity (TCD) detectors

4.2.4 Sample analysis

To confirm the purity and crystallinity of the sample were analyzed using X-ray diffraction (XRD, Rigaku MiniFlex 600, 40kV, Cu K α -radiation). For chemical composition analysis, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) studies were carried out with an ESCALAB 250Xi (Thermo) system using Al K α (150 W) radiation. The morphologies of the samples were examined Scanning Electron Microscopy using a Hitachi S-4800 at an accelerating voltage of 3 kV. Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDX) using the EDX detector on a Hitachi S-4800, operated at 20 kV. High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, Hitachi HF-3300) were carried out to confirm distinct lattice fringes of the nanorods. The TEM sample was obtained by tearing off the sample, followed by ultrasonication in ethanol solution for 3 min. Two droplets of well-dispersed ethanol solution were deposited on the carbon coated nickel grid. The TEM sample was ready to be analyzed after being dried overnight.

4.3 Results and Discussion

Our design strategy, shown in Figure 8a, uses uniform anodized CuS dendrites as reactive substrate that are transformed to vertically aligned CuO nanorods on TiO₂ blocks.

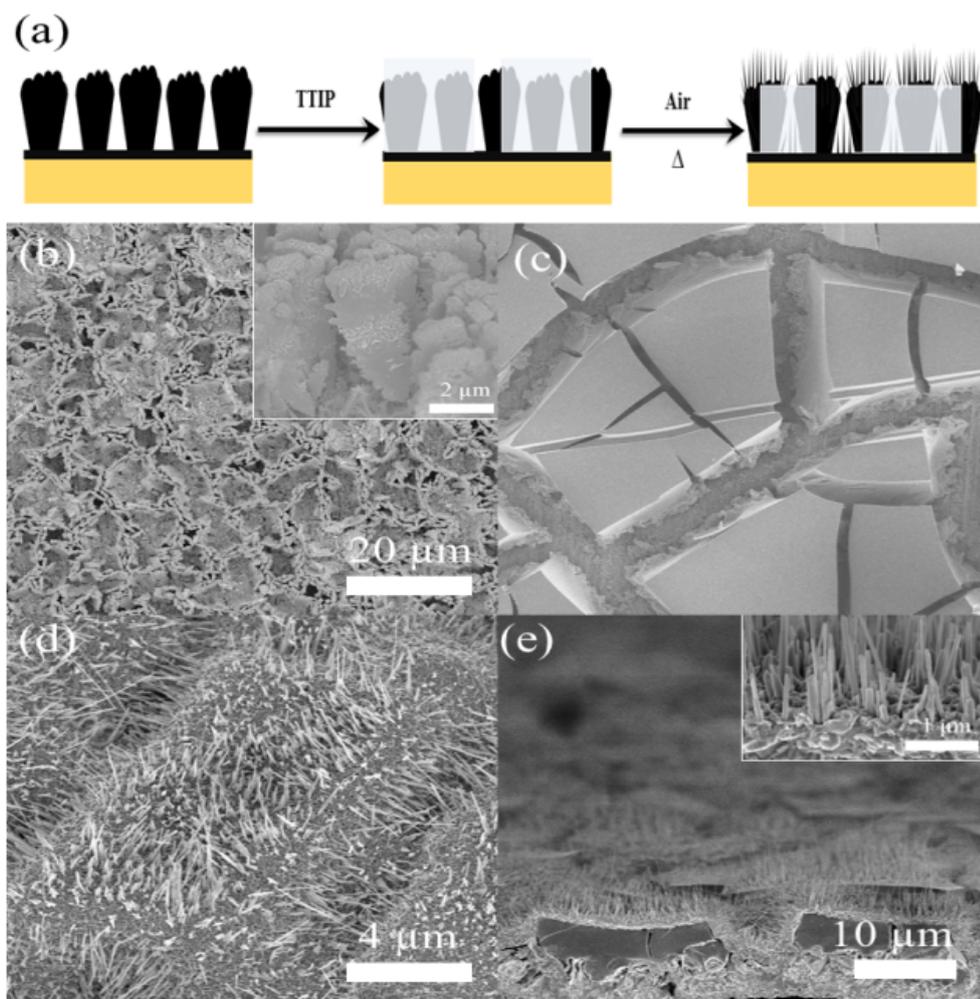


Figure 8. (a) Diagram showing the multistep strategy that convert CuS dendrites into hybrid TiO₂ blocks covered with CuO nanorods, SEM images of (b) CuS dendrites, (c) CuS dendrites covered with Ti precursor block after drying, (d) TiO₂ blocks covered with CuO nanorods, and (e) cross section of the TiO₂ blocks covered with CuO nanorods.

First CuS dendrites are synthesized by anodization of Cu foil in sulphide base aqueous electrolyte. The field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) images in Figure 8b shows the dendrite morphology of CuS, which can hold Ti precursor (Titanium (IV) Isopropoxide, TTIP) firmly during

the thermal annealing process. Without CuS dendrites, Ti precursor is not attached on the surface of the Cu foil. Figure 8c shows top view of Ti precursor blocks on CuS dendrites. Next CuO nanorods grow on the TiO₂ block surfaces by slow annealing under air at 400 °C for 3 hours. Figure 8d shows the surface of the TiO₂ blocks-CuO nanorods. The cross-section of the TiO₂ blocks decorated with well aligned CuO nanorods is shown in Figure 8e.

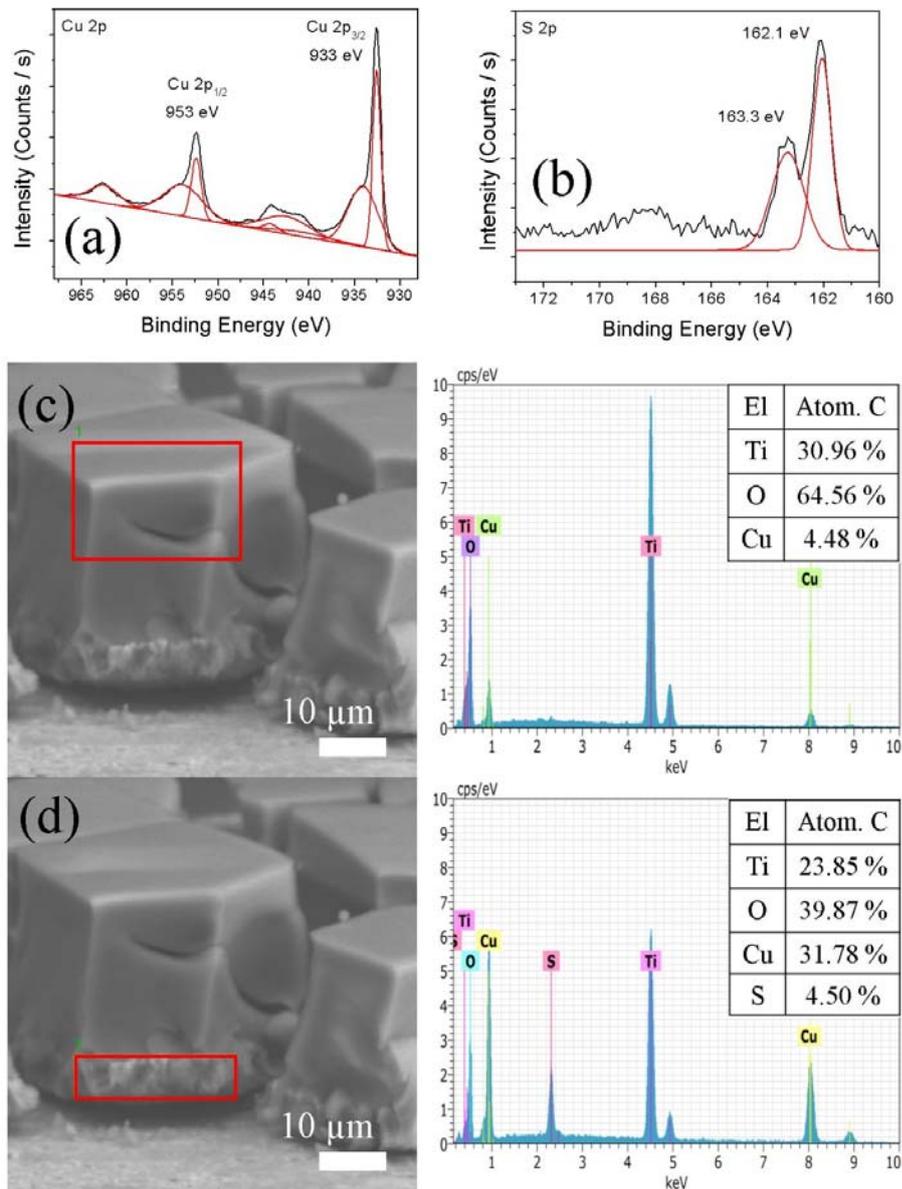


Figure 9. XPS spectra of CuS dendrite showing (a) Cu 2p and (b) S 2p regions. Cross-sectional SEM and EDS data of (c) upper side and (d) down side dried CuS dendrite covered with Ti precursor blocks.

For the confirmation of presence of sulphur in the copper dendrites The XPS data of the copper dendrites was measured and is shown in Figure 9. Figure 9a shows the Cu 2p spectra with strong peaks corresponding to Cu 2p_{1/2} and Cu 2p_{3/2} at binding energies of 953 and 933 eV respectively. Figure 9b shows the S 2p spectra with two main peaks appearing at 162.1 eV and 163.3 eV. These peaks can be assigned to the Cu-S and S-S bonds respectively [36]. Thus the XPS of copper dendrites assures the presence of sulphur in the sample.

Furthermore to observe the formation of Ti(OH)₂ during drying, the elemental analysis was performed by electron diffraction X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) of the dried CuS dendrites covered with titanium isopropoxide as Ti precursor. The EDS data corresponding to the respective region (red squares in cross-sectional SEM images) is shown in Figure 9c and d. It can be clearly seen, the blocks of Ti(OH)₂ (Figure 9c) are composed mainly of Ti (30.96 %), O (64.56%) elements after drying, confirming the formation of Ti(OH)₂. While the elemental analysis of the copper dendrites base (figure 9d) shows the presence of sulphur which is well agreed with the XPS data.

To understand the formation of tandem nanostructure the annealing was done at various temperatures, from 100 to 400 °C. The FESEM images of the samples annealed at 100, 200, 300 and 400 °C reveals several aspects of converting TiO₂ precursor and CuS dendrites into the final product of TiO₂ blocks decorated with CuO nanorods (Figure 10). First, heating causes the TiO₂ precursor layer to crystallize and crack as shown by the samples annealed at 100 °C and 200 °C (Figure 10a and b). At 300 °C CuO nanorods grow through the cracks among the TiO₂ blocks (Figure 10c). Finally at 400 °C, the CuO nanorods moderately cover the surface of the TiO₂ blocks (Figure 10d).

The mechanism of CuO nanorods formation is not well known yet. However it is presumed here that the thermal stress promotes the outward diffusion of the Cu²⁺ ions between Ti(OH)₂ blocks to the Ti(OH)₂ surface. The Cu²⁺ ions diffusing to the surface can react with oxygen, forming CuO molecules acting as nucleation sites for CuO nanorods growth [37, 38]. At the same time, the Ti(OH)₂ crystallizes into TiO₂ anatase phase. CuO nanorods moderately encapsulate the TiO₂ blocks, it helps to complete p-n junction between TiO₂ (n-type semiconductor) and CuO (p-type semiconductor).

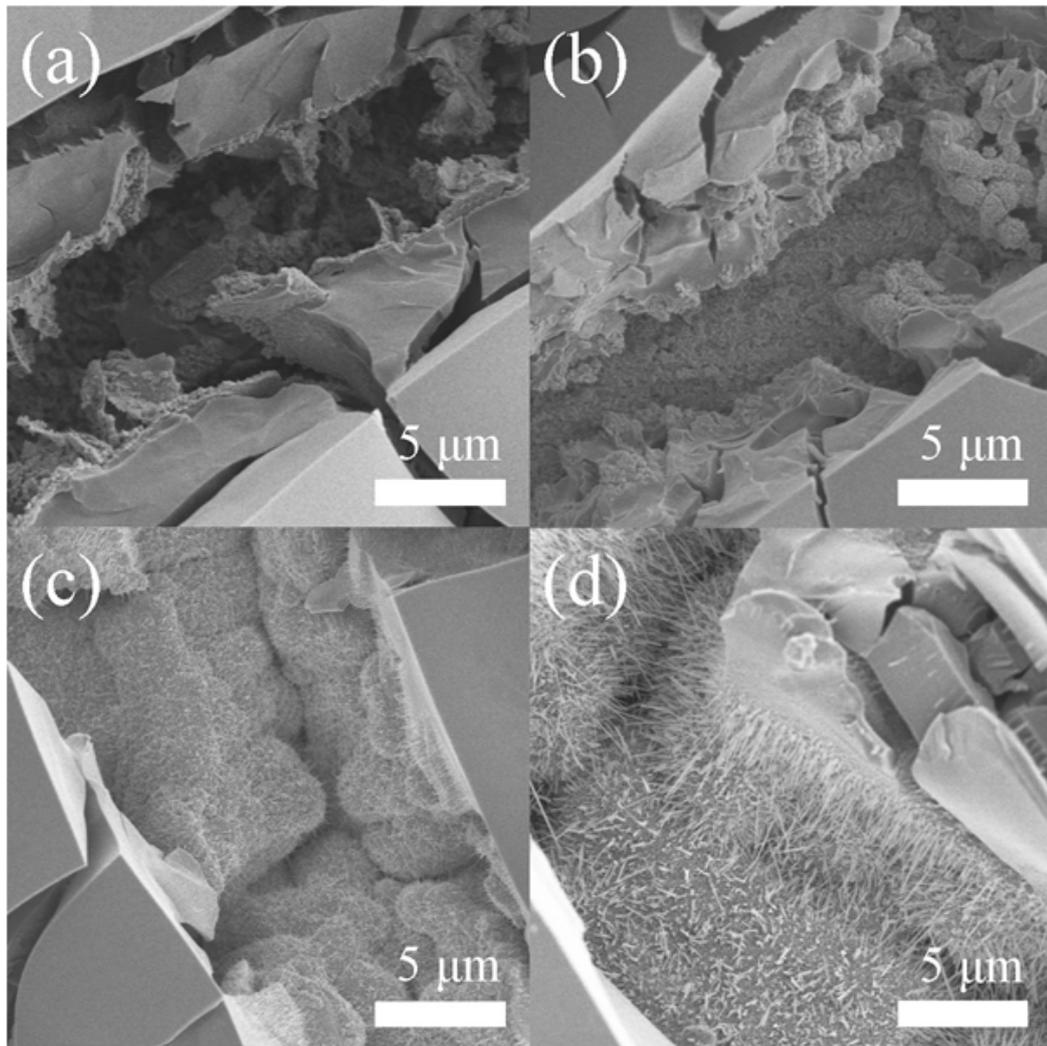


Figure 10. FESEM images of TiO₂ presursor-CuS dendrites annealed for 1 hour at (a) 100 °C, (b) 200 °C, (c) 300 °C and (d) 400 °C.

The transmission electron microscope (TEM) image in Figure 11a shows the resulting uniform (98.1 ± 20.0) nm thick nanorods. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image in Figure 11b shows the middle of a representative sample. 2.32 Å lattice spacing is observed in the nanorod, which uniquely corresponds to CuO (111) [39]. Further evidence for the presence of TiO₂ and CuO comes from X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data. Figures 11c and d show XPS spectra for the Ti 2p and Cu 2p regions, respectively. As shown in Figure 11c, the strong peaks at around 933 eV and 953 eV are corresponding to Cu 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} peaks respectively [40]. It reveals that the chemical valences of Cu in the CuO nanoparticles are +2 valence states. Regarding TiO₂, as shown in Figure 11d, the Ti 2p region of the samples has binding energies (BEs) of 458.7 eV and 464.4 eV, attributed to the spin-orbit

split ($2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$) of the 2p core level [40, 41]. XPS data for the Ti 2p regions confirm the presence of and Ti^{4+} .

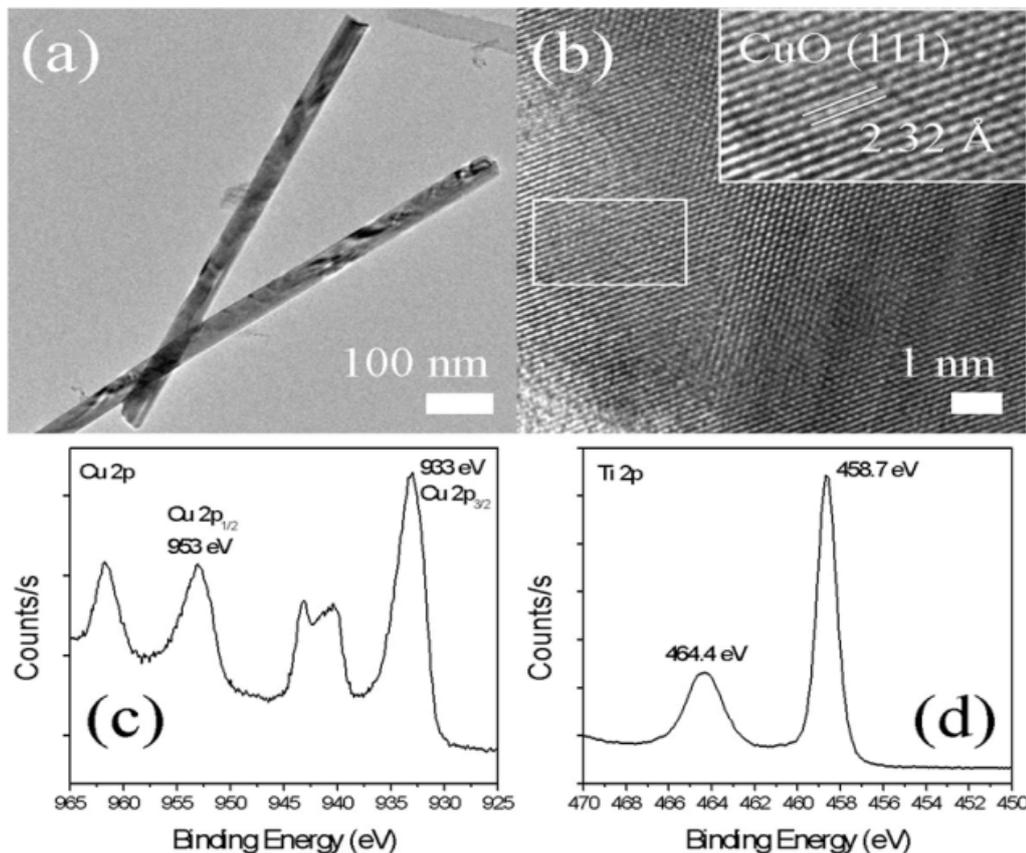


Figure 11. (a) TEM of CuO nanorods, b) HRTEM of CuO nanorods, and XPS spectra of c) Ti 2p and d) Cu 2p regions, respectively.

Control experiments show that annealing at 400 °C for 3 hours in air is optimum condition to get the final product of TiO_2 blocks-CuO nanorods. X-ray diffraction (XRD) data confirms that the product is composed of Cu_2O , CuO and TiO_2 (Figure 13) [42, 43]. The inset figure shows the enlarge view of XRD in the range of $2\theta = 20-45^\circ$.

However the XPS doesn't show any chemical valences of Cu due to Cu_2O which is contradicting with the XRD data (Figure 12). The XRD data shows the Cu_2O peaks along with CuO in the sample. This may be due to the depth limitation (3 μm) of XPS scan. Thus it is obvious that the surface of TiO_2 block is mainly covered by CuO nanorods while the Cu_2O exists in the core of the tandem structure. It

is believed here that the photocatalytic CO₂ conversion is occurring more actively on surface rather than core. Thus the CuO nanorods on the surface of tandem structure mainly contributes for CO₂ photoconversion to hydrocarbons.

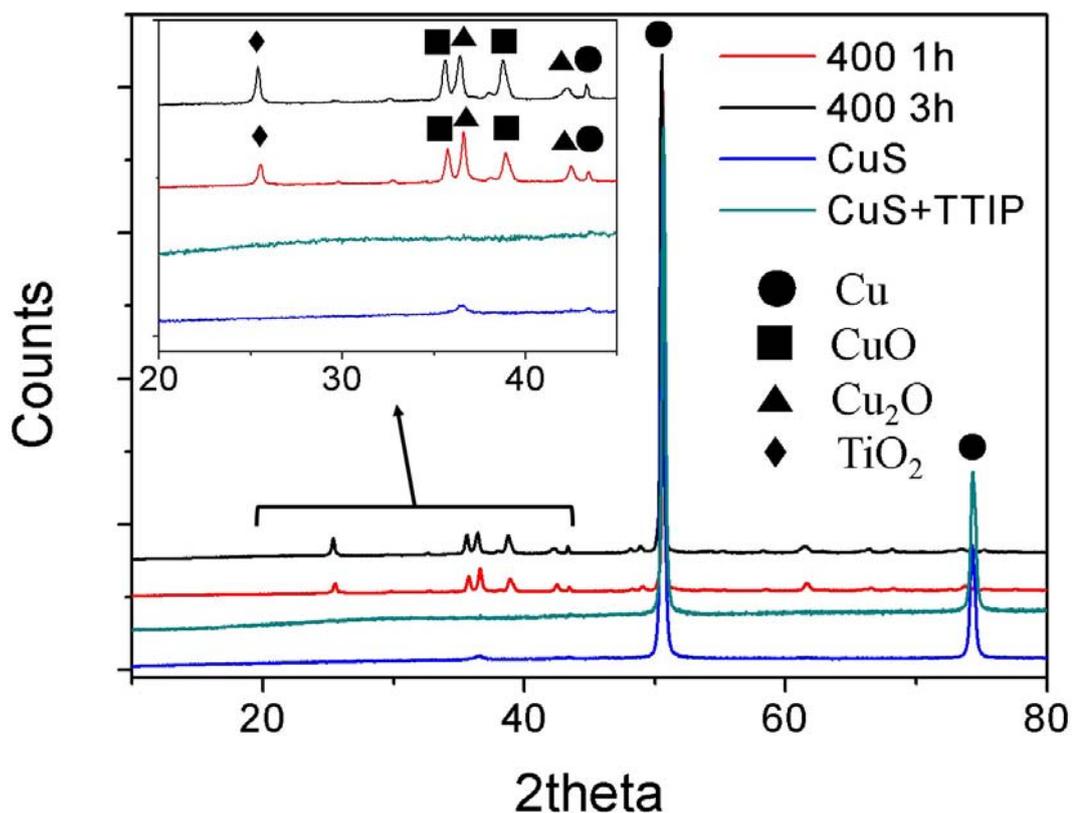


Figure 12. Powder XRD of CuS dendrite (blue), Ti precursor on the CuS dendrite (green), TiO₂ block-CuO nanorods annealed for 3 hours (black) and 1hour (red) at 400 °C.

Photocatalytic CO₂ conversion measurements were carried out under simulated solar irradiation (AM 1.5G, 100 mWcm⁻²) at ambient temperature, and reaction products were monitored by gas chromatography (GC). GC analysis of the products showed predominantly methane, along with ethane, propane, and butane as minor products.

Figure 13 shows the methane formation rates for each sample, plus additional control experiments. The optimised TiO₂ block-CuO nanorods tandem sample (e) yields 10.9 μmol·cm⁻²·h⁻¹ of methane, which represents a production rate that is 5.7 times faster than that of TiO₂ synthesized that Ti foil anodized at 3V for 1min and dried at 70 °C for 1 hour and annealed at 400 °C for 1 hour (c) when meas-

ured under the same conditions ($1.9 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$). The 1 hour annealed TiO_2 block-CuO tandem nanorod sample (d) yields even less methane formation rate. The CuS dendrite before annealing (a) and the annealed CuS dendrite (b) samples showed negligible activity.

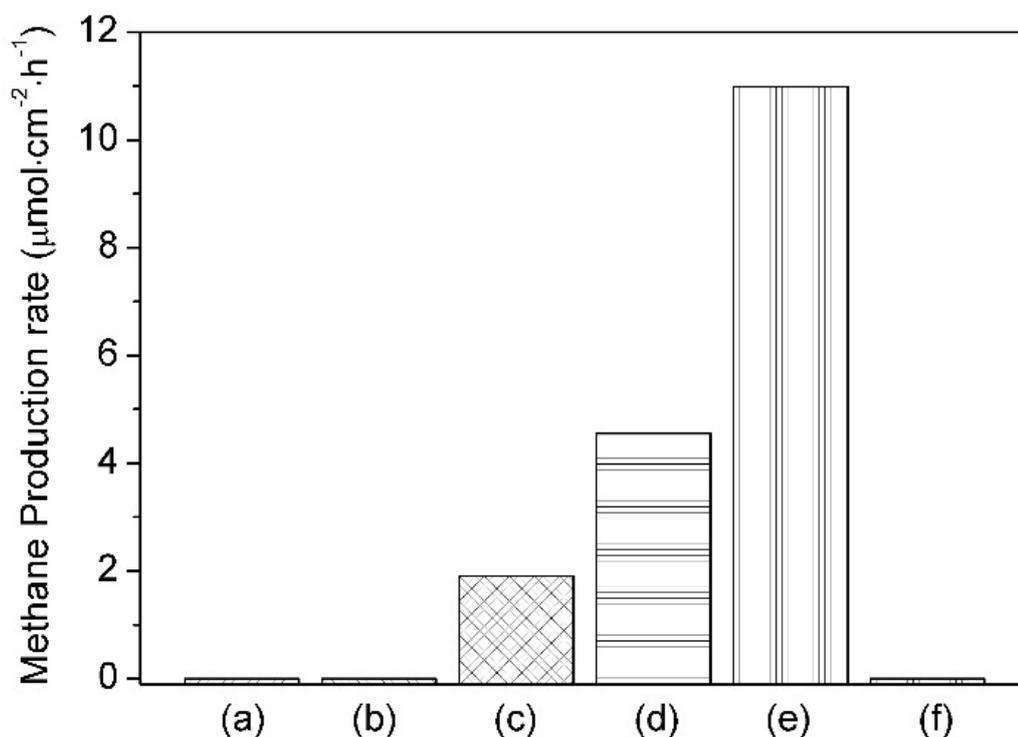


Figure 13. Rates of methane production ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) under solar irradiation $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ for (a) unannealed CuS dendrites, (b) annealed CuS dendrites ($400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 1 hour), (c) TiO_2 synthesized that Ti foil anodized at 3V for 1min and dried at $70 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 1 hour and annealed at $400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 1 hour, (d) TiO_2 blocks-CuO nanorods (1 hour), (e) TiO_2 blocks-CuO nanorods (3 hours), and (f) TiO_2 blocks-CuO nanorods in CuO- TiO_2 in $\text{Ar}/\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$.

Also, control experiments show that there is no appreciable hydrocarbon production in the absence of either solar irradiation or photocatalysts, indicating that there are no significant thermal or photon effects, respectively. When tested in $\text{Ar}/\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ instead of $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$, TiO_2 block-CuO nanorod tandem sample (f) shows no evidence of hydrocarbon production beyond the background noise of the measurement, suggesting that any organic impurities on the surface of the TiO_2 block-CuO nanorod tandem sample have negligible involvement in the CO_2 conversion reaction or on the reported methane production rates.

It is difficult to directly compare the methane production rate of the TiO₂ block-CuO nanorods tandem samples with rates reported for other photocatalysts because of the variance in experimental conditions, morphological features, surface areas, and co-catalysts. However, the catalytic performance of the TiO₂ block-CuO nanorod tandem sample is comparable to, and perhaps better than, other reported photocatalysts that convert CO₂ into methane using solar irradiation and without using noble metal co-catalysts.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The first study concluded that operation of a distinct CO₂ photoreactor have been demonstrated with simple mechanical design captivating the features of temperature and pressure control. The moderate yield of CH₄ as a main product advocates the reliability and efficient operation of newly installed experimental setup. Despite of significant progresses in the field of CO₂ photoreduction, it exhibits a challenging issue of diverse products ranging from CO to CH₄. One of the effective strategies to quick fix this dilemma is the development of hybrid photocatalysts leading to produce favorable hydrocarbon fuels.

The second study concluded that a novel strategy for synthesizing TiO₂ block - CuO nanorod tandem sample have been described, a new hybrid material that photocatalytically converts CO₂ into methane under solar irradiation. The synthetic strategy uses uniform CuO dendrites as both a TiO₂ precursor holder and compositional template for subsequent coating of TiO₂ precursor, oxidation of the TiO₂ block - CuO dendrites to form TiO₂ blocks decorated CuO nanorods tandem structures. Given this synthetic strategy and the design parameters that can be systematically varied, it should be possible to further improve the catalytic performance and to better understand nanostructure–property correlations in these and related materials.

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요 약 문

인공광합성: 광화학적 이산화탄소의 탄화수소 연료로의 전환

최근 환경 문제로 대기 중에 급격히 증가하는 이산화탄소 농도가 대두되고 있다. 대기 중의 이산화탄소를 유용한 자원으로 전환시켜 감소시키는 방법으로 열화학적, 광화학적 방법을 이용하는데, 그 중 광화학적 전환은 환경 친화적이고 이산화탄소의 광환원으로 메탄올, 포름알데히드, 메탄 가스와 같은 유용한 연료로 전환할 수 있어 주목 받고 있다. 광촉매의 표면에서 발생하는 이산화탄소의 탄화수소로의 광화학적 전환은 광촉매 영역의 획기적인 발견 중 하나이다. 현재 이산화탄소 전환효율을 증가시키기 위해 다양하게 접근하여 연구를 진행하고 있다. 이산화탄소 광전환을 위한 반응기는 실험장치에서 중요한 역할을 한다. 그래서 첫 번째 연구에서는 이산화탄소를 유용한 자원으로 전환시키기 위한 새롭게 설계된 광반응기를 제작했다. 광반응기는 특별히 간단히 온도를 측정하고 압력을 조절할 수 있도록 제작되었다. 제작된 광반응기를 시험해 보기 위해 Degussa P25 이산화티탄을 광촉매로 하여 365nm 에서 최대강도를 갖는 자외선 램프를 이용해 이산화탄소를 $1007 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ($16.11 \text{ ppm}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$)의 메탄으로 성공적으로 전환했다. 두번째 연구에서는 하이브리드 나노구조 CuO-TiO₂ 를 합성하여 이산화탄소 광전환을 실험했다. 전기화학적 양극산화를 통해 구리 호일에 황화 구리 구조체를 합성하고 티탄 전구체인 titanium isopropoxide 로 표면을 덮었다. 그 뒤 400 도에서 열처리를 하여 나노구조 CuO-TiO₂ 를 제작했다. 합성된 광촉매를 첫 번째 연구에서 제작한 광반응기 시스템을 이용해 태양광 모의 장치 아래에서 이산화탄소를 메탄으로 전환하는 실험에 성공했다.

핵심어: 광촉매, 이산화탄소 전환, 인공광합성, 광반응기, 텐덤형 CuO-TiO₂ 나노구조