



# Efficient volcano-type dependence of photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> conversion into methane using hydrogen at reaction pressures up to 0.80 MPa



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## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 30 August 2016

Revised 20 October 2016

Accepted 22 October 2016

### Keywords:

CO<sub>2</sub> conversion

Pressure dependence

Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub>

Electron trap

Oxygen vacancy

Interface site

Surface plasmon resonance

Contour plot

## ABSTRACT

Photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into fuels could mitigate global warming and energy shortage simultaneously. In this study, the reaction pressure was optimized for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by H<sub>2</sub>. The major products were methane, CO, and methanol, and the observed catalytic activity order was Cu or Pd on TiO<sub>2</sub> ≫ Ag/ZrO<sub>2</sub> ~ g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> > Ag/Zn<sub>3</sub>Ga-layered double hydroxide ~ BiOCl. Hot/excited electrons due to surface plasmon resonance could be transferred to CO<sub>2</sub>-derived species and the remaining positive charge could combine with excited electrons in the semiconductor. As the levels of hot/excited electrons became more negative, the catalysts became more active, except for Ag/ZrO<sub>2</sub> and Ag/Zn<sub>3</sub>Ga-LDH, probably due to lower charge separation efficiency for intrinsic semiconductors or hydroxides. The reaction order was controlled by the partial pressure of H<sub>2</sub>, demonstrating preferable adsorption of H on Pd. The photoconversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into methane was optimum at P<sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> = 0.28 MPa and P<sub>CO<sub>2</sub></sub> = 0.12 MPa, but the rates gradually dropped at higher partial pressures due to adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> being hindered by H.

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## 1. Introduction

Photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into fuels is one of the routes to carbon-neutral fuels, avoiding the net increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations associated with fossil fuel-derived alternatives [1–3]. TiO<sub>2</sub> has been investigated most intensively for this purpose and is known to produce methane and/or CO. CuO supported on TiO<sub>2</sub> photoreduced CO<sub>2</sub> into methanol [2,3] or methane [1–3]. However, when isotope-labeled <sup>13</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> was used, C-containing impurities at the TiO<sub>2</sub> surface were likely to be reduced to CO [3,4]. The product using Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> was carefully confirmed to be <sup>13</sup>CH<sub>4</sub> [3,5].

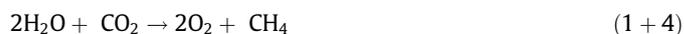
We recently reported CO<sub>2</sub> photoconversion into methanol using H<sub>2</sub> and layered double hydroxides (LDHs) [6–8]. Industrially, H<sub>2</sub> is produced via cracking and reforming fossil fuels. H<sub>2</sub> can instead be produced sustainably from water utilizing natural light, in a way similar to Photosystem II,



followed by the production of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) by Photosystem I [9],



Our analogue of Photosystem I in heterogeneous catalysis is CO<sub>2</sub> photoconversion using LDH and Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> to form methanol and methane [6–8]:



Although significant progress has been achieved by many researchers in the photoconversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into fuels [1–3], most studies have evaluated the photoconversion of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in aqueous solution, namely Eqs. (1) and (3) or (1) and (4). For example, the critical role of oxygen vacancy (O<sub>v</sub>) sites in CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O was suggested [10–13], and enhanced photoconversion of CO<sub>2</sub> was reported at ele-

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vated reaction pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> and moisture [10,11] or liquid water [11,14–19]; however, most of the mechanisms are unknown. Thus, the systematic dependence of CO<sub>2</sub> photoconversion on reaction pressure and an independent understanding of the reduction sites and mechanism for CO<sub>2</sub> conversion (Eqs. (3) and (4)) are still open for discussion.

The present study screened semiconductor photocatalysts for efficient photoreduction of CO<sub>2</sub> into fuels using H<sub>2</sub> as a reductant at 0.12–0.80 MPa in order to clarify the role of Eq. (3) and/or (4). The band gap ( $E_g$ ) values of the semiconductors were varied between 2.6 and 5.6 eV by employing ZrO<sub>2</sub>, g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, BiOCl, TiO<sub>2</sub>, and [Zn<sub>3</sub>Ga(OH)<sub>8</sub>]<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>·mH<sub>2</sub>O LDH while keeping the conduction band (CB) minimum more negative than the reduction potential ( $E^\circ$ ) for CO<sub>2</sub> to methane, CO, or methanol (–0.32 to –0.11 V against the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE)) [3,8]. The reaction pressure dependence for Reaction (3) and/or (4) was carefully investigated.

Sastre et al. reported CO<sub>2</sub> conversion using H<sub>2</sub> and Ni-based catalysts irradiated by a solar simulator, and the rates were surprisingly as high as those using a photocatalyst: 55 mmol h<sup>–1</sup> g<sub>cat</sub><sup>–1</sup> [20]. The temperature and gas pressure reached 423 K and some hundreds of kPa due to the exothermic nature of Eq. (4). On the basis of blank tests below 453 K in the absence of light, photocatalytic activation of H<sub>2</sub> to form Ni–H species followed by thermal hydrogenation of CO<sub>2</sub> to formate on metallic Ni was suggested [2,20]. The possibility of a thermal assist for activation is also discussed in this study.

The reason that a volcano-type dependence of CO<sub>2</sub> photoconversion on reaction pressure is obtained using the most active Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst was investigated by monitoring the mass balance of reactions, the oxidation state of Pd, and the concentration of O<sub>v</sub> sites in TiO<sub>2</sub> by X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS). This paper is the first of several in which the sites and mechanism for reaction in CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub> are compared with those for reaction in CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O. As site separation between photo-oxidation (H<sub>2</sub> or moisture) and photoreduction (CO<sub>2</sub>), and the concentrations and roles of O<sub>v</sub> sites on the catalysis are complicated issues, the photoconversion of CO<sub>2</sub> using moisture is reported separately [21].

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Catalyst synthesis

An aqueous solution (1.0 mM) of Ag nitrate (>99.8%, Wako Pure Chemical) was stirred with ZrO<sub>2</sub> {JRC-ZRO-3, Catalysis Society of Japan, specific surface area (SA) 94 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>–1</sup>} for 24 h. An aqueous solution of 40 mM of NaBH<sub>4</sub> (>95%, Wako Pure Chemical) was then added in the molar ratio Ag:NaBH<sub>4</sub> = 1:4 and the solution was stirred for 1 h. The solution was filtered using a polytetrafluoroethylene-based membrane filter (Omnipore JWVP04700, Millipore; pore size 0.1 μm) and the collected yellow precipitate was washed with deionized water (<0.055 μS cm<sup>–1</sup>) supplied by a model RFU424TA (Advantec). The powder was dried under vacuum at 290 K for 24 h. The obtained yellow powder is denoted as Ag/ZrO<sub>2</sub>. The loading of Ag was 0.5 wt.% (Table 1a).

Ten grams of urea (>99%, Wako Pure Chemical) was heated at 823 K for 3 h and the resultant yellow powder was washed with 0.1 M of nitric acid (Wako Pure Chemical) and deionized water to obtain g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> [22].

BiOCl was synthesized via a solvothermal procedure described in Ref. [23]. Briefly, 2.0 g of Bi nitrate pentahydrate (>99.5%, Wako Pure Chemical) and 1.3 g of cetyltrimethylammonium chloride (>95%, Wako Pure Chemical) were dissolved in 80 mL of ethylene glycol (EG, >99.5%, Wako Pure Chemical). The solution was stirred for 1 h and 1.0 M of KOH (85%, Wako Pure Chemical) in EG was

added. The reaction solution was maintained at 433 K for 12 h. The solution was filtered and the collected white powder was washed with deionized water and ethanol.

Sodium tetrachloropalladate (>98%, Sigma Aldrich) solution (1.0 mM) was stirred with TiO<sub>2</sub> (P25, Degussa; anatase phase:rutile phase = 8:2, specific SA 60 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>–1</sup>) at 290 K for 24 h. Then 40 mM of NaBH<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution was added in the molar ratio Pd:NaBH<sub>4</sub> = 1:8 and the suspension was stirred at 290 K for 1 h. The solution was filtered using a JWVP04700 filter and the collected yellow precipitate was washed with deionized water before drying under vacuum at 290 K for 24 h. The obtained gray powder was denoted as Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub>. The loading of Pd was 0.5 wt.% (Table 1d).

Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·3H<sub>2</sub>O (0.078 g; >99.9%, Wako Pure Chemical) and urea (2.5 g) were dissolved in 50 mL of deionized water. A quantity of 1.0 g of TiO<sub>2</sub> (P25) was added to this solution. Thereafter, the temperature of the suspension was increased to 353 K and kept constant for 4 h while stirring as a deposition–precipitation step. The sample was then washed with deionized water (50 mL each) and filtered five times using a JWVP04700 filter. After drying, the sample temperature was elevated at a rate of 1.25 K min<sup>–1</sup> and kept at 673 K in air for 2 h [24]. The loading of Cu was 3.2 wt.% (Table 1e).

The synthetic procedure for preparing LDH [Zn<sub>3</sub>Ga(OH)<sub>8</sub>]<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>·mH<sub>2</sub>O has been described previously [8]. A quantity of 1.0 mM of Ag nitrate solution was stirred with [Zn<sub>3</sub>Ga(OH)<sub>8</sub>]<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>·mH<sub>2</sub>O powder at 290 K for 24 h and then 40 mM NaBH<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution was added in the molar ratio Ag:NaBH<sub>4</sub> = 1:4 and stirred for 1 h. The solution was filtered using a JWVP04700 filter and the collected yellow precipitate was washed with deionized water. The obtained yellow powder is denoted as Ag/Zn<sub>3</sub>Ga-LDH. The loading of Ag was 0.5 wt.% (Table 1f).

### 2.2. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were observed using a D8 ADVANCE diffractometer (Bruker) at the Center for Analytical Instrumentation, Chiba University, at a Bragg angle ( $\theta_B$ ) of  $2\theta_B = 5.0$ – $60^\circ$  with a scan step of  $0.02^\circ$  and a scan rate of 3 s per step. The measurements were performed at 40 kV and 40 mA using Cu K $\alpha$  emission (wavelength  $\lambda = 0.15419$  nm) [25,26] and a nickel filter. Crystallite sizes ( $t$ ) were estimated using the Scherrer equation

$$t = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\text{Peak width} \times \cos\theta_B} \quad (5)$$

Ultraviolet (UV)–visible spectra were measured using a Model V-650 (JASCO) spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere (ISV-469, JASCO) for diffuse reflectance measurements in the wavelength range 200–800 nm. The  $E_g$  values were estimated via simple extrapolation of the absorption edge or by fitting to the Davis–Mott equation,

$$\alpha h\nu \propto (h\nu - E_g)^n, \quad (6)$$

where  $\alpha$ ,  $h$ , and  $\nu$  are the absorption coefficient, Planck's constant, and the frequency of light, respectively, and  $n$  is 1/2, 3/2, 2, or 3 for allowed direct, forbidden direct, allowed indirect, and forbidden indirect electronic transitions, respectively [8,27,28]. Fits to Eq. (6) were performed assuming each  $n$  value, or using the  $n$  value evaluated based on fits to the log–log form of Eq. (6) using the  $E_g$  value obtained by simple extrapolation of the absorption edge to the wavelength axis in the UV–visible spectra.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were observed using a Model H-7650 transmission electron microscope (Hitachi) at an accelerating voltage of 100 kV. A tungsten filament was used in the electron gun and samples were mounted on conducting carbon with a Cu grid mesh (150 mesh per inch). The magnification

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