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Selective methane production from visible-light-driven photocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction using the surface plasmon resonance effect of superfine silver nanoparticles anchored on lithium titanium dioxide nanocubes (Ag@Li_xTiO₂)



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ABSTRACT

This study focused on the results of applying the strong surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect of silver (Ag) particles anchored on cubic phase Li_vTiO₂ to the carbon dioxide (CO₂) photoreduction reaction. The study demonstrated the importance of three aspects: First, the cubic TiO₂, which activated the [101] facet, was successfully produced. Secondly, Li+ ions were introduced as Frenkel defects in some lattices to create oxygen defects. These vacancies increased the adsorption of carbon dioxide and sped up the rate-determining step in the CO_2 reduction reaction. In other words, they induced the easy conversion of CO_2 to CO, which is the first reduction product. Finally, the loading of Ag nanoparticles onto the LixTiO2 cubic surface the improved photocatalytic activity through SPR effects, and in particular led to selective conversion of CO2 to methane (CH4). Quantitatively, the yield of CH_4 from CO_2 using the Ag@Li_{0.075}TiO₂ particles was 49 µmol/g after 10 h of reaction, which was 8.2 and 1.5 times higher than that of cubic TiO₂ (6 µmol/g) and Li_{0.075}TiO₂ (33 µmol/g) under UV-light. Additionally, its activity did not decrease under visible lights of 420 and 620 nm with the similar CH_4 yields of 42 and 34 μ mol/g after 10 h, respectively. In particular, the production ratio of CH_4 and CO using cubic TiO2 and LixTiO2 were about 1:1, with no selectivity for either product. However, after metallic Ag nanoparticles were loaded, the product selectivity shifted towards CH4, and the product ratio of CH4 to CO was about 3:1. Furthermore, the Ag@Li0.075TiO2 particles exhibited a strong SPR effect (in particular, direct electron transfer), which contributed to maintaining the charge separation and the lifetime of the catalyst over a long period. Catalytic deactivation was not observed during five cycles of recycling tests.

1. Introduction

Even ten years ago, carbon dioxide was regarded as the culprit of global warming, and a great deal of money is spent worldwide on carbon capture and storage (CCS) technology to reduce or eliminate CO_2 . In recent years, however, most countries have begun to utilize carbon dioxide as a carbon energy source, and have focused on the use of carbon capture and utility (CCU) as the main method of CO_2 reduction. One attractive CCU technology is biomimetic artificial photosynthesis, which uses a photocatalyst and sunlight to decompose carbon dioxide and water to produce hydrocarbons, which could replace

existing fossil fuels [1]. However, great barriers remain to be overcome in the commercialization of this technology, namely, the efficiency and lifetime of the photocatalyst. In general, a photocatalyst should have both a semiconductor band structure for absorbing light and converting it into energy, and a catalytic surface for inducing a chemical reaction. The photocatalyst absorbs photons from sunlight, which excites the electrons of the valence band to the conduction band, thereby forming electron-hole pairs. In the valence band, oxygen is produced, and in the conduction band, hydrogen is produced. This hydrogen serves to reduce the carbon dioxide. For artificial photosynthesis, the minimum energy required for water decomposition is 1.23 eV (although practically,

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1.8 eV or more is required), and thus the size of the band gap is very important. Furthermore, there must be a redox potential between the valence band and the conduction band of the band-gap that corresponds to the hydrogen and oxygen evolution reaction [2]. When all these conditions are satisfied, the photocatalyst can be used for artificial photosynthesis. TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, BiVO₄, ZnO, and WO₃ are typical photocatalysts that meet these conditions [3–7]. TiO₂ is chemically stable and is the only commercially available catalyst for artificial photosynthesis, and is also used in sterilization, air purification, water treatment, and organic matter decomposition applications. However, in many studies, inefficient light absorption, rapid recombination of the charges generated by light, and the possibility of a reverse reaction have been reported, due to its wide band gap (2.8 to 3.2 eV). Therefore, catalysts such as BiVO₄, WO₃, and Fe₂O₃ have been attracting attention as chemically stable materials with smaller band-gaps of 2.2 to 2.6 eV. However, with the exception of TiO₂, no material with a lifetime of more than 10,000 h, which is required for commercialization, have been identified.

Recently, TiO2-related research has focused on adjusting the band gap or improving the adsorption of reactants by controlling the morphology or defects in crystals [8,9]. For example, one method involves making a non-uniform junction on the surface by adjusting the crystal planes. In the case of anatase TiO₂, the order of the surface energies of the low index facets is [101] < [010] < [001], which results in different catalytic activities for the facets. Researchers have reported that the photochemical carbon dioxide reductive activity increased on a 2D-TiO₂ nanosheet whose exposed facets were almost exclusively of the [101] type [10]. In particular, Li et al. reported [11] that loading Ag onto brookite TiO2 quasi-nanocubes with exposed [210] and [001] facets increased the activity and selectivity of the photoreduction of CO₂ to CO/CH₄. They concluded that when the Ag-loading level is $\leq 0.5\%$, the small Ag nanoparticles are mainly dispersed on the [210] facets of the brookite nanocubes, resulting in an enhancement in the selectivity of CO generation; while > 0.5% Ag-loading could lead to the formation of Ag nanoparticles aggregated on the [210] facets with some Ag nanoparticles dispersed on the [001] facets, causing greater selectivity for CH₄ generation. Another strategy is to create defect sites on the TiO₂ surface or to create a surface state that enhances the adhesion of CO₂ to the surface to promote the reduction reaction. Typically, hydrogen plasma treatment is used to create oxygen vacancies [12], or to treat surfaces with non-noble metals, inorganic bases, or organic amines [13–15]. In recent years, the use of surface plasmon resonance (SPR) has been popular for improving the efficiency and lifetime of artificial photosynthetic catalysts. Plasmons are similar particles that vibrate in metal. They are attracting attention as a light absorption phenomenon in the visible region of metal particles or metamaterials, and they form a strong local electric field [16]. Plasmons have been studied in various fields such as optical waveguides, sensors, and light emitting devices, because they allow particles to collect light with a wavelength larger than the particle size. In particular, the use of plasmons is attracting attention due to the improved light absorptivity and photocurrent generation that can be achieved using this photoelectric phenomenon [17]. Recently, studies have been reported in which the efficiency of artificial photosynthesis was increased using the quantum phenomenon caused by SPR, which occurs when metal is exposed to light, allowing photocatalysts that are not normally sensitive to visible light to operate in visible light [18]. When SPR occurs, two important properties arise: the phenomenon of light trapping on the metal surface, and the phenomenon of excited electrons moving into the photocatalyst, resulting in large photocurrents. Initially, the enhancement of photocurrent by the SPR effect was reported mainly due to the light trapping effect of Au [19], Ag [20], and Cu [21] nanoparticles. Recently, however, SPR effects have also been reported in various metals and metal/metal oxide mixtures such as Al [22], Fe [23], Co [24], Ag/Ag₂O [25], and Cu/Cu₂O [26]. In particular, reports of the SPR of silver loaded TiO₂ (Ag/TiO₂) catalysts have been increasing rapidly, and these catalysts have shown

fairly good visible light activity in water splitting and organic decomposition [27,28]. However, the published reports did not completely reveal the evidence for SPR. In particular, an in-depth study of the effect of SPR on the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 is needed, as well as further investigation of the improvement in product selectivity, which one of the most important aspects of this catalytic reaction. Additionally, an in-depth investigation into the correlation between SPR and charge separation is required.

Thus, in this study, we tried to improve the CO₂ photoreduction performance using all three of the methods described above: in order to activate the [101] facet having the smallest surface activation energy, tetra ethyl ammonium hydroxide was added as a capping agent to obtain nanocube-shaped TiO₂. In order to simultaneously introduce oxygen defects into the TiO₂ lattice (so-called Frenkel defects), x moles of the organic base Li₂O were incorporated into the TiO₂ crystal structure to form anatase LixTiO2 cubes. The addition of Li anions creates oxygen anion defect sites in the lattice, which can increase CO₂ gas adsorption. In addition, we tried to induce the SPR effect by loading 1.0 wt.% of Ag nanoparticles onto LixTiO2, expecting an improvement of the photocatalytic efficiency by the optical trap effect. In particular, we hoped to induce the selective production of CH₄ by enhancing the hydrogen production capability of Ag ions that was reported in a previous study [29]. Four types of cubic LixTiO2 were synthesized in this study using a hydrothermal method by the addition of 2.5, 5.0, 7.5, and 10.0 mol.% of Li. The synthesis of Ag@LixTiO2 with an Ag loading of 1.0 wt.% Ag using the most optimal LixTiO2 particle was then carried out. The surface properties of the synthesized particles were characterized using various analytical techniques, and the particles were applied in the photoreduction of CO₂. Furthermore, the expected mechanisms for CO2 photoreduction by the SPR effect over the Ag@ LixTiO2 particles under UV and visible radiation were described.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of anatase structured TiO₂, Li_xTiO_2 , and $Ag@Li_xTiO_2$ cubic particles

The TiO₂, Li_xTiO₂, and Ag@Li_xTiO₂ particles were prepared by a typical hydrothermal method. To prepare the sol-mixtures, titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP, 99.99%, Junsei Chemical, Japan), lithium hydroxide (LiOH, 99.99%, Junsei Chemical, Japan), and silver nitrate (AgNO₃, 99.99%, Junsei Chemical, Japan) were used as the Ti, Li, and Ag precursors, respectively. In the first step of the TiO₂ synthesis, 1.0 mol of TTIP was dissolved in distilled water, and 2.0 mol of the capping agent tetra ethyl ammonium hydroxide were added slowly to the solution, and then stirred to homogeneity for 2 h. The final solution was transferred to an autoclave for thermal treatment at 200 °C at 10 atm for 1 h in a nitrogen environment. After thermal treatment, the resulting precipitate was collected, washed with acetic acid, and then dried at 80 °C for 24 h. In the second step, the synthesis of LixTiO2 particles was carried out similarly to the synthesis of TiO₂, but the molar percentage of Li ions in the starting materials was adjusted to 2.5, 5.0, 7.5, and 10.0 mol.%, corresponding to 1.0 mol of Ti ions. Consequently, four kinds of particles, which were named Li_{0.025}TiO₂, Li_{0.05}TiO₂, Li_{0.075}TiO₂, and Li_{0.1}TiO₂, were synthesized in this study. In final step, an amount of AgNO3 corresponding to 1.0 wt.% of the amount of LixTiO2 was dissolved in a beaker containing an ethanol solution in which the LixTiO2 catalyst was dispersed. After being dispersed well by stirring, a NaBH₄ solution was slowly added over 2 h to reduce the Ag ions. The product was dried at 80 °C for 3 h and then further dried in a dry oven at 70 °C for 24 h. The obtained sample was named Ag@LixTiO2.

2.2. Characterization of the TiO₂, Li_xTiO₂, and Ag@Li_xTiO₂ cubic particles

The XRD diffraction patterns of the synthesized TiO₂, Li_xTiO₂, and

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