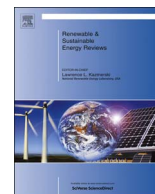




Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/rserSacrificial hydrogen production over TiO₂-based photocatalysts: Polyols, carboxylic acids, and saccharidesMasahide Yasuda^{a,*}, Tomoko Matsumoto^b, Toshiaki Yamashita^c^a Department of Applied Chemistry, Faculty of Engineering, University of Miyazaki, 1-1, Gakuen-Kibanadai-Nishi, Miyazaki 889-2192, Japan^b Center for Collaborative Research and Community Cooperation, University of Miyazaki, Gakuen-Kibanadai Nishi, Miyazaki 889-2192, Japan^c Department of Chemical Science and Engineering, National Institute of Technology, Miyakonojo College, Miyakonojo, Miyazaki 885-8567, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Hydrogen evolution
Pt/TiO₂
Polyols
Carboxylic acids
Saccharides
Chemical yields
Quantum yields

ABSTRACT

Photocatalytic generation of H₂ from water over titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has received a great deal of interest for developing a renewable and clean energy source. It is initiated by charge-separation in TiO₂ upon photoexcitation. The electron reduces water to generate H₂ while the hole oxidizes hydroxide to generate hydroxyl radicals. However, water-splitting into O₂ and H₂ is not easy because of the large up-hill reaction and rapid reverse reaction. It is well known that the use of electron-donating sacrificial agents (hole scavengers) remarkably accelerates TiO₂-photocatalyzed H₂ evolution in which the hydroxyl radical is consumed by the sacrificial agents. Thus, sacrificial H₂ production over a TiO₂ photocatalyst is a convenient method to generate H₂ from biomass and waste. This paper reviews the sacrificial H₂ production from polyols, carboxylic acids, and saccharides, focusing on the chemical yield of H₂ production.

1. Introduction

The consumption of fossil resources causes serious environmental problems such as global warming and air pollution. As major issues in the current world, there is an urgent need to stop CO₂ levels increasing and to find new renewable energy sources to use instead of fossil fuels. Hydrogen production from water and solar energy (artificial photosynthesis) has received a great deal of attention while developing renewable and clean energy sources [1]. Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has been a leading photocatalyst for the production of H₂ from H₂O since the discovery of photoelectrochemical H₂ evolution using TiO₂ by Honda and Fujishima [2]. Photocatalytic water-splitting over TiO₂ is initiated by charge-separation in TiO₂ upon photoexcitation [3]. The electron reduces water to generate H₂ while the hole oxidizes hydroxide to generate hydroxyl radicals [4]. In most cases, noble metals (Pt, Pd, and Au) are deposited onto the TiO₂ to accelerate the reduction of water by electrons, and electron-donating sacrificial agents (hole scavengers) are added to accelerate the consumption of hydroxyl radicals, thus enhancing H₂ evolution (sacrificial H₂ production) [5,6].

In general, TiO₂ can catalyze the three processes shown in Scheme 1. The photooxidation of organic compounds and pollutants with oxygen can easily proceed over TiO₂, since it is an extremely downhill process (Scheme 1A). Water-splitting into O₂ and H₂ (Scheme 1B)

is not an easy process because of the large up-hill reaction and rapid reverse reaction. Sacrificial H₂ production is an up-hill process but the energy change is small (Scheme 1C). Therefore, sacrificial H₂ production proceeds smoothly compared with water-splitting without sacrificial agents, thus providing a convenient method to generate H₂. The first study on sacrificial hydrogen production was reported by Kawai and Sakata in 1980 [7]. They succeeded in evolving H₂ from sugar and carboxylic acids in photocatalytic reactions over RuO₂/Pt/TiO₂ [7] and Pt/TiO₂ [8,9], respectively.

With this background, various kinds of reviews have been published. For example, water-splitting over TiO₂-based photocatalysts without sacrificial agents was reviewed by Ni et al. in 2007 [10]. Fornasiero et al. reviewed the photo-reforming of biomass-derived sacrificial agents over metal oxides in 2011 [11]. Moreover, Puga reviewed sacrificial photocatalytic H₂ production from biomass-derived materials from the viewpoint of the development of the photocatalyst in 2016 [12]. This paper reviews sacrificial H₂ production from polyols, carboxylic acids, and saccharides, focusing on the chemical yields of H₂ production.

2. Titanium oxide-based photocatalysts

The electrolysis of water proceeds theoretically by the application of

Abbreviations: PR, photo-reforming; SA, saccharification; SSF, simultaneous saccharification and fermentation; LMAA, low-moisture anhydrous ammonia pretreatment

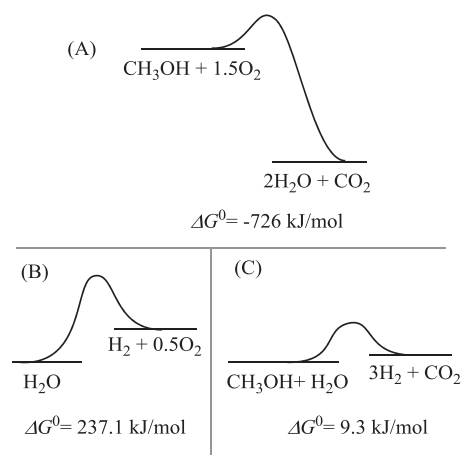
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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2017.05.243>

Received 24 March 2016; Received in revised form 19 February 2017; Accepted 26 May 2017

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Scheme 1. Three types of energy diagrams for down-hill (A), large up-hill (B), and small up-hill processes (C).

1.23 V of voltage. Since water splitting is a two-electron process, 237.14 kJ mol⁻¹ of energy is required [13]. TiO₂ can absorb a light at 384 nm which corresponds to 308.5 kJ mol⁻¹ of excitation energy and exceeds the required energy. For photocatalytic reaction, almost all research has used TiO₂ in the form of P25 (Degussa Co. Ltd, Germany) and ST01 (Ishihara Sangyo Co. Ltd., Japan). P25 is prepared by hydrolysis of TiCl₄ and comprises 75% anatase and 25% rutile, whereas ST01 is prepared by hydrolysis of TiOSO₄ and comprises 100% anatase [14]. There are several methods to enlarge the surface area of TiO₂. For example, PEG (polyethylene glycol) was used as a pore-forming reagent to prepare porous TiO₂ [15]. Silica gel (SiO₂) supported TiO₂ was used to prepare a TiO₂-SiO₂ composite by mixing Ti(OPr)₄ with silica gel and then calcining [16].

In order to enhance the photocatalytic activity for H₂ evolution, a Pt-loaded TiO₂ (Pt/TiO₂) was used. A photo-deposition method developed by Kennedy III and Datye is the most popular method, which is performed by irradiating an aqueous slurry of TiO₂ in the presence of H₂PtCl₄ and ethanol [17]. Many researchers have used Pt/TiO₂ for sacrificial H₂ production [18–24]. Other noble metals such as Pd [25], Au [26,27], and Au-MO_x (M = Ag, Cu, Ni) [28] have been loaded onto TiO₂. Among the noble metal-loaded TiO₂ photocatalysts (1% Ag, 1% Au, 1% Pt, and 0.5% Pt), Pt/TiO₂ (Pt = 1 wt%) was the most active for H₂ production [29]. Other metals such as Cu [30], Ir, Ru, Rh, Ni [18], NiO [31,32], and RuO₂ [33] have also been loaded onto TiO₂. Kang et al. [34], Sun et al. [35], and Bandara et al. [36] succeeded in enhancing the reactivity of TiO₂ by the deposition of CuO instead of Pt. Fluorinated Pt/TiO₂ was prepared by flame spray pyrolysis of a precursor solution containing Ti(OPr)₄, propanoic acid, K₂PtCl₆ and C₆F₆ [37].

Table 1 summarizes the results of sacrificial hydrogen production over the TiO₂-based photocatalysts reported so far.

3. Alcoholic sacrificial agents (1)

Some typical alcoholic sacrificial agents are listed in Table 2. Early work on sacrificial H₂ production was performed in neat alcohols such as methanol (**1a**), ethanol (**1b**) and 2-propanol (**1d**) [38,39]. Now, most sacrificial H₂ production is performed in aqueous alcoholic solution. Aqueous solutions of **1a** are the most typical sacrificial agents used to evaluate and optimize photocatalytic activity. **1a** underwent oxidation up to CO₂ through the formation of formaldehyde and formic acid along with the formation of H₂ [19,40]. Kondarides et al. reported that the molar ratio of H₂ to CO₂ obtained from **1a** was experimentally confirmed to be 3:1 [41]. The decomposition mechanism of **1a** over Pt/TiO₂ was discussed on the basis of a direct interaction of **1a** with free or trapped holes in the TiO₂ [42], or via attack of the HO-radical

Table 1
Sacrificial H₂ production over TiO₂-based photocatalysts.

Sacrificial agent	Photocatalyst	Ref.
Sugar	RuO ₂ /Pt/TiO ₂	[7]
CO	Pt/TiO ₂	[69]
Ethanol (1b)	Pt/TiO ₂	[45]
Glucose (3e)	Pt/TiO ₂	[89]
CO	Pt/TiO ₂	[68]
Carboxylic acid	Pt/TiO ₂	[8]
Carboxylic acid	Pt/TiO ₂	[9]
Methanol (1a), 2-Propanol (1d)	Ni/TiO ₂ (Ni= 0.03–13.8 wt%)	[38]
1d	Pt/TiO ₂	[50]
2-Propanol-d ₈	TiO ₂	[43]
1b, 1d	M/TiO ₂ (M = Pd, Pt)	[39]
Ascorbic acid (3a), Benzoic acid	Pt/TiO ₂	[88]
1b	M/TiO ₂ (M= Au, Pt)	[46]
1d , lysine	Pt/TiO ₂	[64]
1b	Pt/TiO ₂	[17]
1a	Pd/TiO ₂	[25]
1a, 1b	M/TiO ₂ (M= Pt, Pd)	[42]
Oxalic acid (2b)	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 0.5 wt%)	[81]
1a	Pd/TiO ₂	[22]
Formic acid (2a), 2b	Pt/TiO ₂	[82]
1a	Pd/TiO ₂	[23]
1a	Pt/TiO ₂	[6]
1a	Cu/TiO ₂ (Cu= 1.2 wt%)	[30]
1a	CuO/TiO ₂ (CuO= 7 wt%)	[36]
1a	RuO ₂ /TiO ₂	[33]
Alcohols	M/TiO ₂ (M = Pd, Pt, Rh)	[70]
ClCH ₂ CO ₂ H, Cl ₂ CHCO ₂ H	Pt/TiO ₂	[86]
1a	Pt/TiO ₂	[20]
1b	Pt/TiO ₂	[48]
1a, 1b , CH ₃ CO ₂ H (2d)	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 0.5 wt%)	[41]
1a	M/TiO ₂ (M = Pd, Pt, Au)	[18]
1a	Cu/TiO ₂	[34]
Glycerol (1h)	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 0.5 wt%)	[54]
1h	M/TiO ₂ (M= Pd, Pt, Au)	[79]
1a	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 1.0 wt%)	[21]
1a	Au/TiO ₂	[27]
2a	SrTiO ₃	[83]
1a, 1b, 1d	Pt/TiO ₂	[15]
1a	Au/TiO ₂	[26]
1h	Pt-N-TiO ₂	[55]
2d	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 1.0 wt%)	[87]
Glycolic acid (2e)	TiO ₂ under O ₂	[84]
1h, 3e , Sucrose (3j)	Heteroatom (N, B)-doped Pt/TiO ₂	[61]
1a	CuO/TiO ₂	[35]
1h	M/TiO ₂ (M = 0.5 wt% Pd, 2.0 wt% Au)	[59]
1a	Thin film TiO ₂ ^a	[119]
1a	M/TiO ₂ (M= Ag, Au, Pt)	[29]
Carbohydrates	Pt/TiO ₂	[90]
3e	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 0.10 wt%)	[91]
1a	M/TiO ₂ (M= 0.5 wt%Pt, 1.0 wt% Au)	[44]
1d	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 1.0 wt%)	[49]
1h	Pt/TiO ₂	[57]
1h	CuO/TiO ₂	[60]
1h	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 1.0 wt%)	[76]
C4, C3- polyols	Pd/TiO ₂ (Pd= 0.3 wt%)	[77]
2d	TiO ₂	[85]
Lactic acid (2e)	CdS/Pt/TiO ₂ ^a	[115]
1a	Pt/TiO ₂	[40]
Methylamine, Dimethylamine	TiO ₂	[66]
1h, 3e, 3j	M/TiO ₂ (M = Pd, Pt, Au)	[92]
1h	Pt/TiO ₂	[62]
Ammonia	Pt/TiO ₂	[99]
Ammonia, Methylamine	Pt/TiO ₂	[65]
Xylose	Pt/TiO ₂	[93]
1b	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 0.06–1.0 wt%)	[47]
1h	Pt/TiO ₂	[56]
1h	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 0.1–0.5 wt%)	[59]
3e	M/TiO ₂ (1 wt% of M= Pd, Au)	[80]
Polyols	Pt/TiO ₂ (Pt= 1.0 wt%)	[51]
Monools	Pd/TiO ₂	[75]
1b	SiC-TiO ₂ ^a	[117]
1b	SiO ₂ -Pt/TiO ₂ ^a	[16]
1a	Cu/S-TiO ₂ ^a	[116]

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