



Activity and Selectivity of Cu and Ni Doped TiO₂ in the Photocatalytic Reduction of CO₂ with H₂O Under UV-light Irradiation

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Photocatalysis has been found to be an effective method to convert CO₂ into valuable products. To explore the selectivity and photocatalytic activity of transition metal doped TiO₂ catalysts for the reduction of CO₂, a series of Cu and Ni (0.5-7.0 wt. %) doped TiO₂ nanoparticles were prepared by means of a hydrolysis method. Photocatalytic experiments were conducted under irradiation from Hg lamps in a CO₂/NaOH aqueous solution. The results indicate that the photoreduction of CO₂ with water, catalyzed by Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂, can yield CO, HCHO, CH₃OH and CH₄. Methane was identified as the major products using Cu-TiO₂ or Ni-TiO₂. In addition, Ni-TiO₂ shows greater CO₂ conversion in comparison with Cu-TiO₂. With the help of X-ray diffraction, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, Brunauer-Emmett-Teller measurements, transmission electron microscopy and UV-visible absorption spectra, it is concluded that both the adsorption and dissociation of CO₂ and improvement of the photocatalytic activity by forming a n-p junction and providing matching band potentials, play a crucial role in determining the types and amounts of photoproducts.

Keywords: Photocatalytic reduction, Carbon dioxide, Cu doped TiO₂, Ni doped TiO₂, Heterojunction.

INTRODUCTION

The conversion of CO₂ into useful materials, such as CO, HCHO, CH₃COOH, CH₃OH and CH₄, is considered to be one of the best ways to solve issues of global warming and energy shortages^{1,2}. However, the activation of CO₂, to form high-potential carbon compounds, requires a thermodynamic energy increase of about 220-330 kJ/mol^{3,4}. Consequently, reduction of CO₂ always requires extreme conditions, including high pressure or high temperature or both.

To date, the photoreduction method has been regarded as the most promising approach, since solar energy is the ultimate and inexhaustible source of energy on earth⁵. In view of the fact that the reduction potential for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₄ is -0.24 V (vs. NHE)⁶, TiO₂ with a conduction band (CB) energy of -0.29 eV, is considered to be an appropriate candidate for this photocatalytic process⁷. However, the disadvantages of the wide band gap of TiO₂ (3.2 eV for anatase) and the high recombination rate of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs greatly hinders the CO₂ conversion efficiency^{8,9}. Doping TiO₂ with metals (*e.g.* Pt, Ag, Ru, Rh, Au, Cu, Ni, *etc.*) or nonmetals (*e.g.* C, N, S, I, *etc.*) might be an effective way to overcome these drawbacks¹⁰⁻¹⁹. However, previous work has focused mainly on the preparation of new catalysts to improve the photocatalytic activity of CO₂. Sometimes, close attention is paid to only one particular photoproduct and few reports have

focused on the selectivity of the photoproduct and the photocatalytic activity of different photocatalysts under similar conditions.

In comparison to other metal dopants, Cu and Ni, as representatives of group IB and VIII might be able to dissociate adsorbed CO₂²⁰⁻²². This might then promote mass transfer of CO₂ from the liquid phase to the catalyst surface, facilitating CO₂ activation and reduction. For this reason, Cu and Ni were selected as candidates to compare the activity and selectivity of doped TiO₂ photocatalysts.

The Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ catalysts, doped with different concentrations of the metal, were synthesized using the hydrolysis method. Their photocatalytic properties were then compared by reducing CO₂ in alkaline solution. Systematic characterization by methods that included X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) measurement, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and UV-visible absorption spectra, were used to elucidate the relationship between the structure and the photoproperties, including activity and selectivity, of the photocatalysts.

EXPERIMENTAL

All chemicals were of analytical grade or higher and were used as received. Carbon dioxide (purity 99.999 %) was

provided by Hangzhou Jingong Special Gas Co., Ltd., China. $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, CH_3COOH and tetrabutyl titanate $[\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4]$, used for the preparation of photocatalysts, were obtained from Huadong Medicine Co., China. The other reagents used in this work, such as NaOH , ammonium acetate ($\text{CH}_3\text{COONH}_4$) and acetylacetone ($\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}_2\text{COCH}_3$) were purchased from Shanghai Jingchun Reagent Co., China. Deionized water (18 M Ω) was used for all solutions.

Preparation of catalysts: The Cu-TiO₂ catalysts were prepared as follows. A measured amount of $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was dissolved in 100 mL deionized water and the pH value of the aqueous solution was adjusted to 2.5 using CH_3COOH . Next, 21 mL of $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$ was added dropwise to the mixture with continuous stirring. After vigorous stirring for 3 h, the mixture was dried at 80 °C overnight in air. The resulting product was calcined in an oven (CWF1100, CARBOLITE, England). The temperature was raised at a rate of 5 °C/min from room temperature to 450 °C and held at this temperature for 2 h, followed by cooling naturally to room temperature. Various Ni-doped TiO₂ powders were prepared in a similar way.

Characterization of the catalysts: A structural analysis of the catalysts was carried out by XRD with a Thermo ARL SCINTAG X'TRA diffractometer at room temperature, using $\text{CuK}\alpha$ irradiation at 45 kV and 40 mA. The XPS analysis of the samples was performed on a RBD upgraded PHI-5000C ESCA system (Perkin-Elmer) with $\text{MgK}\alpha$ radiation (1253.6 eV) and all the binding energies were calibrated with reference to the C1s peak at 284.6 eV. The TEM micrographs were examined using a Tecnai G2 F30 S-Twin microscope operating at 300 kV and 0.2 nm point resolution. Specific surface areas (S_{BET}) of the samples were determined using the BET method with a Micromeritics ASAP 2010 analyser by measurement of the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm at 77 K. UV-visible absorption spectra of samples were determined on a Spectro UV-2550 instrument at room temperature with BaSO_4 as a reference.

Photocatalytic reactions: The photoreduction of CO₂ was carried out in a quartz reactor (diameter 4.5 cm, height 22 cm, total capacity 350 mL) containing 300 mL of 0.2 M NaOH and 0.3 g of the photocatalyst, surrounded by two 18 W low pressure mercury lamps (Beijing Electric Light Sources Research Institute, Beijing, China) as UV light source. These have an emission spectrum peaking at 254 nm. The suspension was irradiated whilst stirring and samples were withdrawn through a port at the top of the reactor. The temperature of the reaction system was maintained at 35 °C. The reason why NaOH aqueous solution was employed as the solvent is because NaOH not only acts as a strong hole-scavenger, reducing the recombination of hole-electron pairs, but also as a solvent, enhancing the solubility of CO₂ in the liquid phase²³.

Prior to the UV illumination, CO₂ was bubbled through the reactor at a constant rate for at least 0.5 h to eliminate air and saturate the solution. For each run, samples were collected from the gas and liquid phases at preset times. The liquid samples were centrifuged and passed through a 0.45 μm pore size membrane to remove any suspended solids.

Sample analysis: H₂ and CO in the gas phase were quantified using a gas chromatograph (GC 6890 N, Agilent Technologies, USA) equipped with TCD detector and an HP-

PLOT MOLESIEVE capillary column (30 m \times 320 μm \times 12 μm). CH₄ was analyzed using a gas chromatograph (GC-2014, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with a FID detector and RTX-1701 column (30 m \times 250 μm \times 25 μm).

Formaldehyde in aqueous solution was determined *via* the acetylacetone spectrophotometric method using a UV-visible spectrophotometer (T6, Beijing Puxi General Instrument Co., China). CH₃OH was detected using a gas chromatograph (GC 6890 N, Agilent, USA) equipped with a FID detector and an HP-INNOWAX capillary column (30 m \times 320 μm \times 25 μm)²⁴. Note that HCOOH cannot be detected using an ionic chromatograph (ICS2000, Dionex, USA) below a detection limit of 0.2 $\mu\text{mol/L}$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Catalyst characterization: Fig. 1 shows the XRD diffraction patterns of Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ catalysts with different metal contents (0.5-7.0 wt. %). All Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ samples exhibited clear well-crystallized anatase phases, with peaks at 2θ values 25.2°, 37.9°, 48.3°, 53.9°, 55.0°, 62.7°, 68.9°, 70.1° and 75.5°. These can be assigned to the (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220) and (215) crystal planes of anatase TiO₂.

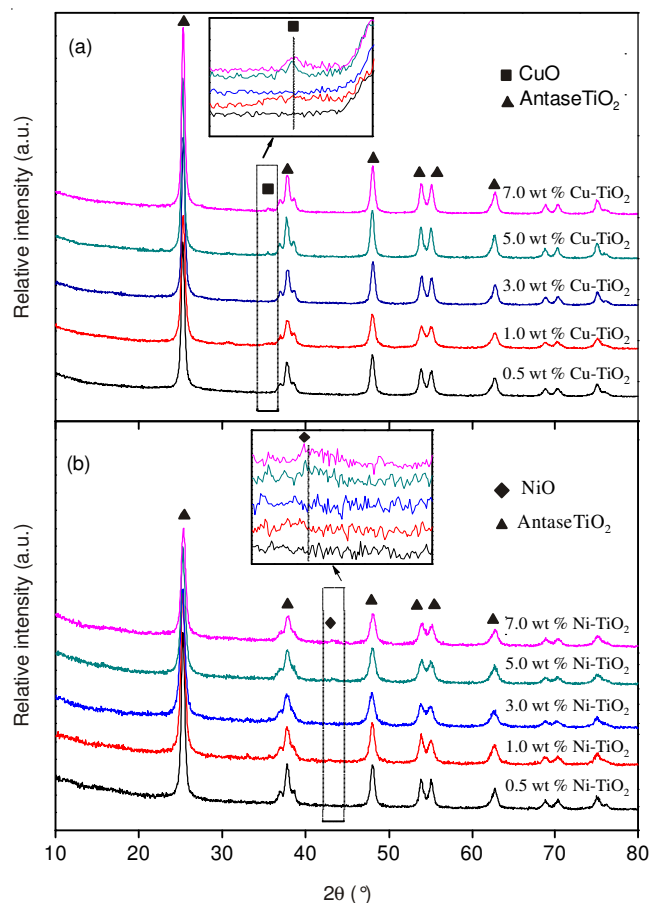


Fig. 1. XRD patterns for (a) Cu-TiO₂ and (b) Ni-TiO₂

The values of crystal size were estimated from the Debye-Scherrer equation, using the anatase (101) reflection. From the Table-1, it can be clearly seen that the grain size of TiO₂ first decreased and then increased with increasing Cu content. This may be because when the dopant amount was low, ionic

Cu might enter the TiO₂ matrix and replace Ti⁴⁺ lattice sites, enhancing the intergranular cohesion to induce lattice misfit, thus inhibiting direct contact between particles and hindering grain growth^{25,26}. However, when the doping content increased to such an extent that some of the Cu ions could not enter the TiO₂ lattice, a coalescence process might occur because sintering is favored by the presence of excessive Cu²⁷. Different from Cu-TiO₂, it clearly shows that the crystallite size of the Ni-TiO₂ decreased from 15.5 to 12.3 nm with increasing Ni doping in Table-1. This can be explained by that the existence of Ni²⁺ can inhibit the growth of crystalline size of TiO₂²⁸.

A weak peak at 35.6°, indexed to CuO, was also observed in the enlarged XRD patterns²⁹⁻³¹ and the relative intensity of this peak increased with increasing Cu doping [inset in

Fig. 1(a)]. In addition, a characteristic diffraction peak, corresponding to NiO, was also found at $2\theta = 43.3^\circ$. Its intensity also increased gradually in accord with the increase of the amount of Ni doping³². It is concluded that the photocatalysts contain Cu and Ni in the form of bivalent oxides rather than monovalent oxide or zerovalent metal.

The broad-scan XPS spectra of Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ powders, before and after irradiation, are shown in Fig. 2(a). Surface atoms O, Ti, Cu and Ni were observed, together with C atoms originating from the instrument background³³. From the high-resolution XPS spectra (Fig. 2(b)), the binding energy (BE) peak of O 1s was located at 529.8 eV and those of Ti 2p at binding energies 458.5 eV (2p_{3/2}) and 464.4 eV (2p_{1/2}) [Fig. 2(c)] are in good agreement with spectra showing the presence of typical Ti⁴⁺³⁴⁻³⁶.

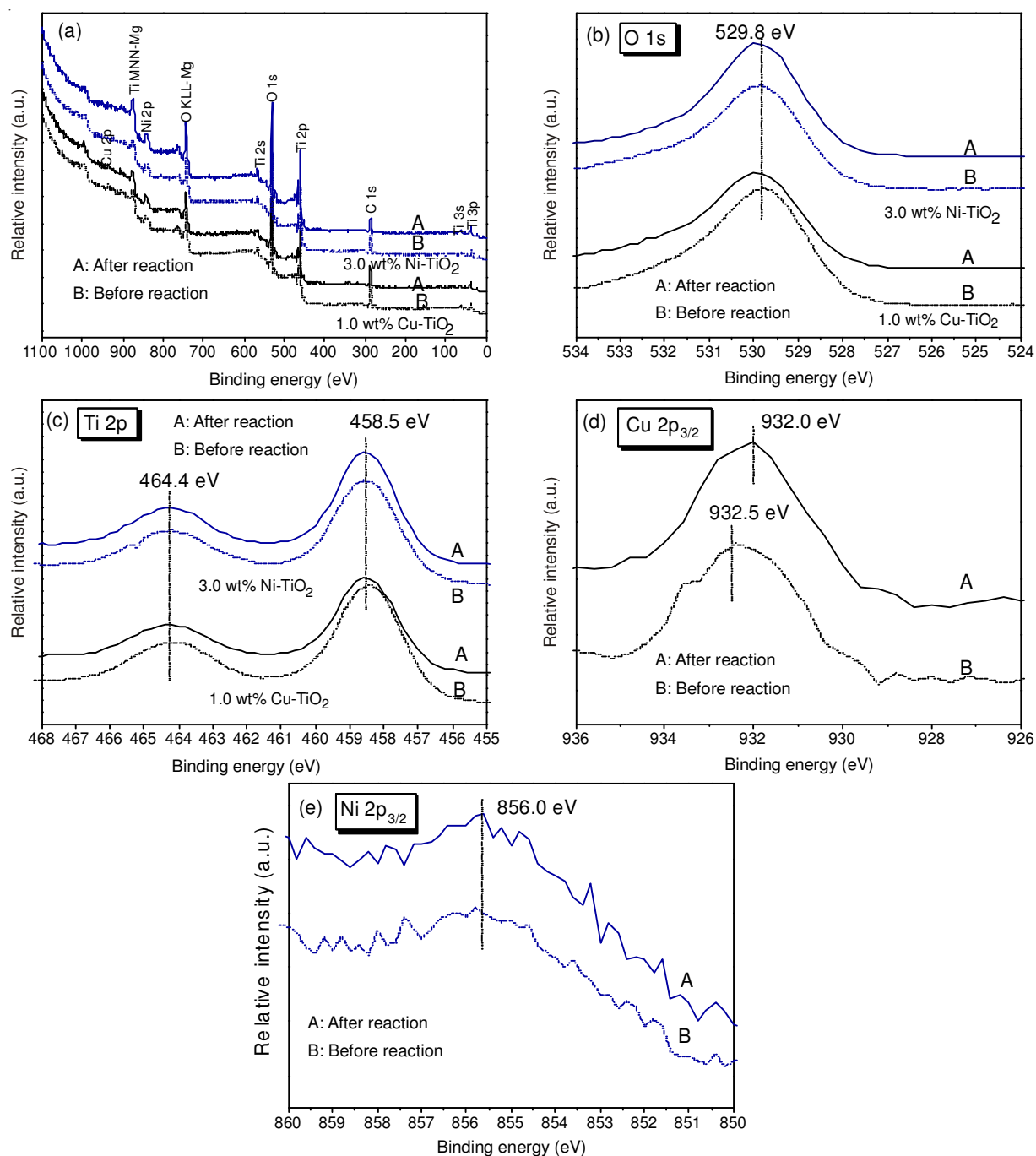


Fig. 2. XPS spectra of (a) 1.0 wt. % Cu-TiO₂ and 3.0 wt. % Ni-TiO₂, together with XPS spectra in the core levels of (b) O 1s, (c) Ti 2p, (d) Cu 2p_{3/2} and (e) Ni 2p_{3/2}

TABLE-1
PROPERTIES OF CATALYSTS

Catalyst	Crystalline phase	S_{BET} (m^2/g)	Particle size (nm)
TiO_2	Anatase	52.00	15.5
0.5 wt. % Cu- TiO_2	Anatase	38.53	15.5
1.0 wt. % Cu- TiO_2	Anatase	40.41	14.9
3.0 wt. % Cu- TiO_2	Anatase	37.88	15.5
5.0 wt. % Cu- TiO_2	Anatase	35.01	17.5
7.0 wt. % Cu- TiO_2	Anatase	29.32	17.5
0.5 wt. % Ni- TiO_2	Anatase	66.99	15.4
1.0 wt. % Ni- TiO_2	Anatase	69.74	13.4
3.0 wt. % Ni- TiO_2	Anatase	72.53	13.4
5.0 wt. % Ni- TiO_2	Anatase	65.98	12.9
7.0 wt. % Ni- TiO_2	Anatase	58.67	12.3

In addition, Fig. 2(d) shows that the Cu $2p_{3/2}$ peak at 932.5 eV has a FWHM of 3.7 eV. The measured BE is higher than reference data for Cu_2O (932.1 eV) but smaller than the value for CuO (933.4 eV) reported by Wagner *et al.*^{33,37}. This shift might be attributed to the fact that the surface characteristics of nanoparticles are different from those of the bulk oxides, resulting in the changed oxidation state³⁰. Furthermore, some electrons might migrate from TiO_2 to Cu^{2+} due to the interaction between them, causing the negative shift of Cu $2p_{3/2}$ ³⁸. The peak FWHM of 3.7 eV is close to the reported value of 3.4 eV for bulk CuO, suggesting that the copper species is present as Cu^{2+} ^{39,40}.

We could also deduce the oxidation state of Cu from the synthetic method used since no reducing agent was added during the hydrolysis of $\text{Ti}(\text{OBU})_4$. Therefore, it is expected that Cu in the precursors will be in the form of $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ before thermal treatment since the thermal decomposition of $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ at atmospheric pressure in the range 182-312 °C generates CuO, but the formation of Cu_2O requires an increase of temperature to 900 °C⁴¹. Thus, along with the XRD measurements, it is concluded that the Cu^{2+} species is the dominant chemical state of Cu present in the photocatalysts. Our results are consistent with previous observations, where CuO is formed when using $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ as the precursor for the preparation of Cu- TiO_2 ⁴²⁻⁴⁴.

The binding energy value of Ni $2p_{3/2}$ for the nickel oxide species is located at 856.0 eV, as shown in Fig. 2(e). This corresponds closely to the binding energy of NiO (856.0 eV) reported in a previous study⁴⁵. We conclude that the valence state of Ni is +2, which matches the XRD determination very well.

It is suggested that the tiny deviation of the Cu $2p_{3/2}$ peak before and after reaction is the result of reduction of CuO to other species during the photoreduction^{29,46}. In contrast, the valence state of Ni remained almost unchanged, since no obvious shift of the peak of Ni $2p_{3/2}$ was observed after 24 h UV illumination.

TEM images of the samples are shown in Fig. 3. It is clear from the mass contrast that the dense particles consist of well dispersed TiO_2 . These have irregular shapes, with an average diameter of 10-20 nm. High-resolution TEM (HRTEM) of 1.0 wt. % Cu- TiO_2 and 3.0 wt. % Ni- TiO_2 are shown in the inset of Figs. 3(a) and 3(b), respectively. The obvious lattice fringes with spacings of 0.17 nm and 0.21 nm

match well those for the CuO (020) and NiO (002) planes^{47,48}. The heterostructural boundary of the catalysts can be clearly seen in the HRTEM image, indicating that the p-type nanoparticles of CuO or NiO are compact and well attached to the n-type TiO_2 surface. In other words, a promising p-n heterojunction photocatalyst, with well designed architecture, has been constructed.

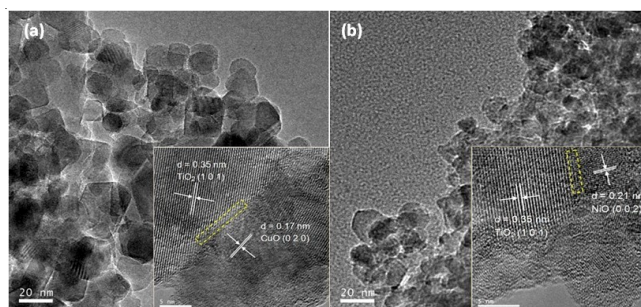


Fig. 3. TEM and HRTEM (inset) images of (a) 1.0 wt. % Cu- TiO_2 and (b) 3.0 wt. % Ni- TiO_2

It is necessary to study the effect of Cu or Ni doping on the surface properties of catalysts. The S_{BET} of the various Cu- TiO_2 and Ni- TiO_2 composite particles are listed in Table-1. It can be seen that the specific surface area of TiO_2 is 52.0 m^2/g , while those of Cu- TiO_2 are smaller ranging from 29.32 to 40.41 m^2/g with a range of Cu content from 0.5 to 7.0 wt. %. This is likely to be because some titania micropores could be blocked by copper doping^{49,50}. In contrast, the S_{BET} of Ni- TiO_2 increased with the increase in the amount of doped Ni and then dropped, with a maximum value of 72.53 m^2/g at 3.0 wt. % Ni doping. This is reasonable because Ni doping not only can inhibit the growth of grain and suppress the aggregation of the particles but can also occupy the pores of catalyst particles, like Cu.

The UV-visible absorption spectra of the Cu- TiO_2 and Ni- TiO_2 photocatalysts are depicted in Fig. 4. Strong absorption at 200-305 nm is observed for all the samples. The obvious long-tail absorption in the visible region may be due to extra tail states in the bandgap caused by Cu or Ni doping and the elevation of the baseline is believed to be due to the presence of additional clusters of CuO or NiO⁵¹⁻⁵⁴.

Photocatalytic activity of catalysts: The whole photo-reduction process of CO_2 in solution can be separated into several stages from a kinetic point of view^{31, 55}. First, CO_2 molecules continuously transfer from the gas phase to the liquid phase. Next, the CO_2 molecules dissolved in solution pass through the phase interfacial transition layer between solution and catalyst and then reach the active site of the photocatalyst. Subsequently, the CO_2 molecules at the active site capture the photogenerated electrons to form CO_2^- anion radicals and then interact with the protons in water to form intermediates or final photoproducts⁵⁶. Finally, the products desorb from the photocatalyst surface to vacate active sites so that the photoreduction of CO_2 can proceed again. Clearly, the CO_2 photoreduction process involves mass transfer, photoelectron generation and transfer and chemical reactions, as well as other surface reactions, such as adsorption and desorption⁵⁷.

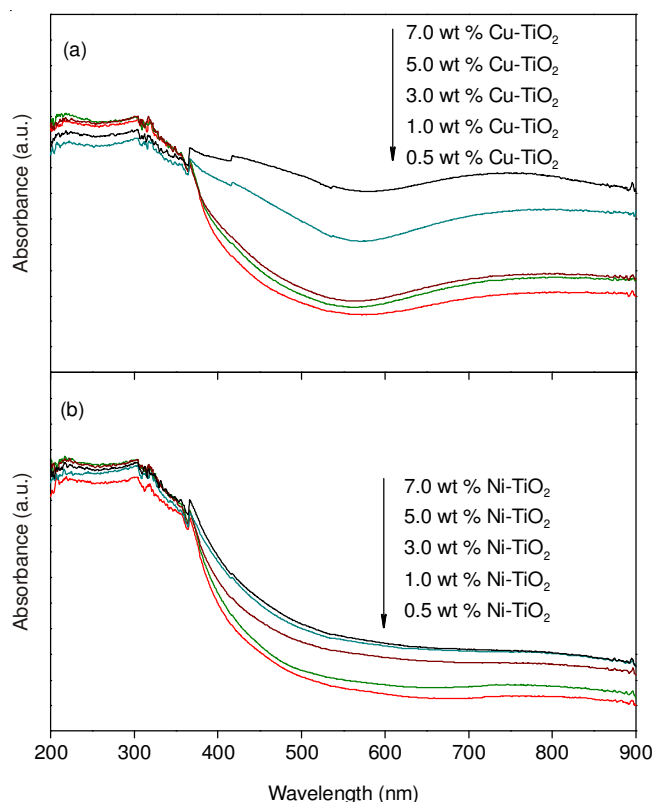


Fig. 4. UV-visible absorption spectra of (a) Cu-TiO₂ and (b) Ni-TiO₂

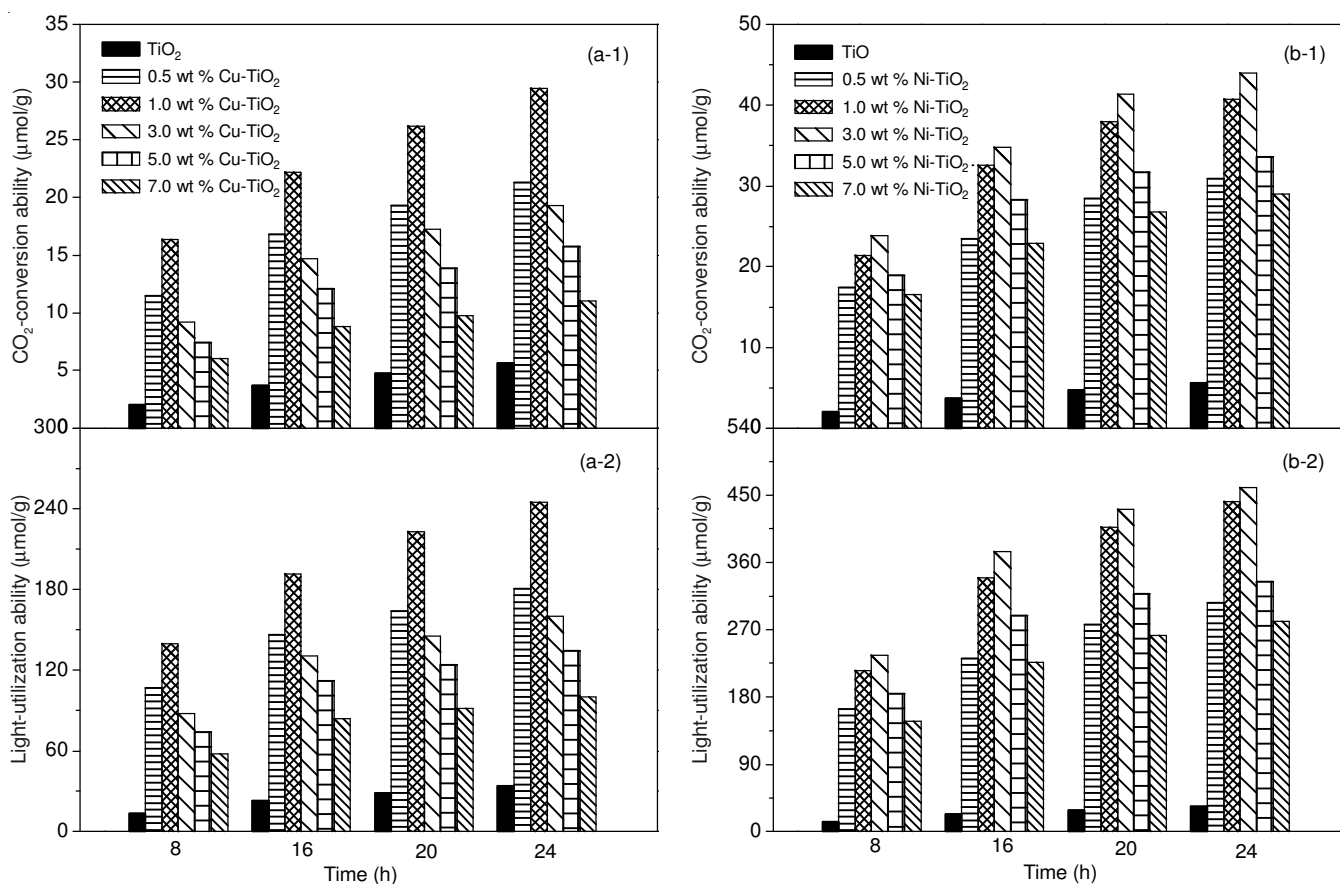


Fig. 5. CO₂-conversion ability and light-utilization ability over the catalysts. (a-1) CCA over Cu-TiO₂, (a-2) LUA over Cu-TiO₂, (b-1) CCA over Ni-TiO₂ and (b-2) LUA over Ni-TiO₂

Control tests consisting of a reaction in the dark with the catalysts and a reaction under UV-light irradiation without catalysts were also carried out in our experiments. No carbon-containing products and H₂ were detectable, suggesting that both the direct photolysis of CO₂ and its adsorption in the dark can be neglected.

The photocatalytic activity of nanostructured Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ composite catalysts for the reduction of CO₂ under UV light irradiation are shown in Fig. 5. In this work, the photocatalytic activity is quantified in terms of the CO₂⁻ conversion ability (CCA) and light-utilization ability (LUA). The CCA can be indirectly defined as the sum of the number of moles of all independent carbon products produced, including CH₃OH, CO, HCHO and CH₄. In contrast, the LUA evaluates the transformation of the photon and is determined not only by the total quantity of carbon products produced but also by the H₂ yield. Accordingly, the LUA is the sum of the CCA and the H₂ yield. It is clear that either Cu-TiO₂ or Ni-TiO₂ has higher LUA and CCA compared with pure TiO₂ using the same reaction conditions and Ni-TiO₂ exhibits even higher CO₂ conversion than Cu-TiO₂.

The improvement of the LUA over Cu-TiO₂ can be explained by the p-n junction principle⁵⁸. CuO is a p-type semiconductor and TiO₂ belongs to n-type semiconductor. In this investigation, CuO and TiO₂ contact well with each other and form the p-n junction. This gives rise to a space charge region at equilibrium, creating an internal electric field. The internal electric field drives diffusion of the negative charge into the CuO region and the positive charge into the TiO₂

region. Therefore, once Cu-TiO₂ catalyst is excited by the UV light, the photogenerated electrons will shift naturally into the negative field and holes will move into the positive field, that results in an improved electron and hole separation. In addition, as was just mentioned, due to the role of Cu preferentially coordinating with the π orbital of CO₂, Cu on TiO₂ can effectively accelerate CO₂ activation and reduction *via* the dissociation of the adsorbed CO₂²⁰. Therefore, Cu doped on TiO₂ can simultaneously increase the adsorption capacity of CO₂ and enhance its subsequent dissociation, finally leading to the substantial improvement of the CO₂ conversion ability.

As with Cu-TiO₂, Choe *et al.*²¹ have reported that Ni on TiO₂ coordinates strongly with the $2\pi_u \rightarrow 6a_1$ orbital of CO₂. This benefits the dissociation of adsorbed CO₂ into atomic oxygen and a π -bonded CO fragment, facilitating CO₂ activation and reduction. Additionally, similar to that of Cu-TiO₂ sample, Ni can improve the activity of TiO₂ for CO₂ photoreduction by effectively separating the electrons and holes. This can be understood since NiO and TiO₂ correspond to a p-type and n-type semiconductor, respectively, so they can form a p-n junction and enhance the photocatalytic activity of the Ni-TiO₂⁵⁹⁻⁶¹.

Furthermore, it can be seen from Fig. 5 that the CCA and LUA of Cu-TiO₂ catalyst are always smaller than that of the Ni-TiO₂. Apart from the p-n junction behavior, the energy band matching provides additional evidence for the role of the NiO on TiO₂⁶². It is known that the energy of the conduction band (CB) of NiO is -3.06 V (*vs* NHE) higher than TiO₂ and the valence band (VB) of NiO is 0.54 V (*vs* NHE) and is located between E_{CB} (TiO₂) and E_{VB} (TiO₂)⁶³. Consequently, after joining NiO and TiO₂ together, the 254 nm UV irradiation causes the photo-excited electrons to flow naturally from the CB of NiO to that of TiO₂, whereas the holes excited in the VB in TiO₂ prefer to flow in the opposite sense to that in NiO. The NiO species acts as an effective hole trap and collector in the reaction system, further suppressing the recombination of excited electron-hole pairs. In this case, electrons, the dominant reducing species remaining in the photocatalysis, react with CO₂ adsorbed on the photocatalyst surface. However, the valence band (VB) and the CB of CuO are at 2.16 V (*vs* NHE) and 0.46 V (*vs* NHE)⁶⁴, while those of TiO₂ are at 2.91 V (*vs* NHE) and -0.29 V (*vs* NHE), respectively. Under UV irradiation, the photogenerated e⁻ and h⁺ shift significantly from the CB and VB of TiO₂ to those of the CuO particles and then accumulate in large numbers on the CuO particles, leading to a recombination of the photo-generated electrons and holes.

To evaluate the effects of metal oxide concentration on photocatalytic activity, we carried out a set of tests to photocatalytically reduce CO₂ in water with different weight ratios of Cu/Ti and Ni/Ti. The result of varying the Cu loading from 0.5 to 7.0 wt. % is shown in Fig. 5(a-1) and 5(a-2). The CCA and LUA increased with increasing Cu content up to 1.0 wt. % and then decreased. At the optimum value of 1 %, the CCA and LUA reach the maximum value of 29.43 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ and 244.72 $\mu\text{mol/g}$, respectively, which is almost seven times that of pure TiO₂ after 24 h UV illumination. Similarly, Figs. 5(b-1) and 5(b-2) show that for the Ni-TiO₂ catalysts, both CCA and LUA for the photocatalytic reaction increase significantly with increasing Ni concentration, up to 3 wt. % and then gradually decrease. In this case, the maximum value of the CCA and

LUA, amounting to 43.97 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ and 460.30 $\mu\text{mol/g}$, respectively, was observed after 24 h UV irradiation, as shown in Figs. 5(b-1) and 5(b-2).

However, the CCA and LUA of the photocatalyst declines with further increase of Cu or Ni content, as shown in Fig. 5. This result can be explained by the fact that photocatalytic reactions occur on the illuminated surface of catalyst. In this study, the BET surface area of Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ dropped as the Cu and Ni doping was further increased. The low surface area is responsible for the low photocatalytic activity due to the creation of less reactive sites on the surface of the photocatalyst. Furthermore, excess CuO and NiO tend to cover the UV-illuminated TiO₂, the absorption of light and generation of electrons/holes is reduced, adversely affecting the generation of active electrons for CO₂ photoreduction⁶⁵.

Selectivity of photoproducts: A range of catalysts show activities for selective reduction of CO₂ to different photoproducts in aqueous solutions. The major reaction of CO₂ photoreduction can be described by the following equations.

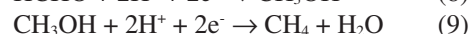
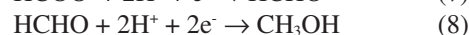
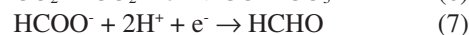
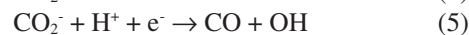
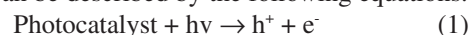


Fig. 6 shows the evolution of the photoreduction products of CO₂ in water with Cu-TiO₂ and Ni-TiO₂ as the photocatalyst, respectively. Initially, the amount of products increased rapidly but then slowed with additional photoreduction time. This is the result of adsorption of the intermediate products on the surface of the catalysts, which causes a partial deterioration of the activities of photocatalysts during the photoreduction experiments⁶⁶.

Evidently, CO₂ could be selectively photoreduced to CH₄ on Cu-TiO₂ or Ni-TiO₂ photocatalysts. The yields of the products using Cu-TiO₂ followed the order H₂ > CH₄ > CH₃OH > CO > HCHO. By comparison, the yields for Ni-TiO₂ followed the order H₂ > CH₄ > CH₃OH > HCHO > CO. The standard reduction potential of CO₂/CO, CO₂/HCHO, CO₂/CH₃OH and CO₂/CH₄ is -0.53 V, -0.48 V, -0.38 V and -0.24 V, respectively^{67,68}. Theoretically, the yield order of CO₂ reduction should be CH₄ > CH₃OH > H₂ > HCHO > CO under stable state. In our experiments, the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ over Cu-TiO₂ is inconsistent with the order. This is most probably because the photocatalytic system is not under thermodynamic equilibrium within the reaction time.

Conclusion

TiO₂ nanoparticles with a range of Cu or Ni loading were prepared by means of a hydrolysis method and the yields of several kinds of photoproducts in the reduction of CO₂ were investigated in NaOH solution under UV illumination. The metals Cu and Ni are present as CuO and NiO on the surface of TiO₂ and significantly enhanced the photocatalytic activity due to the synergistic combination of dissociation of CO₂ and retarding of the recombination of electron-hole pairs. CO₂ was

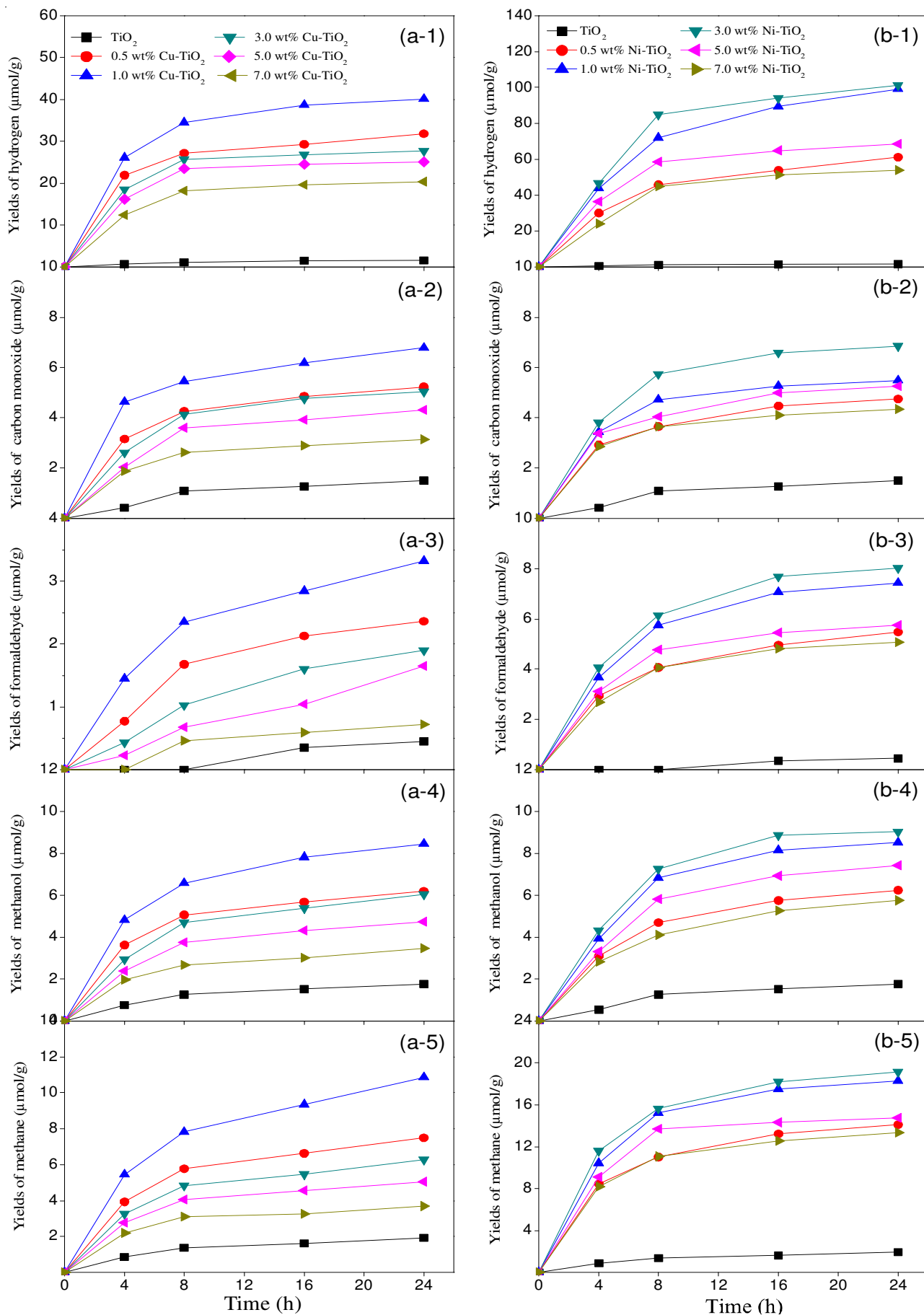


Fig. 6. Time dependence of the yields of products over (a) Cu-TiO₂ and (b) Ni-TiO₂ catalysts

selectively transformed to a number of compounds such as CO, HCHO and CH₄. Ni-TiO₂ has superior photocatalytic activity compared with Cu-TiO₂ due to the presence of a p-n junction and matching band potentials. CH₄ was identified as the major product using Cu-TiO₂ or Ni-TiO₂ as the photocatalyst. An in-depth study of the activity and selectivity of other photocatalysts is still required.

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