

Change of band-gap position of MTiO₂ particle doped with 3d-transition metal and control of product selectivity on carbon dioxide photoreduction

Jeong Yeon Do*, Junyeong Kim*, Yeju Jang*, Youn-Kyoung Baek**, and Misook Kang*,†

*Department of Chemistry, College of Natural Sciences, Yeungnam University, Gyeongsan, Gyeongbuk 38541, Korea

**Powder & Ceramics Division, Korea Institute of Materials Science, Changwon 51508, Korea

(Received 3 July 2017 • accepted 11 October 2017)

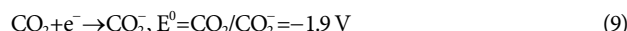
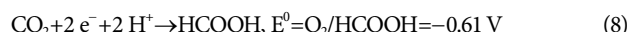
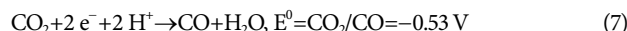
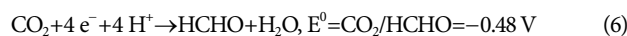
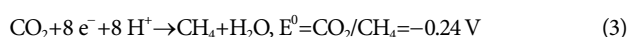
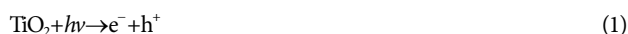
Abstract—This study attempted to obtain various products from carbon dioxide photoreduction using TiO₂ catalysts doped with different transition metals of Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn (MTiO₂). The band-gaps of MTiO₂ catalysts decreased compared to pure TiO₂, except for ZnTiO₂. The intensities in photoluminescence curves, which can predict the recombination of excited electrons and holes, were weaker in MTiO₂ catalysts than that of pure TiO₂. The products obtained from carbon dioxide photoreduction were strongly related to the redox potential of carbon dioxide and the locations of band-gaps of MTiO₂ catalysts. Methane was predominantly obtained in pure TiO₂, FeTiO₂, and NiTiO₂ catalysts, and methanol and carbon monoxide were selectively produced in the CuTiO₂ and ZnTiO₂ catalysts, respectively. This result suggests that the desired product from carbon dioxide photoreduction can be selectively synthesized by doping certain metals.

Keywords: MTiO₂, 3d-Transition Metal, Carbon Dioxide Photoreduction, Methane, Carbon Monoxide, Methanol

INTRODUCTION

National efforts to reduce carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions, which are recognized as the main cause of global warming, have been made by the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) in 1992 and have been formulated through the implementation of the Kyoto Protocol. Carbon capture and storage (CCS) [1], which captures and stores CO₂, and carbon capture and utilization (CCU) [2], which converts CO₂ into high value-added materials, are among the technologies being studied worldwide for reducing CO₂. The Global Agenda Councils (GAC) at the 2013 World Economic Forum in Davos, Switzerland, selected one of the ten technologies that will convert CO₂ into fuels that will have an important impact on human beings. In particular, the photochemical reduction of CO₂ in CCU technology is the most ideal and environmentally friendly technology, and has attracted many researchers in recent years.

For the photochemical reduction of CO₂, many scientists have been using semiconductor materials such as titanium dioxide (TiO₂), which have a good redox potential between CO₂ and the reduced product [3,4]. Possible reactions involved in the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ with water (H₂O) on TiO₂ and thermodynamic redox potentials of various compounds are listed as follows [5,6].



CO₂ photoreduction with H₂O can be separated to two reactions, CO₂ reduction and H₂O oxidation. The mechanism can be simply described in the following sub-steps: (Eq. (1)) photo-illumination on the surface of photocatalyst induces the generation of charge carriers, i.e., electron-hole (e⁻/h⁺) pairs, (Eqs. (3), (4), (6), (7), (8), and (9)) the excited electrons in the conduction band (CB) of photocatalyst migrate to the surface and reduce CO₂ into fuels [e.g., carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH₄), methanol (CH₃OH), formaldehyde (HCHO), and formic acid (HCOOH)], and (Eq. (5)) the holes left in the valence band (VB) of the photocatalyst oxidize H₂O into oxygen.

However, pure TiO₂ has a serious limitation for CO₂ photoreduction: the fast charge recombination rate in TiO₂ causes poor photocatalytic performance [7,8]. To solve the problem, various attempts in synthesis and surface modifications of TiO₂ catalysts have been considered as follows. First, the surface defects of TiO₂ can change its surface properties, resulting in different adsorption and desorption capabilities of reactants, intermediates, and products [9,10]. Second, light adsorption ability of TiO₂ is closely related to the band gap structure: with a reduced band gap or addition of sub-bands, TiO₂ can respond to visible light, increasing light adsorption efficiency [11,12]. Third, disorders at the surface or subsurface of TiO₂ could become traps for electrons or holes, suppressing the recom-

†To whom correspondence should be addressed.

E-mail: mskang@ynu.ac.kr

Copyright by The Korean Institute of Chemical Engineers.

bination of electrons and holes and thus facilitating their separation [13,14]. For these attempts, in particular, doping is one of the frequently used methods to narrow down or introducing impurity levels inside the band gap of TiO_2 , and possibly to improve the separation of charge carriers. Various metal [15-17] or nonmetal [18-20] elements are used as dopants. As for TiO_2 , dopants could substitute the original Ti or O atom, or be placed at the interstitial position depending on the valence, radius, and electronic properties of the dopants.

So far, many studies have been carried out to increase the activity of catalysts by using dopants. However, there have been few studies to control the products produced during photoreaction using dopants. We investigated the product distributions in the CO_2 photoreduction reaction and the selectivity of the products according to the dopant species. Many papers have attempted to find a dopant with excellent photoactivity by limiting the reduction target to CH_4 [21,22]. However, we tried to determine which of the various reduction products are advantageously produced by using a metal as a dopant. For this purpose, we used 3d-transition metals (Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn) with five or more electrons as dopants, and the amount of 5.0 mol-% was inserted into the TiO_2 framework to control the band-gap of TiO_2 to improve the photoactivity by lowering the recombination rate between electrons and holes. The synthesized 5.0 mol-% 3d-Metal- TiO_2 catalysts were identified by X-ray diffraction, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, and transmission electron microscopy and their optical properties were characterized by UV-visible absorbance and photoluminescence measurements.

EXPERIMENTAL

1. Preparation and Characterization of 5.0 mol-% 3d-Metal- TiO_2 Particles

The pure TiO_2 and MTiO_2 particles (5.0 mol-% 3d-Metal- TiO_2) which inserted by 3d-transition metals of 5.0 mol-% (3d-transition metals=Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn) were prepared by a conventional sol-gel treatment as follows [23]. The amount of doped metal was limited to 5.0 mol-%, which is the optimal condition for the best catalytic performance in the previously published paper. [14]. Each metal (II) chloride ($\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{FeCl}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{CoCl}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{NiCl}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and $\text{ZnCl}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$; 99.99%, Junsei Chem. Co., Japan) having oxidation state divalent and titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP, 99.95%, Junsei Chem. Co., Japan) were added into the absolute ethanol solvent of 1.0 L as the metal and Ti precursors, respectively. Here, the number of moles of inserting metals corresponds to 0.05 M against to TTIP of 1.0 M. Distilled water of 6.0 M was slowly dropped into the solution so that it was six-times the number of 1.0 M of TTIP to induce $\text{Ti}(\text{OH})_6$ in the hydrolysis stage. Acetic acid, as a homogeneous acidic catalyst to promote the condensation reaction between intermolecular $\text{Ti}(\text{OH})_6$, was added to adjust pH=3, and the solutions were then homogeneously stirred for 2 h at room temperature. The powders of amorphous TiO_2 or MTiO_2 were obtained after passing through the $(-\text{Ti}-\text{O}-\text{Ti}-)_n$ or $(-\text{Ti}-\text{O}-\text{M}-)_n$ oligomers by a step-wise reaction following by evaporation at 70°C over 4 h, and then the resulting powders were thermally treated at 500°C for 5 h in an electric furnace

under the air condition for crystal formation, and finally afforded to crystalline TiO_2 or MTiO_2 . Eventually, seven catalysts--5.0 mol-% MnTiO_2 , 5.0 mol-% FeTiO_2 , 5.0 mol-% CoTiO_2 , 5.0 mol-% NiTiO_2 , 5.0 mol-% CuTiO_2 , and 5.0 mol-% ZnTiO_2 --were synthesized in this study. These are simplified and named as TiO_2 , MnTiO_2 , FeTiO_2 , CoTiO_2 , NiTiO_2 , CuTiO_2 , and ZnTiO_2 .

The structures and morphologies synthesized TiO_2 and MTiO_2 particles were identified by X-ray diffraction (XRD, MPD, PANalytical) with nickel-filtered $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$ radiation (30 kV, 30 mA) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, H-7600, Hitachi), and the amount of atoms present on the particle surface and the oxidation states of the inserted metals were characterized by energy-dispersive spectrometry with element mapping (EDS/mapping, EX-250, Horiba) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, AXIS Nova, Kratos Inc.). Optical properties of the synthesized particles were confirmed by diffuse-reflectance ultraviolet-visible spectra (UV-vis, Cary 500 spectrometer, range of 200-800 nm) and photoluminescence spectroscopy (PL, Perkin Elmer, He-Cd laser source, wavelength of 300 nm).

2. Evaluation of Catalytic Performance for Carbon Dioxide Photoreduction over 5.0 mol-% 3d-Metal- TiO_2 Particles

The CO_2 photoreduction activities on the synthesized TiO_2 and MTiO_2 particles with H_2O were carried out in a closed quartz vessel (length of 7.50 cm, width of 1.04 cm, and total volume of 7.00 cm^3). A schematic diagram of the photoreactor was already well documented in the previous paper [24]. 0.2 g of catalyst and 11.30 mg of distilled water were taken in the photoreactor. Supercritical fluid-grade CO_2 gas was used as reactant, and the CO_2 gas flowed into the chamber for a while to pull air out before irradiation. Then, the reactor chamber was closed and the lamp was switched on. A UV-lamp (6 Wcm^{-2} , 20 cm length \times 2.0 diameter, Shinan, Korea) with a 365 nm emitting light was used as the irradiation source. The photoreduction temperature and pressure were maintained at 303 K and 1.0 atm, respectively. The emitted gas products were analyzed by gas chromatography (iGC7200, DS Science, Korea) equipped with thermal conductivity (TCD) and flame ionized detectors (FID) to separate the C_1 - C_3 light hydrocarbons and oxygenated compounds, such as CH_4 , CH_3OH , HCOOH , and CO. The selectivity of the product was calculated using the following equation: $\text{C}_i (\%) = \text{C}_i \text{ moles in product} / \text{total moles of C produced} \times 100\%$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Physicochemical Properties of the Synthesized 5.0 mol-% 3d-Metal- TiO_2 Particles

Fig. 1 shows the XRD patterns of the TiO_2 and MTiO_2 particles. The XRD spectrum of pure TiO_2 and MTiO_2 showed peaks at 2θ values= $25.3^\circ(101)$, $38.0^\circ(004)$, $48.2^\circ(200)$, $54.0^\circ(105)$, $63^\circ(211)$, and $68.0^\circ(204)$, assigned to the tetragonal-phase anatase structure [25]. The broad peaks indicate that the crystallite size is small. As compared with the peak of pure TiO_2 , the peak width of the MTiO_2 was widened by the metal insertion, with reference to the main peak 101 plane. This result implies that the size of the MTiO_2 particles inserted with 3d-metal is smaller: The sizes of the crystallites calculated by the Scherrer equation [26] were 24.28, 21.27, 14.92, 19.34, 13.95, 18.09 and 16.68 nm in the TiO_2 , MnTiO_2 , FeTiO_2 ,

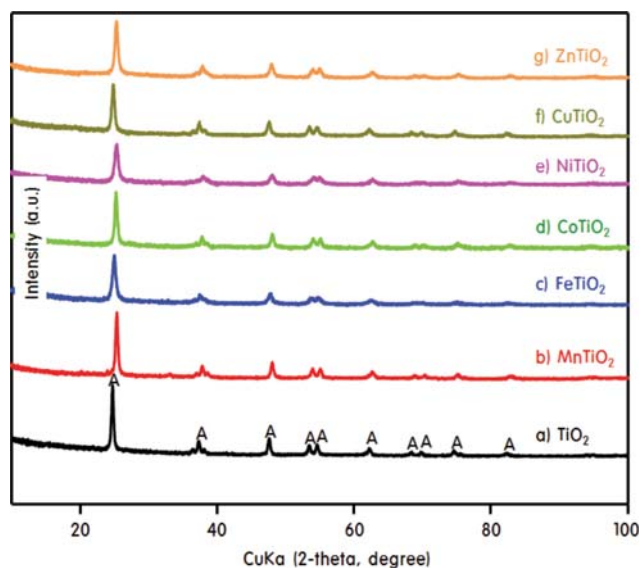


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of TiO_2 and 5.0 mol-% 3d- MTiO_2 particles.

CoTiO_2 , NiTiO_2 , CuTiO_2 , and ZnTiO_2 samples, respectively. Also, the positions of the peaks were slightly shifted to higher angles. This result is probably due to the fact that the lattice distance is somewhat distorted by metal insertion. However, no metal oxide peak for the inserted 3d-metal was observed in any sample, suggesting that 5.0 mol-% of the metals were stably inserted into the TiO_2 framework.

The TEM images of for the TiO_2 and MTiO_2 samples, in Fig. 2, show spherical and angled typed-nanoparticles with a size of less than 30 nm except for pure TiO_2 . The particle sizes of the pure TiO_2 samples were 44.9 nm, and followed by CuTiO_2 (27.5 nm), CoTiO_2 (27.4 nm) and MnTiO_2 (24.0 nm), respectively. In NiTiO_2 and FeTiO_2 samples, the smallest particles of sizes of 17.2 and 9.13 nm were identified, respectively. These observations are in good agreement with the XRD data.

The oxidation states of the doped metal components, Mn2p, Fe2p, Co2p, Ni2p, Cu2p, and Zn2p, into TiO_2 and MTiO_2 particles were quantitatively analyzed by XPS, as shown in the typical survey and high-resolution spectra in Fig. 3. First, the $2p_{1/2}$ (low-

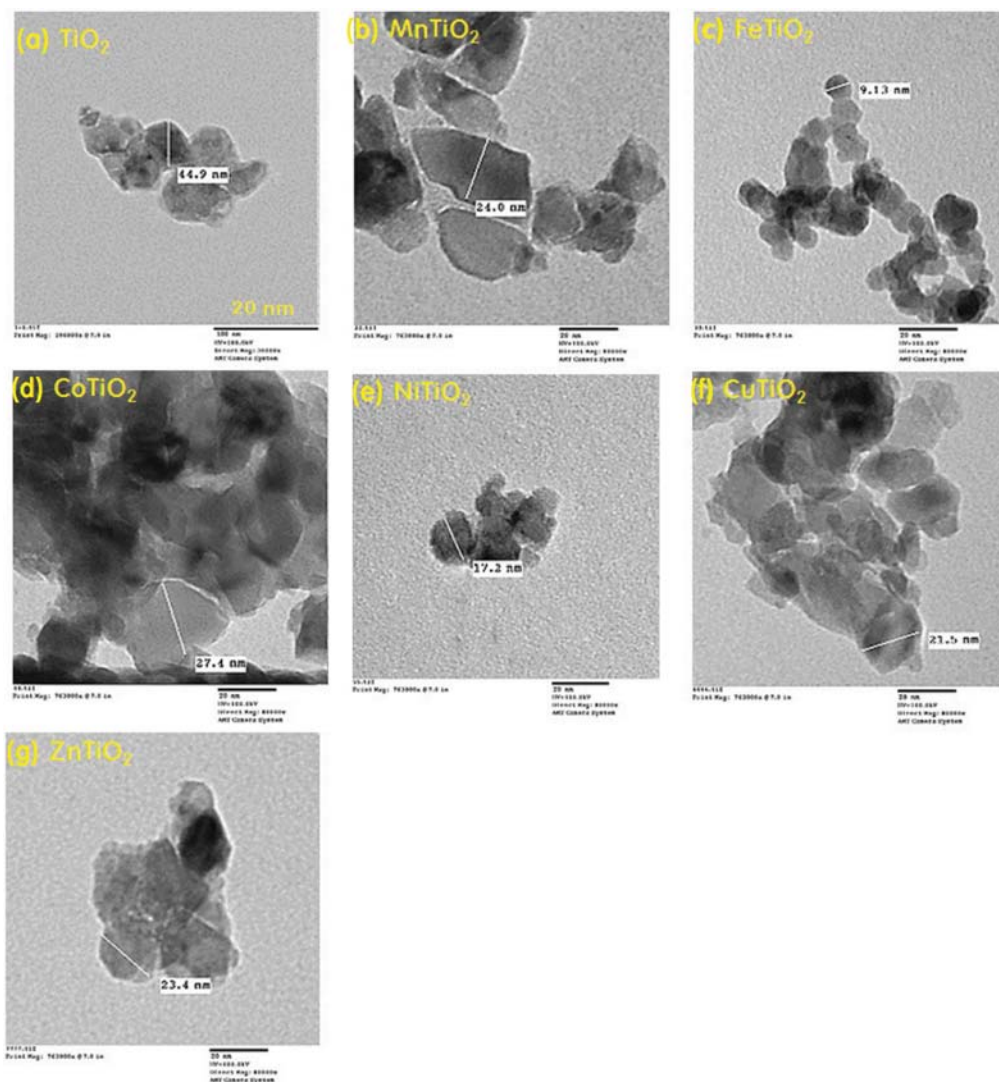


Fig. 2. TEM images of TiO_2 and 5.0 mol-% 3d- MTiO_2 particles.

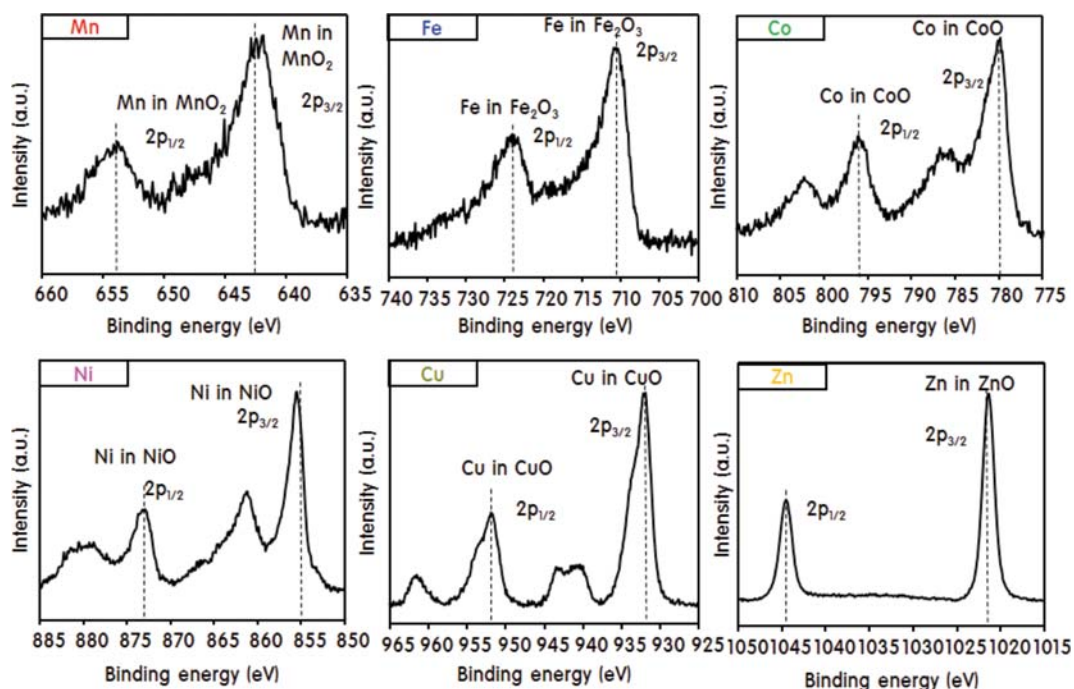


Fig. 3. High-resolution XPS spectra for Mn2p, Fe2p, Co2p, Ni2p, Cu2p, and Zn2p in 5.0 mol-% 3d-MTiO₂ particles.

est occupied molecular orbital) and 2p_{3/2} (highest occupied molecular orbital) binding energies of the Mn element in MnTiO₂ were clearly separated at 654.1 and 642.5 eV, assigned to MnO₂ rather than MnO [27]. The Fe2p_{3/2} and Co2p_{3/2} peaks in FeTiO₂ and

CoTiO₂ samples were located at 710.9 and 780.0 eV, corresponding to Fe₂O₃ and CoO [28,29]. In the case of NiTiO₂ and CoTiO₂ samples, the Ni2p_{3/2} and Cu2p_{3/2} peaks were exhibited at 854.9 and 932.5 eV binding energies, predicted as NiO and CuO [30,31].

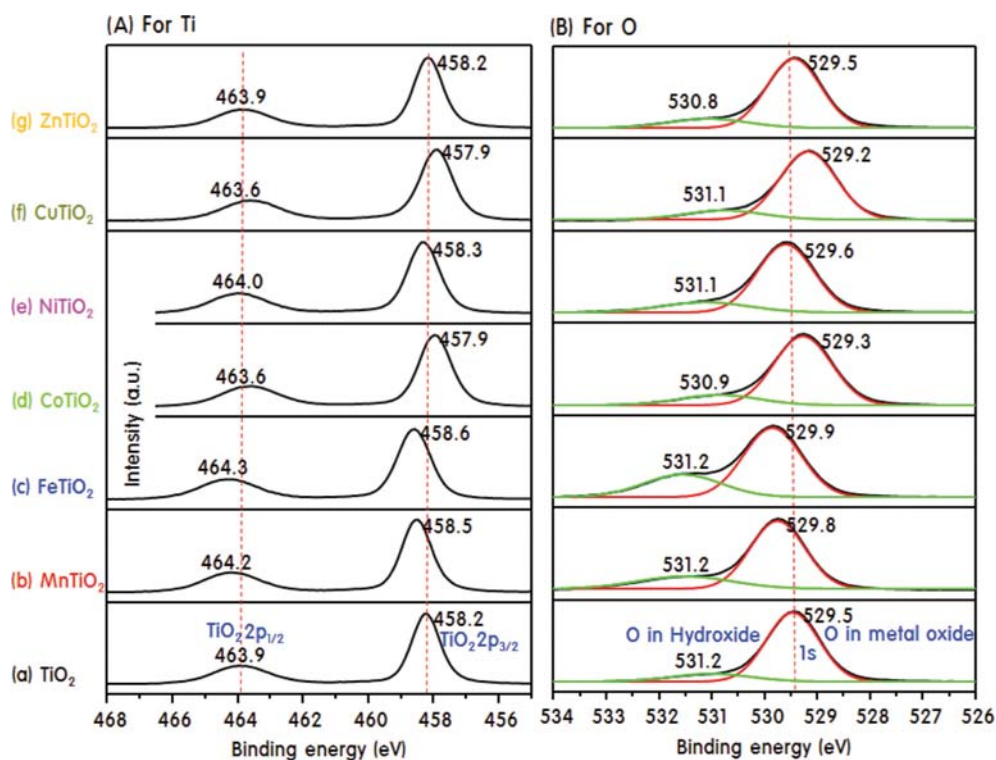
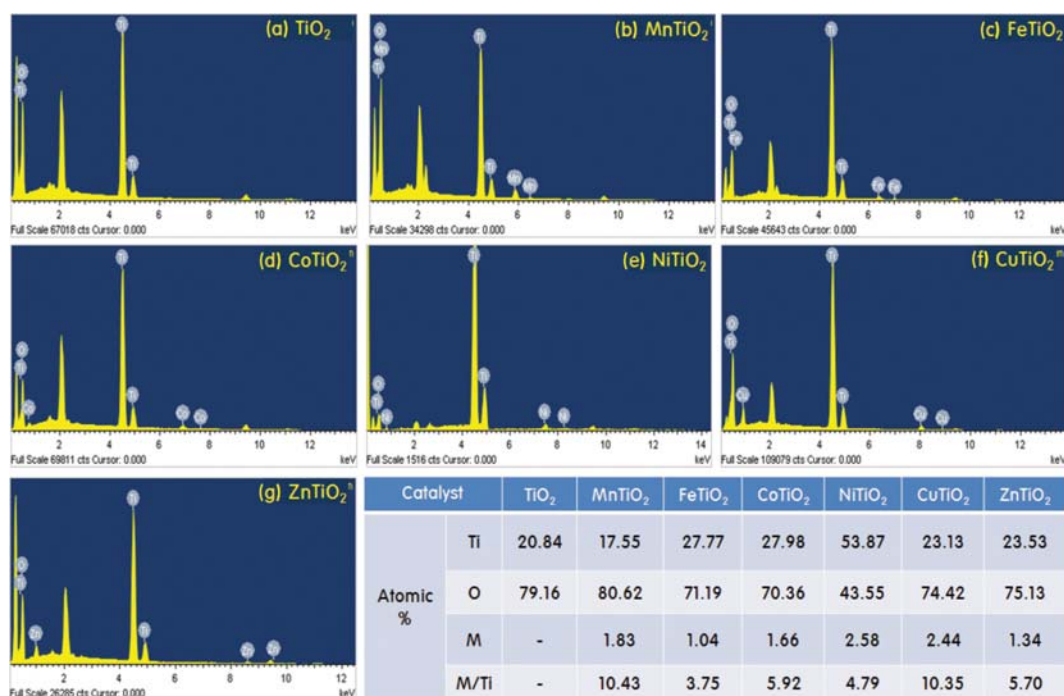


Fig. 4. XPS curves of Ti2p and O1s in TiO₂ and 5.0 mol-% 3d-MTiO₂ particles.

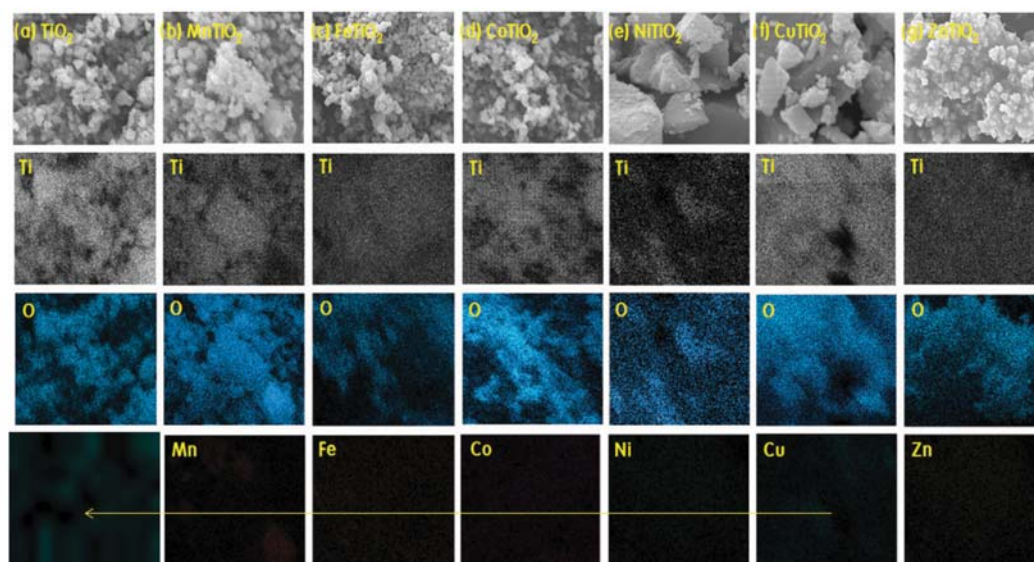
Finally, the $\text{Zn}p_{1/2}$ and $\text{Zn}p_{3/2}$ peaks at binding energies of 1,044.8 and 1,021.8 eV were assigned to ZnO in ZnTiO_2 sample [32]. From these results, we are convinced that all the inserted metals were stably present as metal oxides, and that the inserted amount was quite reliable.

XPS results of Ti and O in each sample are shown in Fig. 4 to investigate the oxidation state and the environmental change of TiO_2 , the main catalyst when 3d-metals were added. The binding energy of the two elements, $\text{Ti}2p_{3/2}$ and $\text{O}1s$ were present at 458.2 and 529.5 eV in pure TiO_2 , and these peak locations were assigned to a classical Ti^{4+} and O^{2-} of TiO_2 [33]. This means that the oxida-

tion state of titanium changed to a more oxidized state by the doping Mn, Fe, Ni, and Zn metals. However, the Ti oxidation state in the CoTiO_2 and CuTiO_2 samples could be predicted to shift to a lower oxidation state than Ti^{4+} of pure TiO_2 , since the peak position shifts toward lower binding energy. On the other hand, in all samples, peaks that suggested to $\text{O}1s$ of OH are seen near about 531 eV, which is further increased in samples with 3d-metals added compared to it of pure TiO_2 . In particular, the peak area of the FeTiO_2 sample was the largest: in general, $\text{O}1s$ of OH is a peak for evaluating the hydrophilicity [34]. It is known that the better the surface hydrophilicity of the catalyst, the easier the formation of



(A)



(B)

Fig. 5. EDS spectra of TiO_2 and 5.0 mol-% 3d-MTiO₂ particles and the metal atomic compositions.

·OH radicals during the reaction, thereby increasing the catalyst performance. Although this fact is favorable for the photooxidation reaction, the photodecomposition reaction is not yet conclusive.

Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) was used to semi-quantitatively analyze the elemental composition of the surfaces on TiO_2 and MTiO_2 particles, and the results are shown in Fig. 5(A). The EDS analysis revealed the presence of inserted 3d-metals in MTiO_2 , and it was confirmed that all of the elements, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn, were inserted stably and uniformly to TiO_2 framework. The ratio of Ti:O in pure TiO_2 was about 1:4, which shows a higher oxygen content than the theoretical value of Ti:O=1:2. This result is probably due to the fact that EDS is a device favorable for surface element analysis rather than whole element analysis. Nevertheless, the TiO_2 particles synthesized in this study are expected to have a large amount of oxygen exposed on the surface. Meanwhile, the M/Ti atomic ratios (%) were 10.43, 3.75, 5.90, 4.79, 10.55, and 5.70% in MnTiO_2 , FeTiO_2 , CoTiO_2 , NiTiO_2 , CuTiO_2 , and ZnTiO_2 , respectively. These values are close to the stoichiometric mole fractions of M/Ti=5.0 mol-% except of those in MnTiO_2 and CuTiO_2 , having a mole fractions of M/Ti=10.0 mol-%. This result was also consistent with the EDS element mapping image results of Ti and O in Fig. 5(B). In general, the image means that the spots are the constituent atoms and the color inten-

sity is proportional to their concentration. No aggregations between particles were observed in all catalysts. All of elements were well dispersed on the surface of catalyst particles. Furthermore, the images show the 3d-metal elements homogeneous distribution with many spaces. The mapping results for 3d-metals clearly show images with a large number of voids in comparison to that of Ti and O, maybe due to the small amount 3d-metals loaded on the surface of TiO_2 . Moreover, the spots show the element percentages of 3d-metals nearly match well with the stoichiometric proportion of MTiO_2 . From this result, we could expect that perhaps the doped metals are atomically dispersed.

Fig. 6 shows the UV-visible absorption spectra (a) and PL spectra (b) of the prepared TiO_2 and MTiO_2 powders. Generally, the band-gaps of semiconductor materials are closely related to the range of wavelengths absorbed: the higher the absorption wavelength, the shorter the band-gap [35]. In Fig. 6(a), an absorption band of anatase structured pure TiO_2 (402.9 nm) is clearly observed near 400 nm after extrapolation, which is similar to the absorption wavelength reported elsewhere [36]. The absorption curve of ZnTiO_2 (386.3 nm) was exhibited at the similar position with TiO_2 . But, the broad absorptions were observed in another MTiO_2 samples; the absorptions were split into two curves: the first peak is the curve corresponding to the TiO_2 absorption and the second curve corresponds to the specific absorption of the added metals. In particular, the curves corresponding to the TiO_2 absorption shifted to larger wavelengths by the addition of metals; however, the degree of movement varied depending on the species of metal. The maximum in first curves was observed at 384, 466, 456, 590, and 594 nm in MnTiO_2 , FeTiO_2 , CoTiO_2 , NiTiO_2 , and CuTiO_2 , respectively, and the optical band-gaps of the samples were obtained from these values as follows: 2.93, 2.47, 2.77, 1.96, 2.38, 2.04, and 3.06 eV for TiO_2 , MnTiO_2 , FeTiO_2 , CoTiO_2 , NiTiO_2 , CuTiO_2 , and ZnTiO_2 , respectively. On the other hand, the characteristic curves for the added metals were observed at 580, 550, 670, 800 and 720 nm corresponding to the Mn^{2+} , Fe^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , and Cu^{2+} oxides, respectively. From this result, we recognized that most of the added metal was inserted into the TiO_2 framework but remained on the surface to some extent. PL measurements as shown in Fig. 6(b) are typically employed to investigate the separation efficiency of the photo-generated electron-hole pairs and charge carrier lifetime of semiconductor particles. Therefore, there is a good relationship between the PL intensity and the photo-activity. Generally, the PL intensity increases with an increase in the number of emitted electrons as a result of recombination between the excited electrons and holes and the consequent decrease in the photo-activity [37]. In this study, the samples were excited at the same wavelength of 350-550 nm corresponding to photon-energy of same ranges, and the most preferred position, around 460 nm, corresponds to blue emission. The PL spectrums of MTiO_2 were given and exhibited two UV emission peaks at 3.20 and 3.11 eV: two blue emission peaks at 2.82 and 2.64 eV. The strength of PL curves was strongly observed in pure TiO_2 , and decreased in the order of ZnTiO_2 , MnTiO_2 , FeTiO_2 , NiTiO_2 , CoTiO_2 , and CuTiO_2 .

The valence band (VB) spectra were performed from XPS study of the TiO_2 and MTiO_2 powders to further understand the relation between electron transfer energy and CO_2 photo-reduction,

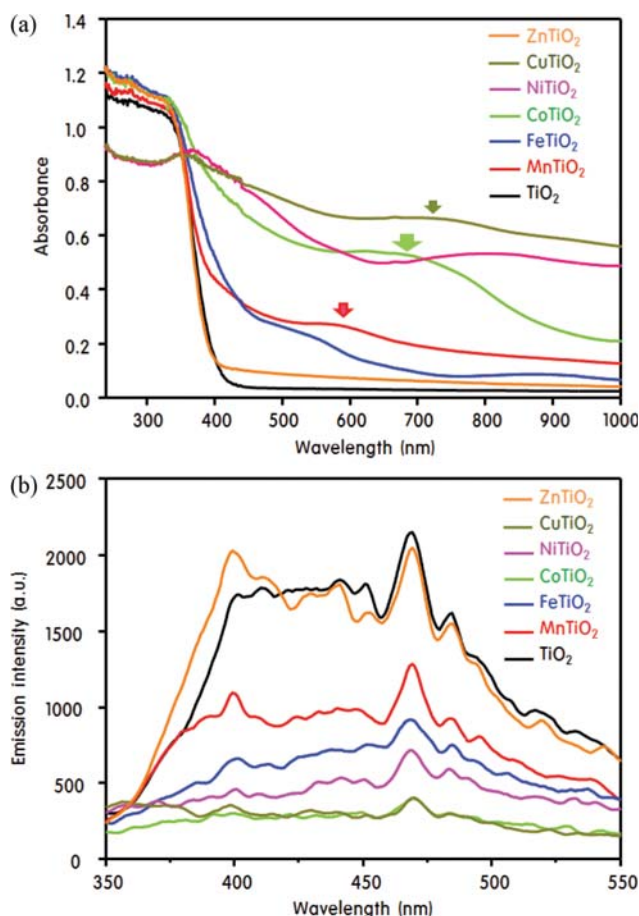


Fig. 6. UV-visible absorption (a) and PL spectra (b) of TiO_2 and 5.0 mol-% 3d- MTiO_2 powders.

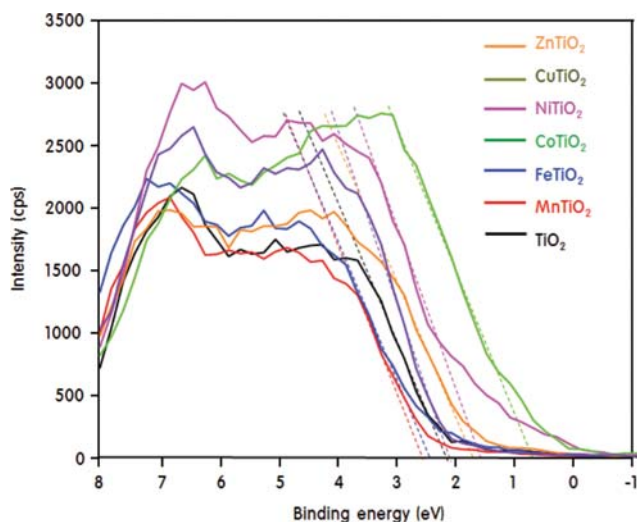


Fig. 7. Valence band spectra performed from XPS of TiO₂ and 5.0 mol-% 3d-MTiO₂ particles.

as shown in Fig. 7. The broad peak is identified as the valence band of the particles, and the locations of VBs of TiO₂, MnTiO₂, FeTiO₂, CoTiO₂, NiTiO₂, CuTiO₂, and ZnTiO₂ were observed at 2.20, 2.43, 2.36, 1.75, 1.61, 0.80, and 2.15 eV, respectively. These values are quite reliable, and resemble results reported in other studies [38,39]. Here, we could obtain the conduction band (CB) location energies of each catalyst by subtracting the values of band-gaps obtained in Fig. 6 with the energy positions of VB. The calculated values were -0.55, -0.04, -0.41, -0.21, -0.77, -1.24, and -0.91 eV in TiO₂, MnTiO₂, FeTiO₂, CoTiO₂, NiTiO₂, CuTiO₂, and ZnTiO₂ catalyst, respectively.

2. Catalytic Performance for Photoreduction of CO₂ over the Synthesized 5.0 mol-% 3d-Metal-TiO₂ Particles

The produced amounts for CH₄ (A), CH₃OH (B), and CO (C) gases generated during CO₂ photoreduction over TiO₂ and MTiO₂ catalysts are shown in Fig. 8. First, in Fig. 8(a), when comparing the catalytic activities for CH₄ production of a completely reducing substance of CO₂, a large amount of CH₄ evolved in the order of pure TiO₂ < NiTiO₂ < FeTiO₂ catalysts, although largely less in CuTiO₂ and ZnTiO₂ catalysts. But the CH₄ was not observed over the MnTiO₂ and CoTiO₂ catalysts; it is believed that CO₂ reduction does not occur in both catalysts. On the other hand, the amount of CH₃OH produced in the reduction products of CO₂ is shown in Fig. 8(b). As a result, it was confirmed that the greatest amount of CH₃OH is generated in the CuTiO₂ catalyst. In addition, the CH₃OH was also observed in FeTiO₂, NiTiO₂, TiO₂, and ZnTiO₂ although the amount was small, but the evolved CH₃OH amount was much smaller than the amount generated in the CuTiO₂ catalyst. Therefore, it was confirmed that the reduction from CO₂ to CH₃OH was advantageously performed in CuTiO₂ catalyst. Similar to the results of CH₄ production, CH₃OH was not observed in MnTiO₂ and CoTiO₂. Finally, the amount of CO produced as a result of the initial reduction of CO₂ is compared in Fig. 8(c). The production of CO was the most abundant in CuTiO₂, and its amount was twice that of CH₃OH. Next, the ZnTiO₂ catalyst also produced a large amount of CO, which is much higher

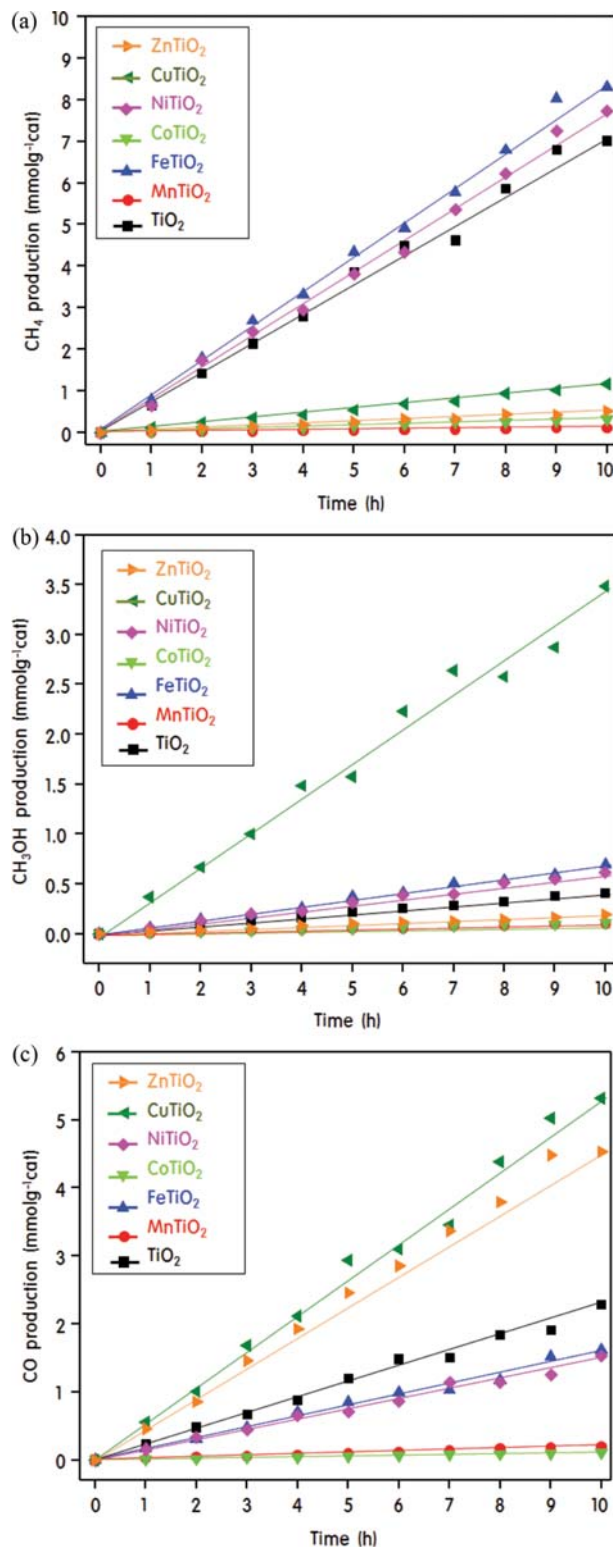


Fig. 8. CH₄ (a), CH₃OH (b), and CO (c) product distributions during CO₂ photoreduction over TiO₂ and 5.0 mol-% 3d-MTiO₂ catalysts.

than CH₄ and CH₃OH, suggesting that the conversion from CO₂ to CO is selectively taking place on ZnTiO₂. In the next order, the amounts decreased in order to pure TiO₂, FeTiO₂, and NiTiO₂ cat-

alysts, and their amounts were three-times smaller than the amount of CH_4 produced. No generation of CO was also observed in MnTiO_2 and CoTiO_2 catalysts. Eventually, the Fig. 8 results are indicating that the distribution of the reduction products of CO_2 varies depending on the doped metals, which is related to the band-gap position of the catalysts and the CO_2 redox potential.

Based on the band-gaps obtained from UV-visible absorption analysis and the VB location energies determined from XPS spectroscopic measurement, the energy potential diagrams on TiO_2 and MTiO_2 were predicted, and exhibited in Fig. 9(A). The CB energy location is obtained from the VB energy location minus the band

gap. The most important point here is the redox potential position between carbon dioxide and the product. As shown in the figure, $\text{CO}_2/\text{CO} = -0.53$ V, $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_3\text{OH} = -0.38$ V, $\text{CO}_2/\text{HCOOH} = -0.61$ V, and $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4 = -0.24$ V are possible redox potentials in the CO_2 reduction reaction [40]. To obtain the desired reduction products, the energy positions of VB and CB in the catalyst should suitably contain these potentials. From this energy diagram, it is expected that the most reduction products, like CO, CH_3OH , and CH_4 except of HCOOH , will be produced in pure TiO_2 . In MnTiO_2 and CoTiO_2 catalysts, the oxidation reaction will be advantageous rather than the reduction reaction, so that the reduction product

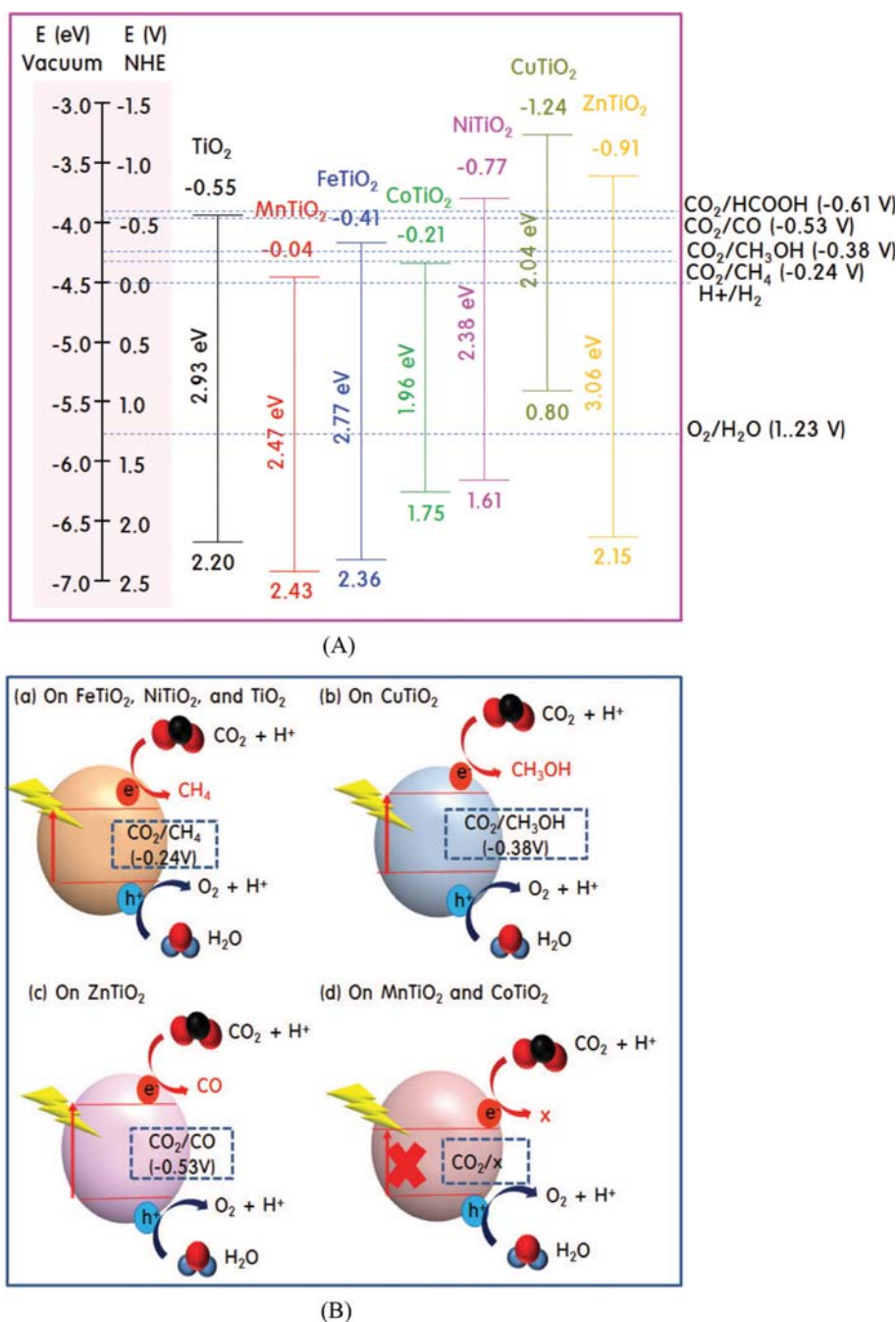


Fig. 9. Energy potential diagram (A) and expected CO_2 photoreduction mechanism (B) over TiO_2 and 5.0 mol-% 3d-MTiO₂ catalysts.

will not be obtained, because they do not contain a reduction potential corresponding to any reduction product. It is expected that CH₄ and CH₃OH are mainly produced in FeTiO₂, and all products such as HCOOH, CO, CH₃OH and CH₄ are expected in NiTiO₂, CuTiO₂, and ZnTiO₂. However, as expected, it was not exactly matched; in particular, there is one more thing to remember, the redox potential of water oxidation. Fortunately, most catalysts include the redox potential of water oxidation. However, CuTiO₂ did not include this region, but there was the CO₂ photoreduction and CH₃OH was produced. The UV-visible spectra in Fig. 6 showed the isolated CuO absorption curve in the visible region with the absorption peak of CuTiO₂, spontaneously. This result implies that Cu was inserted into the TiO₂ framework, but was also exposed as CuO on the surface of TiO₂. Thus, the state of the CuTiO₂ catalyst in this study maybe is rather closer to the mixture of CuTiO₂ and TiO₂/CuO. Therefore, the band energy position of the CuTiO₂ catalyst seems reasonable to be widely recognized from 2.20 eV of VB of TiO₂ to -1.24 eV of CB of CuTiO₂. For this reason, it can be deduced that a CO₂ reduction reaction occurs over CuTiO₂. Even though there is no guarantee, the possibilities are reasonable. On the basis of the results, we can describe the expected CO₂ photoreduction mechanisms by dividing the catalysts into four classes according to product preference as shown in Fig. 9(B). As shown, the CH₄ was selectively produced in FeTiO₂, NiTiO₂, and pure TiO₂ catalysts, and the CH₃OH was predominantly produced in CuTiO₂. In ZnTiO₂ catalyst, the CO was mainly produced, but the reduction reaction did not proceed any more. It was also found that the CO₂ reduction reactions over MnTiO₂ and CoTiO₂ catalysts were difficult to occur. This is relevant that the location energies of band-gaps for two catalysts do not include any possible redox potentials in the CO₂ reduction reactions. Their CBs are located at a higher energy level than the redox potentials for the CO₂ reduction reactions. It is therefore expected that thermodynamically reducing carbon dioxide will not occur on these catalysts. Furthermore, we could describe the CO₂ photoreduction mechanism over MTiO₂ catalysts as the following steps. First, by light irradiation, the surface of MTiO₂ photocatalyst induces the generation of charge carriers, i.e., electron-hole pairs. Then, the excited electrons on the conduction band of photocatalyst migrate to the surface and meet CO₂. Here, two possible pathways are proposed for reduction of CO₂, in particular to obtain CH₄ [41]. The one is converted to CH₄ via formaldehyde through CO₂→HCOOH→HCHO→CH₃OH and finally CH₄. The other is carbon pathway, which is converted to CH₄ via CO₂→CO→C→CH₃→CH₃OH. Since HCOOH and HCHO products were not observed in this study, thus we were confident that the CO₂ reduction reaction would proceed to the carbon pathway. On the other hand, there are also two proposals for the conversion of CO₂ to CO in the initial step [42]: one is the CO₂→CO₂⁻→CO pathway in which one electron participates and the other is the CO₂→CO pathway in which two electrons participate. By the CO₂ redox potential value which already was commented on in the introduction section, the first and second pathways correspond to -1.90 and -0.53 V, respectively. Matching this fact with the MTiO₂ band-gap energy diagram results in Fig. 9(A), perhaps the second pathway in this study is more plausible. Meanwhile, the holes left in the valence

band of the photocatalyst could oxidize H₂O into oxygen in final step of CO₂ photoreduction reaction.

CONCLUSIONS

A typical sol-gel method was used to prepare MTiO₂ nanoparticles containing 5.0 mol-% of various 3d-transition metals in the TiO₂ framework and to apply for as a catalyst for photo-reduction of CO₂. The synthesized nanoparticles were identified as an anatase structure by XRD and TEM. Their optical properties were confirmed by UV-visible absorbance and PL measurements: visible light absorptions were observed in most of the catalysts except for pure TiO₂ and ZnTiO₂, and the PL curves of smaller intensities were confirmed compared to TiO₂. In the CO₂ photoreduction reaction, we could predict the reduction products of CO₂ from the correlation between the redox potential of CO₂ and the position of the band-gap of the catalyst. Various reduction products were obtained depending on the contained metal components: the FeTiO₂ and NiTiO₂ catalysts including pure TiO₂ produced mainly CH₄ and about 15-30% CO, and CH₃OH was produced in a small amount compared with other products. In CuTiO₂ catalyst, the CO and CH₃OH (in particular it is much) were obtained as main products, and CH₄ was produced in relatively small amounts. CO gas was observed as the main product in ZnTiO₂. On the other hand, almost no reduction products were observed in MnTiO₂ and CoTiO₂, so that it is considered that the CO₂ reduction reaction hardly occurs. Based on CH₄ production, which is the final target of the reduction reaction, the dopants that effectively reduced CO₂ were Fe and Ni. From these results, we are convinced that changing the kind of dopant can increase the selectivity of the desired product.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported financially by the Fundamental Research Program (PNK 5450) of Korea Institute of Materials Science.

REFERENCES

1. A. Wilk, L. Węclaw-Solny, A. Tatarczuk, A. Krótki, T. Spietz and T. Chwoła, *Korean J. Chem. Eng.*, **34**, 2275 (2017).
2. Z. Cui, J. Fan, H. Duan, J. Zhang, Y. Xue and Y. Tan, *Korean J. Chem. Eng.*, **34**, 29 (2017).
3. H. Huang, J. Lin, G. Zhu, Y. Weng, X. Wang, X. Fu and J. Long, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*, **55**, 8314 (2016).
4. S. Xie, Q. Zhang, G. Liu and Y. Wang, *Chem. Commun.*, **52**, 35 (2016).
5. Z. He, L. Wen, D. Wang, Y. Xue, Q. Lu, C. Wu, J. Chen and S. Song, *Energy Fuel*, **3982**, 28 (2014).
6. S. Nahar, M. F. M. Zain, A. A. H. Kadhum, H. A. Hasan and M. R. Hasan, *Materials*, **629**, 10 (2017).
7. M. Zalfani, Z.-Y. Hud, W.-B. Yu, M. Mahdouani, R. Bourguiga, M. Wua, Y. Li, G. V. Tendeloo, Y. Djauoued and B.-L. Su, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.*, **205**, 121 (2017).
8. Y. Yang, T. Zhang, L. Le, X. Ruan, P. Fang, C. Pan, R. Xiong, J. Shi

- and J. Wei, *Sci. Rep.*, **4**, 7045 (2014).
9. H. Zhao, F. Pan and Y. Li, *J. Materiomics*, **3**, 17 (2017).
 10. Y. Im, J. H. Lee and M. Kang, *Korean J. Chem. Eng.*, **34**(6), 1669 (2017).
 11. M. Zhang, J. Wu, D. D. Lu and J. Yang, *Int. J. Photoenergy*, **2013**, 1 (2013).
 12. S. Ali Ansari, M. Mansoob Khan, M. Omaish Ansari and M. H. Cho, *New J. Chem.*, **40**, 3000 (2016).
 13. F. M. Pesci, G. Wang, D. R. Klug, Y. Li and A. J. Cowan, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, **117**, 25837 (2013).
 14. K. Zhang and J. H. Park, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, **8**, 199 (2017).
 15. J. H. Lee, H. Lee and M. Kang, *Mater. Lett.*, **178**, 316 (2016).
 16. M. Park, B. S. Kwak, S. W. Jo and M. Kang, *Energy Conv. Manage.*, **103**, 431 (2015).
 17. D. Dvoranová, V. Brezová, M. Mazúr and M. A. Malati, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.*, **37**, 91 (2002).
 18. S. Sakthivel and H. Kisch, *ChemPhysChem*, **4**, 487 (2003).
 19. K. Yang, Y. Dai, B. Huang and M.-H. Whang, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, **113**, 2624 (2009).
 20. T. Ohno, M. Akiyoshi, T. Umebayashi, K. Asai, T. Mitsui and M. Matsumura, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.*, **265**, 115 (2004).
 21. S. Protti, A. Albinì and N. Serpone, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, **16**, 19790 (2014).
 22. J. Low, J. Yu and W. Ho, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, **6**, 4244 (2015).
 23. H. S. Kim, D. Kim, B. S. Kwak, G. B. Han, M.-H. Um and M. Kang, *Chem. Eng. J.*, **243**, 272 (2014).
 24. B. S. Kwak and M. Kang, *Appl. Surf. Sci.*, **337**, 138 (2015).
 25. J. Ge, Y. Ping, G. Liu, G. Qiao, E. J. Kim and M. Wang, *Mater. Lett.*, **181**, 216 (2016).
 26. A. W. Burton, K. Ong, T. Rea and I. Y. Chan, *Micropor. Mesopor. Mater.*, **117**, 75 (2009).
 27. G. O. Park, J. K. Shon, Y. H. Kim and J. M. Kim, *J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.*, **15**, 2441 (2015).
 28. X. Deng and C. Matranga, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, **113**, 11104 (2009).
 29. Z.-J. Jiang and Z. Jiang, *Sci. Rep.*, **6**, 27081 (2016).
 30. M. Muruganandham, R. P. S. Suri, M. Sillanpää, G.-J. Lee and J. J. Wu, *Electron. Mater. Lett.*, **12**, 693 (2016).
 31. F. Wu, S. Banerjee, H. Li, Y. Myung and P. Banerjee, *Langmuir*, **32**, 4485 (2016).
 32. H. Tian, H. Fan, G. Dong, L. Ma and J. Ma, *RSC Adv.*, **6**, 109091 (2016).
 33. J. Fang, F. Shi, J. Bu, J. Ding, S. Xu, J. Bao, Y. Ma, Z. Jiang, W. Zhang, C. Gao and W. Huang, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, **114**, 7940 (2010).
 34. S. Benkoulou, O. Sublemontier, M. Patanen, C. Nicolas, F. Sirotti, A. Naitabdi, F. Gaie-Levrel, E. Antonsson, D. Aureau, F.-X. Ouf, S.-I. Wada, A. Etcheberry, K. Ueda and C. Miron, *Sci. Rep.*, **5**, 15088 (2015).
 35. H. Sun, L. Biedermann and T. C. Bond, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **34**, 17813 (2007).
 36. J. Peña-Flores, A. F. Palomec-Garfias, C. Márquez-Beltrán, E. Sánchez-Mora, E. Gómez-Barojas and F. Pérez-Rodríguez, *Nanoscale Res. Lett.*, **9**, 499 (2014).
 37. J. Chae and M. Kang, *J. Power Source*, **196**, 4143 (2011).
 38. R. da S. Santos, G. A. Faria, C. Giles, C. A. P. Leite, H. de S. Barbosa, M. A. Z. Arruda and C. Longo, *Appl. Mater. Interf.*, **4**, 5555 (2012).
 39. S. Ghasemi, S. Rahimnejad, S. Rahman Setayesh, S. Rohani and M. R. Gholami, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, **172**, 1573 (2009).
 40. Y. Hori, *Modern Aspect Electrochem.*, **42**, 89 (2008).
 41. J. Chen, L. Falivene, L. Caporaso, L. Cavallo and E. Y.-X. Chen, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, **138**, 5321 (2016).
 42. S. Saeidi, N. A. Saidina Amin and M. R. Rahimpour, *J. CO₂ Utilization*, **5**, 66 (2014).