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Production of H₂ by Ethanol Photoreforming on Au/TiO₂

Alberto V. Puga, Amparo Forneli, Hermenegildo García, and Avelino Corma*

A deposition-precipitation method is used to prepare Au/TiO $_2$ solids (0.45–1.7 wt% Au). These materials, consisting of gold nanoparticles (diameter range = 1.5–6.5 nm) supported on the surface of TiO $_2$, are used as photocatalysts for the ethanol photoreforming reaction under either UV-rich or simulated solar light. The main products of such reactions are H $_2$ in the gas phase and acetaldehyde in the liquid phase according to the reaction CH $_3$ CH $_2$ OH \rightarrow CH $_3$ CHO + H $_2$. Among the gaseous products, H $_2$ amounts to around or above 99% in all cases; other minor products found in the gas phase are, in decreasing order of molar production: CH $_4$ > CO > C $_2$ H $_4$ > CO $_2$ > C $_2$ H $_6$ > C $_3$ H $_8$. The photoactivity is lower under CO $_2$ atmosphere, as compared to analogous reactions performed under Ar. The H $_2$ production yields are very high (up to a maximum 30 mmol g_{cat}^{-1} h $^{-1}$) under UV irradiation, and increase with increasing gold loading. The reactions under simulated solar light also yield significant amounts of H $_2$ (5–6 mmol g_{cat}^{-1} h $^{-1}$) as the main gaseous product.

1. Introduction

The efficient use of solar light as the energy source for chemical transformations would certainly be an advantageous technology for the production of renewable fuels, e.g. H₂ from water splitting^[1] or CH₄ or methanol from CO₂ reduction.^[2] Nevertheless, the efficiency of such processes is not as high as desirable from an economical perspective. Given the limited tendency of water itself to be oxidised to O2, the production of H2 from water can be promoted by the use of sacrificial electron donors.^[1] Among these, organic substances such as alcohols have proven useful, although at the expense of their consumption in the process. For example, methanol or ethanol are oxidised primarily to formaldehyde^[1,3] or acetaldehyde, ^[4] respectively, a process that can be considered alcohol photoreforming. Notwithstanding this, processes of this kind, which enable the conversion of organic substances with concomitant H2 release by means of light, are of significant practical interest, not only due to the production of H₂, but also when coupled with the photo-oxidation of organic pollutants from aqueous streams.[1,4] Such reactions are carried out under inert atmospheres, generally under Ar, in

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order to avoid the competition of O_2 with the reduction processes; in this regard, it would be worth testing analogous reactions under CO_2 , since coupling its reduction with alcohol oxidation would have practical interest.

In addition to photocatalytic reactions, a large variety of processes to produce H_2 from organic matter are known. In some cases, the organic feedstock is treated under harsh temperature and pressure conditions in the presence of steam and/ or O_2 ; coal or biomass gasification are examples of this.^[5] Recently, the aqueous phase reforming of biomass-derived organic matter has emerged as an interesting alternative,^[6] given that it is less energy intensive as compared to previously known reforming processes. For example, methanol can be converted into a H_2 -rich (albeit containing up to 25%

CO₂ by volume) gaseous stream.^[6a]

The potential of alcohol photoreforming, as compared to other reforming processes, lies in the fact that it may enable the production of H2 at high rates and high purities by using solar light as the only energy source. In 1980, Kawai and Sakata reported that irradiation of suspensions of Pt/TiO2 or RuO2-Pt/TiO2 solids in methanol/water mixtures with a Xe lamp (500 W) yielded H₂ at high rates, whereas CO₂ was also released.[3] Related to those investigations, it was also discovered that H2 could be produced under similar conditions from aqueous suspensions or solutions of a wide range of biomassderived substances, including sugars, starch or cellulose, [7] algae, wood, grasses or ethanol.[8] Later, Haruta and co-workers studied the activity of metal-loaded TiO2 photocatalysts under Hg lamp light and concluded that both Pt/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ promote the release of H2 from aqueous ethanol with high selectivities (94-97%, as estimated from the reported data) over CH₄ and CO₂.^[4] Recently, the interest in using ethanol as the feedstock to obtain H2 by photoreforming has increased. It has been confirmed that solids based on metal nanoparticles deposited on titania are highly efficient for such a purpose. Different films of metal/TiO2 supported on glass were tested under UV light irradiation of ethanol/water mixtures, revealing that Pt was slightly more active than Au under those conditions.^[9] The use of bimetallic Pt-Au/ TiO_2 proved beneficial for the continuous H₂ evolution for several hours from aqueous ethanol under either UV-rich (Hg lamp) or simulated solar light.^[10] Other catalysts displaying activity in similar systems, under either UV or visible light, are Cu/TiO₂,^[11] Pd-Au/TiO₂, or various M/ TiO₂ (M = Pt, Rh, Pd or Ni; TiO₂ = rutile).^[13] Regarding Au/ TiO₂ structure and morphology, recent studies have concluded www.afm-journal.de

reactions.[14a]

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that anatase is considerably more active than rutile and that higher surface availability of Au is beneficial to H₂ production from ethanol under UV (350 nm) light, [14] although significant amounts of other gases (mostly CO, CO₂ and CH₄) are also released, probably by further photo-induced decomposition

The application of biomass photoreforming for the economical production of H₂ would only be a realistic possibility if solar energy could be used and if downstream separation could be minimised. The present work reports on the photocatalytic production of H₂ (≈ 99% of all gaseous products) from ethanol, a chemical derived from biomass in the industry. Comprehensive analyses of the products of such reactions under either UV-rich or simulated solar light have been conducted. The photocatalysts used were Au/TiO2 solids, consisting of gold nanoparticles supported on anatase-rich titania. Similar Au/TiO₂ materials, prepared by deposition-precipitation methods, have proved to be highly valuable as photocatalysts for a number of reactions.[15] The effects of different gaseous atmospheres or different catalyst compositions (or absence of catalysts) have been explored, aiming at

2. Results and Discussion

nistic understanding.

2.1. Synthesis and Characterisation of the Au/TiO₂ Photocatalysts

The Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts used in this work were prepared by a simple deposition-precipitation method, by using commercial P25 titania as support. The deposition stage was performed in aqueous solution at pH = 9 and with HAuCl₄ as the gold precursor. After separating the gold-deposited solids by filtration and washing with water, they were treated under H₂ at 300 °C to yield solid samples exhibiting purple colouration, indicative of the presence of gold nanoparticles. This synthetic method is similar to other well known procedures for producing photocatalytic Au/TiO₂ materials. $^{[14,15]}$

achieving yield enhancements and a certain degree of mecha-

The crystallinity of the Au/TiO₂ samples prepared was studied by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements. The diffractograms shown in **Figure 1** reveal that titania occurs as a mixture anatase and rutile phases in Au/TiO₂. The relative abundance of such crystalline phases is estimated as *ca.* 80/20%, which is essentially equal to that found for the pristine TiO₂ support (see Figure 1), thus leading to the conclusion that the structure of titania did not undergo significant changes throughout the synthetic processes, neither during the deposition-precipitation stages nor during the thermal reductive treatments with H₂. Due to the low gold contents and small particle sizes, no diffraction events ascribable to crystalline Au were observed.

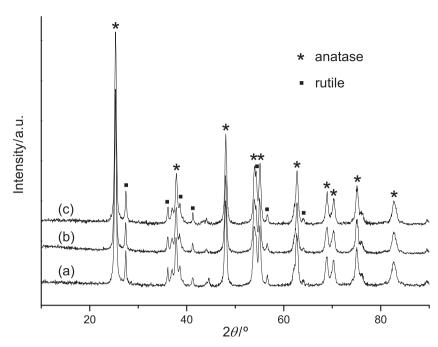


Figure 1. Powder X-ray diffractograms (Cu-K $_{\infty}$ 0.154056 nm) for various Au/TiO $_2$ solids and for the pristine TiO $_2$: (a) TiO $_2$, (b) 0.45% Au/TiO $_2$, (b) 0.57% Au/TiO $_2$.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observations showed that the $\mathrm{Au/TiO_2}$ photocatalysts consisted of titania particles (20–30 nm diameter) with smaller deposited gold nanoparticles, as expected. Furthermore, the gold nanoparticles were well dispersed on the titania surface, i.e. no abnormally large particles or aggregates were observed. The sizes of gold nanoparticles were measured from TEM micrographs (see an example for a 1.0% $\mathrm{Au/TiO_2}$ sample in Figure 2). A statistical analysis of the sizes of gold nanoparticles was performed and a histogram showing the size distribution profile is shown in

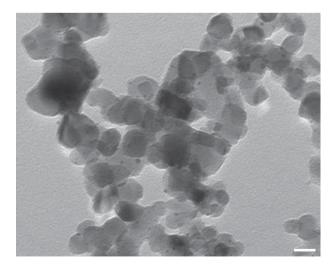


Figure 2. TEM micrographs (100 kV) recorded for a sample of 1.0% Au/TiO_2 , where the larger particles of TiO_2 and the deposited Au nanoparticles can be observed. Scale bar: 20 nm.

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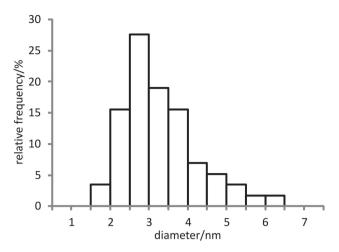
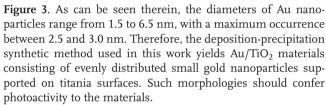


Figure 3. A histogram showing the Au nanoparticle size distribution for a sample of 1.0% Au/TiO₂, obtained by counting sixty individual particles.



The nanometer-sized gold nanoparticles are known to exert visible-light absorption, a phenomenon which is due to the surface plasmon resonance. In the Au/TiO₂ samples reported herein, the aforementioned visible-light absorption was observed by diffuse reflectance UV-visible spectroscopy measurements. The spectrum shown in Figure 4 confirms that the samples absorb in the visible region, with a maximum absorbance at 563 nm. In addition, the semiconducting characteristics of TiO₂ are responsible for intense UV light absorption, which in this case is clearly noticeable below 380 nm, therefore effectively covering the entire UV range. The combination of

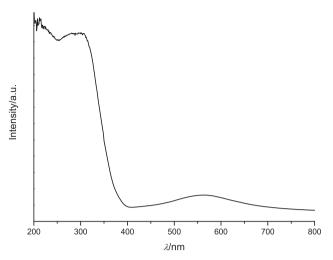


Figure 4. Diffuse reflectance UV-vis absorption spectra for 0.45% Au/ TiO_2 . The broad absorption band in the visible region (maximum at 563 nm) is attributable to the surface plasmon band of gold nanoparticles, whereas the intense band below 380 nm is due to the absorption of the TiO_2 semiconductor.

visible and UV light absorption by gold nanoparticles and titania, respectively, is known to enable photocatalytic activity on Au/TiO₂ surfaces. This is experimentally proven in this work by testing the prepared Au/TiO₂ materials for ethanol photoreforming processes.

2.2. Photocatalytic H₂ Generation from Ethanol Under Ar

The photocatalytic H₂ generation from ethanol with a Hg lamp under Ar on Au/TiO₂ solids resulted in the production of H₂, CO, CO₂ and hydrocarbons which accumulated in the gas phase, whereas the main product found in the liquid phase was acetaldehyde (data compiled in **Table 1**). Gaseous products are formed, from larger to smaller molar amounts, in the following

Table 1. Product yields for the photocatalytic ethanol reforming under UV-rich light on Au/TiO₂.^{a)}

	Gas	s Solvent	Photocatalyst	Production rate $[\mu mol \ g_{cat}^{-1} \ h^{-1}]$									
						Liquid phase							
				H ₂	CH₄	C ₂ H ₄	C ₂ H ₆	C ₃ H ₈	СО	CO ₂	CH ₃ CHO	CH₃COOH	
1	Ar	EtOH	0.45% Au/TiO ₂	23180	78	32	6	1	51	19	23954	_	
2	Ar	EtOH	0.57% Au/TiO ₂	21152	71	32	8	_	40	73	19840	50	
3	Ar	EtOH	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	28542	109	45	7	1	57	22	28626	_	
4	Ar	EtOH	1.7% Au/TiO ₂	29677	90	45	7	1	58	60	29047	_	
5	Ar	EtOH/H ₂ O ^{b)}	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	11242	88	110	7	2	36	52	8258	182	
6	Ar	H ₂ O	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	66	_	_	_	-	-	_	_	_	
7	CO_2	EtOH	0.45% Au/TiO ₂	9930	51	34	1	1	13		9258	_	
8	CO_2	EtOH	0.57% Au/TiO ₂	11427	55	33	3	-	16		10757	_	
9	CO ₂	EtOH	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	15402	95	62	3	1	29		15235	-	
10	CO ₂	EtOH	1.7% Au/TiO ₂	18453	88	72	4	1	35		17576	_	

^{a)}Stirred suspensions of the photocatalyst (25 mg) in the specified solvent (25 mL) were irradiated with a Hg lamp (125 W) under atmospheres of the specified gas (1.4 bar) at 25 °C for 2 h; hyphens denote figures lower than the corresponding detection limits; ^{b)}Ethanol/water at a 50:50 volume ratio.

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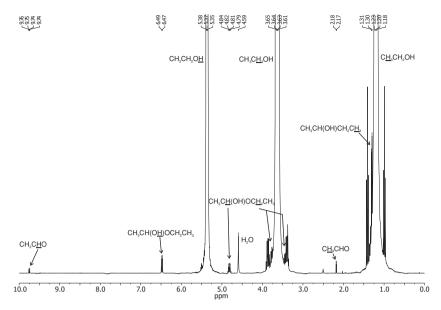


Figure 5. 1 H NMR spectrum (300.13 MHz, 25 °C, dmso- d_{6} as external reference) of a sample of the liquid phase after reaction 2 (see Table 1, 125 W Hg lamp irradiation of an ethanolic suspension of 0.57% Au/TiO₂ under 1.4 bar of Ar at 25 °C for 2 h). The signals of ethanol are off the scale; those for 1-ethoxyethane and acetaldehyde could be unambiguously assigned, as indicated on the spectrum.

order: $H_2 >> CH_4 > CO > C_2H_4 > CO_2 > C_2H_6 > C_3H_8$. Very high production rates (21–30 mmol $g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1}$) were observed for H_2 , a fact which caused rapid pressure increases. To put these values into context, it should be commented that it has been recently reported that H₂ can be obtained from pure ethanol on Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts by illumination with 350 nm "black" light at ca. 5 or 12 mmol g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1} (as estimated from data in references [14a] or [14b]). Based on a different approach, H2 was produced from ethanol/water mixtures on glass-supported Pt/TiO2 with 300-400 nm "black" light irradiation at a maximum rate of ca. 11 mmol $g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1}$ (when using a 80:20 ethanol:water volume ratio).^[9] By using a Hg lamp (500 W) as the light source, H₂ production rates up to 6 or 10 mmol $g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1}$ were achieved from ethanol/water mixtures on Au/TiO2 or Pt/TiO2, respectively.[4] Similar results have also been reported by using methanol instead of ethanol. [16,17] Therefore, the data reported herein represent between two- and three-fold increases in H₂ production efficiency over state-of-the-art methods, with the exception of one reaction performed on a RuO2-TiO2-Pt photocatalyst, which proved extremely active, yielding H₂ at a 30 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ rate from a methanol/water (1:1 by volume) mixture using a 500 W Hg lamp.[3]

It is interesting to note that H_2 accounts for >99% (in moles) of all gases produced, which means that an almost pure H_2 stream could be potentially obtained by this method. Among the remaining gaseous products, ca. 0.5% of hydrocarbons were found. The highest production rate of CH_4 on Au/TiO_2 measured by us (up to 109 μ mol $g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1}$, reaction 3 in Table 1) is higher than previously reported on similar catalysts (80 μ mol $g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1}$),^[4] but lower than that observed on Pt/ TiO_2 analogues (180 μ mol $g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1}$).^[4]

In addition to the gaseous products, quantification of products in the liquid phase was also undertaken. In most cases,

acetaldehyde was the only product found. Occasionally, smaller amounts of acetic acid were also generated. In fact, the acetaldehyde produced in the liquid phase occurs mainly as the hemiacetal formed by addition of one equivalent of ethanol, i.e. 1-ethoxyethanol, as inferred from ¹H and ¹³C NMR analyses (see Figure 5). Integration of the ¹H NMR signals allowed the quantification of each compound. For reaction 2, the amounts of 1-ethoxyethanol and acetaldehyde were 1012 and 95 µmol, respectively. Such data (considering both free acetaldehyde and its hemiacetal, 1-ethoxyethanol) are consistent with those found by chromatographic analyses within less than ±9% error. The corresponding acetal, i.e. 1,1-diethoxyethane was not detected.

The amounts of acetaldehyde in the liquid phase are remarkably close to the stoichiometric amounts of H_2 determined in the gas phase (Table 1). This is consistent with the dissociation of ethanol into H_2 and acetaldehyde via reduction and oxidation reactions, respectively; as widely accepted, these reactions are enabled by electrons and holes photo-generated on the photocatalyst

surface. [1,14b] The reactions can be summarised as follows:

$$CH3CH2OH + 2h+ \rightarrow CH3CHO + 2H+$$
 (1)

$$2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2 \tag{2}$$

where h⁺ and e⁻ represent the holes and electrons, respectively, generated on the photocatalysts by light absorption. Furthermore, the reaction

$$CH_3CHO + CH_3CH_2OH \rightarrow CH_3CH(OH)OCH_2CH_3$$
 (3)

takes place in the liquid phase leading to 1-ethoxyethanol, as discussed above.

Since H₂ and acetaldehyde are formed in molar ratios near the unity and their production rates are considerably larger than those of the other products detected, it seems reasonable to conclude that the predominant primary reactions in this system are those defined by Equations (1) and (2).

The effect of the composition of the solvent was studied by performing reactions either with water as a co-solvent or in pure water. Experiments carried out in ethanol/water mixtures (50:50 by volume) also yielded $\rm H_2$ as the major gaseous product, although at noticeably lower rates; for example, ca. 28.5 vs. 11.2 mmol $\rm g_{cat}^{-1}~h^{-1}$ were produced on 1.0% Au/TiO₂ under either pure ethanol or ethanol/water (reactions 3 and 5 in Table 1), respectively. Other production rates also diminished for reactions with water as a co-solvent, with the exception of that for ethylene, which increased from 45 to 110 μ mol $\rm g_{cat}^{-1}~h^{-1}$ (reactions 3 and 5 in Table 1). Irradiation of a suspension of 1.0% Au/TiO₂ in pure water yielded $\rm H_2$ at a rate three orders of magnitude lower (66 μ mol $\rm g_{cat}^{-1}~h^{-1}$, reaction 6 in Table 1) than in ethanol. Not surprisingly, no carbon containing products were generated in water.

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2.3. Photocatalytic Reforming of Ethanol Under CO2

The photocatalytic reactions described above were performed under Ar atmosphere, in order to avoid the presence of air. Indeed, the production of H_2 was very fast, as shown in the previous section. Furthermore, the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 on aqueous semiconductor suspensions has been widely investi gated, [2a,18] although the reported conversion rates are generally low (in the order of micromoles per gram of catalyst per hour). In most cases, a sacrificial electron donor is used to enhance yields. Among these, methanol is frequently chosen, although it has been demonstrated that it leads to products (mostly HCHO and HCO_2H) which may in part interfere with the analysis of CO_2 reduction products or intermediates. [18b,19] In the case reported here, ethanol also has a strong tendency to be oxidised (to acetaldehyde), and H_2 is produced in the coupled reduction reaction under Ar.

We were interested to know whether ethanol oxidation could be coupled with CO₂ reduction and how this process would affect the rate of H₂ evolution. The results obtained for the photocatalytic H2 generation under UV-rich irradiation in the presence of CO₂ are summarised in Table 1. In fact, production rates for all products were noticeably lower under CO2 atmosphere as compared to those found under Ar. For example, reactions on 1.0% Au/TiO2 with Hg lamp light yielded H2 at ca. 28.5 or 15.4 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ under Ar or CO₂ atmospheres (reactions 3 and 9 in Table 1), respectively, which translates into a 46% reduction in activity under CO2. Acetaldehyde yields (matching those for H2, as observed for reactions under Ar) diminished to a similar extent (see Table 1). This implies that CO2 might be inhibiting the primary reactions (Equations (1) and (2)). Production rates of CH₄ and CO also decreased when performing the reactions under CO2 instead of Ar. However, the decrease in CH₄ yield is lower than that of H₂; for example, only a 13% lower production yield was found for reactions on 1.0% Au/TiO₂ (from 109 to 95 µmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ under Ar or CO₂, respectively, see Table 1). Moreover, no further C1 products (HCO₂H, HCHO or CH3OH) were detected by either GC or HPLC analyses of the liquid phases. Therefore, there is no clear evidence for significant conversion of CO2 to C1 oxygenates. Consistent with these findings, no products were detected by ¹³C NMR analysis of the liquid phase after irradiation (Hg lamp) of an ethanolic suspension of 0.57% Au/TiO₂ under a ¹³CO₂ atmosphere. The only noticeable positive influence of the presence of CO₂ in the photocatalytic irradiation was a slight increase in the amounts of ethylene, e.g. production rates of 45 or 62 μ mol g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1} (reactions 3 and 9 in Table 1) were found under Ar or CO2 atmospheres on 1.0% Au/TiO2, respectively.

2.4. Effect of Gold Loading

The effect of gold loading on the activity of the photocatalysts can be seen in Table 1 and **Figure 6**. The production of H_2 increased with increasing gold loading. For example, H_2 production rates under Ar were ca. 23.2 or 28.5 μ mol g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1} (a 23% increase) for 0.45 or 1.0% Au contents (reactions 1 and 3 in Table 1), respectively. For reactions under CO_2 atmosphere, the effect is even more noticeable: The yield of H_2 was 55%

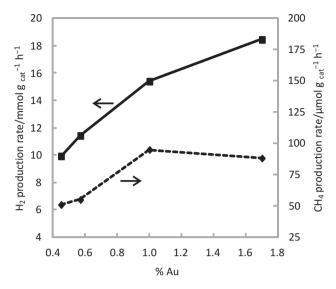


Figure 6. Production of H_2 and CH_4 from ethanol vs. gold loading (wt%) on Au/TiO_2 solids. The reactions were performed by irradiating (Hg lamp, 125 W) a suspension of the photocatalyst (25 mg) in ethanol (25 mL) under a CO_2 atmosphere (1.4 bar) for 2 h. Note the two orders of magnitude difference between both vertical axes (H_2 and CH_4 production rates, left and right, respectively).

higher by increasing gold loading from 0.45 or 1.0% (see Table 1 and Figure 6). This trend agrees with recent studies which correlate $\rm H_2$ production with the availability of surface gold atoms at the interface with $\rm TiO_2$. Similar effects were found for the amounts of acetaldehyde produced and for the rest of the minor gaseous products. Therefore, it appears that the photocatalytic activity increases in general with gold loading.

2.5. Control Experiments: Photolysis without Catalysts

Aiming at both proving the activity of the photocatalysts and investigating on the mechanistic origin of the products, control experiments without any catalyst were performed. As shown in Table 2, after irradiation of ethanol in the absence of Au/TiO₂ solids, several products (H₂, CH₄, C₂H₄ or C₂H₆) were formed; nevertheless, their amounts were smaller by two to three orders of magnitude as compared to those obtained from catalysed reactions. Thus, only 3.06 µmol of H₂ were produced from the non-catalysed irradiation (Hg lamp) of ethanol for 2 h, whereas an analogous reaction in the presence of 1.0% Au/TiO₂ yielded ca. 1421 umol, i.e., an amount 465 times larger. The productions of CH₄ were 0.12 and 5.44 µmol (reactions 11 and 3 in Table 2), without or with 1.0% Au/TiO2, respectively, which means an increase by a factor of 45 by use of the photocatalyst. On the other hand, only trace amounts of CO were produced without the photocatalyst. The amount of CO₂ was only marginally smaller for the non-catalysed irradiation (0.64 µmol) than for the analogous experiment on 1.0% Au/TiO₂ (1.11 μmol). Traces of acetaldehyde were also detected in the liquid phase of experiments without catalyst, but unfortunately, the low amounts formed makes accurate quantification difficult.

The formation of small amounts of H₂, CH₄ or C₂H₆ solely by the action of light might be ascribed to several reactions



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Table 2. Product yields (in micromoles) for the UV-rich light irradiation of ethanol with or without photocatalysts.a)

	Gas	Photocatalyst					Pi	oduced amou [μmol]	nt		
						Liquid phase					
			H ₂	CH ₄	C ₂ H ₄	C ₂ H ₆	C ₃ H ₈	СО	CO ₂	CH₃CHO	CH ₃ COOH
11	Ar	-	3.06	0.12	0.02	0.03	-	0.01	0.64	-	-
12	CO_2	-	5.24	0.17	0.03	0.06	_	0.07		-	-
3 b)	Ar	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	1421.38	5.44	2.24	0.35	0.05	2.82	1.11	1401.05	-
9 b)	CO_2	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	675.87	3.77	3.12	0.17	0.06	1.60		728.93	_

a)Stirred suspensions of the photocatalyst (25 mg) in ethanol (25 mL) were irradiated with a Hg lamp (125 W) under atmospheres of the specified gas (1.4 bar) at 25 °C for 2 h; hyphens denote figures lower than the corresponding detection limits; b) Note that data for reactions 3 and 9, also reported in Table 1, are included here for comparison.

involving radicals, as previously reported for the low temperature photolysis of ethanol. $^{[20]}$ In the presence of 1.0% Au/TiO₂, the fact that the production rates of H₂ and acetaldehyde were greatly enhanced (vide supra) is in agreement with the reduction and oxidation reactions stated in Equations (1) and (2). The case of CH₄ or C₂H₆, the yields of which are also enhanced, although to a lesser extent (see Table 2), is less obvious; they might be produced from radical reactions (similar to those suggested in ref. [20]) promoted by photo-generated electrons and holes on the gold-titania solids. On the other hand, the small amounts of ethylene detected could be a result of either ethanol dehydration or free radical reactions.

In summary, the results from control experiments indicate that direct photolysis has little influence on the conversion of ethanol, confirming that Au/TiO_2 materials are highly active for the production of (mainly) H_2 by photoreforming, and that the presence of CO_2 has a negative influence on the performance of this process.

2.6. Photoreactions under Simulated Solar Light

The process of ethanol photoreforming presented here would have significant practical interest if it could be carried out under solar radiation as the only energy source. In order to prove the efficiency of this photocatalytic reforming, reactions were carried out under simulated solar light.

The data in Table 3 reveal that H2 is the main gaseous product from simulated solar light irradiations of ethanolic Au/ TiO₂ suspensions under Ar. Minor products were CH₄, CO₂ and C2H4; interestingly, the production of CO is immeasurable (or at trace levels) in most cases. The H2 production rates were in the 5.2-6.2 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ range, that is, between one third and one fifth of those found under Hg lamp illumination. However, the molar (or volume) proportion of H₂ relative to the entirety of gaseous products is still extremely high. The selectivity towards H_2 is > 99.3% (reactions 13 and 14 in Table 3), slightly higher than for UV-richer irradiations. The production yields of CH₄ and C₂H₄ are also significantly lower than those found under Hg lamp light (84% and 76% decreased yields, respectively, for 1.0% Au/TiO₂ suspensions under Ar, reactions 3 and 14 in Table 1 and Table 3). The stoichiometry of the reactive system under simulated solar light is in agreement, as previously hypothesised for UV-richer irradiations, with Equations 12, since acetaldehyde yields match those of H2 within a maximum error of ±10%. It is worth noting that, albeit only modestly, the production of CH₄ and C₂H₄ increased when performing the reactions under CO2 instead of Ar. For example, C_2H_4 was formed at 22 or 11 μ mol g_{cat}^{-1} h⁻¹ rates on 1.0% Au/ TiO2 under CO2 or Ar atmospheres (reactions 16 and 14 in Table 3), respectively.

The above results indicate that an ethanol photoreforming process using solar irradiation as the energy source might be envisaged. Moreover, the somewhat higher H_2 selectivities

Table 3. Product yields for the photocatalytic ethanol reforming under simulated solar light on Au/TiO₂.a)

	Gas	Photocatalyst	Production rate [μmol g _{cat} - 1 h - 1]								
						Liquid phase					
			H ₂	CH ₄	C ₂ H ₄	C ₂ H ₆	C ₃ H ₈	СО	CO ₂	CH ₃ CHO	CH₃COOH
13	Ar	0.45% Au/TiO ₂	5919	13	8	_	-	_	17	6175	-
14	Ar	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	6151	17	11	_	-	_	12	6522	_
15	CO ₂	0.57% Au/TiO ₂	5539	38	25	_	-	-		5317	_
16	CO_2	1.0% Au/TiO ₂	5219	26	22	_	_	1		5843	_

a)Stirred suspensions of the photocatalyst (25 mg) in ethanol (25 mL) were irradiated with simulated solar light (100 mW cm⁻²) under atmospheres of the specified gas (1.4 bar) at 25 °C for 2 h; hyphens denote figures lower than the corresponding detection limits.

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observed as compared to those found for Hg lamp irradiation experiments, represent another important advantage regarding the use of solar light. Such higher selectivities could be due to a lesser extent of ethanol and/or acetaldehyde photolysis yielding, inter alia, CH₄ and CO as undesired gaseous products. Therefore, yield and selectivity may be further optimised by judiciously adjusting irradiation wavelength limits and extending on the systematic exploration of relevant Au/TiO₂ photocatalyst characteristics (e.g. Au loading, Au particle size or TiO₂ crystalline phase composition). Eventually, a high performance continuous process for H₂ production from ethanol under sun light might be designed.

3. Conclusions

Catalysts consisting of gold nanoparticles deposited on the surface of anatase-rich titania (Au/TiO₂), prepared by a simple deposition-precipitation method, proved to be extremely active for the photoreforming of ethanol under UV-rich (Hg lamp) light. The main products of such processes were H₂ in the gas phase and acetaldehyde in the liquid phase, both obtained according to the reaction $CH_3CH_2OH \rightarrow CH_3CHO + H_2$, promoted by the photo-generated electrons and holes on the photocatalysts. Production rates for H_2 were around 30 mmol g_{cat}^{-1} h^{-1} on 1.7% Au/TiO_2 , with a volumetric proportion of H_2 in the mixture of gas phase products exceeding 99%, the remaining components being hydrocarbons, such as CH₄, C₂H₄ or C₂H₆, and minor amounts of CO and CO2. Experiments under simulated solar light revealed that, although at lower yields than under UV irradiation, significant amounts of H₂ (5-6 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹) were also produced by the photoreforming of ethanol. The selectivity towards H₂ was even improved (>99.3%) under simulated solar light, probably because of its lower UV irradiation intensity, and therefore, lesser extent of photolytic reactions. Such results are in agreement with previous reports using Au/TiO2 as photocatalysts for H2 generation under other conditions and hold promise regarding the design of a process by which almost pure H₂ would be produced from a cheap, biomass-derived feedstock, such as ethanol, with the Sun as the only energy source.

4. Experimental Section

Materials: Titanium dioxide (Aeroxide P25) was kindly supplied by Evonik Degussa. Hydrogen tetrachloroaurate(III) hydrate (HAuCl $_4$ ·3H $_2$ O) was supplied by Sigma-Aldrich. Absolute ethanol (Multisolvent HPLC grade) and sulfuric acid (95−97%, synthesis grade) were supplied by Scharlau. Sodium hydroxide (pellets, 98%) was supplied by VWR. Carbon dioxide (≥99.995%) and argon (≥99.995%) were supplied by Abelló Linde.

Photocatalyst Syntheses: The Au/TiO₂ materials were prepared by deposition-precipitation methodologies. For example, to prepare ca. 1.0 g of 1.0% Au/TiO₂, HAuCl₄·3H₂O (19.99 mg) was added to ultrapure (Milli-Q) water (100 mL). The pH was brought to 9.0 by adding the appropriate amount of a 0.2 M aqueous NaOH solution. Once the pH reading had remained stable, TiO₂ (1.0 g) was added under stirring, and then the pH was adjusted to 9.0 again as described above. The obtained suspension was vigorously stirred overnight. The solid was collected by filtration and thoroughly washed with ultrapure (Milli-Q) water. After deposition, gold was thermally reduced by heating the sample at 300 °C under a H₂ atmosphere for 5 h, this process leading to the formation of gold nanoparticles.

Photocatalyst Characterisations: XRD measurements were performed by means of a PANalytical Cubix'Pro diffractometer equipped with an X'Celerator detector and automatic divergence and reception slits using Cu-K $_{\alpha}$ radiation (0.154056 nm). TEM images were taken on a Philips CM-10 instrument at a 100 kV accelerating voltage. Gold contents were determined by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) analyses performed on a Varian 715-ES ICP Optical Emission Spectrometer and by X-ray fluorescence by means of a PANalytical MiniPal4 spectrometer. UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded by diffuse reflectance UV-vis (DRUV-vis) spectroscopy on a Varian Cary 5000 UV-Vis-NIR Spectrophotometer.

Photocatalytic Reactions: In a typical experiment, the photocatalyst powder (25 mg) was suspended in ethanol (25 mL) by sonication for 15 min. The resulting suspension was then transferred to a cylindrical quartz reactor (diameter ≈ 44 mm, volume ≈ 50 mL, equipped with a gas inlet valve, a gas outlet valve and a pressure gauge) and purged with the desired gas (Ar or CO₂, 5 mL min⁻¹ for 15 min, and then pressurizeddepressurised to 1.4 bar for five cycles); the reactor was finally loaded with the desired gas (1.4 bar) and tightly closed. The suspension was stirred (500 min⁻¹) and irradiated with either a medium pressure Hg lamp or a solar simulator. In the case of the Hg lamp (125 W), irradiation was performed from the top at a distance of ca. 6 cm between the light source and the suspension surface for the desired length of time; the reactor vessel was kept in a water bath at ca. 25 °C throughout the experiment. In experiments where simulated solar light (Abet Technologies Sun 2000 Solar Simulator) was used, the suspension was illuminated with a collimated light beam from the top at a distance of ca. 10 cm and the reactor kept in a water bath at 25 °C. After the light had been switched off, the reaction mixtures were stirred until the pressure reading had stabilised. Two different gaseous samples were taken through the outlet valve port: (g1) a 50 μL sample which was injected "on-column" on a gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies 7890A GC System) equipped with a Mol Sieve 5 column (carrier gas: Ar, flow = 5 mL min⁻¹) and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) for the quantification of H2, CH4 and CO; and (g2) a 50 mL sample which was injected on a three-channel chromatograph (Varian 450-GC Rapid Refinery Gas Analyser) equipped with one TCD for the quantification of H_2 (first channel), one TCD for the quantification of CO₂ and CO (second channel), and one flame ionisation detector (FID) for the quantification of CH_4 , C_2H_4 , C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 (third channel); the carrier gases were Ar (first channel) and He (second and third channels). The amounts of H2, CH4 and CO were averaged over the figures obtained by analyses of both gaseous samples (g1 and g2), which agreed within a standard deviation of ca. 4%. Moreover, two different liquid samples, obtained from a centrifuged and decanted aliquot of the final suspension, were analysed as follows: (11) a ca. 0.5 g sample was diluted with ultrapure water (ca. 4.5 g), acidified by addition of a 1.4 M aqueous H₂SO₄ solution (ca. 0.015 g), and analysed by liquid chromatography on a Coregel 87H column (Waters 1525 Binary HPLC Pump, injection volume = 10 μL, column temperature = 70 °C, eluent: 4 mM aqueous H_2SO_4 , flow rate = 0.7 mL min⁻¹) and a refractive index detector (Waters 2410) for the quantification of acetaldehyde and acetic acid; and (12) a liquid sample was injected without any further treatment (actual injection volume = $1 \mu L$) on a gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies 7890A GC System) equipped with a HP-5 column (carrier gas: He, flow rate = 1 mL min⁻¹) and a FID for the quantification of acetaldehyde. The reported amounts of acetaldehyde were averaged over the figures obtained by analyses of both liquid samples (11 and 12), which agreed within a standard deviation of ca. 8%. In some cases, the liquid phases of the final reaction mixtures (after separation of the catalyst) were analysed by ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopies (300.13 MHz and 75.48 MHz, respectively) spectroscopy at 25 °C on a Bruker Avance-300 spectrometer, using dimethyl sulfoxide- d_6 (dmso- d_6) inside a co-axial capillary tube as the reference solvent.

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