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Synergistic Enhancement of H₂ and CH₄ Evolution by CO₂ Photoreduction in Water with Reduced Graphene Oxide–Bismuth Monoxide Quantum Dot Catalyst

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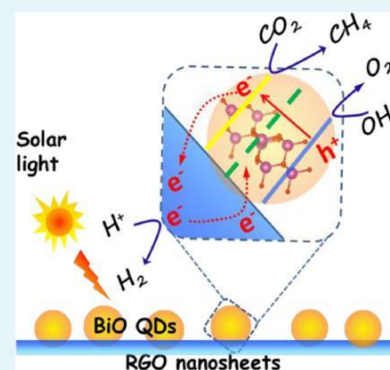
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* Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Photocatalytic water splitting or CO₂ reduction is one of the most promising strategies for solar energy conversion into hydrogen-containing fuels. However, these two processes typically compete with each other, which significantly decreases the solar energy conversion efficiency. Herein, we report for the first time this competition can be overcome by modulation of reactive sites and electron transfer pathway of heterogeneous photocatalysts. As a prototype, BiO composite reduced graphene oxide quantum dots (RGO–BiO QDs) were synthesized, which can provide large amounts of photogenerated electrons as well as individual reactive sites for H⁺ and CO₂ reduction. The productivity of H₂, CH₄, and CO by the RGO–BiO QDs catalyst were 102.5, 21.75, and 4.5 μmol/(g·h), respectively, in pure water without the assistance of any cocatalyst or sacrificial agent. The apparent quantum efficiency at 300 nm reached to 4.2%, which is more than 10 times higher than that of RGO–TiO₂ QDs (0.28%) under the same conditions. In situ DRIFT, ESR, and photoelectrochemical studies confirmed that the unique circled electron transfer pathway ($E_{vb}(\text{BiO}) \rightarrow E_{cb}(\text{BiO}) \rightarrow E_f(\text{RGO}) \rightarrow E_{v0}(\text{BiO})$) and the large amount of separated different reactive sites are responsible for the highly efficient simultaneous H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction performance.

KEYWORDS: carbon dioxide reduction, pure water splitting, photocatalysis, solar energy conversion, oxygen vacancy



INTRODUCTION

Solar energy conversion to chemical fuels by photocatalytic water splitting or CO₂ reduction is a promising strategy to solve the problems of the energy crisis.^{1–4} However, the conversion efficiency by photocatalysis from solar energy to products is still unsatisfactory and requires further increase for commercialization. It is generally recognized that H₂ evolution competes with CO₂ reduction in the photocatalytic process because the reduction of H⁺ to H₂ is kinetically more favorable.^{5–7} Realization of efficient H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction simultaneously on one catalyst is a great challenge. There is no successful report of such up to the present.

Compared with conventional bulk or nanoscale materials, quantum-sized semiconductors have the most potential to realize this target. First, quantum-sized semiconductors have higher surface areas to provide more reactive sites.⁸ The redox potential of photogenerated charge carriers in quantum-sized semiconductors can typically be improved by the quantum confinement effect, which facilitates the photochemical reactions.^{9–11} In addition, multiple exciton generation in quantum-sized semiconductors usually increases the concentration of photogenerated charge carriers compared with that of conventional materials.^{12,13} However, quantum-sized semiconductors also have a disadvantage in that the space charge layers are not effective for the separation of electron–hole

pairs,¹⁴ which is one of the main reasons that quantum-sized semiconductors for efficient water splitting or CO₂ reduction are rarely reported. Besides the charge carrier behavior, the active site is another important factor that influences the photocatalytic activity. Under a high concentration of photogenerated electrons, the catalyst must provide sufficient reactive sites for H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction. It is difficult to construct different active sites in a single catalyst; therefore, the development of a composite photocatalyst with much improved electron–hole separation and multiple diverse reactive sites is highly desirable.

Among the various material options for the preparation of a composite photocatalyst, graphene with a sp²-hybridized two-dimensional carbon structure may be the most appropriate. Graphene composite materials typically exhibit high activity due to much improved electron–hole separation. Many graphene composited materials such as TiO₂,¹⁵ CdS,¹⁶ C₃N₄,¹⁷ Cu₂O,¹⁸ and some perovskite semiconductors¹⁹ have demonstrated improved activity for water splitting or CO₂ reduction.²⁰ However, the state-of-the-art performance of these photocatalysts for H₂ evolution from pure water splitting is

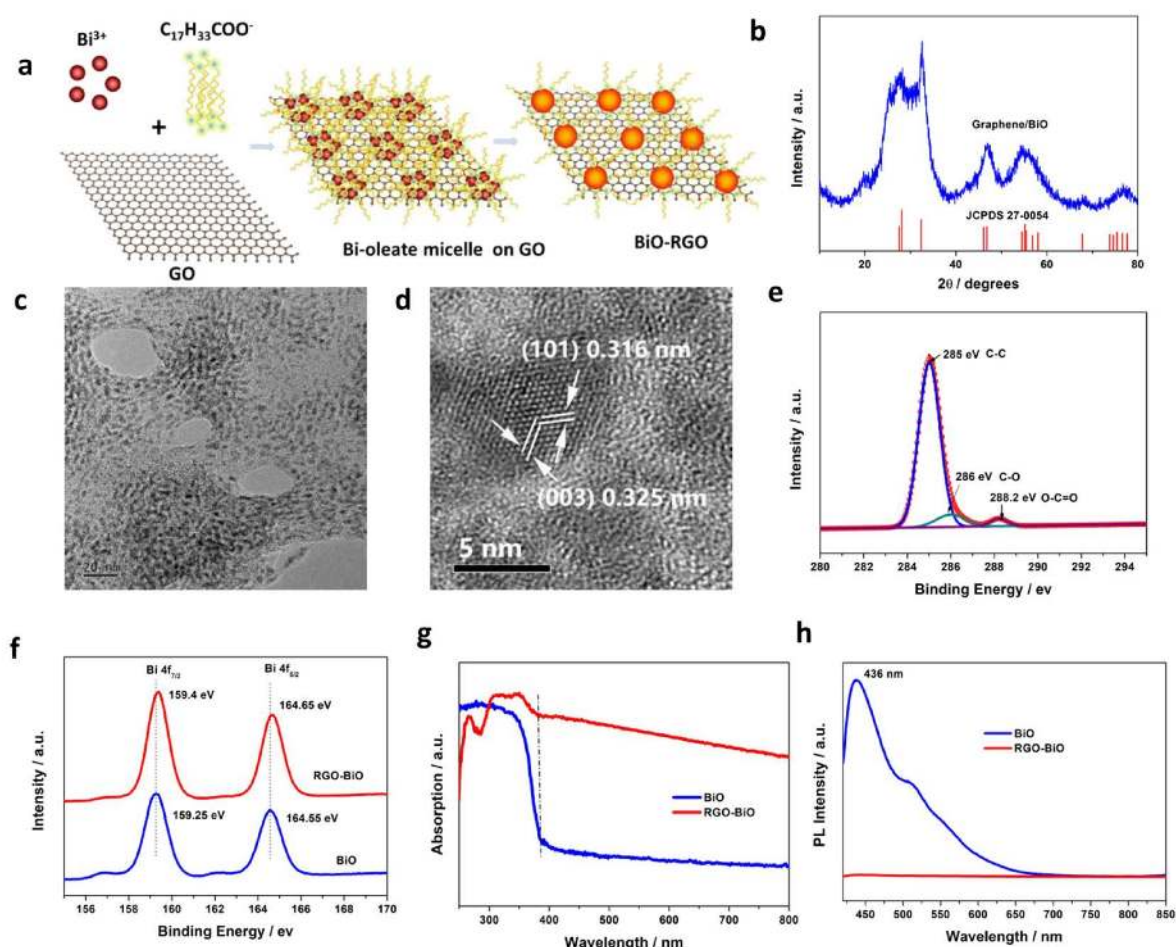


Figure 1. Characterizations for the hydrothermally synthesized RGO-BiO sample. (a) Schematic illustration for in situ growth BiO QDs on RGO nanosheet by the assistant of oleate ions. (b) XRD pattern of the as-prepared RGO-BiO QDs nanocomposite. (c) TEM image of the as-prepared RGO-BiO QDs. (d) HRTEM image of the RGO-BiO QDs. (e) C 1s XPS spectrum for RGO-BiO QDs. (f) Bi 4f XPS spectra for RGO-BiO QDs and pure BiO QDs samples. (g) UV-vis diffuse reflection spectra of the samples. (h) Room temperature PL spectra of RGO-BiO QDs and pure BiO QDs powders excited at 350 nm.

only $\sim 70 \mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}\cdot\text{h})$ under the assistance of Pt in the Z-scheme,²¹ and that for CO₂ reduction is typically below $10 \mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}\cdot\text{h})$ for CH₄ generation,²² which is far lower than that required for practical application. No graphene composite photocatalyst for both improvement of H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction has been developed to date. Recently, Hu et al. reported that protons can be quickly transported in monolayer graphene.²³ This study inspired us to design a graphene composite photocatalyst to separate the reactive sites for H⁺ and CO₂ reduction by modulation of the electron-transfer pathway and reactive sites to realize the synergistic enhancement of H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction to improve the solar energy conversion efficiency. This process also requires a high concentration of photogenerated charge carriers and different separated reactive sites. Fabrication of a graphene composite quantum-sized photocatalyst is highly imperative to achieve synergistic enhancement of H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction target based on the proposed concept.

In this work, nanocomposites of bismuth monoxide quantum dots (BiO QDs) decorated reduced graphene oxide (RGO) nanosheets are constructed for the first time to study the possibility of efficient simultaneous H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction during simulated solar light driven photocatalytic process. We chose BiO catalyst because it has a unique

electronic structure in which lone pair electrons existed around the bivalent bismuth element, providing strong electron donating power for adsorption and activation of insert molecules which has been proved in our previous studies.²⁴ Combining the excellent proton transfer property of RGO and the unique electronic structure of BiO, the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst may realize efficient photocatalytic performance on simultaneous H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction in one catalytic process.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To obtain a tightly composited material, an in situ crystallization process was designed for preparing RGO-BiO QDs composite material by the hydrothermal synthesis approach (Figure 1a; detailed information in the Supporting Information). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the RGO-BiO QDs sample (Figure 1b) can be indexed to the hexagonal phase of BiO [space group R3m (160), JCPDS No. 27-0054] with an average grain size of ca. 2.7 nm based on the Scherrer equation. Besides, the peak around 20.3 is the (002) diffraction peak of RGO. The low-magnification transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image in Figure 1c shows the BiO QDs uniformly spread over the surface of the RGO sheets. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image (Figure 1d) indicates

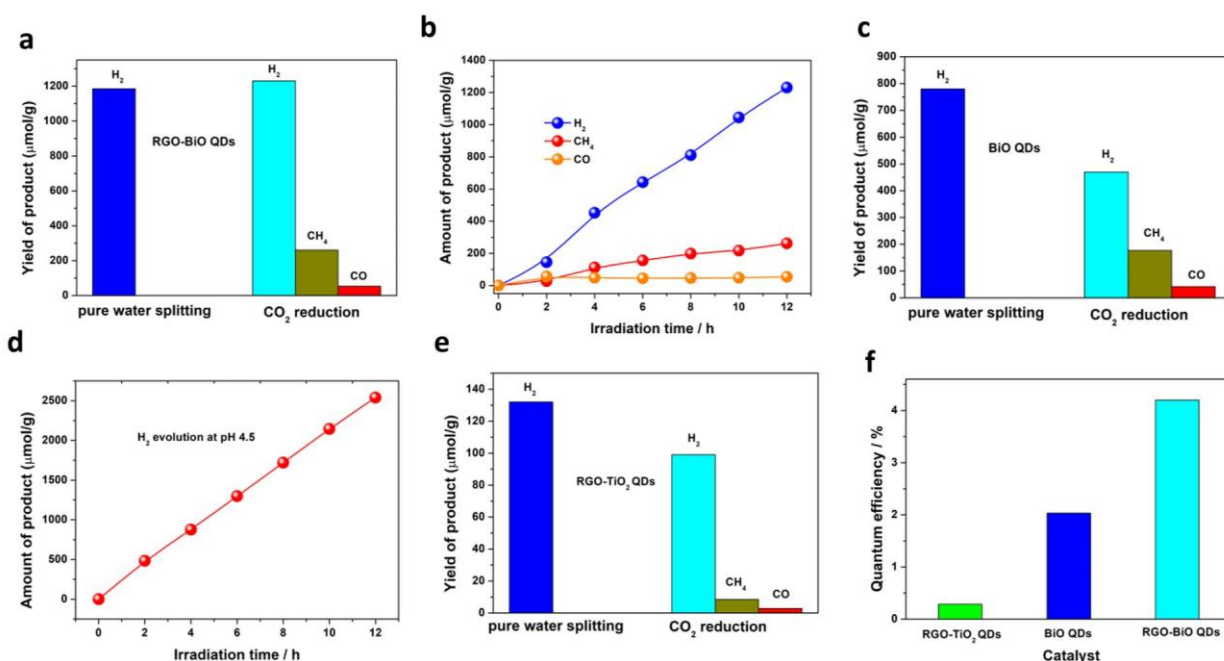


Figure 2. Photocatalytic performances of the as-prepared different samples under simulated solar light irradiation. (a) Photocatalytic performance of RGO-BiO QDs for pure water splitting and CO₂ reduction after 12 h of photocatalytic reaction. (b) H₂, CH₄, and CO evolution from the RGO-BiO catalyst as a function of the irradiation time in the CO₂ reduction experiment. (c) Photocatalytic performance of pure BiO QDs for pure water splitting and CO₂ reduction after 12 h of photocatalytic reaction. (d) H₂ evolution by water splitting over RGO-BiO QDs under acid conditions. (e) Photocatalytic performance of RGO-TiO₂ QDs for pure water splitting and CO₂ reduction after 12 h of photocatalytic reaction. (f) Apparent quantum efficiency of different samples under 300 nm light irradiation.

lattice planes with d-spacings of ca. 0.316 and 0.325 nm, which further confirmed the excellent crystallinity of the BiO QDs. For comparative study, pure BiO QDs were also prepared under the same conditions without the addition of GO. XRD measurement and TEM observation (Figure S1) proved the pure BiO QDs possess a similar grain size and morphology as that anchored on RGO.

To investigate the chemical interaction between the BiO QDs and RGO nanosheets as well as the reduction degree of GO in the hydrothermal process, high resolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were collected. Figure 1e shows the C 1s spectrum for the RGO-BiO QDs nanocomposite, which can be deconvoluted into three smaller peaks: sp²-bonded carbon (C-C, 284.8 eV), epoxy/hydroxyls (C-O, 286.9 eV), and carboxyl (O-C O, 288.7 eV). The reduction degree of GO in RGO-BiO QDs nanocomposite can be quantified by calculating the relative content of carbon in the sample. According to their peak areas, there was 88% graphitic carbon and 12% oxidized carbon in the RGO-BiO QDs, which indicates a high degree of GO reduction after the hydrothermal process. The C 1s and O 1s XPS spectra of pure GO after a similar hydrothermal process without the addition of Bi were also conducted for comparative study. As shown in Figure S2a, the reduction degree of GO can be calculated to be about 85%, which is very close to the value calculated from RGO-BiO sample (88%). Figures S2b-d show the O 1s XPS spectrum of RGO-BiO QDs, pure RGO, and pure BiO QDs, respectively. It was found the peak of O 1s from RGO (531.2, 532.6 eV in Figure S2b) in the RGO-BiO QDs sample shifted to lower binding energy position compared with that in the pure RGO (531.4, 532.8 eV in Figure S2c). On the contrary, the peak of O 1s from BiO (530.1, 531.3 eV in Figure S2b) in the RGO-BiO QDs sample shifted to higher binding energy

position compared with that in the pure BiO (530, 531.2 eV in Figure S2d). Figure 1f shows the Bi 4f XPS spectrum of the pure BiO QDs and RGO-BiO QDs samples. Compared with that in pure BiO, the Bi 4f XPS spectrum of the RGO-BO QDs showed an obvious shift to higher binding energy. All of these XPS spectra indicate a chemical interaction existed between the RGO and BiO QDs by Bi-O bond. This chemical interaction was further proved by Raman spectrum of RGO and RGO-BiO QDs composites. As shown in Figure S3, significant structural changes occurred after the BiO QDs decorated on RGO sheets. In the Raman spectrum of RGO-BiO QDs, both D band and G band of RGO were broadened when compared with that in the pure RGO sample. The G band of RGO in RGO-BiO QDs shifted to 1596 cm⁻¹, while it is located at 1585 cm⁻¹ in pure RGO. As is well-known, the D band response originated from the edges which can be attributed to either defects or the breakdown of translational symmetry, while the G band corresponds to the first-order scattering of the E_{2g} mode of the sp² domain of graphite.^{25,26} The Raman shift of the G band for RGO in RGO-BiO QDs sample provides reliable evidence for the chemical interaction between the RGO plane surface and BiO QDs. Moreover, it was found the relative intensity of the D band compared to the G band in the RGO-BiO QDs sample (ID/IG = 1.44) is very close to that in pure RGO (ID/IG = 1.38), indicating chemical composition with BiO QDs did not obviously increase the defect sites in RGO.

The optical properties of the as-prepared catalyst were studied using UV-vis absorption and photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy. As shown in Figure 1g, the RGO-BiO QDs and pure BiO QDs sample exhibited a similar light absorption band edge. However, an intense background was observed in RGO-BiO QDs sample, which is due to the absorption from

aggregated solid state RGO powder. PL spectroscopy was then employed to examine the fates of photoexcited charge carriers in these photocatalysts. As shown in Figure 1h, supra-band gap irradiation (wavelength = 350 nm) of BiO QDs results in a strong emission of photons at around 436 nm, which is ascribed to either direct band gap or indirect band gap recombination of the photogenerated charge carriers. Under the same conditions, complete PL quenching was observed for the RGO-BiO QDs sample, indicating much improved electron-hole separation in the composite material.

The photocatalytic performance of RGO-BiO QDs sample was investigated by CO₂ reduction and pure water splitting experiments performed in a sealed Pyrex bottle under a 300 W Xe arc lamp irradiation. For CO₂ reduction, the main products are H₂, CH₄, and CO which were detected by gas chromatography. Besides, trace amounts of CH₃CH₂OH and CH₃COOH can also be observed in the reaction solution from ¹H NMR. In this study, we only use the main products to evaluate the photocatalytic performance.

Figure 2a summarizes the amounts of H₂, CH₄, and CO produced after 12 h of photocatalytic reaction for pure water splitting and CO₂ reduction by the RGO-BiO QDs sample. The evolved H₂ and CH₄ in CO₂ reduction experiment by the RGO-BiO QDs sample increased almost linearly with irradiation time (Figure 2b). Besides, it was found the amount of H₂ produced in CO₂ reduction experiment was not decreased and even slightly higher than that from pure water splitting under the same conditions (Figure 1a), indicating a noncompetitive H⁺ and CO₂ reduction process. In the CO₂ reduction experiment on the RGO-BiO QDs sample, the calculated productivity for H₂, CH₄, and CO is 102.5, 21.75, and 4.5 μmol/(g·h), respectively. According to the consumed electrons for H₂, CH₄, and CO generation, the turnover number of the RGO-BiO catalyst in CO₂ reduction experiment is calculated to be 1.05 within 12 h, indicating a catalytic process. O₂ evolution during the photocatalytic water splitting and CO₂ reduction was also tested by the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst, which is about 37 and 84 μmol/(g·h) (Figure S4) for pure water splitting and CO₂ reduction, respectively. Compared with the theoretical value, the slightly lower O₂ evolution amount may be originated from the hole oxidation of surface oleate ions, which will be discussed in detail in the following section.

For comparison, the photocatalytic performance of pure BiO QDs and pure RGO was also investigated under the same conditions. As shown in Figure 2c, H₂ evolution from CO₂ reduction (39 μmol/(g·h)) on pure BiO QDs is obviously decreased when comparing with that from pure water splitting (65 μmol/(g·h)) along with a decreased CH₄ (14.75 μmol/(g·h)) and CO (3.5 μmol/(g·h)) production. This result indicates H⁺ and CO₂ reduction compete with each other on the pure BiO QDs catalyst, which is similar to most of the previously reported photocatalysts. There is no H₂ and CH₄ product that can be detected by using pure RGO as catalyst under the same photocatalytic conditions.

The noncompetitive water splitting and CO₂ reduction performance of RGO-BiO QDs catalyst demonstrated at least two important points. One is that the quantity of the photogenerated electrons in RGO-BiO QDs sample is much higher than the H⁺ concentration in the pure water splitting reaction solution. To prove this, we conducted a H₂ evolution experiment in an acid condition (pH 4.5) in an Ar-saturated reaction cell. It was found H₂ evolution over the RGO-BiO

QDs catalyst increased linearly with the irradiation time and reached a high productivity of 2540 μmol/g within 12 h (Figure 2d), indicating the high concentration of photo-generated electrons in the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst. Another important point revealed from the photocatalytic results of RGO-BiO QDs sample is that the main reactive sites for H⁺ and CO₂ reduction may be separated because the H₂ evolution efficiency is not affected in CO₂ reduction experiment.

We investigated whether the noncompetitive water splitting and CO₂ reduction process is general in RGO composited semiconductor quantum dots catalyst. TiO₂ quantum dots decorated RGO nanosheets were also prepared for comparative study. Figure S5 shows the TEM image of our prepared RGO-TiO₂ QDs catalyst, from which one can see that the TiO₂ quantum dots with an average size of 3–6 nm were uniformly dispersed on RGO sheets. The photocatalytic performances of the RGO-TiO₂ QDs catalyst for pure water splitting and CO₂ reduction are summarized in Figure 2e, from which one can see H₂ evolution and CO₂ reduction also competed with each other in the RGO-TiO₂ QDs catalyst. Besides, it was found the selectivity of the photogenerated electrons for CO₂ reduction is severely decreased to 27%. This value is 47% in the RGO-BiO QDs sample under the same conditions. The apparent quantum efficiencies of the different photocatalysts for CO₂ reduction were also detected under a 300 nm band filter, which is 4.2%, 2%, and 0.28% (Figure 2f) for RGO-BiO QDs, BiO QDs, and RGO-TiO₂ QDs sample, respectively.

To confirm that the produced CH₄ in RGO-BiO QDs catalyst indeed come from CO₂ reduction rather than from oleate contaminants or RGO, we performed two parallel experiments. First, we measured the blank photocatalytic experiment in an Ar atmosphere over RGO-BiO QDs catalyst without using CO₂ under the same conditions. After irradiation for 12 h, no CH₄ was detected. After that, we performed an isotopic experiment with ¹³CO₂ as the initial reactant under the same photocatalytic reaction conditions. The resultant photocatalytic products were detected by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Because of the relatively low concentration of CO in the final product, only the ¹³CH₄ peak was observed in GC-MS. In the mass spectrum extracted from GC-MS analysis (Figure S6), the molecular ion peak with an m/z value of 17 is attributed to ¹³CH₄. These studies clearly show that the CH₄ product indeed comes from CO₂ reduction.

To investigate the photostability of the RGO-BiO QDs sample for CO₂ reduction, we conducted the CO₂ reduction experiment in a prolonged irradiation time. The reaction vessel filled with pure CO₂ was initially irradiated for 12 h at 4 °C and then opened under the same temperature in air. After 5 min, the reaction vessel was closed, refilled with pure CO₂, and continued to be irradiated under a Xe arc lamp at 4 °C. This process was repeated four times. The obtained photocatalytic performance is shown in Figure S7a. From Figure S7a, it can be seen that H₂ evolution rate is well maintained within the first two cycles and decreased from the third cycle. However, the CH₄ evolution rate gradually decreased from the first to the fourth cycle. The decreased H₂ and CH₄ evolution rates were ascribed to the formation of the (BiO)₂CO₃ species (Figure S7b) on the catalyst surface. Along with the formation of (BiO)₂CO₃, the QD particles were grown and connected with each other on the RGO sheets (Figure S8). The formation of (BiO)₂CO₃ species may be ascribed to the elimination of surface oleate ions during the photocatalytic process. The

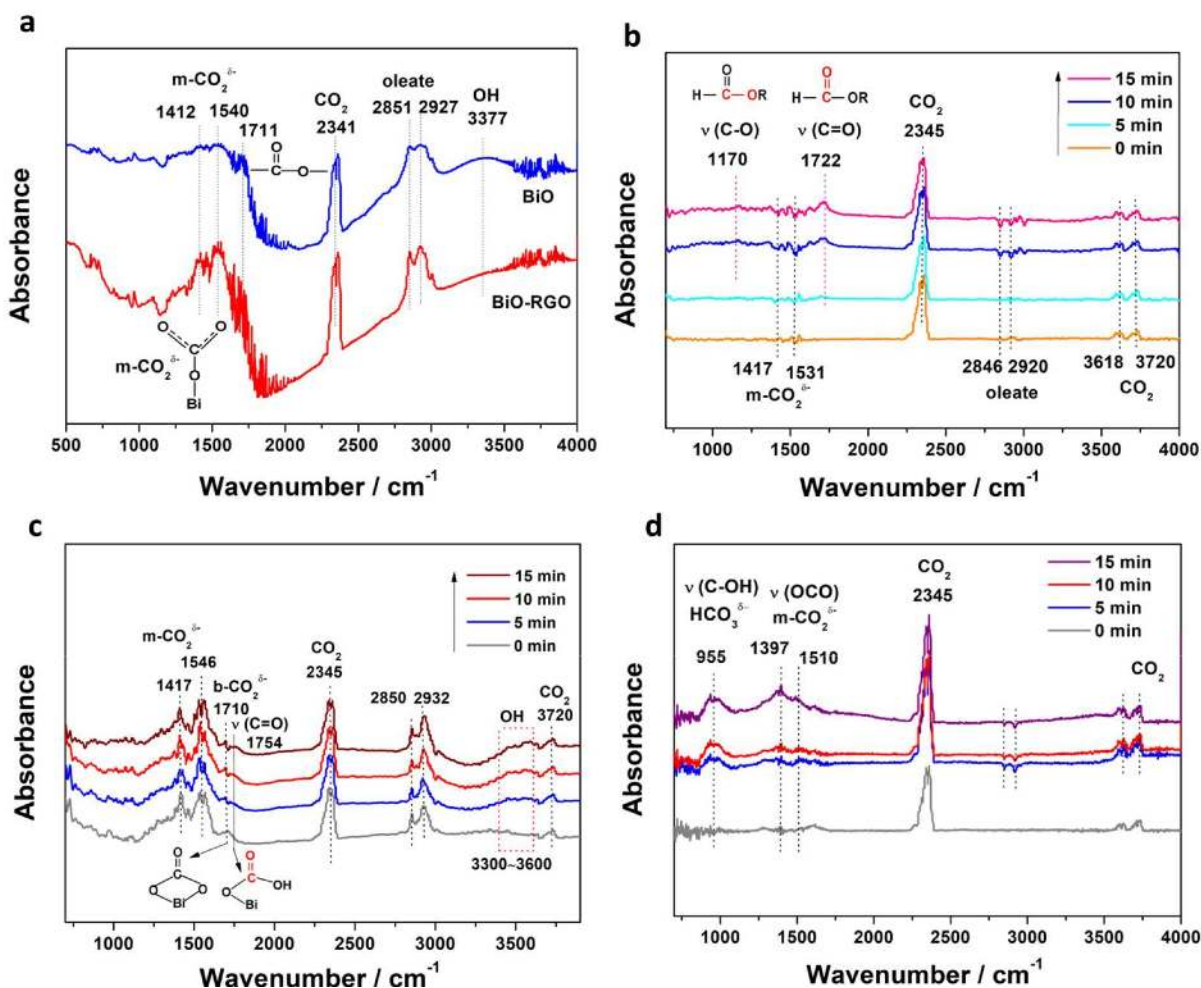


Figure 3. CO₂ adsorption and activation on different samples revealed by DRIFT. (a) DRIFT spectra of the RGO-BiO QDs and pure BiO QDs sample under vacuum in the dark. (b) In situ DRIFT spectra recorded after ambient temperature adsorption of CO₂/H₂O on RGO-BiO QDs under 300 W Xe arc lamp irradiation. (c) In situ DRIFT spectra recorded after ambient temperature adsorption of CO₂/H₂O on pure BiO QDs under 300 W Xe arc lamp irradiation. (d) In situ DRIFT spectra recorded after ambient temperature adsorption of CO₂/H₂O on commercial Bi₂O₃ under 300 W Xe arc lamp irradiation.

RGO-BiO QDs surface is protected by a large amount of oleate ions initially. During a photocatalytic process, these oleate ions were gradually oxidized by photogenerated holes [BiO(h⁺)] under light irradiation, which is confirmed by DRIFT of the RGO-BiO sample before and after photocatalytic reaction (Figure S9). Because of high concentration of CO₃²⁻ ions in the reaction solution, once there is not enough oleate ions protecting the surface, CO₃²⁻ ions will react with BiO (h⁺) immediately to form (BiO)₂CO₃ species on the catalyst surface. CO₃²⁻ corrosion and passivation is a general problem for metal oxide catalyst in CO₂ or O₂ reduction process which requires further studies in the future.

The main interesting question raised in this research is why the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst exhibits synergistic enhancement of H₂ and CH₄ evolution in CO₂ reduction. To investigate the mechanism, CO₂ adsorption and activation process on the as-prepared catalyst were studied using in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFT). Before introducing CO₂, DRIFT spectra for BiO QDs and RGO-BiO QDs catalysts in the vacuum state were analyzed at first. Figure 3a shows the RGO-BiO QDs and pure BiO QDs catalysts have a similar DRIFT spectrum on CO₂ adsorption, indicating that CO₂ molecules may be mainly adsorbed on the BiO surface in

the RGO-BiO catalyst. A characteristic absorption band of linear CO₂ was observed at 2341 cm⁻¹ on both pure BiO and RGO-BiO catalyst, which corresponds to the asymmetrical stretching vibration of CO₂. This CO₂ absorption peak in the vacuum state is ascribed to the preadsorbed CO₂ in air which is difficult to be desorbed only under the vacuum state at room temperature. Different from gas-phase CO₂, the flexural vibration peak (666 cm⁻¹) of adsorbed CO₂ almost disappeared (Figure 3a), along with the appearance of three new absorption bands around ~1412, 1540, and 1711 cm⁻¹. The absorption bands around ~1412 and ~1540 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the symmetric stretching and asymmetric OCO stretching modes of monodentate carbonate species, m-CO₂^{δ-}, the carbon atoms of which interact with the surface oxygen of the catalyst.²⁷⁻²⁹ The absorption band at ~1711 cm⁻¹ is caused by the C O stretching vibration from an OCOOR (where R represents a Bi atom) bidentate carbonate (b-CO₂^{δ-}) species.^{30,31} The absorption bands around 2851 and 2972 cm⁻¹ come from surface residual oleate ions. Compared with the RGO-BiO QDs sample, a broad absorption band around 3377 cm⁻¹ was also observed for the pure BiO QDs sample, which is ascribed to the O-H stretching vibration.⁶ This indicates that the surface of the pure BiO QDs sample is

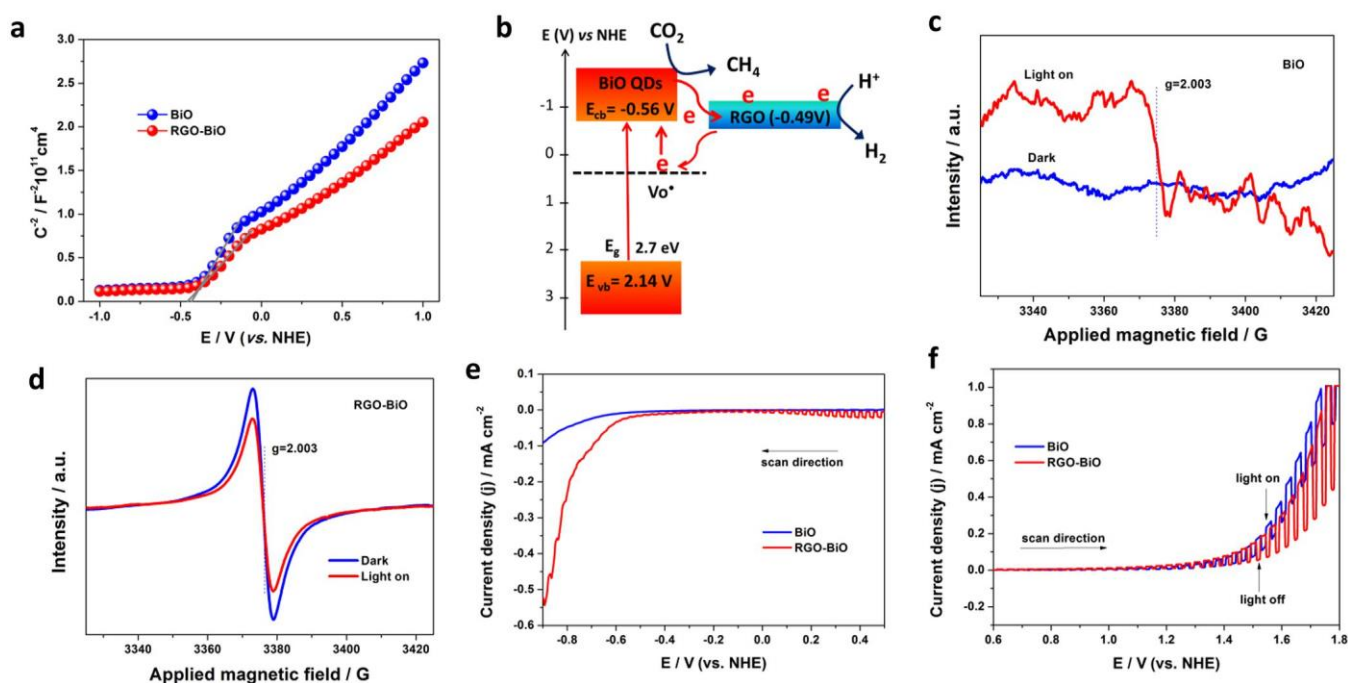


Figure 4. Possible electron transfer pathway and improved electron concentration in RGO-BiO QDs investigated by ESR and electrochemical measurement. (a) Mott-Schottky plots of the as-prepared RGO-BiO QDs and BiO QDs electrodes in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄. (b) Schematic energy level diagram and electron transfer pathway in RGO-BiO QDs composite for CO₂ and H⁺ reduction. (c) ESR spectrum of pure BiO QDs with and without light irradiation at 165 K in N₂. (d) ESR spectrum of RGO-BiO QDs nanocomposite with and without light irradiation at 165 K in N₂. (e) Cathodic current-potential scans of the synthesized samples in 0.1 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄ under 300 W chopped Xe arc lamp irradiation. (f) Anodic current-potential scans of the synthesized samples in 0.1 mol L⁻¹ Na₂SO₄ under 300 W chopped Xe arc lamp irradiation.

more hydrophilic than the RGO-BiO QDs composite. There is no characteristic DRIFT absorption band observed for RGO in the RGO-BiO QDs sample because the C-C vibration (1590–1620 cm⁻¹) was overlapped by the strong absorption from CO₂^{δ-} carbonate species (1420–1700 cm⁻¹).^{27,32}

To further investigate the CO₂ reduction process on the catalyst surface, in situ DRIFT measurement was conducted after exposing the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst to CO₂/H₂O mixed gas at room temperature under 300 W Xe arc lamp irradiation. As shown in Figure 3b, the DRIFT absorption from m-CO₂^{δ-} on the RGO-BiO QDs sample was gradually decreased under light irradiation. Two new absorption bands appeared at around 1170 and 1722 cm⁻¹, which correspond to the stretching vibrations of C-O and C=O in the HCOOR species, respectively.^{33,34} This suggests that m-CO₂^{δ-} species on the RGO-BiO QDs surface were hydrogenated into HCOOR (R = H or Bi) intermediate species under light irradiation, which are then transformed into CO or CH₄ in the subsequent photocatalytic processes. Different from the RGO-BiO sample, the m-CO₂^{δ-} species did not contribute significantly to the final CO₂ reduction performance of pure BiO sample. After introducing CO₂/H₂O molecules on the DRIFT cell, although two increased absorption bands from m-CO₂^{δ-} were clearly observed on the BiO QDs surface, their absorption intensities were almost unchanged after light irradiation, indicating the m-CO₂^{δ-} species is difficult to be further reduced by the pure BiO QDs catalyst. On the contrary, the OCOOR b-CO₂^{δ-} species on the pure BiO catalyst surface were found obviously decreased and transformed into OCOOH under light irradiation (Figure 3c). Therefore, the final CH₄ product from pure BiO QDs comes from the reduction of the OCOOH intermediate. Besides, a broad absorption band around 3300–3600 cm⁻¹ appeared on

the pure BiO QDs surface after light irradiation, which corresponds to the stretching vibration of O-H. This OH group originated from water dissociation on the pure BiO QDs surface. The increased absorption band of the OH group was not observed in the RGO-BiO sample from the DRIFT spectrum after light irradiation, further proved the reactive site for water splitting by RGO-BiO is on RGO. In situ DRIFT measurement of a commercial Bi₂O₃ photocatalyst was also conducted under the same conditions for comparison. Figure 3d shows that although the m-CO₂^{δ-} and HCO₃^{δ-} species were increased under light irradiation on the Bi₂O₃ surface, these species were not further transformed with the prolonged irradiation time. In addition, no CH₄ or CO products from CO₂ reduction over commercial Bi₂O₃ were observed under the same photocatalytic conditions, which further demonstrates the importance of the active sites in the BiO catalyst for CO₂ adsorption and activation.

Besides the excellent CO₂ activation on BiO surface in the RGO-BiO composite, another reason for the synergistic enhancement of H₂ and CH₄ evolution by the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst may be ascribed to a unique electron transfer pathway between BiO and RGO under light irradiation, which finally separates the main reactive sites for H⁺ and CO₂ reduction. To investigate the possible electron transfer pathway in the RGO-BiO QDs composite material, electrochemical measurements were conducted on different catalyst films.

Figure 4a shows the Mott-Schottky spectrum of the as-prepared RGO-BiO QDs and BiO QDs samples, which is usually used for the analysis of the flat band potential (E_{fb}) of semiconductor electrodes. The E_{fb} value calculated from the intercept of the axis with potential values was at -0.46 and -0.43 V vs NHE for RGO-BiO QDs and BiO QDs,

respectively. For many n-type semiconductors, E_{fb} is considered to be about 0.1 V below the conduction band (E_{cb}).³⁵ Based on this, the estimated E_{cb} value of the RGO-BiO QDs and BiO QDs samples were -0.56 and -0.53 V vs NHE at pH 7. Previous studies have reported the Fermi level (E_f) of graphene was around -0.49 V vs NHE at pH 7.³⁶ Because of the lower energy level of $E_f(\text{RGO})$, electron transfer will occur from BiO to graphene when they are in contact under light irradiation (Figure 4b). This electron transfer process was experimentally monitored using the electron spin resonance (ESR) spectrum in this study. Before analyzing the ESR spectrum, it is worth noting that ESR can only detect unpaired electrons. Therefore, intrinsic $\text{Vo}^{\bullet\bullet}$ in pure BiO QDs are nonresponsive in ESR (Figure 4c). Under light ($\lambda = 380$ nm) irradiation, electrons were excited from E_{vb} to E_{cb} or $E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}$. Meanwhile, some of the electrons in E_{cb} can hop to the lower $E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}$ band. Both of the E_{cb} to $E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}$ or E_{vb} to $E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}$ electron transfer process under light irradiation can generate single-electron-trapped oxygen vacancy (Vo^\bullet , effective charge +1).³⁷ The observed increased Vo^\bullet signal ($g = 2.003$) in the ESR spectrum (Figure 4c) under light irradiation confirmed this electron transfer process. Different from the pure BiO QDs catalyst, the RGO-BiO QDs sample exhibited an intense intrinsic single-electron-trapped Vo^\bullet signal before light irradiation (Figure 4d). These Vo trapped electrons may be ascribed to π -electron injection from RGO during the material preparation process. After irradiation under monochromatic light ($\lambda = 380$ nm) for 1 min, the Vo^\bullet signal in the RGO-BiO QDs sample dramatically decreased (Figure 4d) due to the formation of double-electron-trapped oxygen vacancies ($\text{Vo}^{\bullet\bullet}$, effective charge 0). Considering the Vo^\bullet energy position (usually 0.75 eV upward toward the E_{cb}),³⁷ Vo^\bullet trapped electrons are possibly transferred from E_{cb}/E_{vb} of BiO QDs or RGO. Figure 4c indicates there is only a small enhancement of Vo^\bullet signal by the electron transfer from E_{cb} or E_{vb} to $E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}$ in pure BiO QDs sample under light irradiation. Therefore, the much decreased Vo^\bullet signal (60 times higher than that increased in Figure 4c under light) in RGO-BiO QDs sample under light irradiation mainly comes from the electron transfer from RGO to Vo^\bullet (BiO). Compared with electron transfer from semiconductor to RGO, back electron transfer from RGO to semiconductor was rarely reported because of the lack of energy levels for electron acceptance in ordinary semiconductors. Here, the large amount of Vo^\bullet in BiO provides the possibility of electron transfer via $E_{vb}(\text{BiO}) \rightarrow E_{cb}(\text{BiO}) \rightarrow E_f(\text{RGO}) \rightarrow E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}(\text{BiO})$ (as shown in Figure 4b). Along this electron transfer pathway, CO_2 and H^+ reduction successively occurred on BiO and RGO surface, respectively. This conclusion can be proved by in situ DRIFT and electron chemical study. As mentioned above, the in situ DRIFT spectrum (Figure 3) has confirmed CO_2 reduction and water splitting process mainly proceed on the BiO QDs and RGO surface, respectively, in the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst. To further study the H^+ reduction kinetics, electrochemical measurement was conducted on BiO QDs and RGO-BiO QDs electrode. Figure 4e shows cathodic I-V curves of the different samples under chopped light irradiation in 0.1 M Na_2SO_4 (saturated by N_2). It was found the overpotential for water reduction on RGO-BiO QDs nanocomposite (-0.57 V vs NHE) under light irradiation decreased much compared with that on pure BiO QDs (-0.74 V vs NHE), which confirmed H^+ reduction proceeds more easily on RGO composited material because of the lower activation barrier for electron transfer from RGO to

H^+ . Besides, it was found both the photocathode (Figure 4e) and photoanode current density (Figure 4f) of the RGO-BiO QDs are almost 4–5 times higher than that of BiO QDs sample under the same voltage, proving the high concentration of photogenerated electrons in the RGO-BiO QDs sample.

Based on the above studies, the photocatalytic process of the BiO QDs and RGO-BiO QDs catalyst is illustrated in Figure S10 to show why the RGO-BiO QDs catalyst can realize highly efficient H_2 evolution and CO_2 reduction simultaneously. As shown in Figure S10a, upon solar light irradiation, electrons excited from E_{vb} to E_{cb} of BiO QDs catalyst. These E_{cb} electrons can transfer to the surface adsorbed $\text{m-CO}_2^{\delta-}$ species to form HCOOR ($\text{R} = \text{H}$ or Bi) intermediates for CO_2 reduction. Meanwhile, a considerable amount of photo-generated electrons in E_{cb} of RGO-BiO QDs transferred to the RGO sheet due to its lower E_f level. Because of the excellent electron/proton transfer property of RGO and the lower activation barrier of electron transfer from RGO to H^+ (Figure 4e), H_2 evolution from H^+ reduction preferentially proceeds on the RGO surface. H_2 evolution experiment under acidic conditions has confirmed that the quantity of photo-generated electrons in RGO-BiO QDs catalyst is sufficiently high for driving both H^+ and CO_2 reduction in pure water. Therefore, a considerable amount of electrons can transfer back to Vo^\bullet active sites on BiO QDs surface after H^+ reduction. This electron back transfer can increase the electron concentration for CO_2 reduction on BiO QDs surface and then increase the CO_2 reduction selectivity. These advantages of RGO-BiO QDs catalyst lead to the rarely observed synergistic enhancement of H_2 and CH_4 evolution in CO_2 photoreduction experiment. For pure BiO QDs catalyst, H^+ and CO_2 reduction competed on BiO surface (Figure S10b), exhibiting a relatively low H_2 evolution rate in the presence of CO_2 .

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, synergistic enhancement of H_2 evolution and CO_2 reduction was realized for the first time by modulation of the reactive sites and electron transfer pathway of a heterogeneous photocatalyst. For RGO-BiO QDs nanocomposite catalyst as an example, the photocatalytic productivity of H_2 , CH_4 and CO from CO_2 reduction in pure water was up to 102.5, 21.75, and 4.5 $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}\cdot\text{h})$, respectively, without the assistant of noble metals or any sacrificial agent. The amount of H_2 obtained in CO_2 reduction was even slightly higher than that from pure water splitting. In situ DRIFT, ESR, and photoelectrochemical measurements confirmed that the highly efficient simultaneous H_2 evolution and CO_2 reduction performance was attributed to the high concentration of photogenerated electrons, separated individual reactive sites as well as a unique circled electron transfer pathway $E_{vb}(\text{BiO}) \rightarrow E_{cb}(\text{BiO}) \rightarrow E_f(\text{RGO}) \rightarrow E_{V_o^{\bullet\bullet}}(\text{BiO})$. This study not only provides a new strategy for the development of superior heterogeneous photocatalysts for synergistic enhancement of H_2 and CH_4 evolution but also gives a deeper insight into understanding of mechanism for CO_2 reduction and water splitting.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

RGO-BiO QDs and pure BiO QDs. RGO-BiO QDs were prepared by the successive addition of sodium oleate (2.2 mmol) and $\text{Bi}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.4 mmol) to distilled water (20 mL). After vigorous stirring for 40 min, 5 mL of 1 g/L graphene oxide (GO) solution was added to the mixture. Before the suspension was transferred to a 50 mL

Teflon-lined autoclave, the volume of the precursor suspension was adjusted to 40 mL with additional distilled water. The sealed reaction system was heated at 150 °C for 16 h. The system was then allowed to cool to room temperature. The solid product obtained was collected by centrifugation, washed with absolute ethanol three times, and then freeze-dried for further characterization. For comparison, a pure BiO QDs sample was prepared without addition of the GO solution to the reaction system. The obtained precursor suspension was sealed in a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave up to 80% of the total volume and then heated at 140 °C for 16 h.

For comparison, TiO₂ quantum dots decorated RGO sheets were also prepared by hydrothermal synthesis according to a previous report.³⁸

Characterization. The purity and the crystallinity of the as-prepared samples were characterized using powder X-ray diffraction (XRD; Rigaku RINT2500HLR+) with Cu K α radiation at 40 kV and 80 mA. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analyses were performed using a JEOL JEM-2100F field emission TEM. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed by irradiation of the sample with a 320 μ m diameter spot of monochromated aluminum K α X-rays at 1486.6 eV under ultrahigh-vacuum conditions (Ulvac Phi PHI5000VersaProbe). UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectrum spectroscopy (DRS) of the sample was measured using a Shimadzu UV-3600 UV-vis-NIR spectrophotometer. Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured with a Hitachi F-7000 fluorescence spectrophotometer at room temperature in air. Raman spectra were recorded on a Renishaw inVia Raman Microscope RE04 equipped with a 514 nm laser and a CCD camera. The Si peak at 520 cm⁻¹ was used as a reference to calibrate the wavenumber. In situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFT) measurements were performed on a Nicolet 8700 FTIR spectrometer using a KBr window. Prior to measurement, the catalyst powder was placed in the cell and evacuated at room temperature for 5 min. Electron spin resonance (ESR) spectra were recorded at 165 K in N₂ on a Bruker EMX 8/2.7 X-band spectrometer operated under 100 kHz modulation frequency. ¹³C-labeled products were analyzed with GC-MS by a Shimadzu GCMS-QP2010 with thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

Photocatalytic Test. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction experiments were performed under a 300 W Xe arc lamp placed ~10 cm from the sample. The reaction cell (capacity 600 mL) was made of Pyrex glass with a quartz window on top. A typical procedure involved 0.01 g of the as-prepared photocatalyst powder being dispersed in 100 mL of deionized water and then stirred under light irradiation. Before irradiation of the sample, high-purity CO₂ gas was slowly bubbled through the reaction vessel for 10 min. The reaction vessel was then sealed and irradiated under the Xe lamp. During the photocatalytic tests, the temperature of the reaction vessel was maintained at 4 °C by a flow of cooling water. For the water splitting experiment, pure Ar gas was slowly bubbled through the reaction vessel containing 0.01 g of catalyst and 100 mL of water for 30 min before light irradiation. The concentrations of H₂ and O₂ were determined by an online gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD; Ar carrier gas). The concentrations of CH₄ and CO were measured with another gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID; Ar carrier gas) and a catalytic conversion furnace.

The apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction was measured under the same photocatalytic reaction conditions by using 0.05 g of catalyst in 100 mL of water under a 300 nm band filter. AQE was calculated according to the following equations:

$$\text{AQE}\% = \frac{\text{no. of reacted electrons} \times 100\% \text{ no. of incident photons}}{2 \cdot \text{no. of evolved H}_2 + 8 \cdot \text{no. of evolved CH}_4 + 2 \cdot \text{no. of evolved CO}} = \frac{\text{no. of incident photons}}{\text{no. of incident photons}} \times 100\%$$

The measurements of the number of incident photons were performed by using a calibrated silicon photodiode.

Electrochemical Measurements. Electrochemical measurements were performed on a Hokuto Denko HZ-7000 electrochemical workstation using a standard three-electrode cell with a working electrode, a platinum counter electrode, and a standard Ag/AgCl reference electrode. The working electrodes were prepared by dip coating. Briefly, 10 mg of photocatalyst was suspended in 0.15 mL of ethanol in the presence of 1% Nafion to produce a slurry, which was then dip-coated onto a 2 cm \times 1.5 cm fluorine ton oxide (FTO) glass electrode and dried at 25 °C. A 300 W Xe-arc lamp was employed as a light source.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

* Supporting Information

Detailed growth process of RGO-BiO QDs, TEM image of RGO-TiO₂ QDs, additional TEM images and XRD patterns, fluorescence lifetimes, O₂ evolution plot, GC-MS analysis of ¹³C labeled product, photostability, in situ DRIFT spectra of CO₂ reduction on Bi₂O₃, and proposed photocatalytic process (PDF)

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