

Review of Material Design various Graphene based Semiconductors Photocatalysis for CO₂ Reduction

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Abstract: In recent times, immoderate consumption of fossil fuel and depletion of existing resources is concentrate the research and development of substitute future energy options that can directly diminish and process ever-increasing carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions. Since CO₂ is a thermodynamically stable compound, its reduction must not dissipate additional energy or increase net CO₂ emissions. Renewable sources like solar energy provide freely available and continuous light supply required for driving this conversion process. Hence, the use of solar energy to drive CO₂ photocatalytic reactions concurrently addresses the above mention challenges, while producing feasible fuels or chemicals applicable for use in existing energy framework. Recent progress in this area has focused on the development (fabricate and design) of new materials for CO₂ reduction purification technologies to keep the environment safe and secure. Moreover also highlight various CO₂ reduction/purification catalyst materials used in recent advanced technologies.

Keywords: CO₂ Photoreduction, Photocatalysis, Graphene, UV/Vis Light, Artificial photosynthesis

1. Introduction

Recently, the expanding CO₂ concentration in the air due to the continually developing utilization of non-renewable energy sources has caused inconvenient ecological contamination [1-5]. Yearly CO₂ emission relentlessly expanded in recent years due to the vast consumption of the fossil fuels. Since the gathering of CO₂ can trap heat in the air, it is not astound that the average worldwide surface temperature on this planet simultaneously increased with the CO₂ emission in recent years [6-8]. Consequently, searching for sustainable and environmentally friendly energy resources has turned out to be an urgent task for the long-term development of human society [9-15]. It is assessed that the CO₂ focus in the air rises each year at a rate higher than 2% and subsequently, the normal temperature on the Earth's surface has expanded around 0.4–0.8 æ% C over the last century. It is anticipated that the worldwide temperature may ascend by 1.9 æ% C and that the level of CO₂ may move to 590 ppm. A worldwide temperature alteration

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causes the dissolving of the ice at the poles, the expansion of the seas and the loss of expansive ice amounts from Greenland and Antarctica which cause an increment of the ocean level. The extraordinary meteorological wonders (strange winds, aridity, floods) constitute some additional results of the Greenhouse impact. For instance, a reduction in precipitation in certain area may decrease the required water supplies for peoples, biological systems, and agriculture. The improved precipitation in different regions constitutes an additional troubling factor. Furthermore, the most recent 25 years the expansion in CO₂ concentration is remarkable and may prompt a conceivable change of the radiative balance on the planet. Besides, CO₂ positively is an essential gas in the environment because it takes parts in the Carbon cycle as a carbon source [16-19]. So as to accomplish the lessening in the CO₂ concentration in the environment, the carbon dioxide neutral cycle, ought to be completed. A few factors are essential for the continuation of this cycle, for example, the recycling of CO₂ after the fuel's ignition, the utilization of renewable energy (wind energy, solar energy and so on) [20]. In this regard, one almost infinite natural energy resource is sunlight reaching the Earth's crust [21]. Since the solar energy is considered as one of the boundless and environmentally green energy sources, much consideration has been paid to the change of approaching sunlight based energy into important valuable solar fuels [22-27]. Among different potential outcomes, photocatalytic CO₂ reduction into solar fuels such as, CH₄, HCO₂H, CH₂O, and CH₃OH has been known as a standout amongst the most encouraging innovations since it can simultaneously produce useful solar fuels and impersonate the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere [28-33]. Inoue et al. reported that the photo-reduction of CO₂ with H₂O can result in several products including HCOOH, HCHO, CH₃OH, and CH₄ [34]. However, proper attention is needed to design and develop efficient photocatalytic systems to reduce CO₂ and convert it into useful products [35-37]. Several semiconductor photocatalysts have been used to reduce CO₂. For example, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has been considered as one of the most favorable photocatalysts due to its chemical stability, non-toxicity, low cost, and superior activity [10, 38, 39]. TiO₂ has several crystal phases in addition to an amorphous phase. However, for photocatalysis, it has been observed that anatase is the most dynamic form of TiO₂. The presence of defects in the crystal structure is unfavorable for the photocatalytic activity, due to defects; amorphous titania is always considerably much less photocatalytic efficiency. When prepared by sol-gel at normal temperatures, amorphous titania is the first material achieved, but raising temperature below 350 C increases significantly the crystallinity of the solid towards the thermodynamically more stable anatase phase. This phase transition results in a considerable increase in photocatalytic activity. And further increasing temperature (greater than 350 C) converts anatase into rutile. Although rutile is also a semiconductor and has somewhat smaller bandgap with an absorption tail into the visible region, the photocatalytic activity of this titania crystal phase is generally lower than that of anatase. And much higher temperatures result in the formation of brookite that is totally inactive from the photocatalytically point of view. Therefore many investigate endeavors have been performed in understanding the fundamental process and in improving the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂. Such studies are frequently related to energy renewal and energy storage. Application to

environmental cleanup has been one of the most convenient ways on photo catalysis[40]. However, the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO₂ is limited by its band gap and rapid charge carrier recombination dynamics [39, 41]. Therefore, some modifications can be carried out to improve the efficiency of TiO₂, such as doping TiO₂ with metals [42, 43] or nonmetals [44, 45] and coupling TiO₂ with narrow band gap semiconductors [46, 47]. Graphene, a carbon nanomaterial [36].

2. Graphene

Graphene, basically single layer carbon 2D nanosheet with hexagonal packed lattice structure material, occurring in graphite intercalation compound. In the initial step these intercalated layers has been isolated through synthetic oxidation amid the compound combination. Graphene, basically characterize as a disconnected single layer of carbon hexagon consist of sp² hybridized C-C holding with conjugated π electron cloud. The graphene'' initially proposed by in 1986 as a separated single 2D sheet of carbon atom has gotten awesome arrangement of consideration in logical and building fields since its leap forward disclosure by Geim and Novoselov in 2004[48-52]. Graphene has promising candidate for photo catalytic CO₂ reduction due to their unique properties, such as large surface area, good conductivity, and high flexibility[53, 54]. Therefore, the coupling of graphene with the photocatalyst has offered incredible open doors for moving forward photocatalytic CO₂ decrease productivity to meet the practical requirements

Liang *et al.* observed that , coupling of graphene with semiconductor has been known as one of the most viable approach to enhance the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity [55]. It was found that graphene nanosheet can greatly improve the electron-hole separation rate and particular surface area of the photo catalyst. Furthermore, the coupling of graphene and semiconductor recommends the possibility of manufacturing new multicomponent composite materials that show synergistic physicochemical properties. Generally, the preference of graphene-based photocatalysts for CO₂ reduction can be arranged into 6 perspectives

- (1) Suppressing photogenerated transporter recombination: Graphene has a single atom thick nanosheet of sp² hybridized planar structure organized in a honeycomb lattice with great conductivity, making it a great electron acceptor amid photocatalytic reaction.[56]Moreover, given the Fermi level of graphene (0 V versus NHE) is lower than the conduction band of most photocatalysts, a quick electron exchange from photocatalyst to graphene can be accomplished on graphene-based photocatalysts as a result of the band alignments. Hence, under light irradiation, the photoinduced electrons on photocatalyst can be transferred to the graphene quickly for reduction process; then, photoinduced holes can be stayed on photocatalyst for oxidation process, subsequently bringing about a high spatial separation of the photoinduced electron-hole pairs. Moreover, the electron density on the graphene nanosheet can be additionally improved, which favors multi-electron responses for photocatalytic CO₂ reduction.

- (2) Enhancing specific surface area: The specific surface area of graphene is generally acknowledged as the most noteworthy among all the investigated materials due to its one atomic thick structure. Given this noteworthy specific surface area, the coupling of graphene with photocatalyst can essentially expand the specific surface area of the photocatalyst. The upgraded specific surface area can expand the surface active site on sample which is gainful for improving photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity.
- (3) Increasing CO₂ adsorption and activation: Graphene illustrates a large 2D π -conjugated structure. In meantime, CO₂ particles also contain delocalized π -conjugated restricting π [13, 57]. Hence, π - π conjugation association can be set up amongst graphene and CO₂. This remarkable π - π conjugation collaboration can altogether enhance the adsorption of CO₂ particles on the graphene-based photocatalysts, thereby improving the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction efficiency. particularly, this strong π - π conjugation cooperation amongst graphene and CO₂ can also cause destabilization and activation of CO₂ molecules, along these lines prompting a less demanding decrease of CO₂ amid the photocatalytic CO₂ reaction reaction.[58]
- (4) Enhancing photostability: Given its phenomenal mechanical and chemical stability, graphene nanosheets have been appeared as compelling supporting materials in photocatalysis for improving the photostability of the photocatalyst. [58, 59]Particularly, graphene can cover on the target photocatalysts with low photostability. The graphene-based photocatalysts have great stability for long period photocatalytic CO₂ reduction application.
- (5) Improving nanoparticles (NPs) scattering and reducing NPs size: Graphene arranged by synthetic strategy consist of great volume of surface functionalities , which can work as anchoring site and permit the photocatalyst to develop on its surface. [60] Therefore, photocatalyst can be consistently deposited on the surface of graphene nanosheet, so that suppressing the aggregation and development of photocatalysts. Moreover, the graphene nanosheet can likewise work as a capping agent for NPs, in this way constraining the growth of the NPs. Consequently, the photocatalyst can be controlled into smaller sizes to acquire a higher surface area, which is useful for the photocatalytic reaction.
- (6) Boosting light absorption: Graphene can absorb whole spectrum due to its dark black color and zero band gap. although such great light absorption capacity does not deliver active electrons or holes for the photocatalytic reaction, it can enhance the temperature around the photocatalyst to make local photothermal effect.[59, 61] It was demonstrated that this local photothermal impact will enhance movement of reaction and product molecules, along these lines upgrading photocatalytic CO₂ reduction efficiency. [61] Moreover, the photothermal effect can also enhance the charge carrier separation by generating high energy electrons on the semiconductor. Under the light irradiation, these high energy electrons can be effectively transmitted to the graphene for photocatalytic reaction instead recombining with

the hole. Nonetheless, when the stacking amount of graphene on the photocatalyst is too high, graphene can bring about a negative impact on the photocatalytic reaction. The overloading of graphene will shield the photocatalyst and disallow the photocatalyst to absorb incident light. Therefore, the generation rate of photoinduced electron-hole sets will be decreased. Along these lines, finding the ideal loading amount of graphene on the photocatalyst is needed. There was an enormous of reports about the semiconductor-graphene nanocomposite photocatalysts for CO₂ photo reduction. Strikingly, the graphene oxide can be straightforwardly connected as a promising photocatalyst for CO₂ to CH₃OH change. The biggest conversion rate of photocatalytic CO₂ to CH₃OH on modified graphene oxide is 0.172 $\mu\text{mol gcat}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ under visible light, which is 6-fold higher than that of pure TiO₂. The nanocomposites based on the less defective solvent-exfoliated graphene exhibit a significantly larger enhancement in CO₂ photoreduction, especially under visible light. The rates of CO and CH₄ formations over the Ti_{0.91}O₂-graphene hollow spheres were 8.91 and 1.14 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively, which was about 5 times higher than that over the Ti_{0.91}O₂[55, 62, 63].

3. Coupling of Semiconductors

It is generally believed that co-catalysts extract the photogenerated charge carriers from semiconductors, provide reaction sites, lower the electrochemical overpotentials associated

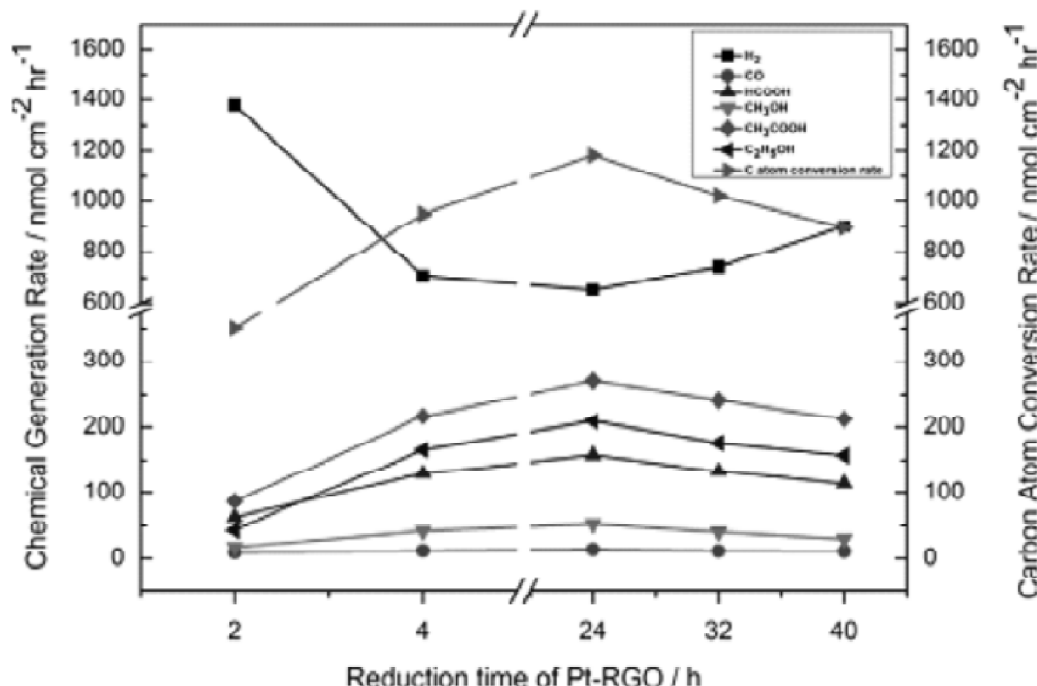


Figure 1: Carbon atom conversion rate and chemical generation rate in a photoelectrochemical cell with PtTiO₂ nanotube photoanode and Pt-modified reduced graphene oxide (Pt-RGO) cathode reduced for various times [69]

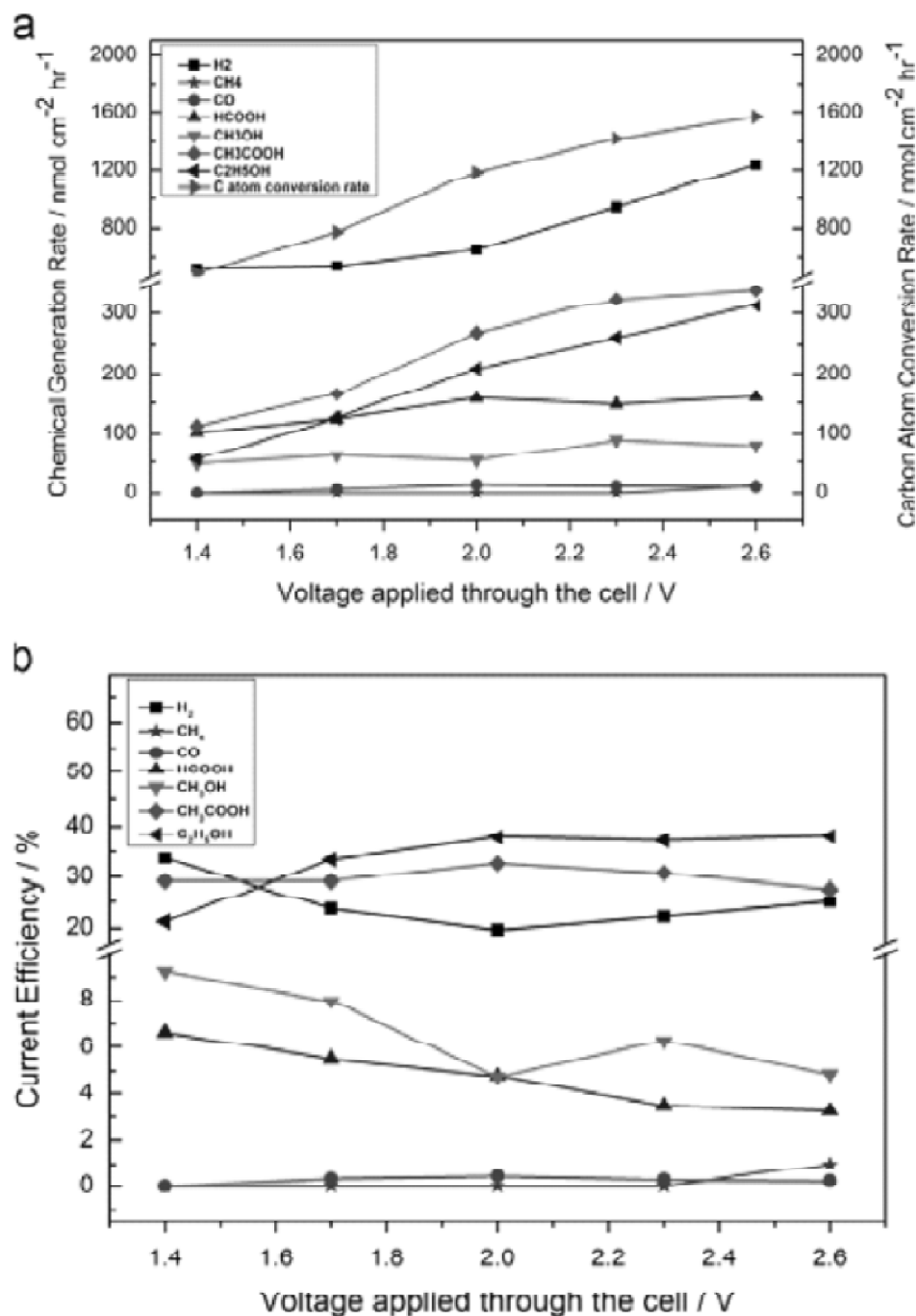


Figure 2: (a) shows the rates of CO₂ reduction product generation and C atom conversion as a function of the voltage applied through the PEC cell. methane was generated only when the potential applied was high, when the applied voltage was increased from 1.4 V to 2.6 V then the C atom conversion rate increased from 490 nmol/(cm² h) to 1560 nmol/(cm² h)[69]

with the multielectron water oxidation and CO₂ reduction reactions, and decrease the activation energy for gas evolution [64, 65], it is also provide a junction/interface between the co-catalyst and the semiconductor to increase electron-hole separation/charge transport [65, 66]. In CO₂ reduction process, co-catalysts act as electron traps to increase the separation of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs and hence enhance the photocatalytic activity and selectivity for CO₂ reduction. Generally, Pd, Pt and Au can selectively reduce CO₂ into CH₄ products. shitani *et al.* [67] studied the photoreduction of CO₂ on a series of metal deposited TiO₂ and found that depositing metals (Pd, Rh, Pt, Au, Cu₂O, etc.) on TiO₂ photocatalysts can highly enhanced their photocatalytic activities for CO₂ reduction to CH₄. And additions of Pt onto the highly dispersed titanium oxide catalysts promotes the charge separation which leads to an increase in the formation of CH₄ in place of CH₃OH[68]. Jun Cheng *et al.* [69] presented that Pt-RGO | | Pt-TNT photo electrochemical cell has extremely high CO₂ photo reduction efficiency with selective formation of different productions. The figure has shown the rates of CO₂ reduction production generation and C atom conversion rate of the photoelectrocatalytic process C atoms initially increased and then decreased with increasing Pt-RGO reduction time. A maximum carbon atom conversion rate of 1180 nmol/(cm² h) was obtained when Pt-RGO was reduced for 24 h.

Fig. 2. Carbon atom conversion rate and current efficiency in a photoelectrochemical cell with Pt-TiO₂ nanotubes photoanode and Pt-modified reduced grapheme oxide (PtRGO) cathode under various applied voltages: (a) C atom conversion rate and chemical generation rate, and (b) current efficiency. Note: Pt-RGO reduced for 24 h was used as cathode catalyst, and 110 PPI nickel form was used as catalyst support [69].

Recently our group used different loading ratio of graphene with PbSe/TiO₂ and observed an increase in product yield of CH₃OH. Fig. 3 (a-b) and Tables 1 and 2 show the total methanol yield and quantum yield for 48 h using a UV/visible light source. The observation of different samples clearly shows that the graphene-based ternary system highly improves the catalytic properties (Fig. 3 (c) and Table 3) and that there is a strong

Table 1
Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield (visible light irradiation)

Sample (visible)	CH ₃ OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (12 h)	1.2354	0.3296
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (24 h)	2.1835	0.4165
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (36 h)	2.9778	0.5040
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (48 h)	3.3257	0.7053
Sample (visible)After Na ₂ SO ₃	CH ₃ OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (12 h)	2.2574	0.3285
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (24 h)	2.9021	0.4460
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (36 h)	3.5243	0.5546
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (48 h)	3.7209	0.5979

interaction between graphene and the attached semiconductor materials. Moreover, PbSe supported by TiO_2 allows for a good interface between the PbSe and graphene nanosheet. The maximum amount of GO was found to be 6%, and this amount of graphene can provide more active sites and improve the absorption of light. But further increase in the amount of graphene beyond 6% results in a decrease in the methanol yield, as shown in Fig. 3 (d). This may be a result of an increase in the charge recombination centers or blacking out of the light[70].

Moreover the properties of TiO_2 can also be modified by attachments of metal and non-metal. A synergistic effect can be obtained with an appropriate combination of co-dopants compared to their single ion doped or undoped TiO_2 [71]. Our group also highlighted new ternary composite, $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$, using ultrasonic techniques and examined for CO_2 reduction to methanol under ultraviolet (UV) and visible light

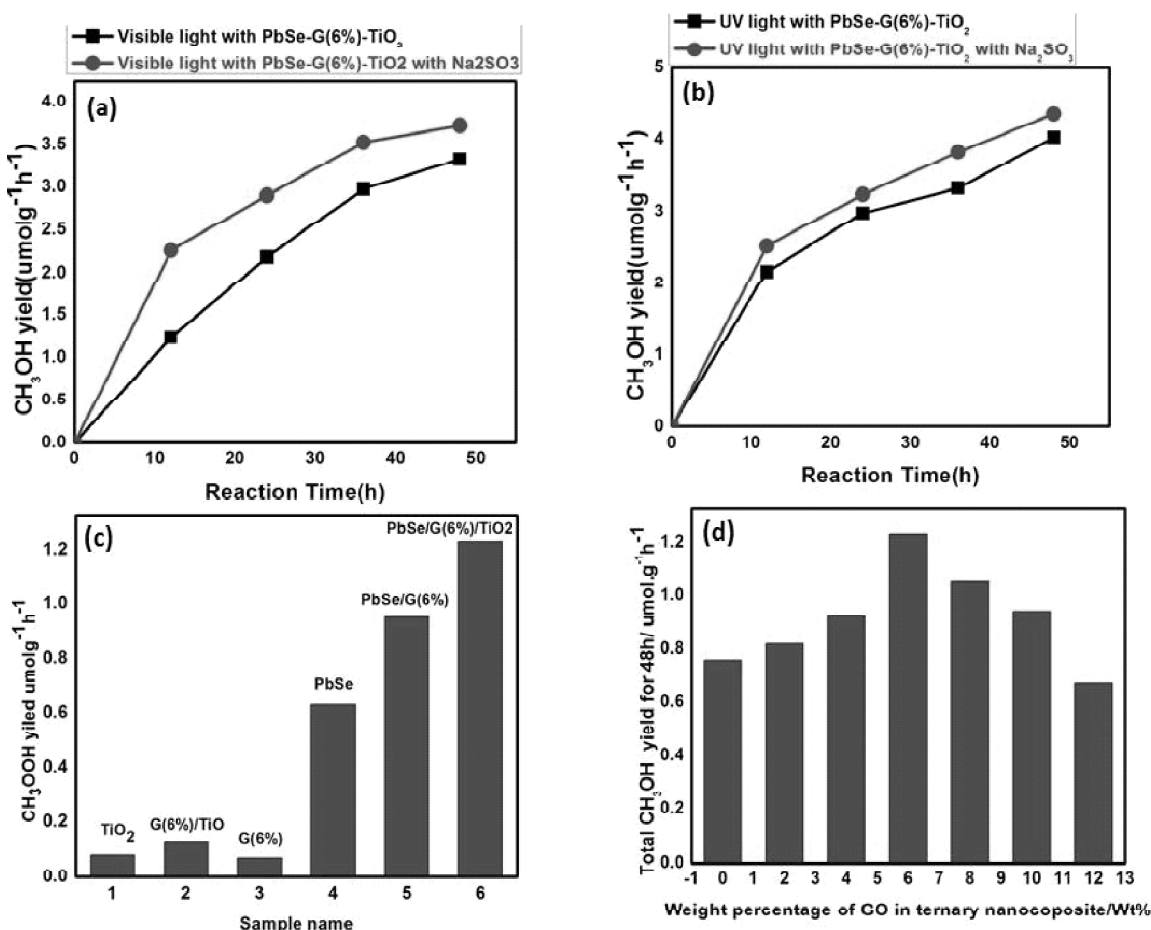


Figure 3: (a-b) The methanol yield in the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 under UV/visible light irradiation using PbSe-G- TiO_2 nanocomposites as photocatalysts with experimental conditions (c) The methanol yield in the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 under UV/visible light irradiation of different nanocomposites and (d) weight percentage of graphene in PbSe-G- TiO_2 nanocomposite [70]

Table 2
Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield (UV light irradiation)

Sample (UV)	CH ₃ OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (12 h)	2.1648	0.2115
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (24 h)	2.9765	0.3806
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (36 h)	3.3252	0.4532
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (48 h)	4.0258	0.6129
Sample (UV)After Na ₂ SO ₃	CH ₃ OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (12 h)	2.5149	0.3765
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (24 h)	3.2346	0.4874
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (36 h)	3.8236	0.5432
PbSe-G(6%)-TiO ₂ (48 h)	4.3523	0.6345

irradiation. Ag₂Se-TiO₂ with an optimum loading graphene of 10wt% exhibited the maximum photoactivity, obtaining a total CH₃OH yield of 3.52 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ after 48h. Fig. 4(a) The photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ under UV light is more active than under visible

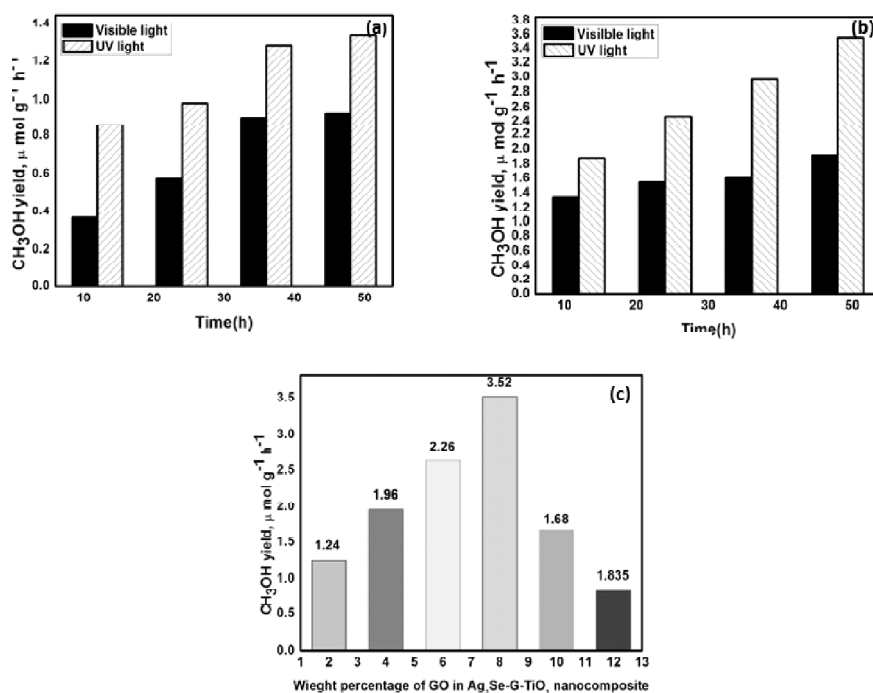


Figure 4: The methanol yield in the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ under UV/visible light irradiation of different nanocomposites. (a) methanol yield under UV/Visible light irradiation without scavenger (b) methanol yield under UV/Visible light irradiation using Na₂SO₃ and (c) weight percentage of graphene in Ag₂Se-G-TiO₂ nanocomposite.

light irradiation, and the maximum CH_3OH yield of $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ after 48h was found to be $1.3420\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ without using any sacrificial reagents. Further, to improve the catalytic activity of the photoreduction of CO_2 , Na_2SO_3 is used as a scavenger, as shown in Fig. 4(b). The methanol yield of $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ under UV/Visible light is almost higher than that without using a scavenger. The CH_3OH yield of $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ with different time intervals is shown in Table 3(a-b) and 4(a-b). The photoreduction rate of the pure TiO_2 and $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-ghaphene}$ nanosheets is smaller than that of the $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ nanocomposites. This shows that a strong interaction between graphene and the attached semiconductor materials, Ag_2Se supported by TiO_2 , allows good interfacial contact with the graphene sheet by enhancing the synergistic effect between Ag_2Se and the graphene sheet, which plays an important role in photoreduction activity. Hence, graphene plays an important role in the catalytic photoreduction of CO_2 . The optimum content of graphene in the $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ system was found to be 8 wt%, as shown in Fig. 4(c). The further increase in the amount of graphene in the ternary system was found to decrease the photocatalytic performance, possibly due to the increased light absorption of graphene itself, which affects the excitation of Ag_2Se and TiO_2 in the composites.

Table 3(a)
Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield (visible light)

Sample	CH_3OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (12 h)	0.3665	0.0530
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (24 h)	0.5734	0.0770
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (36 h)	0.9020	0.1487
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (48 h)	0.9255	0.1504

Table 3(b)
Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield (UV light)

Sample	CH_3OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (12 h)	0.8623	0.1395
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (24 h)	0.9814	0.1647
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (36 h)	1.2821	0.2090
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (48 h)	1.3420	0.1522

Table 4(a)
Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield (visible light)

Sample After Na_2SO_3	CH_3OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (12 h)	1.3380	0.2237
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (24 h)	1.5450	0.2054
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (36 h)	1.6100	0.2613
$\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ (48 h)	1.9170	0.3141

Table 4(b)
Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield (UV light)

Sample After Na ₂ SO ₃	CH ₃ OH yield ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yield (QE)
Ag ₂ Se-G-TiO ₂ (12 h)	1.8862	0.3061
Ag ₂ Se-G-TiO ₂ (24 h)	2.4682	0.4005
Ag ₂ Se-G-TiO ₂ (36 h)	2.9683	0.4817
Ag ₂ Se-G-TiO ₂ (48 h)	3.5262	0.5722

Also reported binary nanowire-like WSe₂-graphene nanocomposite [72]. The catalyst was prepared via ultra-sonication and was tested in terms of the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ into CH₃OH under irradiation with UV/visible light. And photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ was tested using gas chromatography (GCMS-QP2010 SE). The methanol yields and quantum yields for the WSe₂-graphene nanocomposite with different time intervals and different conditions under UV/Visible light irradiation are shown in Tables 5 and 6. The methanol yield and quantum yield with WSe₂-graphene (12 h), WSe₂-graphene (24 h), WSe₂-graphene (36 h) and WSe₂-graphene (28 h) under visible light were 2.2434 (0.3285), 2.7021 (0.4435), 3.3243 (0.5346) and 3.5509 (0.5779) $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$, and under UV light were 2.8854 (0.4596), 3.1835 (0.3165), 3.7778 (0.6040) and 4.3257 (0.7053) $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively. And after adding Na₂SO₃ catalytic efficiency of the binary graphene-based nanocomposites in the photoreduction of CO₂, almost two times greater than that of the nanocomposite without using scavenger (Na₂SO₃), as shown in Fig. 5(b) and Fig 5(c) shows a GC calibration curve for the quantification of methanol after 48 hours. The sacrificial reagent plays a crucial role in attaining the stability of the photocatalysts because of the well-known process of photocorrosion of sulfides. For further confirmation of final product CH₃OH, the products were recovered after 18h and 24h of irradiation and analyzed by ¹³C NMR (Proton decoupled) (Fig 5 d). A single peak was obtained at 48.96 ppm for both, as it is due to methanol, it is verified that photocatalytic conversions of CO₂ yield mainly CH₃OH. It is also substantiated by GC.

Table 5
Methanol Production condition with methanol yields and quantum yields under visible light

WSe ₂ -graphene (visible light)	CH ₃ OH yields ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yields (QE)
WSe ₂ - graphene (12 h)	2.2434	0.3285
WSe ₂ - graphene (24 h)	2.7021	0.4435
WSe ₂ - graphene (36 h)	3.3243	0.5346
WSe ₂ - graphene (48 h)	3.5509	0.5779
WSe ₂ - graphene + Na ₂ SO ₃ (visible light)	CH ₃ OH yields ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Quantum yields (QE)
WSe ₂ - graphene (12 h)	2.8854	0.4596
WSe ₂ - graphene (24 h)	3.1835	0.3165
WSe ₂ - graphene (36 h)	3.7778	0.6040
WSe ₂ - graphene (48 h)	4.3257	0.7053

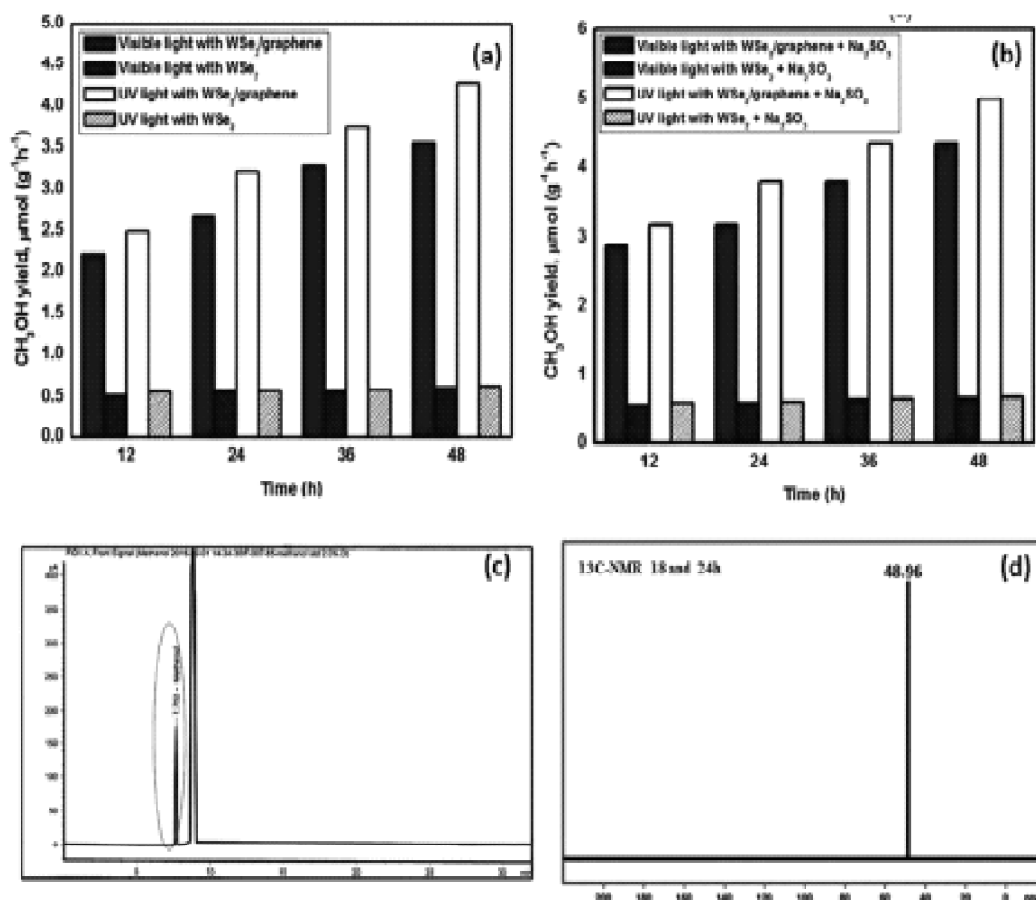


Figure 5: The methanol yields in the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ under UV/visible light irradiation by using pure WSe₂ and WSe₂-graphene nanocomposites as photocatalyst (a) without Na₂SO₃, (b) with Na₂SO₃ (c) GC chromatogram of photoreaction using WSe₂-graphene, after 48 h and (d) 13 C NMR (Proton decoupled) [72]

Table 6
Effect of preparation method on methanol yields and quantum yields under UV light [72]

WSe ₂ - graphene (UV light)	CH ₃ OH yields (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Quantum yields (QE)
WSe ₂ - graphene (12 h)	2.5134	0.3776
WSe ₂ - graphene (24 h)	3.2686	0.4294
WSe ₂ - graphene (36 h)	3.7746	0.5672
WSe ₂ - graphene (48 h)	2.3523	0.3535
WSe ₂ - graphene + Na ₂ SO ₃ (UV light)	CH ₃ OH yields (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Quantum yields (QE)
WSe ₂ - graphene (12 h)	3.1848	0.4115
WSe ₂ - graphene (24 h)	3.7765	0.5606
WSe ₂ - graphene (36 h)	4.3246	0.6530
WSe ₂ - graphene (48 h)	5.0278	0.8159

Qiuye *et al.* [73] reported a highly efficient MgO/TiO₂ a unique one-dimensional (1D) nanotubes network (MgO/TNTs) films which exhibited excellent photoreduction efficiency of CO₂ to methane compared with the bare TiO₂ film. MgO has the strong adsorption ability of CO₂. MgO thin layer plays important role in CO₂ methanation. For the improvement of photocatalytic activity Pt nanoparticles was loaded on MgO/TNTs films. The effect of the content of MgO and MgO/TiO₂ porous films on the photoreduction performance of CO₂ was shown Fig 6. The comparison tests consisted of a reaction under light without the catalysts and in dark with catalysts. A very trace amount of CH₄ and CO was detected.

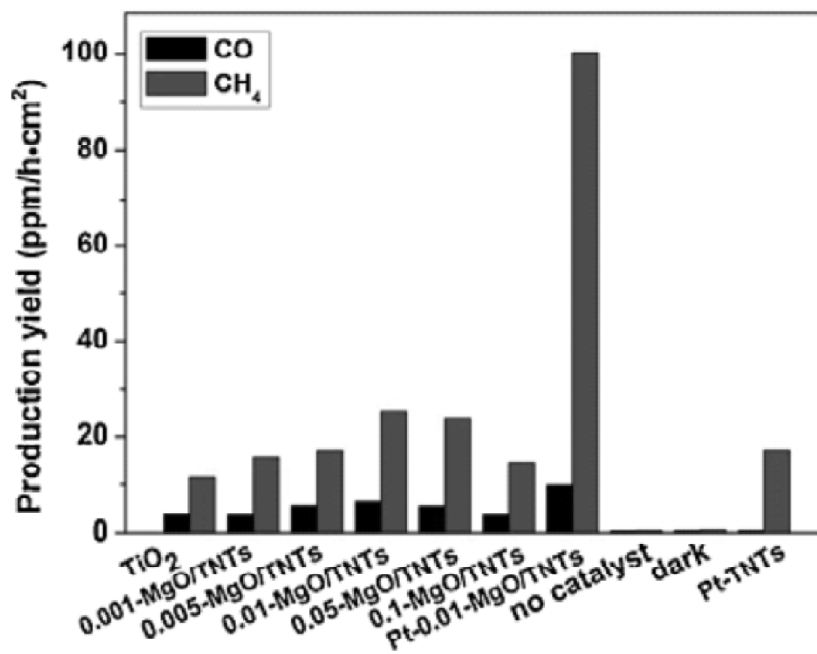


Figure 6: Photoreduction yield of CO₂ to methane and CO on the different films [73]

From the figure 5 shown there is an optimum content of MgO for CO and CH₄ formation and their generation rate firstly increased and then decreased with the increasing of MgO [73]. Byeong Sub Kwak *et al.* [74] used pure TiO₂ and Ni incorporated TiO₂ with various molar fractions using solvothermal method. The figure 6 shown that the highest amount of methane was produced when light on and after 60 min irradiation the methane yield was Ni-TiO₂ (0.1 mol%) > Ni-TiO₂ (0.5 mol%) > TiO₂ > Ni-TiO₂ (1.0 mol%). The best catalyst was Ni-TiO₂ (0.1 mol%) with a maximum methane yield about 14 μmol/gcatal during 60 min. and methane. However, the yield of methane was gradually decreased in repeated time.

Li *et al.* [75] used either CdS or Bi₂S₃ in the modification of the properties of TiO₂ nanotubes for CO₂ reduction under visible light irradiation. The addition of CdS or Bi₂S₃ was found to increase visible light absorbance and photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ nanotubes, with Bi₂S₃ exhibiting outstanding activity due to better surface area and CO₂

adsorption. Optimum methanol yields of 224.6 mmol/gcatal and 159.5 mmol/gcatal was observed using TiO₂ nanotubes coated with Bi₂S₃ and CdS, respectively. Heterojunction formation between the semiconductors was reported to play an important role in lengthen the lifetime of charge carriers and preventing electron/hole recombination. Although it's favorable results, this technique is not widely applied due to its drawbacks. These include photo-corrosion in aqueous phase which affects the durability and stability of the catalyst through leaching out of dopant [76, 77] and complication in finding appropriate semiconductor pairs such that recombination of charge carriers can be reduced [78].

4. Conclusion

In this review we discussed the utilization of CO₂ as a direct feedstock for photocatalytic conversion into fuels over different modification of binary and ternary Nano-composites. Application of these photocatalysis for the challenging conversion of CO₂ remains a promising pathway as it can be activated by solar energy at relatively moderate conditions to form valuable products. Although recent progress exhibited that no single material or technology meets the requirements but instead the class of technologies needs to be developed and expand to address the increasing energy use and CO₂ emission. Low selectivity and fewer availability of such materials to absorbed and reduce CO₂ is the main disadvantage in industrial application. All present technologies have their own advantages/disadvantages and restriction but their reduction/absorbance efficiency is the main difficulties. There is great need to understand the existing CO₂ reduction technologies to enhance the efficiency and fabricate cost effective catalyst materials for purification and reduction technologies.

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