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Hierarchically nanostructured porous $TiO₂(B)$ with superior **photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity**

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Hierarchically nanostructured, porous TiO₂(B) microspheres were synthesized by a microwave-assisted solvothermal method combined with subsequent heat treatment in air. The materials were carefully characterized by scanning and transmission electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction, CO₂ adsorption, and a range of spectroscopies, including Raman, infrared, X-ray photoelectron and UV-Vis spectroscopy. The hierarchical $TiO₂(B)$ particles are constructed by ultrathin nanosheets and possess large specific surface area, which provided many active sites for CO_2 adsorption as well as CO_2 conversion. The TiO₂(B) nanostructures exhibited marked photocatalytic activity for $CO₂$ reduction to methano and methanol. Anatase $TiO₂$ and P25 were used as the reference photocatalysts. Transient photocurrent measurement also proved the higher photoactivity of TiO₂(B) than that of anatase TiO₂. *In-situ* infrared spectrum was measured to identify the intermediates and deduce the conversion process of $CO₂$ under illumination over TiO₂(B) photocatalyst.

photocatalytic CO₂ reduction, TiO₂(B), hierarchical nanostructure, anatase TiO₂

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1 Introduction

The approach that utilizes natural solar energy with the assistance of photocatalysts for converting carbon dioxide $(CO₂)$ into renewable hydrocarbon fuels such as methane $(CH₄)$ and methanol (CH₃OH) is believed to be a promising way for reducing the CO₂ levels in the atmosphere $[1-3]$ $[1-3]$. This photocatalytic technique could simultaneously tackle the greenhouse effect caused by the rising atmospheric levels of CO₂ and the depletion of fossil fuels $[4-9]$. Since the pioneering work reported by Inoue *et al*. [\[10\]](#page-6-2) that $CO₂$ can be reduced to HCOOH and CH₃OH over semiconductors under

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light irradiation, numerous photocatalysts have been employed to investigate photocatalytic CO_2 reduction [11[–13](#page-6-3)]. Among various semiconductors used for photochemical reduction of $CO₂$, TiO₂ has been extensively studied for its remarkable photocatalytic performance, low cost, good photo-stability, and low toxicity features [8[,14](#page-6-4)[–18](#page-6-5)]. It is well recognized that the phase structure of a semiconductor significantly affects its physical and chemical properties, and hence determines the photocatalytic performance [19[,20](#page-6-6)]. In general, TiO₂ has four polymorphs including anatase (tetragonal), rutile (tetragonal), brookite (orthorhombic) and $TiO₂$ (B) (monoclinic). Among them, anatase and rutile are the most investigated two polymorphs for their excellent photocatalytic activity and high stability [\[21\]](#page-6-7). In addition, it has been reported that $TiO₂(B)$ is metastable and possesses a

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more negative conduction band (CB) edge than anatase, which thermodynamically endows its conduction electrons strong reduction capability upon photoexcitation [22,[23\]](#page-6-8). However, comparing with the other three allotropes of $TiO₂$, monoclinic $TiO₂(B)$ has been rarely studied for photocatalysis; instead, it attracts significant interest as an anode material for lithium-ion batteries [24–[28\]](#page-6-9). In particular, to the best of our knowledge, there has been no report on the photocatalytic activity of $TiO₂(B)$ for $CO₂$ reduction.

Besides phase structures, crystal morphology is another critical factor affecting the photocatalytic properties of semiconductors [29[–33](#page-6-10)]. The self-assembly synthesis of hierarchical nanostructures is a feasible strategy to enhance the surficial adsorption of reactants and facilitate the transport of guest species. Nanosheet-constructed $TiO₂(B)$ microparticles by microwave-solvothermal reaction have been prepared with the assistance of the ionic liquid ([bmin][BF_4]) on the basis of hydrolysis of TiCl₃ in ethylene glycol (EG) [\[34\]](#page-6-11). However, a lot of residual organics existed in the asformed $TiO₂(B)$ nanosheets. Moreover, the photocatalytic activities of the obtained TiO₂ material, especially its activity for photocatalytic $CO₂$ reduction, was not investigated.

Herein, porous hierarchical $TiO₂(B)$ particles were synthesized by a modified microwave assisted solvothermal method, following by calcination at 350 °C in air to remove the residual organics and improve the crystallinity of $TiO₂$ (B). Another $TiO₂$ sample was prepared by calcination at 650 °C in air to transform the TiO₂(B) to anatase TiO₂ (donated as $TiO₂(A)$). In this work, commercial P25 (a mixture of anatase and rutile $TiO₂$ and $TiO₂(A)$ were used as reference photocatalysts for the evaluation of photocatalytic $CO₂$ reduction over the as-obtained TiO₂(B).

2 Experimental

2.1 Sample preparation

Firstly, the $TiO₂$ precursor was synthesized using a microwave-assisted solvothermal method. In a typical synthetic process, 0.2 mL [Bmim][BF₄] were added into 15 mL ethylene glycol (EG) and 1 mL deionized water mixture solution, then 1 mL TiCl₃ (15 wt% in diluted HCl) were mixed with the above solution. The homogeneous mixture was then transferred into a Teflon-lined autoclave, which was placed in a microwave-hydrothermal synthesis system (MDS-6, Sineo, China) and kept at 180 °C for 60 min. After the reaction, the white precipitate was collected by centrifugation, rinsed several times with distilled water and then dried in an oven at 80 °C for over 12 h. In order to remove the surface adsorbed organics and enhance the crystallinity of $TiO₂(B)$, the precursor was calcined in a muffle at 350 °C for 2 h. For comparison, another sample was prepared by a similar strategy with the calcination treatment at 650 °C for 2 h to transform the $TiO₂(B)$ to anatase $TiO₂(donate as TiO₂(A)).$

2.2 Characterization

Rigaku X-ray diffractometer (Japan) with Cu K α radiation was used to test X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns. Morphological observations were conducted on a JEOL JSM-7500 field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, Japan) and JEOL JEM-2100F transmission electron microscope (TEM, Japan). Thermogravimetric-differential thermal analysis (TG-DTA) was performed on a thermal analyzer (DTG-60, Shimadzu, Japan) under ambient atmospheric with a temperature ramp of 3° C min⁻¹. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was measured on a Thermo ESCALA 250 XPS spectrometer system with Al Kα (1486.6 eV) radiation (USA). The binding energies were referenced to the C 1s peak at 284.8 eV from adventitious carbon. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area (S_{BET}) of the powders was measured on a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 with nitrogen adsorption apparatus. $CO₂$ adsorption was measured using an ASAP 3020 carbon dioxide adsorption apparatus (Micromeritics, USA). UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra were analyzed on a Shimadzu UV-2600 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Japan). Electrochemical measurements were implemented on electrochemical analyzer (CHI660C, China) in a standard three-electrode system with the as-prepared samples as the working electrode, a Pt wire as the counter electrode and Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) as a reference electrode. A 365 nm LED-light was utilized as the light source. Na₂SO₄ (0.5 M) aqueous solution was used as the electrolyte. The working electrodes were prepared as follows: 0.05 g of photocatalyst was ground with 0.5 mL of ethanol to make a slurry. The slurry was then coated onto a $2 \text{ cm} \times 1.2 \text{ cm}$ F-doped SnO₂-coated glass (FTO glass) electrode by the doctor blade technique. Next, these electrodes were dried in an oven at 80 °C for 30 min. The electrodes have film thickness of ca. 10 μm.

2.3 Photocatalytic reduction of CO₂

The photocatalytic reduction of $CO₂$ was operated in a 200 mL homemade Pyrex reactor at an ambient temperature and atmospheric pressure, similar to that reported in our previous study [\[35\].](#page-6-12) Typically, 100 mg of catalyst was evenly coated as a thin film on the bottom of the reactor by evaporating a catalyst-containing aqueous suspension to dryness at 80 °C for 3 h. Before irradiation, the reactor was sealed and blown with nitrogen for 30 min to keep an anaerobic condition. $CO₂$ and $H₂O$ sources were introduced by reaction of $NaHCO₃$ (84 mg, added into the reactor before seal) and H_2SO_4 aqueous solution (0.3 mL, 2 M, syringed into the reactor after N_2 blowing). A 300 W Xe light was positioned 20 cm vertically above the photocatalytic reactor as light source. Gas product (1 mL, taken from the reactor) was analyzed using a gas chromatograph (GC-2014C, Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with a flame ionized detector (FID) and methanizer. The reduced products in this experiment were calibrated with a standard gas mixture and determined from the retention time. ${}^{13}CO_2$ isotope tracer experiment was conducted to verify the carbon resource.

 ${}^{13}CO_2$ isotope tracer experiment was conducted to verify the carbon source of the products by using 13 C isotope-labelled sodium bicarbonate (NaH¹³CO₃, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories Inc., USA) and H_2SO_4 aqueous solution for the photocatalysis examinations. After 1 h of photocatalytic reaction, 250 μL of mixed gas was taken out from the reactor and examined by a gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (GC-MS) (6980N network GC system-5975 inert mass selective detector, Agilent technologies, USA) to analyze the products.

2.4 *In-situ* **FTIR** for CO₂ adsorption and conversion

Nicolet is 50 spectrometer (Thermo fisher, USA) was used to record the *in-situ* Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra. Before measuring FTIR spectra, the photocatalysts have been treated at 150 °C on Micromeritics ASAP 2020 to desorb the surface adsorbed molecules. The *in-situ* FTIR analysis was carried out in two sequential steps, similar to our previously reported literature $[36,37]$ $[36,37]$ $[36,37]$. Firstly, $CO₂$ adsorption on the surface of the sample was carried out 1 h in the dark with the continuous flow of a mixture of $CO₂$ and $H₂O$ vapor (CO₂ was continuously passed through a water bubble into the chamber). And then, a LED light of 365 nm was turned on and illuminated for 1 h to investigate the conversion of the intermediates formed in the first step. It should be noted that IR spectrum of the photocatalyst was firstly collected as the background prior to $CO₂$ adsorption. When introducing the $CO₂$ onto the photocatalyst, IR spectra of the adsorbed species were obtained by subtracting the background.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Morphology, structure and composition

[Figure 1](#page-2-0) shows the morphological results of $TiO₂(B)$ obtained by heating the precursors at 350 °C. As can be seen from the FESEM images ([Figures 1\(](#page-2-0)a, b)), the $TiO₂(B)$ is composed of hierarchically nanostructured microspheres assembled by nanosheets. The nanosheets have thicknesses of \sim 30 nm and their packing in three dimensions results in porous structures. Figure $1(c)$ shows the TEM picture of the individual $TiO₂(B)$ particle, which confirms the nanosheetsconstructed hierarchical structure of the $TiO₂(B)$ microspheres. The HRTEM image (Figure $1(d)$) displays one nanosheet and demonstrates its high crystallinity. It shows lattice fringes with spacing of 0.62 and 0.35 nm, which correspond to the (001) and (110) crystal plane of $TiO₂(B)$, respectively, suggesting that the nanosheets growing along the *ab* plane.

Moreover, we found that there was a morphological evolution for the $TiO₂$ precursor during heating at various elevated temperatures. As can be seen from [Figure 2,](#page-2-1) the precursor obtained by the hydrothermal process consisted of microspheres with well-defined, smooth nanosheets with sharp edges. After heating at 250, 350 and 450 °C in air, the microspheres shrunk somehow and meanwhile, the nanosheets bent a bit, owing to the release of organic species and the resulted stress. With further increased the temperature to 550 and 650 °C, nevertheless, we observed that the nanosheets reconstructed and become straight again. We consider that this morphological reconstruction should be associated with phase transition of the precursor during heat treatment.

[Figure 3\(](#page-3-0)a) presents the thermogravimetric-differential thermal analysis of the $TiO₂$ precursor ranging from 30 to

[Figure 1](#page-2-0) FESEM images (a, b), TEM (c) and HRTEM (d) images of porous hierarchical $TiO₂(B)$ particles (color online).

[Figure 2](#page-2-1) FESEM pictures of the TiO₂ precursor and the products obtained after heat treatment at different temperatures.

[Figure 3](#page-3-0) (a) TG-DTA curves of the $TiO₂$ precursor in air; (b) FTIR spectra of the TiO₂ precursor, TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A); (c) XRD pattern of the $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ and corresponding PDF standard cards; (d) Raman spectra of the TiO₂ precursor, TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A) (color online).

700 °C in air. There is a significant weight loss from ca. 250 to 340 °C, arising from the combustion of the residual organics from the hydrothermal process. When the temperature is higher than 340° C, the weight turned to be stable, indicating that annealing at 350 °C in air can effectively remove the contained organic species. Therefore, we annealed the hydrothermal product at 350 °C in air to prepare the $TiO₂$ (B) sample for characterization and performance test. [Figure](#page-3-0) [3](#page-3-0)(b) shows the FTIR spectra of the typical samples. We can see that the as-prepared $TiO₂$ precursor shows strong adsorption peaks at 807, 907 and 1070 cm^{-1} , which are assigned to the vibration mode of C–H plane vibration, –OH bending vibration and C–O asymmetric deformation, respectively. These vibration modes arise from the residual EG molecule attached in the $TiO₂$ precursor. After annealing at 350 and 650 °C, these vibration peaks significantly decreased or completely vanished, suggesting the removal of the residual organic components.

XRD was carried out to investigate the phase structure of the prepared samples. As shown in Figure $3(c)$, the XRD pattern of the $TiO₂(B)$ matches well with monoclinic polymorph $TiO₂(B)$ (JCPDS NO. 74-1940). As expected, the sample annealed at 650 °C shows improved crystallinity and most of the diffraction peaks are assigned to anatase $TiO₂$ (JCPDS NO. 65-5714). This phase transition was further confirmed by Raman spectroscopy. As shown in [Figure 3](#page-3-0)(d), the characteristic peak of anatase at 148 cm^{-1} appeared in the Raman shift for the $TiO₂(A)$ sample, which agrees well with the XRD result. XPS was employed to investigate the surface chemical states of the resulting $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ products. The XPS survey spectra in [Figure 4\(](#page-4-0)a) shows that only Ti, O and C elements were detected for both $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$, suggesting that the [bmin][BF₄] used in the reaction was effectively removed. As shown in [Figure 4\(](#page-4-0)b), the Ti 2p high-resolution spectra of $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ are very close, suggesting the similar bonding environment of Ti atoms in the two samples. The two peaks of Ti $2p_{3/2}$ at 458.5 eV and Ti $2p_{1/2}$ at 464.2 eV are assigned to the characteristic peaks of Ti^{4+} in TiO₂. The O 1s spectra ([Figure 4](#page-4-0)) (c)) of both $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ were deconvoluted to two peaks of surface lattice oxygen (at 529.8 eV) and surface Ti– OH groups (at 531.1 eV). TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A) display almost the same peak positions for both Ti 2p and O 1s highresolution spectra.

3.2 Surface areas and pore size distributions

 N_2 adsorption-desorption were measured and recorded to investigate the specific surface area (S_{BET}) and porosity of the samples. As shown in [Figure 4\(](#page-4-0)d), both $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ have isotherms of type IV and hysteresis loops of type H3 at higher relative pressure (P/P_0) range of 0.8–1.0, indicating the presence of slit-like pores [38[–40](#page-6-14)]. Furthermore, the isotherm of sample $TiO₂(B)$ shifts up compared with $TiO₂(A)$ at the low P/P_0 range (<0.2), indicating TiO₂(B) has a higher S_{BET} than TiO₂(A), as shown in [Table 1.](#page-4-1) Besides, TiO₂(B) shows a broad pore size distribution than $TiO₂(A)$, as indicated in the inset of [Figure 4](#page-4-0)(d), probably owing to the growth and reconstruction of the nanoparticles during the treatment at elevated temperature.

3.3 Band structures

The UV-Vis reflectance spectra (Figure $4(e)$) of the TiO₂ samples measured and recorded, with $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ showing very similar curves. The bandgap of $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ was determined to be 3.34 and 3.23 eV, respectively. Moreover, Mott-Schottky measurement was carried out to investigate the band structures. As shown in [Figure 4](#page-4-0)(f), the flat-band potential (E_{fb}) of the TiO₂(B) was determined to be -0.74 V by extrapolation of the X intercepts in Mott-Schottky plot, which is more negative than the potential of -0.68 V for TiO₂(A). The more negative E_{fb} endows thermodynamically stronger reduction ability of the $TiO₂(B)$ conduction electrons than $TiO₂(A)$, which is beneficial to $CO₂$ conversion.

3.4 CO₂ adsorption and photocatalytic CO₂ reduction

The $CO₂$ adsorption onto the photocatalyst is the first step that critically affects the photocatalytic conversion of $CO₂$ to hydrocarbons. [Figure 5\(](#page-4-2)a) displays the $CO₂$ adsorption isotherms of the samples, exhibiting that $TiO₂(B)$ has an adsorption amount of 0.42 mmol g^{-1} , while the adsorption amount of TiO₂(A) is only 0.24 mmol g^{-1} , mainly resulting from the higher surface area of $TiO₂(B)$. In the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction measurements, control experiments were carefully conducted in the absence of photocatalysts, irra-

[Figure 4](#page-4-0) XPS survey spectra (a), high-resolution X-ray photoelectron spectra of Ti 2p (b) and O 1s (c); nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms and the corresponding pore-size distribution curves (inset) (d), UV-Vis diffuse reflection spectra (e), Mott-Schottky plots (f) of TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A) (color online).

[Table 1](#page-4-1) Specific surface area, pore volume, pore diameter and the corresponding CO_2 uptake ability of TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A)^{a)}

Sample	CT (°C)	$-$ (m ²) ' g \mathcal{P}_{BET}	-- PV (cm ³ \mathbf{Q}	APS (nm)	CA $\overline{}$ \pmod{g}
TiO ₂ (B)	350	142	0.34	9.5	0.42
TiO ₂ (A)	650	\sim ر_	0.28	15.2	0.25

^{a)} CT: calcined tempreature; PV: pore volume; APS: average pore size; CA: CO₂ adsorption quantity corresponding to a *P*/*P*₀ of 1.0

[Figure 5](#page-4-2) (a) CO₂ adsorption curves of TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A); (b) CH₄ and CH₃OH generated after the first-hour illumination upon $TiO₂(B)$, $TiO₂(A)$ and P25. Time courses of photocatalytic $CH₄$ and $CH₃OH$ production over $TiO₂(B)$ (c) and $TiO₂(A)$ (d) (color online).

diation, H_2O or carbon source (using N₂ as the carrier gas). We found that hydrocarbons emerged only in the presence of the photocatalysts, irradiation, H_2O and CO_2 , confirming that the hydrocarbons resulted exclusively from the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction. [Figure 5\(](#page-4-2)b) presents the yield of CH_4 and CH₃OH after 1 h illumination over TiO₂(B), TiO₂(A) and P25, respectively. TiO₂(B) shows much higher hydrocarbons yield than $TiO₂(A)$ and P25, with the CH₄ yield of 0.23 µmol and CH₃OH yield of 0.08 μ mol. [Figures 5](#page-4-2)(c, d) show the time courses of photocatalytic $CH₄$ and $CH₃OH$ generation over $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$, respectively. Continuous increases of CH_4 and CH_3OH amount for both $TiO_2(B)$ could be observed upon up to 3 h illumination. Meanwhile, their production rates were higher over $TiO₂(B)$ than over $TiO₂$ (A). These results clearly indicate that $TiO₂(B)$ exhibits better photocatalytic $CO₂$ reduction performance than $TiO₂$ (A), which should result from the higher surface area, more negative conduction band and the unique phase property of $TiO₂(B)$. Moreover, it should be mentioned that the morphology and structure of the materials remained unchanged after the photocatalytic reactions, as shown in Figures S1 and S2 (Supporting Information online), indicating their high stability over $CO₂$ photoreduction.

To verify that the carbon source of the photo-reduction products were the introduced $CO₂$ (reaction of NaHCO₃ and $H₂SO₄$ solution) rather than the residual carbon species that might adsorb on the surface of the reactor and the materials, ${}^{13}CO_2$ isotope tracer experiment was conducted. [Figure 6](#page-5-0) shows the mass spectra (MS) of the $CH₄$ collected after the photocatalytic conversion of ${}^{12}CO_2$ and ${}^{13}CO_2$ over TiO₂(B). The much higher intensity of the MS signal at *m*/*z*=17 $($ ¹³CH₄) compared to the signal at $m/z=16$ was seen when using ${}^{13}CO_2$ as the carbon source, demonstrating that the photocatalytic reduction products over $TiO₂(B)$ indeed originated from the introduced $CO₂$ source.

[Figure 6](#page-5-0) The MS signals of the produced CH₄ over sample TiO₂(B) using **12CO₂** and ¹³CO₂ as carbon source, respectively (color online). **[Figure 7](#page-5-1)** Transient photocurrent responses for TiO₂(B) and TiO₂(A) un-

3.5 Photoelectrochemical measurements

The transient photocurrents of $TiO₂(B)$ and $TiO₂(A)$ were measured to further study their photo-activity. The photocurrent responses were recorded by switching on and off the irradiation light for a couple of cycles ([Figure 7\)](#page-5-1). The $TiO₂$ (B) exhibited the maximum photocurrent of 3.2 μ A cm⁻², which is three times higher of $TiO₂(A)$. This result is in good correspondence with the above-described photocatalytic $CO₂$ reduction activities. The gradual increase of the photocurrents indicate that the photo-generated charge carriers were first trapped by the defect states in the materials and the excess carriers could be extracted and contributed to the photocurrent. The difference in the shape of the photocurrent suggests more trap states in $TiO₂(B)$ compared to $TiO₂(A)$, while the slower decrease of the photocurrent of $TiO₂(B)$ implied longer life times of charge carriers, which could be beneficial to the $CO₂$ photoreduction.

3.6 *In-situ* **Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy**

Moreover, *in-situ* Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy was conducted to identify the surface intermediates in the CO_2 activation and conversion process for $TiO_2(B)$. As shown in [Figure 8,](#page-5-2) the initial reactive adsorption of $CO₂$ mainly resulted in the formation of bidentate carbonate (b- CO_3^2 , at 1323, 1360 and 1597 cm⁻¹) and CO_2^- (carboxylate, 1670 cm⁻¹) as well as monodentate carbonate $(m-CO_3^2)$ at 1467 and 1516 cm⁻¹) [41–[48\]](#page-6-15). There was no obvious change after extended exposure to $CO₂$ and $H₂O$ vapor in the dark. On the other hand, after the illumination (365 nm LED) switching on for 15 min, the peak assigned to b -CO₃²⁻ at 1597 cm^{-1} disappeared. Meanwhile, the intensities of the vibration peaks for m- CO_3^2 increased, especially the one at 1404 cm^{-1} . Importantly, a new adsorption peak at 1571 cm^{-1} was observed, which was attributed to the generation of formate [49[,50](#page-6-16)]. The increased amount of the m- CO_3^2 intermediate was because the conversion of CO_2 to CO_3^2 is thermodynamically more favorable [\[7\].](#page-6-17) These observations suggest that the two carbon species of b-CO₃²⁻ and CO_2^- were the primary intermediates during the adsorption process of

der LED light irradiation $(\lambda = 365 \text{ nm})$ in 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution (color online).

[Figure 8](#page-5-2) *In-situ* FTIR spectra of the $TiO₂(B)$ sample: (1) without CO₂ gas in dark, $(2-5)$ exposure to mixture of $CO₂$ and $H₂O$ vapor in dark taken every 15 min interval, $(6-9)$ exposure to mixture of $CO₂$ and $H₂O$ under LED (*λ*=365 nm) irradiation taken every 15 min interval (color online).

 $CO₂$ and H₂O mixture on the TiO₂(B) surface. Under illumination, on the other hand, the disappearance of most b- CO_3^2 and the increase of m-CO₃² indicate the reactive conversion of b-CO₃²⁻ to m-CO₃²⁻ [\[44\]](#page-6-18). The disappearance of CO_2^- and appearance of formate indicate that illumination leads to the conversion of CO_2^- to formate. In the photocatalytic reaction process, the photo-generated electrons will transfer to the surface of the photocatalyst and reduce the adsorbed CO_2 and CO_3^{2-} to CH_4 and CH_3OH . The photogenerated hole might be captured and quenched by the surface groups (e.g., hydroxyl) $[6,15]$ $[6,15]$ $[6,15]$.

4 Conclusions

In summary, we have successfully prepared stable monoclinic $TiO₂(B)$ polymorph with porous hierarchical nanostructure by a microwave assisted solvothermal method combined with subsequent heat treatment in air. The as-obtained $TiO₂(B)$ particles were constructed by ultrathin nanosheets and possessed large specific surface area, which provided many active sites for $CO₂$ adsorption and conversion. The samples were fully characterized by SEM, TEM,

 XRD , Raman, FTIR, XPS, N_2 sorption, UV-Vis and Mott-Schottky measurements. The $TiO₂(B)$ showed a superior photocatalytic CO₂ reduction efficiency compared to anatase TiO₂ and P25. We further performed *in-situ* FTIR measurement to identify the intermediates and deduce the conversion process of $CO₂$ under illumination over the $TiO₂(B)$ photocatalyst.

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