Performance Comparison of Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ Photocatalysts for H₂ Production in Different Alcohol-Water Mixtures

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Highlights:

- Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts afford similar H₂ rates in alcohol-water mixtures under UV.
- Ni/TiO₂ outperforms Au/TiO₂ in methanol-water mixtures.
- H₂ production rates depend on the alcohol hole scavenger ad alcohol concentration.
- At 10 vol.%, rates follow the order glycerol > ethylene glycol > methanol > ethanol.
- At 70 vol.%, rates follow the order methanol > ethanol > ethylene glycol > glycerol.

Abstract

This study systematically compares the performance of Ni/P25 TiO₂ and Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts for H₂ production in alcohol-water mixtures under UV excitation. 0.5 wt. % Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst were synthesized using literature procedures. HRTEM, UV-Vis, XANES and EXAFS analyses confirmed the presence of 5-8 nm metallic Ni and Au nanoparticles on the surface of the respective photocatalysts. H₂ production tests were conducted in various alcohol-water systems (0-100 vol.%), using methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol. The Ni/P25 TiO₂ and Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts demonstrated remarkably similar performance for hydrogen production in all

the alcohol-water systems tested, with Ni/P25 TiO₂ being marginally superior in methanolwater mixtures. At low alcohol concentrations (15 vol.% or less), rates followed the order glycerol > ethylene glycol > methanol > ethanol, whilst at higher alcohol concentrations methanol (optimum 40 vol.%) and ethanol (optimum 80-90 vol.%) afforded the highest H₂ production rates.

Keywords Hydrogen production; alcohol photoreforming; photocatalysis; nickel; TiO₂

1. Introduction

Hydrogen (H₂) is widely considered to be the clean energy vector of the future, with the gradual transition from a fossil fuel economy to a hydrogen economy expected to take place over the next 50-100 years. This transition demands low cost and environmentally friendly methods for H₂ production, distribution and storage, with the former arguably the greatest obstacle to the development of a sustainable hydrogen economy [1-3]. Currently, H₂ is produced industrially via steam methane reforming (SMR) coupled the water/gas shift reaction [2, 4, 5], processes which are energy intensive and have a significant carbon footprint. Amongst the various alternative technologies that have been proposed for future hydrogen production, water-splitting and alcohol-photoreforming using sunlight and semiconductor photocatalysts represent two of the more promising pathways. Over the past decade, an enormous amount of research effort has been directed towards the development and optimization of semiconductor photocatalysts for solar hydrogen production, with M/TiO₂ photocatalysts (M = Pd, Pt or Au) dominating this research space due to their high activity and photo-corrosion resistance [6-14].

A wide range of semiconductor materials have been studied in relation to H₂ production from water or biofuels under UV or solar excitation. TiO₂ (E_g = 3.0-3.3 eV, depending on the polymorph) is the most studied of these semiconductor because it low cost and satisfies the following three essential requirements to be an effective H₂ production photocatalyst [15, 16]: 1) the valence band of TiO₂ is more positive than the O₂/H₂O redox couple (+1.23 V versus NHE) or that of typical hole scavengers such as ethanol (CH₃CHO/CH₃CH₂OH +0.19 V versus NHE); (2) the conduction band of TiO₂ is more negative than the H₂O/H₂ redox couple (0 V versus NHE); and (3) TiO₂ is resistant to photocorrosion under UV excitation and the photoreactions that generate H₂ [6, 7]. Bulk absorption of electromagnetic radiation with E > E_g generates electron-hole pairs (e⁻ - h⁺), which either recombine or migrate to the surface of TiO_2 particles and drive oxidation and reducing reactions, respectively. However, bare TiO_2 surfaces are ineffective for generating H₂, due to the rapid electron-hole pair recombination and the large overpotential on TiO₂ surfaces. Surface modification of TiO₂ with electron accepting co-catalysts (e.g. especially Pd, Pt, Pt and Au) [12-14, 17-22] or semiconductors (e.g. $Cu_{2}O, CuO$ [3, 23-25] is effective in promoting H₂ evolution by suppressing electron-hole pair recombination (increasing the availability of charge carriers) and also creating cathodic sites for H₂ evolution. The best metal co-catalysts are high work function metals ((Pd ϕ = 5.6 eV, Pt $\phi = 5.7 \text{ eV}$ and Au $\phi = 5.3-5.6 \text{ eV}$) which form effective Schottky junctions with TiO₂ [26, 27], thereby allowing them to accept electrons from the conduction band of TiO₂. The Fermi level of these metal co-catalysts located between bottom of TiO_2 conduction band and the H_2O/H_2 redox couple, allowing facile transfer of electrons from TiO₂ to the metal co-catalysts and subsequently to aqueous protons in solution. Amongst the alternatives to active through expensive platinum group metal co-catalysts (Pd, Pt and Au), metallic nickel (Ni) is the most logical candidate, since Ni is cheap, abundant and similarly has a high work function (Ni ϕ = 5.3 eV) [26-28]. Relative to M/TiO₂ systems (Pd, Pt and Au), surprising little work has been reported to date on Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts for H₂ production, motivating further investigation.

Work to date on Ni/TiO₂ systems has been hampered by uncertainty about the exact nature of the dispersed Ni-related species on TiO₂ responsible for promoting H₂ evolution (e.g. NiO [29-35], Ni [28, 36-39] or Ni-NiO [13, 40, 41]. Table 1 summarises literature on Ni/TiO₂ semiconductor photocatalysts for H₂ production. Fan et al. reported that NiO/TiO₂ interfaces form effective p-n heterojunctions which facilitate H₂ evolution under UV excitation by acting as electron-trapping sites [29]. TiO_2 is an intrinsic n-type semiconductor due to lattice oxygen vacancies, whereas NiO is a wide band gap p-type semiconductor ($E_g = 3.6-4.0 \text{ eV}$) [42, 43] After photoexcitation of TiO₂, it was proposed that the electrons will migrate to NiO, which acts as the proton reduction site. Other groups have suggested that Ni/NiO core/shell structures can activate TiO₂ for H₂ evolution [13, 40, 41]. Bahruji et al. found Ni-NiO/TiO₂ photocatalysts yielded better photocatalytic activity compared to NiO/TiO₂ photocatalysts under the same testing conditions [13]. Recently, Chen et al. conducted a detailed study of Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts for H₂ production in ethanol-water mixtures under UV excitation [28]. It was determined by XPS and Ni K-edge and Ni L-edge XANES that Ni⁰ was the dominant nickel species on the surface of the Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts, with the optimal Ni loading for hydrogen production being 0.5 wt.%. Indeed, the 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ photocatalyst prepared using Degussa P25 (85 wt.% anatase + 15 wt.% rutile) demonstrated superior photocatalytic activity to a 2

wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ reference photocatalyst (2 wt.% loading is optimal for Au co-catalysts on TiO₂) at low ethanol concentrations (<10 vol.%). Chen et al. also tested NiO/TiO₂ photocatalysts in ethanol-water mixtures under UV [28], but these showed negligible initial activity and a long induction period before H₂ evolution commenced, suggesting reduction of NiO to Ni⁰ via electron transfer from the TiO₂ conduction band occurred during UV irradiation to create active sites for H₂ evolution. It should be noted that H₂ production rates reported by Chen et al. were 1-2 orders of magnitude higher than in other literature studies (~10-20 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ depending on the ethanol concentration, see Table 1), which suggests the need for caution and the requirement for further studies to confirm the high rates achieved. Further studies are also needed to confirm Ni⁰ as the active co-catalyst species.

The addition of sacrificial hole scavengers such as methanol or ethanol is a commonly used practice in semiconductor photocatalysis to facilitate electron-hole pair separation following photoexcitation. The sacrificial hole scavengers act as electron donors and are progressively oxidised by valence band holes at the photocatalyst surface (e.g. $CH_3OH + 2h^+ \rightarrow HCHO +$ $2H^+$; HCHO + H₂O + $2h^+ \rightarrow$ HCOOH + $2H^+$; HCOOH + $2h^+ \rightarrow$ CO₂ + $2H^+$), serving also as additional proton sources for generating H₂ [21, 22, 44-47]. The oxidation potentials for alcohol photoreforming alcohols are much lower than that of water (c.f. $CH_3OH + H_2O + 6h^+ \rightarrow CO_2$ + 6H⁺, 0.03 V versus NHE; CH₃CH₂OH + 3H₂O + $12h^+ \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 12H^+$, 0.08 V versus NHE; $H_2O \rightarrow H_2 + 1/2O_2$, 1.23 V versus NHE) [48]. Due to the relative ease of alcohol oxidation, and the suppression of electron-hole pair recombination in the semiconductor in the presence of the alcohol, photocatalytic H₂ production rates in alcohol-water mixtures are typically 1-2 orders of magnitude higher than those achieved in pure water. It should be noted that due to the higher charge carrier concentrations, the water splitting reaction is also enhanced when alcohols are used as sacrificial reagents. H₂ production rates are strongly dependent on the hole scavenger used [11-14, 21, 28, 49-53]. Bowker et al. investigated the Au/P25 TiO₂ system under UV, and found that H₂ production rates decreased in the order methanol > 1-propanol > ethanol > 1-butanol > 2-propanol >> tertiary butanol at a fixed alcohol concentration of 0.1 vol.% [11]. Bahruji et al. conducted a detailed study of the Pd/P25 TiO₂ system under UV using 20 different sacrificial reagents, and established the reactivity order triols > diols > 2° alcohols $> 1^{\circ}$ alcohols $> 3^{\circ}$ alcohols again at a 0.1 vol.% alcohol concentration [49]. Yang et al. studied H₂ production from pure alcohols over a 1 wt.% Pt/anatase photocatalyst, and observed that rates decreased in the order methanol \approx ethanol > 1-propanol \approx 2-propanol > 1-butanol [14]. Recent studies have attempted to correlate hydrogen production rates with specific properties of the alcohol, such as structure, polarize polarizability and alcohol oxidation potential [14].

These studies provide a reasonable guide as to the general reactivity pattern followed by M/TiO₂ photocatalysts at a specific alcohol concentrations.

What is not clear in current literature is the influence of alcohol concentrations on photocatalytic hydrogen production rates in M/TiO₂ systems (the vast majority of studies reported to date have used a single alcohol concentration, typically 0.1-0 vol.%). Only a few studies have probed the effect of alcohol concentration in detail [28, 54-61]. Wu et al. reported efficient hydrogen production from aqueous methanol-water mixtures containing Au/TiO2 photocatalysts under UV irradiation [54]. The optimal methanol concentration was 5 M methanol, yielding a H₂ production rate of $\sim 1000 \ \mu mol \ h^{-1}$. Stelmachowski et al. examined a wide range of TiO₂-based photocatalysts (co-catalysts = W, Mn, Cr, Ni, Co, Pt, Pd, Au and Ag) in aqueous glycerol solutions [55]. The highest H_2 production rate achieved was 24.2 mmol g^{-1} h⁻¹ for a 0.042 wt.% Pt/TiO₂ at a glycerol concentration of 4.5 wt.%. Daskalaki et al. conducted a systemic study of Pt/TiO₂ in glycerol-water mixtures [57]. The optimium reaction conditions were 0.1-0.5 wt.% Pt and a glycerol concentration of 1 M. Sadanandam et al. studies H₂ production from a 1 wt.% Co/TiO₂ photocatalyst in a range of glycerol-water mixtures (1-20 vol.%) under UV excitation, reporting an optimum H₂ production rate of 11021 μ mol g⁻¹ h^{-1} in 5 vol.% glycerol-water mixtures [61]. Recently, Chen et al. compared the photocatalytic activity of 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts in a wide range of ethanolwater mixtures (0-100 vol.% alcohol) under UV irradiation [28]. The optimal ethanol concentration was 95 vol.% for Ni/TiO₂ (rate = 24.3 mmol $g^{-1} h^{-1}$) and 80 vol.% for Au/TiO₂ (rate = $32.4 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$). To our knowledge, no study has yet been reported comparing the performance of different M/TiO₂ photocatalysts in different alcohol-water systems (e.g. methanol-water, ethanol-water, ethylene glycol-water and glycerol-water) and at different alcohol concentrations (e.g. 0-100 vol.%). It is not clear at all presently whether different M/TiO_2 photocatalysts (e.g. M = Ni, Pd, Pt, Au) show the same general H₂ production patterns with alcohol type and alcohol concentration, motivating a detailed experimental investigation.

This study aimed to systematically compares the performance of a 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst and a 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst for H₂ production in different alcoholwater systems under UV excitation, placing particular emphasis on the effect of alcohol type (methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol) and alcohol concentration (0-100 vol.%) on H₂ production rates. The objectives of the study were 4-fold; (i) to compare the activity of Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts for H₂ production in a wide range of alcohol-water mixtures under exactly the same testing conditions; (ii) to rank the alcohol sacrificial agents in terms of their ability to promote hydrogen evolution as a function of alcohol concentration; (iii) for each alcohol, to determine the optimum alcohol concentration for H₂ production; (iv) to further explore relationships between photocatalytic H₂ production rates and specific properties of the alcohols (such as the standard oxidation potential or viscosity of the alcohol-water mixtures). The overarching aim of the study was to validate the potential of Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts as low cost alternatives to Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts for solar H₂ production in alcohol-water mixtures.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Materials

Nickel(II) nitrate hexahydrate (≥ 97 %), glycerol (≥ 99 %), urea (≥ 99.5 %), sodium hydroxide (≥ 98 %), ammonia (28 wt.%), H₂O₂ (30 vol.%), HF (40 wt.%), Degussa P25 TiO₂, absolute ethanol (≥ 99.5 %), Ni foil (99.99%) and NiO (≥ 99.9 %) were all obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. All solutions were prepared using milli-Q water (18.2 M Ω ·cm resistivity). A reference photocatalyst, 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂, was prepared using the deposition-precipitation with urea method described by Zanella et al. [62]. Relevant characterization data for the 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ reference photocatalyst is provided in reference [63].

2.2. NiO/P25 TiO₂ and Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst synthesis

A NiO/P25 TiO₂ (NiO loading = 0.63 wt.%) photocatalyst precursor was prepared by the complex precipitation method [64]. Briefly, nickel(II) nitrate hexahydrate and glycerol (1:2 molar ratio) were added to milli-Q water (200 mL) to form an aqueous nickel(II)-glycerol complex. The exact mass of nickel (II) nitrate hexahydrate and glycerol were 0.247 g and 0.16 g, repsectively. P25 TiO₂ (10 g) was then added to the solution containing the nickel(II)-glycerol complex with continuous stirring. The nickel-glycerol complex was then precipitated on the P25 TiO₂ support by the dropwise addition of 0.5 M NaOH under constant stirring until a pH of 12 was reached. The resulting suspension was stirred for a further 1 h, and then the resulting light green powder (i.e. Ni(OH)₂/P25 TiO₂ powder was dried overnight at 70 °C in air. The 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst were obtained by calcination of the Ni(OH)₂/P25 TiO₂ powder at 300 °C for 2 h.

The 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst was obtained by heating the 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25

TiO₂ precursor under a H₂/N₂ flow (10 vol.% H₂, 100 mL min⁻¹) at 500 °C for 2 h. This treatment reduced adsorbed Ni(II) species to metallic form as evidence by a change in the colour of the powders from green (characteristic of NiO) to grey (characteristic of finely dispersed Ni⁰) [65]. Detailed physico-chemical characterization studies were subsequently conducted on both the NiO/P25 TiO₂ precursor and Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst.

2.3. Isolation of anatase and rutile from P25 TiO₂

To examine the role of anatase-rutile heterojunctions in P25 TiO_2 in promoting H₂ production, anatase and rutile nanoparticles were isolated from P25 TiO2 by selective chemical dissolution using procedures described by Ohtani et al. and Ohno et al., respectively [66, 67]. The anatase component was isolated as follows. Aqueous ammonia (2.5 wt.%, 20 mL) was added dropwise to a chilled aqueous H₂O₂ solution (30 wt.%, 600 mL) with constant stirring. Degussa P25 TiO₂ powder (5.40 g) was then added to the NH₃-H₂O₂ solution Degussa P25 TiO₂ powder (5.40 g) was then added to the NH₃-H₂O₂ solution stirring and the resulting suspension stirring for 12 h at room temperature. The anatase product was then collected by centrifugation at 4400 rpm for 30 min and the yellow supernatant discarded. The anatase powder was washed repeatedly with water and then oven dried at 100 °C for 24 h. The rutile component was isolated by adding P25 TiO₂ (30 g) to a 7 wt.% of aqueous HF solution (1 L) with constant stirring for 24 h at 20 °C. The residual powder was collected by centrifugation at 4400 rpm for 30 min, and the supernatant discarded. The rutile powder was washed repeatedly with Milli-Q and then calcined at 550 °C in air for 2 h to remove any residual fluroide. In the text below, the isolated anatase and rutile powders are referred to as anatase and rutile, respectively. A 0.5 wt.% Ni/anatase and 0.5 wt.% Ni/(85% anatase + 15% rutile) photocatalysts were then prepared using the method described in section 2.2. For the preparation of the latter, a physical mixture of isolated anatase (85 wt.%) and isolated rutile (15 wt.%) was first prepared. This had the same weight fractions of anatase and rutile as P25 TiO₂, but no anatase-rutile heterojunctions. Relevant characterization data for the isolate anatase and rutile phases is provided in reference [68].

2.4. Photocatalyst characterization

UV-Visible absorbance spectra were recorded over the range 250-1400 nm on a Shimadzu UV-2101 PC spectrophotometer equipped with an **ISR-240A integrating sphere attachment**. Barium sulphate was used as a reflectance standard.

TEM images were collected using a TECNAI 12 transmission electron microscope, operated at an electron accelerating voltage of 120 kV. Powder samples were dispersed in absolute ethanol and then 1 μ L of the resulting dispersion placed on carbon coated copper TEM grids for analysis.

HRTEM microstructural characterization was performed using a JEOL 2010F transmission electron microscope equipped with a field emission source operated at 200 kV. The point-to-point resolution of the electron microscope was 0.19 nm, and the resolution between lines was 0.14 nm. For STEM-HAADF-EDX characterization, the instrument used was a Tecnai G² F20 S-TWIN microscope equipped with a field emission electron source operated at 200 kV. The point-to-point resolution was 0.24 nm and the resolution between lines was 0.10 nm. Samples were deposited from alcohol suspensions onto holey-carbon Cu grids for analysis.

Powder XRD patterns were taken on a PANalytical Empyrean diffractometer equipped with a Cu anode X-ray tube and a curved graphite filter monochromator. XRD data was collected from $2\theta = 10-90^{\circ}$ (step 0.02° , scan rate 2° min⁻¹) using Cu K α X-rays ($\lambda = 1.5418$ Å, 40 mA, 40 kV). Anatase and rutile crystallite sizes (L) were determined from the powder XRD data using the Scherrer equation and line-widths of the anatase (101) reflection at $2\theta = 25.3^{\circ}$ and rutile (110) reflection at $2\theta = 27.4^{\circ}$, respectively. The rutile:anatase ratio in the samples was determined according to the method described by Ding et al. [69].

$$\% Rutile = \frac{1}{\left[1 + 0.8(I_A / I_R)\right]} \times 100$$

Where I_A is the peak intensity for the anatase (101) reflection, and I_R is the peak intensity for the rutile (110) reflection.

Ni K-edge EXAFS data was collected on the BL01B1 beamline of the Japan Synchrotron Radiation Research Institute (SPring-8). The storage ring was operated at 8 GeV and a ring current of 44-65 mA. A Si(111) single crystal was used to monochromatize the X-ray beam, and two ion chambers filled with Ar and N₂ were used as detectors of *I*₀ and *I*, respectively. 1 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ and 1.25 wt.% NiO/TiO₂ photocatalysts were pressed into thin pellets for the

EXAFS measurements, with a specific pellet thickness and density chosen to achieve an edge jump of ~0.4. All data reported here was collected in transmission mode. For EXAFS analysis, the oscillations were extracted from the EXAFS data by a spline smoothing method, and then normalized by the edge height around 50 eV above the absorption threshold. R-space plots were obtained by performing a Fourier transformation of the k^3 -weighted EXAFS oscillation from *k*-space to *r*-space over the range 30-140 nm⁻¹. *In-situ* quick XAFS (QXAFS) analyses were performed following a similar procedure to Okumura et al. [70]. Briefly, 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ samples were pressed into 1 mm thick pellets of 7 mm diameter. Multiple pellets were stacked in a custom built quartz holder to achieve an edge jump of 0.3 or greater. The holder was then transferred into an aluminium cell sealed by Kapton windows and connected to a gas flow reaction system. Flow cell gas concentrations were carefully monitored using a quadrapole mass spectrometer in real time. *In-situ* XAFS analyses on Ni K-edge were carried out at 60 s intervals at 400 °C in O₂:He gas or H₂:He gas at a fixed volume ratio of 1:99 for Ni species oxidation and reduction cycles..

 N_2 physisorption isotherms were determined at liquid nitrogen temperature (-195 °C) using a Micromeritics Tristar 3000 instrument. Specific surface areas were calculated from the N_2 adsorption data according to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method using P/P₀ values in the range 0.05-0.2 [71]. Cumulative pore volumes and pore diameters were calculated from the adsorption isotherms by the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method [72]. Samples were degassed at 100 °C under vacuum for 1 h prior to the N_2 physisorption measurements. All samples had similar N_2 physisorption isotherms that could be classified as Type II according to the IUPAC convention for adsorption isotherms.

Photoluminescence measurements were performed in air at room temperature using a Perkin-Elmer LS-55 Luminescence Spectrometer. A 290 nm cutoff filter was used. Spectra were excited at 310 nm and photoluminescence spectra were recorded over a range of 330-600 nm using a standard photomultiplier.

2.5. Photocatalytic hydrogen production tests

Photocatalytic hydrogen production tests on the Ni/P25 TiO₂, Ni/anatase, Ni/(85% anatase + 15% rutile) and Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts were carried out in a tubular pyrex reactor (105 mL volume). Photocatalyst (6.5 mg) was placed in the reactor and flushed under a N₂ flow for 30

min to remove oxygen. Then, 20 mL of an alcohol-water mixture (0-100 vol.% alcohol) was injected into the reactor through a rubber septum and the resulting photocatalyst dispersion stirred continuously for 1 h in the dark (no UV excitation). The reactor was then exposed to UV light, supplied from a Spectraline model SB-100P/F lamp (100 W, 365 nm) at a distance of 10 cm from the reactor. The photon flux at the sample was approximately 6.5 mW cm⁻² (the UV flux from the Sun is approximately 5 mW cm⁻²). Hydrogen evolution was monitored by taking gas head space samples (1 mL) at 20 min intervals and injecting these into a Shimadzu GC 2014 equipped with a TCD detector and Carboxen-1010 plot capillary column (L×I.D. 30 m×0.53 mm, average thickness 30 μ m). H₂ evolved was quantified against an external calibration curve of peak area versus moles of H₂. Photocatalytic tests for each sample were carried out in triplicate.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Photocatalyst characterization

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analyses were conducted on the various Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts to establish the approximate mean size and dispersion of the supported Ni and Au co-catalysts. Metallic Ni nanoparticles were difficult to discern by conventional TEM for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts due to the similarity in the atomic number of Ni and Ti. However, using HRTEM and EDX, Ni nanoparticles could be readily identified on the surface of the P25 TiO₂ support (Fig. 1(a)-(e)). EDX spectra recorded over the low and high contrast areas "a" and "b" in STEM/HADADF imaging mode allowed classification of Ni and TiO₂ particles (Fig. 1(a)-(b)). The low contrast areas are TiO₂ and the high contrast areas are Ni-containing particles. To get a better insight into the nature and structure of the nickel-containing particles, HRTEM analysis was carried out and the location of Ni nanoparticles indicated in Fig. 1(c). At the nominal Ni loading of 0.5 wt.% (confirmed by XRF, Table 5), the Ni nanoparticles were \sim 5-8 nm in size. The metallic nature of the nanoparticles was confirmed by the detailed lattice fringe analysis provided in Fig. 1(d)-(e). Fig. 1(d) shows two anatase particles and a Ni nanoparticle oriented along the [110] crystallographic direction. The Fourier Transform image recorded over the Ni particle shows spots at 2.04 Å, corresponding to (111) crystallographic planes of Ni metal [70-72]. Fig. 1(e) shows an FT image with spots at 2.04 and 1.76 Å, correspond to the (111) and (200) crystallographic planes of Ni metal [70]. The HRTEM analyses confirm the presence of 5-8 nm Ni metal nanoparticles on the surface of the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst. It should

be noted that the HRTEM analysis was performed approximately 1 month after the H_2 reduction step used in the synthesis of the photocatalyst (to reduce supported NiO to Ni, section 2.2). This suggests that the re-oxidation of Ni to NiO proceeds very slowly at room temperature (this has important implications for H_2 production tests discussed below where we strongly advocate metallic Ni as the active co-catalyst for H_2 production). For the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst, the mean size of the Au nanoparticles was also in the same range (5-8 nm), with the gold nanoparticles being easy to discern form the P25 support even at low magnification (Fig. 1(f)).

Powder XRD patterns for P25 TiO₂, 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂, 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ are shown in Fig. S1. The XRD patterns for all photocatalysts were dominated by peaks due to anatase and rutile in the P25 TiO₂ support. The anatase:rutile weight ratio for all photocatalysts was ~6:1, in good agreement with the manufacturer's specifications. Average anatase and rutile particle sizes, estimated from the FWHM of the anatase (101) and rutile (110) reflections using the Scherrer equation, were 25 nm and 50 nm, respectively. The data confirms that co-catalyst deposition did not change the phase composition of the P25 TiO₂ support. No obvious diffraction patterns were seen for NiO or Ni were evident at low nominal metal loadings used here. For the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ sample, very weak and broad peaks around 44° and 64° could be discerned and assigned to *fcc* Au(200) and Au(220) reflections, respectively (the Au(111) reflection is obscured by signals from the P25 TiO₂ support).

UV-Vis absorbance spectra and corresponding Tauc plots for P25 TiO₂, 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂, 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ are shown in Fig. 2. All samples showed intense absorption below 400 nm due to the P25 TiO₂ support ($E_g \sim 3.15$ eV was determined from the Tauc plots for each photocatalyst). The 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst precursor was a light green colour and showed distinctive absorption features at visible wavelengths corresponding to d-d transitions (electron configuration of Ni²⁺ is 3d⁸). In contrast, the 0.5 wt.% Ni/p25 TiO₂ photocatalyst prepared by H₂ reduction of the precursor was grey absorbing strongly across the entire visible spectrum consistent with the presence of supported metallic nickel nanoparticles. The Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst showed an intense absorption feature centred between 560-590 nm, associated with the characteristic Au 5d \rightarrow 6 sp localised surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) absorption of Au nanoparticles dispersed on TiO₂.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts have been reported elsewhere [28], and confirmed that metallic Ni and Au were the dominant co-catalyst species on the surface of these photocatalysts. *In-situ* Ni K-edge X-ray absorption analyses were subsequently conducted to better understand the NiO to

Ni reduction process used to "activate" the Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts for H₂ production. Au 4f XPS spectra shows the presence of metallic Au species in the 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

These measurements were very useful for identifying the chemical state of nickel (metallic Ni or NiO) on P25 TiO₂ during reduction or oxidation treatments. For the experiments, pellets of the 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst precursor were prepared, then transferred to an in-situ cell and subjected to alternating cycles of reduction (1 vol.% H₂ in He) and oxidation (1 vol.% O2 in He) at 400 °C. A reduction temperature of 400 °C was selected so that the reduction process did not happen too quickly (note that we used a reduction temperature of 500 °C when preparing the photocatalyst. Section 2.2). In-situ XAS collected at the Ni K-edge for the reduction and reoxidation of 0.5 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ precursor is shown in Fig. 3, along with reference data for Ni foil and NiO. The XANES spectrum of NiO shows the intense absorption at ~ 8350 eV, which is characteristic of an octahedral NiO₆ coordination [73]. The Ni K-edge XANES spectrum for the 0.5 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst precursor heated to 400 °C similarly showed a strong absorption peak at ~8350 eV, confirming the presence of NiO (at Time = 0). Following introduction of 1 vol.% H_2 into the sample chamber, a complete reduction of the supported NiO to metallic nickel occurred, evidenced by the disappearance of the 8350 eV feature and the appearance of a distinct shoulder at lower photon energies typical for metallic Ni (the spectrum obtained after H₂ treatment at 400 °C was near identical to that of the metallic Ni reference foil). Cycling between an oxygen-containing atmosphere and a hydrogen-containing atmosphere at 400 °C resulted in either NiO or Ni⁰ being present on the P25 TiO₂ surface (Fig. 3), respectively. Finally, the reduced sample was cooled from 400 °C to room temperature under a 1 vol.% H₂ atmosphere, and then exposed to a 1 vol.% O₂ atmosphere. No reoxidation of Ni⁰ to NiO occurred, even after several hours. This supports our earlier statement above that the reoxidation of supported metallic nickel nanoparticles on TiO2 is very slow at room temperature (likely year timescales for even partial reoxidation). Fig. 4 shows the mole fractions of Ni and NiO present as a function of time during the reduction and oxidation steps, determined from the Ni K-edge XANES spectra of Fig. 4. Note that at 400 °C, the oxidation of Ni⁰ to NiO is rapid (~ 12 min) compared to the reduction of NiO to Ni⁰ (62-69 min).

Corresponding R-space plots obtained from both displayed characteristic peaks at 1.65 Å and 2.6 Å, readily assigned to Ni-O and Ni-Ni distances in NiO, respectively [73, 74]. Following H₂ reduction at 400 °C, these two features disappeared and were replaced by an intense peak at 2.1 Å corresponding to Ni-Ni in metallic nickel with *fcc* symmetry based on additional signals at ~4-6 Å which confirm long range order (Fig. 5) [75, 76]. The XANES and

EXAFS data thus provide strong evidence that metallic Ni is the dominant (and perhaps only) surface species on the TiO_2 support after the H₂ reduction treatment (a result supported by the HRTEM and UV-vis data presented in Fig. 1 and 2, respectively).

Metal co-catalysts (e.g. Ni or Au) are proposed to enhance the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ for H₂ production under UV excitation by accepting photoexcited electrons from conduction band of TiO₂ and serving as cathodic sites for H_2 evolution [4, 6, 8-11, 14, 17, 19, 25, 28, 49-52, 63]. Photoluminescence spectra collected in air for P25 TiO₂, 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ are shown in Fig. 6, and provide direct evidence for suppression of electron-hole pair recombination in the P25 TiO₂ support in the presence of the added cocatalysts. Following UV excitation, P25 TiO₂ gave a very intense and broad photoluminescence signal centred around 390 nm, which contains contributions from direct and indirect band gap transitions (radiative de-excitation) in anatase and rutile, though mainly the former since anatase is the dominant TiO₂ polymorph in P25 TiO₂ [77]. The high intensity of the photoluminescence signal observed for P25 TiO₂ indicates rapid electron-hole pair recombination occurs following UV excitation. Following deposition of Ni or Au on P25 TiO₂, the photoluminescence signal observed was weaker, confirming that Ni or Au effectively suppresses electron-hole pair recombination in TiO₂ by create a rectifying Schottky junction, since the Fermi level of supported Ni nanoparticles and 5 nm Au nanoparticles is -0.23 V and -0.27 V versus NHE, respectively. The intense photoluminescence signal indicates rapid electron-hole pair recombination following UV excitation. Following deposition of Ni or Au nanoparticles on P25 TiO₂, the photoluminescence signal observed was much weaker, confirming that Ni or Au effectively suppresses electron-hole pair recombination in TiO₂ by creating a rectifying Schottky junction with TiO₂. This result is consistent with expectations, since the Fermi levels of supported Ni nanoparticles and 5 nm Au nanoparticles are located at -0.23 V and -0.27 V versus NHE (cf. the conduction band levels of anatase and rutile are located at -0.5 and -0.7 V versus NHE).

3.2. Effect of alcohol concentration on photocatalytic hydrogen production rates

The photocatalytic performance of the 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts were evaluated in methanol-water, ethanol-water, ethylene glycol-water and glycerol water mixtures at alcohol concentrations ranging from 0-100 vol.% under UV excitation (365 nm, 6.5 mW cm⁻²). Fig. 7(a)-(d) shows plots of H₂ production versus time for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst in the 4 different alcohol-water mixtures. In all alcohol-water systems, the

H₂ evolution with time was linear confirming that the photocatalyst was stable under the testing condition. Further, there was no induction period before the H₂ evolution commenced, consistent with metallic nickel nanoparticles being the active co-catalyst species for H₂ evolution (Ni⁰ was the only surface species at the commencement of the experiment and after the experiment, evidenced by UV-Vis spectroscopy and TEM analyses on as-synthesized and post reaction catalysts). Hydrogen production rates determined from Fig. 7 are summarized in Fig. 8 and Table S1-4. Fig. 8 shows that H₂ production rates for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst were highly dependent on the alcohol concentration, with the optimum concentration for methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol being 40, 95, 20 and 10 vol.%, respectively. H₂ production rates at the optima were 31.1, 24.3, 24.6 and 26.0 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, respectively. Corresponding plots of H₂ production versus time for the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst are shown in Fig. S2, with the H₂ production rates extracted from Fig. S2 plotted in Fig. 9 and listed Table S1-4. The data for the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst was very similar to that collected for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst in the different alcoholwater systems, showing similar optimum alcohol concentrations (for methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol, the optimum alcohol concentration for the Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst was 40, 80, 20 and 15 vol.%, respectively). H₂ production rates at the optima were 29.7, 32.4, 26.4 and 32.7 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, respectively. Comparing Fig. 8 and Fig. 9, it can be seen that the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst displayed superior performance to the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst in methanol-water mixtures, whereas the latter generally demonstrated superior performance in the other alcohol-water mixtures (except at ethanol concentrations < 10 vol.% where Ni/P25 TiO₂ had a slight advantage). However, the main finding of this study is that for all four alcohol-water systems studied, the same general pattern of H₂ production versus alcohol concentration was observed for both the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst.

The shift in the optimum alcohol concentration for H₂ production with alcohol type warrants further discussion. Table 2 shows redox equations for methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol reforming, as well as calculated standard oxidation potentials (versus NHE) calculated from the Gibbs free energy change for the reforming reactions. If we consider in the first instance only methanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol (i.e. alcohols with a O/C ratio of 1), then the molar ratio H₂O:alcohol required for the reforming reaction are 1:1, 2:1 and 3:1 respectively. Accordingly, it is intuitive that methanol reforming should occur at a higher water concentration than ethylene glycol reforming, with the reforming of the latter occurring at a higher water concentration than glycerol reforming. Indeed, that is the exact trend seen in the

photocatalytic data of Fig. 8 and Fig. 9, with the optimum concentration for H_2 production being 40 vol.% in methanol-water mixtures (at this concentration the molar ratio H₂O:methanol = 3.4), at 20 vol.% in ethylene glycol-water systems (at this concentration the molar ratio H₂O: ethylene glycol = 12.5 and at ~10-15 vol.% in glycerol-water systems (at these concentrations the molar ratio H₂O:glycerol = \sim 30). It should be noted at this point that under the conditions of our experiments, H_2 is produced by both alcohol photoreforming and water splitting (in the absence of added alcohol, H₂ production rates > 1 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ were observed for both the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts in pure water under UV). Even higher rates of water splitting are expected to occur in the presence of the alcohol sacrificial agents due to the significantly improved charge separation in the TiO₂. In part, this co-existence of water splitting and alcohol photoreforming explains why the optimum alcohol concentration for each alcohol-water system differed somewhat from the theoretical molar H₂O:alcohol ratios predicted for methanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol reforming (Table 2). Another important, though generally not appreciated factor that likely influenced the optimum alcohol concentration of the ethylene glycol-water and glycerol-water systems was solution viscosity. At high concentrations, aqueous solutions of ethylene glycol and especially glycerol are very viscous, which has obvious implications for photoreactions in terms of transport of reactants and products to and from, respectively, the photocatalyst surface. At 30 °C, viscosities of methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol, glycerol and water are 0.659, 1.280, 12.437 and 624 centipoise (cP), respectively [78, 79]. In Fig. S3, H₂ production rates for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst were plotted against solution viscosity for each alcohol-water system. Corresponding data for the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst is plotted in Fig. S4. In the case of ethylene glycol-water and glycerol-water mixtures, H₂ production rates decreased very sharply with increasing viscosity (i.e. increasing alcohol concentration). For the methanolwater and ethanol-water systems, the viscosity change over the whole range of concentrations tested (0-100 vol.%) was 1-2 orders of magnitude smaller than that of the ethylene glycol-water and glycerol-water systems, and hence solution viscosity would have a much lesser impact on H₂ production rates. Finally, it is apparent from Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 that the optimum concentration for ethanol photoreforming (80-95 vol.% depending on the photocatalyst) was much higher than them optimal concentrations determined for the other alcohols. Whilst the theoretical molar ratio H_2O :ethanol for ethanol reforming is 3:1, the lower O/C ratio of 0.5 and the presence of the ethyl group (not present for any of the other alcohols) clearly have an impact on the optimum ethanol concentration. Although a detailed analysis of the other was not performed here (i.e. products other than H_2), it is reasonable to assume that much of the H_2 produced during ethanol photoreactions over the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts originated from the partial oxidation of ethanol to acetaldehyde (i.e. $CH_3CH_2OH + 2h^+ \rightarrow CH_3CHO + 2H^+$ followed by $2H^+ + 2e_- \rightarrow H_2$) instead of the full photoreforming reaction (CH₃CH₂OH + $3H_2O$ + 12h+ $\rightarrow 2CO_2$ + 12H⁺ followed by 12H⁺ + $12e \rightarrow 6H_2$). This would explain why the optimum ethanol concentration was very high, since the partial oxidation route produces H₂ but does not consume H₂O. Cleavage of the C-C bond in ethanol or acetaldehyde or acetates (formed via $CH_3CHO + 2h^+ + H_2O \rightarrow CH_3COOH + 2H^+$) is possibly the rate limiting step in the full ethanol photoreforming reaction. Ethylene glycol and glycerol also contain C-C bonds, though each carbon atom in these alcohol is also bonded to oxygen, making the stepwise oxidation of the alcohol to the aldehyde and eventually to CO_2 thermodynamically easier though the mechanisms involved are complex. Ethylene glycol is first oxidised to glycolaldehyde (HOCH₂CH₂OH + $2h^+ \rightarrow$ HOCH₂CHO + $2H^+$), glycolaldehyde to glyoxal (HOCH₂CHO + $2h^+ \rightarrow$ HOCCOH + $2H^+$), glyoxal to glycolic acid (HOCCOH + H₂O \rightarrow HOCOCH₂OH), glycolic acid to oxalic acid (HOCOCH₂OH + 4h⁺ + $H_{2O} \rightarrow HOOCCOOH + 4H^{+}$) and finally oxalic acid to CO_2 (HOOCCOOH + $2h^{+} \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 2CO_2$ $2H^+$ [80, 81]. For glycerol-water mixtures, the mechanism is still under investigation, but the major photocatalytic processes involved are thought to be the oxidation of glycerol to glycolaldehyde and formic acid (HOCH₂CH(OH)CH₂OH + H₂O + 4h+ \rightarrow HOCH₂CHO + $HCOOH + 4H^+$) [82] and the secondary oxidation of glycolaldehyde to formic acid and formaldehyde (HOCH₂CHO + H₂O + 4h+ \rightarrow HCOOH + HCHO + 4H+) followed by the simple photocatalytic oxidation of formic acid and formaldehyde to CO₂ [82].

3.3. Effect of alcohol structure on photocatalytic hydrogen production rates

Following the detailed examination of the influence of alcohol concentration on photocatalytic hydrogen production rates, attention was subsequently directed towards the effect of alcohol structure on H₂ production rates for both the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts. To negate the impact of solution viscosity on H₂ production rates, we selected a fixed alcohol concentration of 10 vol.% to compare the different alcohols, at which concentration all of the aqueous alcohol solutions had a similar viscosity (1-2 centipoise).

Table 3 shows H₂ production rates determined for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts in 10 vol.% methanol-water, ethanol-water, ethylene glycol-water and glycerol-water mixtures (corresponding data collected for the same photocatalysts at 80

vol.% alcohol is also tabulated). The data for both photocatalysts reveals the same general trend, with H₂ production rates decreasing in the order glycerol > ethylene glycol > methanol > ethanol. The 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst afforded rates of 26.0, 21.4, 15.7 and 11.6 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ in 10 vol.% glycerol, ethylene glycol, methanol and ethanol, respectively. The 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst afforded corresponding rates of 30.3, 25.8, 16.9 and 10.0 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, respectively. In order to understand the trend seen in the H₂ production rates, the structure and physical properties of the four different alcohols need to be considered. Table 4 summarises key physical properties of the four alcohols studied in this work. In Fig. 10 and 11 we have plotted H₂ production rates against specific properties of the alcohols, namely the number of alpha hydrogens on the alcohol, the number of OH groups on the alcohol, alcohol polarity and finally exp(- ΔE°), where $\Delta E^{\circ} = E^{\circ}_{VB(TIO2)} - E^{\circ}_{ox}$ (the justification for which is discussed below). In all cases, reasonable linear correlations can be established between the H₂ production rates and the selected physical properties of the alcohols, with both the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts showing similar behaviours.

The photoreforming of the alcohols can be represented by the following general equation [48]:

 $C_xH_yO_z + (2x - z)H_2O \rightarrow xCO_2 + nH^+ + ne^-$

where x, y and z are the number of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen atoms in alcohol, respectively, and n is the number of protons or electrons liberated. The photoreaction will proceed via the formation of alpha hydroxyl radicals in the aqueous media followed by oxidation to the corresponding aldehyde, which accounts for the importance of α -H atoms on the alcohol to achieving high H₂ production rates [11]. The interaction of lone pairs on the OH groups with unoccupied Ti 3d states is important for the physical adsorption of the alcohols and alpha hydroxyl radicals on the TiO₂ surface (hence the relationship between H₂ production rates and the number of OH groups on the alcohol, in addition to the adsorption strength of the alcohols on TiO₂ decreasing in the order glycerol > ethylene glycol > mono alcohols) (Fig. 10). The dependence of H₂ production rates on alcohol polarity and alcohol oxidation potential are in accord with the findings of Yang et al. for the Pt/TiO₂ system and Al-Azri et al. for Pd/TiO₂, Pt/TiO_2 - and Au/TiO_2 system [14, 22]. The standard oxidation potentials (E_{ox}^{o}) calculated for methanol, ethanol, ethylene glycol and glycerol (Table 2) were 0.016, 0.084, 0.009 and 0.004 V versus NHE, respectively, all significantly lower than the oxidation potential of water (1.23) V versus NHE). Hence, during photocatalysis in alcohol-water systems, the alcohols will be preferentially oxidised, though water will also be oxidised through direct water splitting and alcohol photo-reforming. Glycerol and ethylene glycol afforded the highest H_2 production rates for Ni/P25 TiO₂ and Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts (Table 3), which can be rationalised in terms of their low oxidation potentials making them the best sacrificial hole scavengers. Considering a simple electron transfer reaction between an electron donor and an electron acceptor (valence band holes in TiO₂ in this case) [83], the experimental rate constant (k_{exp}) for such reactions follows the relation:

$$k_{exp} \propto exp^{-(E_{VB(TiO_2)}^o - E_{ox}^o)/RT}$$

where $E_{VB(TiO_2)}^{\circ}$ and E_{ox}° are the valence band potential of TiO₂ (2.7 V for anatase) and the oxidation potential of the donor (alcohol or water), respectively. If electron transfer from the alcohols or water to TiO₂ was the overall rate limiting step in photocatalytic H₂ production over Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ surfaces, then H₂ production rates could be expected to correlate with $exp^{-(E_{VB(TiO_2)}^{\circ}-E_{ox}^{\circ})}$. Fig. 11(b) confirms a linear relationship between the H₂ production rates and $exp(-\Delta E^{\circ})$ for both the Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ photocatalysts (data for ethanol was excluded since it did not have a O:C ratio = 1 like the other alcohols).

3.4. Synergistic role of anatase-rutile heterokunctions in H₂ production over the Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatlyst

Previous studies of P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts have demonstrated the critical role of anataserutile heterojunctions in promoting rates of aqueous dye degradation and also photocatalytic H₂ production [68, 84]. Under UV excitation, both anatase and rutile generate charge carriers (electron-hole pairs). Rutile is a direct band gap semiconductor whereas anatase is an indirect band gap semiconductor, thus rates of electron-hole pair generation (and also recombination) are much faster in rutile than in anatase. By fusing anatase and rutile nanoparticles, as is the case in P25 TiO₂, conduction band electrons in rutile can migrate into the conduction band of anatase (possible since the conduction band of rutile at -0.2 V is more negative versus NHE than that of anatase), whilst valence band holes in anatase migrate into the valence band of rutile (again possible since the VB of anatase is +0.4 V more positive versus NHE than that of rutile). The net effect of the anatase-rutile heterojunctions in P25 is a significant improvement in charge separation following photoexcitation which increases the number of charge carriers (holes and electrons) reaching the photocatalysts generally display superior photocatalytic activities to single polymorph TiO_2 photocatalysts (e.g. pure anatase, brookite or rutile). To determine the extent to which anatase-rutile heterojunctions promoted photocatalytic H₂ production in the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ system, we prepared two further 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts using anatase and rutile nanoparticles isolated from P25 TiO₂ by selective chemical dissolution (see methods section). Fig. S5 shows XRD patterns for the anatase and rutile nanoparticles isolated by this approach, which were almost pure phase. From these isolated anatase and rutile nanoparticles, a 0.5 wt.% Ni/anatase photocatalyst and a 0.5 wt.% Ni/(85% anatase + 15\% rutile) photocatalyst were prepared, and their performance evaluated against the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst for H₂ production in 10 vol.% alcohol-water mixtures under UV excitation. Results are shown in Fig. 12 and Table 5. Fig. 12(a)-(c) show that all photocatalysts were stable under the testing conditions, evidence by linear H₂ production with time. Also, all 3 photocatalysts showed the same general trend in H_2 production rates, with rates decreasing in the familiar order glycerol > ethylene glycol > methanol > ethanol (Table 5 and Fig. 12(d)). However, in all alcohol-water systems tested, H_2 production rates were significantly higher for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst than other two catalysts, emphasizing the importance of interfacial electron and hole migration at the anatase-rutile interface to the high photoactivity of P25 TiO₂. Such migration is negligible in the Ni/anatase and Ni/(85% anatase + 15% rutile) photocatalysts.

Currently we are attempting to quantify other products formed during the H₂ production tests in order to gain a better understanding the photoreaction mechanism(s) and also to ascertain the relative contributions water splitting and alcohol photoreforming to the H₂ yields reported here.

3.5. Schematic of photocatalytic H₂ production in the Ni/P25 TiO₂ (or Au/P25 TiO₂) system

Fig. 13 shows a schematic energy diagram of the key processes leading to H₂ evolution over the Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts [28, 37, 38]. Photoexcitation under UV generates electron hole pairs in both TiO₂ polymorphs [85, 86]. , with electrons accumulatting in the conduction band of anatase and holes in the valence band of rutile due to the favorable offsets of their respective valence and conduction bands. The valence band holes migrate to the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles (especially to the surface of rutile) and oxidize alcohols and to a lesser extent water to generate H⁺, whilst electrons in the conduction band of the TiO₂ nanoparticles (mainly in anatase) migrate onto Ni⁰ nanoparticles (or Au⁰ nanoparticles) which serve cathodic sites for H₂ evolution (2H⁺ + 2e⁻ \rightarrow H₂). The appropriate Fermi level positions of Ni⁰ (or Au⁰) together with its high work function create an effective Schottky barrier preventing the unwanted migration of electrons back into the conduction band of TiO₂.

4. Conclusion

Ni/P25 TiO₂ and Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts exhibit very similar photocatalytic activity for H₂ production in alcohol-water mixtures under UV excitation. For both photocatalyst systems and a fixed alcohol concentration of 10 vol.%, H₂ production rates were found to decrease in the order glycerol > ethylene glycol > methanol > ethanol. Reasonable linear correlations could be established between the H₂ production rates and specific properties of the alcohol, such as number of OH groups, polarity and the standard oxidation potential of the alcohol. H₂ production rates were strongly dependent on the alcohol concentration, with the optimum alcohol concentration determined to be 10-15 vol.% for glycerol, 20 vol.% for ethylene glycol, 40 vol.% for methanol and 80-95 vol.% for ethanol. For the ethylene glycol-water and glycerolwater systems, the solution viscosity increased marked with concentration above 10-20 vol.%, which detrimentally impacted photocatalytic production rates. Anatase-rutile heterojunctions in the P25 TiO₂ support were shown to enhance photocatalytic H₂ production, by allowing electron and hole transfer between the polymorphs which increased the availability of valence band holes for alcohol and water oxidation and conduction band electrons for subsequent proton reduction to H₂ on supported Ni⁰ or Au⁰ sites. On account of the similarity of the photocatalytic data reported here for the Ni/P25 TiO₂ and Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts (in fact Ni/P25 TiO2 was superior in all methanol-water mixtures and ethanol-water mixtures at concentrations < 10 vol.%), it can be concluded that Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts are very promising low cost alternatives to noble metal-based photocatalysts for solar H₂ production in alcoholwater mixtures.

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Figure Captions:

Figure 1 – (a)-(b) STEM/HAADF images of 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst with EDX spectra shown as insets; (c)-(e) HRTEM images of 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst with insets showing lattice fringes and selected area diffraction patterns from supported metallic Ni nanoparticles; (f) TEM image of the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst.

Figure 2 – (a) UV-Visible absorbance spectra for P25 TiO₂, 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25, 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts. (b) Corresponding Tauc plots for P25 TiO₂, 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25, 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts.

Figure 3 – *In-situ* Ni K-edge XANES under different conditions for a 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst subjected to repeated cycles of H₂ reduction and oxidation at 400 °C, followed by final cooling of the reduced form to room temperature and then exposure to O₂. Time (in minutes) from the beginning of the experiments is shown on the left.

Figure 4 – Fraction of nickel as metallic Ni or NiO for the 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst under different treatment conditions, determined from the *in-situ* Ni K-edge EXAFS data in Fig. 3. The coloured vertical dotted lines correspond to individual spectra in Figure 4.

Figure 5 – R-space plots based on Fourier transforms on k^3 -weighted *in-situ* Ni K-edge EXAFS oscillations for for a 0.63 wt.% NiO/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst subjected to repeated cycles of H₂ reduction and oxidation at 400 °C, followed by final cooling of the reduced form to room temperature and then exposure to O₂.

Figure 6 – Photoluminescence spectra for (a) P25 TiO₂; (b) 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂; and (c) 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ following UV excitation.

Figure 7 – Plots of H₂ production versus time for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst in different alcohol:H₂O mixtures under UV irradiation. (a) methanol; (b) ethanol; (c) ethylene glycol; and (d) glycerol.

Figure 8 – Rates of H₂ production versus alcohol type and alcohol concentration for the 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst under UV irradiation.

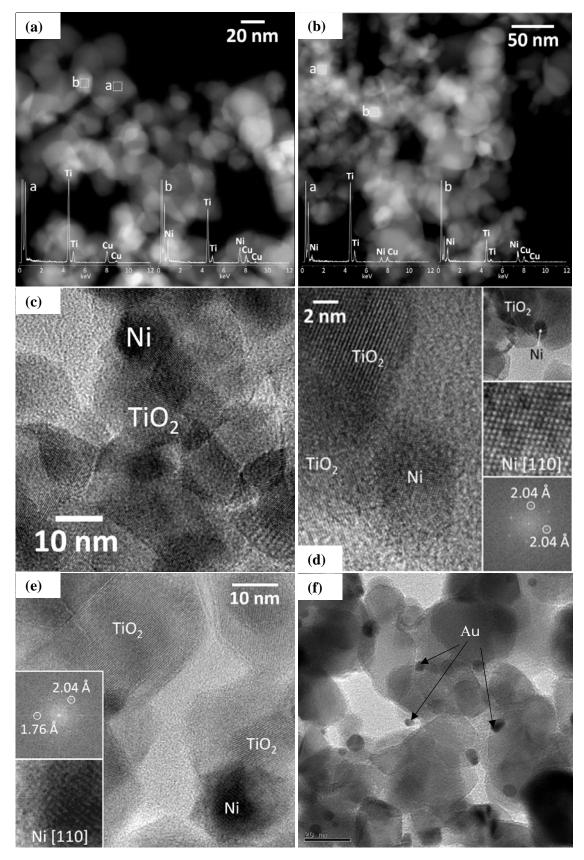
Figure 9 – Rates of H_2 production versus alcohol concentration for the 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst under UV irradiation.

Figure 10 – H₂ production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst versus (a) number of α -H on the alcohol; and (b) number of OH groups on the alcohol.

Figure 11 – H_2 production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalyst versus (a) alcohol polarity; and (b) alcohol oxidation potential. Data for ethanol was excluded from (b).

Figure 12 – Plots of H₂ production rate versus time for different 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts in 10 vol.% alcohol-water mixtures under UV irradiation: (a) 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO2; (b) 0.5 wt.% Ni/anatase isolated from P25 TiO₂; and (c) 0.5 wt.% Ni/(85% anatase + 15 % rutile physical mixture); (d) performance comparison of selected Ni/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

Figure 13 – Schematic illustration showing the important electron transfer processes in the Ni/TiO_2 system leading to H₂ production.





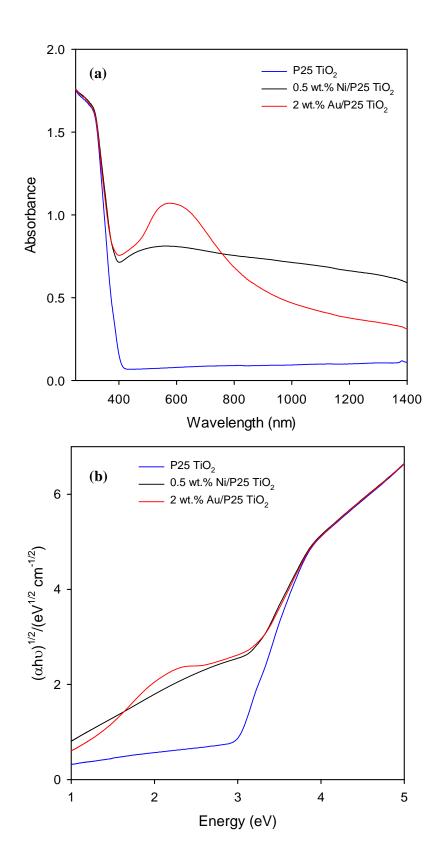


Fig. 2

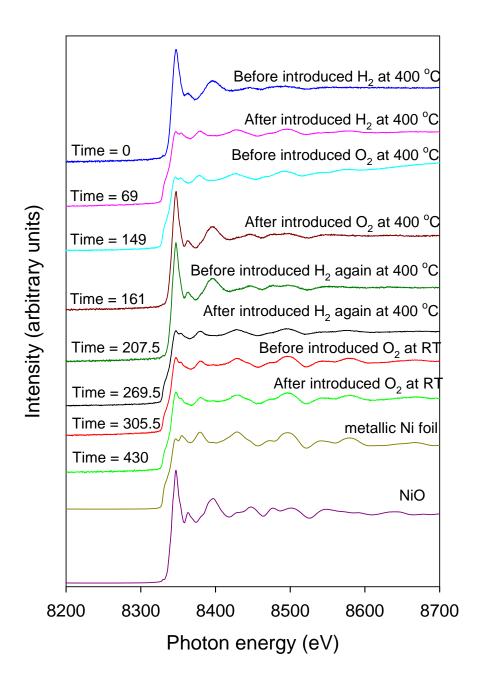


Fig. 3

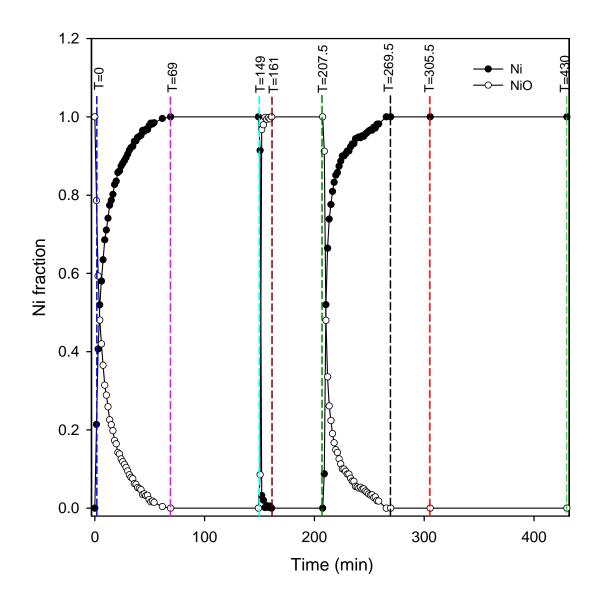


Fig. 4

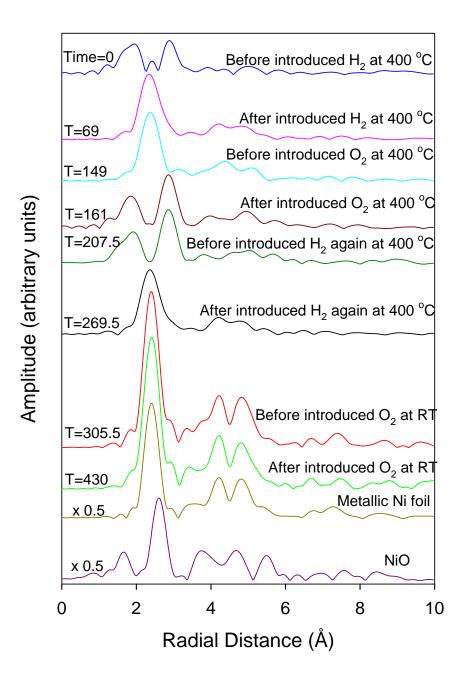


Fig. 5

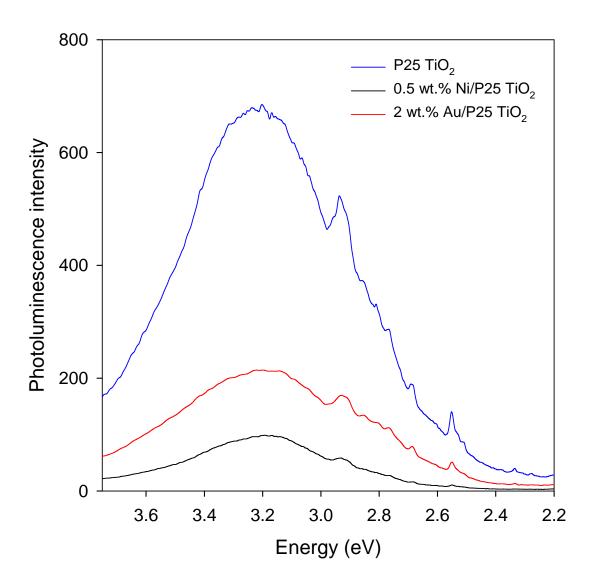
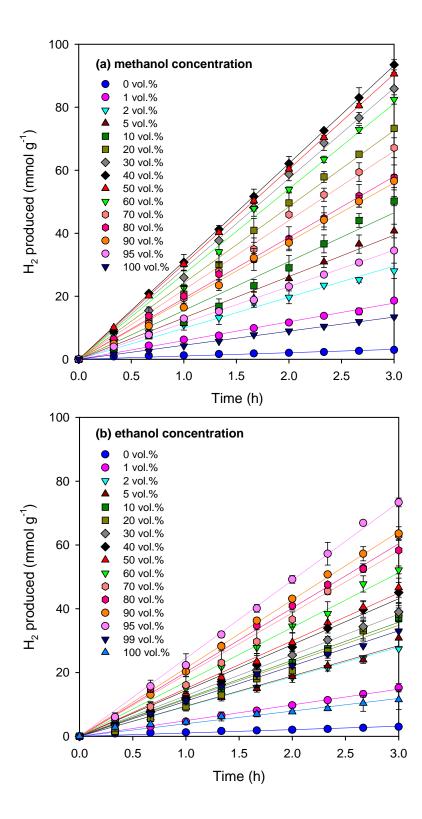


Fig. 6



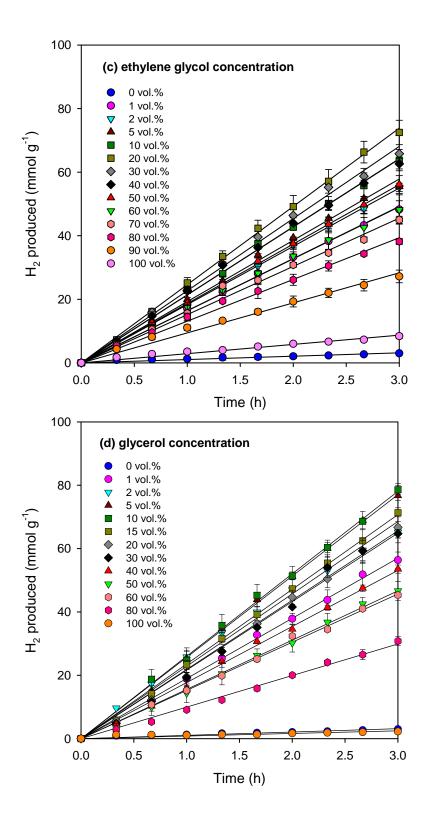


Fig. 7

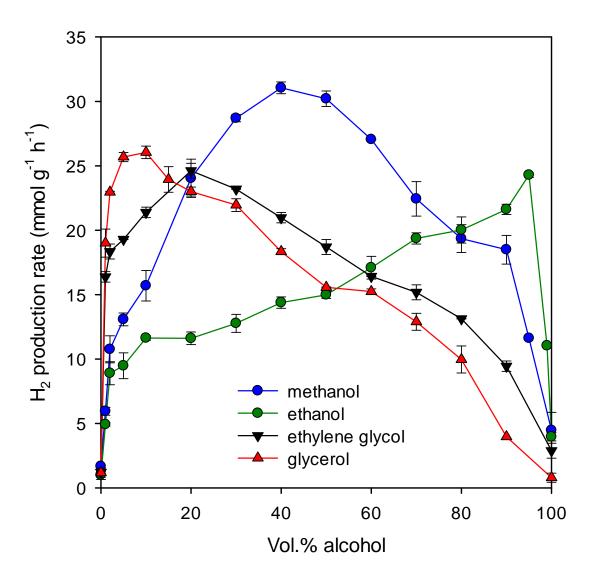


Fig. 8

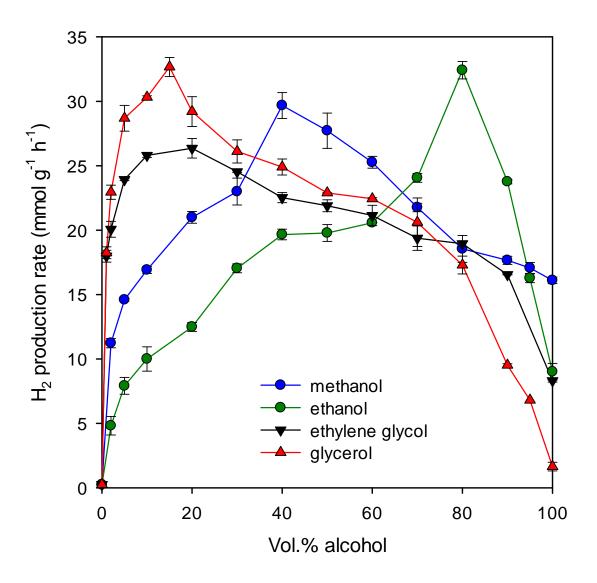


Fig. 9

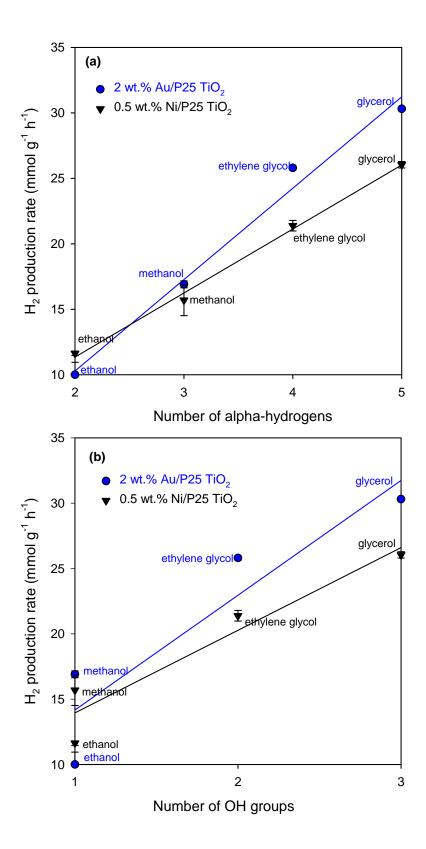


Fig. 10

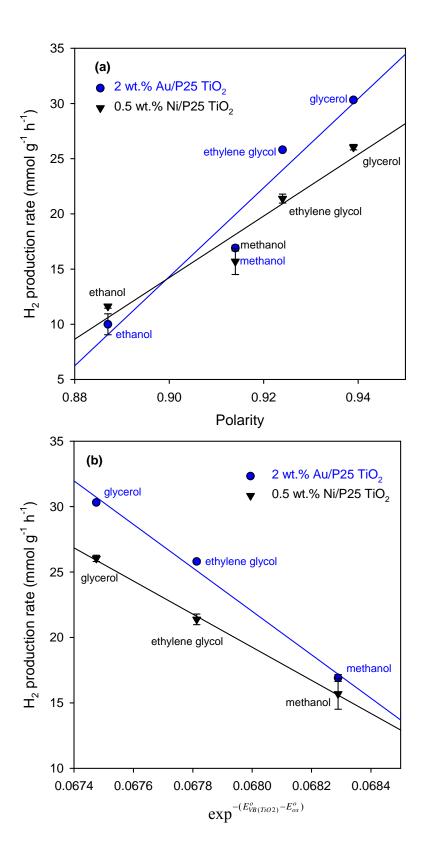
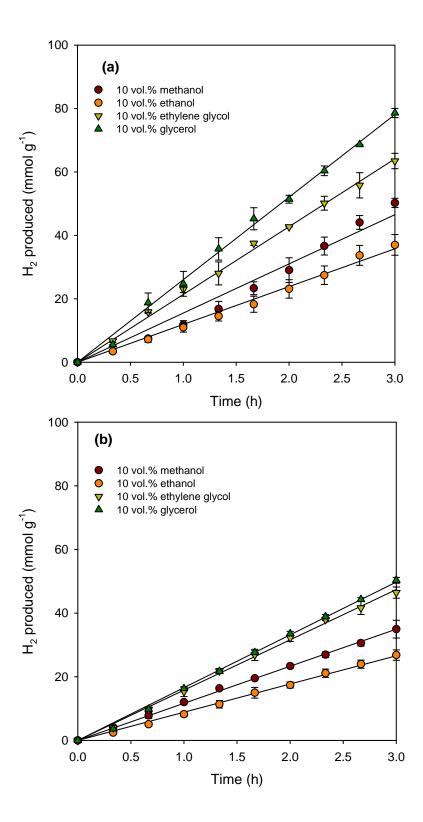
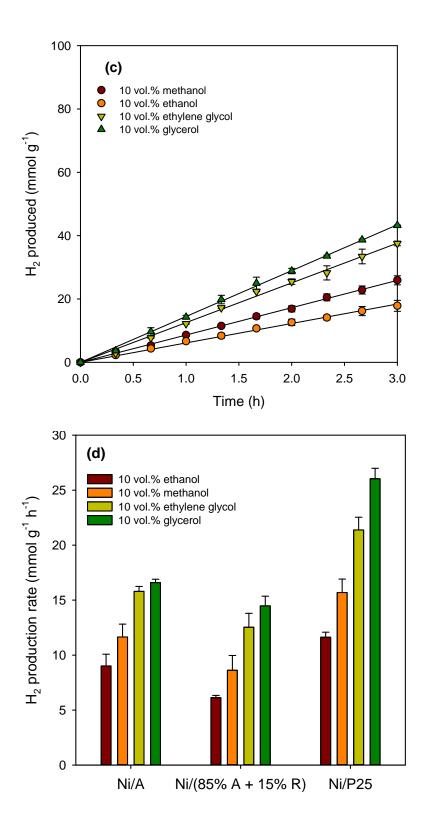


Fig. 11







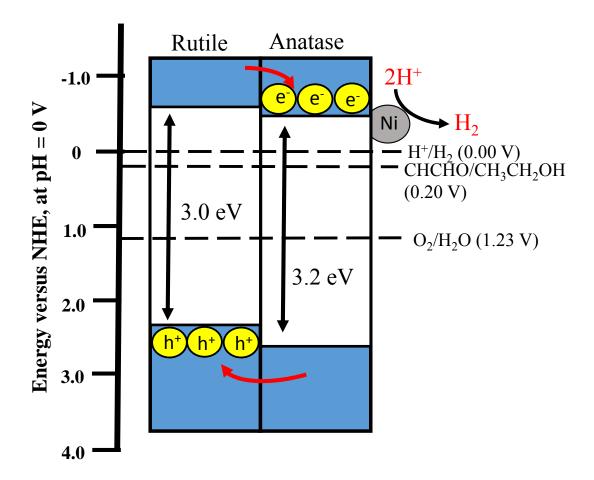


Fig. 13

| Photocatalysts | Co- | Optimal co- | Synthesis | Light source* | Reaction | | H ₂ evolu | tion | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|---|----------------------|-----------|------|
| | catalyst | catalysts loading | method | - | medium | Rate (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | QE (%) | Stability | Ref |
| Anatase TiO ₂ | NiO | 1.5 wt.% | Single-step sol-gel (SSSG) | UV 300 W (M) | Methanol (10 Vol.%) | 813 | - | >5 h | [30] |
| Anatase TiO ₂ | NiO | 1 wt.% | Incipient wetness impregnation (IWI) | UV 300 W (M) | Methanol (10 Vol.%) | 587 | - | >5 h | [30] |
| Anatase TiO ₂ | NiO | 1 wt.% | Sol gel | UV 300 W (H) | Methanol (20 vol.%) | 617 | - | - | [31] |
| Anatase TiO ₂ | NiO | 1.5 wt.% | Impregnation | UV 450 W (M) | Methanol | 80 | - | >10 h | [32] |
| TiO ₂ | NiO | 1.75 wt.% | Sol-gel | Two set of HB175 lamp | Methanol (25 vol.%) | 1304 | - | 8 h | [33] |
| TiO ₂ | NiO | 0.25 wt.% | Electrospinning method | 300 W (X) | Methanol (25 vol.%) | 377 | 1.7 | - | [34] |
| P25 TiO ₂ | Ni | 0.5 wt.% | Complex precipitation | UV SB-100P/F 365 nm | Ethanol (95 vol.%) | 20700 | - | >24 h | [28] |
| P25 TiO ₂ | Ni | 0.23 mol.% | Conventional precipitation | Four UV-LEDs 3 W 365 nm | Methanol | 3056 | 12.4 | - | [37] |
| P25 TiO ₂ | Ni | 0.32 mol.% | Photodeposition | 350 W (X) 400 nm $> \lambda > 1000$ nm | Methanol | 2547 | 8.1 | 2 h | [38] |
| Anatase TiO ₂ | Ni | 0.3 wt.% | Simple chemical reduction | UV 150 W (H) 350 nm $> \lambda > 400$ nm | Triethanolamine (TEOA) | 1000 | - | 6 h | [39] |
| Anatase TiO ₂ | Ni/NiO core/shell | 1 wt.% | Impregnation | 450 W(X) $350 \text{ nm} > \lambda > 450 \text{ nm}$ | Pure water | 5.5 | - | 2 h | [40] |
| P25 TiO ₂ | Ni/NiO core/shell | 1.6 wt.% | Quick ion- impregnation | 300 W (X) 420 nm | Eosin Y + Triethanolamine (15 vol.%) | 3439 | 28.6 (at 460 nm) | >5 h | [41] |
| TiO ₂ | Ni/NiO | 0.5 wt.% | Incipient wetness impregnation | UV irradiation | Methanol | 500 | 8 (at 370 nm) | 3h | [13] |

Table 1 — Selection of photocatalytic H₂ production data reported for Ni/TiO₂ and NiO/TiO₂ photocatalysts.

M = Mercury lamp, X = Xenon lamp, H = Halogen lamp

| Alcohol | O/C ratio | Redox equation for alcohol oxidation | Δ _f G ^o | (-)ΔG° | Alcohol oxidation potential (V)E _{ox} ^o (V) | exp ^{-(E_{VB}-E_{ox})} |
|-----------------|--------------|--|-------------------------------|-------------------------|--|---|
| | Tatio | $C_xH_yO_z + (2x-z)H_2O \rightarrow xCO_2 + nH^+ + ne^-$ | (kJ mol ⁻¹) | (kJ mol ⁻¹) | | |
| methanol | 1 | $CH_4O + H_2O \rightarrow CO_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^-$ | -166.6 | 9.3 | 0.016 | 0.0683 |
| ethanol | 0.5 | $C_2H_6O + 3H_2O \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 12H^+ + 12e^-$ | -174.8 | 97.4 | 0.084 | 0.0731 |
| ethylene glycol | 1 | $C_2H_6O_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 10H^+ + 10e^-$ | -323.2 | 8.6 | 0.009 | 0.0678 |
| glycerol | 1 | $C_3H_8O_3 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 3CO_2 + 14H^+ + 14e^-$ | -477.0 | 5.1 | 0.004 | 0.0675 |

Table 2 – Standard oxidation potentials (versus NHE) calculated for the different alcohols used in this study as sacrificial hole scavengers.

 $\Delta_t G^\circ$ values are taken from "Dean, J. A. (ed.) Lange's Handbook of Chemistry, 15th ed" page 549-594

 $-\Delta G^{\circ} = x \Delta_{f} G^{\circ} (CO_{2}) - \Delta_{f} G^{\circ} (C_{x} H_{y} O_{z}) - (2x-z) \Delta_{f} G^{\circ} (H_{2} O)$

 E_{ox}^{o} (V) vs. NHE = - $\Delta G^{o}/nF$, where n= (4x-2z+y)

 $\Delta_{\rm f} G^{\rm o} ({\rm CO}_2) = -394.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}; \Delta_{\rm f} G^{\rm o} ({\rm H}_2 {\rm O}) = -237.1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}; {\rm F} = 96485 \text{ C mol}^{-1}$

Table 3 — H₂ production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ in different alcohol-water mixtures under UV irradiation (6.5 mW cm⁻²).

| Alcohol | H ₂ production rate at 10 vol.% alcohol | | | | H ₂ production rate at 80 vol.% alcohol | | | | |
|-----------------|--|--|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| | 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | | 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO2 | | 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO2 | | 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO2 | | |
| | mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹ | mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹ * | mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹ | mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹ * | mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹ | mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹ * | mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹ | mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹ * | |
| methanol | 15.7 | 0.350 | 16.9 | 0.355 | 19.3 | 0.430 | 18.5 | 0.390 | |
| ethanol | 11.6 | 0.258 | 10.0 | 0.210 | 20.0 | 0.445 | 32.4 | 0.681 | |
| ethylene glycol | 21.4 | 0.477 | 25.8 | 0.542 | 13.1 | 0.292 | 18.9 | 0.398 | |
| glycerol | 26.0 | 0.579 | 30.3 | 0.637 | 10.0 | 0.223 | 17.3 | 0.363 | |

* BET Surface area for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts were 44.9 m² g⁻¹ and 47.6 m² g⁻¹, respectively.

| Alcohol | No. of α-H | No. of OH | O/C ratio | Solvent Permittivity, | Polarity* | Refractive Index, n | Polarizability* | Alcohol oxidation | - | l alcohol ion (vol.%) |
|-----------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| | | group | | Es | | | | potential (V) [≠] | Ni/TiO ₂ | Au/TiO ₂ |
| methanol | 3 | 1 | 1 | 32.7 | 0.914 | 1.328 | 0.203 | 0.016 | 40 | 40 |
| ethanol | 2 | 1 | 0.5 | 24.6 | 0.887 | 1.361 | 0.221 | 0.084 | 95 | 80 |
| ethylene glycol | 4 | 2 | 1 | 37.7 | 0.924 | 1.429 | 0.258 | 0.009 | 20 | 20 |
| glycerol | 5 | 3 | 1 | 47.0 | 0.939 | 1.475 | 0.282 | 0.004 | 10 | 15 |

Table 4 – Summarized physical properties of the alcohol hole scavengers used in the H₂ production tests.

* Polarity, $Y = (\varepsilon_s - 1)/(\varepsilon_s + 2)$ * Polarizability, $p = (n^2 - 1)/(n^2 + 2)$

 \neq Alcohol oxidation potentials were calculated from Gibbs free energies of reaction (see table S1)

 Table 5 — H2 production rates determined for P25 TiO2 and selected Ni/TiO2 photocatalysts in different alcohol-water mixtures (alcohol concentration 10 vol.%) under UV irradiation (6.5 mW cm⁻²).

| Sample | Ni content by | | | H ₂ production rate at 10 vol.% alcohol (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | | | | |
|---|---------------|----------------|----------|--|-----------------|----------|--|--|
| | XRF (wt.%) | $(m^2 g^{-1})$ | methanol | ethanol | ethylene glycol | glycerol | | |
| P25 TiO ₂ | 0 | 49.1 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 1.4 | 1.9 | | |
| 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | 0.5 | 44.9 | 15. | 11.6 | 21.4 | 26.0 | | |
| 0.5 wt.% Ni/anatase | 0.5 | 38.6 | 11.6 | 9.0 | 15.8 | 16.6 | | |
| 0.5 wt.% Ni/(85% anatase + 15% rutile)* | 0.5 | 33.2 | 8.6 | 6.1 | 12.5 | 14.5 | | |
| 0.75 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | 0.7 | 46.0 | 9.1 | 7.5 | 16.9 | 19.5 | | |
| 1 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO2 | 1.1 | 45.7 | 6.9 | 5.3 | 15.2 | 17.4 | | |

* support consisted of a physical mixture of anatase and rutile nanoparticles isolated from P25 TiO₂ by selective chemical dissolution.

Supplementary information

Performance Comparison of Ni/TiO₂ and Au/TiO₂ Photocatalysts for H₂ Production in Alcohol-Water Mixtures

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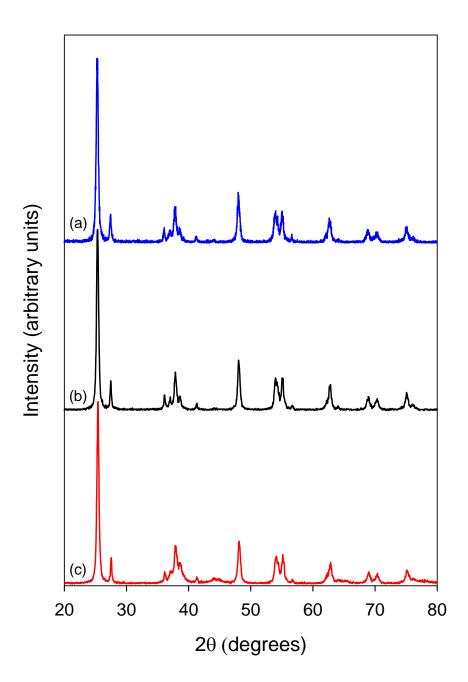
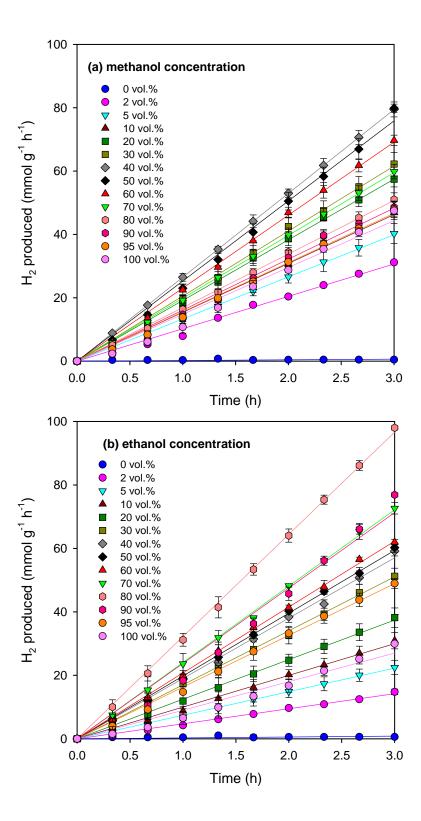


Fig. S1 - Powder XRD patterns for (a) P25 TiO₂; (b) 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂; and (c) 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts.



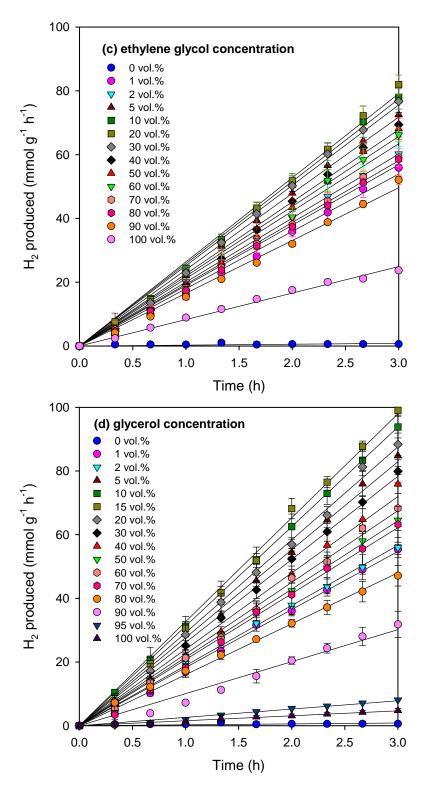


Fig. S2 Plots of H₂ production versus time for 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂ photocatalyst in different alcohol-water mixtures under UV irradiation. (a) methanol; (b) ethanol; (c) ethylene glycol; and (d) glycerol.

| Methanol | Viscosity (cP) | Mole ratio | 0.5 wt.% N | Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | 2 wt.% Au | 1/P25 TiO ₂ |
|-----------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| concentration at (vol.%) | at 30 °C* | H ₂ O:methanol | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) |
| 0 | 0.798 | - | 1.7 | 0.037 | 0.3 | 0.005 |
| 1 | - | 222.56 | 5.9 | 0.132 | - | - |
| 2 | - | 110.15 | 10.8 | 0.240 | 11.2 | 0.236 |
| 5 | 0.894 | 42.71 | 13.1 | 0.291 | 14.6 | 0.307 |
| 6 | 0.992 | 35.22 | 14.7 | 0.328 | 14.9 | 0.313 |
| 10 | 1.189 | 20.23 | 15.7 | 0.350 | 16.9 | 0.355 |
| 20 | 1.353 | 8.99 | 24.0 | 0.535 | 21.0 | 0.441 |
| 30 | 1.465 | 5.25 | 28.7 | 0.639 | 23.0 | 0.483 |
| 40 | 1.503 | 3.37 | 31.1 | 0.692 | 29.7 | 0.623 |
| 50 | 1.451 | 2.25 | 30.2 | 0.673 | 27.7 | 0.582 |
| 60 | 1.330 | 1.50 | 27.1 | 0.602 | 25.3 | 0.531 |
| 70 | 1.152 | 0.96 | 22.4 | 0.500 | 21.8 | 0.457 |
| 80 | 0.932 | 0.56 | 19.4 | 0.431 | 18.5 | 0.390 |
| 90 | 0.831 | 0.25 | 18.5 | 0.412 | 17.7 | 0.371 |
| 95 | 0.894 | 0.12 | 11.6 | 0.259 | 17.1 | 0.358 |
| 100 | 0.659 | 0.00 | 4.5 | 0.100 | 16.1 | 0.338 |

Table S1 — H₂ production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts in different methanol-water mixtures under UV irradiation (6.5 mW cm⁻²).

* Viscosity values were obtained from reference [78].

| Ethanol | Viscosity (cP) | Mole ratio | 0.5 wt.% N | Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | 2 wt.% Au | u/P25 TiO ₂ |
|--------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| concentration (vol.%) | at 30 °C* | H ₂ O:methanol | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) |
| 0 | 0.798 | - | 1.0 | 0.022 | 0.3 | 0.005 |
| 1 | - | 321.14 | 4.9 | 0.110 | - | - |
| 2 | 0.864 | 158.95 | 8.9 | 0.198 | 4.8 | 0.101 |
| 5 | 0.914 | 61.63 | 9.5 | 0.211 | 7.9 | 0.166 |
| 8 | 1.086 | 37.30 | 10.7 | 0.238 | 10.0 | 0.210 |
| 10 | 1.428 | 29.19 | 11.6 | 0.259 | 10.3 | 0.216 |
| 20 | 1.765 | 12.98 | 11.6 | 0.259 | 12.5 | 0.262 |
| 30 | 2.036 | 7.57 | 12.8 | 0.284 | 17.0 | 0.358 |
| 40 | 2.202 | 4.87 | 14.4 | 0.320 | 19.7 | 0.413 |
| 50 | 2.085 | 3.24 | 15.0 | 0.334 | 19.8 | 0.416 |
| 60 | 1.905 | 2.16 | 17.1 | 0.381 | 20.6 | 0.432 |
| 70 | 1.671 | 1.39 | 19.4 | 0.431 | 24.1 | 0.506 |
| 80 | 1.524 | 0.81 | 20.0 | 0.446 | 32.4 | 0.681 |
| 90 | 1.425 | 0.36 | 21.6 | 0.482 | 23.8 | 0.499 |
| 95 | 0.864 | 0.17 | 24.3 | 0.541 | 16.3 | 0.342 |
| 99 | - | 0.03 | 11.0 | 0.246 | - | - |
| 100 | 1.280 | 0.00 | 4.0 | 0.088 | 9.0 | 0.189 |

Table S2 — H₂ production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts in different ethanol-water mixtures under UV irradiation (6.5 mW cm⁻²).

* Viscosity values were obtained from reference [78].

| Ethylene glycol concentration (vol.%) | Viscosity (cP) | Mole ratio | 0.5 wt.% N | Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO ₂ | | |
|---|----------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|--|
| | at 30 °C* | H ₂ O:methanol | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) | |
| 0 | 0.798 | - | 1.2 | 0.027 | 0.3 | 0.005 | |
| 1 | - | 310.35 | 16.4 | 0.365 | 18.0 | 0.378 | |
| 2 | 0.808 | 153.61 | 18.3 | 0.409 | 20.1 | 0.422 | |
| 5 | 0.856 | 59.56 | 19.3 | 0.430 | 23.9 | 0.503 | |
| 8 | 1.019 | 36.05 | 20.7 | 0.462 | 24.2 | 0.508 | |
| 10 | 1.317 | 28.21 | 21.4 | 0.476 | 25.8 | 0.542 | |
| 20 | 1.577 | 12.54 | 24.6 | 0.548 | 26.4 | 0.554 | |
| 30 | 2.131 | 7.31 | 23.2 | 0.517 | 24.5 | 0.516 | |
| 40 | 2.764 | 4.70 | 21.0 | 0.467 | 22.5 | 0.473 | |
| 50 | 3.595 | 3.13 | 18.7 | 0.417 | 21.9 | 0.460 | |
| 60 | 4.866 | 2.09 | 16.4 | 0.366 | 21.1 | 0.444 | |
| 70 | 6.671 | 1.34 | 15.2 | 0.338 | 19.4 | 0.407 | |
| 80 | 9.406 | 0.78 | 13.1 | 0.292 | 18.9 | 0.398 | |
| 90 | 0.808 | 0.35 | 9.4 | 0.210 | 16.5 | 0.348 | |
| 100 | 13.868 | 0.00 | 2.9 | 0.064 | 8.3 | 0.175 | |

Table S3 — H₂ production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts in different ethylene glycol-water mixtures under UV irradiation (6.5 mW cm⁻²).

* Viscosity values were obtained from reference [78].

| Glycerol | Viscosity (cP) | Mole ratio | 0.5 wt.% N | Ni/P25 TiO ₂ | 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO ₂ | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|---|--|
| concentration (vol.%) | at 30 °C* | H ₂ O:methanol | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹) | H ₂ production rate (mmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹) | |
| 0 | 0.798 | - | 1.2 | 0.026 | 0.3 | 0.005 | |
| 1 | - | 402.00 | 19.0 | 0.423 | 18.2 | 0.383 | |
| 2 | - | 198.97 | 23.0 | 0.511 | 22.9 | 0.482 | |
| 5 | 0.877 | 77.15 | 25.7 | 0.572 | 28.7 | 0.603 | |
| 10 | 1.030 | 36.55 | 26.0 | 0.580 | 30.3 | 0.637 | |
| 15 | 1.147 | 23.01 | 23.9 | 0.533 | 32.7 | 0.686 | |
| 20 | 1.350 | 16.24 | 23.0 | 0.512 | 29.2 | 0.614 | |
| 30 | 1.907 | 9.47 | 22.0 | 0.489 | 26.1 | 0.549 | |
| 40 | 2.720 | 6.09 | 18.3 | 0.408 | 24.9 | 0.523 | |
| 50 | 4.210 | 4.06 | 15.6 | 0.347 | 22.9 | 0.481 | |
| 60 | 9.850 | 2.71 | 15.2 | 0.339 | 22.4 | 0.471 | |
| 70 | 21.200 | 1.74 | 12.9 | 0.287 | 20.6 | 0.433 | |
| 80 | 33.900 | 1.02 | 10.0 | 0.222 | 17.3 | 0.363 | |
| 90 | 147.000 | 0.45 | 4.0 | 0.089 | 9.5 | 0.200 | |
| 95 | - | 0.21 | - | - | 6.8 | 0.143 | |
| 100 | 612.00 | 0.00 | 0.8 | 0.018 | 1.6 | 0.035 | |

Table S4 — H₂ production rates for 0.5 wt.% Ni/P25 TiO₂ and 2 wt.% Au/P25 TiO₂ photocatalysts in different glycerol-water mixtures under UV irradiation (6.5 mW cm⁻²).

* Viscosity values were obtained from reference [79].

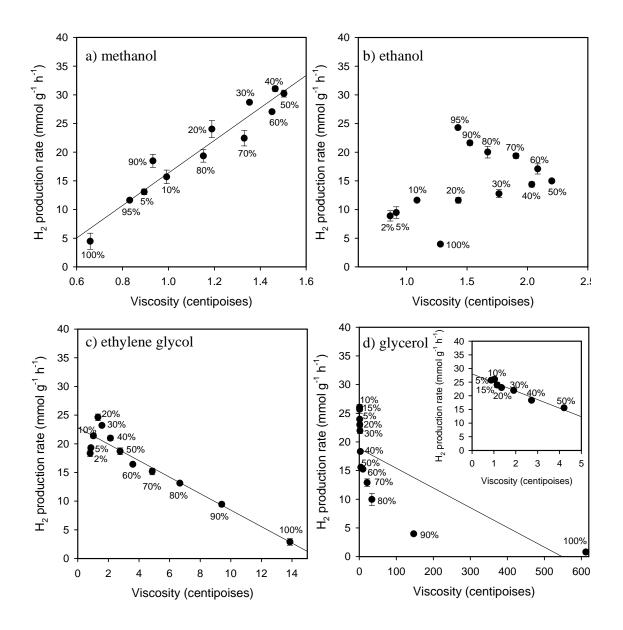


Fig. S3 Plots of H₂ production rate versus the viscosity of alcohol-water mixtures for 0.5 wt.% Ni/TiO₂. (a) methanol; (b) ethanol; (c) ethylene glycol; and (d) glycerol.

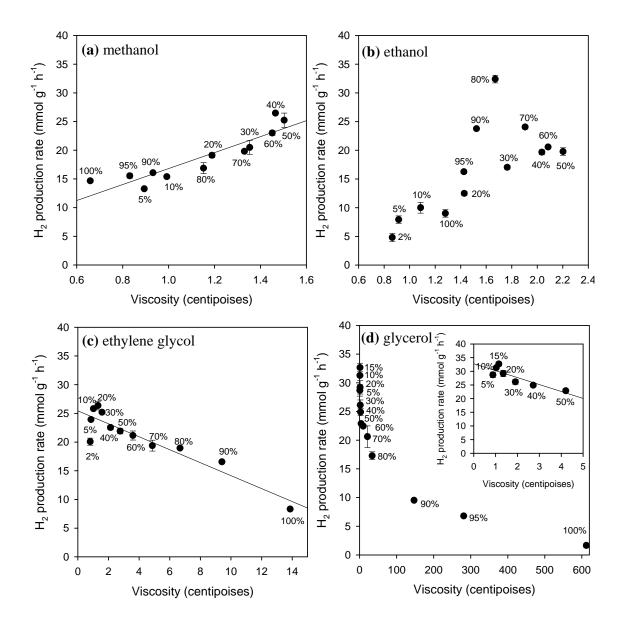


Fig. S4 Plots of H₂ production rate versus the viscosity of alcohol-water mixtures for 2 wt.% Au/TiO₂. (a) methanol; (b) ethanol; (c) ethylene glycol; and (d) glycerol.

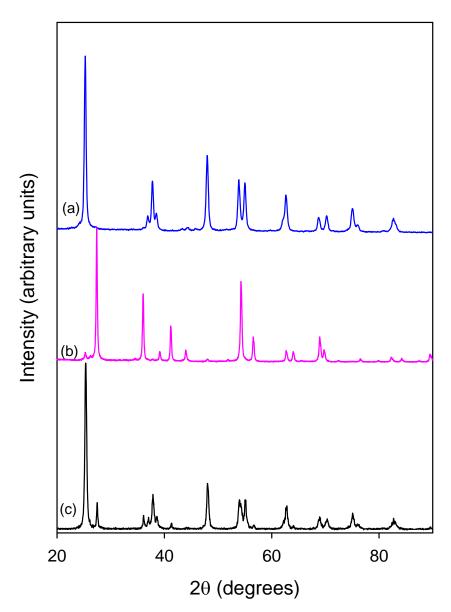


Fig. S5 – XRD for (a) anatase from P25 TiO_2 ; (b) rutile from P25 TiO_2 ; and (c) P25 TiO_2 photocatalysts.