



# Synthesis of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite and analysis of photocatalytic activity of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CH<sub>3</sub>OH

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**Abstract.** The present work deals with the development of a new ternary composite, Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–G–TiO<sub>2</sub>, using ultrasonic techniques as well as X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), high transmission electron microscopy (HTEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Raman spectroscopy and UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) analyses. The photocatalytic potential of nanocomposites is examined for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to methanol under ultraviolet (UV) and visible light irradiation. Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–TiO<sub>2</sub> with an optimum loading graphene of 10 wt% exhibited the maximum photoactivity, obtaining a total CH<sub>3</sub>OH yield of 3.52 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> after 48 h. This outstanding photoreduction activity is due to the positive synergistic relation between Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and graphene components in our heterogeneous system.

**Keywords.** Graphene; photoreduction CO<sub>2</sub>; semiconductors; CH<sub>3</sub>OH; scavenger effect.

## 1. Introduction

In recent years, the significant increasing energy demand has been driven by growing world population. These days, the energy demand mostly depends on fossil fuels. Using fossil fuels produces greenhouse gases, which play the key role in global warming [1,2]. To overcome this problem, scientists are attempting to use alternative techniques to minimize the energy crisis and utilize CO<sub>2</sub>. Three convenient approaches have been presented to reduce the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere: (1) conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> into valuable solar fuels; (2) CO<sub>2</sub> capture and storage; and (3) CO<sub>2</sub> utilization [3–5]. Among these techniques, the photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> is the most promising technique to fulfil the energy crisis [6–10]. Although photocatalytic conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> using solar energy is the most convenient route for the transformation of CO<sub>2</sub>, some barriers are involved in photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction: (1) fast recombination of photo-induced electron and hole recombination; (2) slow charge consumption during redox reaction; and (3) poor light utilization [1,11,12]. To overcome these barriers, scientists have developed new photocatalysts such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, ZnGa<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, NaNbO<sub>3</sub> and SrTiO<sub>3</sub>, which have been vastly used for CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction [13–17]. Among these photocatalysts, TiO<sub>2</sub> is a promising candidate for CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction due to its unique properties, including low cost, chemical stability, nontoxicity and abundance [18]. However, its usage is limited due to its large band gap (3.2 eV) and fast charge carrier recombination [19,20]. Consequently, to enhance the efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub> towards CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction, various methods have been used such as doping of metals or their oxides (e.g., Cu [21], Ag [22] and Pd [23] when these metals fill the

interstitial sites) and replacing Ti in the substitutional sites or agglomerates formation on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub>, thus, changing the properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> [24]. Moreover, graphene is very easy to obtain from low-cost graphite using the Hummers method [25,26]. Owing to its unique properties (surface functionalities, large surface area and stability), graphene is a suitable candidate to anchor on the surface of semiconductor materials (TiO<sub>2</sub>) and promote the charge transfer mechanism. The oxygen functionalities modify the particle size and shape of the semiconductor materials on the surface of graphene. Chen *et al* [27] reported that graphene is an excellent supporter to anchor TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals for the graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> synthesis, because graphene acts as a photosensitizer to enhance the light response of TiO<sub>2</sub> towards the visible range of the electromagnetic spectrum. Further, due to its unique electronic and optical properties, metal selenide has attracted considerable attention over the past few decades. Metal selenide has been coupled with large band gap semiconductors (TiO<sub>2</sub>), which enhanced the photocatalytic efficiency [28]. Silver selenide is available in two different phases (α-Ag<sub>2</sub>Se, high temperature phase and β-Ag<sub>2</sub>Se, low temperature phase) with the phase transition point at 1331 °C [29]. α-Ag<sub>2</sub>Se is a known superionic conductor and is mostly used as a solid electrolyte in photorechargeable secondary batteries, while β-Ag<sub>2</sub>Se is broadly used in thermalchromic materials as a photosensitizer due to its narrow band gap [30,31]. Zheo *et al* [32] prepared a TiO<sub>2</sub>/Ag<sub>2</sub>Se nanocomposite by interface reaction and their result suggested that the nanocomposite is an excellent photovoltaic with photocurrent properties towards visible light. On the other hand, Cao *et al* [33] incorporated a single-crystalline Ag<sub>2</sub>Se complex nanostructure using

solvothermal techniques, the result of which indicated that the nanostructure has an excellent photocatalytic activity by the photodegradation of rhodanmin B (RhB) dye using UV light irradiation. Here, we study a G–Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst using an ultrasonication technique, and synthesize a nanocomposite characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), high transmission electron microscopy (HTEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) and Raman spectroscopy. The main aim of this paper is to demonstrate an excellent photocatalytic-reduction ability of CO<sub>2</sub> with Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–G–TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites under light irradiation.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1 Materials

Silver nitrate (AgNO<sub>3</sub>), selenium powder (Se, 99%), ammonium hydroxide (NH<sub>4</sub>OH, 25–28%), sodium sulfite (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O, 95%), and titanium (IV) *n*-butoxide (TNB, C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>36</sub>O<sub>4</sub>Ti) were purchased from Duksan Pure Chemicals Co. Ltd., Republic of Korea. All chemicals were used without further purification. All solutions were used with distilled water.

### 2.2 Preparation of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> composite

Typical preparations of G–Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite are as follows. Three grams of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> and 0.3 g of selenium powder (Se) were mixed with 50 ml DI water and refluxed for 2 h to form Na<sub>2</sub>SeSO<sub>3</sub> i.e., solution A. Then, 400 mg graphene oxide (GO) (which was prepared in the laboratory following the Hummers-Offeman method as reported in previous work) [34] and AgNO<sub>3</sub> (0.02 g) were mixed in 60 ml ethylene glycol by ultrasonication for 3 h to form a graphene oxide nanosheet (GONS)/Ag<sup>+2</sup> i.e., solution B. Solutions A and B were then mixed and heated at 60°C for 30 min to obtain a homogenous solution. Finally, the molar ratios of ethanol:H<sub>2</sub>O:TNB = 35:15:4 were added to the obtained solution and sonicated at room temperature for 2 h using a controllable serial-ultrasonic apparatus (Ultrasonic Processor, VCX 750, 500 Watt, Korea, Power 500 Watt, frequency 20 kHz, amplitude 50% and low intensity). The reaction solution was then left to cool and settle at room temperature after filtering with 47 mm Whatman filter paper at a pore size of 0.7 mm. The resultant powder was washed with distilled water five times, and dried in a vacuum oven at 100°C for 12 h; the solution was then transferred to an electric furnace for heat treatment at 500°C for 2 h. The same procedure was followed for the other control samples of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–graphene. The prepared nanocomposites were named as Ag<sub>2</sub>Se, Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–graphene and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub>.

### 2.3 Photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>

In the photocatalytic experiments, the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> with H<sub>2</sub>O was carried out in a reactor designed in our laboratory

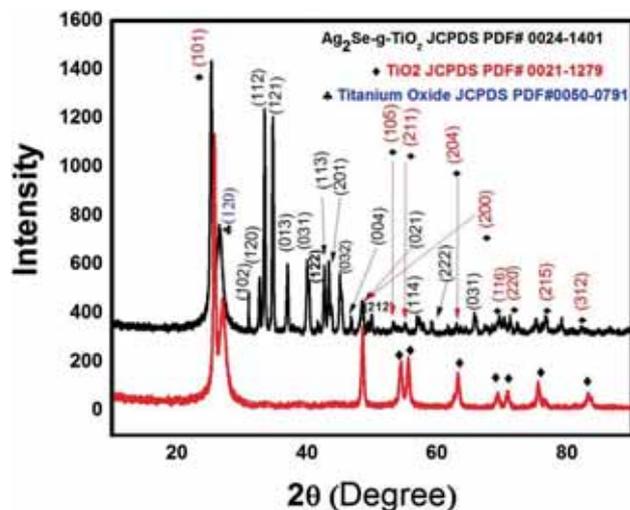
reported in our pervious paper [35]. A typical reactor is comprised of a 500 W light irritation source (SOLAREEDGE700, Perfect Light, China), closed chamber (with the dimensions of 20 cm length × 2.0 diameter), and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) gas (N<sub>2</sub> gas was used to remove gases from the reactor). One-hundred and fifty milligrams of the photocatalyst (Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–G–TiO<sub>2</sub>) and 0.05 mol l<sup>-1</sup> Na<sub>2</sub>Se/Na<sub>2</sub>S [36,37] were used as sacrificial reagents and added to 20 ml distilled water containing sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 0.04 M) and continually stirred for 2 h. Ultra-high-purity grade CO<sub>2</sub> gas was then purged through the reactor for 30 min. The suspension solution was then magnetically stirred and irradiated to visible light using a metal halide lamp (500 W, SOLAREEDGE700, Perfect Light, China). The distance between the light source and photocatalyst was 10 cm. Moreover, the temperatures inside the reactor was maintained at 100°C using a heat sink. The reaction was continued for 2 d and at every 12 h interval, the reactor was left to cool naturally for CH<sub>3</sub>OH desorption from the catalyst. Ten millilitres of the sample was then collected from the suspension solution using a syringe and a membrane filter. The collected sample was then analysed using gas chromatography (GC).

### 2.4 Characterization

The crystallinity and composition of the prepared samples were characterized using monochromatic high intensity CuK $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$ ) in XRD (Shimadzu XD-D1). The surface state and structures of the prepared sample were examined using SEM (JS M-5600, JEOL, Japan) and TEM (JEM-2010, JEOL, Japan). XPS was performed using VG (Scientific VISACA Lab 2000), and a monochromatic Mg X-ray radiation source. Raman spectra of the prepared samples were observed using a spectrometer (Jasco Model Name NRS-3100) with an excitation laser wavelength of 532.06 nm.

## 3. Result and discussion

The phase structure of the prepared (Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–G–TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanocomposite was analysed by XRD. Figure 1 shows that the XRD pattern of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–G has diffraction peaks at around  $2\theta$  of 25.2, 30.88, 32.52, 34.63, 36.95, 39.98, 40.20, 42.65 and 43.38°, which can be indexed to the characteristic peak (101), (102), (120), (112), (121), (013), (122), (113) and (201) plane reflections, respectively, with orthorhombic Ag<sub>2</sub>Se phase with a lattice parameter  $a = 4.33 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $b = c = 7.06 \text{ \AA}$  (JCPDS PDF#00-024-1401) [38]. The TiO<sub>2</sub> peaks appeared at around  $2\theta = 25.20, 47.99, 53.82, 55.01, 62.62$  and  $68.75^\circ$ , corresponding to the (101), (200), (105), (211), (204) and (116) diffractions as the anatase crystal phase with lattice parameter  $a = b = 3.78 \text{ \AA}$  and  $c = 9.51 \text{ \AA}$  (JCPDS PDF#00-021-1279). The TiO<sub>2</sub> (101) and graphene (002) peaks overlap each other in the same  $2\theta$  values; it is thus, very difficult to differentiate both peaks and the diffraction intensity peaks of the TiO<sub>2</sub> and graphene are very low, indicating that graphene oxides

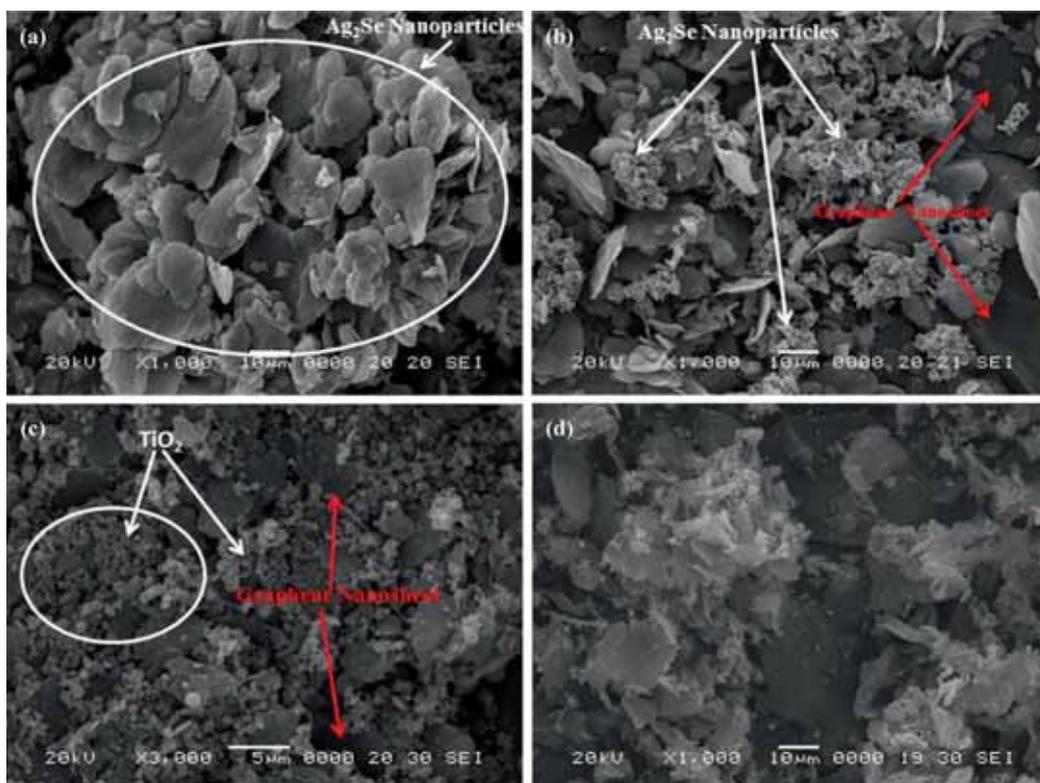


**Figure 1.** X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  composites.

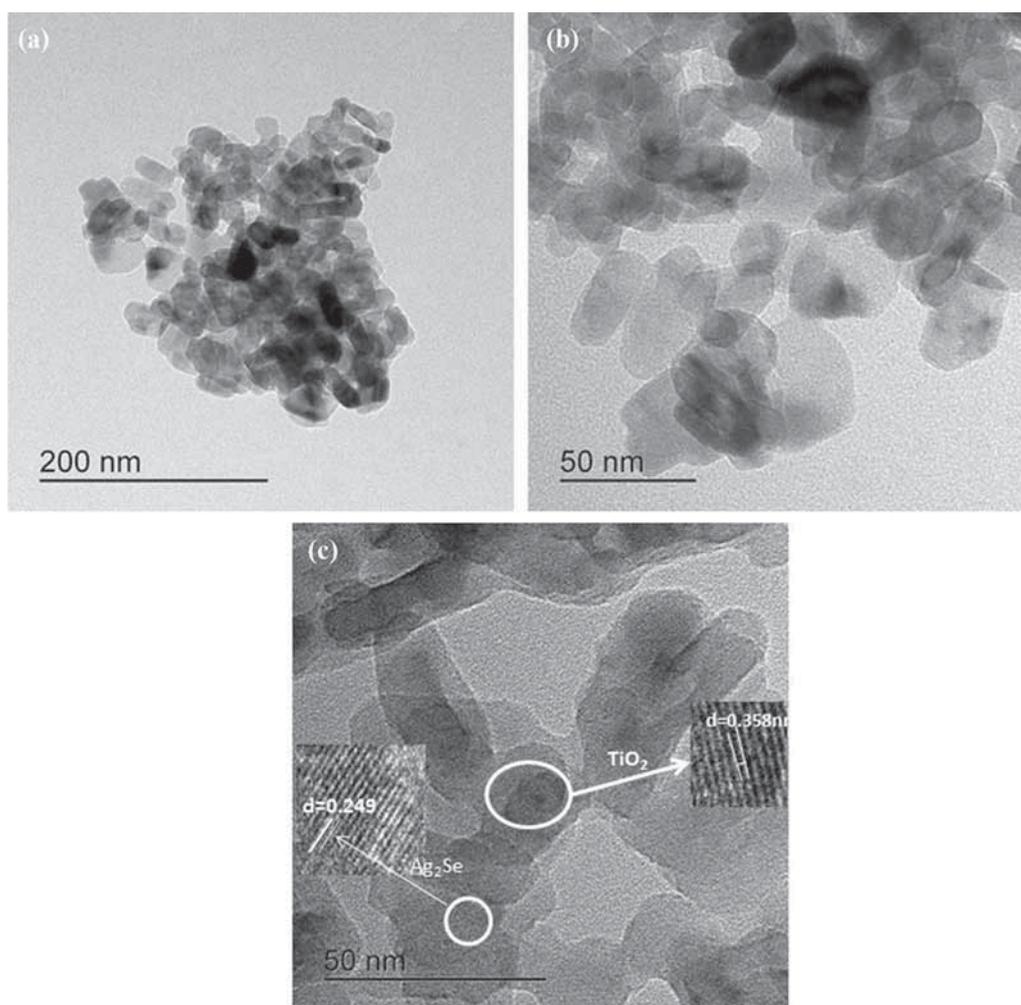
are reduced to graphene [39,40]. Further, the fluctuation of diffraction peaks of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposites also demonstrates the increased amount of graphene and suppression of the crystalline phases. The compression in the peak intensity indicates that the lattice structure of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  is distorted by the interaction with GO [41,42].

Figure 2a and b describes the overall morphology of the prepared sample obtained by SEM, which shows that the pure  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  particles are uniformly distributed on graphene oxide sheets, but the particle size and shape are difficult to distinguish in SEM. The graphene is shown as a sheet-like structure that is broken off in different directions, with a nanocomposite plate-like shape with a partial agglomerate; this plate-like structure demonstrated the existence of oxygen functionalities on the surface of the graphene [43]. Figure 2c and d shows the  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles with an almost spherical shape, uniformly distributed on the graphene sheet. In addition, the final image clearly shows the difference between the binary and ternary composites. After the coupling of  $\text{TiO}_2$ , a bright spot appears in the ternary composite, showing that the synthesis of G- $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ - $\text{TiO}_2$  particles was successful and has a proper distribution pattern.

The microstructures of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  were investigated by using high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). Figure 3 illustrates the HRTEM images of the prepared sample with different magnifications. The irregular dark images shown in figure 3a and b indicates that  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  was highly agglomerated, while  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles were uniformly distributed on the graphene nanosheet, revealing the role of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  bridge-like support between  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the graphene sheet [44,45]. Using the image J software, the average particle size of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  ranges from



**Figure 2.** SEM image of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  composites (a) SEM images of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  nanocomposites, (b) SEM images of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G nanocomposites, (c)  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles and (d) SEM images of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposites.



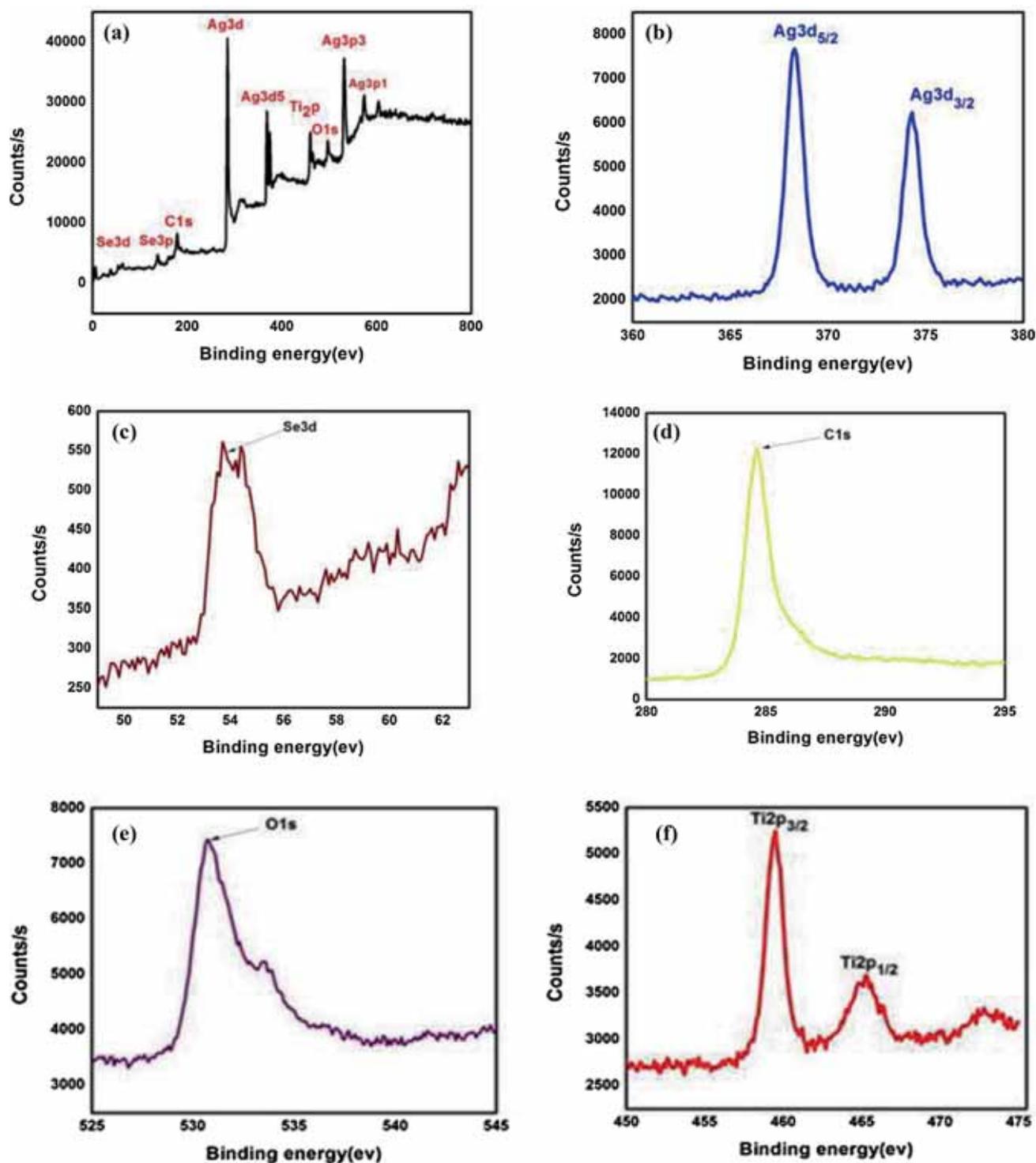
**Figure 3.** TEM image of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$  composites with different magnification.

10–20 nm, and  $\text{TiO}_2$  ranges from 12–40 nm. Figure 3c shows that the lattice spacing of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  is  $\sim 0.249$  nm, corresponding to the characteristic of the (013) crystal planes of  $\beta\text{-Ag}_2\text{Se}$  nanoparticles [33,46]. Also, the lattice spacing of the anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  phase is 0.35 nm [41,47]. Hence, the layered  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  supports the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles on the graphene sheet and provides a bridge between  $\text{TiO}_2$  and the graphene nanosheet; we thus assume that an ultrasonication technique is favourable for enhancing the photocatalytic properties of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$  nanocomposite [48].

XPS was used to determine the chemical bonding and composition of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$  nanocomposite consisting of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ , graphene and  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The XPS survey spectrum in figure 4a shows peaks corresponding to Ag, Se, O, C and Ti consistent with the formation of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$  nanocomposites, while figure 4b and c shows the two main peaks of the Ag core level corresponding to  $\text{Ag}2d_{3/2}$  and  $\text{Ag}2d_{5/3}$  at 374 and 368 eV, respectively. The selenium  $\text{Se}3d$  binding energy peak located at 54.8 eV indicates the presence of oxidation state of  $\text{Se}^+$  [49,50]. From figure 4d, the C1s spectra show

the presence of carbon in the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$  composites. The C1s spectrum is located at 284.8 eV. The C1s binding energy shows C–O and C=O functional groups, which indicate that our prepared composites still contain partial oxygen functional groups [51]. These oxygen functional groups are beneficial for enhancing the light absorption towards the visible region [52]. The O1s peak is located at 531.75 eV from contributions of the C=O and O–C–OH groups (figure 4e). The O1s peak shows that after heat treatment, the conversion to other chemical species is also possible, and the other peak at 534 eV indicates that the C–OH group is still present [53–55]. Figure 4f shows the  $\text{Ti}2p$  peaks located at 459.8 and 465.7 eV, which indicate the  $\text{Ti}^{+4}$  oxidation state during synthesis, where the  $\text{Ti}2p_{3/2}$  peak becomes narrow and its position changes, indicating the presence of some Ti in low valance ( $\text{Ti}^{+3}$ ) form [55].

Further, Raman spectroscopy clearly illustrates the electronic structure of the carbon materials and the structural properties of  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se-G-TiO}_2$ . Even a minor change in the band intensity and shifting provides the complete details



**Figure 4.** XPS results of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposite (a) survey scan spectra, (b) Ag peaks, (c) Se 3d, (d) C1s, (e) O1s and (f) Ti2p.

of the nature of carbon-carbon bonds and defects [41]. Figure 5 shows details on the graphene oxide and  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$ -G- $\text{TiO}_2$  nanocomposites. The strong peak observed around at the  $230\text{ cm}^{-1}$  wave could be due to the characteristic vibrations

of the  $\text{Ag}_2\text{Se}$  band [56–58], while the peaks around  $412\text{ cm}^{-1}$  show the presence of the anatase  $\text{TiO}_2$  band [59]. The characteristic D band appears at  $1354\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , revealing the disorder in the atomic arrangements. This indicates the increasing modes

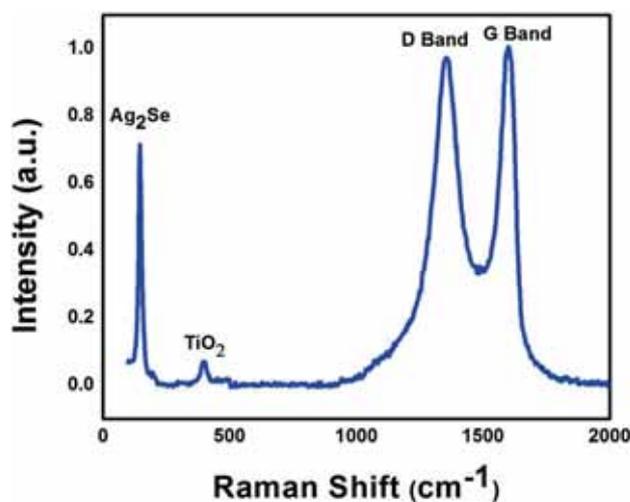


Figure 5. Raman spectra of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub>.

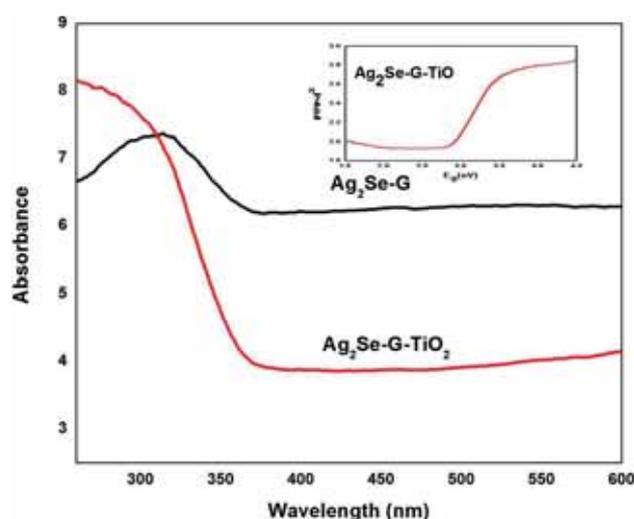


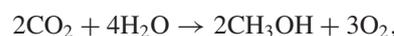
Figure 6. Diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) obtained from Kubelka-Munk transformation function vs. photon energy of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub>.

of the sp<sup>3</sup> atoms in the carbon and the G bands appearing at 1584 cm<sup>-1</sup>; this provides information on the in plane vibration of the sp<sup>2</sup> bonded carbons [60]. The nature of the defects can be determined from the intensity ratio of the corresponding D-G bands. The calculated ratios of the I<sub>D</sub> and I<sub>G</sub> bands are ~0.07. The intensity ratios of the D and G bands (I<sub>D</sub>/I<sub>G</sub> ratio) demonstrate that the graphene consists of several layers, as explained in the previously mentioned paper [61].

For the eradication of environmental pollutants, we need an ideal photocatalyst with a maximum efficiency (UV and visible) in the range of the electromagnetic spectrum. DRS is used to understand the absorption response in the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites to the electromagnetic spectrum. Figure 6 illustrates that our nanocomposites are mostly in the visible part of the electromagnetic spectrum and the total

spectra are similar to carbon-based semiconductor materials [62]. Figure 6 shows that after the introduction of graphene with Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and TiO<sub>2</sub>, the absorption edge shifts towards the visible region. Due to the carbon-based structure of graphene, the unpaired π electron merges with the metal nanoparticles, causing a shift in the band edges and enhancing the light absorption towards the visible region. Therefore, the attachment of graphene with Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and TiO<sub>2</sub> increases the absorption intensities in the entire visible region, confirming the improved efficiency of the light-harvesting activity as shown in figure 6. To calculate the band gap of the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite, the Kubelka-Munk function  $F(R) = (1 - R)^2/2R$  [63] is used. The obtained plot in figure 6 shows that the banding energy of the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites was 2.6 eV, which was almost less than that of pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se. The reducing banding energy of the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite is due to the distribution of the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites on the graphene sheets. Moreover, the partial agglomeration can change the absorption property, reducing the band gap of the nanocomposite [64,65].

The yield of methanol according to the time of irradiation in the photocatalytic experiments is shown in figure 7a. The reaction quantum yield (QE) is estimated using the CH<sub>3</sub>OH yield, considering that six electrons are required to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH. The equation is as follows [66,67]:

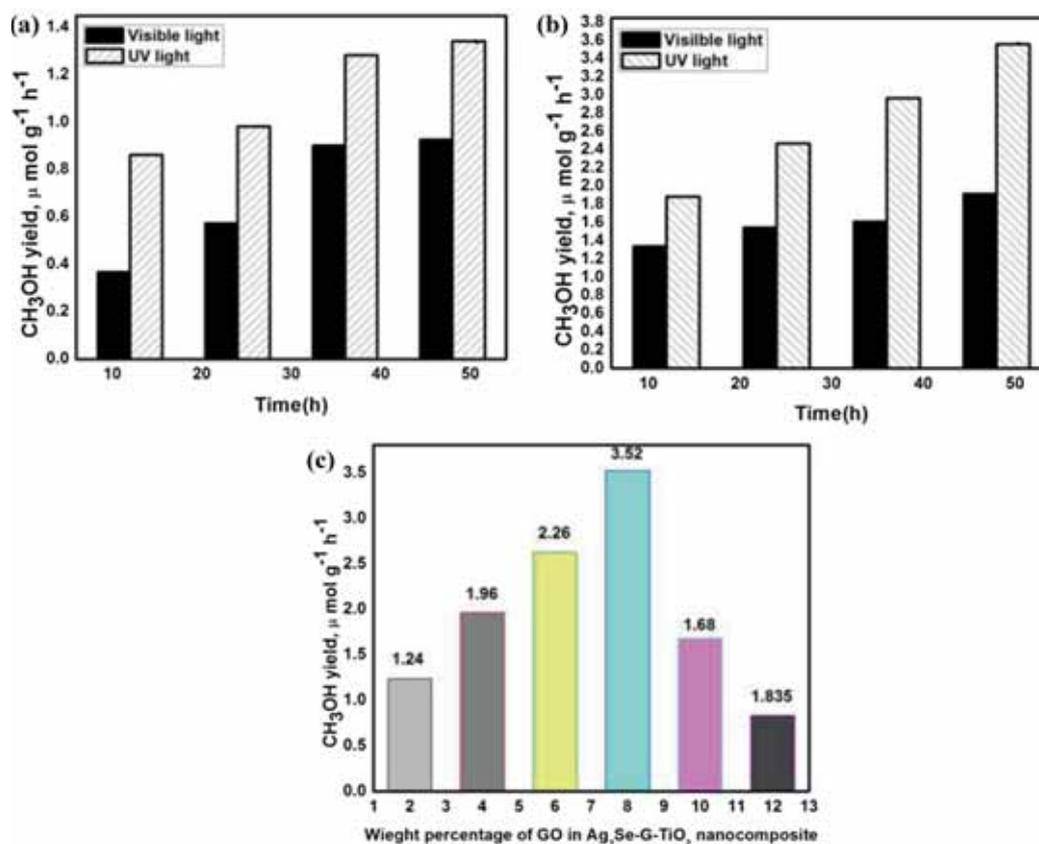


$$\Phi_{\text{Methanol}} (\%) = 100 \times (6 \times \text{mole of CH}_3\text{OH yield}) / (\text{mole of photon absorbed by catalyte})$$

$$- \text{mole of photon} = (I \times S) / (N_A \times E),$$

where  $I$  is light intensity (0.12 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>),  $S$  the irradiated area of the reactor (30 cm × 15 cm),  $E$  the photon energy (4.97 × 10<sup>-19</sup> J at 400 nm) and  $N_A$  the avogadro number (6.02 × 10<sup>23</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>).

The result reveals that the photocatalytic efficiency of TiO<sub>2</sub> can be greatly enhanced through the attachment of graphene and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se to the TiO<sub>2</sub> structure. In addition, CH<sub>3</sub>OH was detected as a major product from the photoreduction of CO<sub>2</sub> over the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalysts. The total methanol yield and quantum yield of the photocatalysts for 48 h using a UV/visible light source was calculated and are shown in table 1a and b. The photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> under UV light is more active than under visible light irradiation, and the maximum CH<sub>3</sub>OH yield of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> after 48 h was found to be 1.3420 μmol g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> without using any sacrificial reagents. Further, to improve the catalytic activity of the photoreduction of CO<sub>2</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> is used as a scavenger as shown in figure 7b. Generally, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> was used to increase the photocatalytic activity of the semiconductors and to avoid the oxidation of the reduction products in liquid phase. Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> is a highly efficient electron donor, which is used as a cycling electron donor to combine CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction with water splitting to improve the overall efficiency [68].



**Figure 7.** The methanol yield in the photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> under UV/visible light irradiation of different nanocomposites. (a) methanol yield under UV/visible light irradiation without scavenger, (b) methanol yield under UV/visible light irradiation using Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> and (c) weight percentage of graphene in Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite.

**Table 1.** Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield.

Sample	CH <sub>3</sub> OH yield (μmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	Quantum yield (QE)
<i>(a) Visible light</i>		
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (12 h)	0.3665	0.0530
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (24 h)	0.5734	0.0770
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (36 h)	0.9020	0.1487
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (48 h)	0.9255	0.1504
<i>(b) UV light</i>		
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (12 h)	0.8623	0.1395
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (24 h)	0.9814	0.1647
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (36 h)	1.2821	0.2090
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (48 h)	1.3420	0.1522

**Table 2.** Effect of preparation method on methanol yield and quantum yield.

Sample after Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub>	CH <sub>3</sub> OH yield (μmol g <sup>-1</sup> h <sup>-1</sup> )	Quantum yield (QE)
<i>(a) Visible light</i>		
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (12 h)	1.3380	0.2237
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (24 h)	1.5450	0.2054
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (36 h)	1.6100	0.2613
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (48 h)	1.9170	0.3141
<i>(b) UV light</i>		
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (12 h)	1.8862	0.3061
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (24 h)	2.4682	0.4005
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (36 h)	2.9683	0.4817
Ag <sub>2</sub> Se-G-TiO <sub>2</sub> (48 h)	3.5262	0.5722

The methanol yield of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> under UV (VL-4.LC, 8 W, 365 nm)/visible light is almost higher than that of without using a scavenger. The CH<sub>3</sub>OH yield of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> with different time intervals is shown in table 2a and b. The photoreduction rate of the pure TiO<sub>2</sub> and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-graphene nanosheets

is smaller than that of the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposites. This shows that a strong interaction between graphene and the attached semiconductor materials, Ag<sub>2</sub>Se supported by TiO<sub>2</sub>, allows good interfacial contact with the graphene sheet by enhancing the synergistic effect between Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and the

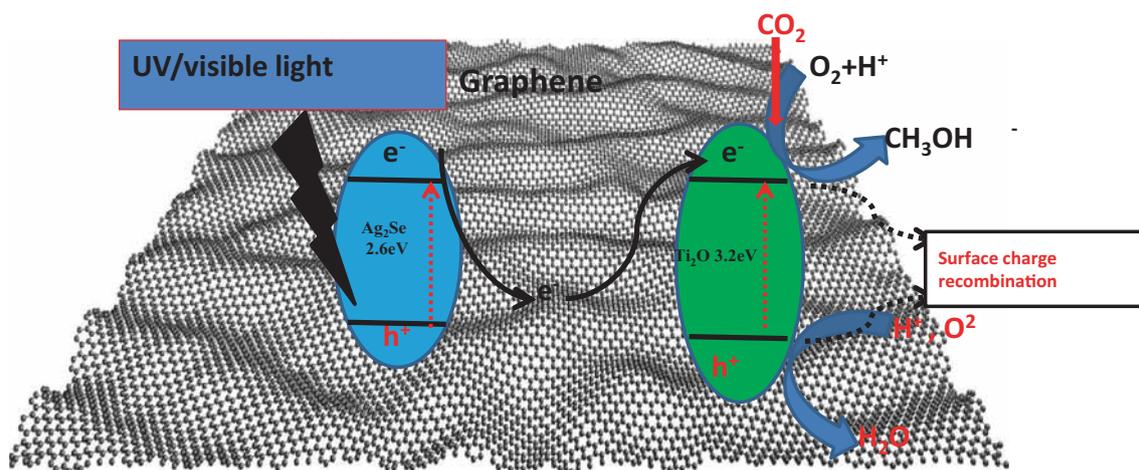
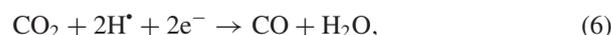
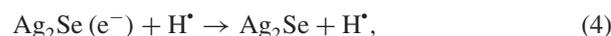
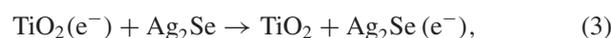
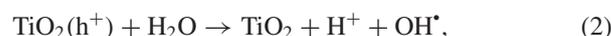
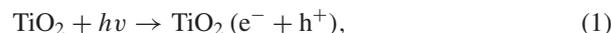


Figure 8. Mechanism study of photocatalytic reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>.

graphene sheet, which plays an important role in photoreduction activity. Hence, graphene plays an important role in the catalytic photoreduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. The optimum content of graphene in the Ag<sub>2</sub>Se–G–TiO<sub>2</sub> system was found to be 8 wt% as shown in figure 7c. The further increase in the amount of graphene in the ternary system was found to decrease the photocatalytic performance, possibly due to the increased light absorption of graphene itself, which affects the excitation of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and TiO<sub>2</sub> in the composites [66].

Primarily, it is known that the photocatalytic properties of semiconductors are due to the formation of photogenerated charge carrier (holes and electrons), which is due to the absorption of photon with energy greater or equal than the band energy ( $E_g$ ) of separating the valence band (VB) from the conduction band (CB) [69,70]. From the proposed mechanism shown in figure 8 that the energy of the photon is equal or greater than the band gap energy ( $E_g$ ), and thus, photogenerated electrons and holes diffuse to the surface of the semiconductor for desire chemical reaction; however, due to the absence of co-catalysts or lack of active sites, the number of excited electrons rapidly decreases. This increases the electron–hole recombination on the surface of the semiconductors. To overcome this deficiency and enhance the overall efficiency of the semiconductor, a different strategy needs to be used, such as doping of the nanostructure of the semiconductor, semiconductor heterojunction or nanocarbon material (graphene) on the semiconductor. This not only minimizes the recombination rate, but also enhances the visible light response. Further, metal ion (Ag) doping generates impurity levels in the forbidden region of the wide gap of TiO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the metal ion (Ag) can act as an electron trap and an active site for highly favourable CO<sub>2</sub> photoreduction; TiO<sub>2</sub> doped with silver has an excellent ability to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH [71,72]. For better photocatalytic activity, a heterogeneous system needs to be introduced. The main advantage of the heterogeneous system is that it greatly improves the electron–hole separation and increases the lifetime of the

charge carrier. Attachment of nanoparticles on the graphene sheet is helpful for converting CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH [73] under the UV/visible light irradiation. The photogenerated electron in the VB of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se easily transfers to the graphene sheet, which slows down the recombination of electron–hole pairs and enhances the electron transport to the catalytic sites for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. Due to its large surface area and various defective sites, graphene can easily absorb CO<sub>2</sub>, and the photogenerated electron on Ag<sub>2</sub>Se is then transferred to the active sites of graphene. The absorbed CO<sub>2</sub> is then reduced to CH<sub>3</sub>OH [74]. The photocatalytic CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to convert the CH<sub>3</sub>OH mechanism is expressed in equations (1–8).



Equations (1)–(4) explain the reaction mechanism of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se, TiO<sub>2</sub> and graphene, exhibiting the production of the photoexcited electron–hole pair and their subsequent reaction (equations (5)–(8)) [75] reveal the oxidation and reduction processes, in which the holes are used for oxidation, while the electrons are used for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. In the photoreduction mechanism, the generated electron reacts with the dissolved oxygen modules and produces oxygen peroxides

radicals. The positive holes are absorbed in water, resulting in the production of hydroxyl radicals (OH) and hydrogen ions (H<sup>+</sup>) and then reacts with the excited electrons, leading to the formation of <sup>•</sup>H, while CO<sub>2</sub> simultaneously reacts with the excited electron and CO<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> is formed. CO<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> is finally converted to CH<sub>3</sub>OH.

#### 4. Conclusion

Heterogeneous Ag<sub>2</sub>Se-G-TiO<sub>2</sub> was prepared using ultrasonic techniques. The SEM and HRTEM images of the prepared sample demonstrate that the Cu<sub>2</sub>Se and TiO<sub>2</sub> are uniformly dispersed on graphene sheets. The average particle sizes of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se ranged from 10 to 20 nm, while those of TiO<sub>2</sub> ranged from 12 to 40 nm. The attachment of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and graphene to TiO<sub>2</sub> improved the photocatalytic property of TiO<sub>2</sub>, releasing and reducing CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>OH. DRS results reveal that after the attachment of graphene to Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and TiO<sub>2</sub>, the absorption edge shifts towards the visible region, promoting an excited electron charge carrier, and the interface of Ag<sub>2</sub>Se and graphene was found to be due to the synergistic effect of graphene and Ag<sub>2</sub>Se by increasing the recombination time. It is also concluded that the different wt% also affected the photocatalytic efficiency. The optimum content was found to be 8 wt% and the maximum CH<sub>3</sub>OH yield reached 3.523 μmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. It is expected that the present research will facilitate new methods of using graphene-based materials to promote an efficient heterosystem for CH<sub>3</sub>OH production.

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