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A Solar Photothermocatalytic approach for the CO₂ conversion: Investigation of different synergisms on CoO-CuO/Brookite TiO₂- CeO₂ catalysts

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Abstract

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The photoactive features of the least common polymorph of TiO₂, i.e. brookite, were combined with the thermocatalytic redox ones of cerium oxide, focusing on the effects of the addition of small amounts of Co-Cu oxides for the solar CO₂ conversion. By considering the characterization data, surface segregation of the hosted metal oxides on the TiO₂-CeO₂ composite was evidenced, and their presence increased the amount of oxygen vacancies and improved the charge carriers separation. The bimetallic oxides-based sample was the most performing one in the photocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction at room temperature. The formation of carbon monoxide and methane was 5 and 0.5 μmol/g·h, respectively, i.e. about 10 times higher than that found with bare brookite. A further enhancement was obtained with the same CoO-CuO/TiO₂-CeO₂ catalyst applying the photothermal approach. The CO₂-TPD and the FTIR

1 measurements highlighted the high interaction between CO₂ and the surface sites.
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3 **Keywords:** CO₂ valorization, photothermo-catalysis, brookite TiO₂, CeO₂, bimetallic
4 oxides.
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7 8 9 **1. Introduction**

10 The production of solar fuels, directly obtained through the photocatalytic conversion of
11 carbon dioxide, is a charming route that fits the principles of the green and sustainable
12 chemistry [1]. This process is usually called “artificial photosynthesis” because it allows
13 the formation of value-added fuels (as CO, CH₄, CH₃OH, etc.) starting from CO₂ and
14 merely using a semiconductor photocatalyst irradiated with solar light [2,3]. Among the
15 inorganic semiconductors employed for the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂, titanium
16 dioxide (TiO₂, titania) is one of the most investigated materials, due to its low cost, low
17 toxicity, and high stability [4,5]. However, TiO₂ showed a low activity under the solar
18 light irradiation, due to its wide band-gap (ca. 3.0, 3.2 and 3.3 eV, depending on the
19 crystalline polymorphs, i.e. rutile, anatase, and brookite, respectively). Furthermore, due
20 to the presence of surface acid sites on TiO₂, a weak interaction can occur between
21 titania and CO₂, with a low activation of the latter molecule [5,6]. The addition of co-
22 catalysts with basic surface properties or the preparation of TiO₂-based composites are
23 effective strategies to improve the CO₂ adsorption and its conversion into fuels,
24 providing also an efficient charge carriers separation [7]. To further improve the
25 conversion and the selectivity towards the solar fuels, it is possible to exploit the
26 synergism between photocatalytic and thermocatalytic processes [8,9]. The
27 simultaneous action of heating and solar photoexcitation favours the reduction of CO₂,
28 which is an endothermic reaction and the contemporary water oxidation [10,11].
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30 In this context, the coupling of the photocatalytic features of TiO₂ and the
31 thermocatalytic redox ones of cerium oxide (CeO₂, ceria) can be an efficient approach
32 to increase the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ [12–14]. Several beneficial effects can
33 derive from the presence of CeO₂ as hosted oxide of TiO₂ in the photo(thermo)
34 reduction of CO₂ because (i) the surface basic sites of cerium oxide can improve the
35 CO₂ adsorption, favouring its activation [15]; (ii) the TiO₂-CeO₂ heterojunction avoids
36 the recombination between the photoproduced electrons and holes [12,16]; (iii) the high
37 mobility of oxygen on the surface of ceria favours the redox cycle Ce⁴⁺/Ce³⁺ inducing
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1 the increase of non-stoichiometric cerium oxide species. Indeed, these defective sites
2 can be occupied by the oxygen atoms of CO₂, increasing its adsorption and decreasing
3 its activation energy [17,18].
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6 Taking in account the above considerations, we studied the solar photothermal catalytic
7 reduction of CO₂ in the gaseous phase, using water vapour as a reducing agent and
8 examining the changes in the physico-chemical properties and the (photo)catalytic
9 activity of the TiO₂-CeO₂ composites after the addition of a small amount of CoO-CuO
10 as co-catalysts.
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15 To date, few studies are present in the literature that focus on the exploration of the
16 photo/photothermocatalytic activity of bimetallic oxides supported on TiO₂-based
17 composites and especially brookite TiO₂.
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21 In particular, the research on CO₂ photoreduction has mainly focused on gold-based
22 samples [19,20], while the use of bimetallic oxide systems (based on transition metals)
23 by coupling the photo- and thermo-catalysis has not been sufficiently investigated to the
24 best of our knowledge.
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28 The crystalline phase brookite of TiO₂ has been less studied than rutile and anatase due
29 to the difficulty in obtaining it pure [21]. However, its moderate depth of photoelectron
30 trap [22] combined with the redox properties of CeO₂ can greatly increase the reactivity
31 of photoholes and photoelectrons of composite samples [13].
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35 Finally, the presence of the mixed copper-cobalt oxides can raise the amount of oxygen
36 vacancies of the brookite-ceria composite. Furthermore, the bimetallic species can also
37 act as a system capable of storing/releasing electrons and/or holes [8,23].
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41 In this work, the correlations between the multicatalytic approach (thermocatalysis-
42 photocatalysis) and the various synergisms between brookite TiO₂ and CeO₂ and this
43 composite with the bimetallic oxides, were examined for the CO₂ conversion.
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48 ***2.1. Catalysts preparation***

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51 The thermohydrolysis of TiCl₄ in HCl solution was used to synthesize the brookite
52 TiO₂, following the procedure described in the literature [24].
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54 Brookite TiO₂-1wt% CeO₂, TiO₂-3wt% CeO₂ and TiO₂-5wt% CeO₂ were prepared by
55 wetness impregnation on the as-prepared brookite. The cerium(III) nitrate hexahydrate
56 was used as ceria salt precursor. The powders underwent the following thermal
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1 treatments: drying at 120°C and calcination in air at 350°C for four hours. The obtained
2 composites were coded as TiCe1, TiCe3 and TiCe5, respectively, where 1, 3 and 5
3 indicate the nominal weight percentage of CeO₂.
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6 The Co and Cu species were added by wetness impregnation on TiCe3 to synthesize
7 mono CoO or CuO (0.5wt%) and CoO-CuO bimetallic (0.3wt%-0.3%wt%) oxide
8 catalysts. The precursors were cobalt(II) nitrate hexahydrate and copper(II) nitrate
9 pentahemihydrate. After drying at 120°C the samples were calcined at 300°C for two
10 hours. They were coded as Co/TiCe3, Cu/TiCe3 and Co-Cu/TiCe3.
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16 **2.2. Catalysts characterization**

17 The Raman spectra were obtained irradiating the catalysts with a 514.5 nm laser
18 utilizing the instrument and the procedures reported in the ref. [13].
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20 X-ray diffraction patterns of the samples were aquired at room temperature by a
21 PANalytical Empyrean diffractometer equipped with a PIXcel^{1D} (tm) detector using the
22 CuK α radiation and a 2 θ scan rate of 1.28 min⁻¹. The UV-Vis DRS (Diffuse Reflectance
23 Spectroscopy) was carried out with the spectrometer Cary 60. The E_g (optical band gap)
24 of the semiconductors was calculated by plotting the modified Kubelka–Munk function
25 vs the hv following the procedure reported in the literature [25].
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34 The photoluminescence properties of the samples were determined using a
35 JobinYvon instrument (Horiba) using an excitation λ of 300 nm.
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38 The BET surface area of the samples was measured using a Thermo Quest
39 (Sorptomatic 1990) apparatus. The powders were outgassed for 24 h at 250°C.
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41 The TEM characterization was made by a Jeol 2100F working at 200 kV. The d_{TEM}
42 (average particle diameter size) was calculated considering the number of particles (n_i)
43 of diameter (d_i) and this correlation: $d_{TEM} = \Sigma(n_i d_i) / n_i$ with around 150 metal oxides
44 particles considered on each sample.
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49 The XPS (X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy) was performed using the Al K α X-ray
50 with the instrument and the experimental details reported in the ref. [26]. Note that 3%
51 by nominal weight of CeO₂ in TiO₂ corresponds to a real percentage of 1.42 in moles of
52 CeO₂ in TiO₂. In addition, the nominal 0.5% CoO, 0.5% CuO, 0.3% CoO-0.3% CuO
53 values in the TiO₂-CeO₂ composite correspond to 0.14%, 0.17%, 0.08% -0.11%, moles
54 of CoO, CuO, CoO-CuO.
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1 The FTIR spectroscopy was performed with a Spectrum Two System (Perkin Elmer).
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3 The background spectrum was recorded with KBr pellet.

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5 The CO₂ TPD (Temperature Programmed Desorption) measurements were performed
6 in a home-made quartz reactor utilizing 150 mg of samples. The CO₂ flow (30 cc/min)
7 was stopped after adsorption and surface saturation processes. Subsequently the reactor
8 was heated from 50°C to 600°C (rate of 10°C/min). After desorption the products were
9 analysed with a mass spectrometer (Sensorlab VG Quadrupoles). The catalysts were
10 pre-treated with a He flow (30 cc/min) for 1 h at 250°C.
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18 ***2.3. Catalytic activity experiments***

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20 The CO₂ photoreduction at room temperature was performed using a home-made
21 quartz reactor, filling it with 0.2 g of catalyst and irradiating with a solar lamp (Osram
22 Ultra Vitalux 300W, irradiance of 10.7 mW/cm²). The temperature was maintained
23 constant through a fan located near the photoreactor. Before the photocatalytic tests, the
24 samples were left overnight under He flow and UV irradiation (using a 100W mercury
25 lamp, Black-Ray B-100A, 365 nm) in order to desorb the possible impurities and the
26 carbonaceous species arising from the sample surface. Subsequently, water vapour was
27 introduced together with the He under irradiation and various portions of the gas leaving
28 the reactor were analysed by gas-chromatography (GC) to monitor the effectiveness of
29 the cleaning process and the possible presence of residual carbonaceous contamination
30 [27].
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40 Before starting the batch photo- and photothermo-catalytic tests, a mixture of CO₂
41 and H₂O vapour were flowed in the photoreactor to achieve the saturation of the catalyst
42 surface with the reagent molecules. The water vapour produced from a bubbler
43 maintained at 80°C was mixed with CO₂ (99.999%). By means of a mass flow
44 controller, a CO₂/H₂O mixture with a molar ratio of 15 was obtained. After some
45 preliminary tests, this ratio was chosen because it favoured the CO₂ reduction rather
46 than the competitive water splitting reaction that produced H₂ [28]. For the
47 photothermal catalytic tests the same setup was used heating the reactor at the chosen
48 temperature and irradiating it with the solar lamp.
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57 The reaction products were examined with the Agilent 6890N gas chromatograph (HP-
58 PLOT Q column, TCD detector) calibrated for the detection of methane and carbon
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1 monoxide, and with the Trace GC instrument (Porapak Q column, FID detector) used to
2 detect the possible formation of organic compounds. For the reusability tests, the
3 cleaning steps described above were repeated on the as-used sample before carrying out
4 the subsequent runs.
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10 **3. Results**

11 *3.1 Structural, textural and morphological properties*

12 One of the critical issues in the use of brookite TiO₂ is the choice of the appropriate
13 preparation method and the thermal treatments to obtain a pure brookite crystalline
14 phase, without rutile and anatase [21]. The thermohydrolysis of TiCl₄ in HCl solution is
15 an established procedure to obtain pure brookite [24]. Raman spectroscopy was
16 employed to verify the presence of pure brookite phase and to analyze the structural
17 properties of the as-synthesized composites. Compared to XRD characterization the
18 Raman spectroscopy is more accurate for brookite detection due to the detection of
19 typical vibration modes, whereas to clearly identify the XRD brookite signals, a
20 structure refinement method is required [21].
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31 The Fig. 1A illustrates the Raman spectra of the samples. The bare brookite TiO₂
32 showed 10 vibrational modes, assigned on the basis of the literature data to: 4 A_{1g}
33 modes (the main one at 154 cm⁻¹ and the others at 249, 417 and 633 cm⁻¹), 2 B_{1g} (213
34 and 325 cm⁻¹), 2 B_{2g} (367 and 463 cm⁻¹) and 2 B_{3g} (500 and 545 cm⁻¹), whereas the
35 other bands that are present with a very low intensity at 128 cm⁻¹, at 195 cm⁻¹
36 (overlapped with the B_{1g} band at 213 cm⁻¹) and at 586 cm⁻¹, are assigned to other 2 A_{1g}
37 vibrational modes and to another one B_{2g} mode [13,24] respectively.
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43 The typical vibrational mode at 154 cm⁻¹ is characteristic of the brookite phase and the
44 absence of vibrational bands at 516 cm⁻¹ (due to anatase TiO₂) and 446 cm⁻¹ (rutile
45 TiO₂) confirmed the pure brookite formation [13,24], as also verified with the XRD
46 patterns of all the investigated samples (Fig. S1).
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51 In the composites with CeO₂, the main vibrational mode of cerium oxide at 463 cm⁻¹
52 related to the F_{2g} vibrational mode of the cubic fluorite structure [29] overlaps with the
53 second B_{2g} mode of brookite. The absence of signals related to the Cu and/or Co species
54 in the Co/TiCe₃, Cu/TiCe₃ and Co-Cu/TiCe₃ samples, can be due to the low amount of
55 the metal species present in the composites and/or to their good dispersion on the
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1 brookite-ceria composite [30]. The structural modifications related to the metal oxides
2 are indeed highlighted by the Raman shift of the main brookite band (Fig. 1B). In
3 particular, a 0.9 cm^{-1} shift to lower wavenumbers was observed in Co/TiCe₃ compared
4 to pure brookite. In the bimetallic oxides sample this redshift is more evident (1.9 cm^{-1}).
5 These changes can be attributed to the structural disorders and defects as oxygen
6 vacancies in the brookite structure generated by the addition of cobalt and copper
7 species, especially when they are simultaneously present [31].
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10 The boundary interaction between the TiO₂ and CeO₂ can be noted from the TEM
11 image of TiCe₃ (Fig. 2A), although the similar d-space of the (121) planes of brookite
12 TiO₂ (0.28 nm) and the (111) planes of CeO₂ (0.31 nm) did not permit to clearly
13 discriminate the interface between the two oxides [32].
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16 The particle size distribution of the added metal oxides on the TiCe₃ and the TEM
17 images of the Co/TiCe₃, Cu/TiCe₃ and Co-Cu/TiCe₃ samples are illustrated in the Figs.
18 2B-2D.
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21 The estimated mean particle diameter was 6 nm for the cobalt oxide in the Co/TiCe₃
22 sample (Fig. 2B), 13 nm for the CuO in the Cu/TiCe₃ (Fig. 2C) whereas in the Co-
23 Cu/TiCe₃ catalysts the CoO and CuO oxides exhibited a similar mean size (10 nm and 9
24 nm for the cobalt and copper oxides respectively, Fig. 2D). This size variation can be
25 due to the establishment of a mutual interaction between the metal oxides particles
26 when they are contemporary present in the TiO₂-CeO₂ composite, thus influencing their
27 growth and their dispersion [33,34]. However, the possible presence of aggregates of
28 nanooxides on the TiCe₃ cannot be excluded.
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31 The presence of the cobalt and copper oxides was further confirmed by the SAED
32 patterns analysis (Fig. S2). The d space values of 0.28 and 0.25 nm correspond to the
33 (110) and (111) planes of CuO and CoO nanooxides, respectively [35,36]. The same d
34 spaces values and similar SAED patterns were found for the Co/TiCe₃ and Cu/TiCe₃
35 samples.
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38 The textural features of the samples are reported in the Table 1. The presence of ceria
39 caused a notable decrease in the surface area of brookite from $100\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ to $68\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and a
40 slight increase in the pore volume and the mean pore diameter. The addition of the
41 metal oxides, instead, did not substantially modify the textural features of the TiCe₃
42 sample. These findings can be ascribed to the inclusion of CeO₂ in the TiO₂ and to the
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1 thermal treatments (calcination in air) carried out to eliminate the nitrates of the metal
2 salt precursors of ceria, copper and cobalt [37].
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6 7 *3.2 Optical properties* 8

9 The optical properties of the samples were determined with the UV-vis DRS and the
10 photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopies.
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12 Figure 3 illustrates the results of the UV-DRS measurements, plotting the Kubelka-
13 Munk function, vs λ . The spectra of brookite TiO_2 and TiCe_3 are similar, with no
14 substantial changes due to the addition of ceria, but those of the other samples show a
15 less significant reflectance in the 200-400 nm wavelength range, probably due to an
16 increased absorption by cobalt and copper species present on their surface. The optical
17 band gap of the catalysts with a single metal (the inset of Fig. 3 shows the graph of Co-
18 Cu/ TiCe_3 as representative sample) are basically the same as that of brookite, being
19 3.24 eV for the latter, 3.26 eV for the TiCe_3 and Cu/ TiCe_3 composites, and 3.25 eV for
20 the Co/ TiCe_3 sample, whereas the addition of the bimetallic oxides led to a slightly
21 higher band gap (3.31 eV), probably due to an interaction between the two metallic
22 species which can influence the absorption.
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33 On the contrary, some interesting optical features were detected investigating the
34 photoluminescence responses of the samples (Fig. 4). The PL spectra of pure brookite
35 present four typical bands. In accordance with the literature data, the band at 390 nm is
36 reasonably attributed to the band-to-band emission of titania and that at 432 nm to the
37 self-trapped excitons present in the crystalline structure of brookite. Moreover, the band
38 at 460 nm is due to the presence of oxygen vacancies, and the PL band at 555 nm is
39 usually related to the excited electrons trapped in the mid-gap levels (i.e. defect centers)
40 [38]. In the composite with CeO_2 it can be noticed the occurrence of a quenching of the
41 PL bands at 390 nm and 430 nm, whilst the band at 460 nm of TiO_2 overlaps with those
42 at about 463 nm attributed to the CeO_2 band to band emission [39]. Notably, the
43 addition of the metal oxide species resulted in a further decrease of the PL bands of
44 TiO_2 and CeO_2 . A broad band is visible in the 480-510 nm range for the Co/ TiCe_3
45 sample probably due to the formation of oxygen vacancies induced by the cobalt oxide
46 [40]. In fact, the presence of small amounts of metal nanoxides, and in particular of
47 cobalt oxides, facilitated the creation of new oxygen vacancies as intrinsic defects inside
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1 the principal oxide (in this case the TiO₂-CeO₂ system) [41]. Generally, a lower
2 intensity of the PL bands is connected to a decrease of the charge recombination among
3 the photoelectrons and the photoholes. Consequently, the diminution of the band
4 intensity can be associated to an increase of the effectiveness in the charge carriers
5 separation [42]. Therefore, the above results indicate that the addition of copper and/or
6 cobalt species to the TiO₂-CeO₂ composites permitted to decrease the
7 photoelectrons/holes recombination and to increase the number of defects in the
8 composite, as confirmed by the Raman measurements. Cobalt oxide can also act as
9 reservoir of oxygen vacancies.

17 3.3 Surface properties

20 The surface electronic structure was studied using XPS. Results for the bare brookite
21 TiO₂ showed sharp titanium spin-orbit bands at 459.2 and 465.0 eV (Fig. 5A). A careful
22 deconvolution of the Ti spectrum profile revealed the presence of an additional spin-
23 orbit component at 457.6 and 462.5 eV due to the presence of some surface Ti³⁺ states,
24 as a result of the presence of oxygen vacancies (Fig. S3A) [13,26].

29 Fig. 5A shows the XPS of TiCe₃, Co/TiCe₃, Cu/TiCe₃ and Co-Cu/TiCe₃ catalysts,
30 in the Ti 2p energy region. Apart from a negligible different band broadening, no
31 relevant binding energy differences were detected, being all of them at 0.3 eV of lower
32 binding energy (BE) with respect to the pure brookite TiO₂. This observation can be
33 justified by taking into account the electronegativity of titanium (1.5) larger than that of
34 cerium (1.1), thus indicating their electronic interaction. Fig. S3B shows the fitted
35 representative high-resolution XP spectrum of the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ sample in the Ti 2p
36 binding energy region. The fitting required two Gaussian spin-orbit doublets (Ti 2p_{3/2} at
37 458.9 and 457.0 eV; Ti 2p_{1/2} at 464.6 and 462.2 eV). The main doublet is associated
38 with the Ti⁴⁺ species of the brookite phase [13], while the weak doublet shifted ~2 eV to
39 lower binding energy, and it is due to the presence of the residual surface Ti³⁺ cations
40 after interaction with Ce⁴⁺ ions [43,44].

51 The O 1s band of pure brookite is centered at 530.7 eV (Fig. S4A) and shows the
52 presence of some Ti-OH hydroxide species, at 532.6 eV [26]. The high-resolution
53 spectra of the O 1s core levels for TiCe₃, Co/TiCe₃, Cu/TiCe₃ and Co-Cu/TiCe₃
54 catalysts (Fig. S4A), display a O 1s peak at 530.4 eV, comparable to that observed for
55 catalysts (Fig. S4A), display a O 1s peak at 530.4 eV, comparable to that observed for
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1 the TiO₂, also in this case downshifted of 0.3 eV. Again, a sizeable higher binding
2 energy shoulder accounts for some -OH groups.
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4 The Ce 3d XPS of TiCe3 (Fig. S4B) illustrates the overlap of Ce⁴⁺ and Ce³⁺ states
5 [43]. The double bands at 883.4 and 902.0 eV is assigned to the Ce(IV) 3d⁹4f²(O 2p⁴)
6 state. The doublet at 886.6 and 905.2 eV is consistent with the Ce(III) 3d⁹4f²(O 2p⁵)
7 state. Furthermore, the occurrence of Ce⁴⁺ is also established by the typical band at
8 917.7 eV (the fitted spectra are reported in Fig. S4C).
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10 For analogous samples, it has been stated that the occurrence of Ce³⁺ may be due to
11 TiO₂ and CeO₂ electronic interactions that cause some reduction of the Ce⁴⁺ [43].
12 Obviously, the presence of some Ti³⁺ cations on the TiO₂ surface is essential for this
13 redox process, and we already evidenced a minor spin-orbit component at 457.0 and
14 462.2 eV due to the not complete axial coordination of the surface Ti cation in TiO₂ that
15 leads to some surface Ti reduction (vide supra) [44]. Practically, any electronic
16 communication between CeO₂ and TiO₂ is limited to the topmost ionic layers of these
17 nanostructures, confirming the presence of a heterojunction between the TiO₂ and CeO₂
18 interfaces as verified by the TEM measurements. We already evidenced that the Ti 2p
19 states of all catalysts are at 0.3 eV lower BE with respect to pure brookite, while the BE
20 of the Ce⁴⁺ 3d states in TiCe3 are 0.4 eV at higher BE with respect to the same levels
21 usually observed in the bare CeO₂ (883.0 eV, Fig. S4D). This further underlines the
22 presence of an electronic coupling between Ti and Ce (both Ce⁴⁺ and Ce³⁺) ions.
23 Furthermore, the binding energies of both Ce⁴⁺ and Ce³⁺ 3d levels in systems containing
24 CoO or/and CuO (Fig. S4B) are 0.2 eV at higher values compared to the same bands
25 detected for TiCe3 (883.4 eV), due to the interactions between the Ce, Co and Cu ions.
26 These strong electronic interactions and the redox process between the Ti and Ce ions
27 favoured the formation of oxygen vacancies in the samples [43-45] as also confirmed by
28 Raman and PL measurements.
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30 Fig. 5B shows the XPS of the Co/TiCe3 and Co-Cu/TiCe3 catalysts in the Co 2p
31 energy region. In both cases, the Co 2p_{3/2,1/2} bands are at 781.3 and 797.1 eV (15.8 eV
32 spin-orbit coupling) [46]. It has been previously reported that Co 2p ionization energies
33 are not diagnostic of Co²⁺ and Co³⁺ oxidation states since it appears that any intrinsic
34 shift between tetrahedral Co(II) and octahedral Co(III) is compensated by the site
35 potential difference for the two different types of cations. Nevertheless, shakeup
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1 satellites at a binding energy 6 eV higher than the main spin-orbit components (Fig. 5B)
2 are fingerprint of Co^{2+} species [47].
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4 The XPS spectra of the Cu/TiCe3 and Co-Cu/TiCe3 samples in the Cu 2p zone are
5 reported in the Fig. 5C. In both cases, two well-resolved spin-orbit components centered
6 at 933.9 and 953.8 eV are evident with a 19.9 eV spin-orbit separation, consistently with
7 Cu^{2+} states [48].
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10 Finally, XPS atomic concentration analysis provided the surface composition of all
11 investigated catalysts. Atomic Ce/Ti ratios observed in all samples were close to
12 nominal values whilst surface atomic Co/Ti and Cu/Ti ratios were approximately 24
13 times larger than nominal values in both mono and bimetallic oxide samples, thus
14 indicating the occurrence of a significant surface segregation of cobalt and/or copper.
15 The above finding highlights the fundamental role that these cations play in the catalytic
16 performance of the studied samples that obviously strongly depends on the catalyst
17 surface composition.
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27 *3.4 Photocatalytic and photothermocatalytic activity: Effect of CeO₂ addition*

28 A first catalytic screening was performed by using the three TiCe1, TiCe3 and TiCe5
29 samples synthesized with a rising loading of CeO₂ deposited on brookite TiO₂. The
30 solar photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ at room temperature on these catalysts is
31 reported in the Fig. 6A. Under the experimental conditions used, only CO and CH₄ were
32 detected as reaction products, whereas the amount of evolved hydrogen, arising from
33 the water splitting reaction, was negligible. Specifically, carbon monoxide was the main
34 product of the CO₂ conversion when brookite TiO₂-based photocatalysts were used
35 together with water vapour as the reducing agent [5,14]. The photoconversion of CO₂ to
36 CO requires two electrons with a more negative potential (i.e. -0.53 V at pH 7 vs. NHE)
37 compared to the photoproduction of methane (-0.24 V), which but requires eight
38 electrons [28].
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49 The TiCe3 sample allowed to obtain higher production rates of CO ($0.8 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$)
50 and CH₄ ($0.09 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$) than the bare brookite ($0.5 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ and $0.05 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$
51 for the CO and CH₄, respectively). A further increase in the cerium oxide amount
52 showed a detrimental effect (Fig. 6A).
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1 In the photothermocatalytic tests (Fig. 6B, T = 120°C) the activity trends both for the
2 CO and the CH₄ evolution were the same as those obtained in the photocatalytic tests at
3 room temperature, i.e.: TiCe₃ > TiCe₁ ≥ Brookite TiO₂ > TiCe₅.
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6 For the best composite (TiCe₃) the hybrid catalytic approach allowed to increase of
7 2.5 times the CO photoproduction (2 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹) and 2.2 times the CH₄ formation (0.2
8 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹). A lower amount of cerium oxide did not substantially change the photo and
9 photothermal activity of pure brookite, whereas a higher quantity had a negative effect.
10 This can be due to the coverage of the surface sites of TiO₂ caused by the ongoing
11 deposition of cerium oxide [12,16].
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14 On the basis of the above results, cobalt and copper species were added only to the
15 TiCe₃ sample and the effects of their presence were investigated.
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18 *3.5 Photocatalytic and photothermocatalytic activity: Effect of cobalt, copper and 19 cobalt-copper oxides addition*

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23 The addition of cobalt and copper oxides allowed to increase the formation of carbon
24 monoxide and methane both in the photocatalytic and photothermocatalytic tests (Fig.
25 7). The order of photoactivity at room temperature (Fig. 7A) was Co-Cu/TiCe₃ >
26 Cu/TiCe₃ > Co/TiCe₃ > TiCe₃ > Brookite TiO₂. Compared to the TiCe₃ composite, the
27 addition of the two oxides led to an increase in the formation of CO by about 6 times (5
28 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹) and of CH₄ by 5.5 times (0.5 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹). Cu/TiCe₃ was more active than
29 the Co/TiCe₃ sample, which in turn showed slightly higher activity (1 and 0.15 μmol g⁻¹
30 h⁻¹ for CO and CH₄, respectively) than the TiCe₃ composite.
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33 A further positive effect was verified with the multi catalytic approach (Fig. 7B), as
34 also verified with the bare TiO₂-CeO₂ composites (Fig. 6B). The contemporaneous
35 heating/irradiation of the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ sample resulted in the highest production of CO
36 (12 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹) and CH₄ (1.8 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹).
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39 Notably, comparing the performance of bare TiCe₃ (2 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹ and 0.2 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹
40 for CO and CH₄, respectively) with that of Co-Cu/TiCe₃, it is possible to notice that the
41 increase of the methane production detected with the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ sample was higher
42 than the increase of the carbon monoxide evolution. Indeed, the CO production
43 increased by 6 times, i.e. the same enhancement verified in the runs performed without
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1 heating, whereas the increase of methane formation in the photothermal tests was 9
2 times higher, almost doubling the improvement observed with the photocatalytic tests.
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4 The Cu/TiCe₃ sample confirmed its higher activity in the photothermal tests
5 compared to the Co/TiCe₃ powders, increasing by about 2 times and by 2.6 times the
6 CO (6 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹) and the CH₄ (0.8 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹) production, respectively. This trend
7 was confirmed also with the Co/TiCe₃ catalyst, being the CO/CH₄ improvement 3 times
8 higher comparing the photothermocatalytic and the photocatalytic results.
9

10 The beneficial effects of the multi catalytic approach are amplified if the
11 performance of pure brookite is compared with that of the Cu-Co/TiCe₃ catalyst in the
12 photocatalytic and photothermocatalytic tests (see Figs. 7A and 7B). The use of this
13 latter catalyst led to improve, in fact, both the CO and CH₄ production of about 10 times
14 in the photocatalytic measurements, and of about 8 times for CO and 20 times for CH₄
15 in the photothermal tests. The photothermo catalytic results in function of the surface
16 area are summarized in the Table 1.
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18 Furthermore, it is important to highlight that for all of the samples, no formation of
19 solar fuels was detected in the thermocatalytic test carried out at temperatures < 300°C
20 and under dark, in accordance with the literature data [4,5].
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22 3.6 CO₂-TPD and FTIR measurements

23 The CO₂ is an acid molecule, and it is largely used as probe for the investigation of
24 the basicity of the catalysts surface sites [49]. The first step of the CO₂ photoconversion
25 is its adsorption on the surface of the catalyst. The investigation of the CO₂-TPD
26 profiles of the examined catalysts can be useful to determine the strength of the
27 interaction and the nature of the surface basic sites.
28

29 The presence of cerium oxide led to exploit its surface basicity that allowed to
30 improve the adsorption of carbon dioxide, with the formation of different carbonates on
31 the surface of the samples. The CO₂-TPD curves (Fig. 8) recorded between room
32 temperature and 600°C can be divided into three parts indicated as α, β and γ, and
33 associated to weak, medium and strong sites, respectively [50]. The weak basic sites are
34 usually identified with the surface hydroxyl groups on metal oxides which form
35 hydrogen carbonate by interacting weakly with CO₂. The α peaks are characteristic of
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1 the linear adsorptive form of CO₂, the β and the γ ones represent the bridge-bonded
2 adsorptive form.
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4 From the Fig. 8 it is clear as the surface sites of the samples changed on the basis of
5 the specific chemical modifications of brookite TiO₂. The pure TiO₂ showed only weak
6 desorption features in the high-temperature zone. The addition of small amount of
7 cerium oxide (TiCe₃ sample) led to an increase in the CO₂ adsorption capacity. In fact,
8 slightly more intense signals related to the moderate (β) and strong basic sites (γ) can be
9 observed. Three desorption peaks are visible in the profile of Co/TiCe₃, two more
10 intense at 84°C and at 453°C and a feeble one at 246°C, indicating the prevalent
11 introduction of weak and strong basic sites by cobalt. The presence of copper
12 (Cu/TiCe₃), on the other hand, introduced moderate basic sites and improved bridge-
13 type adsorption of CO₂. The CO₂-TPD profile of the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ points to a strong
14 interaction between the CO₂ and the surface sites of this catalyst as indicated by the
15 presence of the β and γ peaks. Indeed, this sample showed a peak at 308°C, similarly to
16 the Cu/TiCe₃ powder, and two peaks at 108°C and 469°C slightly shifted at higher
17 temperature (stronger CO₂ interaction) compared to those of Co/TiCe₃. Furthermore,
18 another signal (at 396°C) was detected. The desorption peaks in the range 380-570°C
19 were related to the decomposition of (bidentate) carbonate species, whereas the features
20 between 180-380°C and between 550-780°C are due to the decomposition of hydrogen
21 carbonates and monodentate carbonates respectively [14,50]. Only for a general
22 comparison, the CO₂-TPD curves of the pure CuO, CoO and of CoO-CuO prepared by
23 chemical precipitation are reported in the supporting information (Fig. S5). It is
24 important to highlight, in fact, that a real comparison is not possible considering that in
25 our work the bimetallic Co-Cu oxides were added as co-catalysts in small amount
26 (0.3wt%-0.3wt%) on brookite TiO₂-CeO₂, using a different preparation method
27 (impregnation) compared to the synthesis of the bare CuO, CoO and of the mixture
28 CoO-CuO (that required a chemical precipitation). Furthermore, the CO₂ interaction
29 was influenced by the presence of both the acid sites of TiO₂ and mainly the basic sites
30 of CeO₂.
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54 Surface enrichment of the metal oxides due to phase segregation was noticed on
55 Co/TiCe₃, Cu/TiCe₃ and Co-Cu/TiCe₃ samples, as indicated by XPS results. This
56 facilitated the CO₂ adsorption especially in the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ sample where multiple
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1 metal surface sites allowed to establish a strong interaction with CO₂, which occurs
2 instead with much lower strength in the bare brookite and in the TiCe₃ composite.
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4 To further confirm the formation of the carbonate species after the adsorption of CO₂
5 on the surface of the TiCe₃-based catalysts, we have compared the FTIR spectra of the
6 Co/TiCe₃, Cu/TiCe₃ and Co-Cu/TiCe₃ samples before and after the
7 photothermocatalytic tests (Fig. 9).
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10 Before the activity runs all samples exhibited the typical FTIR spectra of TiO₂-based
11 materials with a broad band at around 3500-3400 cm⁻¹ and a peak at around 1610-1620
12 cm⁻¹ assigned to the stretching and bending modes of the hydroxyl groups, respectively.
13 These bands can be due to both the residual water molecules and the Ti-OH bonds. The
14 broad band observed in the range 700-600 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the Ti-O-Ti vibrations
15 (Figs. 9 and S6) [12]. After the photothermal tests, it is possible to note the formation of
16 new bands in the (hydrogen)carbonate zone (1400-1050 cm). All samples showed a
17 strong band at 1383-1384 cm⁻¹, assigned to the symmetric stretching of carboxylate
18 molecules [51]. Co/TiCe₃ showed a spectrum with a small signal at 1114 cm⁻¹ of the
19 bridged bidentate carbonates [51]. The Cu/TiCe₃ sample exhibited signals at 1187 and
20 1115 cm⁻¹ related to bridged carbonates, while the band at 1068 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the
21 ν_{C-O} of monodentate carbonate [51]. In the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ catalyst, two small bands at
22 1215 and 1131 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to bridged bidentate carbonates, whereas the
23 feature at about 1036 cm⁻¹ to small amounts of hydrogen carbonates [51].
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38 The contemporaneous presence of different surface metal sites (mainly Co, Cu
39 and/or Co-Cu centers due to surface segregation as evidenced by XPS) favoured the
40 formation of both hydrogen carbonates and bridged bidentate carbonates species in the
41 Co-Cu/TiCe₃ catalyst, with a beneficial effect in the CO₂ reduction. As reported in the
42 literature, the bidentate binding mode of carbon dioxide, with the formation of bidentate
43 carbonates favours the formation of CO through the bidentate formate species as
44 intermediate and a successive transformation of CO into CH₄ [4,52]. Note that during
45 the catalytic and photocatalytic measurements no formic acid was detected. This acid
46 was instead reported as a common product of the CO₂ photoreduction performed in
47 aqueous (liquid) media [28]. Furthermore, the presence of hydrogen carbonates is
48 beneficial because they can act as holes scavenger and can be also converted into other
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1 bidentate formate species [4,52]. This is one of the key features that can explain the
2 improved performance of this bimetallic oxide-based catalyst with respect to the others.
3

4 The formation of the carbonate species after the photothermo catalytic measurements
5 was also confirmed by the comparison of the XPS spectra in C 1s region before and
6 after the test (Fig. S7, Co-Cu/TiCe3 chosen as representative sample). All the spectra
7 show the adventitious carbon peak at 285.0 eV, currently used for calibration [26].
8 Furthermore, the XP spectrum of the sample measured after the CO₂ photoreduction
9 also exhibits a peak at 289.0 eV ascribed to the carbonate species ($-\text{CO}_3^{2-}$), thus
10 confirming their formation during the reaction. This signal is not present in the sample
11 analyzed before the photothermal tests, pointing to the absence of carbon impurities
12 (they were removed during the cleaning steps, see par. 2.3) on the surface of the sample.
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23 **4. Discussion**

24 The photo(thermo) catalytic results and the characterization data here reported can be
25 discussed in terms of different synergisms, which are involved in determining the final
26 performance of the investigated samples.
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28 The first exploited synergism is the “energy synergism” between the photocatalytic
29 and the thermocatalytic mechanisms. The multi catalytic approach allowed to increase
30 the solar fuel formation (Fig. 6 and Fig. 7). The heating, as well as to increase the rate of
31 the CO₂ conversion and of the water oxidation [10,11], promoted the oxygens mobility
32 of the reducible oxides as CeO₂, CoO and CuO, and the presence of oxygen vacancies
33 in the CeO₂ (generated by the Ce³⁺ species as confirmed by XPS) was further increased
34 by the simultaneous addition of copper and cobalt species in the Co-Cu/TiCe3 sample
35 (as confirmed by XPS, Raman and PL measurements). These oxygen vacancies sensibly
36 decrease the energy for the adsorption of CO₂. It is indeed reported that carbon dioxide
37 preferentially adsorbs on oxygen defective sites [17,18]. Furthermore, to have an
38 efficient CO₂ reduction, the electron and proton transfers should be synchronous.
39 Considering that the time scale for the electron transfer is picoseconds whereas that of
40 proton transfer is hundreds of microseconds, the rate determining step of the reaction
41 should be the H⁺ transfer process [6,8]. In this contest, the contemporaneous presence of
42 solar and thermal energy leads to enhance, as reported in the literature, the proton
43 transfers [53] obtaining beneficial multiple protons/electrons transfers.
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1 We want to highlight that this synergism between thermo and photocatalysis had a
2 positive effect only if the photocatalytic mechanism was simultaneously activated.
3 Indeed, no CO and CH₄ formation was detected in the thermocatalytic tests up to
4 300°C. Although, in fact, the presence of the oxygen vacancies facilitates the adsorption
5 of CO₂, its further conversion requires multi proton/electron transfers, that can be
6 generated by the photocatalytic mechanism, or higher temperatures (T>300°C)
7 necessary for the carbon dioxide dissociation [4,5,54] as also stated by the CO₂-TPD. A
8 confirmation of the mutual positive effect between the photocatalytic and the
9 thermocatalytic mechanisms was highlighted by the solar photothermal results
10 performed at increasing temperature with the most performing sample (the Co-
11 Cu/TiCe₃ catalyst) (Fig. S8). The high temperature promotes the CeO₂ redox properties
12 [12] favouring the CO/CH₄ formation. It is possible to notice that the beneficial
13 synergistic effect led to a linear growth in the evolution of CO and CH₄ up to about 2
14 times every 60° C of temperature increase.

15 The CO₂-TPD and the FTIR measurements pointed to a peculiar “surface sites
16 synergism” particularly evident on the bimetallic oxides sample, considering also that
17 the XPS stated the surface segregation of these species on the TiCe₃. The strong
18 interaction of CO₂ with the multiple metal surface sites favoured its adsorption and
19 activation. Considering the results obtained which highlighted the greater performance
20 of the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ catalyst compared to the other samples, the proposed mechanism of
21 photothermocatalytic conversion of CO₂ is illustrated in Fig. 10.

22 Under solar irradiation, the photogenerated electrons and holes were efficiently
23 separated due to the heterojunction (detected by TEM) between the brookite TiO₂ and
24 the CeO₂. The conduction and the valence band levels of CeO₂ and brookite TiO₂
25 allowed the generation of CO and CH₄ and the oxidation of water with the formation of
26 H⁺ [14]. Copper and cobalt oxides acted as efficient co-catalysts, which allowed to
27 increase the solar fuel formation and to efficiently separate the charge carriers as
28 confirmed by the PL characterization. In fact, the excited electrons can react with the
29 adsorbed CO₂ while the holes interacting with the CoO-CuO co-catalysts, boost up the
30 oxidation of water and the generation of protons. The surface segregation of these
31 oxides on brookite-cerium oxide enabled the improvement of the interaction with

1 carbon dioxide molecules also favoring the formation of carbonate species as
2 intermediates, which paved the way for the conversion of CO₂ into CO and CH₄.
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4 The contemporaneous presence of CoO and CuO on the surface of TiCe₃ led to a
5 holistic effect (“bimetallic oxide synergism”) that permitted to increase the catalytic
6 performance compared to the monometallic counterparts. The strong mutual interaction
7 between the two metal oxides, that influenced their growth and dispersion on the TiCe₃
8 as detected by TEM measurements, allowed to join the beneficial properties of copper
9 and cobalt oxides. In particular, the CuO promoted the CO₂ reduction, being an efficient
10 co-catalyst for the electrons donation [5,23], the cobalt oxide facilitated the formation of
11 oxygen vacancies, as detected by PL spectroscopy, and the holes trap, boosting the
12 oxidation of water and protons formation [8,41]. Although these features could be
13 exploited also in the monometallic CoO and CuO catalysts, the simultaneous addition of
14 both oxides on the surface of TiCe₃ synergistically increased the solar fuel formation.
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17 Finally, it is important to highlight that these peculiar synergisms were more
18 effective in the presence of the pure brookite phase. Indeed, in the same experimental
19 conditions, we have compared the performance in the photothermal test at 120°C of Co-
20 Cu/TiCe₃ sample with those of two samples prepared with the same synthesis but
21 employing commercial anatase (Sigma Aldrich 637254) and rutile (Sigma Aldrich
22 224227) TiO₂. The use of rutile led to the lowest CO/CH₄ formation (Fig. S9). As
23 reported, the CB energy level of rutile was not appropriate for the CO₂ reduction into
24 CO, whereas the CB edge of anatase was similar to that of brookite [23]. However, with
25 the anatase TiO₂-based composite the CO and CH₄ production were lower (8 and 0.9
26 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹ respectively) compared to the brookite-based sample (12 and 1.84 μmol g⁻¹h⁻¹
27 for CO and CH₄ respectively). The peculiar preparation mode of the pure brookite, its
28 strong interaction with cerium oxide and its specific physico-chemical properties make
29 this crystalline phase particularly suitable for the photoreduction reactions and for multi
30 catalytic approaches [13,55-57]. The good affinity between brookite TiO₂ and CeO₂ was
31 further highlighted by comparing the photothermal activity of the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ with
32 those of Co-Cu/brookite TiO₂ and the Co-Cu/CeO₂ (Fig. S10). Indeed, the CO and the
33 CH₄ formation obtained with the Co-Cu/brookite TiO₂ was about two times and five
34 times lower of the Co-Cu/TiCe₃ respectively, whereas the Co-Cu/CeO₂ showed a very
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1 low activity being the CO formation 30 times lower than that observed with Co-
2 Cu/TiCe₃, without methane evolution.
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4 The 0.3-0.3 wt% was the optimal amount of the bimetallic oxides sample (Fig. S11),
5 whereas a higher amount led to a detrimental effect, presumably due to excessive
6 coverage of the active sites of TiO₂ [12,16].
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10 The Co-Cu/Ti(brookite)Ce₃ also showed a good stability after 3 consecutive runs of
11 photothermocatalytic tests at 120°C (Fig. S12) pointing to as the experimental conditions
12 of this hybrid catalysis or the eventual formation of carbonaceous impurities on the
13 surface of the sample, that however were removed during the cleaning steps (par. 2.3),
14 did not affect the catalytic activity of the best performing sample examined in this work.
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21 **5. Conclusions**

22 The solar photothermocatalytic conversion of the carbon dioxide was investigated on
23 brookite TiO₂-CeO₂-based catalysts. The influence of the addition of small amounts of
24 cobalt oxide, copper oxide and of the CoO-CuO bimetallic oxides was investigated. For
25 both photocatalytic and photothermocatalytic tests, the CoO-CuO supported on the
26 TiO₂-3% CeO₂ gave the best results. The “multi” properties of this peculiar material and
27 the multi catalytic approach allowed to sensibly increase the CO/CH₄ formation. In
28 particular, the use of Co-Cu/TiCe₃ material allowed to exploit: (i) the energy synergism
29 between the catalytic and the photocatalytic mechanisms that increased the CO₂
30 conversion and favoured efficient e⁻/H⁺ transfers; (ii) the surface sites synergism that
31 facilitated the CO₂ adsorption and its activation through the formation of carbonates as
32 intermediates; (iii) the bimetallic oxides synergism that promoted an efficient charge
33 carriers separation, the increase of oxygen vacancies on the brookite TiO₂-CeO₂
34 composite and the surface segregation of the added oxides which boosted the CO₂
35 conversion and the oxidation of water.
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49 The application of this hybrid catalysis using versatile catalysts possessing both
50 photocatalytic and thermocatalytic properties can be a fascinating strategy to exploit
51 CO₂ through solar fuel production.
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Table 1 Textural properties (surface area, mean pore diameter and pore volume) and photothermo catalytic performance (T= 120°C) of the used photocatalysts.

Samples	S_{BET} (m²/g)	D_m (nm)	V_p (cm³/g)	CO evolution (μmol/m²·h)	CH₄ evolution (μmol/m²·h)
Brookite TiO ₂	100	23.1	0.22	0.03	0.002
TiCe ₃	68	25.2	0.34	0.06	0.006
Co/TiCe ₃	69	24.9	0.33	0.09	0.01
Cu/TiCe ₃	67	25.3	0.33	0.18	0.02
Co-Cu/TiCe ₃	70	24.7	0.31	0.34	0.05

1 **Captions to figures**
2

3 **Fig. 1** (A) Raman spectra of the analysed catalysts, (B) Zoom of the region of the
4 A_{1g} vibrational mode brookite TiO_2 .
5

6 **Fig. 2** TEM images of $TiCe_3$ (A). Particle size distribution and TEM images of
7 $Co/TiCe_3$ (B), $Cu/TiCe_3$ (C) and $Co-Cu/TiCe_3$ (D).
8

9 **Fig. 3** Reflectance spectra of the analysed samples. In the inset the band gap
10 determination of the $Co-Cu/TiCe_3$ as representative catalyst.
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12 **Fig. 4** Photoluminescence spectra of the analysed samples ($\lambda_{excitation} = 300$ nm).
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14 **Fig. 5** (A) XPS spectra of the examined samples in the Ti 2p binding energy zone;
15 (B) XPS spectra of $Co/TiCe_3$ and $Co-Cu/TiCe_3$ samples, in the Co 2p zone;
16 (C) $Cu/TiCe_3$ and $Co-Cu/TiCe_3$ samples, in the Cu 2p zone.
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18 **Fig. 6** (A) Solar photocatalytic CO_2 reduction at room temperature, (B)
19 Photothermocatalytic tests at $t = 120^\circ C$ on the brookite TiO_2-CeO_2
20 composites. The catalysts were irradiated for 5 h.
21

22 **Fig. 7** (A) Solar photocatalytic CO_2 reduction at room temperature, (B)
23 Photothermocatalytic tests at $t = 120^\circ C$ on the $TiCe_3$ -based samples. The
24 catalysts were irradiated for 5 h.
25

26 **Fig. 8** CO_2 -TPD curves of the analysed catalysts in the $50-600^\circ C$ temperature range
27 The α , β , and γ zones identify the weak, medium and strong basic sites,
28 respectively.
29

30 **Fig. 9** FTIR spectra before and after the photothermocatalytic CO_2 reduction on
31 $Co/TiCe_3$, $Cu/TiCe_3$ and $Co-Cu/TiCe_3$.
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33 **Fig. 10** Proposed photothermocatalytic mechanism with the $Co-Cu/TiCe_3$ catalyst.
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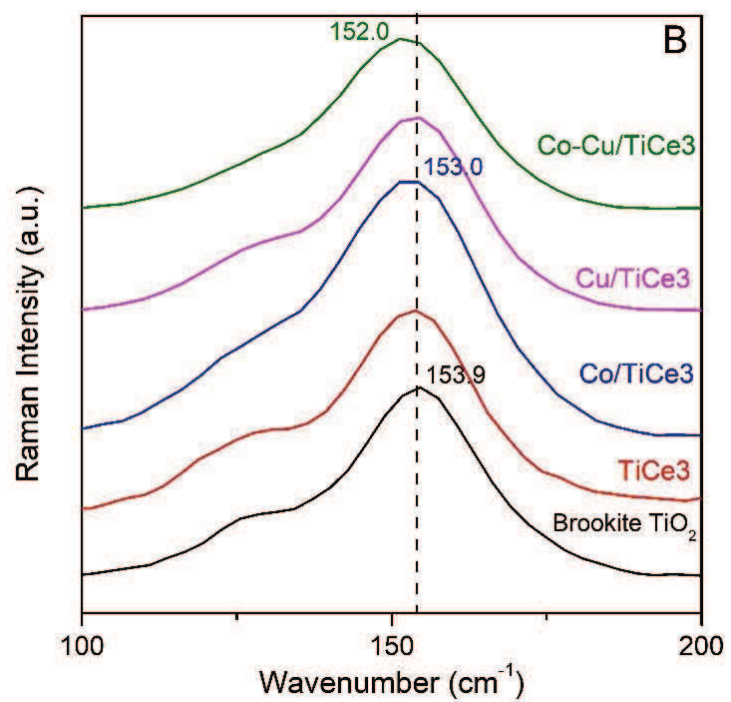
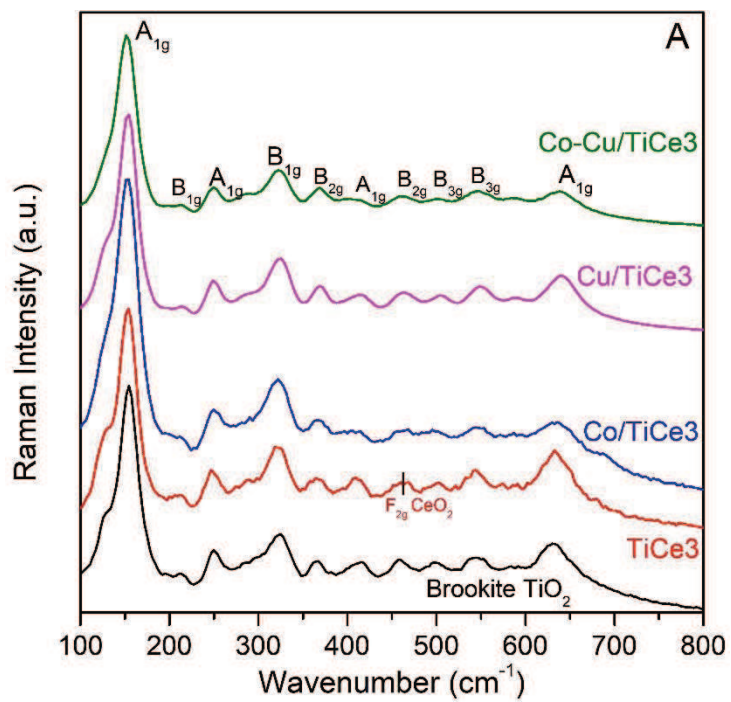


Fig. 1

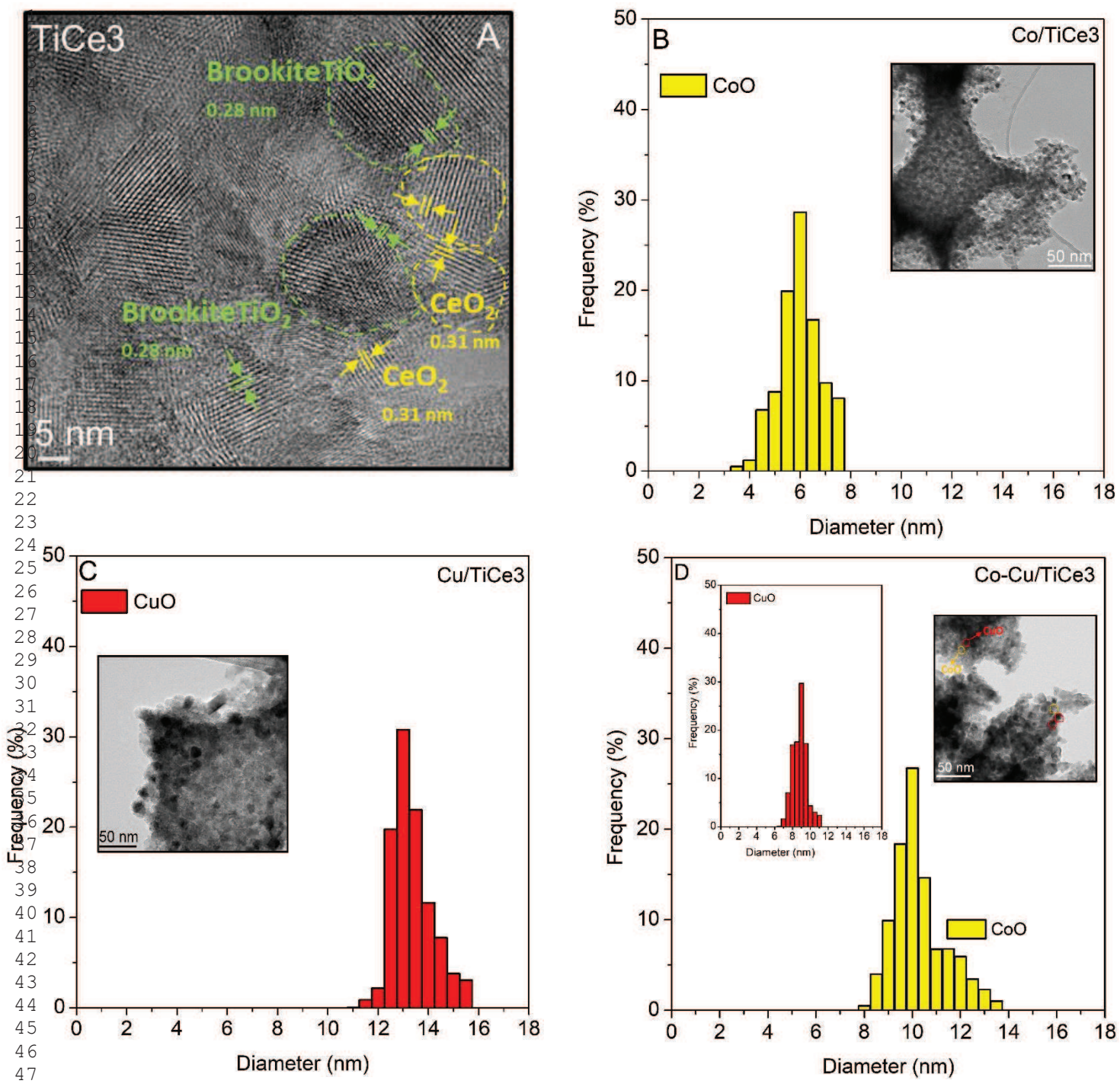


Fig. 2

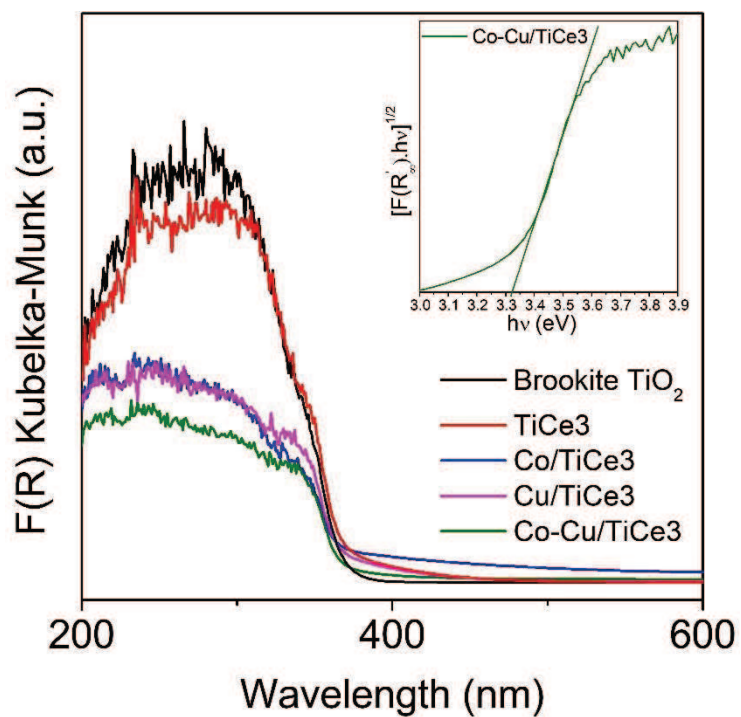


Fig. 3

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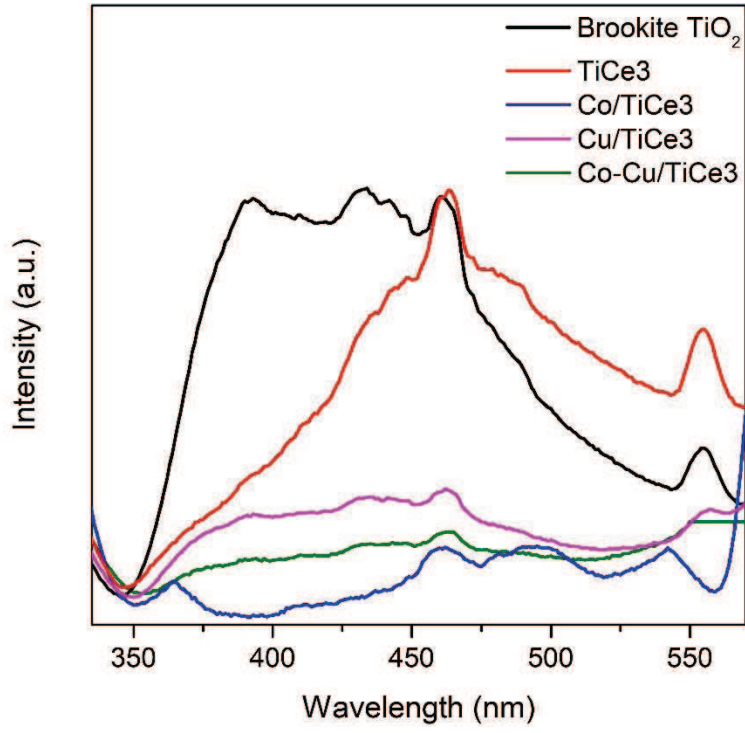


Fig. 4

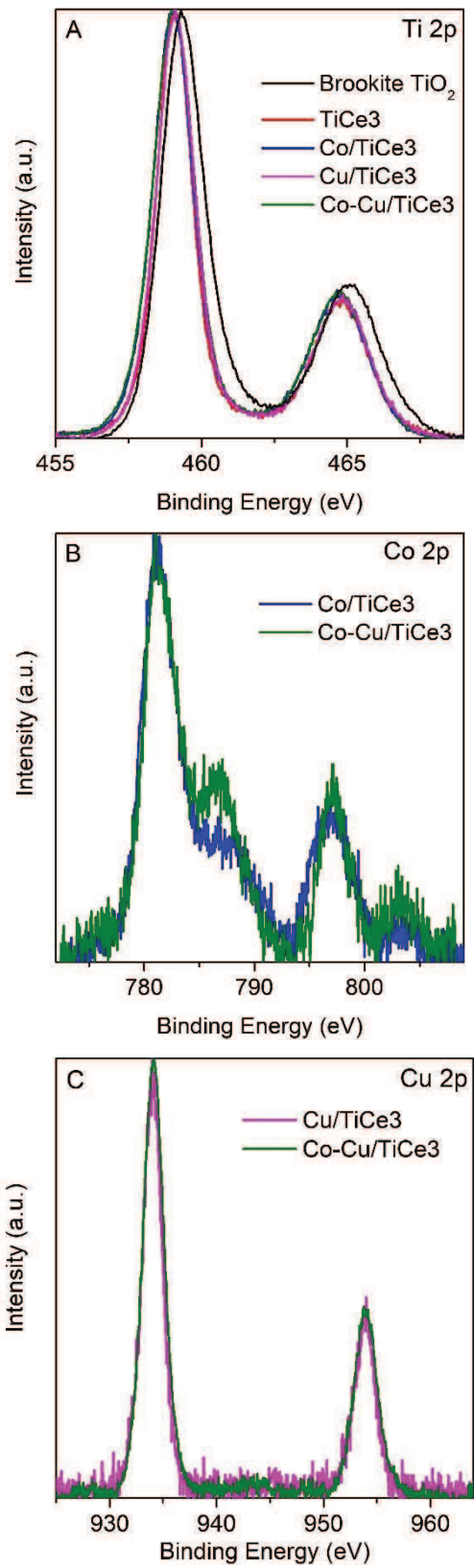


Fig. 5

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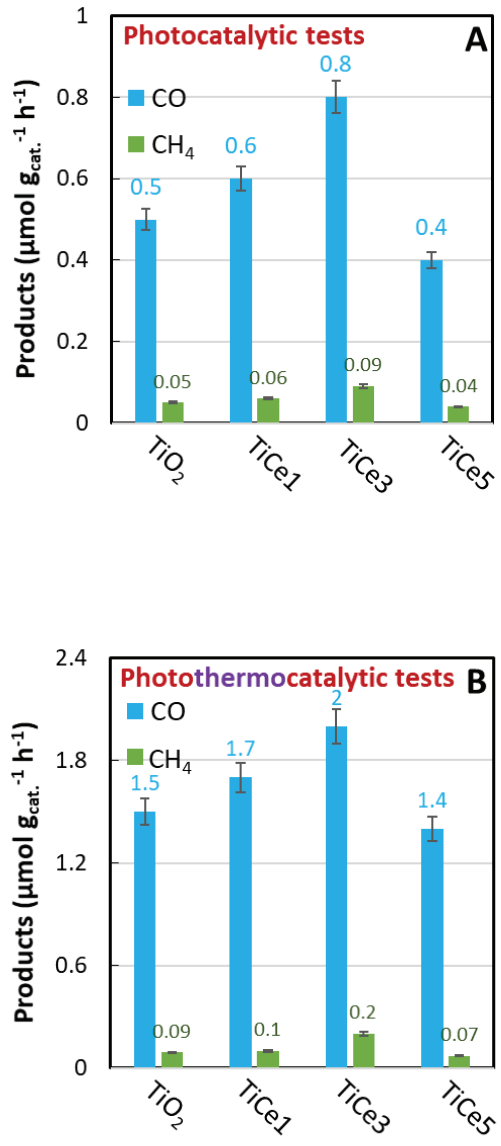


Fig. 6

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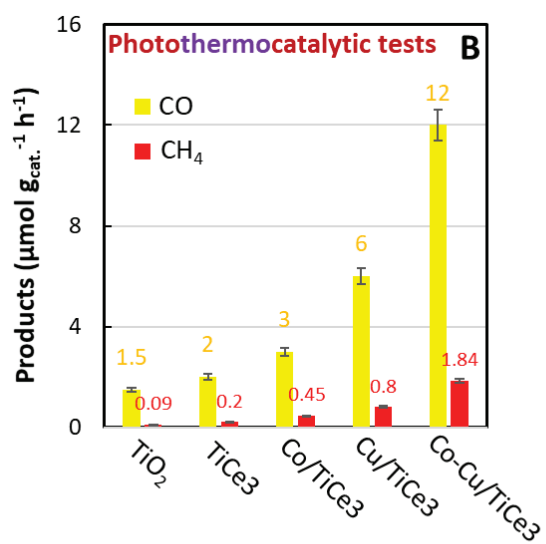
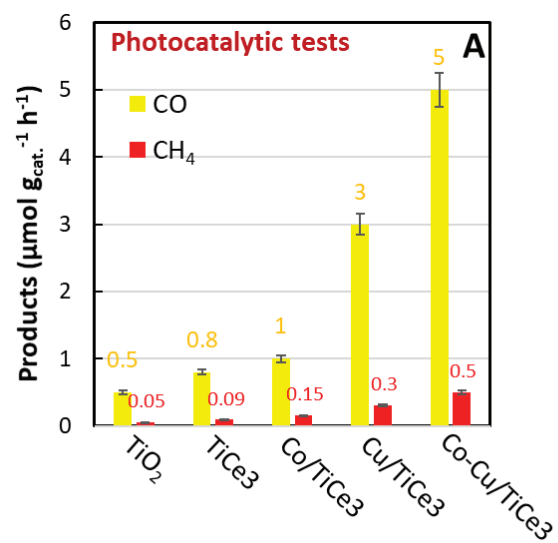


Fig. 7

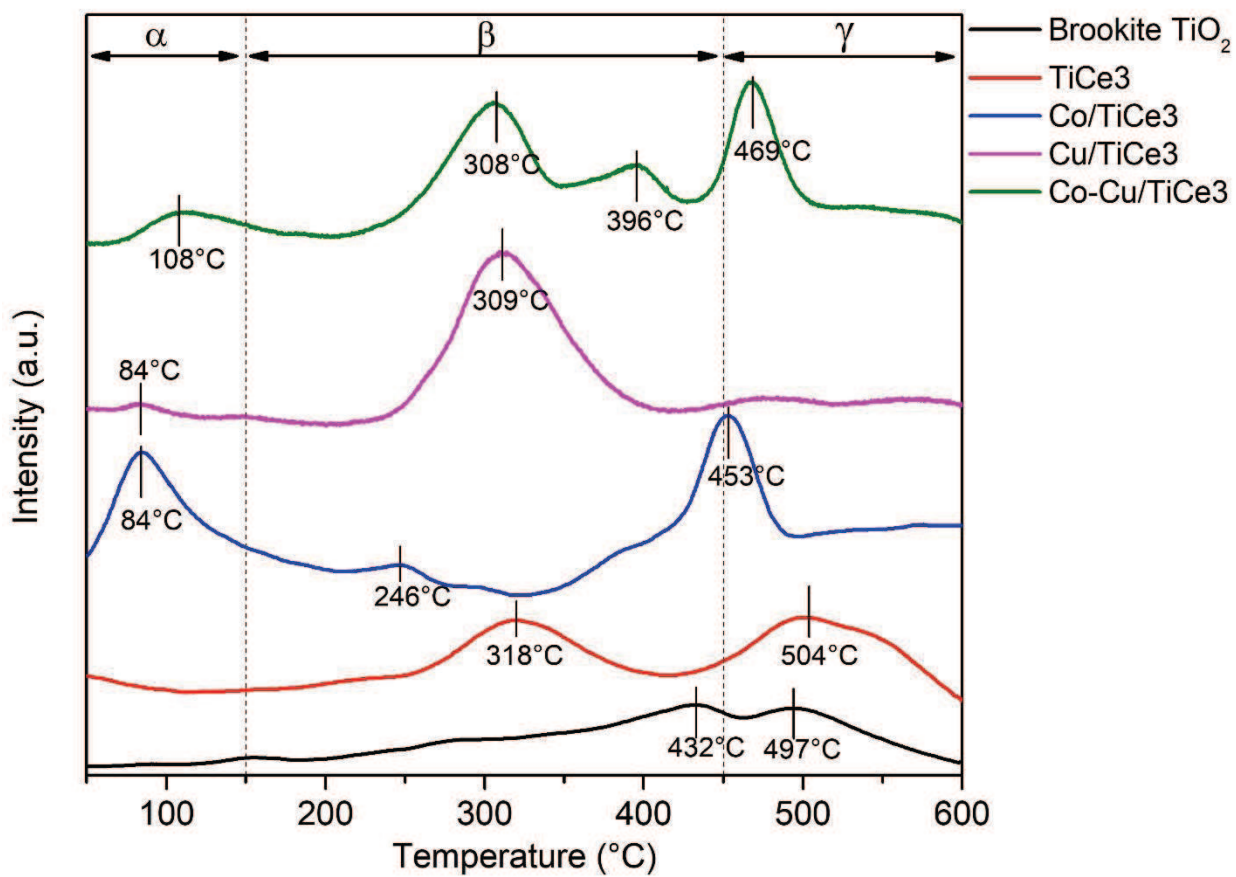


Fig. 8

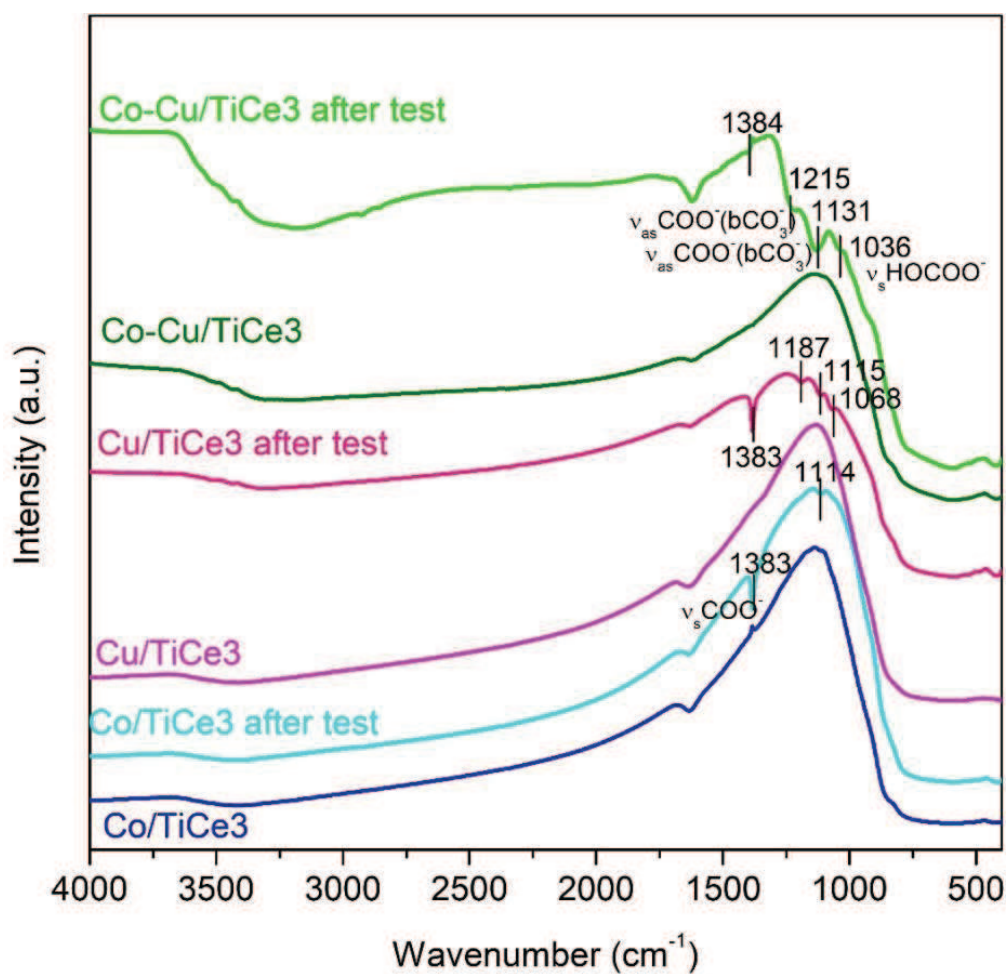


Fig. 9

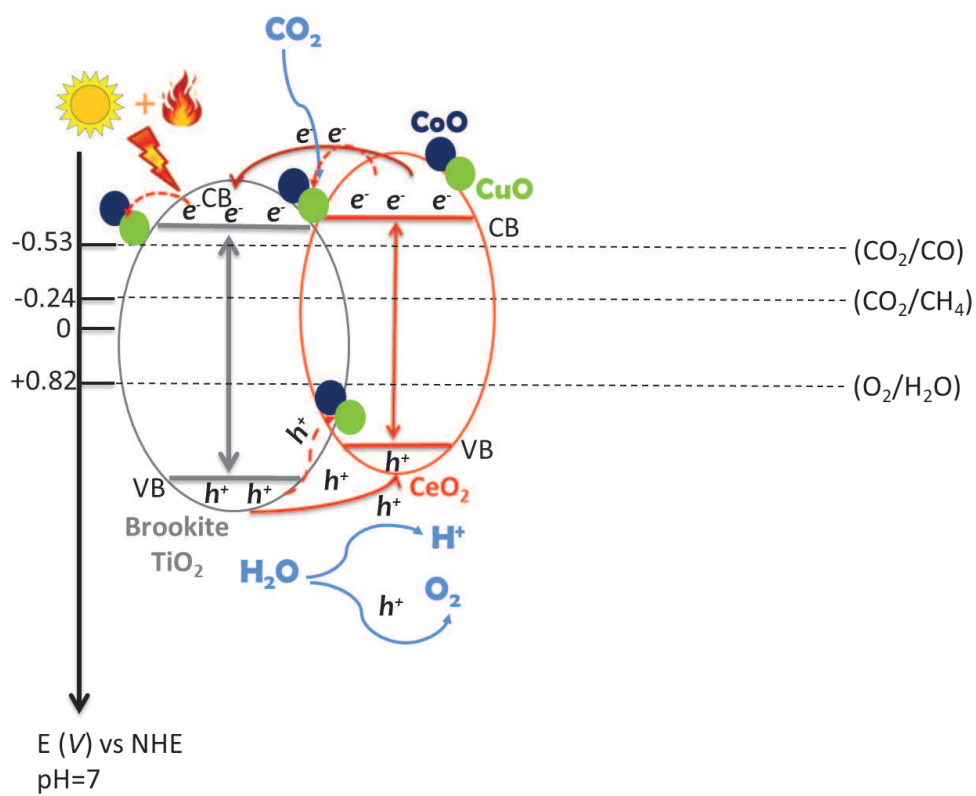


Fig. 10