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1 **Unravelling the C-C Coupling in CO₂ Photocatalytic Reduction**
2 **with H₂O on Au/TiO_{2-x}: Combination of Plasmonic Excitation and**
3 **Oxygen Vacancy**

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15

16

1 **Abstract**

2

3 CO₂ photocatalytic conversion with H₂O is an attractive technology to convert green-house gas
4 into value-added chemicals. However, the main limitation of this process is the low selectivity
5 to products higher than C1. The reaction mechanism, especially C-C coupling mechanism, is
6 still ambiguous. In this work, the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with H₂O is investigated on
7 oxygen-deficient Au/TiO_{2-x} driven by UV or visible light under continuous flow condition.
8 Notably, an exceptional high selectivity of 20% towards C₂H₆ is achieved over 2.76wt%
9 Au/TiO_{2-x} under plasmonic excitation with the essential involvement of oxygen vacancy (V_O).
10 The reaction pathway is reasonably proposed based on a series of *in-situ* characterization results:
11 the *in-situ* DRIFTS determined key reaction intermediates, electronic property of Au under
12 excitation state and the critical role of V_O. The high selectivity towards C₂H₆ is explained by
13 the slightly positive-charged Au in Au/TiO_{2-x} under plasmonic excitation and the enhanced *CO
14 stability.

15

16 Keywords: Au/TiO₂; Plasmonic photocatalyst; Oxygen vacancy; C-C coupling
17 mechanism; *in-situ* DRIFTS

1 **1 Introduction**

2 CO₂ emission has been recently deemed as the main contributor to the climate change and
3 global warming. To help to achieve the carbon neutrality target, the conversion of CO₂ into
4 valuable products is a promising approach [1]. Photocatalytic CO₂ conversion with H₂O is an
5 attractive method and a green process with only water used as feedstock. In this conversion
6 process, CO₂ is reduced by the photoexcited electrons and protons provided by H₂O. Usage of
7 organic hole scavenger needs to be avoided to realize both the economic and environmental
8 goals. Documented researches have been primarily focused on the development of new
9 photocatalysts with high efficiency in CO₂ photocatalytic conversion with H₂O. However, the
10 CO₂ photocatalytic conversion mechanism is still ambiguous [2]. The lack of mechanism
11 understanding significantly hinders the further development of photocatalysts with both high
12 activity and controllable product selectivity [3].

13 TiO₂ is the most extensively investigated semiconductor and has served as a model
14 photocatalyst for reaction mechanism investigation. For pristine TiO₂, the photocatalytic CO₂
15 reduction with H₂O is generally reported to produce CH₄ and CO. Three pathways of
16 photocatalytic CO₂ conversion with H₂O have been proposed for mechanism discussion: (i)
17 formaldehyde pathway, (ii) carbene pathway and (iii) glyoxal pathway [4, 5]. This classification
18 is based on the key reaction intermediates observed during the reaction. In the formaldehyde
19 pathway, the carboxyl or formate group is always observed either as an indicator or as a reaction
20 intermediate [6, 7]. The formation of formaldehyde intermediate is usually believed critical for
21 the production of CH₄ and methanol [8, 9]. In the carbene pathway, the ^{*}C radicals have been
22 observed via *in-situ* electron paramagnetic spectroscopy (EPR) [10, 11]. In addition to the three
23 conventional mechanisms, the theoretical calculations conducted by Ji et al. [12, 13] suggested
24 that CO₂ preferred to quickly deoxygenate, first forming ^{*}CO that was subsequently converted
25 into the intermediate ^{*}CHO, which was responsible for CH₄ production. Liu et al. [6] deployed
26 diffuse reflectance infrared fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) technique to investigate
27 the CO₂ reaction mechanism over TiO₂. Their results suggested that the negatively charged

1 CO₂⁻ played a key role in initiating formation of the products of CO and CH₄ on the surface.
2 Besides the investigations conventionally conducted at ambient pressure, photocatalytic CO₂
3 reduction with H₂O under high-pressure attracts more interest recently due to the significant
4 improvement on conversion and selectivity to more valuable products. For instance, Galli and
5 Rossetti et al. [14, 15] investigated the CO₂ photocatalytic reduction within a photocatalytic
6 batch reactor at 7 Bar, 80 °C. A parallel reaction mechanism is proposed by the authors: on one
7 branch, the CO₂ is reduced to formic acid with following conversion to gas phase products; on
8 the other branch, the carbonate in liquid phase is converted to formaldehyde and methanol as
9 intermediates. Bahadori et al. [16] achieved a very high methanol productivity of 1359 mmol
10 kg_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 7 Bar, 80 °C over 0.2wt% Au/TiO₂. The authors claimed the formation of
11 formaldehyde is the key intermediate for CH₃OH production. To date, the reaction mechanism
12 of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with H₂O by TiO₂ is still far from reaching consensus. There
13 are two factors making the reaction mechanism even more complicated. The first one is the
14 transition metal nanoparticles loaded on TiO₂ as cocatalysts. These metal nanoparticles can
15 significantly enhance the photocatalytic reaction rate, thus often used in catalysts [17]. The
16 other important factor is the oxygen vacancy (V_O), whose explicit role during the reaction still
17 lacks understanding [18, 19]. For instance, Liu et al. [20, 21] investigated the Cu(I)/TiO_{2-x} and
18 proposed that CO₂ could spontaneously dissociate into *CO and *O at the Cu-TiO₂ interface.
19 Recent experiments under high-purity condition suggested that H₂O was not an efficient hole
20 scavenger in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction and O₂ was not observed within the effluent
21 gases [22]. Moreover, it is very commonly observed that the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with
22 H₂O exhibits the gradual deactivation on many photocatalysts without consensus on the reason
23 [20, 23, 24]. All these results imply that the possible involvement of V_O in the reaction. In
24 summary, the reaction mechanism of CO₂ photocatalytic reduction with H₂O is still not clearly
25 elucidated. Especially the important role of V_O in the reaction needs more investigations.

26 Tuning the selectivity to yield more valuable products than the commonly reported C₁ products
27 (CO and CH₄) is another key issue to enhance the economic feasibility of photocatalytic CO₂

1 reduction. Products containing two carbon (C_2) are usually preferred than CO and CH_4 due to
2 the higher energy density [25]. Au is a promising co-catalyst for promoting hydrocarbon
3 production and several research groups have reported C_2 production over Au-based catalysts.
4 For example, Collado et al. [26] reported their work on Au/TiO₂ under ultraviolet (UV) light
5 irradiation to reduce CO_2 with H_2O . The selectivity of C_{2+} products increased with Au loading
6 and a maximum of 10% was reached over 3wt% Au/TiO₂. Although being less understood,
7 visible light-driven plasmonic photocatalysis has also drawn a lot of interest. The pioneering
8 work of Hou et al. [27] on Au/TiO₂ photocatalytic reactions under visible light showed that the
9 plasmonic photocatalytic CO_2 reduction produced CH_4 of $\sim 22.5 \mu mol m^{-2}$ after 15 hours. In
10 addition, the same catalyst under UV light irradiation produced $\sim 230 \mu mol m^{-2} CH_4$ and ~ 160
11 $\mu mol m^{-2} C_2H_6$ within the same time span. Mei et al. [28] reported that the Au/Ti/SBA-15
12 photocatalytically converted CO_2 to CH_4 , C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 . Chen et al. [29] achieved 14%
13 selectivity to C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 by optimising the Au-Pd atomic ratios. Although adding Pd into
14 the metal alloy could increase the selectivity towards hydrocarbon in total, the C_2H_6 production
15 rate actually decreased. Tu et al. [30] prepared Au@TiO₂ yolk-shell hollow sphere catalysts
16 achieving $1.67 \mu mol g^{-1} h^{-1}$ production rate of C_2H_6 . The coupling between CH_3^* was proposed
17 as the C-C coupling mechanism. Yu et al. [31] observed CO_2 conversion over PVP-stabilized
18 Au nanoparticles in isopropanol aqueous solution under plasmonic excitation. The hot electrons
19 due to interband excitation in Au were ascribed to the generation of C_2H_6 . Although C_2H_6 has
20 been proven in literature as a possible product during photocatalytic CO_2 reduction with water,
21 the mechanism of C-C coupling key step is still an unresolved question. The difficulties
22 hampering to achieve a clear understanding of the reaction mechanism can be summarized as
23 follows: (1) The interference from hole scavenger. Light aliphatic alcohols (e.g. MeOH, EtOH
24 and isopropanol) are commonly used as the hole scavengers in photocatalytic reaction.
25 However, they are infamous for producing hydrocarbons during the photocatalytic reaction,
26 which results in severe interferences [32, 33]. (2) Only trace amounts of reaction intermediates
27 are formed on the surface, making it difficult to detect their presence. (3) Intermediates with C-
28 O bonds overlap with (bi)carbonate in the IR spectroscopy analysis.

1 Herein, the CO₂ photocatalytic reduction with H₂O is investigated on oxygen-deficient
2 Au/TiO_{2-x} catalyst under continuous flow condition. The reaction rate and product selectivity
3 have been compared over Au/TiO_{2-x} with different Au nanoparticle sizes and UV or visible
4 light excitation mechanisms. With the involvement of V_O and plasmonic excitation under green
5 light irradiation, a maximum 20% selectivity to C₂H₆ is achieved over 2.76wt% Au/TiO_{2-x}.
6 Moreover, the mechanism of CO₂ photocatalytic reduction with water on Au/TiO_{2-x} is
7 investigated via the *in-situ* DRIFTS technique. The plausible key C-C coupling mechanism is
8 proposed based on the experimental observation of *in-situ* DRIFTS, *in-situ* determined
9 electronic property of Au at excitation state and the important role of V_O. The reason for higher
10 selectivity towards C₂H₆ is rationalized. In addition, the correlation between V_O and CO₂
11 conversion rate is further elucidated via the *in-situ* UV-Vis spectroscopy.

12

13 **2 Experimental**

14 **2.1 Materials**

15 High purity He (zero grade), Ar (CP grade), N₂ (zero grade), CO (research grade), H₂ (zero
16 grade), O₂ (Zero grade) and CO₂ (research grade) used in this study are supplied by BOC
17 Limited, UK. CO₂ and Ar were dehumidified through the drying columns packed with
18 molecular sieve 3A and molecular sieve 4A respectively. ¹³CO₂ (99 atom % ¹³C, <3 atom %
19 ¹⁸O) for isotopic labelling experiments was purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Ultrapure water
20 (resistivity >18 MΩ cm) was used throughout all the experiments. TiO₂ nanoparticle used as
21 the catalyst support is the commercially available aerioxide[®] P25 (Sigma Aldrich) with ~80%
22 anatase and ~20% rutile. H₂AuCl₄·3H₂O (ACS reagent) and urea (99%) were purchased from
23 ACROS organics; oxalic acid dihydrate (analytical grade) from the Fisher Scientific;
24 acetaldehyde (anhydrous), glyoxylic acid (50wt% in H₂O), glyoxal (40wt% in H₂O), formic
25 acid (reagent grade, stabilized by 2.5% water) and formaldehyde (37 wt,% in H₂O, contains 10-

1 15% Methanol as stabilizer) from Sigma Aldrich; acetic acid (99.8%-100.5%, Ph. Eur.) from
2 Honeywell.

3

4 **2.2 Catalysts preparation**

5 Deposition-precipitation (DP) method with urea [34] was used to prepare the Au/TiO₂ with
6 two different loadings: 1 g TiO₂ was added into (1) 100 mL water containing 0.5 mmol
7 HAuCl₄·3H₂O, 50 mmol urea and (2) 100 mL water containing 1.5 mmol HAuCl₄·3H₂O, 150
8 mmol urea, respectively. The two beakers containing the solution were wrapped with aluminum
9 foil to prevent the photo-decomposition of Au-precursors. The solution under continuous
10 stirring was heated up to 80 °C and kept for 5 h in an oil bath on a hot plate. After cooling down
11 to room temperature, the nanoparticles were separated from the solution using a centrifuge at
12 8000 rpm for 5 min. Further resinsing by water and collecting by centrifuging for 8 times was
13 to remove the residual Cl⁻ ions as much as possible. The washed powders were transferred into
14 a vacuum oven and drying under vacuum, 60 °C overnight. Finally, the samples were calcinated
15 in a muffle furnace at 400 °C for 2h under ambient atmosphere. The ramping rate was set to 1
16 °C per minute. *In-situ* pretreatment was applied to the samples either inside DRIFTS reactor or
17 our photocatalytic reactor before experiments. The pretreatments include treating samples at
18 300 °C for 0.5 h under flowing Ar, O₂ or H₂ with the flow rate of 20 sccm. The corresponding
19 samples are denoted as Au/TiO₂(Ar), Au/TiO₂(O₂) and Au/TiO₂(H₂) respectively. The sample
20 directly used after calcination in the muffle furnace without further pretreatment is denoted as
21 Au/TiO₂(UP) for *unpretreated*.

22

23 **2.3 Catalysts characterization**

24 X-ray diffraction (XRD) was conducted on an X-ray diffractometer (Bruker, D2 phaser). Core-
25 level X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was measured with an X-ray photoelectron
26 spectrometer (Axis Ultra, Kratos Analytical Ltd) to characterize the oxidation states of Au, Ti,

1 O in the prepared samples. Adventitious carbon C 1s peak with the binding energy of 284.8 eV
2 is used to calibrate received spectra and rule out the charge accumulation influences [35].
3 Accurate Au loading on TiO₂ was determined using the inductively coupled plasma optical
4 emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES, Varian Vista Pro). The 0.05 g catalyst powder was firstly
5 digested in 5 mL aqua regia and further diluted to 100 mL. Then an aliquot of the solution was
6 taken for the quantitative analyses automatically. The concentration was calculated based on
7 the calibration curve built up using a series of standard samples with different concentrations.
8 The Au loadings on the two samples were determined to be 0.74wt% and 2.76wt%. The
9 morphology of prepared catalysts and the interface between Au and TiO₂ were observed using
10 an aberration corrected transmission electron microscope (aberration-corrected TEM, JEOL
11 ARM200F). High-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy
12 (HAADF-STEM) mode was used to investigate the structure and morphology with the help of
13 atomic number contrast. The specific surface area was measured via the N₂ sorption tests at 77
14 K on an automatic sorption analyser (Quantachrome Autosorb-iQ). Electron paramagnetic
15 resonance (EPR) spectroscopy analyses were conducted on an EPR spectrometer (Bruker
16 A3000) at ambient temperature and atmosphere with a microwave frequency of 9.857 ±
17 0.002GHz.

18

19 **2.4 *In-situ* DRIFTS and UV-Vis DRS experiments**

20 The setup for the *in-situ* DRIFTS/ultraviolet-visible light diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV-
21 Vis DRS) analyses is schemed in Figure S1 in supplementary information (SI). The commercial
22 praying mantis mirror set and high temperature reaction chamber (Harrick scientific) were used
23 as the *in-situ* reactor. The fourier-transform infrared spectrophotometer (FTIR, Shimadzu,
24 IRTracer-100) and UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, UV-3600plus) were used to provide
25 the spectroscopic analyses. There are 3 windows on the dome of the *in-situ* reactor with 2 on
26 the side for the light beam of the spectrophotometer. The ZnSe windows were used for FTIR
27 and quartz for UV-Vis spectroscopy tests respectively. The third quartz window in the front

1 was used to accept external light (UV or green) driving the photocatalytic reaction. The real
2 temperature of the powder sample packed inside the reactor was calibrated by inserting an 0.25
3 mm K-type thermocouple into the packed catalyst bed with temperature read by an external
4 thermometer (RS-Pro). All temperature mentioned in this work has been calibrated. The Ar
5 purging and reactive gas lines were connected to a 4-way switching valve to ensure a fast switch
6 between purging and reactive gases. All the gases used in the experiments are controlled by the
7 independent mass flow controllers. The gas flow rate is regularly calibrated with an electronic
8 flow meter (Agilent ADM1000). Pretreatment of the Au/TiO₂ was conducted every time before
9 the experiments. Firstly, the powders were calcinated under flowing Air (20 sccm) for 30 min
10 at 300 °C to remove any residue C on the surface of the catalysts. Then the reactor was purged
11 with Ar (20 sccm) and treated at the 300 °C for another 60 min. This series of pretreatments
12 have been reported capable of removing the surface contaminants/carbon residuals as much as
13 possible [7]. The similar pretreatments were also conducted with 20% H₂ (balanced with Ar)
14 or O₂ for control group samples. The corresponding samples after pretreatments under flowing
15 Ar, H₂ or O₂ atmosphere are named as Au/TiO₂(Ar), Au/TiO₂(H), and Au/TiO₂(O) respectively.
16 The samples were directly used after calcination at 400 °C in air without any pretreatment are
17 marked as Au/TiO₂(UP).

18 The photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with H₂O reaction at 30 °C was simulated by introducing 1
19 v/v% CO₂ balanced by Ar into reactor. The moisture was introduced into the DRIFTS reactor
20 with the independent gas line with Ar (0.5 sccm) as the carrier gas flowing through the water
21 bubbler at 25 °C. The total flow rate under all circumstances was controlled to 20 sccm by
22 adjusting the balance Ar flow rate. The partial pressure of H₂O vapour (P_{H_2O}) inside the bubbler
23 can be calculated via the Antoine equation [36-38]:

$$24 \quad \log_{10}(P_{H_2O}) = A - \frac{B}{T+C} \quad (1)$$

25 where A , B , C are constants and can be retrieved from the NIST webbook [39]; T is the
26 temperature of the bubbler in Kelvin. The composition of the feed gas into the DRIFTS reactor

1 is calculated to be ~ 1 v/v% CO_2 , ~ 0.078 v/v% $\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(\text{g})}$ balanced in Ar. The UV (365nm) or green
2 (530 nm) light was provided by the LED lamps coupled with an optical liquid guide (Thorlabs)
3 and shed onto the catalysts surface through the quartz window. For DRIFTS experiments, the
4 background was collected after the Ar treated sample cooling down to room temperature. 64
5 scans were averaged to achieve a good signal to noise ratio. In UV-Vis DRS experiments, the
6 background was collected using BaSO_4 powders. Since the external light interferes with UV-
7 Vis DRS analyses, the in-situ UV-Vis absorbance curves were recorded every 0.5 h with
8 external light blocked temporally.

9

10 **2.5 Evaluation of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction performance**

11 The photocatalytic CO_2 reduction with H_2O performance was evaluated using the flow reactor
12 illustrated in the Figure S2. 50 mg photocatalysts were homogeneously dispersed on the glass
13 fibre filter (47mm, Fisher Scientific, UK) using vacuum filtration method. The actual loading
14 of catalysts is determined by calculating the weight difference before and after loading 50 mg
15 catalysts on to the glass fibre filter. The average actual loading is 47.39 ± 0.58 mg with a small
16 deviation of 1.2%. The whole piece of filter was transferred to the bottom of the reactor and the
17 reactor was sealed with a UV-grade fused silica window. Before the reaction, the reactor was
18 firstly purged by flowing Ar (30sccm) for 1 h with the mass flow controller to completely
19 remove air from the reactor. Then a band heater (Omega Engineering, UK) was used to heat
20 the whole reactor to 300 °C and soaked for 30 min under the control of a PID temperature
21 controller. After cooling down to 30 °C, the inlet gas was switched to the CO_2 (3 sccm) flowing
22 through the water bubbler under controlled temperature (25 °C). According to Antoine equation
23 (equation (1)), the feed gas mixture is composed by ~ 3.1 v/v% $\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(\text{g})}$ and ~ 96.9 v/v% CO_2 .
24 The UV or visible light was provided by a 365 nm or 530 nm LED light module (50W, EPILED
25 Ltd.), respectively. The power outputs at the plane of the catalysts were tested to be ~ 49.5 and
26 64.9 mW cm^{-2} using a thermopile optical power meter (PM16-401, Thorlabs). The products of
27 the reaction were collected every 0.5 hour and analysed by a gas chromatograph (GC, Shimadzu

1 GC-2010) equipped with a Shincarbon-ST micropacked column using TCD-FID detectors.
2 Products in isotopic labelling experiment with $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ as feedstock were analysed with a gas
3 chromatograph-mass spectrometer (GC-MS Shimadzu, GCMS-QP2010SE).

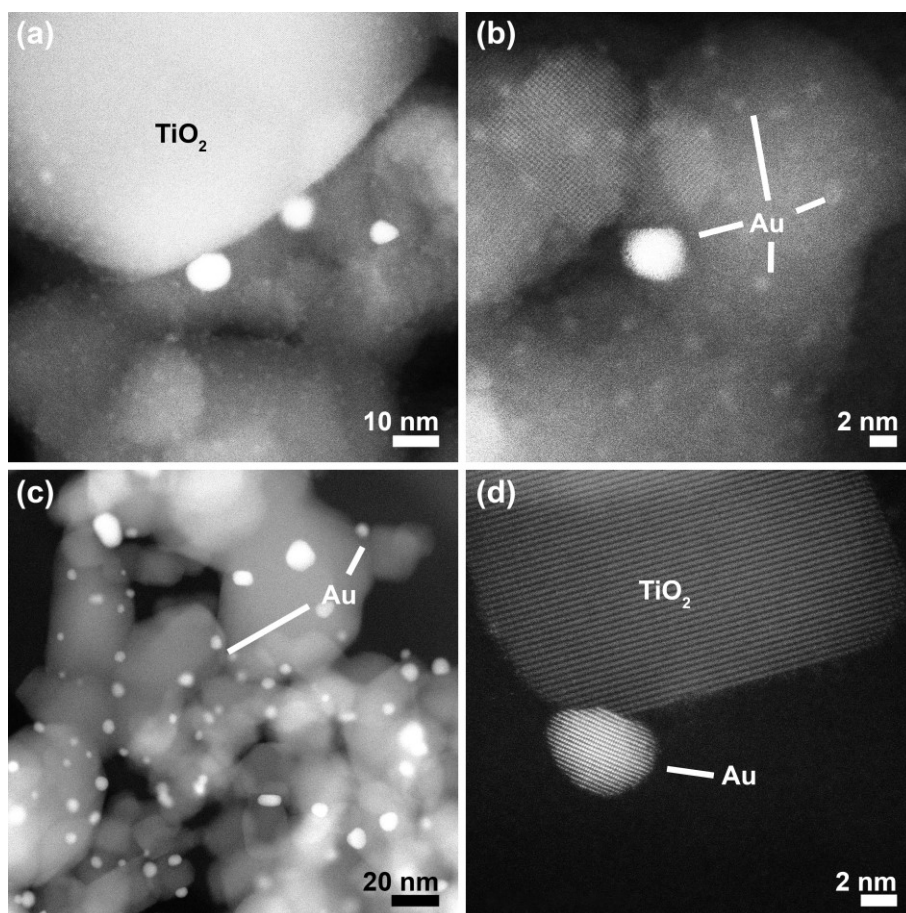
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5 **3 Results**

6 **3.1 Physical characterizations of the catalysts**

7 The details of physical characterizations of Au/TiO₂ catalysts including XRD, N₂ sorption, UV-
8 Vis DRS are presented in SI Section 2 (Figure S3&S4). The results prove that Au/TiO₂ used in
9 this work is similar to the conventional Au/TiO₂ catalysts in literature, which makes the
10 mechanism investigation results possess general interest to the research community. The
11 residual Cl concentrations are determined to be 184 and 223 ppm for 0.74wt% and 2.76wt%
12 Au/TiO₂, respectively. The details are presented in SI Section 2 (Figure S6). The Au
13 nanoparticle size distributions of 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) are characterized using
14 an aberration-corrected TEM under HAADF-STEM mode. The intensity of HAADF-STEM
15 image is proportional to $\sim Z^2$ (square of the atomic number) and the brighter pixels represent the
16 Au atoms in the images (Figure 1). In all the images, the larger nanoparticles with an average
17 diameter of ~ 20 nm are TiO₂ (P25). The smaller nanoclusters with higher brightness are Au
18 clusters, and homogeneously distributed on the surface of the TiO₂. As expected, much more
19 Au clusters can be observed on the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar), and the average size of the Au
20 nanoparticles is larger than that of 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar). Based on counting of 144 and 160
21 nanoparticles, the average Au nanoparticle diameters are 1.65 ± 1.1 nm and 4.79 ± 2.0 nm for
22 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) samples, respectively (Figure S5). Note that the STEM
23 characterizations were conducted for Au/TiO₂(Ar), which had been further treated under
24 flowing Ar at 300 °C for 0.5 h after the calcination in muffle furnace. Therefore, the Au NPs
25 sizes reported here are their actual sizes during the photocatalytic reaction. In order to
26 quantitatively analyse the formation of V_O during the thermal treatment in flow Ar, the EPR

1 experiments were conducted for 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂, which were
2 treated at 300 °C for 30 min under either flowing Ar or Air (Au/TiO₂(Ar) and Au/TiO₂(Air)),
3 respectively. V_O concentrations created by Ar treatment are determined to be 158% and 255%
4 of the Air treatment at the same temperature for 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂, respectively
5 (Figure S8). The detailed explanation on V_O and Ti³⁺ formation is presented in SI-Section 3.



6

7 Figure 1. Aberration corrected HAADF-STEM images in low and high magnifications of (a, b) 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar)
8 and (c, d) 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar).

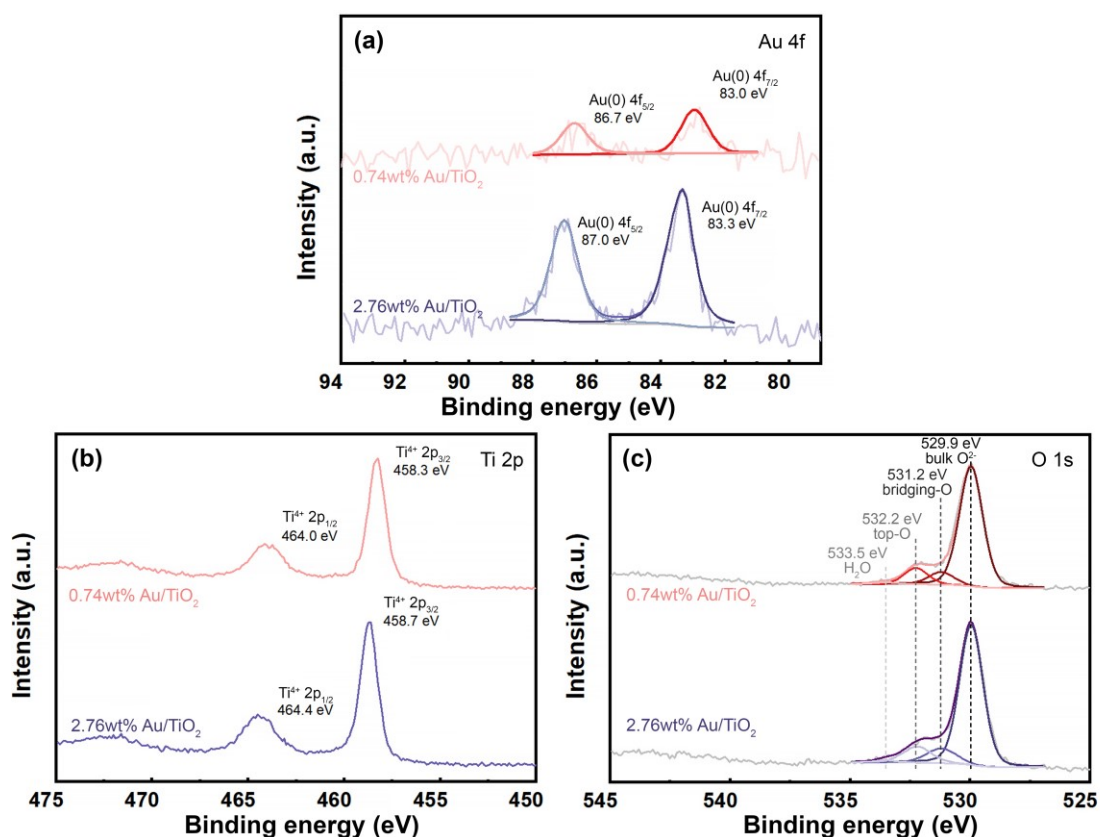
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10 3.2 The electronic properties of Au/TiO₂(Ar) in dark

11 The electronic states of the catalyst are important to its catalytic performance. *Ex-situ* XPS was
12 used to characterize the oxidation states of Au and Ti in Au/TiO₂ pretreated under different
13 atmospheres at the temperature of 300 °C for 0.5h. All the spectra are calibrated to adventitious
14 carbon C 1s of 284.8 eV as reference [35]. As presented in Figure 2(a), for 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar)

1 samples, the peaks centred at 83.3 eV and 87.0 eV are assigned to the metallic Au $4f_{7/2}$ and $4f_{5/2}$
2 spectra, which is in agreement with typical Au(0) supported by TiO₂. A 0.3 eV shift to lower
3 binding energy is observed on 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) Au 4f peaks, which suggests the Au
4 nanoparticles are still in metallic state but more negatively charged than 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar).
5 The Ti 2p peaks of 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) located at 458.7 and 464.4 eV are assigned to the
6 $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$ peaks of Ti⁴⁺ in TiO₂, as shown in Figure 2(b) [40, 41]. Similarly, the Ti $2p_{3/2}$
7 and $2p_{1/2}$ peaks for 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) samples are positioned at 458.3 and 464.0 eV
8 corresponding to Ti⁴⁺ in TiO₂ too. Figure 2(c) presents O 1s spectra of the 0.74wt% and 2.76wt%
9 Au/TiO₂(Ar). The peaks of these two samples can be further deconvoluted into the major lattice
10 O in bulk TiO₂ (529.9 eV), surface O at bridging site (bridging-O 531.2 eV), surface O at top
11 site (532.2 eV) and O in adsorbed H₂O (533.5 eV). Therefore, the electronic property of the Au
12 nanoparticle is size and loading dependent. The Au 4f binding energy shift for 0.74wt%
13 Au/TiO₂(Ar) can be explained by more negatively charged Au due to electron transfer from the
14 reduced TiO₂ [42, 43], which is supported by the down shift of Ti 2p peaks for 0.74wt%
15 Au/TiO₂ (Figure 2(b, c)) in our case. To verify that the Ar treatment can create V_O on the surface
16 and a more reduced TiO₂ surface is achieved on 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂ than 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar),
17 the control groups of Au/TiO₂ with two different loadings were treated with flowing H₂ and O₂
18 respectively. And the corresponding XPS Ti 2p spectra were plotted in Figure S7. First of all,
19 both the Ti 2p peaks after Ar treatment show a shift to smaller binding energy comparing with
20 the O₂-treated sample. The result confirms the V_O can be introduced by Ar treatment. Secondly,
21 the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂ exhibits a smaller shift in Ti $2p_{3/2}$ peak position from 458.8 eV (O₂ treated)
22 to 458.7 eV (H₂ treated). By contrast, the Ti $2p_{3/2}$ peak of 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂ remarkably shifts
23 from 458.5 eV (O₂ treated) to 458.2 eV (H₂ treated). The more significant Ti 2p binding energy
24 red shift on 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂ is attributed to its stronger V_O production ability. In summary,
25 the Au supported by TiO₂ with two different loadings are all in metallic state, while it is more
26 negatively charged in 0.74wt% than the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) sample. Because the
27 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂ with smaller Au nanoparticles shows higher V_O generation capability. These

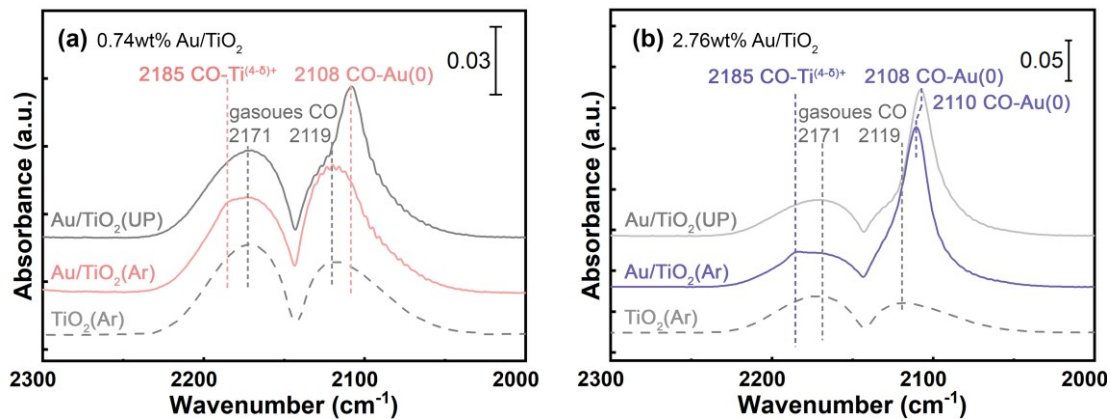
1 phenomena were further confirmed by *in-situ* DRIFTS CO adsorption experiments described
 2 in the following paragraph.



3
 4 Figure 2. XPS core-level spectra of 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar): (a) Au 4f, (b) Ti 2p and (c)
 5 O 1s regions.

6
 7
 8 *In-situ* DRIFTS for CO molecule probe adsorption experiment is used to *in-situ* determine the
 9 electronic property of Au/TiO₂(Ar) in dark. As presented in Figure 3(a, b), both Au/TiO₂(UP)
 10 present 3 peaks, 2108, 2119 and 2171 cm⁻¹ in the carbonyl region (2300 to 2000 cm⁻¹). The
 11 latter two peaks are ascribed to the gaseous CO. The peak at 2108 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the CO
 12 adsorbed to Au(0) [44, 45]. The spectra of CO adsorption on Au/TiO₂(Ar) are also presented in
 13 this figure. For 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar), the peak corresponding to the CO adsorption on Au
 14 becomes extremely weak. The suppression of CO adsorption on 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) is
 15 ascribed to the electron-rich state of Au cluster, which is the direct evidence of V_O formation.
 16 Along with the disappearance of CO-Au(0) peak, a new peak is observed at 2185 cm⁻¹, which
 17 is due to the enhanced CO adsorption on coordinatively-unsaturated or electron-rich Ti site

1 (Ti^{(4-δ)+}) of TiO₂ [20, 45-47]. The generation of Ti^{(4-δ)+} is also attributed to the V_O generated
 2 during the Ar treatment. On the other hand, the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂ before and after the flowing
 3 Ar treatment at 300 °C doesn't induce the disappearing of CO adsorption. The peak at 2185 cm⁻¹
 4 (CO-Ti^{(4-δ)+}) becomes more prominent too. The control experiments are conducted for pristine
 5 TiO₂ in dark. As shown in Figure 3(a, b) and Figure S10(a), the CO doesn't evidently adsorb
 6 on the TiO₂ with and without pretreatment in Ar. It is because the Au NPs can facilitate the V_O
 7 generation, which is described in details in Section 3, SI. In summary, the *in-situ* CO adsorption
 8 IR spectroscopy results in dark suggest that V_O are created on both of 0.74wt% and 2.76wt%
 9 Au/TiO₂(Ar) by Ar treatment at 300 °C. CO preferentially adsorb on to Au and Ti^{(4-δ)+} site.
 10 While the 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) exhibits a more negatively charged Au with suppressed CO-
 11 Au adsorption. Since the CO-Au adsorption suppression is derived from the localised electron
 12 transfer from V_O to Au, the Au NPs size rather than loading is the critical factor. These *in-situ*
 13 CO adsorption IR spectroscopy results are consistent with *ex-situ* XPS analyses described in
 14 the former section.



15
 16 Figure 3. *In-situ* DRFITS spectra for CO molecule probe adsorption experiments at 30 °C on (a) 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂
 17 and (b) 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂ before and after treatment under flowing Ar (20 sccm) at 300 °C for 0.5 h. The spectrum
 18 of CO adsorption on Ar treated pristine TiO₂ is also presented from comparison. UP represents unpretreated samples
 19 after calcination in muffle furnace in ambient atmosphere at 400 °C, 2h.

20

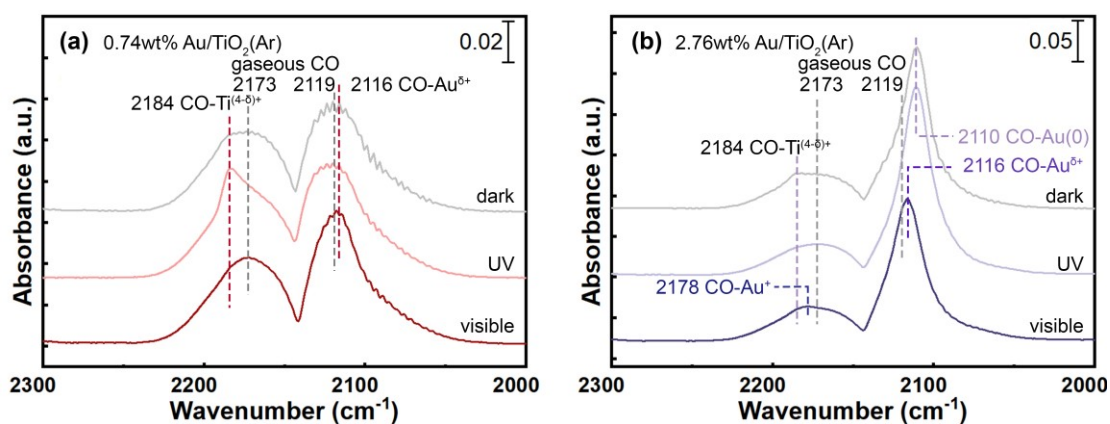
21

22 3.3 Electronic properties of Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV or visible light irradiation

1 To elucidate the electronic property of Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV or visible light irradiation, *in-*
2 *situ* DRIFTS of CO adsorption experiments are conducted under external light irradiation. The
3 stability of the key reaction intermediate *CO can also be demonstrated. As illustrated in Figure
4 4(a), 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV light shows a significant higher CO-Ti^{(4-δ)+} peak at 2184
5 cm⁻¹ and even more suppressed CO-Au peak comparing with the control group under darkness
6 or visible light irradiation. By contrast, the spectrum of the 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under visible
7 light irradiation shows less strong CO-Ti^{(4-δ)+} peak comparing with the one under UV. The peak
8 centred at 2116 cm⁻¹ emerges, which is ascribed to CO adsorption on slightly positively charged
9 Au (CO-Au^{δ+}) [48]. In the case of 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) (Figure 4(b)), the CO-Au(0)
10 adsorption peak under UV irradiation is also positioned at 2110 cm⁻¹. It suggests the electronic
11 property of Au doesn't change significantly under UV excitation. When the 2.76wt%
12 Au/TiO₂(Ar) is irradiated by visible light, the main peak attributed to CO-Au^{δ+} exhibits the blue
13 shift to 2116 cm⁻¹. There is the occurrence of a new peak at the wavenumber of 2178 cm⁻¹,
14 which is assigned to CO-Au⁺ [45]. The control experiments are conducted for pristine TiO₂
15 pretreated in flowing Ar (TiO₂(Ar)) under UV or green light irradiation. As shown in Figure
16 S10(b), TiO₂(Ar) doesn't show any CO adsorption peak under green light irradiation is within
17 expectation. However, under UV light, TiO₂(Ar) doesn't show the CO-Ti^{(4-δ)+} peak observed in
18 the case of 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) irradiated under UV light either. The plausible explanation
19 could be the less efficient photo-excited electron-hole separation without the Au co-catalysts
20 and insufficient Au-induced V_o to trap the photo-excited electrons.

21 In summary, the electronic property of Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV and plasmonic excitation are
22 determined from the *in-situ* DRIFTS of CO molecule probe adsorption experiments: (1) UV
23 and Visible light irradiation brings negatively and positively charged Au, respectively. (2)
24 Visible light irradiation enhances CO adsorption on Au and suppress the adsorption on TiO₂;
25 on the contrary, the UV light irradiation suppresses the CO adsorption on Au but enhances the
26 adsorption on TiO₂. (3) Smaller Au nanoparticles are more strongly influenced by UV light

1 excitation, while larger Au nanoparticles are more significantly affected by visible light
2 excitation.



3

4 Figure 4. *In situ* DRIFT spectra of CO molecule probe adsorption at 30 °C on (a) 0.74wt% and (b) 2.76wt%
5 Au/TiO₂(Ar) under dark, UV and visible light irradiation.

6

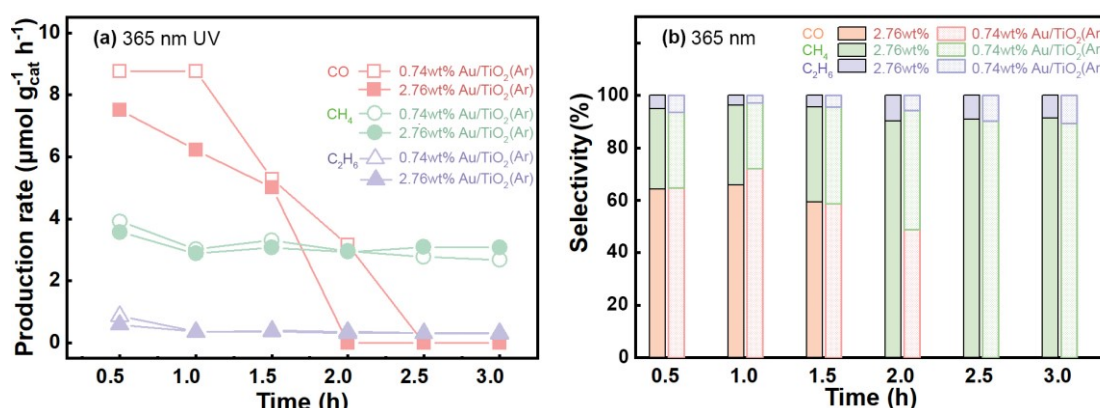
7 3.4 Photocatalytic activity

8 The photocatalytic CO₂ conversion with water is conducted over both the 0.74 wt% and the
9 2.76 wt% Au/TiO₂ samples under UV (centred at 365 nm) or green light (centred at 530 nm)
10 irradiation, respectively. The pretreatment at 300 °C under Air and Ar flow for 30 min in
11 sequence can remove carbon pool and generate V_O [7]. The reaction products in continuous
12 flow condition are collected and analysed every 0.5 h. As presented in Figure 5(a, b), the 0.74wt%
13 Au/TiO₂(Ar) produces CO, CH₄ and C₂H₆ of 8.77, 3.92 and 0.87 μmol g⁻¹_{cat} h⁻¹ in the first 0.5
14 h, respectively. The corresponding product selectivities are 65%, 29% and 6%, respectively.
15 The 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) produces the same products of CO, CH₄ and C₂H₆ but at slower
16 rates of 7.52, 3.57 and 0.59 μmol g⁻¹_{cat} h⁻¹ at the first 0.5 h, respectively. The corresponding
17 product selectivities are 64%, 31% and 5%, respectively. Although the product selectivity is
18 similar for these two samples, the higher activity of 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV light
19 irradiation is attributed to the smaller Au nanocluster size: (1) the under-coordinated Au ensures
20 the more efficient *H production from H₂O splitting; (2) the stronger electronic metal support
21 interaction after the Ar treatment (section 3.2). The lower loading is another plausible reason
22 [16, 49]. The situation is inverted when comparing their reactivities under visible light

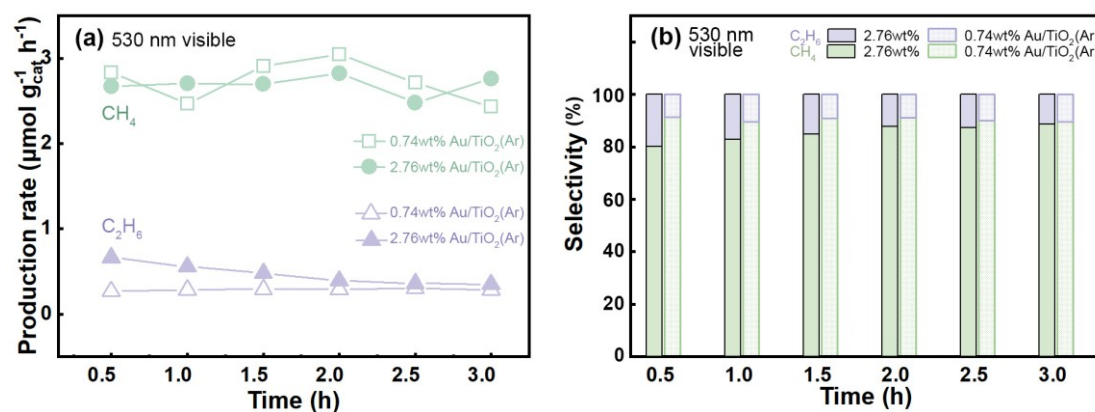
1 irradiation (Figure 6 (a, b)). In the first 0.5 h, the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) produces 0.66 μmol g⁻¹
2 _{cat} h⁻¹ C₂H₆, which is ~2.4 times as much as 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) produces. The selectivity
3 towards C₂H₆ reaches ~20% for 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under green light irradiation;
4 comparatively, the C₂H₆ selectivity is only ~9% over 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under the same
5 irradiation condition. The CH₄ production rates over both catalysts are similar. Based on the
6 comparisons of the reaction rates under different conditions, three results are worth notice:
7 Firstly, the total CO₂ conversion rate is dependent on Au particle size and excitation light
8 wavelength. The small Au nanoparticles shows the advantages under UV light irradiation. On
9 the contrary, the larger Au nanoparticles outperform under plasmonic excitation mechanism.
10 Note that although the larger particles generally show stronger plasmonic effects, the larger size
11 of Au NPs don't always guarantee a fast plasmonic reaction rate. Because the small metal NP
12 provide stronger electronic interaction with support and exhibit more active sites along the
13 perimeter at the Au/TiO₂ interface [50, 51]. Secondly, C₂H₆ production rate on 2.76wt%
14 Au/TiO₂(Ar) under green light irradiation is higher than the same catalyst under UV light
15 irritation, though the UV light contains much more energy than the green light. The selectivity
16 to C₂H₆ reaches ~20% on the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under green light irradiation, comparing
17 with 5% selectivity to C₂H₆ achieved under UV light irradiation. Thirdly, the reaction rate
18 decreases gradually within 3 hours in all the cases, which indicates the deactivation of the
19 catalysts. Similar phenomenon has been found for CO₂ photocatalytic reduction with water on
20 other catalyst surfaces too. However, no consensus on the reason has been achieved to date [20,
21 24, 52]. The photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance of pristine TiO₂ is also evaluated under
22 UV or green light irradiation. Under 365 nm UV light irradiation, CO is the only product
23 detected. As shown in Figure S11, at first 0.5 h, the pristine TiO₂ produces CO in the production
24 rate of 5.07 μmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹, which is significantly slower than Au/TiO₂. It is because the Au NPs
25 as co-catalyst can enhance the photo-excited electron-hole separation at the interface. With
26 longer reaction time, the CO production rate shows a small gradual decrease, which is possibly
27 due to the consumption of V_O. CO production rate of 3.95 μmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ is determined at 3 h.
28 No product can be detected for reaction under green light irradiation. Control experiment is

1 conducted for the glass fibre filter without catalysts too. No product can be detected by GC,
 2 which indicates the catalysts are critical for the CO₂ photocatalytic reduction.

3 One of the possible reasons for the gradual deactivation is the consumption of surface C
 4 contamination. To rule out this possibility and confirm that the CO, CH₄ and C₂H₆ are produced
 5 from CO₂ reduction, the isotopic labelling experiments are conducted using the same setup but
 6 replacing ¹²CO₂ with ¹³CO₂. The products are analysed in a GC-MS. The achieved mass spectra
 7 of ¹³CO, ¹³CH₄ and ¹³C₂H₆ are presented in Figure S13. The predominate presence of ¹³C-based
 8 products confirms that they are from the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂.



9
 10 Figure 5. (a) Production rate and (b) selectivity on 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under the 365 nm UV light
 11 irradiation at 30 °C.



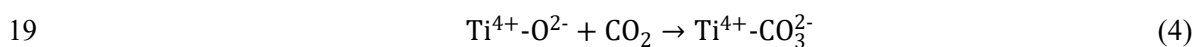
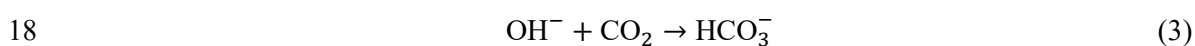
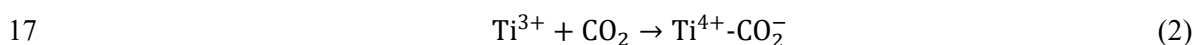
12
 13 Figure 6. (a) Production rate and (b) selectivity on 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under the 530 nm visible
 14 light irradiation at 30 °C.

15

16 3.5 *In-situ* DRIFTS investigations on CO₂ photocatalytic reduction mechanism

17 3.5.1 Au/TiO₂(Ar) interaction with CO₂ and H₂O in dark

1 To understand how the CO₂ and H₂O interact with Au/TiO₂(Ar) in dark, the time-resolved
 2 DRIFT spectra were recorded every minute once Au/TiO₂(Ar) is exposed to CO₂/H₂O reactants.
 3 As presented in Figure 7(a, b), the peaks at 1670 and 1247 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the CO₂⁻ [6,
 4 20, 53], which is deemed as the product between the CO₂ and Ti³⁺ derived from Vo. These two
 5 strong peaks appear immediately after the exposing the clean surface to CO₂/H₂O and soon
 6 vanish after 2 min. The peak at ~1650 cm⁻¹ attributed to the adsorbed H₂O molecules
 7 predominates in the following curves. Supported by the higher binding energy of H₂O than CO₂
 8 on V_O, the competitive adsorption of H₂O to CO₂ is believed as the reason for the loss of CO₂⁻
 9 peaks [6]. CO₂ adsorbs on the surface of Au/TiO₂ mainly in the form of the carbonate and
 10 bicarbonate with the presence of moisture. b-HCO₃⁻ adsorption peak shifts to higher
 11 wavenumber in the range 1385-1423 cm⁻¹, when its coverage increases on the surface. There is
 12 no agreement in the literature about the assignment for the peaks at 1596 cm⁻¹ and it could be
 13 assigned to either carbonate or bicarbonate on the surface. The detailed peak assignments and
 14 peak deconvolution results are presented in Figure S14 & S15 and Table S2 & S3. In summary,
 15 the CO₂/H₂O interacts with the Au/TiO₂(Ar) under dark can be described by the following
 16 equations.



20

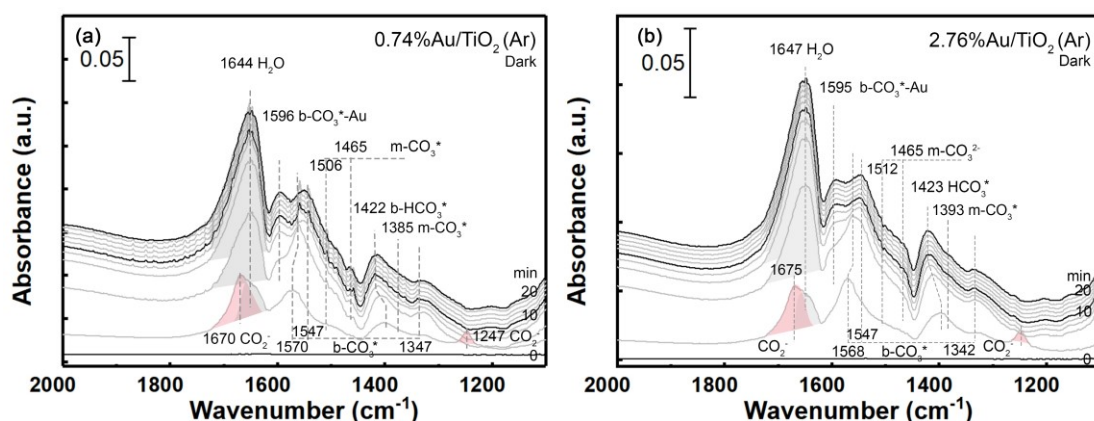


Figure 7. The time-resolved DRIFT spectra of (a) 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) and (b) 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) on adsorbing CO₂/H₂O at 30 °C under dark. Peak assignments are summarized in the SI.

To further support the claim that the Ti³⁺ is created during the thermal treatment in Ar, the control experiment that monitoring the surface species evolution via DRIFTS is conducted for the interaction between TiO₂(Ar) and TiO₂(UP) with CO₂/H₂O following the same procedure. For TiO₂(Ar) (Figure S16(a)), the peaks of CO₂⁻ (1670, 1247 cm⁻¹) also emerge at the beginning of the interaction. It is because annealing pure TiO₂ at oxygen-deficient atmosphere also induces the generation of V_O. To prove that the CO₂⁻ is derived from the Ti³⁺, control experiment is also conducted on the interaction between unpretreated TiO₂ (TiO₂(UP)) with CO₂/H₂O and the corresponding time-resolved DRIFT spectra are shown in Figure S16(b). In Figure S16(b), the TiO₂(UP) interaction with CO₂ and H₂O in dark does not show the emerging of peaks at 1670 and 1247 cm⁻¹. Therefore, it is rational to claim the CO₂⁻ is derived by interaction between CO₂ and Ti³⁺.

3.5.2 *In-situ* DRIFTS investigations on photocatalytic reaction mechanism

From the catalytic activity results (Figure 5 and Figure 6), it can conclude that the 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) possesses a higher CO₂ conversion rate under UV light, while the 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) performs favourably under green light. Therefore, these two reaction conditions were further investigated using time-resolved *in-situ* DRIFTS technique. The following special

1 experimental procedures were designed: (i) CO₂ and H₂O are flowed through the Au/TiO₂(Ar)
2 for 20 min to achieve an adsorption equilibrium; (ii) the inlet gas is then switched to Ar purging
3 the reactor for 10 min to remove free gaseous CO₂/H₂O; (iii) the inlet/outlet valves are closed
4 and UV or green light is switched on for 60 min. Three main objectives can be achieved through
5 this procedure. Firstly, it can demonstrate the reaction intermediates generated immediately
6 after the incident light switch-on. The Ar purge procedure rules out the light-induced gaseous
7 CO₂ re-adsorption, which will result in the (bi)carbonate IR peak rise. Therefore, when light is
8 irradiated onto the catalyst surface, all the increased peaks can be ascribed to the generated
9 reaction intermediates. Secondly, the static environment after Ar purge ensures a relatively low
10 coverage of reactants on the surface. It will make the newly formed intermediates show more
11 prominent peaks with less overlap. Lastly, the static environment can help to maintain a higher
12 intermediates concentration on the surface. Since the adsorption of CO₂ and H₂O under dark
13 has been described in Section 3.5.1 and Figure 7, this section only focuses on the IR spectra
14 evolution after light switch-on. To ensure the peaks evolution is not due to this special
15 experimental procedure, the control group performed under dark following the entire procedure
16 was conducted. As shown in Figure S19, there is no peak evolution after adsorption equilibrium.

17

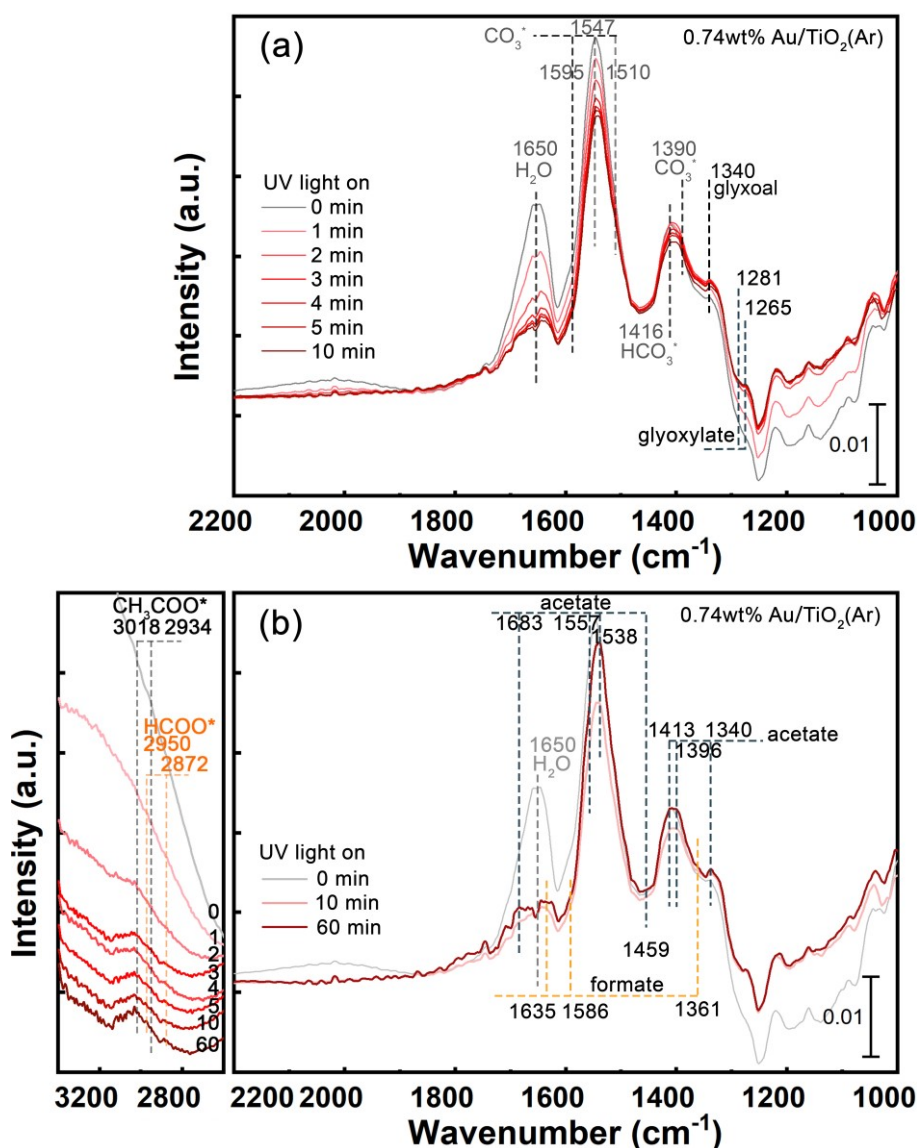
18 **0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV light irradiation**

19 The time-resolved DRIFT spectra for 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂ during the whole experimental
20 procedure are presented in Figure S17(a). The corresponding atmosphere and irradiation
21 condition are schemed at the right side of the figure. It can be seen from the gaseous CO₂ peaks
22 at 2360, 2341 cm⁻¹ that the 10 min Ar purge can remove the gaseous CO₂ and H₂O in the
23 reaction chamber. The weakly adsorbed CO₂ molecule and carbonate species exhibit desorption
24 from the surface during the purge too. It is evidenced by the drop of corresponding peak
25 intensity.

1 Figure 8(a) presents the *in-situ* DRIFT spectra during the first 10 min under UV light irradiation.
2 The UV light induced desorption is the main feature at this period of time. The first significant
3 intensity drop is observed for the peak centred at $\sim 1650\text{ cm}^{-1}$, which represents the H_2O
4 desorption. Besides, the adsorbed CO_3^{2-} ($1595, 1547, 1510, 1390, 1340\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and HCO_3^- (1416
5 cm^{-1}) also exhibit reduced intensities. On the contrary, the peaks at 1281 and 1265 cm^{-1} show
6 the trend of increasing, which is due to the fast formation of reaction intermediates under UV
7 light irradiation. Additionally, these two peaks can be reasonably assigned to glyoxylic
8 acid/glyoxylate species according to the adsorption experiments results of possible C2
9 intermediates on the same Au/TiO₂ catalysts used in this work (as shown in Figure S21(d),
10 Table S9). The details of the IR peak assignments based on the control experiments are
11 described in the SI Section 10. The $\nu_{\text{as}}(\text{C-O})$ and $\nu_{\text{s}}(\text{C-O})$ of carboxylate group in glyoxylate
12 species is hardly observed because their frequencies overlap with the carbonate species. And
13 the relatively small increases ascribed to glyoxylate formation are concealed by the larger
14 decrease trend brought by carbonate/bicarbonate desorption. In addition, the peak at 1340 cm^{-1}
15 emerges as well, which is assigned to the glyoxal species on the surface (as shown in Figure
16 S21(c), Table S10). For a clearer illustration, the enlargement of the time-resolved spectra
17 within the critical wavenumber range are shown in Figure S18(a).

18 After the UV light induced desorption reaching equilibrium after ~ 10 min, the peak evolution
19 reaches the next stage. The spectra of 10 min and 60 min under UV irradiation was compared
20 in Figure 8(b). In this 50 min reaction under UV irradiation, the following peaks increase: $1683,$
21 $1635, 1586, 1557, 1538, 1459, 1413, 1396, 1361$ and 1340 cm^{-1} . Among them, the peaks of
22 $1557, 1538$ and $1413, 1459\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are assigned to the $\nu_{\text{as}}(\text{COO})$ and $\nu_{\text{s}}(\text{COO})$ of CH_3COO^* ,
23 respectively. And the peaks at 1683 cm^{-1} correspond to the $\nu(\text{C=O})$ of CH_3COO^* . The 1396 and
24 1340 cm^{-1} peaks are ascribed to the asymmetric and symmetric bending of the CH_3 group
25 ($\delta_{\text{as}}(\text{CH}_3)$ and $\delta_{\text{s}}(\text{CH}_3)$) of CH_3COO^* . The peak located at $1635, 1586$ and 1361 cm^{-1} can be
26 assigned to formate species. The 1586 and 1361 cm^{-1} are derived from the asymmetric and
27 symmetric stretching of carboxylate group, $\nu_{\text{as}}(\text{OCO})$ and $\nu_{\text{s}}(\text{OCO})$ of formate. It is noted that

1 the other featured peaks of formate at ~ 1560 and ~ 1410 cm^{-1} (seen in Figure S20(a)) overlap
 2 with the carboxylate group of CH_3COO^* . The sum of the formate and acetate peaks makes these
 3 two peaks exhibit a more significant increase than others. In the C-H range, a broad peak
 4 including the 3018 , 2934 cm^{-1} and 2950 , 2872 cm^{-1} can be assigned to CH_3COO^* and HCOO^* ,
 5 respectively.

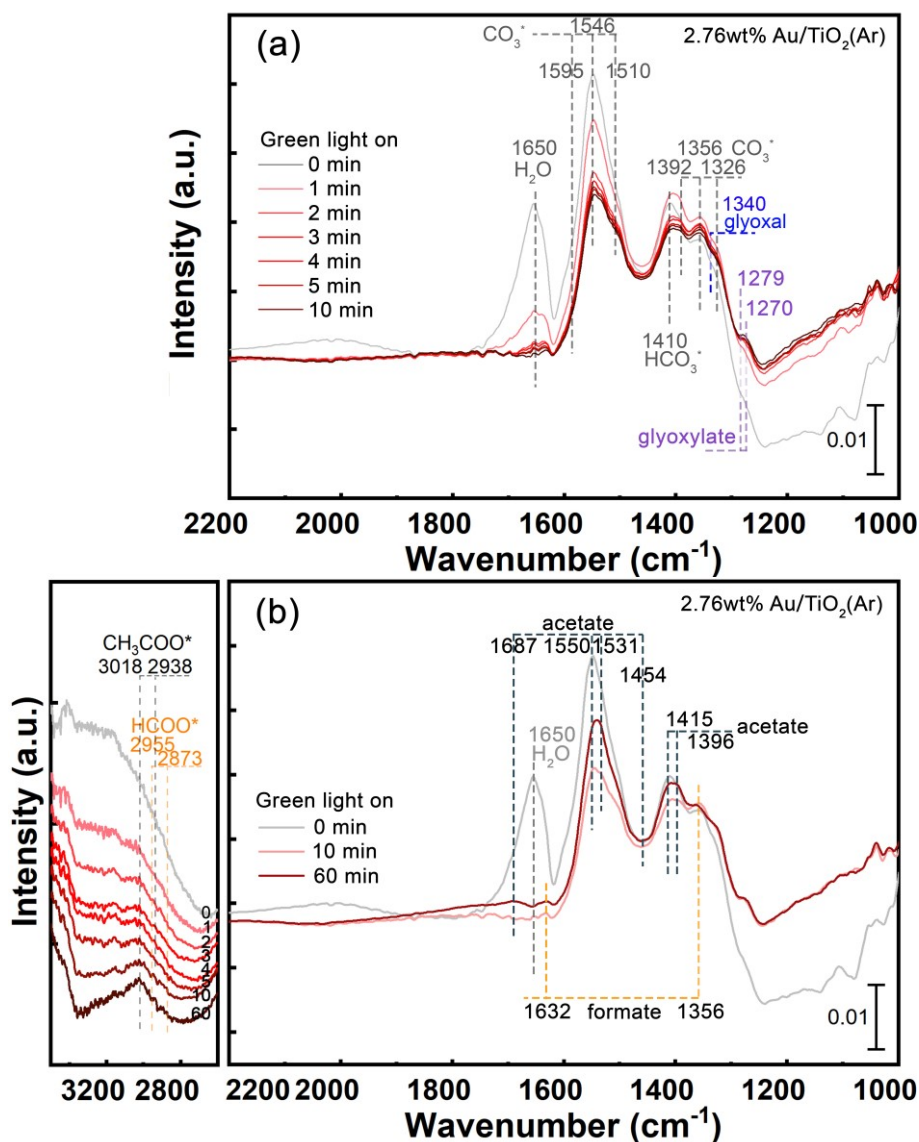


6
 7 Figure 8. *In-situ* DRIFT spectra of 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) at 30 °C after UV light-on: (a) evolution within the first
 8 10 min and (b) comparison between 10 min and 60 min. Peak assignments are summarized in the SI.

9

10 **2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under green light irradiation**

1 The DRIFTS experiment is conducted on 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) with green light irradiation
2 following the same experimental procedure as 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under UV light irradiation.
3 Similar to 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar), the peak evolution after green light switch-on can be divided
4 into 2 parts: desorption-predominated 0-10 min and reaction-predominated 10-60 min. As
5 shown in Figure 9(a), the green light induces the desorption of H₂O*, HCO₃* and CO₃* species
6 on the surface, which corresponds to the reduced peaks at 1650, 1410, 1595, 1546, 1510, 1392,
7 1356, 1326 cm⁻¹, respectively. It is noted that the peaks at 1279 and 1270 cm⁻¹ emerge at the
8 first 10 min after green light switch-on. The increase of these two peaks can only be explained
9 by the formation of the reaction intermediate, CHOCOO* (glyoxylate) by referring to the
10 DRIFT spectra of possible intermediate candidates on the same Au/TiO₂ catalysts (Figure
11 S21(d) & Table S9). In addition, the 1340 cm⁻¹ peak is assigned to glyoxal, while the intensity
12 of glyoxal peak is weaker than the case under UV irradiation condition (Figure S21(c) & Table
13 S10). It could be possibly due to the fact that the glyoxal is easily oxidised by the hot holes
14 generated by Au plasmonic excitation [54]. The enlargement of the time-resolved spectra is
15 shown in Figure S12(b). The DRIFT spectra comparison between 10 min and 60 min after green
16 light switch-on is presented in Figure 9(b). The increase of peaks at 1687, 1550, 1531, 1454,
17 1415 and 1396 cm⁻¹ are assigned to the formation of CH₃COO* on the surface. The 1632, 1356
18 cm⁻¹ are assigned to the formation of HCOO* on the surface. In the C-H range, the similar broad
19 peak shows up. The 3018, 2938 cm⁻¹ and 2955, 2873 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to CH₃COO* and
20 HCOO*, respectively.



1

2 Figure 9. *In-situ* DRIFT spectra of 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) at 30 °C after green light-on: (a) evolution within the first
 3 10 min and (b) comparison between 10 min and 60 min. Peak assignments are summarized in the SI.

4

5 4 Discussion

6 4.1 The electronic property of Au/TiO₂(Ar) and *CO stability at excitation state.

7 The CO is a good molecule probe to determine the electronic state of Au/TiO₂, since its
 8 characteristic vibration frequency is strongly affected by the electronic properties of the
 9 adsorption sites. Known as the Blyholder model [55], when adsorbed at an electron-rich site,
 10 the *CO vibration frequency shows a red-shift due to the back-donation of electrons from the
 11 adsorbent to the 2π* antibonding orbital of *CO. Whereas, when adsorbed at an electron-

1 deficient site, the 5σ -donation of electrons from *CO to the binding site causes the blue-shift of
2 the vibration frequency [47, 56].

3 In dark, the electronic metal support interaction (EMSI) on ground state is the critical factor
4 determining the electronic property of the catalysts and further affecting its catalytic
5 performance. Both theoretical and experimental investigations suggest the Au nanoparticles
6 interact weakly with stoichiometric TiO_2 surface [42]. Only with the presence of V_O , the
7 resulted extra electrons will transfer from the Ti^{3+} to the Au and generate negatively charged
8 $Au^{\delta-}$ nanoparticles. In our case, the experimental results confirm the negatively charged Au and
9 existence of V_O after Ar treatment (Figure 2, Figure S22). And the negatively charged Au
10 nanoparticles suppress the CO adsorption as suggested by the *in-situ* DRIFTS results (Figure
11 3(a)). The 0.74wt% Au/ TiO_2 (Ar) shows the strongly suppressed CO-Au peak at 30 °C. The
12 similar phenomenon has been observed by Wang et al. [46] that the reduced Au/ TiO_{2-x} shows
13 inferior CO oxidation performance than the stoichiometric counterpart due to the suppressed
14 CO adsorption. Therefore, under dark, the retarded CO adsorption is caused by the negatively
15 charged Au, which is derived from the introduction of V_O . It is also noted that the ground-state
16 Au/ TiO_2 (Ar) electronic property and CO adsorption exhibit size-dependence. Comparing with
17 0.74wt% Au/ TiO_2 (Ar), the 2.76wt% Au/ TiO_2 (Ar) (Figure 3(a, b)) doesn't show significantly
18 retarded CO adsorption. And the *CO vibration frequency stays less changed indicating the
19 electronic property of Au is less affected. It can be explained by the dilution effects with larger
20 Au nanoparticles and higher Au loadings. Another reason is the weaker V_O generation
21 enhancement of larger Au nanoparticles comparing with smaller Au nanoclusters.

22 Based on the understanding of ground-state electronic property, it is more important to unravel
23 the electronic property of Au/ TiO_2 (Ar) and the stability of *CO under excitation state and the
24 difference between UV and plasmonic excitations. The electronic property of Au nanoparticles
25 determines the *CO stability, which further affects the product selectivity. Because the *CO is
26 the key intermediate for producing CO, CH_4 , C_2H_6 and other possible products (discussed in
27 Section 4.3). As shown in Figure 4(a, b), the UV and visible light exert opposite effects on the

1 electronic property of Au/TiO₂(Ar) and corresponding CO adsorption. Under UV light
2 irradiation, the 0.74wt%(Ar) shows completely suppressed CO adsorption on Au but enhanced
3 adsorption on TiO₂ at 30 °C. It is because the UV light excited electrons inside TiO₂, which
4 results in the electron-rich Ti^{(4-δ)⁺} and Au^{δ⁻}. The effects of UV irradiation are not significant on
5 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar). On the contrary, the green light irradiation causes a completely different
6 result. The excited electrons due to plasmonic excitation in Au nanoparticle undergo a back-
7 transfer to the TiO₂ support. The Au nanoparticles therefore show positively charged electronic
8 property under continuous irradiation, which is confirmed by the blue shift of the *CO vibration
9 frequency on both 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar). The positive charge state of Au
10 nanoparticles can also enhance the *CO stability at Au site. It is consistent to the theoretical
11 calculation results that the CO shows larger adsorption energy on positively charged Au clusters
12 than neutral or negatively charged clusters in the same size [57-60]. It is also in agreement with
13 the Blyholder model that the positively charged Au will cause less occupied 2π* antibonding
14 orbitals which stabilises the *CO.

15

16 **4.2 The essential role of V_O: positive correlation between V_O concentration with** 17 **reaction rate.**

18 As presented in SI-Section 11 and Figure S23 & Figure S24, the V_O concentration determined
19 by *in-situ* UV-Vis absorption band intensity clearly shows a positive correlation between
20 reaction rates (Figure 5 & Figure 6). It suggests the deactivation after 2 h can be attributed to
21 the replenishment of V_O at the perimeter site of Au/TiO₂(Ar). This conclusion is valid for all
22 reaction conditions with small/large Au nanoparticles and UV/green light irradiations. Based
23 on the experimental results, following two critical roles of V_O can be proposed. Firstly, the V_O
24 activates the CO₂ and ensures the breaking of a C=O bond forming *CO. Secondly, the V_O also
25 helps to break the H-O bonds in H₂O providing *H for CO₂ hydrogenation. It is in consistency
26 with the recent work reported by Dilla et al. [22] that the O₂ was not detected in the effluent
27 gases during photosynthesis reaction over TiO₂. In order to further verify the argument that

1 catalyst deactivation is caused by the consumption of V_O on TiO_2 surface. The 2.76wt%
2 $Au/TiO_2(Ar)$ is firstly conducted plasmonic photocatalytic reaction under green light irradiation
3 for 3 h. Then the catalyst is *in-situ* regenerated by calcination at 300 °C under the flowing Ar
4 for 0.5 h. And another 3-h photocatalytic CO_2 reduction reaction is performed again. This
5 regeneration-reaction process is repeated for 3 times and the reaction yields are plotted in Figure
6 S25. It can be seen that after *in-situ* regeneration, the catalysts can be very well recovered,
7 presenting a similar performance as the fresh catalysts. Since no carbon contamination is
8 introduced during the regeneration, the possibility that deactivation is due to the consumption
9 of active carbon contamination can be rationally ruled out. The regeneration of V_O is the reason
10 for the recovery of the activity of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction with H_2O . In summary, it is
11 confirmed that the V_O in the TiO_2 is responsible for the fast reaction rate at the first 0.5 h.
12 Additionally, the V_O is used up during the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction with H_2O within 3 h,
13 which is the reason for the deactivation of $Au/TiO_2(Ar)$. The generally believed V_O generation
14 driven by either UV or plasmon-induced hot electrons/holes is a rather slow process comparing
15 to V_O consumption.

16

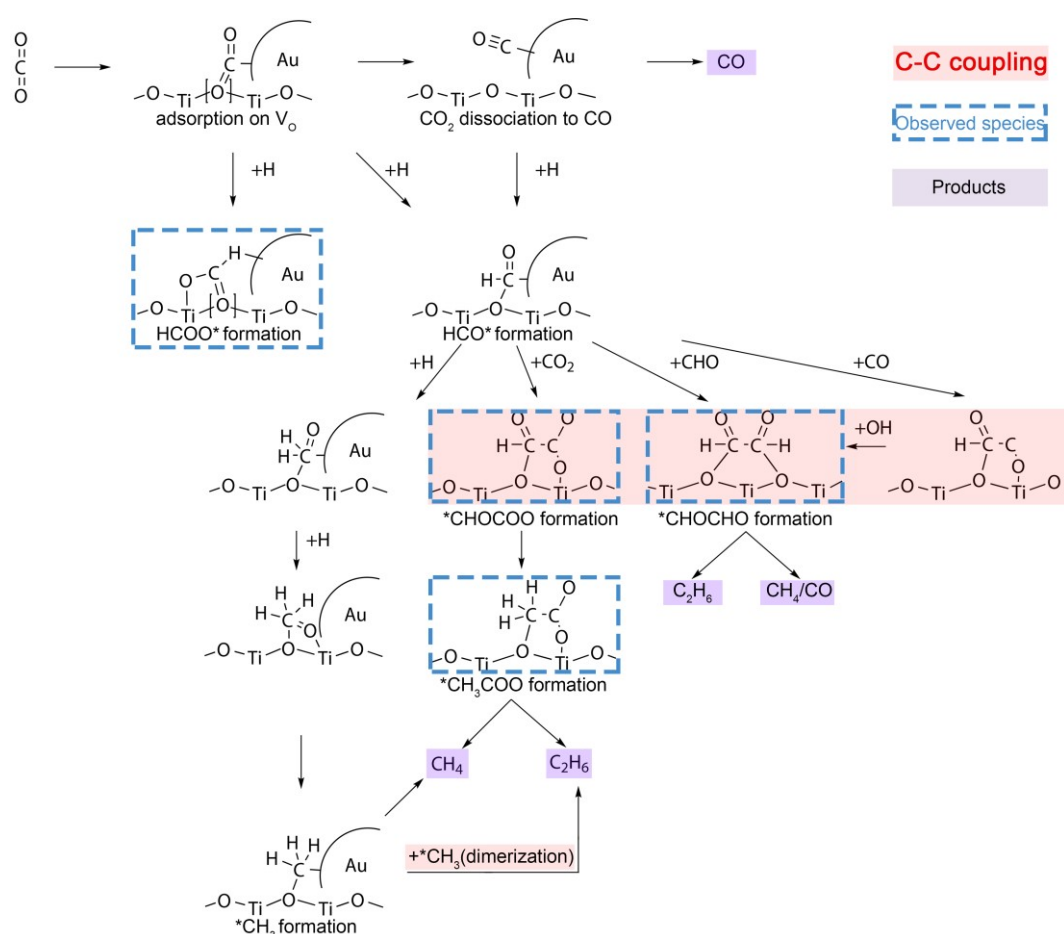
17 **4.3 Discussion on plausible reaction mechanism for photocatalytic CO_2 reduction with** 18 **H_2O .**

19 Firstly, CO_2 , which is a Lewis acid, intends to adsorb on the V_O sites at the Au/TiO_2 perimeter
20 site. With the replenishment of V_O site of Au/TiO_2 interface, *CO is formed at the same site.
21 The *CO is the initial intermediate indispensable for the following products (CO , CH_4 , C_2H_6)
22 generation. It is supported by the following two experimental evidences: under UV irradiation,
23 the CO is the preferred product on both 0.74wt% and 2.76wt% $Au/TiO_2(Ar)$ due to the
24 suppressed CO adsorption (discussed in Section 4.1); more importantly, a direct correlation
25 exists between the reaction rate and V_O concentration on both 0.74 and 2.76wt% $Au/TiO_2(Ar)$
26 (discussed in Section 4.2). Another competing first step of CO_2 conversion is the addition of H
27 forming $COOH^*$. However, at the V_O site, it is less likely due to the high activation energy

1 barrier for the hydrogenation comparing with the direct C-O bond dissociation according to the
2 DFT calculation results [12, 61]. In the case of formate species, the CO₂ adsorbed on the V_O at
3 the perimeter site of Au/TiO₂(Ar) can be easily hydrogenated to the HCOO* with low activation
4 barrier calculated to be 0.35 eV [61]. While adding the second H to HCOO* becomes energy
5 unfavourable [13]. The formate is likely to be the spectator rather than the reaction intermediate.
6 The second step of CO₂ photocatalytic reduction is believed to be the hydrogenation of *CO to
7 HCO*. The alternative pathway of further deoxygenation from *CO to *C, the carbene pathway,
8 is less plausible due to the high activation energy of this process on either stoichiometric or
9 defective TiO₂ surface [12]. The further hydrogenation of HCO* results in the production of
10 CH₄, which has been observed on supported Ru via DRIFTS technique [62]. While it is also
11 noted that the CH₄ production rate is less affected by the V_O concentration, it probably indicates
12 there is a parallel reaction pathway for CH₄ formation [6, 53].

13 The C-C bond formation mechanism is the most important part of the reaction pathway, since
14 a ~20% C₂H₆ selectivity is reached during the plasmonic photocatalytic CO₂ conversion. The
15 mechanisms of CO₂ related C-C coupling in literature are briefly reviewed in the SI Section 13.
16 In our case, the C-C coupling mechanism based on the DRIFTS evidence and critical role of
17 V_O is proposed and illustrated in Figure 10. First of all, the DRIFTS results (Figure 8, Figure 9
18 and Figure S18) prove the formation of glyoxylate species (*CHOCOO) on the surface
19 immediately after light switch-on. It suggests the direct coupling between *CHO and *CO₂ on
20 the surface. The observed glyoxal species indicate the C-C coupling happens via dimerization
21 of *CHO. As discussed in the beginning of this section, the *HCO formation should be more
22 energy-favourable than *COOH at the V_O site. Therefore, the possible glyoxylate formation
23 pathway through the coupling between *CHO and *COOH is not considered as the main
24 mechanism. Besides the direct indication of possible reaction pathway, the species on the
25 surface observed via *in-situ* DRIFTS can also help to rule out two possible C-C coupling
26 mechanisms on Au/TiO₂ surface: (1) The carbene pathway similar to that in the Fischer-
27 Tropsh reaction. As suggested by the observation of *CHOCOO, the C-C coupling happens

1 before the formation of *C on the surface with breaking both C=O bonds of CO_2 ; (2) The direct
 2 dimerization of CO_2^- radicals. The oxalate species formed due to direct dimerization of CO_2^-
 3 are not observed via DRIFTS. After the C-C coupling step, the further hydrogenation of the
 4 *CHOCOO can form the other key intermediate observed on the surface, CH_3COO^* . However,
 5 it is reported that only ~5-10 % of CH_3COO^* forms C_2H_6 during the decomposition [63]. It
 6 suggests that there could be another reaction pathway responsible for the C_2H_6 production in
 7 addition to CH_3COO^* conversion. A plausible mechanism is the coupling between the alkyl
 8 species on the surface, as proposed in Fischer-Tropsch reaction and C-C coupling on Cu surface.

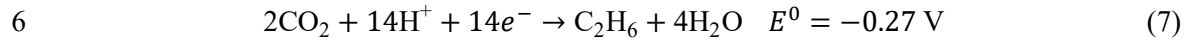
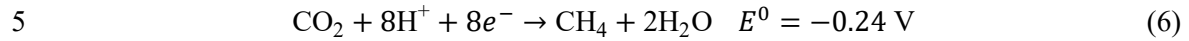


9
 10 Figure 10. The scheme of plausible reaction pathway for C-C coupling and CO, CH_4 , C_2H_6 production.

12 4.4 The origin of the product selectivity difference under UV and green light irradiation.

13 Generally, the product selectivity in photocatalytic CO_2 reduction can be explained from two
 14 aspects: (i) thermodynamic and (ii) kinetic concerns. Firstly, the UV light centred at 365 nm

1 corresponds to ~3.4 eV photon energy, which is much higher than the 530 nm green light with
2 ~ 2.4 eV photon energy. Following equations present the potential required to generate the CO,
3 CH₄ and C₂H₆ versus normal hydrogen electrode (NHE, pH =7, 25 °C, 1 atm) [64]:



7 It is noted that the CO production requires the highest potential of -0.51 V vs NHE, which is
8 much higher than CH₄ and C₂H₆. Therefore, the CO production is thermodynamically
9 favourable under UV than visible light irradiation. Secondly, the CO, CH₄ and C₂H₆ require 2,
10 8 and 14 proton-electron coupled transfers, respectively. From the kinetics perspective, the
11 difficulty of CO, CH₄ and C₂H₆ production increases in sequence.

12 However, in this work, these two explanations are insufficient to explain the faster C₂H₆
13 production and higher C₂H₆ selectivity over 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) under plasmonic excitation.
14 As shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6, under green light irradiation, the C₂H₆ production rate over
15 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar) is ~2.4 times as much as the 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar); and the C₂H₆
16 selectivity is more than twice as much as 0.74wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar). Moreover, for the same
17 catalyst 2.76wt% Au/TiO₂(Ar), the plasmonic photocatalytic C₂H₆ production rate (0.66 μmol
18 g⁻¹_{cat} h⁻¹) is much larger than the UV light-driven reaction (0.59 μmol g⁻¹_{cat} h⁻¹). The trend to
19 produce more C₂H₆ under plasmonic catalytic condition is unusual because the UV light
20 contains much higher energy than the green light. Considering the *CO is an important reaction
21 intermediate for the formation of C₂H₆ (discussed in Section 4.3), it is reasonable to believe
22 *CO stability strongly correlates with C₂H₆ selectivity. As proposed in Figure 10, the *CO
23 derived from the CO₂ adsorbed at V_O can either desorb from the surface or further converted to
24 *HCO, which is the key intermediate for C-C coupling for C₂H₆ production. As discussed in
25 Section 4.1, the plasmonic excitation-induced positively charged Au can stabilize *CO adsorbed
26 on the surface; in comparison, the UV excitation mechanism suppresses the adsorption of *CO.

1 It is the additional important mechanism for the higher C₂H₆ production under plasmonic
2 excitation.

3

4 **5 Conclusion**

5 The photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with H₂O is investigated over oxygen-deficient Au/TiO_{2-x}
6 driven by UV or visible light under continuous flow condition. The CO₂ conversion rate and
7 product selectivity are found depending on the Au nanoparticle size and excitation mechanism.
8 By combining the V_O with plasmonic excitation, the 2.76wt% Au/TiO_{2-x} achieves a 20%
9 selectivity towards C₂H₆. The C-C coupling mechanism for C₂H₆ production is investigated via
10 the *in-situ* DRIFTS experiments. The glyoxal and glyoxylate are observed as the key
11 intermediates after C-C coupling for C₂H₆ production. The high selectivity towards C₂H₆ is
12 rationalized by the *in-situ* determined positively charged Au nanoparticles in Au/TiO_{2-x} under
13 plasmonic excitation and the enhanced stability of the key intermediate *CO. The critical role
14 of V_O in the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with H₂O is also demonstrated. This work provides
15 more insights on the factors promoting the C₂ hydrocarbon production via photocatalytic CO₂
16 reduction with H₂O, which can inspire future works on photocatalysts design for high value-
17 added products.

18

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6 Notes:

7 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

8

9 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

10 **Supporting information**

11 Schemes of experimental setups; N₂ sorption isotherms; XPS Ti 2p spectra of Au/TiO₂
12 pretreated under H₂ and O₂ atmosphere; Au nanoparticle size distribution curves; TOF
13 calculation; Isotopic labelled experiment details; IR peak assignments for CO₂/H₂O adsorption;
14 additional time-resolved DRIFT spectra during photocatalytic reaction; DRIFT spectra of
15 plausible reaction intermediates adsorption and corresponding peak assignments; *in situ* UV-
16 Vis spectra of Au/TiO₂ before and after pretreatment.

17

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7

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