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PHOTOCATALYTIC CONTROLLED OXIDATION REACTION OF METHANE

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RESUMO

REAÇÃO DE OXIDAÇÃO FOTOCATALÍTICA CONTROLADA DO METANO. A oxidação parcial do CH₄ em produtos químicos de valor agregado por meios solares tem sido discutida como alternativa para a redução de emissões, um tópico fundamental para a produção sustentável e com menor emissão de gases causadores do aquecimento global no futuro. Até o momento, vários fotocatalisadores semicondutores foram desenvolvidos. Entretanto, a compreensão dos principais fatores que influenciam as atividades dos fotocatalisadores na oxidação controlada do metano em metanol ainda é um problema, especialmente devido à superoxidação do metano em CO₂. Assim, propomos que o semicondutor deve ter uma banda de valência (VB) favorável à produção de radicais hidroxila (•OH) e uma banda de condução (CB) não vantajosa para o radical superóxido (O_2^{-}) . Além disso, a concentração dos radicais hidroxila é fundamental e deve ser ajustada para oxidar seletivamente o metano. O O₂ também é o principal oxidante para o controle do processo, uma vez que o O₂ pode capturar os radicais metil (•CH₃) que reagem posteriormente com •OH para formar metanol. Nossos resultados mostraram que as posições de banda necessárias para os fotocatalisadores (por exemplo, Bi₂O₃) parecem corretas para obter quantidades significativas de produtos químicos desejáveis, tendo como principais produtos o metanol (3700 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) e o ácido acético (2036 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) a partir do CH₄ puro em temperatura ambiente e pressão atmosférica. Além disso, hidrocarbonetos mais longos (por exemplo, etanol e acetona) podem ser produzidos dependendo da condição reacional. Os experimentos de EPR comprovaram a formação de •CH₃ e •OH, e também foi realizado um experimento isotópico com ¹³CH₄ como reagente, confirmando que o CH₃OH é proveniente da foto-oxidação do CH₄. Foi investigada outra rota sustentável para controlar a oxidação de CH4 impulsionada por intermediários de cloro em solução, usando semicondutores a base de bismuto excitados em luz visível. O BiOCl, um material em camadas de perovskita, apresentou um desempenho fotocatalítico promissor para a conversão de metano a metanol (1300 µmol g^{-1}), ácido acético (435 µmol g^{-1}), e etanol (57 µmol g^{-1}) sem a adição de radicais externos para controlar a reação. Nossas descobertas são significativas para um novo nível de compreensão da eficiente foto-oxidação parcial do metano, o que abre um caminho para o controle de reações competitivas por meio de posições de banda apropriadas em fotocatalisadores para maior seletividade e para evitar sua superoxidação em CO₂.

ABSTRACT

PHOTOCATALYTIC CONTROLLED OXIDATION REACTION OF METHANE. The CH₄ partial oxidation into value-added chemicals by solar means has been discussed as alternative for emission abatement, a fundamental topic for sustainable production with lower global warming gas emissions in future. So far, various semiconductor photocatalysts have been developed. However, the understanding of the main factors influencing photocatalysts' activities on controlled oxidation of methane to methanol is still an issue, especially due to methane overoxidation to CO₂. Thus, we propose that the semiconductor must have a valence band (VB) favorable to produce hydroxyl radicals (•OH) and a conduction band (CB) not advantageous to superoxide radical (O_2^{-}) . Furthermore, the concentration of the hydroxyl radicals is fundamental and should be fine-tuned for selectively oxidize methane. O₂ also is the key oxidant for process control, since O_2 may scavenging methyl radicals (•CH₃) that further react with •OH to form methanol. Our results showed that the required band edge positions for photocatalysts (e.g., Bi₂O₃) seems correct to obtain significant amounts of desirable chemical products, taking as main products methanol (3700 µmol g⁻¹) and acetic acid acetic acid (~2036 µmol $g^{-1} h^{-1}$) from pure CH₄ at room temperature and atmospheric pressure. Moreover, longer hydrocarbons (e.g., ethanol and acetone) could be produced depending on the reaction condition. ESR experiments proved the formation of •CH₃ and •OH, and isotope labeling experiment with ¹³CH₄ as the reactant also was conducted, confirming that CH₃OH comes from CH₄ photooxidation. Another sustainable route to control the CH₄ oxidation driven by chloride intermediates in solution using Bismuth-based semiconductors excited in visible light was investigated. BiOCl, a perovskite layered material, exhibited promising photocatalytic performance for methane conversion to methanol (1300 µmol g⁻¹), acetic acid (435 μ mol g⁻¹), and ethanol (57 μ mol g⁻¹) without foreign radicals to control the reaction. Our findings are significant to new level of understanding in methane's efficient partial photooxidation, which opens a way to control competitive reactions by appropriate band edge positions in photocatalysts to greater selectivity and avoid its overoxidation to CO_2 .

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1. CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

The combustion of fossil fuels and the subsequent emission of greenhouse gases increasingly harm the climate. Methane is a greenhouse gas with a global warming potential (GWP) that is 25 times higher than carbon dioxide. It can be found as the primary component of natural gas and biogas, reaching c.a. 75-90% of its composition. Several world reserves of shale gas, fire ice, and coalbed constitute an important primary source for global energy generation. However, the transportation of gas over long distances, from the natural reserve to the distribution centers, is inconvenient, mainly due to possible gas leakage. Thus, some conditions require methane to be burned instead of released directly into the atmosphere due to its high GWP. Consequently, every day, approximately 150 billion cubic meters of natural gas are burned as waste, resulting in an annual energy loss of 30 EJ. As an alternative to fuel application, CH₄ can also be a feedstock to produce chemicals of commercial interest. The industrial transformation of CH₄ into syngas (Eq. 1.1) is performed at high temperatures (400-800 K) and pressures (20-40 bar). Methane conversion on-site into liquid chemicals is further desirable, and methanol (Eq. 1.2) is the preferred product since CH₃OH and CH₄ possess similar calorific power. Additionally, methanol is a storable and transportable liquid fuel at ambient conditions, serving as chemical feedstock for even higher-value products such as formaldehyde, formic acid, acetic acid, and methyl *t*-butyl ether [1–5].

$$CH_{4(g)} + H_2O_{(g)} \xrightarrow{N_i} CO_{(g)} + H_{2(g)}$$

$$(1.1)$$

$$CO_{(g)} + 2H_{2(g)} \xrightarrow{Cu/ZnO/Al_2O_3} CH_3OH_{(g)}$$
 (1.2)

The thermodynamic stability of the C-H bonds (434 kJ mol⁻¹), insignificant electron affinity, and poor polarizability ($2.84 \times 10^{-40} \text{ C}^2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ J}^{-1}$) of the CH₄ molecule are the main drawbacks for the conventional methane reform since the described shortcomings are primarily responsible for the high energy consumption, cost, and CO₂ emissions of the process. Additionally, the use of precious metal catalysts is required, catalyst deactivation is observed, and extremely low conversion efficiencies are obtained. Therefore, direct conversion of CH₄ into CH₃OH under mild conditions stands out to

reduce capital expenses and address environmental issues. Photo(electro)catalysis (PEC) can utilize sunlight and power source instead of high temperature and pressure to perform the non-spontaneous reaction. Even though the extremely low solubility of methane in water ($< 22.7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$), CH₄ dissolution in electrolytes is still appealing because the system often is easier to manipulate and to be scaled up. Nonetheless, very few studies in the literature regarding PEC systems for controlled CH₄ reform demonstrate the uniqueness of the recent research field. From this perspective, ZnO, WO₃, and TiO₂ have been evaluated as photo(electro)catalysts due to their well-known photoactivities while having adequate conductivity for electrochemical proposals.

Li et al. [6] used TiO₂ as a photoanode to produce CO from CH₄. The photogenerated charges first become self-trapped on Ti, reducing the metal to become Ti^{3+} and generating $-O-Ti^{3+}$. The presence of Ti^{3+} promotes the creation of a $Ti^{3+}-C$ bond which results in the selective synthesis of CO. Alternatively, Ti⁴⁺ sites favor the carbonate production, leading to a total oxidation of CH₄, Fig. 1.1 Kadosh *et al.* [7] detected CO₂ as the main product and O₂, CO, C₂H₆, and HCOOH as byproducts of CH₄ oxidation using TiO₂ as photoanode in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ and at 0.3 V vs. RHE. Liu et al. [8] used pure BiVO₄ and obtained methanol at 0.5 V vs. RHE with a Faradaic efficiency of 16%. Liu et al. [9] performed the PEC oxidation of CH₄ into methanol over ZnO, reaching ca. 12% of Faradaic efficiency. Amano et al. [10] selected WO₃ to convert CH₄ into C₂H₆, CO₂, and H₂ at 1.2 V vs. SHE on a proton exchange membrane-containing membrane electrode assembly (MEA/PEM). The MEA/PEM-based PEC cell promoted an efficient product separation in a flow system, obtaining an incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) of 11%, a Faradaic efficiency for CO₂ of 75%, a CH₄ conversion of 0.1%, and a C₂H₆ selectivity of 54%. Surprisingly, Ma et al. [11] also evaluated WO₃ as the photoanode but could produce a higher carbon-chair of ethylene glycol at a rate of 0.47 µmol cm⁻² h⁻¹ and 66% selectivity at 1.3 V vs. RHE. The PEC oxidation was performed at 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ with pH adjustment to 2 with sulfuric acid to inhibit the competing oxygen reaction evolution. The system showed high stability for 12 h.



FIGURE 1.1 - (a) Schematic mechanism of TiO_2 for PEC CH₄ oxidation to CO. (b) CH₄ photoelectrochemical oxidation at different applied potentials. Reproduced with permission. [6]

As one can see, challenges remain for the PEC approach of CH₄ reform to methanol, such as the enhancement of selectivity and the prevention of overoxidation to the more kinetically and thermodynamically favorable CO₂. The hydroxyl radicals (•OH) are the predominant oxidative species to activate the C–H bonds of methane. Firstly, •OH abstracts a hydrogen atom to generate methyl radicals (•CH₃) (Eq. 1.3) which finally react with •OH to form methanol (Eq. 1.4). The concentration of the hydroxyl radical is crucial for controlling the rate of methane conversion and the CH₃OH selectivity. The lower •OH concentration leads to the lower formation of CH₄ and byproducts to form CO₂. Thus, an ideal concentration of hydroxyl radicals and moderate oxidation conditions are required to oxidize CH₄ into CH₃OH selectively [2,12].

$$CH_{4(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet CH_{3(aq)} + H_2O_{(1)}$$

$$(1.3)$$

$$\bullet CH_{3(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \to CH_3 OH_{(aq)}$$
(1.4)

Recent advances have used different sacrificial reagents to control the extent of the oxidation process. Nitrite ions (Eq. 1.5) and hydrogen peroxide (Eq. 1.6) can be used to induce or inhibit the •OH consumption. Nonetheless, the substantial costs associated with adding these chemicals into the system make the process on a large scale uneconomical. Another practical barrier is that CH₄ conversion often fails to maintain high conversion yield and selectivity since the overoxidation of methanol is hard to inhibit. Recent mechanism evaluations have pointed out that O_2^{\bullet} are the key species for the uncontrolled oxidation of methane since the generated methyl radicals may be attacked by superoxide radicals, leading to full oxidation to produce CO_2 . In this regard, for an efficient methane partial oxidation, it was demonstrated elsewhere that the semiconductor must present an appropriate band edge position to have a valence band favorable to hydroxyl radicals and a conduction band not advantageous to superoxide radicals [1,2,13,14].

$$NO_{2^{-}(aq)}^{-} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow NO_{2^{+}(aq)}^{-} + OH_{(aq)}^{-}$$
(1.5)

$$H_2O_{2(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet OH_{(aq)} + OH_{(aq)}$$
(1.6)

Further studies also have demonstrated that molecular oxygen is the critical component for methane transformation. Experiments with isotope oxygen proved that there is another radical mechanism route for methanol production. In the disclosed scheme, the dissolved O_2 promotes oxygen incorporation through the generation of methyl hydroperoxide radicals (Eq. 1.7), making O_2 act as •CH₃ scavenger, thus, improving the methanol production that can come either from the coupling of CH₃OO• and •OH (Eq. 1.8) or from the reduction process of the CH₃OOH intermediate through a photoreduction process (Eq. 1.9-1.10). Density functional theory (DFT) calculations suggested that the energy barrier for CH₃OOH formation (0.52 eV) is lower than for the direct CH₃OOH. In excess of H₂O₂, a competitive reaction pathway to form O_2 can be induced (Eq. 1.11), and H₂O₂ can also impact the methane conversion by increasing the availability of O_2 in the medium reaction [12,15–17].

$$\bullet CH_{3(aq)} + O_{2(g)} \to CH_3OO_{(aq)}$$
(1.7)

$$CH_{3}OO_{(aq)}^{\bullet} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)}^{\bullet} + O_{2(aq)}$$
(1.8)

$$CH_{3}OO_{(aq)} + H^{+}_{(aq)} + e^{-} \rightarrow CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)}$$
(1.9)

$$CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)} + 2e^{-} + 2H^{+}_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)}$$
 (1.10)

$$H_2O_{2(aq)} \to H_2O_{(l)} + 1/2O_{2(g)}$$
 (1.11)

Oxygen species seem to be the bottleneck for methane conversion since oxygen vacancies play a different role in the efficiency of this oxidation reaction. Removing an oxygen atom with six valence electrons leaves two electrons behind in the semiconductor surface. Then, through the hydrogen atom, methane can adsorb onto the surface, and fragments of the methyl radical can effectively transfer an electron to the surface. Experiments point out that the C-H bond cleavage proceeds at these oxygen vacancies sites since they attract electrons and alter the bonding energy of adsorbates, consequently lowering the energy barrier. The oxygen vacancies affect the electronic distribution of the surface since the excess of electrons resultant of the lack of oxygen can be reallocated on nearby metal sites that may donate more electrons for the adsorbed CH₄ and activate the methane due to new defect levels appearing at the active Fermi level position. The generation of methyl radicals via oxygen vacancies was reported even without photo- or electro-activation. Ab initio DFT+U calculations of methane adsorption on iron oxide have shown that the bond angle of the CH₄ molecule indeed changed along the adsorption on oxygen vacancies, increasing from 109.50° to 114.83° and tilting slightly to the left. As methane dissociates, CH₃ moves to the oxygen vacancy site while H lasts at the metal top site, lowering barrier activation by 14.4 kJ mol⁻¹ compared to that on the stoichiometric surface [12,18–20].

On the other hand, the oxygen vacancies create new band states between the conduction and valence bands, narrowing the bandgap. At the same time, the oxygen vacancies also act as photogenerated carrier traps, reducing the recombination, which is beneficial for the PEC activity. Another significant change includes the electron density around the oxygen vacancies that can react with metal sites in their neighborhood, promoting a metal redox cycle. Jin *et al.* [21] have discussed that after the oxygen vacancies are created, the remaining electrons reduce the nearby Zn^{2+} to Zn^+ sites to obtain a balance neutral of the charges. Furthermore, the other electron is trapped by oxygen vacancy, transforming it into an active site for reacting with other molecules. In particular, it creates a new donor level below the conduction band. Yang *et al.* [22] also demonstrated that the presence of oxygen defects in the 2D WO_{3-x} nanosheet results in unpaired electrons in the lattice, reducing the W^{6+} to W^{5+} through the process represented by Eq. 12, where O²⁻ is the lattice oxygen, O is the oxygen removed, and OV is the oxygen vacancy.

$$2W^{6^{+}} + O^{2^{-}} \to 2W^{5^{+}} + O + OV$$
(12)

Many works have used some strategies to induce the creation of oxygen vacancies. In this context, Zhang *et al.* [23] reported the use of cobalt ion doping to replace the W^{6+} atoms and, consequently, induce disorder formation in the lattice. After the W^{6+} substitution, the cobalt showed two oxidation states (i.e., Co^{3+} and Co^{2+}), and the presence of the lower Co valence was due to the excess vacancy, as described above. Zhao *et al.* [24] selected Cu ions to tune the oxygen vacancies concentration in TiO₂ nanosheets, resulting in significantly improved photocatalytic gas interaction. Surprisingly, besides facilitating photoinduced charge transport, the oxygen vacancies induce Jahn-Teller distortions. As shown in Fig. 1.2, introducing defects cause substantial compressive strain, which increases the electron density around the oxygen atoms, enhancing the gas adsorption and allowing a lower energy pathway to the product.



FIGURE 1.2 - Schematic illustration of a TiO_6 octahedron with defects induced by copper doping and oxygen vacancy. Reproduced with permission. [24]

In principle, the ability of the metal to change the oxidation states has been demonstrated as one of the critical properties for efficient thermal catalysis. This ability may also be vital for PEC methane reform since the metal site can be reduced in the initial stages to assist the proton extraction from methane. Then, the metal is re-oxidized to its initial state, desorbing the products formed and reconstituting the catalyst. Yu *et al.* [25] used *in-situ* FTIR spectroscopy to investigate the mechanism of methane oxidation to carbon monoxide on zinc distributed in tungstophosphoric acid/titania (Zn-HPW/TiO₂). The process (Fig. 1.3) follows the zinc oxidation-reduction pathway under irradiation and involves the production of methyl carbonate as a chemical intermediate. In parallel, oxygen plays an essential role in assisting the oxy-reduction cycle of the metal in regenerating the catalyst. Interestingly, oxygen vacancies may also offer an appealing alternative to avoid complete methane overoxidation to CO₂. In this case, the electrons on the oxygen vacancy change the potential of O 2p orbitals, shifting up the valence band maximum to a position that is no longer suitable for methanol oxidation [26].



FIGURE 1.3 - Reaction pathway for the partial oxidation of CH₄ to CO over Zn-HPW/TiO₂. Reproduced with permission.[25]

Converting solar energy to chemical energy is the aim of PEC methane oxidation, but to facilitate future scalable production and useful application, the above-described features must be considered to improve the CH_4 conversion and associate the reaction with economic viability. For that, the production rate of the resultant product as well as other parameters, represented by Eqs. 1.13-1.17, usually are considered, where n_P

is the moles of the target produced chemical, n_T is the moles of total products, n_{TC} is the moles of carbon from the total products, n_{CH_4} is the moles of methane in the starting reaction, J is the current density, t is the reaction time, z is the number of electrons transferred in the target half-reaction of the product, F is the Faradaic constant (F = 96485 C mol⁻¹), $\sum E_{chemical}^0$ is the standard potential of the methane oxidation reaction, P is the power density of the incident light, N_{TE} is the number of transferred electrons, and N_{IP} is the number of incident photons [14,27].

Faradaic efficiency
$$(\eta_{FE})$$
:
 $\eta_{FE} (\%) = \left(\frac{z F n_P}{J t}\right) 100$
(1.13)

Solar-to-chemical conversion efficiency (STC):

Apparent quantum yield (AQY)

STC (%) =
$$\left(\frac{\sum E_{\text{chemical}}^0 J \eta_{\text{FE}}}{P}\right) 100$$
 (1.14)

AQY (%) =
$$\left(\frac{N_{TE}}{N_{IP}}\right)$$
 100 (1.15)

SE (%) =
$$\binom{n_{\rm P}}{n_{\rm T}}$$
 100 (1.16)

CH₄ conversion (CC):
CC (%) =
$$\left(\frac{n_{TC}}{n_{CH_4}}\right) 100$$
(1.17)

In conclusion, the photoelectrochemical conversion of methane to methanol is advantageous over the catalytic path because it uses mild oxidation conditions while maintaining high catalytic efficiency. This would result in significant capital investment and operating cost savings. At the same time, PEC CH_4 reform mitigates the concentration of harmful greenhouse gas in the atmosphere using the energy acquired from the external circuit and the solar spectrum, a freely available energy source, to activate the molecule bonds.

2. CHAPTER II: GOALS AND OVERVIEW

The main goal of this thesis was the understanding of the key factors influencing photocatalysts' activities on controlled oxidation of methane to methanol.

2.1. Specific goals:

- To investigate the appropriate band edge positions in photocatalysts to efficient CH₄ partial photooxidation to methanol;
- To investigate the efficiency of the bismuth oxide in the CH₄ conversion to methanol under visible-light and ambient conditions;
- To study the influence of molecular oxygen and oxidative radicals for selectively oxidize methane;
- To investigate how chloride ions act during photooxidation of methane using Bibased semiconductors;
- To understand how a structural chloride could participate in the CH₄ conversion.

2.2. Summary of each chapter

This thesis focuses on studying a sustainable alternative for the controlled oxidation of methane to methanol, avoiding its complete oxidation to CO_2 . In this scenario, photocatalytic systems for the production of oxidative radicals are reported to be suitable activators for the controlled oxidation of methane.

In the Chapter III, different ways of controlling the extent of the oxidation process were investigated, as well as the appropriate band edge position that the semiconductor should have a valence band (VB) favorable for producing hydroxyl radicals (•OH) and a conduction band (CB) that is not advantageous for superoxide radicals (O_2^{\bullet}). Additionally, different sacrificial reagents and the influence of molecular oxygen on selectively oxidizing methane to methanol were studied.

After understanding the role of oxidative radicals and the presence of molecular oxygen for the selective oxidation of methane in methanol, an alternative route from the formation of chloromethane was proposed. Thus, the oxidation of methane in the presence of chloride ions in solution and within the crystal structure of the semiconductor were evaluated. The main results of this part are shown in Chapter IV.

3. CHAPTER III: Bismuth oxide activity for CH₄ photooxidation

The content of this chapter is an adaptation of the article entitled "Selective CH₄ reform to methanol through partial oxidation over Bi₂O₃ at room temperature and pressure" by Jéssica A. de Oliveira¹, Jean C. da Cruz¹, Otaciro R. Nascimento, and Caue Ribeiro, published for Applied Catalysis B: Environmental.

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Selective CH_4 reform to methanol through partial oxidation over Bi_2O_3 at room temperature and pressure



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3.1. Abstract

Herein, we propose that an efficient CH₄ partial photooxidation to methanol depends on appropriate band edge positions in photocatalysts. We demonstrated our hypothesis using Bi₂O₃ since this semiconductor have a valence band favorable to produce •OH and a conduction band not advantageous to O₂•• which is crucial to keep O₂ available for •CH₃ capture and CH₃OH formation. A notably and selective partial photooxidation of methane to methanol was observed under visible light at room temperature and pressure. As a result, the productivity of methanol over Bi₂O₃ can reach approximately 3,771 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ with c.a. 65 % selectivity avoiding overoxidation to CO₂. Isotope labeling experiment (¹³CH₄) confirmed that methane acts as the carbon source of methanol and ESR measurements proved the •CH₃ and •OH generation. Besides, Bi₂O₃ exhibited good stability after 5 cycles maintaining a high and selective methanol production. These results provide insight into critical photocatalyst properties for the partial photooxidation of methane to methanol.

3.2. Introduction

Methane is a versatile feedstock for value-added chemicals production, such as oxygenated derivatives or higher hydrocarbons [28,29]. However, the intrinsic properties of methane explain its high stability and low activation for conversion to the products of interest. So far, the currently industrial route for converting methane into chemicals is through synthesis gas (H₂/CO) at high temperatures and pressures, which is an expensive and energy-consuming process [30,31]. Moreover, these reaction conditions often promote the total oxidation of methane to CO₂ and catalyst deactivation. Thus, the partial oxidation of CH₄ to methanol under mild conditions is still a challenge for methane reforming.

Photocatalytic materials can produce oxidative radicals at room temperature and pressure, using water as electron source (leading to hydroxyl radical, •OH), reducing O_2 to produce O_2^{\bullet} , and generating hydroperoxide radical (•OOH) in water [32]. The activation of CH₄ is reported as arising from the abstraction of a hydrogen atom from methane by holes (h⁺) and reactive oxygen species to generate methyl radical (•CH₃) [33–35]. Subsequently, further transformations of methyl radicals lead to the formation of CH₃OH. It is well known that the nature and concentration of the oxidant species are fundamental to selectively oxidize methane to •CH₃ and avoid its overoxidation to CO₂. Molecular oxygen is known as a scavenger of •CH₃ [15], which further promote the methanol selectivity through methyl hydroperoxide generation (Eq. 3.1):

•CH_{3(aq)} + O_{2(g)}
$$\rightarrow$$
 CH₃O₂•_(aq) $\xrightarrow{H^+(aq) + e^-}$ CH₃OOH_(aq) $\xrightarrow{e^-}$ CH₃OH_(l) (3.1)

From a careful analysis of the literature, the critical step for efficient photocatalytic conversion of methane to methanol is suppressing O_2 reduction to superoxide radical to prevent overoxidation to CO_2 [1,2]. Thus, the semiconductor must have a valence band (VB) favorable to produce hydroxyl radicals and a conduction band (CB) not advantageous to O_2^{\bullet} . Furthermore, the hydroxyl radicals' production should be fine-tuned for efficient photocatalytic conversion of CH₄, which leads those oxides frequently reported as poor oxidants as candidates for that specific case.

Bismuth oxide (Bi₂O₃) fits these premises for partial photocatalytic oxidation of CH₄ under visible illumination due to its appropriate band edge position (CB and VB at +0.3 and +3.2 V *vs.* NHE, respectively). The use of this semiconductor for CH₄ reforming arises as one of the novelty points in this work since there is a lack of information about bismuth oxide for that application. Herein, we demonstrate that Bi₂O₃ nanoparticles are efficient catalysts for CH₄ conversion to methanol under visible light at ambient conditions and that O₂ is the key oxidant for process control. The catalyst achieved high methanol yields (>1,000 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), selectivity over 90%, and apparent quantum yield efficiency of 24%, depending on the reaction condition. Encouraged by these results, we show that our proposal about the required band edge positions for photocatalysts seems correct to obtain significant amounts of desirable chemical products under mild conditions.

3.3. Experimental

3.3.1. Synthesis of Bi_2O_3

 Bi_2O_3 was synthesized by a methodology previously described in the literature [36]. Briefly, $Bi(NO_3)_3.5H_2O(0.243 \text{ g})$ and $NH_4VO_3(0.001 \text{ g})$ were added in 5 mL HNO₃ (4 M) to ensure their complete dissolution. After that, 20 mL Milli-Q water was inserted, and the solution was maintained under continuous stirring for 10 min. Finally, NaOH (1 M) was used to adjust the solution pH to 12, immediately forming

yellow precipitates. The suspension was maintained at 60 °C without stirring over 24 h, and the final powder was centrifuged, cleaned with Milli-Q water until neutral pH, washed with isopropanol, and then dried at 60 °C for 10 h in air.

3.3.2. Characterization

The crystalline structure of Bi₂O₃ was analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD Shimadzu XRD-600 diffractometer at 30 kV and 30 mA using Cu K α radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å) and 2 ° min⁻¹). The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was performed using the Phi5000 Versa ProbeII instrument, with an incident radiation Al K α . Surveys and high-resolution spectra were recorded using a pass energy of 0.8 eV and 0.1 eV, respectively, and for data analysis, the Casa XPS software was used. The C 1s peak was used as a calibration reference. The Tauc method [37] was utilized to calculate the indirect bandgap energy of Bi₂O₃ using the diffuse reflection spectrum (DRS, Shimadzu UV-2600 spectrophotometer). High-resolution transmission electron microscopy images (HRTEM) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) were used to identify crystalline plans and morphologies. At the same time, energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) measurements were performed to evaluate the chemical composition of the as-synthesized sample. The colloidal alcoholic suspension of Bi₂O₃ was dripped on a carbon-coated copper grid and dried in air. The sample was then analyzed on a FEI-TECNAI G2 F20 microscope operated at 200 kV.

A Bi₂O₃ film was prepared for the electrochemical measurements to determine the experimental band edge positions. The synthesized powder was deposited over a fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) cleaned substrate (effective film area c.a. 1 cm²) by spray coating using a suspension containing 1 mg mL⁻¹ of Bi₂O₃ in isopropanol and 0.1 mL of Nafion® [38]. Platinum foil and Ag/AgCl was employed as counter- and reference electrode, respectively, in 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ (pH 7.0). The potential against Ag/AgCl reference ($E_{Ag/AgCl}$) was converted to NHE potential (E_{NHE}) using Eq. (2) [39]. The Mott-Schottky plot [40] was obtained from Eq. 3 where *C* is the space charge capacitance (F), *e* is the elementary charge (1.60 x 10⁻¹⁹ C), *A* is the Bi₂O₃ film area (1 cm²), ε is the dielectric constant (46 for Bi₂O₃) [41], ε_0 is the permittivity of free space (8.85 x 10⁻¹⁴ F cm⁻¹), N_D is the donor density (cm⁻³), *k* is the relative dielectric constant, *T* is the absolute temperature, *q* is the electronic charge (kT/q is 26 mV at room temperature [42]), *E* is the applied potential (V), and E_{fb} corresponds to the flat band potential (V).

$$E_{\rm NHE} = E_{\rm Ag/AgCl} + 0.197$$
 (3.2)

$$\frac{1}{C^2} = \frac{2}{e A^2 \epsilon \epsilon_0 N_D} \left(E - E_{fb} - \frac{kT}{q} \right)$$
(3.3)

3.3.3. Partial photooxidation of CH₄

The partial photooxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH was performed in a 150 mL homemade-quartz reactor (Fig. 3.1). Briefly, 100 mg Bi₂O₃ was added to 100 mL deionized water, and the suspension was purged with a methane mixture containing 20% mol CH₄ in argon. After 30 min, the mixture flow was interrupted, and the reactor was sealed with Teflon-lined caps. The photoreactions were performed over 4 h, under visible illumination, atmospheric pressure, and continuous stirring. Six Philips 18 W lamps were used to provide visible light, with a total power of 108 W and light intensity of c.a. 5 mW cm⁻² (or 2.54 x 10⁻⁵ Einstein min⁻¹). The reaction system was maintained at ambient conditions (25 °C and atmospheric pressure). The chemicals were added previously to the CH₄ purging for the experiments carried out with sacrificial reagents. The reaction in the presence of H₂O₂ was accomplished using a mixture of 60 mL deionized water and 40 mL of a 2.0 mM H₂O₂ solution [10]. The 1.0 mM AgNO₃ [43] and O₂ were also evaluated for the photooxidation experiments. But for the analysis with molecular oxygen, 1 mL pure O₂ was added into the quartz reactor only after the CH₄ purging and subsequent sealing.



FIGURE 3.1 - Schematic illustration of the experimental setup for the partial photooxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH.

Gas chromatography (GC Thermo CP-3800) was employed to identify and quantify the products in the gaseous aliquots (400 μ L). The equipment contained a flame ionization detector (FID) at 150 °C, a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) at 200 °C, and a methanizer at 350 °C. The carrier gas was argon; a molecular sieve 13X and a Porapak Q column were also used. The detection of the liquid products was performed at 25 °C using ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) (600 MHz, AscendTM 600 Bruker). Sample aliquots (540 μ L) were mixed with 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl)propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄). The water peak was suppressed through a WET procedure, and the NMR data were analyzed using MestReNova software.

The selectivity of methanol was defined as the ratio of the moles of produced methanol (n_{CH_3OH}) to the total moles of all the carbonaceous products (n_{total}), Eq. (3.4).

Selectivity (%) =
$$\left(\frac{n_{CH_3OH}}{n_{total}}\right) \times 100$$
 (3.4)

The turnover number (TON) can be described as the quantity in moles of all the carbonaceous products per active catalytic site. Considering that the total amount of active sites is complicated to estimate, the photocatalyst moles, $n_{photocatalyst}$, were approximated as the moles of active sites [17], according to Eq. (3.5).

$$TON = \frac{n_{total}}{n_{photocatalyst}}$$
(3.5)

Eq. (3.6) allows the determination of the apparent quantum yield (AQY) for methanol production, where λ is the wavelength of the incident visible light. The number of incident photons, $n_{photons}$, was estimated by the chemical actinometry methodology using a Hatchard-Parker actinometer [44]. The stoichiometric coefficients in Eq. (3.6) were determined according to the procedure described in Supplementary Information.

$$AQY(\lambda) = \frac{\text{number of transferred electrons}}{\text{number of incident photons}} \times 100$$
$$AQY(\lambda) = \frac{\left(3n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} + 1n_{\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}}\right)}{n_{\text{photons}}} \times 100$$
(3.6)

A Perkin Elmer luminescence spectrometer (model LS-50b) was used to probe the presence of hydroxyl radicals (•OH) by photoluminescence spectra (PL). Hydroxyl radicals react with terephthalic acid (TPA), forming 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid, Fig. A1, which can be detected by fluorescence analysis. 0.50 mM TPA was prepared in 2.0 mM NaOH [45]. Different conditions of CH₄ photooxidation were repeated with the TPA solution instead of deionized water. After 4 h of reaction under visible light, the fluorescence measurements of the liquid phase were obtained with 315 nm excitation since, at this wavelength, 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid has a peak at c.a. 425 nm. As observed from Fig. A1, the concentration of 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid is directly proportional to the concentration of •OH radicals.

Electron spin resonance (ESR) measurements was performed on a Varian E109 Model operating at X-band (9.5 GHz) and room temperature. The analyzed aqueous solutions were enclosed in a quartz cell and 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO, c.a. 177 mM in deionized water) was used as spin trap. The as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ (5 mg) was added to 1 mL DMPO solution and subsequently 1 mL of the standard gas containing

20% mol CH₄ in argon was purged into the system. Experiments with the addition of 10 μ L H₂O₂ (30% v/v) was also performed. The light-irradiation was achieved employing a 100 W halogen lamp with an incident light intensity of ~100 mW cm⁻². The spectral simulation was performed using the chili function of EasySpin package [46] and supported the experimental data.

Spectrophotometric method previously described in the literature was used to determine hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) generated *in situ* [47]. Then, 0.5 mL of the liquid aliquots of the photoreactions were mixed with 20.75 mL deionized water containing 2.5 mL of phosphate buffer (0.5 M, pH 6.0), 1 mL of KI solution (1 M), and 0.25 mL of peroxidase (POD) (100 units mL⁻¹). After 15 s, 2.5 mL of the sample was transferred into 1 cm quartz cell and analyzed by UV–Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1601 PC) at 350 nm.

3.4. Results and discussion

3.4.1. Characterization

We characterized the sample structure to understand the catalyst features intrinsically associated with the conversion yields. The crystallographic pattern of the assynthesized semiconductor (Fig. 3.2a) shows pure Bi_2O_3 mainly in the δ -phase. The cubic γ -Bi₂O₃ is metastable, while δ -Bi₂O₃ is formed from the monoclinic α -Bi₂O₃ [48]. Thus, the γ - and α - polymorphous structures are observed as secondary phases of the assynthesized Bi₂O₃. Bismuth oxide with multiple phases can be easily synthesized in practice, usually forming homojunctions [49,50] that can positively affect the photoactivity [51]. The chemical states and the composition of Bi₂O₃ sample were also examined by XPS. The XPS survey spectrum (Fig. A2a) confirmed the presence of only Bi, O, and C elements in the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃. No V 2p signal was observed (Fig. A2b), confirming the successful synthesis of Bi₂O₃ without impurities. In the highresolution Bi 4f spectrum (Fig. 3.2b), two fitted peaks at 157.9 and 163.2 eV can be ascribed to Bi $4f_{7/2}$ and Bi $4f_{5/2}$ of Bi³⁺, respectively [52]. The O 1s high-resolution spectrum (Fig. 3.2c) can be deconvoluted into three peaks at 528.6, 529.9, and 531.7 eV, which can be assigned to the lattice oxygen, oxygen vacancies, and surface adsorbed oxygen species, respectively [53,54]. Furthermore, the oxygen vacancies in the Bi₂O₃surface facilitates the adsorption and activation of the adsorbed oxygen to form reactive species [55].



FIGURE 3.2 - (a) XRD patterns, high-resolution XPS spectra of (b) Bi 4f and (c) O 1s, and (d) Tauc plot of the as-synthesized Bi_2O_3 .

Regarding the optical properties, the spectrum in Fig. 3.2(d) shows that our Bi₂O₃ sample presents narrow indirect bandgap values of c.a. 2.9 eV (δ -Bi₂O₃) [36], 2.3 eV (α -Bi₂O₃) [56] and an extra photon energy shoulder at about 1.2 eV (γ -Bi₂O₃) [57] attributed to the existence of multiple phases. According to Fig. A3, the photon absorption occurs between 520 and 340 nm in the blue/violet region of the visible-light spectrum, demonstrating that the visible bandgap could provide light-harvesting for favoring the photoactivity under sunlight conditions. STEM images showed that the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ presents a cubic morphology (Fig. 3.3a) between 50-200 nm containing nanoparticles of ~3 nm attached to the cube surface in an organized fashion (inset of Fig. 3.3b). A *d*-spacing of 3.8 Å was observed in Fig. 3.3c, corresponding to the (110) plane of δ -Bi₂O₃. Furthermore, the EDX analysis (Fig. 3.3d) confirms a homogeneous distribution of Bi and O elements without impurities, which is consistent with XPS analysis (Fig A3).



FIGURE 3.3 - (a-b) STEM dark- and bright-field images, (c) HRTEM micrography, and (d) EDX of the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃.

Fig. 3.4a shows the Mott-Schottky plot for the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ in which the positive slope is characteristic of an *n*-type semiconductor [42]. The flat-band potential (φ_{fb}) was determined at +0.51 V vs. NHE from the *x*-axis intercepts. For *n*-type semiconductors, this φ_{fb} value can be approximated to the conduction band minimum

(CB) [58,59]. Since the as-synthesized sample exhibited only one positive slope, all the Bi_2O_3 crystalline phases present the same CB. Considering the bandgaps determined from DRS (Fig. 3.2b), the CB of Bi_2O_3 -homojunction was estimated at +0.5 V vs. NHE while the valence band (VB) of δ -, α -, and γ -Bi₂O₃ were approximated at +3.4 V, +2.8, and +1.7 V vs. NHE, respectively. The slopes in Fig. 3.4a provide the average donor density (1.21 x 10^{17} cm⁻³) that suggested a carrier density appropriate for photocatalytic applications [42,60].



FIGURE 3.4 - (a) Mott-Schottky plot for the as-synthesized Bi_2O_3/FTO . The experiment was achieved in 0.1 M Na_2SO_4 (pH 7.0). (b) Bi_2O_3 -homojunction Z-scheme: required band edge positions for semiconductors being adequate photocatalysts for the partial oxidation of methane to methanol.

PL experiments (Fig. A4) using terephthalic acid as fluorescent probe showed the formation of hydroxyl radicals. Terephthalic acid traps •OH species to produce 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid that emits a fluorescence sign at c.a. 425 nm with 315 nm excitation. Consequently, the hydroxyl radicals can be detected indirectly since the emission peak attributed to 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid is proportional to the concentration of •OH species [45]. As our homojunction system produces •OH, the photocatalytic mechanism may follow a Z-scheme pathway for electron-hole separation whereas γ -Bi₂O₃ does not present the require potential to form •OH. Thus, the photoinduced holes migrated to the δ -Bi₂O₃ phase. As reported in the literature, the presence of more than one valence state in a Z-scheme suggests that the photogenerated electrons are hopped to the neighboring intermediate state, actively transporting the electron from the high valence state to the low valence one until the excitation to the conduction band of γ -Bi₂O₃ [61,62]. Therefore, the CB/VB positions of the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ can be schematically represented according to Fig. 3.4b, which emphasizes the required band edge positions for a semiconductor being a promising photocatalyst in partial photooxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH. In other words, the CB edge position is more positive than the reduction potential of O_2 to O_2^{\bullet} and the VB edge position is above the $\bullet OH$ generation potential. All the reduction potentials are listed as reported in the literature [63,64].

3.4.2. Partial photooxidation of CH₄

According to Fig. 3.4b, the photooxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH is a radical mechanism. To confirm this hypothesis, ESR measurements (Fig. 3.5) were performed in conditions similar to those used to accomplish the partial methane photooxidation. Methyl and hydroxyl radicals were detected as expected from the proposed reaction mechanism. The presence of the stable radical adducts DMPO-(OH)₂ can be observed only in high concentrations of •OH, further indicating the ability of our Bi₂O₃-homojunction Z-scheme in generating hydroxyl radicals. However, Fig. 3.5a showed that the simultaneous addition of H_2O_2 and CH₄ led to the inhibition of •CH₃ generation since the H_2O_2 increases the •OH concentration and that could be a competitive reaction with the methyl radical formation. Thus, as previously proposed, there is an optimal •OH concentration for the partial photooxidation of CH₄. Hydroperoxyl radicals (•OOH) were also identified in the presence of CH₄ and light, agreeing with the route of CH₃OOH formation.

Unsurprisingly, superoxide radical was not observed, confirming the Motty-Schottky results that our system does not present the required band edge position to reduce oxygen molecules to $O_2^{\bullet-}$.

A remarkable finding is that even before the light-irradiation the generation of •CH₃ is observed (Fig. 3.5b), increasing its signal intensity with time (Fig. A5a). It suggests high interaction of methane and Bi₂O₃-surfaces. A simulation of the presence of these different radicals (Fig. A5c) in the reaction medium was performed (Fig. A5b) and a coherence was revealed between the experimental and simulated ESR data. The Cr(III):MgO signal (g = 1.9797) (Fig. A5d) was used to calibrate magnetic field and relative signal intensities.



FIGURE 3.5 - Experimental ESR spectra of the DMPO solution containing the assynthesized Bi_2O_3 and the methane standard gas under (a) light-irradiation and (b) dark. Cr(III):MgO signal (g = 1.9797) used to calibrate magnetic field and relative signal intensities.

A comprehensive view of our photocatalytic results is depicted in Table 3.1, which shows the CH₄ conversion yields for all the studied conditions with Bi₂O₃ as the photocatalyst. Notably, this material presented good photoactivity for the CH₄ conversion into valuable organic compounds, producing around 208 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ of methanol (Table 3.1). As demonstrated by the ESR analysis (Fig. 3.5), the Bi₂O₃ surface actives the methane even without illumination. Analysis of liquid aliquot was performed after 30 min purge of the CH₄ standard gas to investigate the possible products formed by the dark-generated methyl radical. Methanol, ethanol, acetic acid, dissolved methane, and glycerol were detected, probably due to the reactivity of oxygen vacancies, observed by XPS (Fig. 3.2c), with adsorbed CH₄. Oxygen vacancies can enhance the adsorption and fixation of CH₄ on the photocatalyst surface [65,66].

TABLE 3.1 - Production rate of liquid chemicals from the partial photooxidation of CH_4 by $Bi_2O_3^*$.

Sample	Production rate (μ mol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)			
Sumple	Methanol	Acetone	Acetic acid	Ethanol
**Bi ₂ O ₃ after 30 min purge	1.00 µmol	0.00	0.20 µmol	0.60 µmol
Bi ₂ O ₃	207.75	4.27	76.50	10.09
Bi ₂ O ₃ /AgNO ₃	135.51	4.42	1.17	5.41
Bi ₂ O ₃ /H ₂ O ₂	726.15	165.03	492.16	22.01
Bi ₂ O ₃ /O ₂	1,199.61	221.88	540.82	8.03
***Bi2O3/Dark	25.76	0.00	0.00	0.00
H_2O	53.88	11.00	0.00	0.00

* Reaction conditions: 1 g L⁻¹ Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL under visible-light illumination (108 W and ~5 mW cm⁻²). The production rates were determined after 4 h of reaction using a mixture of CH₄ in argon (20% mol CH₄). ** This condition represents the liquid chemicals produced by the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ after 30 min CH₄ purge i.e. before the beginning of the photocatalytic process. Dissolved methane (7.4 µmol) and glycerol (23.7 µmol) were also detected. The products are presented only as moles (µmol) because in this experimental setup there are no photoreactions performed over 4 h.

*** This condition represents the liquid chemicals produced by the as-synthesized Bi_2O_3 under dark over 4 h. Glycerol was also detected in a production rate of c.a. 44 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹.
One can see that the methanol yields are much higher than the other products for all conditions, though significantly high C_{2+} products (e.g., acetone and acetic acid) are seen in some situations. Indeed, the significant amounts of higher carbon species in the Bi₂O₃/H₂O₂ and Bi₂O₃/O₂ conditions are a further indicative of the importance of hydrogen peroxide and molecular oxygen to improve the methanol formation since these byproducts are originated from methanol [67,68]. Please, see in the Appendix the reaction steps that we propose to produce the different chemicals from the CH₄ photooxidation.

The •OH is expected to oxidize methane and generate methyl radicals (•CH₃) that finally react with •OH to form methanol, Eqs. (3.7-3.10) [2,35]. On the other hand, experiments of CH₄ oxidation with isotopically labeled oxygen (¹⁸O₂) proved that O₂ provides the oxygen for the CH₃OH [15,17]. Thus, it has been proposed that molecular oxygen acts as a scavenger of •CH₃, consequently enhancing the production of methanol, Eqs. (3.11-3.12). In this sense, the semiconductor should have a conduction band below the O₂ potential to O₂•⁻ for O₂ only scavenging •CH₃ and not the photogenerated electrons.

$$\operatorname{Bi}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{3(s)} \xrightarrow{hv \text{ (visible-light)}} h^{+} + e^{-}$$
(3.7)

$$H_2O_{(1)} + h^+ \rightarrow \bullet OH_{(aq)} + H^+_{(aq)}$$
(3.8)

$$CH_{4(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet CH_{3(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$
(3.9)

$$\bullet CH_{3(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \to CH_3 OH_{(aq)}$$
(3.10)

$$\bullet CH_{3(aq)} + O_{2(g)} \to CH_3O_2\bullet_{(aq)}$$
(3.11)

$$CH_{3}O_{2}\bullet_{(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)} + O_{2(aq)}$$

$$(3.12)$$

Studies have attempted to further improve the formation and selectivity of methanol by adding counter reagents into the reaction medium to modify the concentration of hydroxyl radicals or improve the •CH₃ scavenging, such as molecular oxygen [15], hydrogen peroxide [1], and AgNO₃. For each component, we expect a different behavior: O₂ inclusion increases its availability in the medium, in which H₂O₂ may be produced from O₂ reduction (O₂/H₂O₂: 0.695 V *vs.* NHE) (Eq. 3.13) [69]; H₂O₂

oxidation increases the dissolved O_2 (Eq. 3.14) while H_2O_2 reduction leads to OH⁻ and •OH (H_2O_2 /•OH: 1.14 V *vs.* NHE) (Eq. 3.15); nitrate ions reduce the •OH concentration (Eq. 3.16) [13] while silver improves the separation of the photogenerated charges (Eq. 3.17) [43]. To assess the formation of hydrogen peroxide from O_2 reduction, spectrophotometric method was performed (Fig. A6) [47] and the H_2O_2 generation was confirmed. Along with these observations, all the mentioned chemicals were evaluated for methane oxidation to methanol using the Bi₂O₃ as photocatalysts (Fig. 3.6).

$$O_{2(g)} + 2H^{+}_{(aq)} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow H_2O_{2(aq)}$$
 (3.13)

$$H_2O_{2(aq)} \to H_2O_{(l)} + 1/2O_{2(g)}$$
 (3.14)

$$H_2O_{2(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet OH_{(aq)} + OH_{(aq)}$$
(3.15)

$$NO_{3}_{(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} + H^{+}_{(aq)} \to NO_{3}_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)}$$
(3.16)

$$Ag^{+}_{(aq)} + e^{-} \rightarrow Ag^{0}_{(s)}$$
(3.17)



FIGURE 3.6 - Production of chemicals from the partial photooxidation of CH_4 after 4 h: (a) liquid compounds and (b) gaseous compounds. The experiments were carried out using visible-light illumination and 1 g L⁻¹ Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL solution at ambient conditions.

AgNO₃ negatively affected the photoactivity of Bi₂O₃ since nitrate ions decrease the methanol production by the decrease of •OH concentration and the formation of metallic silver that blocks the active sites of the semiconductor. Unsurprisingly, H₂O₂ and O₂ considerably enhance the methanol production (Fig. 3.6a), mainly the molecular oxygen that seems to play a critical role in the partial oxidation of methane to methanol by the output of ~1,200 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹. Regarding O₂ production, the reaction carried out with H₂O₂ produced high amounts of O₂ (~280 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) due to the competitive reaction of H₂O₂ decomposition as shown in Eq. (3.14).

It has been proposed that methanol can also be formed from methyl hydroperoxide (CH₃OOH), Eq. 3.18 [17]. For the routes of methanol production represented by Eqs. 3.12 and 3.19, the O₂ plays an essential role through the •CH₃ scavenging. Trace amounts of CH₃OOH ($<5 \mu$ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) were observed only in the reactions with H₂O₂ and O₂, probably due to the difficulty of detecting this compound. These results were consistent with ESR measurements (Fig 3.5a). Despite being no consensus about the primary mechanism of CH₃OH production, the overall photoactivity is more sensitive to the presence of O₂ than H₂O₂. All the ¹H NMR are presented in the Supplementary Information (Fig. A7-A8). GC analyses were also used as complementary analytical technique to confirm the product concentration and estimate the amount of dissolved CH₄ (Fig. A9-A13).

$$CH_{3}O_{2}\bullet_{(aq)} + H^{+}_{(aq)} + e^{-} \rightarrow CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)}$$
(3.18)

$$CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)} + 2e^{-} + 2H^{+}_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)}$$

$$(3.19)$$

XRD analyses on the photocatalyst were performed after the photoreactions to identify a possible explanation for this trend, and no significant changes of the crystalline phases were observed (Fig. A15). Comparing our best result (Bi_2O_3/O_2) with the production rates reported in the literature (Fig. 3.7), it is noticeable that our work obtained comparable yields of methanol. The highest methanol formation using photocatalysis found in the literature (>10,000 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) was achieved under high pressure of 4 MPa (Table A3.1), while we performed all the photoreactions at atmospheric pressure. It is also indicative that selecting a semiconductor with suitable band edge positions is crucial for improving methanol formation. Furthermore, it is outstanding that

no carbon dioxide or small quantities of CO_2 was produced over Bi_2O_3 in our experiments (Fig. 3.6b). The reaction without a semiconductor and under dark also showed that the photocatalyst and visible illumination is essential to convert CH_4 into CH_3OH (Fig. 3.6a).



FIGURE 3.7 - Production rates of methanol from the partial photooxidation of CH₄: comparison between the best result obtained in this work and the values reported in the literature in the last 20 years. The alphabetic entries are related to the reaction conditions presented in Table A3.1.

Although pure Bi_2O_3 and Bi_2O_3 in the presence of AgNO₃ exhibited poor methanol production rates, the highest methanol selectivity was obtained in these conditions (Fig. 3.8a). The turnover number (TON) for Bi_2O_3/O_2 , calculated as 3.7, suggests that the CH₄ oxidation is an authentic photocatalytic reaction (TON > 1) [17]. The apparent quantum yield (AQY), Fig. 3.8b, demonstrated that the photonic efficiency of our process reached approximately 24% of efficiency in absorbing photons to form methanol. The stability of the photocatalyst was examined over five consecutive cycle tests with each run of 4 h and without any activation processes between cyclic tests (Fig. 3.8c). Even after the 5th cycle, the production and selectivity for methanol still maintain at c.a. 704 µmol g⁻¹ and 73%, respectively, exhibiting the outstanding stability of Bi₂O₃.



FIGURE 3.8 - (a) Selectivity of the photoreaction for the methanol formation; (b) apparent quantum yield for the methanol production; and (c) recycle reactions of the partial photooxidation of CH_4 using 1 g L⁻¹ Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL deionized water. Each cycle lasts 4 h under visible-light illumination.

The methane concentration is also influent in the kinetics. We performed the reaction with pure CH₄ (99%), 5 times the original CH₄ concentration, using Bi₂O₃ with no counter reactant. As shown in Fig. 3.9a, the catalyst led to high production rates of methanol (~3,771 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and acetic acid (~2,036 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) after 4 h of reaction under visible-light illumination, i.e., a significantly higher TON. It shows that the reaction can be optimized to even better yields. The selectivity of methanol was around 65%. In addition, Bi₂O₃ exhibited no activity to CO and CO₂ in this condition, as expected since the acetic acid pathway involves the coupling of methyl radicals and *CO [70]. Further to prove that CH₄ is the carbon source for methanol generation, we conducted an isotope labeling experiment with ¹³CH₄ as the reactant. As displayed in Fig. 3.9b, the ¹³C NMR spectrum shows one peak at 48.6 ppm attributed to the methanol, confirming that CH₃OH comes from CH₄ photooxidation.



FIGURE 3.9 - (a) Production rates of chemicals from the partial photooxidation of pure CH_4 after 4 h. The experiments were carried out using visible-light illumination and 1 g L^{-1} Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL solution at ambient conditions. (b) ¹³C NMR spectrum for the reaction solution.

3.5. Conclusion

We propose that the partial oxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH is favored catalyzed by semiconductors with a conduction band edge position below the reduction potential of $O_2 \bullet / O_2$ (-0.3 V *vs.* NHE at pH 7), allowing the O_2 coupling with •CH₃. Bi₂O₃ is an active photocatalyst for the partial oxidation of methane to methanol under visiblelight and ambient conditions since, having the required band edge positions, yielded 3,700 µmol g⁻¹ CH₃OH from pure CH₄ at room temperature and atmospheric pressure. ESR experiments proved the formation of •CH₃ and •OH while no superoxide radical was detected, as expected by the Mott-Schottky measurements. O₂ has a dominant role by capturing •CH₃ to form methanol and the H₂O₂ oxidation can be used to positively affects the local production of O₂.

4. CHAPTER IV: CH₄ reforming driven by BiOCl as photocatalyst

The content of this chapter is an adaptation of the article entitled **"Unveiling the selective CH4 photocatalytic reform to oxygenates under visible light driven by intermediate radicals formation"** by Jean C. da Cruz, Jéssica A. de Oliveira, Otaciro R. Nascimento, Sanjay Mathur, and Caue Ribeiro that is under production.

4.1. Abstract

We demonstrated that chlorine-intermediates are a suitable pathway for a controlled methane photooxidation to methanol *via* chloromethane formation. Beyond that we showed that structural chloride in a perovskite-type crystalline structure can be used in a cycle-system in which the interlayer Cl⁻ is easily removed from the unity cell and the excess of Cl⁻ in solution is readily added back to the interlayer to regenerate the photocatalyst. Chlorine species in solution react quickly with CH₄ to form CH₃Cl that, by a simple substitution reaction with hydroxyl ion, lately produces methanol. Our best CH₃OH production was around 1300 μ mol g⁻¹ without the need of foreign chemicals, demonstrating the feasibility of our proposed close-system for continuous methanol generation.

4.2. Introduction

Methane is an inert molecule mainly due to the stability of the C–H bonds $(434 \text{ KJ mol}^{-1})$ [2], poor polarizability (2.84 x 10⁻⁴⁰ C² m² J⁻¹) [12], and low proton affinity (544 KJ mol⁻¹) [71]. The methane conversion to oxygenates, especially methanol, is of great interest since in addition to minimizing the emission of one of the most harmful greenhouse gases [3], CH₃OH can be used as a building block for many chemicals. However, the harsher temperature/pressure conditions (400-800 K and 20-40 bar) [1] for current CH₄ to methanol makes the process cost- and energy- intensive, limiting its potential uses. The photochemical CH₄ oxidation by solar light could provide a sustainable alternative, but it lacks on an adequate way to activate this molecule in a very selective manner, avoiding its complete oxidation to CO₂ [72]. H₂O₂ is reported as an adequate activator for methane-controlled oxidation [1] but the molecular mechanism is still disputed since in photocatalytical systems, H₂O₂ can be either oxidized, leading to O₂, or reduced, leading to OH⁻ + •OH. Thus, the control of the reaction is still deficient.

Recently we demonstrated that semiconductors with low conduction band energies can increase the methane conversion to methanol. We showed that Bi_2O_3 , as a model material for a proof-of-concept, produces •OH by holes in valence band that can abstract one hydrogen from methane. However, the controlled oxidation (i.e., methanol formation) only occurs if O_2 is still present – in other words, the catalyst should have appropriate band edge positions to avoid the reaction $O_2 => O_2^{\bullet^-}$. We showed that the role Based in these findings, we propose that the reaction control requires intermediates that can be adequately converted to CH₃OH, avoiding the overoxidation. CH₄ chlorination is the oldest substitution reaction [73,74] and chloromethane (CH₃Cl) is recognized as an appealing intermediate to produce methanol and ethers by simple mixture in water [75,76]. The reaction of CH₄ against Cl radicals easily leads to CH₃Cl, being these radicals formed by Cl₂ irradiation under UV light, with high selectivity for CH₃Cl under a CH₄:Cl₂ molar ratio > 10 [75]. Although the literature reports methane oxidation in the presence of chloride salts [43], the role of Cl⁻ was interpreted by them as only affecting the photogenerated charges' separation. Indeed, some reports explore the electrochemical Cl₂ production followed by radical formation by UV irradiation, or by modification of electrochemical conditions [76,77], and CH₄ halogenation induced by photocatalysts [78–80]. Nevertheless, the solar light utilization in these setups is still limited since the reaction is not activated by visible light. To that, materials that can perform the Cl⁻ reduction are the best candidates.

Thus, we propose to control the CH₄ oxidation by an indirect route, driven by the formation of Cl radicals in solution using Bi-based semiconductors excited in visible light. Bi₂O₃ is again a promising candidate, but we propose that BiOCl is more adequate to promote methanol formation via CH₃Cl as intermediate. The chloride ion into its crystalline structure could be continuously used to enhance the photoactivity while the photocatalyst can be regenerated by the Cl⁻ in solution coming from the substitution reaction between chloromethane and hydroxyl ion. BiOCl is composed by $[Bi_2O_2]^{2+}$ layers intercalated by double layers of Cl⁻ organized in a perovskite structure. As the chloride ions are bonded to the adjacent layers by weak Van der Waals interactions, Cl⁻ can be easily removed from the crystal structure and the excess of Cl⁻ in solution can be readily added back to the crystalline structure [81,82]. This cycle-based system is represented in Fig. 4.1. Therefore, we hypothesize that the surface Cl can be reduced to form the methyl radical, with no need of further chloride addition. Our results show that BiOCl, a nontoxic, affordable, and eco-friendly semiconductor [74], promotes the reaction with no need of O₂ to control the reaction, i.e., the reaction was done directly in water, showing a new way for selective oxygenates formation in a sustainable manner.



FIGURE 4.1 - Schematic illustration of the proposed mechanism for methanol production by chlorine-intermediates cycle-based system.

4.3. Experimental

4.3.1. Synthesis of Bi_2O_3 and BiOCl

Bismuth oxide (Bi_2O_3) was synthesized by the method described elsewhere [14,36]. BiOCl was synthesized by a precipitation method described elsewhere [14,36]. Briefly, 100 mM Bi(NO₃)₃.5H₂O (0.243 g, Vetec) and 2 mM NH₄VO₃ (0.001 g, Vetec) were dissolved in 4 M HCl (5 mL, Synth). Afterwards, 20 ml deionized water was added, and the final solution was continuously stirred for 10 min. Then, the solution pH was adjusted to 12 by the addition of 1 M NaOH (Synth) and yellow powders were immediately precipitated. The suspension was heated at 60 °C for 24 h without stirring and the final products were centrifugated and washed with deionized water for several times until neutral pH. Finally, the samples were washed one more time with isopropanol and dried at 80 °C for 10 h in air. All the chemicals were used as received without further purification.

4.3.2. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was carried out at a Shimadzu XRD-600 diffractometer using Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418$ Å), 30 kV, 30 mA, and 2° min⁻¹. The Phi5000 Versa ProbeII equipment and an incident radiation of Al K α were used to perform the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The Casa XPS software was used to analyze the data. Surveys and high-resolution spectra were obtained using pass energies of 0.8 eV and 0.1 eV, respectively. The C 1s peak was utilized as a calibration reference. Colloidal alcoholic suspension of BiOC1 was prepared, dripped on a carbon-coated copper grid, and allowed to dry in the open air. A FEI-TECNAI G2 F20 and Thermo Fisher Scientific Talos F200C microscopes running at 200 kV were then used to evaluate the sample by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM).

4.3.3. Photocatalysis: CH₄ reforming

The CH₄ reforming was performed in a 150 mL homemade-quartz reactor (Fig. 3.1). In brief, 100 mg of catalyst was mixed into 100 mL of deionized water. The suspension was continuously purged with a mixture of methane (20% mol) in argon for 30 min. Then, the gas flow had been interrupted, and Teflon-lined caps were used to seal the system. Experiments containing appropriate amounts of sacrificial reagents were also conducted to assess the role of these chemicals in the photoactivity: (i) 2 mM NaClO₂ (0.018 g, Aldrich); (ii) 1 mL O₂ (99.999%); and (iii) 2 mM NaClO₂ (0.018 g, Aldrich) and 2 mM HCl (16 µL, 38%, Neon). NaClO₂ and HCl were added to the BiOCl suspension prior to the purging process while O₂ was introduced immediately after the CH₄ purging and subsequent seal of the photoreactors. The 2.0 mM NaCl (0.012 g, Synth) and 1 mM FeCl₃ [43] (0.016 g, Vetec) were used with the concentrations usually reported on the literature for partial CH₄ photooxidation. The experiments with 6.0 mM Cl⁻ were performed using the salts CuCl₂ (0.051 g, Vetec), CoCl₂ (0.071 g, Dinâmica), CrCl₃ (0.053 g, Vetec), InCl₃ (0.044 g, Aldrich), and SnCl₂ (0.068 g, Synth). The photoreactions were carried out for 4 h in the presence of visible light using six Philips 18 W lamps with a total power of 108 W and light intensity of approximately 5 mW cm⁻² (or 2.54 x 10^{-5} Einsten min⁻¹). The system was kept at ambient temperature, atmospheric pressure, and constant stirring.

The products in the gaseous aliquots (400 μ L) were identified and measured using gas chromatography (GC Thermo CP-3800). The equipment operated with a methanizer at 350 °C, a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) at 200 °C, and a flame ionization detector (FID) at 150 °C. Argon was used as the carrier gas, along with a Carboxen column and a molecular sieve 13X. The liquid products were detected and quantified using ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), 600 MHz, AscendTM 600 Brucker at 25 °C. 60 μ L of a D₂O solution containing 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl)propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄, 60 of D₂O solution) was added to 540 μ L of the sample aliquots. A WET method was used to suppress the water peak and the MestReNova software was used to process the NMR data.

On a Varian E109 Model running at X-band (9.5 GHz) and room temperature, electron spin resonance (ESR) measurements were made. A quartz cell was utilized to contain the tested aqueous solutions and the spin trap consisting of 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO, 177 mM in deionized water). After adding 5 mg as-synthesized BiOCl to 1 mL DMPO solution, 1 mL of the standard gas (20%mol CH₄ in argon) was introduced into the system. The addition of (i) xx 500 μ L O₂; (ii) 500 uL 2mM NaClO₂ solution; and (iii) 500 μ L 2mM NaClO₂ + HCl solution were also evaluated in independent experiments. A 100 W halogen lamp with an incident light intensity of approximately 100 mW cm² was used to illuminate the setup. The chili function of the EasySpin package was used to carry out the spectrum simulation and support the experimental data.

4.4. Results and discussion

4.4.1. Photocatalytic performance for partial CH₄ reforming

To compare the new achievements with our previous results [14], Bi_2O_3 was used for the preliminary test regarding the methanol production using a cycle-system based on chloride-intermediates. As seen in Table 1, chloride ion improved product formation in almost all cases. The reaction seems to be affected by the cation probably due to a co-catalyst effect (homogeneous) in photooxidation of CH_4 – this assumption is supported by the differences in C2 and C3 products' formation, which depend on subsequent carbon oxidation steps. A short analysis of these products indicate that methyl radicals are interacting with overoxidized C=O groups leading to ethanol (final interaction with H⁺), acetic acid (with OH⁻) or acetone (another methyl group), possibly

stochastically. However, a correlation with cation electronegativity is also possible since the cation with the least electronegativity (Na⁺) lead to the poorest production rates due to its lowest electron affinity that interferes with the separation of the photogenerated charges. In other words, chloride ions can both participate in the methane halogenation (Eq. 4.1) and decrease the concentration of •OH species (Eq. 4.2) while simultaneously the cation ions can improve the separation of the photoinduced charges (Eq. 4.3), consequently, increasing the •OH generation. *M* represents the metal cation and *x* is its oxidation state. The chloromethane formation was confirmed by the detection of trace amounts of CH₃Cl through ¹H NMR (Fig. A4.1-A4.6), proving that chloromethane is an important intermediate in the formation of methanol and other chemicals from CH₄ oxidation.

$$xCH_{4(g)} + MCl_{x(aq)} \rightarrow xCH_{3}Cl_{(aq)} + M^{x^{+}}_{(aq)} + xH^{+}_{(aq)}$$

$$(4.1)$$

$$\operatorname{Cl}^{\circ}_{(\operatorname{aq})} + \operatorname{\bulletOH}_{(\operatorname{aq})} \to \operatorname{HOCl}^{\circ}_{(\operatorname{aq})}$$

$$\tag{4.2}$$

$$M^{x^{+}}_{(aq)} + e^{-} \to M^{0}_{(s)}$$
 (4.3)

Sample	Cation Electronegativity	Production rate (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)			
		Methanol	Ethanol	Acetic acid	Acetone
Bi ₂ O ₃ [14]		208	10	77	4
Bi ₂ O ₃ /NaCl	0.93	142	6	0	4
Bi ₂ O ₃ /FeCl ₃ **	1.83	231	13	2	4
Bi ₂ O ₃ /CuCl ₂	1.90	580	67	406	124
Bi ₂ O ₃ /CoCl ₂	2.55	621	134	151	109
Bi ₂ O ₃ /SnCl ₂	1.96	581	24	211	117
Bi ₂ O ₃ /ZnCl ₂	1.65	559	48	516	137

TABLE 4.1 - Production rate of liquid chemicals from the partial photooxidation of CH₄*.

^{*}Reaction conditions: 1 g L⁻¹ Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL under visible-light illumination (108 W and ~5 mW cm⁻²). The productions rates were determined after 4 h of reaction using a mixture of CH₄ in argon (20% mol CH₄). ^{**}This condition was chosen to perform GC analyses as complementary analytical technique to confirm the product concentration (Fig. A4.7).

To understand how a structural chloride could participate in the reaction, photocatalytic performance was studied using BiOCl, which synthesis has been confirmed by XRD patterns (Fig. A4.8). The CH₄ oxidation reaction was analyzed in



FIGURE 4.2 - Chemicals produced from methane photooxidation using different sacrificial reagents. The assays were performed using 100 mg BiOCl in 100 mL of the aqueous solution under visible-light. The reaction was carried out for 4 h using a mixture of CH₄ in argon (20% mol CH₄)

In general, the water condition had the highest conversion rate, producing around 1300 μ mol g⁻¹ of methanol, 57 μ mol g⁻¹ of ethanol, 435 μ mol g⁻¹ of acetic acid, and produced traces amounts of acetone. However, when oxygen was added as a sacrificial agent, BiOCl activity drastically decreased the production of methanol (25.3 μ mol g⁻¹), ethanol (71.6 μ mol g⁻¹), and acetic acid (14 μ mol g⁻¹) compared to the water condition. Regarding the reduced production of liquid products, it could be associated with the interaction of the adsorbed O₂ with possible oxygen vacancies (OVs) present on the catalyst surface, and/or acting as a trapping agent for the chlorine ions, preventing the chloromethane reaction from proceeding [83]. Moreover, no CO and CO₂ were detected in all these conditions.

The addition of NaClO₂, a stable and non-toxic oxidizing agent, was expected to improve the methane activation and enhance the selectivity towards methanol production through chlorination catalytic reaction, avoiding CH₄ overoxidation. The

conversion to liquid products decreased when compared with H₂O conditions, but still was better than the oxygen condition. About 140 μ mol g⁻¹ of methanol, 32 μ mol g⁻¹ of acetic acid, and 144 μ mol g⁻¹ of ethanol have been observed. It should be noted that among all the conditions, NaClO₂ condition was the best for ethanol production. In addition, traces of CO and CO₂ (1.52 μ mol g⁻¹) were observed. When HCl was added, the tendency continued with an increase in CO₂ production (9.75 μ mol g⁻¹) and methanol and acetic acid production remained effective, while ethanol was not observed.

No changes were observed in the XRD patterns of the as-synthesized sample after the photocatalytic reaction (Fig. A4.8). In summary, BiOCl exhibits promising photocatalytic performance for methane conversion in the presence of sacrificial agents, but reaction conditions need to be carefully controlled to avoid the formation of CO and CO₂, which are undesired products. All the ¹H NMR are shown in the Appendix.

4.4.2. Characterization

XPS was used to investigate the chemical states of the as-synthesized BiOCl, Fig. 4.3. The high-resolution Bi 4f spectrum (Fig. 4.3a) can be deconvoluted into six peaks assigned to $Bi^{(3-x)+}$ (158.5 and 163.8 eV), Bi^{3+} (159.8 and 164.5 eV), and Bi^{5+} (159.8 and 165.7 eV) species in the sample. Additionally, the elemental composition calculated from the XPS peak areas of the Bi species on the surface was 31.33 % $Bi^{(3-x)+}$, 38.63% Bi^{3+} , and 30.04% of Bi^{5+} . The presence of other oxidation states of the metal may be beneficial in the oxidation of methane, since it would result in more empty d orbitals to accept electron donation from the C-H bond of methane, resulting in the reduction of the metal and consequently supporting in proton extraction. Then, based on the backdonation capacity of metals, the initial state of the metal is reconstituted, desorbing the intermediates formed and reconstituting the catalyst [84].

XPS spectra of O 1s (Fig. 4.3b) exhibited four peaks at 529.2, 529.7, 530.8, and 531.9 eV, corresponding to the O-Bi⁵⁺, O-Bi³⁺, oxygen vacancies (OVs), and surface adsorbed oxygen species, respectively. OVs are described in the literature as playing a crucial role in methane activation by facilitating the cleavage of C-H bonds. Moreover, these OVs could interact with metal sites in proximity, thereby promoting a metal redox cycle [21]. In addition, the Cl 2p spectra (Fig. 4.3c) could be deconvoluted into three peaks at 197.3, 198.8, and 200.1 eV, which are ascribed to the Cl $2p_{3/2}$ and Cl

 $2p_{1/2}$ of interlayer Cl⁻. Fig. A4.13 shows the XPS survey spectrum to confirm that the assynthesized BiOCl presents no impurities



FIGURE 4.3 - XPS high-resolution spectra of (a) Bi 4f, (b) O 1s, and (c) Cl 2p of the assynthesized BiOCl.

The STEM image, Fig. 4.4a, shows an irregular morphology shape composed by agglomerated nanometer particles of c.a. 15 nm. A *d*-spacing of 1.93 Å is seen in the HRTEM, Fig. 4.4b, which corresponds to the $(2\ 0\ 0)$ plane of BiOCl. Additionally, the EDX measurements in Fig. 4.4c demonstrate the uniform distribution of Bi, O, and Cl, confirming once more that the sample presents no contaminations.



FIGURE 4.4 - (a) STEM bright-field image; (b) HRTEM micrography; and (c) EDX of the as-synthesized BiOCl. Colored regions only indicate different morphologies or element distribution.

4.4.3. Mechanism insights

To further investigate how sacrificial reagents act during photooxidation of methane, we conducted *in situ* ESR measurements with spin-trap DMPO, in the different conditions studied. Pure BiOCl, Fig. 4.5a, presents a well-controlled kinetics, producing methyl (•CH₃), hydroxyl (•OH) radicals and DMPO-(OH)₂ adduct in initial times. As we have shown in previous work, the DMPO-(OH)₂ adduct is only formed at high concentrations of •OH [14]. After 100 min under light irradiation (Fig. A4.14), there is no •CH₃ anymore, but hypochlorite radical (•OCl) was detected and all signal intensities for •OH and DMPO-(OH)₂ increased. The •OCl radical formation could be explained by chloride ions that are removed from the crystal structure of BiOCl, followed by the formation of the HOCl species through reaction with hydroxyl radicals (Eq. 4.4-4.6).

$$2\mathrm{Cl}_{(\mathrm{aq})}^{+} + 2\mathrm{h}^{+} \to \mathrm{Cl}_{2(\mathrm{g})}$$

$$(4.4)$$

$$\operatorname{Cl}_{2(g)} + \operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{(l)} \longrightarrow \operatorname{HOCl}_{(aq)} + \operatorname{H}^{+}_{(aq)} + \operatorname{Cl}^{-}_{(aq)}$$

$$(4.5)$$

$$HOCl_{(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet OCl_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(1)}$$

$$(4.6)$$



FIGURE 4.5 - ESR measurements of the DMPO solution containing: (a) pure BiOCl; (b) BiOCl/O₂; (c) BiOCl/NaClO₂; and (d) BiOCl/NaClO₂/HCl.

The Cl⁻ oxidation (E⁰ (Cl⁻/Cl₂) = +1.4 V vs. RHE), (Eq. 4.7-4.9) is more favorable than water oxidation (E⁰ (H₂O/•OH) = +2.3 V vs. RHE), being the oxidation process of the interlayer Cl⁻ (Eq. 4.9) even more likely since the density states close to

the maximum valence band of BiOCl is composed by Cl 3p orbitals as Cl has a lower electronegativity than O. Thus, the chloride ions can prevent the CH₄ overoxidation through hindering the formation of hydroxyl radical [73,81].

$$2\mathrm{Cl}_{(\mathrm{aq})}^{-} + 2\mathrm{h}^{+} \rightarrow \mathrm{Cl}_{2(\mathrm{g})} \qquad \qquad \mathrm{E}^{0} = +1.4 \mathrm{~V} \ vs. \mathrm{~RHE} \qquad (4.7)$$

$$\operatorname{Cl}_{(\mathrm{aq})}^{+} + \mathrm{h}^{+} \rightarrow \operatorname{\bullet}_{\mathrm{Cl}_{(\mathrm{aq})}} E^{0} = +2.5 \text{ V vs. RHE}$$

$$(4.8)$$

 $2C\Gamma_{(interlayer)} + 2h^+ \rightarrow Cl_{2(q)}$ $E^0 = +0.5 \text{ V vs. RHE}$ (4.9)

Again, in the conditions with O_2 and $NaClO_2$ (Fig. 4.5b-c), •OH, •OCl radicals, and DMPO-(OH)₂ adduct were detected. However, the kinetics of radical formation with molecular oxygen was more intense since the radical signals were observed in the dark and increased throughout the reaction under light-irradiation. Surprisingly, in this condition, oxygen inhibited the photocatalytic efficiency of product formation. This inhibition is probably due to the reaction between oxygen and chloride ions released from the catalyst, leading to the formation of •OCl radicals in the early stages and hindering the involvement of oxygen in the methane photo-oxidation steps through the methyl radical scavenging to form CH_3O_2 •. Moreover, oxygen can also react with oxygen vacancies present on the catalyst surface, preventing the activation of the methane molecule. It is widely known that oxygen species play a pivotal role not only in facilitating the metal's re-oxidation process but also in catalyzing the generation of diverse oxidation states.

On the other hand, NaClO₂ condition presents slower kinetics of radical formation. This slower kinetics is likely attributed to the higher chloride concentration in the medium before the reaction, which delays the leaching of chloride ions from the BiOCl layers and hinders the re-oxidation cycle of the catalyst's metallic center. Furthermore, this slower kinetics allows the formation of C_{2+} products as there is sufficient time for C-C coupling, leading to increased production of ethanol (Fig. 4.2). Finally, the NaClO₂/HCl condition leads to DMPO totally oxidized (DPMO-Ox) even in initial times, indicating that the medium was extremely oxidative, so methane is partially converted to CO₂. The oxidation kinetics of DMPO was very fast, preventing the detection of the radicals. However, possibly the mechanism may be similar to the condition with NaClO₂, since methane oxidation products were observed after the

reaction (Fig. 4.2). Meanwhile, as expected, superoxide radical (O_2^{\bullet}) was not detected in any condition, because BiOCl does not exhibit sufficient band edge position to reduce O_2 .

Based on the above results, the reaction control is promoted by the equilibrium reaction between the reduced Cl or •OCl radicals in solution and the regeneration of BiOCl structure, i.e., the reaction is limited by the interaction BiOCl – water. No foreign radicals are necessary, which shows that the reaction is sustainable in longer periods. Furthermore, the redox process of the center metal also plays an important role, as depicted in the Fig. 4.6.



FIGURE 4.6 - Schematic illustration of role of self-oxidation/reduction of the center metal for the efficiency of the photocatalytic CH₄ oxidation.

4.5. Conclusion

We demonstrate that the chloromethane pathway for controlled methane oxidation is a feasible alternative to produce methanol. Cl-species quickly react with CH₄ to form CH₃Cl under light-illumination that by a simple substitution reaction with hydroxyl ions generate CH₃OH. Structural Cl⁻ in a perovskite layered material can be used in a cycle-based system to continuously oxidize methane to methanol without foreign radicals and keeping the stability of the photocatalyst. The self-redox process of the metal center also plays an important role for the CH₄ activation since the excess of electron in the metallic sites – resulted from the chlorine vacancies –, alter the charge distribution of each of the four closest neighbor bismuth atoms. The outcome is the selfreduction of the lattice Bi, consequently supporting proton extraction. The initial state of the metal is reconstructed based on the back-donation capacity of metals.

5. CHAPTER V: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In this thesis, it was possibly understanding the key factors influencing photocatalysts' activities on controlled oxidation of methane to methanol, avoiding its complete oxidation to CO₂.

Bi₂O₃ demonstrated to be an efficient photocatalyst for the controlled oxidation of methane to methanol under visible-light and ambient conditions. The appropriate band edge position in Bi₂O₃ allowed the formation of hydroxyl radicals (•OH) in the valence band (VB), and prevented the formation of superoxide radicals (O₂•⁻) in the conduction band (CB). In this context, the availability of molecular oxygen (O₂) in the reaction medium is critical for the control of methane oxidation, as oxygen can capture methyl radicals (•CH₃) that will in the future react with •OH to form methanol, avoiding the CH₄ overoxidation to CO₂. In addition, O₂ could also be reduced to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). The presence of H₂O₂ in the reaction improved the photocatalytic activity due to the higher concentration of •OH, as well as increasing the dissolved oxygen in the medium.

An alternative pathway for the controlled oxidation of methane *via* chloromethane was also shown to be efficient for methanol production using BiOCl as photocatalyst. In this case, the reaction pathway proceeded by the formation of CH_3Cl as intermediate from the available Cl ions in the solution or by the controlled availability of the chloride ions present in the crystalline structure of the material, e.g., BiOCl. Evidences were provided *via* ESR analysis that Bi_2O_3 and BiOCl easily produce hydroxyl radicals and have a high interaction with the methane molecule, facilitating its activation even under the light-free conditions.

Therefore, in this thesis, two distinct pathways were successfully applied to promote the controlled oxidation of CH_4 to CH_3OH , rather than the complete, uncontrolled oxidation to CO_2 : (i) using semiconductors that have an unfavorable conduction band for the formation of superoxide radicals, thus allowing oxygen to be viable in the reaction, and (ii) in the presence of chloride intermediates, which in both cases subsequently react with hydroxyl radicals to form methanol.

6. **REFERENCES**

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8. APPENDIX

1. Partial photooxidation of CH₄ to CH₃OH: rate of transferred electrons

The mols of electrons involved in the partial photooxidation of CH₄ into CH₃OH was calculated considering the number of electrons transferred per mol of produced methyl hydroperoxide and methanol, according to reactions showed in Eqs. A3.1-A3.2 [17].

$$CH_{3}O_{2}(aq) + H^{+}(aq) + e^{-} \rightarrow CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)} \qquad 1 \text{ mol } e^{-}/\text{mol}_{CH_{3}OOH} \qquad (A3.1)$$

$$CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)} + 2e^{-} + 2H^{+}_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)} \quad 2 \text{ mol } e^{-}/\text{mol}_{CH_{3}OH}$$
(A3.2)

As observed from Eq. A3.1, formation of methyl hydroperoxide needs one electron, while two more electrons need to be transferred to reduce one mol of CH_3OOH into one mol of CH_3OH (Eq. A3.2).

2. <u>Calculations for CH4 feedstock</u>

We proceed to a very detailed investigation of the total CH₄ available for reaction. We purged 100 mL deionized water with CH₄ standard gas during 30 min, injecting 1 μ L of the liquid aliquots on a gas chromatography (GC). The CH₄ peak areas were:

For the aqueous medium purged with the standard gas containing 20% mol CH₄: 10,196 For the aqueous medium purged with the standard gas containing 99% mol CH₄: 98,763

We also injected on the GC 1 μ L aliquots of the standard gases, and the CH₄ peak areas results were:

For the standard gas containing 20% mol CH₄: 272,220

$$n_{CH_4} = x_{CH_4} \frac{P V}{R T} \rightarrow n_{CH_4} = (0.2) \frac{(101325 \text{ Pa})(10^{-9} \text{ m}^3)}{\left(8.314462 \frac{J}{\text{K mol}}\right)(298.15 \text{ K})} \rightarrow n_{CH_4} = 8.17 \text{ x}$$

10⁻⁹ mol

For the standard gas containing 99% mol CH₄: 1,017,631

$$n_{CH_4} = x_{CH_4} \frac{P V}{R T} \rightarrow n_{CH_4} = (0.99) \frac{(101325 Pa)(10^{-9} m^3)}{(8.314462 \frac{J}{K mol})(298.15 K)} \rightarrow n_{CH_4} = 4.05 x$$

 $10^{-8} mol$

We can compare these results of moles of CH_4 contained in 1 μ L of the standard gases with the peak areas of CH_4 for the aqueous medium purged with the standard gases.

For the aqueous medium purged with the standard gas containing 20% mol CH4:

272,220 ------ 8.17 x 10⁻⁹ mol
10,196 ------ x →
$$3.06 \text{ x } 10^{-10} \text{ mol CH}_4 \text{ in 1 } \mu\text{L}$$

1 $\mu\text{L} = 0.001 \text{ mL} ------ 3.06 \text{ x } 10^{-10} \text{ mol CH}_4$
100 mL ------ x → $3.06 \text{ x } 10^{-5} = 31 \mu\text{mol CH}_4$ dissolved in 100 mL

For the aqueous medium purged with the standard gas containing 99% mol CH4:

1,017,631 ------ 4.05 x 10^{-8} mol 98,763 ------ x \longrightarrow 3.93 x 10^{-9} mol CH₄ in 1 µL 1 µL = 0.001 mL ----- 3.93 x 10^{-9} mol CH₄ 100 mL ----- x \longrightarrow 3.93 x 10^{-4} = **393** µmol CH₄ dissolved in **100 mL**

These measurements evidenced that the total available CH₄ is much higher than the simple estimation of gas phase. We emphasize that, due the limitation of equipment access, we opted to analyze a single condition (i.e., CH₄ bubbling in water, with no catalyst), which can vary depending on the catalyst (higher/lower adsorption capacity), presence of peroxide, and medium conductivity. Moreover, our ESR investigations demonstrated that the interaction with Bi_2O_3 and CH_4 in dark can promote some oxidation to methanol and other C1+ products. This also has another source of interference regarding the CH_4 feedstock for reaction, that is, the increased CH_4 solubility in organic medium. It is known that the methane solubility can rise in organic medium or with organic contaminations [85]. Thus, the methane feedstock needs to be further investigated but do not change the final conclusions of our paper.

3. <u>Calculations for CH₃OH production rate by gas chromatography</u>

We proceed to comparative measurements with gas chromatography (GC) to confirm the reliability of NMR measurements. We insist that the advantage of NMR is to probe not only methanol, but any other liquid hydrocarbon produced by oxidation, giving a qualitative appreciation. In that sense, the technique is more powerful, and can give more information about our catalytic system. Thus, analyzing a selected condition suitable for both techniques, we choose to double-check the sample Bi₂O₃/AgNO₃, which produced c.a. 135 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ according to the ¹H NMR analysis. We injected on the GC 1 μ L aliquot of the sample, and the methanol GC peak area was 14,865 (please, see the raw chromatogram and the methanol calibration curve in Fig. S14-S15):

$$(CH_{3}OH \text{ concentration}) = \frac{(\text{peak area}) - 383}{17,906} \rightarrow (CH_{3}OH \text{ concentration}) =$$

$$\frac{(14,865) - 383}{17,906}$$

$$(CH_{3}OH \text{ concentration}) = 0.81 \text{ mM}$$

$$0.81 \frac{\text{mmol}}{\text{L}} \ge 0.1 \text{ L} \ge \frac{1000}{1} \frac{\text{\mumol}}{\text{mmol}} \ge \frac{1}{0.1 \text{ g}} \ge \frac{1}{4 \text{ h}} = 202 \frac{\text{\mumol}}{\text{g h}}$$

Thus, for the condition $Bi_2O_3/AgNO_3$, the methanol concentration calculated by ¹H NMR and GC is similar, indicating that our results of production rates are accurate. The difference among the values is explained by the statistical variation of the experiments (the determination in GC was done in a replica) but it is still in the confidence value.

4. <u>Reaction steps to produce the chemicals from the CH₄ photooxidation</u>

We emphasize that these reactions can be further optimized, but in this manuscript, we were dedicated to understanding how they can happen. Then, the initial reactions sequence can be summarized as follows [17,68,85]:

$$\operatorname{Bi}_{2}\operatorname{O}_{3(s)} \xrightarrow{hv \text{ (visible-light)}} h^{+} + e^{-}$$
(A3.3)

$$H_2O_{(l)} + h^+ \rightarrow \bullet OH_{(aq)} + H^+_{(aq)}$$
(A3.4)

$$H_2O_{2(aq)} \to H_2O_{(l)} + 1/2O_{2(g)}$$
 (A3.5)

$$H_2O_{2(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet OH_{(aq)} + OH_{(aq)}$$
(A3.6)

With the formation of these initial radicals, and taking in account the O_2 dissolved in the medium, one has the sequence for C1 products:

$$CH_{4(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet CH_{3(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$
(A3.7)

•
$$CH_{3(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)}$$
 (A3.8)

$$\bullet CH_{3(aq)} + O_{2(g)} \to CH_3O_2\bullet_{(aq)}$$
(A3.9)

$$CH_{3}O_{2}\bullet_{(aq)} + H^{+}_{(aq)} + e^{-} \rightarrow CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)}$$
(A3.10)

$$CH_{3}OOH_{(aq)} + 2e^{-} + 2H^{+}_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3}OH_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)}$$
 (A3.11)

For C2+ products, the interactions of the as-formed methanol and the radicals will play a role – indeed, since there is no separation of as-formed methanol from the reaction medium, its oxidation is totally possible, as well as its interaction with other radicals:

$$CH_{3}OH_{(l)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow \bullet CH_{2}OH_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)}$$
(A3.12)

$$\bullet CH_2OH_{(aq)} + \bullet CH_{3(aq)} \rightarrow CH_3CH_2OH_{(l)}$$
(A3.13)

$$CH_{3}CH_{2}OH_{(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow CH_{3} \bullet CHOH_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(l)}$$
(A3.14)

$$CH_{3} \bullet CHOH_{(aq)} + \bullet CH_{3(aq)} \rightarrow (CH_{3})_{2}CHOH_{(aq)}$$
(A3.15)

$$(CH_3)_2 CHOH_{(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow (CH_3)_2 \bullet COH_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$
(A3.16)
$$(CH_3)_2 CHOH_{(aq)} + \bullet OH_{(aq)} \rightarrow (CH_3)_2 CO_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)}$$
(A3.17)

As we previously discussed, this sequence can follow to higher C2+ products, although it is less probable by the reduced interaction with the radicals. One can take in account that, in longer C2+ products, the cleavage for smaller groups is still possible, leading that the products are observed by an equilibrium of dimerization/cleavage that deserves to be investigated in the future.



FIGURE A3.1 - Formation of 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid from hydroxyl radical and terephthalic acid. The blue, red and yellow colors represent the carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen atoms, respectively.



FIGURE A3.2 - (a) XPS survey spectrum and (b) high-resolution V 2p spectrum of the as-synthesized Bi_2O_3 .



FIGURE A3.3 - Diffusive reflectance spectrum of the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃.



FIGURE A3.4 - (a) Determination of hydroxyl radical formation by photoluminescence spectra; and (b) photography of the fluorescence emission of •OH species with 315 nm excitation.



FIGURE A3.5 - (a) Linear fit of the ESR signal intensity of the methyl radicals generated using a DMPO solution containing the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ and the methane standard gas under dark. (b) Simulated ESR spectra of the DMPO solution containing the as-synthesized Bi₂O₃ and the methane standard gas. (c) Formation of stable radical adducts between the DMPO and the reactive radical species. (d) g-factor of Cr(III):MgO used to calibrate magnetic field and relative signal intensities.



FIGURE A3.6 - In situ hydrogen peroxide generation. Reaction conditions: $1 \text{ g L}^{-1} \text{ Bi}_2\text{O}_3$ + 1 mL pure O₂ in 100 mL deionized water under visible-light illumination (108 W and ~5 mW cm⁻²).



FIGURE A3.7 - ¹H NMR spectra of the liquid aliquots collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of AgNO₃, H₂O₂, and O₂. * Other signals were observed by ¹H NMR, but no confirmation by other analytical techniques (e. g. GC and HPLC) was achieved. Since these signals are unreliable, they were not identified and quantified.



FIGURE A3.8 - ¹H NMR spectra of the liquid aliquots collected from the partial photooxidation of CH_4 using Bi_2O_3 as photocatalyst before the light-illumination and after 30 min purge of the standard gas containing 20%mol CH_4 in argon (before the photocatalytic reaction).



<Chromatogram>





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FIGURE A3.9 - Raw GC data of the aqueous medium purged with the standard gas containing 20% mol CH4 in argon. It was obtained a total of c.a. 31 µmol CH4 dissolved in 100 mL.



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FIGURE A3.10 - Raw GC data of the aqueous medium purged with the standard gas containing 99% mol CH₄. It was obtained a total of c.a. 393 μ mol CH₄ dissolved in 100 mL.



<Chromatogram>



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FIGURE A3.11 - Raw GC data of the standard gas containing 20% mol CH₄ in argon.





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FIGURE A3.12 - Raw GC data of the standard gas containing 99% mol CH₄.

Chromatogram



FIGURE A3.13 - Raw GC data of the liquid sample from CH₄ photooxidation. Reaction conditions: 1 g L⁻¹ Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL of 1.0 mM AgNO₃ under visible-light. The reaction was carried out for 4 h using a mixture of CH₄ in argon (20%mol CH₄). Bi₂O₃/AgNO₃ produced c.a. 202 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ CH₃OH. The methanol determination by ¹H NMR analysis led to 135 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, a similar value.

* The difference among the values is explained by the statistical variation of the experiments (the determination in GC was done in a replica) but it is still in the confidence value.



	A	В	С	D	
1	Equation	$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}^* \mathbf{x}$			
2	Weight	No Weighting			
3	Residual Sum of Squares	39949.84092			
4	Pearson's r	0.99994			
5	Adj. R-Square	0.99985			
6			Value	Standard Erro r	
7	á	Intercept	382.69669	73.46394	
8	Area	Slope	17906.35611	96.46288	

FIGURE A3.14 - Methanol calibration curve.



FIGURE A3.15 - XRD of the as-synthesized Bi_2O_3 before and after the CH₄ photooxidation.

	Photocatalyst	Reaction conditions						Production	
Entry		Light source	Light intensity (mW cm ⁻²)	Power (W)	Temp. (°C)	Pres. (kPa)*	Sacrificial reagent	rate of CH3OH (μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Ref.
а	Mo/TiO ₂	UV	-	250	60	0.1	-	13	[86]
b	TiO ₂	UV	-	-	25	0.1	-	333	[87]
С	V/MCM-41	UV	-	100	22	0.1	NO	2	[88]
d	V/MCM-41	UV	-	100	22	< 0.1	NO/O ₂	3	[89]
е	V/MCM-41	UV	-	100	22	< 0.1	NO	3	[90]
f	10wt%Ag ₂ O/WO ₃	Vis	-	-	90	0.1	-	4	[91]
g	$BiVO_4$	UV/Vis	-	450	55	0.1	NO_2^-	13	[13]
h	WO ₃	UV/Vis	-	-	55	0.1	-	17	[92]
i	WO ₃	UV/Vis	-	-	55	0.1	Fe ³⁺	68	[43]
j	La/WO ₃	UV/Vis	-	-	55	0.1	-	5	[93]
k	Zeolite/BiVO ₄ /V ₂ O ₅	Vis	-	450	70	0.1	-	11	[94]
l	BiVO ₄	Vis	-	350	65	0.1	-	152	[35]
т	0.33wt%FeOx/TiO2	Vis	100	300	25	0.1	H_2O_2	352	[1]
п	0.10wt%Pd/ZnO	UV	100	300	25	2.1	O_2	3035	[17]
0	$g-C_3N_4$	Vis	-	300	35	3.0	H_2O_2	140	[95]
р	1.98wt%FeOOH/WO3	Vis	82	300	25	0.1	H_2O_2	211	[2]
q	TiO ₂	UV	-	300	30	3.0	Fe^{2+}/H_2O_2	471	[96]
r	0.30wt%Au/ZnO	UV	100	-	30	2.0	O_2	1000	[69]
S	Au-CoO _x /TiO ₂	Vis	450	300	25	2.1	O ₂	1500	[97]
t	1wt%Au-Pd/TiO2	UV/Vis	250	-	52.3	4000	H_2O/O_2	12600	[98]
и	BiVO ₄	Vis	170	-	25	2000	O ₂	2270	[33]

TABLE A2.1 - Production rates of methanol and their reaction conditions.



Figura A4.1 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of NaCl. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.2 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of FeCl₃. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.3 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of CuCl₂. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.4 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of CoCl₂. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.5 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of SnCl₂. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.6 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using Bi₂O₃ as photocatalyst in the presence of ZnCl₂. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 50 mM of the standard dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).

To verify the accuracy of ¹H NMR measurements, we also performed gas chromatography (GC) analysis for the sample Bi₂O₃/FeCl₃. The benefit of NMR is its ability to investigate not only methanol but any other liquid oxygenates created, providing a qualitative understanding of our catalytic system. The raw chromatogram and methanol calibration curve are shown in Fig. S7. The methanol GC peak area was 23,492:

$$(CH_{3}OH \text{ concentration}) = \frac{(\text{peak area}) - 383}{17,906} \rightarrow (CH_{3}OH \text{ concentration}) =$$

$$\frac{(23,492) - 383}{17,906}$$

$$(CH_{3}OH \text{ concentration}) = 1.29 \text{ mM}$$

$$1.29 \frac{\text{mmol}}{\text{L}} \ge 0.1 \text{ L} \ge \frac{1000}{1} \frac{\text{\mumol}}{\text{mmol}} \ge \frac{1}{0.1 \text{ g}} \ge \frac{1}{4 \text{ h}} = 322 \frac{\text{\mumol}}{\text{g h}}$$

According to the ¹H NMR, the sample $Bi_2O_3/FeCl_3$ produced c.a. 231 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, demonstrating that the methanol concentration determined by ¹H NMR and GC is comparable. The statistical variance of the experiments can explain the different numbers that still are in the confidence value, indicating the accuracy of our results for production rates.



FIGURE A4.7 - (a) Raw GC data of the liquid aliquot from the sample $Bi_2O_3/FeCl_3$; (b) methanol calibration curve; and (c) linear equation for the determination of CH_3OH concentration.

Reaction conditions: 1 g L⁻¹ Bi₂O₃ in 100 mL of 1.0 mM FeCl₃ under visible-light. The reaction was carried out for 4 h using a mixture of CH₄ in argon (20% mol CH₄). Bi₂O₃/FeCl₃ produced c.a. 322 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ CH₃OH by GC and 231 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ CH₃OH by ¹H NMR.

*The values are similar and the small difference between them is related to the statistical variation of the experiments.



FIGURE A4.8 - XRD pattern of the as-synthesized BiOCl before and after the photocatalytic tests. *The XRD peaks are related to pure BiOCl according to the JCPDS #85-0861.



FIGURE A4.9 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquots collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using BiOCl as photocatalyst. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.10 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using BiOCl as photocatalyst in the presence of O₂. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 0.21 mM of the reference 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



Figura A4.11 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using BiOCl as photocatalyst in the presence of NaClO₂. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 0.21 mM of the reference 3- (trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.12 - ¹H NMR spectrum of the liquid aliquot collected from the partial photooxidation of CH₄ using BiOCl as photocatalyst in the presence of NaClO₂ and HCl. This analysis used 60 μ L of D₂O solution containing 0.21 mM of the reference 3- (trimethylsilyl) propionic-2,2,3,3-d₄ acid sodium salt (TSPd₄).



FIGURE A4.13 - (a) XPS survey spectrum and (b) high-resolution V 2p spectrum of the as-synthesized BiOCl.



FIGURE A4.14 - ESR measurements of the DMPO solution containing pure BiOCl after 100 min of light irradiation in the presence of a mixture of CH_4 in argon (20% mol CH_4). (*) DMPO-(OH)₂, (\blacklozenge) •OH, (\bigstar) •OCl.