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Production of CH₄ and CO on Cu_xO and Ni_xO_y coatings through CO₂ photoreduction

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1 CO₂ capture and photocatalytic reduction to hydrocarbons is an interesting yet challenging
2 area that requires photocatalysts with the capability to capture and photoconvert CO₂ simul-
3 taneously. Furthermore, earth-abundant photocatalysts with high efficiency and product se-
4 lectivity are essential for commercialization. Thus, two earth-abundant photocatalysts based
5 on copper and nickel oxides were selected to produce solar fuels from CO₂ photoreduction.
6 The photocatalysts were immobilized on commercial glass fibers substrates by a facile one-
7 step microwave-hydrothermal method. Cu_xO (x=1, 2) and Ni_xO_y (x=1, 2 and y=1, 3) coatings
8 on glass fiber were evaluated as photocatalysts in two different reactors to investigate the
9 selectivity in a continuous reactor and a batch system. Two different light sources were em-
10 ployed: a heterochromatic lamp to simulate part of the solar light in the continuous reactor
11 and a LED visible light in the batch reactor. CuO/Cu₂O photocatalysts exhibited a selective
12 production of CH₄ (95 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and CH₃OH (177 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) from CO₂ photoreduction
13 in the continuous and batch continuous systems, respectively. The superior performance was
14 attributed to the unique rod-shape morphology, the presence of oxygen vacancies and effi-
15 cient charge transfer in the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure with high affinity towards CO₂, result-
16 ing the formation of mono- and bidentate carbonate species during the CO₂ photoreduction
17 reaction. Ni_xO_y coating with 2D cubic shape produced CO (103 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and HCOOH
18 (4245 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), associating with the low CO₂ affinity and less efficient charge separation
19 compared to CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure.

20 *Keywords:* Photocatalysis; CO₂ reduction; Solar fuels; CO₂ adsorption; Cu_xO; Ni_xO_y.

21 **1. Introduction**

1 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is considered the main greenhouse gas (GHG) responsible for climate
2 change [1]. Fossil fuel utilization is the main contributor to anthropogenic CO₂ emissions
3 [2,3]. One of the promising routes to address CO₂ emissions and provide an alternative en-
4 ergy source is implementing artificial photosynthesis. This process could be carried out
5 through CO₂ photocatalytic conversion into light hydrocarbon molecules, such as CH₄, syn-
6 gas (CO/H₂), alcohols, and aldehydes [4-6].

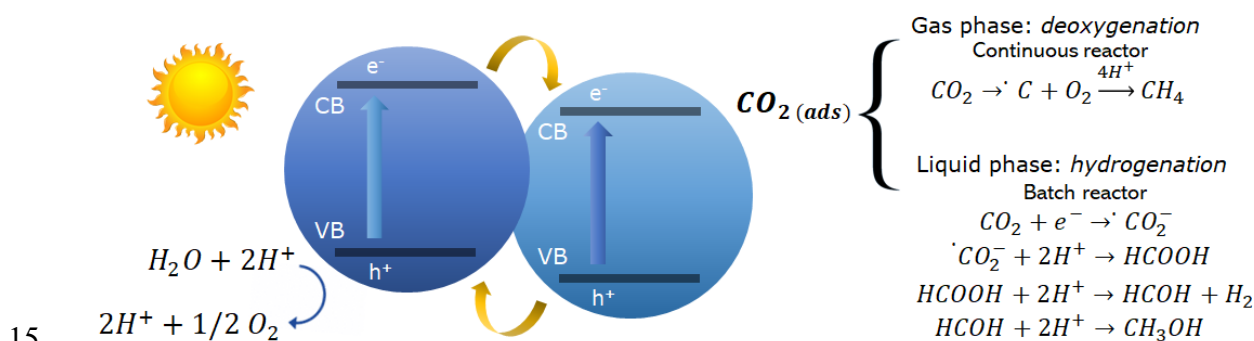
7 TiO₂ has been extensively used as a photocatalyst reduction of CO₂ process. However, TiO₂
8 is not an ideal photocatalyst to carry out the CO₂ photoreduction because it has a low affinity
9 for CO₂ in the presence of H₂O [7]. The use of other oxides such as Cu_xO (x=1, 2), NiO,
10 Fe₂O₃, ZnO, and MgO, represents an excellent option to be used in this process due to their
11 ability to attract electrons and provide active sites for CO₂ fixation, such as oxygen vacancies
12 (OVs) [8-13]. Copper and nickel oxides have resulted in good efficiencies for the CO₂ pho-
13 toconversion process; however, their use has been limited as co-catalysts for photocatalytic
14 CO₂ conversion [9, 12-14].

15 Cu_xO (x= 1, 2) materials have shown potential advantages for the CO₂ conversion because
16 CuO favors CO₂ adsorption through the formation of monodentate and bidentate carbonate
17 species [14]; whereas Cu₂O provides adequate reduction potential, visible-light absorption,
18 and selective active-sites to capture electrons, and enhancing multi-electron reactions on its
19 surface [15, 16]. These properties have favored the production of CH₄. On the other hand,
20 NiO has been used as a co-catalyst for CO₂ photoreduction to CH₃OH, CH₄, and CO in some
21 composite materials, such as NiO/In₂O₃/TiO₂ [17], Ni/NiO/g-C₃N₄ [18], NiO/InTaO₄ [8], and
22 ZnO/Ni [19]. Previous works suggest that the coexistence of Ni²⁺/Ni⁰ pairs in core-shells

1 structures enhanced the electron transfer among the semiconductors and it promotes the for-
2 mation of CO from the CO₂ photoreduction [17, 18]. From these works, it seems that the
3 presence of NiO and Cu_xO favored the generation of CO and CH₄ in gas phase continuous
4 reactors, respectively. However, the selectivity of these two photocatalytic materials has not
5 been explored in detail under similar operation parameters since most of the works use dif-
6 ferent high-power lamps that emit in the UV range [12,13,20-28]. Therefore, studying of both
7 oxides under similar reaction conditions is interesting and could help understand each oxide's
8 selectivity in the continuous and batch systems since previous reports suggest different reac-
9 tion mechanisms in the gas (continuous) and liquid (batch) phases [29, 30], as is shown in
10 **Figure 1.**

11 Some of the challenges related to the photocatalytic materials, for the scaling-up of the CO₂
12 photoreduction, are the rapid recombination of the photogenerated charges, light absorption,
13 low surface areas, lack of active sites adequate for the reaction (e.g., OV_s), the deactivation
14 or poisoning of the photocatalysts, the CO₂ adsorption or the desorption of by-products, the
15 low selectivity, and the immobilization of the photocatalyst [4]. Considering these factors,
16 this work proposes two complementary strategies for the design of efficient photocatalytic
17 materials to provide insights to overcome some of these challenges. One of the strategies
18 implemented was the design of heterostructured materials to reduce the recombination of the
19 photogenerated charges in earth-abundant copper and nickel oxides [31, 32]. In this context,
20 the use of heterostructured materials represents a good strategy to promote an improvement
21 of the separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and enhance the selectivity of solar
22 fuel production. For this purpose, the use of type-II heterostructured materials promotes the
23 formation internal electric fields that can drive the electron and holes transfer in opposite
24 directions, which decrease the recombination of the photogenerated charges, as is also shown

1 in **Figure 1**. In this scheme is also included the charge transfer in type-II heterostructured
 2 materials.
 3 Secondly, the immobilization of photocatalysts on commercially available, low-cost, and
 4 flexible substrates, e.g., glass fibers, could favor the process of scaling-up as well as provid-
 5 ing a higher exposed area for photocatalytic reaction, promoting efficient charge transport,
 6 and enhancing light absorption [33]. The use of immobilized photocatalyst has been success-
 7 fully demonstrated in recent reports for CO₂ photoreduction, as is shown in **Table S1**.
 8 In summary, this work focuses on increasing solar fuel production using visible-light active
 9 heterostructure photocatalysts immobilized on flexible and low-cost substrates in a continu-
 10 ous and batch systems. The heterostructures were evaluated in a continuous reactor under
 11 UV-Visible light from a solar simulator. At the same time, in the batch experiments, a LED
 12 visible lamp was used to activate the materials. In addition, a practical yet novel approach to
 13 fabricate nickel and copper oxides coatings, which possessed a high affinity towards CO₂
 14 and enhanced visible-light absorption, is proposed herein.



1 The deposition of Cu_xO ($x=1, 2$) and Ni_xO_y ($x=1, 2$ and $y=1, 3$) on glass fiber (GF) were
 2 performed by an in-situ microwave-hydrothermal (MH) method. The oxides were deposited
 3 on GF substrates with the following composition: SiO_2 , Na_2O , and CaO , with an open slit of
 4 2.7 mm and an effective area of 2.73 cm^2 [33]. First, the substrate was cleaned under soni-
 5 cation for 25 minutes with pure acetone (Baker, 99.5%), methanol (DEQ, 99.9%), and dis-
 6 tilled water. Then, the substrate was dried at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ overnight before use.
 7 The cleaned GF substrates were placed in an autoclave that contained an aqueous solution of
 8 $\text{Cu}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Fermont, 99%) or $\text{Ni}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Fermont, 99%), according to
 9 the experiment design, as shown in **Table 1**. Then, different quantities of glucose ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$,
 10 Sigma, 99%) as reducing agent were added. Subsequently, NaOH (Fermont, 99%) was added
 11 slowly into the Cu and Ni solution. The autoclave was heated in a microwave reactor (Mars
 12 6) at 300 W at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 60 min. The coating on the GF was washed with distilled water and
 13 then dried at $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ overnight. The identification of the samples is shown in **Table 1**.

14 **Table 1.** Synthesis parameters used for the deposition of the films on the GF.

Sample ID	[NaOH] (M)	[$\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$] (mol)
Cu-1	0.3	0.0
Cu-2	0.6	
Cu-3	0.3	0.015
Cu-4	0.6	
Ni-1	0.3	0.0
Ni-2	0.6	
Ni-3	0.3	0.015
Ni-4	0.6	

15 **2.2. Material characterization**

1 The crystalline phases of the coating were analyzed using X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker
2 D8 Advance diffractometer). The measurements were performed in a 2θ interval from 10 to
3 70° with a step size of 0.02° for 0.3 s with Cu $K\alpha$ radiation 1.5418 \AA . The morphological
4 characterization and elemental mapping were conducted with scanning electron microscopy
5 (SEM) using a JEOL JSM-6490LV microscope with an acceleration voltage of 20 kV by
6 placing the samples on carbon tape and covered with gold-palladium coating for the meas-
7 urement. Furthermore, the surface of the samples was analyzed using a Luxo Microscope
8 System model 273RB-RLI. Diffuse reflectance of the photocatalysts was determined using a
9 Perkin Elmer Lambda 950 UV-Visible spectrophotometer equipped with a 150 mm integra-
10 tion sphere. The bandgap (E_g) was estimated using the Kubelka-Munk (K-M) function, con-
11 sidering a direct charge transfer on Cu and Ni transition oxides. With this data, the theoretical
12 conduction and valence band potentials were calculated by equations 1 and 2.

$$E_{VB} = X - E^e + 0.5E_g \quad (1)$$

$$E_{CB} = X - E^e - 0.5E_g \quad (2)$$

13 where X is the absolute electronegativity, E^e is the energy of free electrons on a hydrogen
14 scale (4.5 eV), and E_g is the energy band gap. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)
15 was used to study the surface properties of the fabricated samples before and after the CO_2
16 capture and photoreduction processes. The characteristic spectra of the samples were identi-
17 fied using the Thermo FTIR Nicolet iS50 kit in a range of $600\text{-}4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. Photoluminescence
18 (PL) analysis was performed at room temperature in a fluorescence spectrophotometer (Cary
19 Eclipse) integrated with a Xenon flash lamp. The samples were excited at 300 nm and an
20 emission slit of 5 at room temperature. The crystal structure and shape of heterostructures
21 were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a JEOL JEM-2200FS. For

1 TEM characterization, the powders were suspended in isopropanol. The solution was
2 dropped onto the Lacey carbon grids (300 mesh) and dried at room temperature. The surface
3 composition of the coating was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) using
4 a Thermo Scientific Escalab 250 Xi with step energy of 200 eV for survey scans and 50 eV
5 for high resolution scans with step sizes of 1.0 and 0.1 eV, respectively. Batch neutralization
6 of the sample was accomplished using a combination of Ar low-energy ions and electrons.
7 Photocurrent measurements were performed on FTO glass. For this purpose, the working
8 electrode was prepared with each sample by the spin coating method; this method consists in
9 preparing 5 mg of the sample in 10 mL of isopropanol and sonicated for 25 min. Then, the
10 homogeneous solution was coated dropwise over an FTO glass with an active area of 1.0 x
11 1.0 cm² and dispersed by spinning at 2800 rpm for 20 s. The coated FTO glasses were then
12 dried at 80 °C, and a similar step is repeated for consecutive layers (25 times). The prepared
13 film was annealed at 200 °C for 1 h, at 10 °C min⁻¹. Chronoamperometry was conducted
14 using an Autolab with 0.1 M NaOH as an electrolyte. The irradiation source was turned on
15 for 60 s and then off for another 60 s. These on-off cycles were repeated for 6 min.

16 **2.3. CO₂ adsorption analysis**

17 Temperature programmed desorption (TPD) was performed using a ChemBET Pulsar TPD
18 from Quantachrome Instruments to evaluate the CO₂ adsorption affinity of the materials syn-
19 thesized. 100 mg of the sample was placed in a U-shaped reactor between two pieces of
20 quartz wool. The sample was heated in an inert atmosphere (N₂, 99.9995%) to 150 °C to
21 eliminate adsorbed compounds for 3 h. Then, the sample was cooled down to 50 °C. Next, a
22 flow of CO₂ (0.35 mL min⁻¹) was passed for 60 min and then replaced by He (99.9995%).
23 The measurement started when a stable baseline was achieved. After that, the sample was

1 heated at 350°C at a constant rate of 10°C min⁻¹. The CO₂ desorption signal were recorded
2 by Thermal Conductivity Detector (TCD).
3 *Operando* Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) experi-
4 ments were conducted on Agilent Cary 600 series spectrometer equipped with Harrick Praying
5 Mantis reaction cell. The gas inlet of the cell was directly connected to a flow system
6 equipped with mass flow controllers and a temperature controller. The cell outlet was con-
7 nected to the mass spectrometer Hiden QGA MS. In each experiment, 20 mg of catalyst
8 powder was placed in the cell. Before reaction, the KBr background was collected in presence
9 of CO₂, which was flowing through the bubbler. 64 scans were collected per spectrum with
10 a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and in the spectral range of 4000-400 cm⁻¹. The experiment
11 was performed under UV-Vis irradiation at 24 and 40 °C and dark (24 °C) conditions to
12 simulate the experimental conditions within the photocatalytic reactor.

13 **2.4. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction**

14 *a) Continuous reactor*

15 Continuous gas-phase CO₂ photoreduction experiments were performed in a stainless-steel
16 ring-type reactor, previously described in [34]. The coatings (2.5 x 4 cm²) were placed in the
17 photoreactor, with a volume of 1.96 mL, before it was sealed. The system was purged with
18 pure CO₂ to remove residual air overnight. A constant flowrate of CO₂ was set to 0.35 mL
19 min⁻¹, with a relative humidity of 1.8% measured by an Arduino sensor. In this case, H₂O
20 was used as precursor of H⁺ ions for the CO₂ photocatalytic reduction. The temperature of
21 the reaction (40 °C) was maintained using a hot plate. The light source was a heterochromatic
22 lamp model OmniCure S2000 that emits in 300-600 nm wavelength to simulate the solar
23 light irradiation. The lamp was placed 30 mm above the surface of the sample. The irradiance

1 (150 mW cm⁻²) was measured using an OmniCure R2000 radiometer ($\pm 5\%$). An inline
2 GC/TCD/FID (Agilent, Model 7890B series), a Hayesep Q column (1.5 m), 1/16-inch OD,
3 1 mm OD), Molecular Sieve 13X (1.2 m), 1/16-inch OD, 1 mm ID) was used to quantify the
4 photoreaction products. The system also has a nickel catalyzed methanizer and a flame ioni-
5 zation detector (FID) to analyze the products every 4 min. The products CH₄ and CO were
6 measured by FID, while TCD identified H₂ and O₂.

7 To evaluate the recyclability of each set of coatings, third cycling tests was conducted under
8 identical conditions. After each test, the sample was heated at 200 °C for 2 h before employ-
9 ing in the next cycle.

10 *b) Batch reactor*

11 The samples with the highest performance for CO₂ photoreduction were evaluated in a batch
12 quartz reactor in liquid phase at room temperature. For these experiments, the coatings (2.73
13 cm²) were placed inside the batch reactor with 150 mL of distilled water under magnetic
14 stirring. The reactor was bubbled with CO₂ for 30 minutes to replace the solution's dissolved
15 oxygen. In this reactor, a different light source was used to emulate the visible light from the
16 solar light. The reactor was irradiated with 2 LED lamps of 20 W each, which exhibit two
17 emissions at 443 and 535 nm, from the sides. The reaction products in the liquid phase were
18 monitored by different techniques, as described here. Formic acid (HCOOH) and formalde-
19 hyde (CH₂O) were measured with high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) after 1
20 h of reaction. The CH₂O quantification was carried out by injecting 25 μ L of the liquid sam-
21 ple into the system, with a Fenomenex C-18 column, using a 50:50 v/v acetonitrile-water
22 (HPLC grade Baker) mixture as a carrier. Before the sample was injected, the liquid sample
23 was derivatized, forming a complex product of the reaction with 2,4-dinitrophenyl hydrazine
24 (Aldrich, 98%) and phosphoric acid (Baker, 98%) [35]. On the other hand, the HCOOH

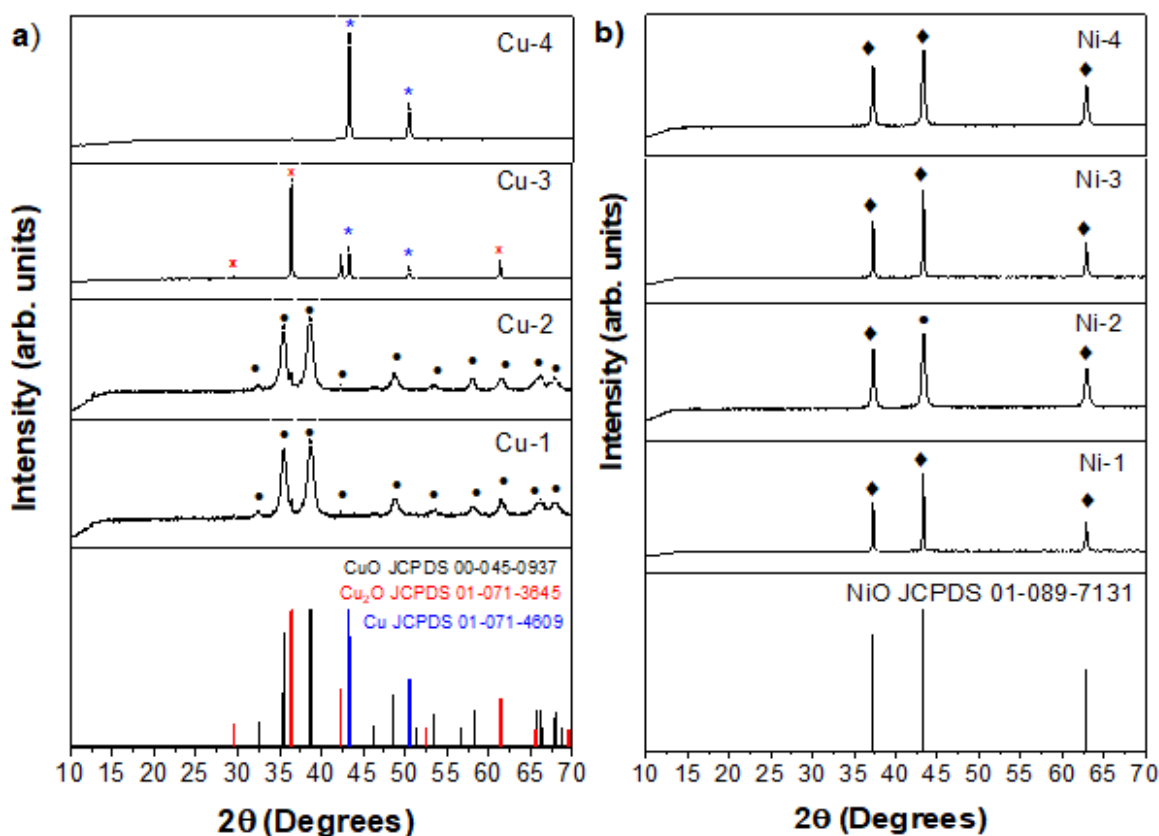
1 measurement was carried out by injecting 15 μL of previously sample filtered reaction liquid
2 sample [36]. Additionally, CH_3OH was determined by gas chromatography. To corroborate
3 the reaction products, the liquid sample was analyzed by nuclear magnetic resonance (^1H
4 NMR) analysis on a Bruker 400 MHz Avance III HD spectrometer (Bruker, BioSpin, USA)
5 equipped with a 5 mm BBO SP probe with Z-field gradient. TopSpin 3.6.1 software (Bruker
6 Biospin) was used for FID processing. CHENOMX NMR Suite 8.5 software was used for
7 signal identification.

8 **3. Results and discussion**

9 **3.1. Material properties**

10 Homogeneous Cu_xO and Ni_xO_y coatings on GF were fabricated with a simultaneous micro-
11 wave-hydrothermal method in the presence of glucose, as a reducing agent, in a basic me-
12 dium. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to investigate the crystalline phases of the coatings
13 (**Figure 2**). Cu_xO ($x=1, 2$) coatings exhibited a wide range of crystal compositions. The coat-
14 ings obtained in the absence of the reducing agent (Cu-1 and Cu-2) exhibited the monoclinic
15 phase of CuO (JCPDS:45-0937). The reflections of CuO were observed at 32.5, 35.8, and
16 38.6°, which correspond to the crystal planes (110), (-111), and (111), respectively (**Figure**
17 **2a**). Traces of the Cu_2O phase were also identified in these samples (**Table 2**). The rest of
18 the samples (i.e., Cu-3 and Cu-4) synthesized in the presence of a reducing agent exhibited a
19 mixture of Cu_2O and Cu phases in different proportions (**Table 2**). Specifically, Cu-3 pre-
20 sented a mixture of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}$ (i.e, Cu_2O as majority phase), whereas Cu-4 sample showed
21 mainly elemental copper (Cu^0) with trace amount of Cu_2O (JCPDS: 01-71-4609 and 01-71-
22 3645, respectively). The addition of NaOH also significantly influenced the crystal phase

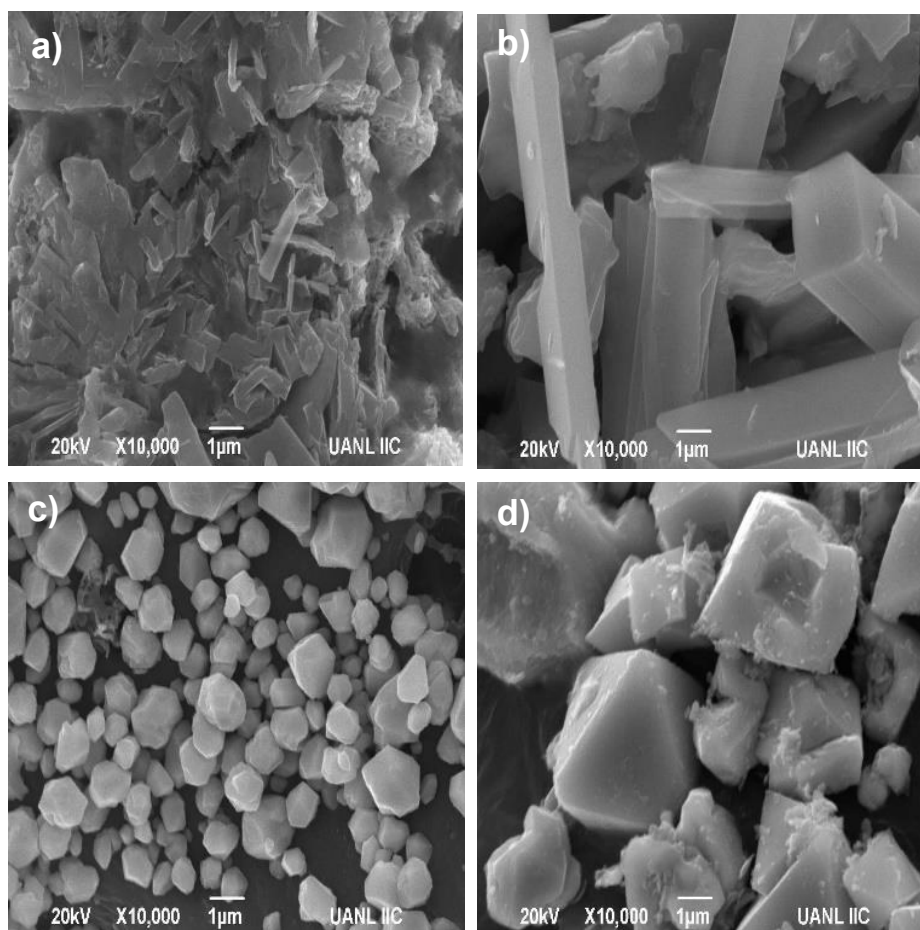
1 mixtures in the samples. Notably, the increase of NaOH concentration promoted the reduc-
 2 tion of Cu^{2+} to Cu in samples Cu-3 and Cu-4.
 3 The nickel oxide coatings exhibited only the cubic structure of NiO (JCPDS:01-089-7131,
 4 **Table 2**). These samples presented intense reflections at $2\theta = 37.4^\circ$, 43.4° , and 62.9° , corre-
 5 sponding to (110), (200) and (111) planes, respectively (**Figure 2b**).



6
 7 **Figure 2.** XRD patterns of a) Cu_xO ($x=1, 2$) and b) NiO coatings.

8 The morphology of the fabricated coatings was analyzed by SEM. All the Cu_xO coatings
 9 showed a variety of morphologies in the presence of glucose and different concentration of
 10 NaOH (**Figure 3**). Sample Cu-1 showed agglomeration with elongated bars (**Figure 3a**),
 11 whereas sample Cu-2 exhibited a more defined morphology of bars with an average width

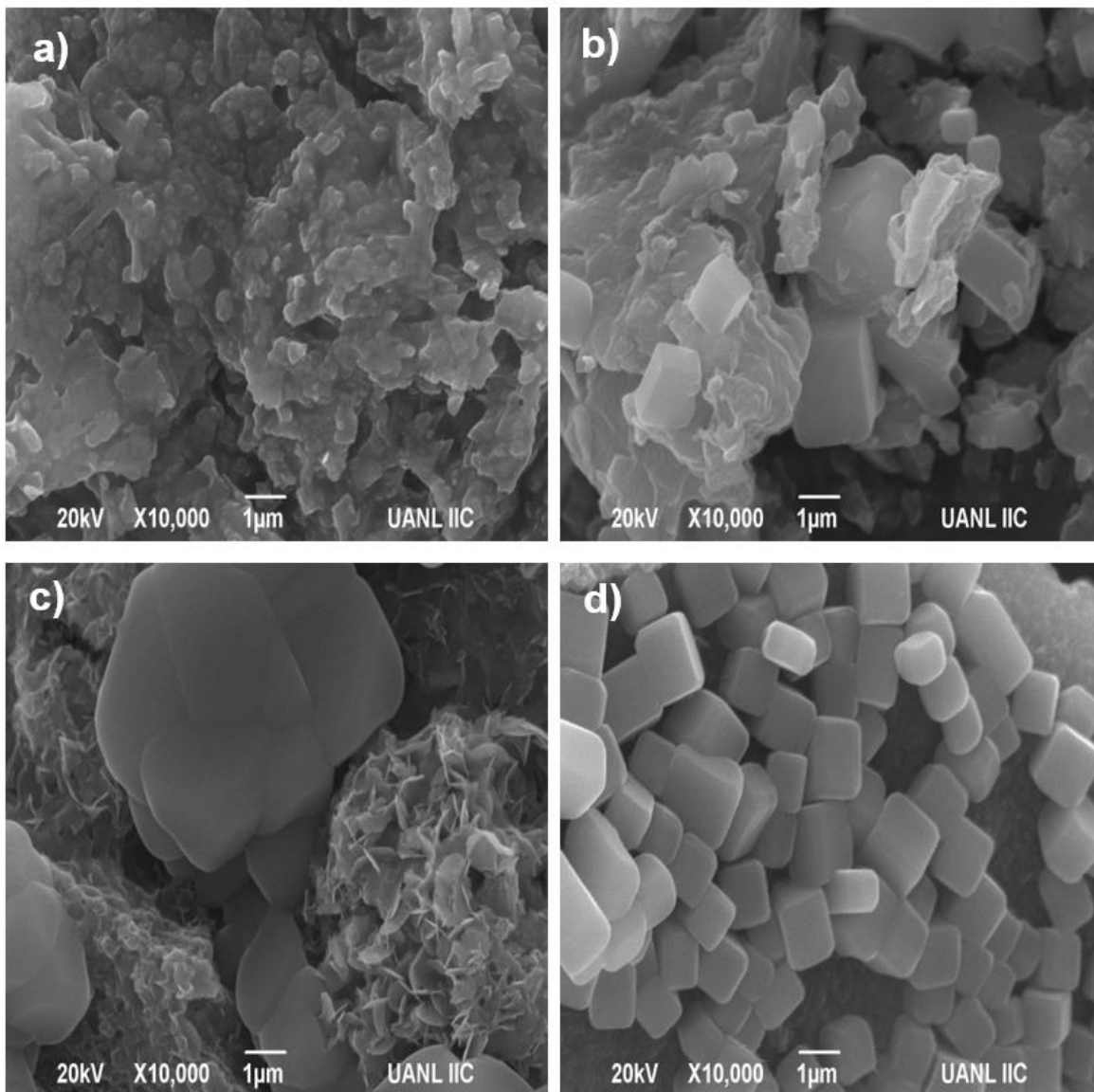
1 and length of 1.3 and 5.2 μm , respectively (**Figure 3b**). Cu-3 and Cu-4 coatings, which pos-
2 sessed a mixture of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}$ phases, exhibited different octahedral particles with an agglom-
3 eration (**Figure 3c and d**) due to glucose addition.



4
5 **Figure 3.** SEM images of a) Cu-1, b) Cu-2, c) Cu-3 and d) Cu-4 samples.

6 Different amounts of NaOH and glucose were also employed to synthesize nickel oxides.
7 Sample Ni-1 exhibited a notable agglomeration and undefined morphology (**Figure 4a**).
8 When the dosage of NaOH was increased to 0.6 M, the morphology of Ni-2 revealed irregular
9 flakes with a thickness of ~ 275 nm and agglomerated cubes (~ 620 nm) (**Figure 4b**). The
10 addition of glucose promoted the formation of nanoflakes (~ 400 nm), as shown in samples
11 Ni-3 (**Figure 4c**). When the highest dosage of NaOH (0.6 M) and glucose was added, a well-

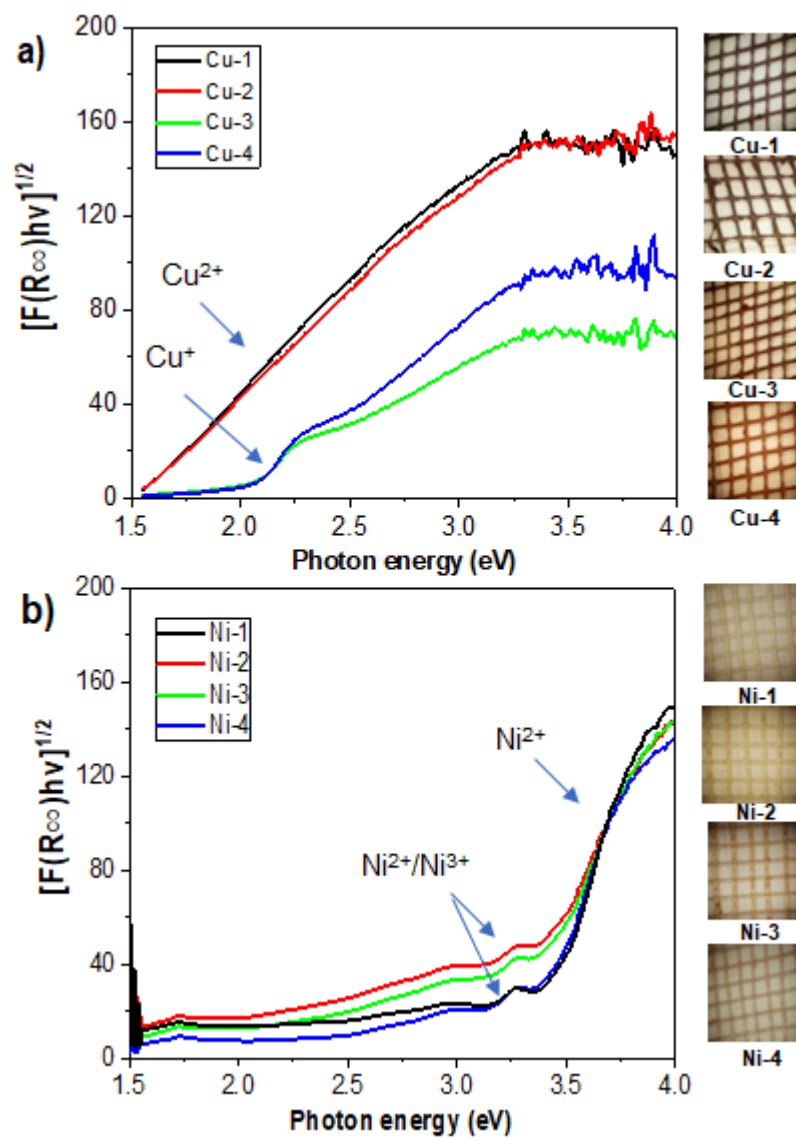
1 defined cubic microstructure (~ 540 nm) was observed in the sample Ni-4 (**Figures 4d**). The
2 average particle size is summarized in **Table 2**. EDS mapping obtained under SEM evi-
3 denced the homogeneity of the copper and nickel of the fabricated samples on GFs (**Figure**
4 **S1**).



5
6

Figure 4. SEM images of a) Ni-1, b) Ni-2, c) Ni-3 and d) Ni-4 samples.

1 The bandgap energy of the fabricated samples was estimated from the graph of $[F(R_{\infty})h\nu]^{1/2}$
 2 vs photon energy (**Figure 5**). The bandgap energies of the synthesized samples are summa-
 3 rized in **Table 2**. The Cu-1 and Cu-2 coatings, dominated by CuO particles, presented similar
 4 bandgap energies, as reported previously (1.5-1.6 eV, **Figure 5a**) [14]. The rest of the sam-
 5 ples (Cu-3 and Cu-4) exhibited an additional adsorption band at 2.1-2.3 eV was probably due
 6 to the presence of Cu₂O (**Figure 2a**) [37].



7

1 **Figure 5.** K-M spectra (left) and optical images (right) of the coatings: a) Copper oxides
 2 and b) Nickel oxides.

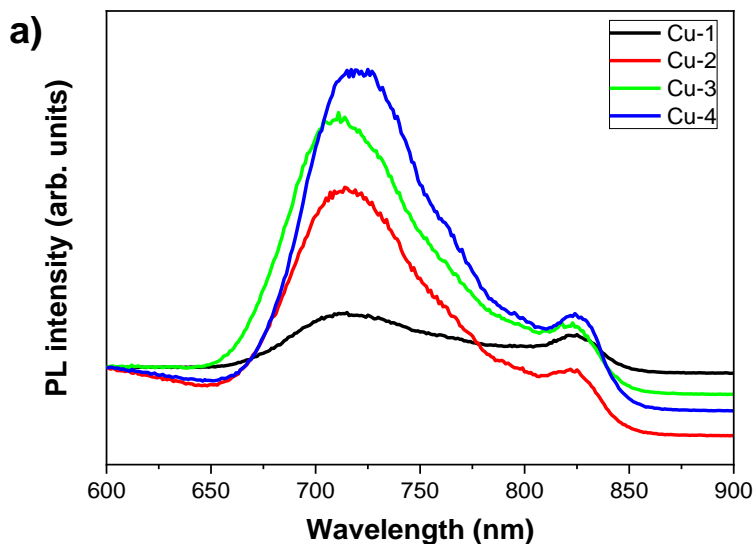
3 The K-M spectra of nickel oxides coatings are shown in **Figure 5b**. These samples exhibited
 4 bandgap energies between 3.3-3.5 eV, which are close to the values reported in the literature
 5 (i.e., 3.1- 3.6 eV) [38]. These values are characteristic of the green NiO (Ni-1 and Ni-3). In
 6 addition, a much weaker absorption band at 3.2-3.3 eV could be attributed to the Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺
 7 moiety [39, 40]. The presence of Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺ is further discussed below using XPS.

8 **Table 2.** Physicochemical properties of the coatings.

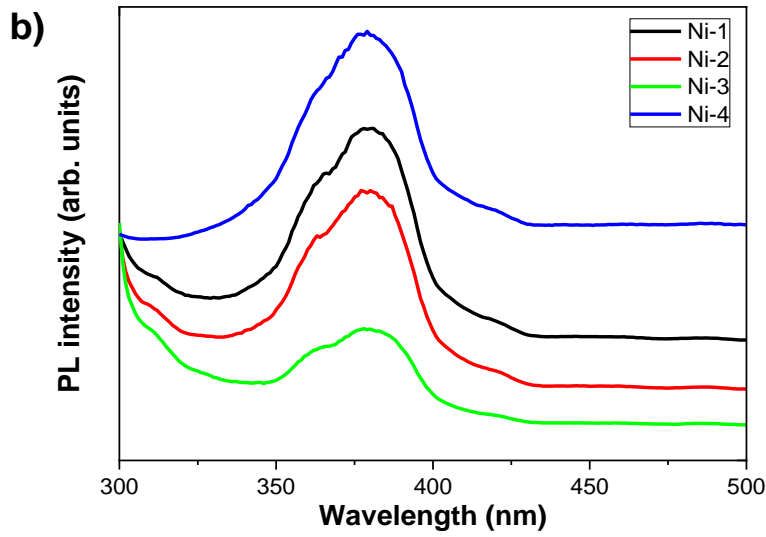
Sample ID	Crystal phases identified	Particle size (nm)	Bandgap (eV)
Cu-1	CuO Cu ₂ O	300	1.5
Cu-2	CuO Cu ₂ O	1330	1.6
Cu-3	Cu ₂ O Cu	500	1.5
Cu-4	Cu Cu ₂ O	3300	2.3
Ni-1	NiO	275	3.2
Ni-2	NiO	620	3.3
Ni-3	NiO	400	3.2
Ni-4	NiO	540	3.3

9 PL spectra were used to study the recombination of charge carriers. The PL emission spectra
 10 of Cu_xO coatings exhibited two distinct peaks in the wavelength range of 600-900 nm (**Fig-**

1 **ure 6a**). Both peaks were assigned to the radiative emissions of the recombination of elec-
2 trons and holes on CuO [41]. Cu-1 and Cu-2 samples showed a lower PL intensity, indicating
3 a lower recombination rate as compared to Cu-3 and Cu-4 samples. This observation evi-
4 denced the efficient isolation of e^-h^+ pairs in the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructures [42].
5 The nickel oxides coatings showed a broad UV emission band peak at 378-380 nm corre-
6 sponding to the radiative emission of the recombination of photogenerated charges in NiO
7 **(Figure 6b)** [43]. Sample Ni-3 exhibited the lowest PL intensity, indicating a more efficient
8 charge transfer with the flake structured sample.



9

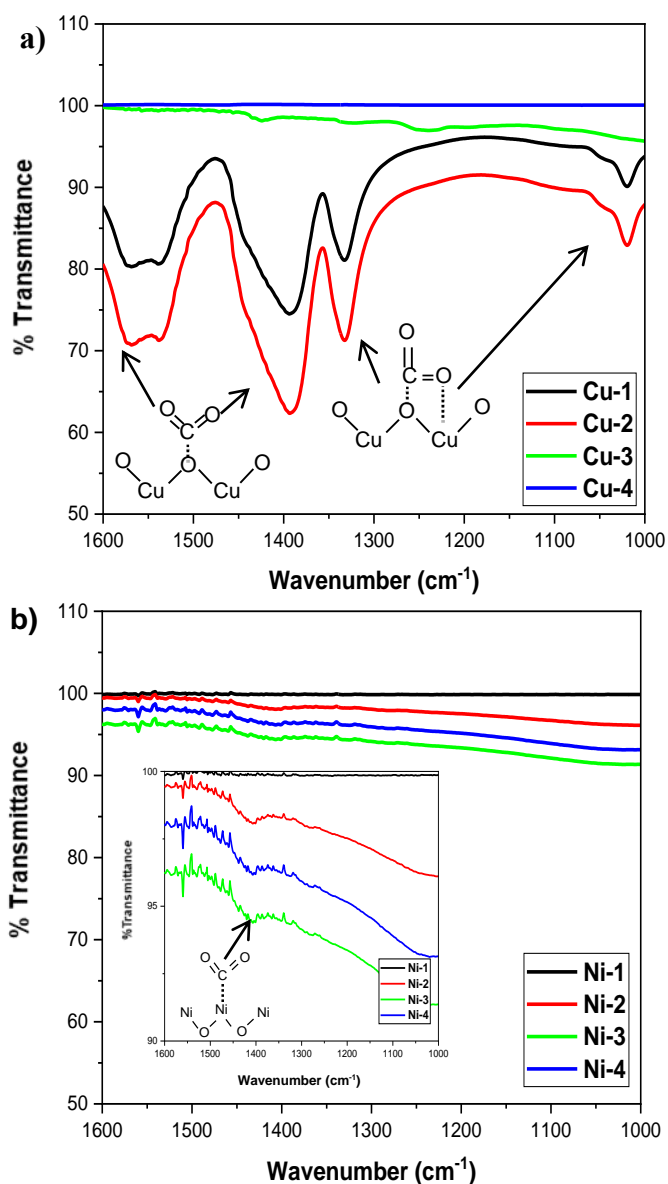


1

2 **Figure 6.** Photoluminescence (PL) emission spectra of the coatings ($\lambda_{exc}= 300$ nm).

3 **3.2. Evaluation of CO₂ adsorption**

4 FTIR spectroscopy was used to identify the CO₂ molecule fingerprint on the coatings (**Figure**
 5 **7**). In general, copper oxides exhibited much more intense troughs than the coatings of nickel
 6 oxides, indicating that CuO samples possessed a higher affinity towards CO₂ molecules than
 7 nickel oxides. Specifically, Cu-1 and Cu-2 revealed two types of absorption bands at 1560
 8 and 1410 cm⁻¹ and 1340 and 1020 cm⁻¹, which were assigned to the monodentate and biden-
 9 tate carbonate species, respectively [44-46]. However, these bands were absent in Cu-3 and
 10 Cu-4, probably attributed to the low basicity of Cu₂O and Cu that had a low affinity towards
 11 CO₂. On the other hand, the weak trough (1410 cm⁻¹) shown in the nickel oxides suggested
 12 only the monodentate bond presented on the surface of these samples.



1

2

Figure 7. FTIR spectra of a) Copper oxides and b) Nickel oxide coatings.

3

Cu-1 and Cu-2 coatings, which exhibited a higher affinity towards CO₂ compared to the other

4

fabricated samples, were further evaluated using TPD (**Figure 8**). Cu-1 with higher CuO

5

content compared to Cu-2 showed a higher CO₂ adsorption capacity. This observation agreed

6

with the FTIR analysis, as shown in **Figure 7a**. The physical-desorption temperature of the

7

samples was close to 280 °C for Cu-1 and Cu-2, respectively. This could be associated with

1 the exothermic enthalpy of CuO for CO₂ adsorption ($\Delta H_{\text{ads}} = -45.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) [47]. The CO₂
2 chemical-desorption in the Cu-1 and Cu-2 samples was observed at ~320 °C, which may be
3 related to the decomposition temperature of CuCO₃ around 300°C. It is worth mentioning
4 that the rest of the samples did not show any response to the adsorbed CO₂ under the same
5 conditions. This could be attributed to the presence of Cu and Cu₂O in the samples that hin-
6 dered CO₂ adsorption since these phases exhibited endothermic enthalpies in this process
7 ($\Delta H_{\text{ads}} \text{Cu}_2\text{O} = +142 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) [47]. From the results reported above, samples Cu-1 and Cu-2
8 seems to be a potentially good candidate for the CO₂ adsorption and subsequent photocata-
9 lytic reduction of CO₂, since they have a low CO₂ desorption temperature that favored the
10 subsequent conversion of CO₂. On the other hand, the adsorption over the nickel oxides sam-
11 ples was under limit detection, and the TPD patterns are in the supplementary section (**Figure**
12 **S2**).

13 The FTIR spectra show the moieties adsorb on the surface of the photocatalyst during the
14 reaction. In contrast, the TPD pattern shows the amount of CO₂ desorb. When the TPD peak
15 is high, it indicates more negligible adsorption. This process also describes the physical- and
16 chemical adsorption on the photocatalyst surface. Hence, the FTIR and TPD results show the
17 correct relationship, in which high adsorption of CO₂ (FTIR) and low desorption (TPD), as
18 shown in sample Cu-2, which eventually favor the CO₂ photoconversion. On the other hand,
19 Ni-3 does not show CO₂ adsorption, which could modify its selectivity of the CO₂ reduction,
20 as will be further discussed.

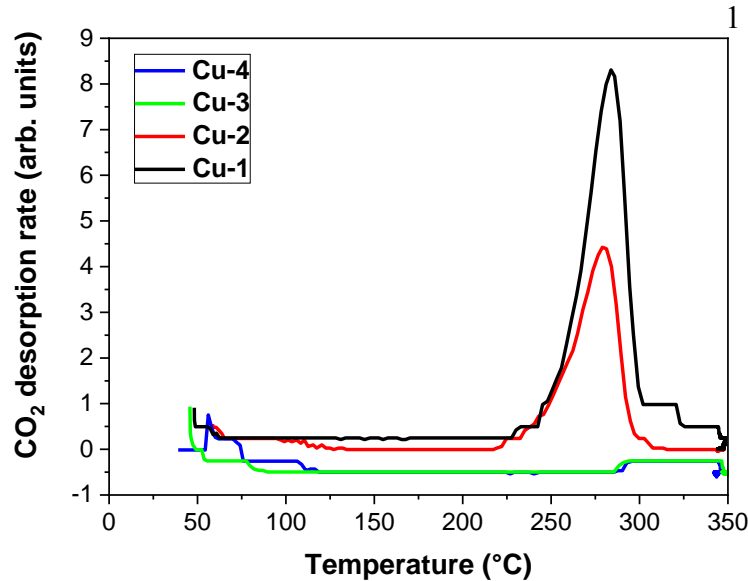


Figure 8. TPD profiles of the fabricated Copper oxides samples.

2 **Figure 8.** TPD profiles of the fabricated Copper oxides samples.
 3 The sample with the highest affinity to CO₂ (i.e., Cu-2) was further studied with *operando*
 4 DRIFTS (**Figure S3**). The Cu-2 sample showed a strong absorption band at 2348 cm⁻¹, asso-
 5 ciated with the adsorbed CO₂, when CO₂ was fed into the reactor at 24 °C in the dark. In
 6 addition, bands at around 1620, 1420, and 1296 cm⁻¹, which were assigned to the asymmetric
 7 CO₃ stretching vibration [$\nu_{as}(\text{CO}_3)$], symmetric CO₃ stretching vibration [$\nu_s(\text{CO}_3)$] and O-H
 8 deformation vibration [$\delta(\text{O-H})$] of monodentate bicarbonate species (*m*-HCO₃²⁻), respec-
 9 tively, were observed upon CO₂ feeding in the dark [48, 49]. When the UV-vis light irradiated
 10 onto the sample, the intensity of these bands decreased immediately. The bands at around
 11 1540 and 1384 cm⁻¹ correspond to the [$\nu_{as}(\text{CO}_2)$] and [$\nu_s(\text{CO}_2)$] of the bidentate formate spe-
 12 cies (*b*-HCO₂²⁻) [50]. This observation suggested that the CO₂ molecules adsorbed on the
 13 surface of Cu-2 were mainly *m*-HCO₃²⁻ and converted to *b*-HCO₂²⁻ through the reaction with
 14 OH⁻ on the surface or oxygen vacancies (OVs) of Cu-2. When the reaction temperature in-
 15 creased to 40 °C, the bands of *m*-HCO₃²⁻ continued to decrease, whereas *b*-HCO₂²⁻ increased
 16 steadily. In other words, the adsorption of CO₂ and conversion of *m*-HCO₃²⁻ to *b*-HCO₂²⁻

1 were enhanced at elevated temperatures. The *operando* DRIFT results suggested that the
2 mechanism for the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction route of Cu-2 was through the carbene path-
3 way.

4 According to the FTIR and *operando* DRIFTS results, the fabricated Copper oxides and
5 Nickel oxides coatings were proposed to be partially carbonated during CO₂ adsorption. The
6 proposed mechanism was illustrated in **Figure S4**. In the case of the CuO/Cu₂O, the surface
7 oxygen present on the CuO could act as a Lewis base site that could donate an electron to the
8 C=O bond of CO₂. This phenomenon promoted the formation of monodentate bonds (carbon
9 coordination bonds) and bidentate at the CuO surface, as shown in **Figure S4a**. The Cu, close
10 to OVs, acts as a Lewis acid site by accepting electrons, interacting with oxygen from CO₂
11 producing $Cu \cdots O - C = O$ species. On the other hand, the bidentate coordination bond oc-
12 curred by interacting the Cu and O in the CuO with CO₂ molecules [9, 14].

13 The FTIR spectra of the nickel oxides samples did not show significant changes before and
14 after the CO₂ purge (**Figure 7b**). Only an appreciated amount of the monodentate species
15 was formed on the NiO surface (**Figure S4b**).

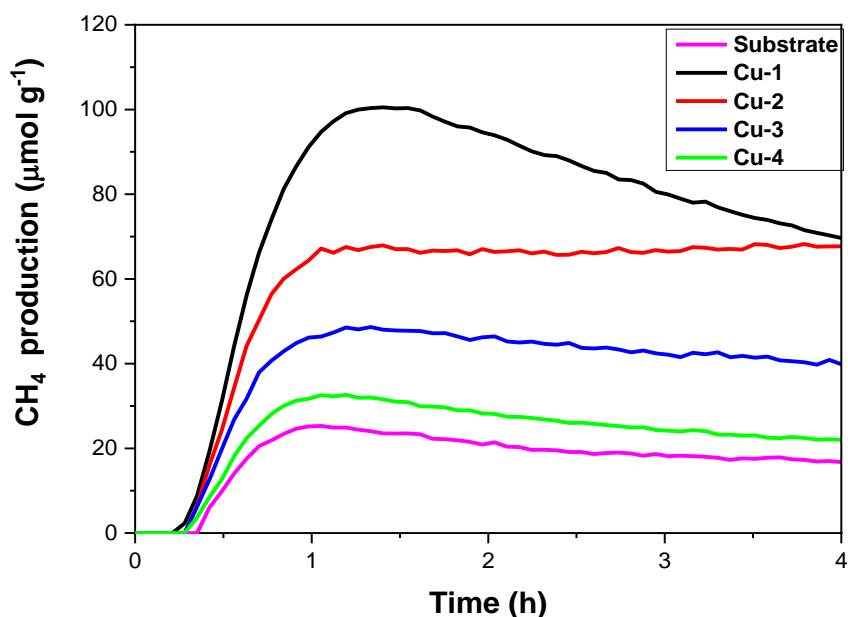
16 **3.3. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in a continuous system**

17 The Copper oxide and Nickel oxide coatings were evaluated for the photocatalytic reduction
18 of CO₂ in the gas phase in a continuous reactor under UV-Visible light. The amounts of
19 different gaseous products (H₂, CO, and CH₄) was monitored with GC. CH₄ was the main
20 product of the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ when copper oxides were used as the photo-
21 catalyst, while H₂ and CO were generated in low amounts (<10 ppm), as shown in **Figure**
22 **S5**.

1 The Cu-1 film showed the highest production rate of CH₄ (94.7 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) followed by the
2 Cu-2 sample (67.1 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), which showed up to 32 times higher production than other
3 reports (**Table S1**) [7, 12, 13, 20, 21, 24-28]. However, Cu-2 revealed a more consistent
4 production of CH₄ than Cu-1 throughout the 4 h reaction, which could be attributed to several
5 factors:

- 6 • A higher affinity for CO₂ resulted in the formation of monodentate and subsequent
7 bidentate species, as is observed in the FTIR spectra.
- 8 • Rod morphology that provided active sites for effective CO₂ adsorption.
- 9 • The coexistence of CuO/Cu₂O in this sample resulted in the type-II heterostructure
10 formation that promoted efficient charge transfer, supplying sufficient protons (8
11 H⁺) and electrons (8 e⁻) for the conversion into CH₄.

12 Cu-3 and Cu-4 with a mixture of Cu/Cu₂O showed a lower production of CH₄ than those
13 samples with a higher content of CuO (i.e., Cu-1 and Cu-2), as seen in **Figure 9**. This could
14 be associated with a rapid photo-oxidation of Cu/Cu₂O and low adsorption of CO₂ on these
15 samples. It should be noted that the substrates, which consisted of CaO and Na₂O, exhibited
16 some activity for solar fuels generation due to their intrinsic properties on CO₂ adsorption
17 [33].

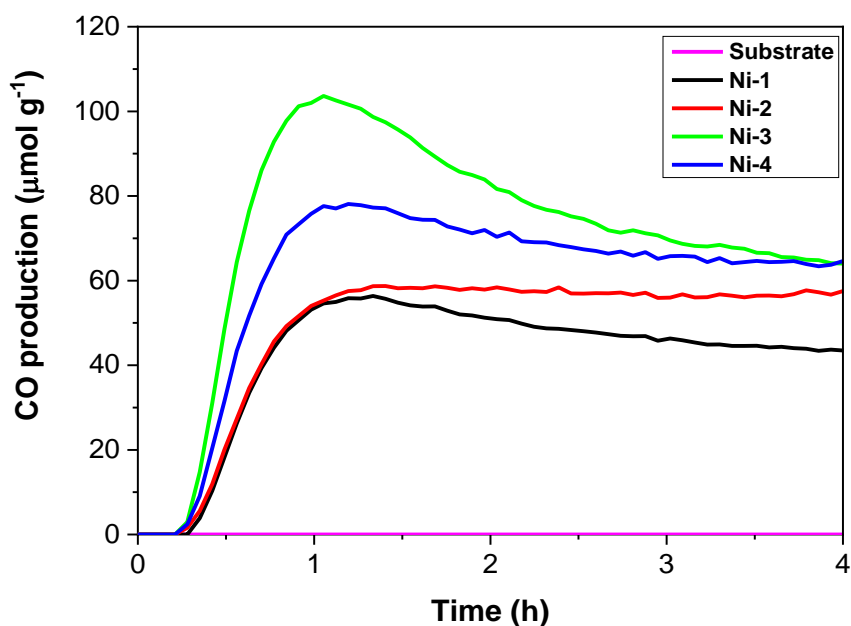


1

2 **Figure 9.** CH₄ evolution using the Copper oxide coatings under 300-600 nm irradiation.

3 The synthesized nickel oxides samples showed only CO production under the same experi-
 4 mental conditions (**Figure 10**). Ni-3 sample generated the highest amount of CO (103 μmol
 5 g⁻¹ h⁻¹), which was around 3 times higher than the previous reports in the literature [20-23,
 6 26-28]. Other carbonaceous by-products (CH₄) were obtained only in trace amounts (**Figure**
 7 **S6**). The superior results were attributed to the unique 2D morphology of flaky agglomeration
 8 and the coexistence of NiO and Ni₂O₃ moieties in Ni-3.

9 Also, it is important to note that the amount generated by the samples was distinguished than
 10 we observed having blank substrates, as shown in **Figures 9** and **10**.



1
2 **Figure 10.** CO evolution using the nickel oxides coatings as photocatalyst under 300-600
3 nm irradiation.

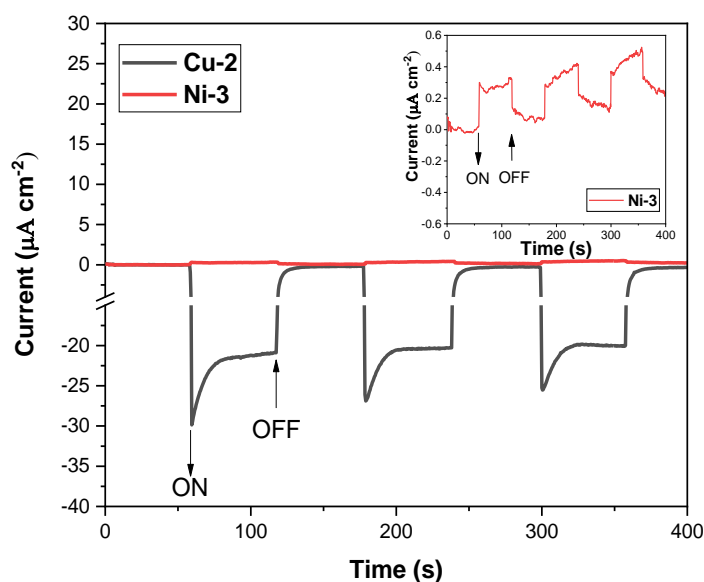
4 Also, each system's best heterostructure activity was compared to single metal oxides to high-
5 light the importance of the coexistence of CuO/Cu₂O and NiO/Ni₂O₃ phases on the coatings.
6 A previous report of CuO coatings grown on glass fibers suggested that it exhibits selectivity
7 for CH₄ production [51]; however, the stability and the efficiency for CH₄ generation with
8 the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure obtained here is higher. Regarding to the nickel-based sam-
9 ples, an additional sample was synthesized without the addition of NaOH or reducing agent,
10 which was identified as Ni-0. This sample exhibited only the monoclinic NiO phase, and it
11 did not exhibit the characteristic band of the coexistence of Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺ sample, which confirms
12 the presence of only NiO in this sample (Ni-0), as is shown in **Figure S7a,b**. The photocata-
13 lytic results show that pure NiO only produce half the yield as of sample with NiO and Ni₂O₃

1 heterostructure (**Figure S7c**). On the other hand, a coating of a commercial TiO₂ P-25 photo-
2 tocatalyst was prepared for comparative purposes. As shown in **Figure S8**, TiO₂ P-25 pre-
3 sented an apparent deactivation (55%) during the photocatalytic evaluation. This result could
4 be explained by means of blocking the active sites through the deposition of carbon-contain-
5 ing products [52]. TiO₂ P-25 did not exhibit selectivity towards CH₄ or CO production since
6 both products were obtained with 50 and 7 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ production, respectively, after 4 h of
7 reaction.

8 A general comparison of the CH₄ and CO production with the copper and nickel-based het-
9 erostructures and the traditional TiO₂ photocatalyst was included in **Figure S9**. As it can be
10 seen, the CuO/Cu₂O and NiO/Ni₂O₃ heterostructures exhibited higher activity than the indi-
11 vidual oxides: CuO, Cu₂O/Cu (Cu-3 sample), NiO and the traditional TiO₂ photocatalyst,
12 which evidences its effectiveness for the selective generation of CH₄ and CO, respectively.
13 Therefore, both compounds are good candidates to be used as alternative green fuels for en-
14 ergy process generation and other applications.

15 To provide further insights with Cu-2 and Ni-3, which showed the best performance in CO₂
16 photoreduction amongst the fabricated samples, these samples were further characterized us-
17 ing transient chronoamperometry (**Figure 11**) and HRTEM techniques (**Figure S10**) to elu-
18 cidate the differences on their photocatalytic activity. Sample Cu-2 showed a *p*-type behavior
19 with a negative photocurrent response, and the photocurrent density 2 was stable throughout
20 the chronoamperometry measurements. However, the Ni-3 film, which was expected to be a
21 *p*-type semiconductor, showed an *n*-type characteristic with a positive photocurrent response
22 [53]. This observation could be attributed to defects within the crystalline structure, such as
23 OVs, leading to the formation of Ni₂O₃ [54].

1 Specifically, Cu-2 showed a higher photocurrent ($-27.3 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$) than Ni-3 ($0.41 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$).
2 The delta observed in the charge density in the coatings indicated a surplus of holes available
3 in the photocatalyst valence band that could interact with the water molecule to generate
4 hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and release protons (H^+). Hence, the result suggested that Cu-2 man-
5 aged to photogenerated more electron-hole pairs for the photo-redox reaction, thus leading
6 to a higher conversion efficiency than Ni-3.



7
8 **Figure 11.** Chronoamperometric pattern of the Cu-2 and Ni-3 samples.

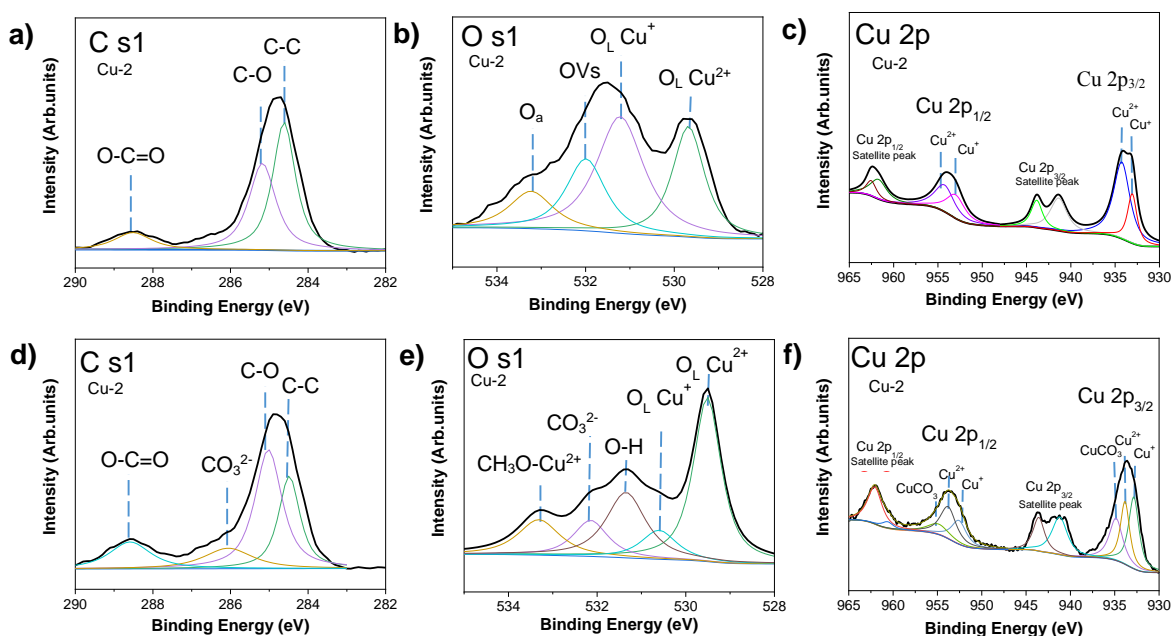
9 The morphology of Cu-2 and Ni-3 observed under TEM (**Figure S10a and b, respectively**)
10 presented similar structures are those observed under SEM (**Figure 3**). HRTEM images evi-
11 denced the presence of the heterostructures in Cu-2 and Ni-3 (**Figure S10c and d**). The CuO
12 (111), and Cu₂O (211) and (200) crystal planes were identified with *d*-spacings ~ 0.23 , ~ 0.17 ,
13 and ~ 0.21 nm, respectively (**Figure S10c**); whereas the lattice fringes of NiO (200) and Ni₂O₃
14 (112) revealed an interplanar spacing of ~ 0.20 and 0.17 nm, respectively.

15 **3.4. Characterization of the coatings after photocatalytic testing**

1 The surface compositions and elemental valence states of the best performance coatings (i.e.,
2 Cu-2 and Ni-3) were investigated by XPS before and after the photocatalytic experiments.
3 The analysis of the Cu-2 film surface before and after the photocatalytic reaction is shown in
4 **Figure 12**. Three peaks at 284.4, 285.2, and 288.5 eV are associated with the C-C, C-O, and
5 O-C=O bonds, respectively, of the adsorbed CO₂ (**Figure 12a**) [14, 55, 56]. The O 1s spec-
6 trum was fitted with four peaks centered at 529.6, 531.0, 531.9, and 533.3 eV (**Figure 12b**),
7 corresponding to the oxygen in the lattice structure (O_L) of the O_L-CuO and O_L-Cu₂O [57,
8 58], OVs [59, 60], and oxygen adsorbed on the surface with low coordination related with
9 C-O (O_a) [61, 62], respectively. Meanwhile, the Cu 2p spectrum was deconvoluted in two
10 peaks attributed to Cu⁺ and Cu²⁺ at 933.1 and 953.1 eV, respectively (**Figure 12c**) [63-65].
11 The Cu²⁺ peaks and their respective satellites (Cu 2p_{3/2} and Cu 2p_{1/2}) appeared at 934.3, 954.3,
12 961.4, and 962.5 eV for Cu-2.

13 After the photocatalytic reaction, the Cu-2 sample showed an additional band in its C 1s
14 spectrum related to C-H bond at 286.1 eV (**Figure 12d**). This band could be ascribed to the
15 residual methoxide, which is an intermediate of the photocatalytic reaction [66]. This species
16 could be adsorbed on the edge sites of the film forming CH₃O-Cu²⁺ [67]. Moreover, the in-
17 tensity of the signal at 532.1 eV grew after the reaction due to the presence of hydroxides (O-
18 H), carbonates (CO₃²⁻) [68], or oxygen-containing hydrocarbons (CH₃O-Cu²⁺) [69], while
19 the signal related to OVs at 531.0 eV disappeared after photocatalytic CO₂ reduction, proba-
20 bly because to the partial carbonation of the photocatalyst after the test (**Figure 12e**). The
21 results indicated that OVs acted as an active site for CO₂ adsorption. It is also possible to
22 observe an additional band around 934.8 eV related to the partial carbonation of the CuO [46,
23 70], which suggested the formation of intermediates monodentate and bidentate carbonate
24 species. The Na 1s signal, which was originated from the substrates, was studied thoroughly.

1 The reference spectra showed a central peak at 1071.2 eV corresponding to Na-O bond pre-
 2 sent in Na₂O (**Figure S11a, b**) [71, 72]. A new band around 1071.6 eV appeared in the Na
 3 1s spectrum after the reaction, which was associated with the partial carbonation of Na₂O
 4 (**Figure S11c, d**) [72, 73]. The carbonation of Na-O suggested that this oxide acted as an
 5 additional active site for CO₂ adsorption, enhancing the global efficiency.

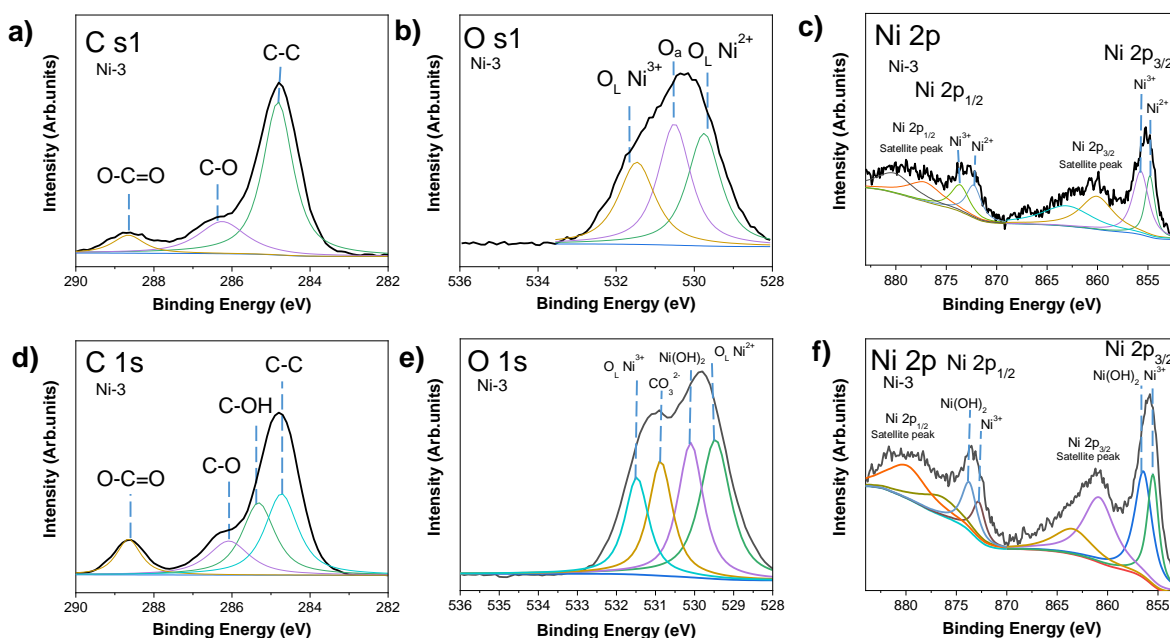


6
 7 **Figure 12.** XPS spectra of Cu-2 film before and after the photocatalytic reaction for the ele-
 8 ment of a) and d) C 1s, b) and e) O 1s, c) and f) Cu 2p, respectively.

9 The surface analysis of Ni-3 before and after CO₂ reduction is shown in **Figure 13**. The C 1s
 10 spectrum of the film shows peaks at 284.4, 285.2, and 288.5 eV attributed to *sp*² carbon
 11 components C–C, C-O, and O-C=O bonds, respectively (**Figure 13a**) [14, 55, 56]. These
 12 signals were due to the CO₂ adsorbed from the air. For the O1s spectrum (**Figure 13b**), three
 13 peaks were observed at 529.7, 530.5, and 531.4 eV, related to Ni²⁺ (O_L Ni²⁺) of NiO [74], to
 14 oxygen adsorbed on the surface with low coordination (O_a) [61, 75], and Ni³⁺ (O_L Ni³⁺) of
 15 Ni₂O₃ [76, 77], respectively. The Ni 2p spectrum in **Figure 13c** displays two edge splits by

1 spin-orbital coupling: i) the Ni 2p_{3/2} peak at 854.7 eV related with NiO [78], and ii) the 2p_{3/2}
2 central peak at 855.7 eV and its satellite at 860.2 eV, evidencing the existence of Ni₂O₃ on
3 the surface [77, 78]. This observation also explained the enhanced performance in PL (**Fig-**
4 **ure 6**) and the *p*-type characteristic of the sample, as shown in the transient chronoamperom-
5 etry tests (**Figure 11**). After CO₂ reduction, Ni-3 film presented additional bands in the C 1s,
6 Ni 2p, and O 1s spectra related to the presence of hydroxides, carbonates, or oxygen-contain-
7 ing hydrocarbons (**Figure 13d, e**) [68, 79]. The Ni 2p spectrum after the reaction showed the
8 2p_{3/2} at 855.7 eV, the 2p_{1/2} at 872.6 eV, and its satellite peak at 860.2 and 879.5 eV, respec-
9 tively (**Figure 13f**). Also, additional bands in the O 1s spectrum were observed at 856.7 and
10 866.1 eV, suggesting the conversion of NiO to Ni(OH)₂ after the reaction [80]. According to
11 these results, the formation Ni(OH)₂ species during the photocatalytic reaction promoted the
12 hydroxylation of NiO phase and the dissolution of the NiO/Ni₂O₃ heterostructure. As a result,
13 the photoreduction of CO₂ activity deactivated with time, as shown in **Figure 10**, which
14 eventually decreased the charge transfer in the Ni-3 sample.

15 According to the results, the decrease of CH₄ or CO production by Cu-1 and Ni-3, respec-
16 tively, was due to the carbonation occurred on the surface of the catalyst as discussed with
17 **Figures 12 and 13**. These experiments gave a strong indication that no degradation occurred
18 during CO₂ photoreduction reaction.



1
2 **Figure 13.** XPS spectra of Ni-3 film before and after the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction for
3 the element of a) and d) C 1s, b) and e) O 1s, c) and f) Ni 2p, respectively.

4 3.5. Stability test

5 The stability of the optimized samples (Cu-2 and Ni-3) was conducted under a similar pho-
6 tocatalytic reduction of CO₂. Three consecutive runs were performed on each sample (**Figure**
7 **S12**). The results revealed that copper oxides exhibited a stable CH₄ production after three
8 consecutive cycles, whereas the CO production of Ni-3 coating deteriorated in each cycle
9 significantly, around 28% in the second cycle and 42% in the third one.

10 After the tests, the morphology of the Cu-2 and Ni-3 samples was analyzed by SEM. After
11 the test, the Ni-3 sample maintained its morphology of polyhedral particles, while the parti-
12 cles with flake morphology were not observed, as is shown in **Figure S13a**. On the contrary,
13 the morphology of Cu-2 bars changed after the photocatalytic evaluation. **Figure S13b** shows
14 that after the reaction, the bars tended to agglomerate with each other forming elongated

1 agglomerates, which could be related to the loss of active sites for the photocatalytic CO₂
2 reduction.

3 **3.6. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in a batch reactor**

4 The photocatalytic activity of the samples with the best performance in the continuous system
5 (Cu-2 and Ni-3) was also evaluated in a batch reactor to investigate the formation of liquid
6 solar fuels under LED visible-light (**Figure S14**). Both samples produced HCOOH and
7 CH₃OH; however, traces of CH₂O were identified in both samples (<2 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹). Cu-2
8 sample exhibited higher CH₃OH production (177 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) than Ni-3 sample (5 μmol g⁻¹
9 h⁻¹). These results could be attributed to efficient charge transfer in the CuO/Cu₂O film, high
10 affinity of CO₂ adsorption, and the type of carbonate adsorbed species. Formic acid was also
11 identified, which production was better in the Ni-3 sample (4245 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) compared with
12 the Cu-2 sample (1450 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹). These results confirm that the charge transfer efficiency
13 and the CO₂ affinity are important factors to obtain hydrocarbons of higher molecular
14 weights, since the use of NiO/Ni₂O₃ promote the formation of CO and HCOOH in the gas
15 and liquid phases, respectively. Because these reactions just required two electrons to occur.
16 The liquid products obtained from the photocatalytic evaluation of Cu-2 were confirmed and
17 monitored by ¹H NMR (**Figure S15**). It was possible to corroborate the presence of methanol
18 at 3.6 ppm in the sample and ethanol at 3.4 ppm. The observed concentrations are of the same
19 order of magnitude as those liquid samples analyzed using GC. With this technique was not
20 possible to identify the presence of CH₂O and HCOOH due to its detection limit (<2 ppm).
21 Also, for comparative purposes, TiO₂ P-25 was evaluated under the same experimental con-
22 ditions in the liquid phase. This reference sample only promoted the formation of HCOOH

(81 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), and other products were not detected. These results confirm the better photocatalytic activity of the earth-abundant photocatalyst proposed in this work.

3.7. Photocatalytic mechanism

The photocatalytic proposed for the CO_2 reduction mechanism on the surface of the Cu-2 and Ni-3 sample was illustrated in **Figure 14**. The theoretical potential of the conduction band of Cu_2O is more negative (-0.4 eV) than that of CuO (0.3 eV). Therefore, the electrons (e^-) of the valence band of Cu_2O are transferred to the conduction band of CuO generating a hole (h^+) in the first band, which reacts with the CO_2 and H_2O molecules adsorbed on its surface (**Figure 14a I**). In the proposed mechanism, the presence of Na_2O in the substrate, represented as a gray circle, provides an extra active site where the CO_2 adsorption occurs. This phenomenon was corroborated by analyzing the Na1s spectrum after and before the photocatalytic reaction, which evidences the formation of Na_2CO_3 after its interaction with the CO_2 molecule. Once the carbonates are captured on the photocatalytic device (Metal oxides/Substrate), the photogenerated electrons can proceed to reduce this species onto C1 products (**Figure 14a II**). In an initial step, the CO_2 molecule is adsorbed on the heterostructure surface, forming mono and bidentate species (as it was previously demonstrated by FTIR analysis); at the beginning of the reaction, electrons are transferred from Cu_2O to CuO and then to the adsorbed species (**Figure 14a III**). CO_2 can be physisorbed as a linear molecule or chemisorbed as a partly charged $\text{CO}_2^{\delta-}$ species via interactions with surface atoms. Three different coordination systems have been proposed for CO_2 molecules adsorbed on a photocatalyst surface:

1. First, the positively charged carbon atom may behave as a Lewis acid, accepting electrons from Lewis's base centers such as oxide ions and forming a carbonate-like species (**Figure S16a**).

1 2. Second, as illustrated in **Figure S16b**, the oxygen atoms in CO₂ have lone pairs of electrons
2 that can be transported to the Lewis acid centers on the surface.

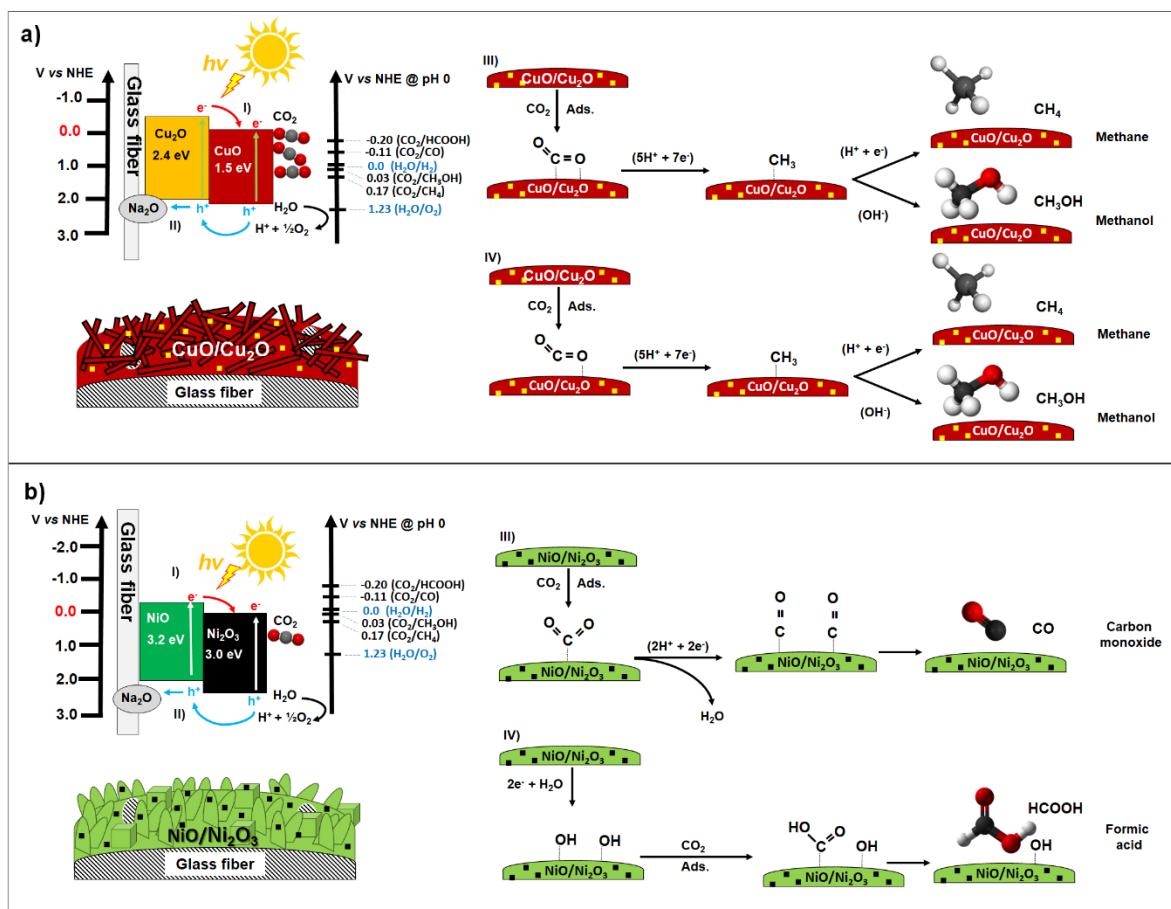
3 3. Thirdly, the oxygen and carbon atoms of the CO₂ molecule can act as electron donors and
4 acceptors, resulting in a mixed coordination structure, as is shown in **Figure S16c**.

5 The mechanism for the formation of C1 products such as CH₃OH and CH₄ can occur by
6 different routes [50]. The first route is by forming *CO and subsequent hydrogenation to
7 *CHO, *CH₂O (which desorbs as HCHO), and *CH₃O (methoxy). Additionally, the inter-
8 mediate *CH₃O may convert to CH₄, leaving *O on the surface, which would evolve into
9 H₂O. Another way to form CH₄ also originates from the formation of *CO on the surface.
10 This intermediate is hydrogenated to form *COH on the surface, subsequently dehydrated to
11 form *C. Via step-by-step hydrogenation, this intermediate forms CH₄. An additional mech-
12 anism that differs from these two pathways could also occur. Rather than forming *CO ini-
13 tially, this pathway begins with the bidentate coordination of CO₂*⁻ via the oxygen atoms,
14 followed by the generation of HCO₂, H₂OCO*, and *CHO. This mechanism is referred to as
15 the carbene pathway [50]. On the other hand, the Ni-based coatings only produce CO and
16 HCOOH due to their lower affinity to adsorbed CO₂. Based on the results, it is proposed that
17 the reaction mechanism follows the carbene route since it was possible to identify by XPS
18 residual species such as CH₃O-Cu²⁺, which is an intermediate in the production of methanol
19 and methane.

20 On the other hand, the proposed mechanism of the photocatalytic reactions that take place in
21 the Ni-3 coating is illustrated in **Figure 14b**. Like that of the Cu-2 film, the photoreduction
22 process begins once CO₂ is adsorbed. Electrons are transferred from the conduction band of
23 NiO to Ni₂O₃ according to their theoretical CB potentials, e.g., -0.34 and 0.07 V vs NHE,
24 respectively. In this mechanism, NiO acts as an electron donor in which the photoexcited

1 electrons could be transferred to the CO₂ adsorbed on the Ni₂O₃ surface, producing CO fol-
2 lowing the pathway for C₁ products [81]. Due to the relatively low amount of photogenerated
3 electrons in the NiO conduction band, a small amount of these is transferred to the Ni₂O₃.
4 Then, the electrons photogenerated in Ni₂O₃ (small black particles) are transferred to the Ni-
5 O = C = O species (**Figure 14b I**). According to the results shown in the FTIR spectrum, the
6 lower affinity for CO₂ on NiO could promote a rapid desorption of carbonate species, which
7 favored the formation of CO and HCOOH in the gas and liquid phase, respectively. Further-
8 more, the minor current density indicates that the NiO/Ni₂O₃ heterostructure did not provide
9 enough electrons for CO₂ photoreduction to methane or methanol. Additionally, the presence
10 of Ni₂O₃ could favor de charge transfer due to the formation of a type-II heterostructure,
11 while the presence of Na₂O, also help to prevents the re-oxidation of the products (**Figure**
12 **14b II**). A closer view of this mechanism is shown in **Figure 14b III**, in which the CO or
13 HCOOH production starts when the CO₂ molecule is adsorbed on the NiO surface. Of note,
14 when the surface of NiO interacts with water, it could form Ni(OH)₂ on the surface, which
15 would reduce the photocatalytic activity of the heterostructure.

16 In both mechanisms, the H₂ generation is suppressed by the higher affinity of CO₂ for the
17 protons (H⁺) generated in the valence band of the semiconductors, as is shown in **Figure S5c**.



1
2 **Figure 14.** Schematic diagram of proposed mechanisms for the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in a) Cu-2 (CuO/Cu₂O) and b) Ni-3 (NiO/Ni₂O₃) samples.

4. Conclusions

5 Heterostructured Cu_xO (x = 1 and 2) and Ni_xO_y (x=1 and 2, y=1 and 3) coatings on flexible
6 substrates were obtained by an *in-situ* microwave-hydrothermal method using glucose as a
7 reductive agent at 80 °C for 1 h. The coatings exhibited photocatalytic activity to convert
8 CO₂ into value-added products, such as CH₄ and CO in a continuous system under UV-Vis-
9 ible light and CH₃OH and HCOOH in a batch reactor under visible light. The CuO/Cu₂O
10 coatings were selective towards CH₄ and CH₃OH; meanwhile NiO/Ni₂O₃ preferably pro-
11 duced CO and HCOOH.

1 The highest CH₄ production with CuO/Cu₂O coatings was 94 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, which was 32
2 times higher than previous studies in the literature using a simple or binary oxides of coatings.
3 The superior CO₂ photoreduction was attributed to the high affinity for CO₂ and an efficient
4 charge transfer in the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure. On the other hand, Ni_xO_y coatings showed
5 a much lower affinity to CO₂ adsorption and less efficient charge transfer than CuO/Cu₂O
6 coatings, producing lighter products: CO in the continuous reactor and HCOOH in the batch
7 reactor. Also, the stability in these samples was lower than the copper oxide coatings due to
8 the conversion of NiO/Ni₂O₃ to NiO/Ni(OH)₂, as evidenced in XPS.

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1 CO₂ capture and photocatalytic reduction to hydrocarbons is an interesting yet challenging
2 area that requires photocatalysts with the capability to capture and photoconvert CO₂ simul-
3 taneously. Furthermore, earth-abundant photocatalysts with high efficiency and product se-
4 lectivity are essential for commercialization. Thus, two earth-abundant photocatalysts based
5 on copper and nickel oxides were selected to produce solar fuels from CO₂ photoreduction.
6 The photocatalysts were immobilized on commercial glass fibers substrates by a facile one-
7 step microwave-hydrothermal method. Cu_xO (x=1, 2) and Ni_xO_y (x=1, 2 and y=1, 3) coatings
8 on glass fiber were evaluated as photocatalysts in two different reactors to investigate the
9 selectivity in a continuous reactor and a batch system. Two different light sources were em-
10 ployed: a heterochromatic lamp to simulate part of the solar light in the continuous reactor
11 and a LED visible light in the batch reactor. CuO/Cu₂O photocatalysts exhibited a selective
12 production of CH₄ (95 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and CH₃OH (177 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) from CO₂ photoreduction
13 in the continuous and batch continuous systems, respectively. The superior performance was
14 attributed to the unique rod-shape morphology, the presence of oxygen vacancies and effi-
15 cient charge transfer in the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure with high affinity towards CO₂, result-
16 ing the formation of mono- and bidentate carbonate species during the CO₂ photoreduction
17 reaction. Ni_xO_y coating with 2D cubic shape produced CO (103 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and HCOOH
18 (4245 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), associating with the low CO₂ affinity and less efficient charge separation
19 compared to CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure.

20 *Keywords:* Photocatalysis; CO₂ reduction; Solar fuels; CO₂ adsorption; Cu_xO; Ni_xO_y.

21 **1. Introduction**

1 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is considered the main greenhouse gas (GHG) responsible for climate
2 change [1]. Fossil fuel utilization is the main contributor to anthropogenic CO₂ emissions
3 [2,3]. One of the promising routes to address CO₂ emissions and provide an alternative en-
4 ergy source is implementing artificial photosynthesis. This process could be carried out
5 through CO₂ photocatalytic conversion into light hydrocarbon molecules, such as CH₄, syn-
6 gas (CO/H₂), alcohols, and aldehydes [4-6].

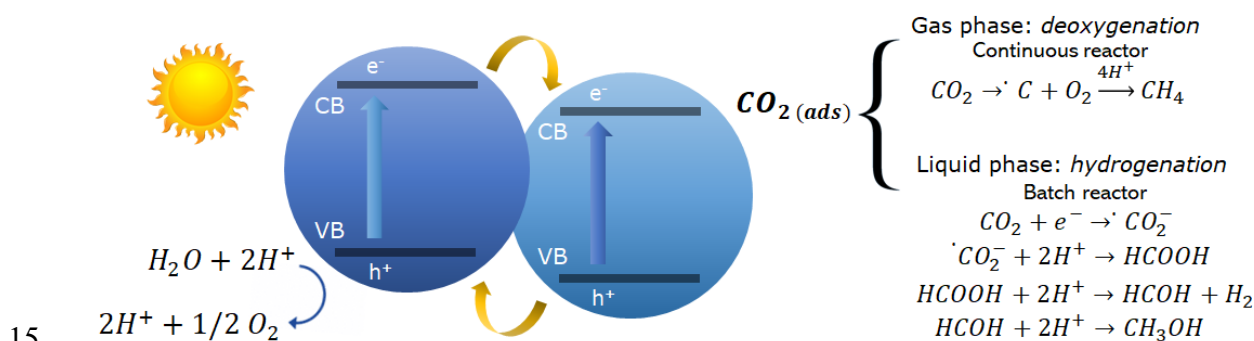
7 TiO₂ has been extensively used as a photocatalyst reduction of CO₂ process. However, TiO₂
8 is not an ideal photocatalyst to carry out the CO₂ photoreduction because it has a low affinity
9 for CO₂ in the presence of H₂O [7]. The use of other oxides such as Cu_xO (x=1, 2), NiO,
10 Fe₂O₃, ZnO, and MgO, represents an excellent option to be used in this process due to their
11 ability to attract electrons and provide active sites for CO₂ fixation, such as oxygen vacancies
12 (OVs) [8-13]. Copper and nickel oxides have resulted in good efficiencies for the CO₂ pho-
13 toconversion process; however, their use has been limited as co-catalysts for photocatalytic
14 CO₂ conversion [9, 12-14].

15 Cu_xO (x= 1, 2) materials have shown potential advantages for the CO₂ conversion because
16 CuO favors CO₂ adsorption through the formation of monodentate and bidentate carbonate
17 species [14]; whereas Cu₂O provides adequate reduction potential, visible-light absorption,
18 and selective active-sites to capture electrons, and enhancing multi-electron reactions on its
19 surface [15, 16]. These properties have favored the production of CH₄. On the other hand,
20 NiO has been used as a co-catalyst for CO₂ photoreduction to CH₃OH, CH₄, and CO in some
21 composite materials, such as NiO/In₂O₃/TiO₂ [17], Ni/NiO/g-C₃N₄ [18], NiO/InTaO₄ [8], and
22 ZnO/Ni [19]. Previous works suggest that the coexistence of Ni²⁺/Ni⁰ pairs in core-shells

1 structures enhanced the electron transfer among the semiconductors and it promotes the for-
2 mation of CO from the CO₂ photoreduction [17, 18]. From these works, it seems that the
3 presence of NiO and Cu_xO favored the generation of CO and CH₄ in gas phase continuous
4 reactors, respectively. However, the selectivity of these two photocatalytic materials has not
5 been explored in detail under similar operation parameters since most of the works use dif-
6 ferent high-power lamps that emit in the UV range [12,13,20-28]. Therefore, studying of both
7 oxides under similar reaction conditions is interesting and could help understand each oxide's
8 selectivity in the continuous and batch systems since previous reports suggest different reac-
9 tion mechanisms in the gas (continuous) and liquid (batch) phases [29, 30], as is shown in
10 **Figure 1.**

11 Some of the challenges related to the photocatalytic materials, for the scaling-up of the CO₂
12 photoreduction, are the rapid recombination of the photogenerated charges, light absorption,
13 low surface areas, lack of active sites adequate for the reaction (e.g., OV_s), the deactivation
14 or poisoning of the photocatalysts, the CO₂ adsorption or the desorption of by-products, the
15 low selectivity, and the immobilization of the photocatalyst [4]. Considering these factors,
16 this work proposes two complementary strategies for the design of efficient photocatalytic
17 materials to provide insights to overcome some of these challenges. One of the strategies
18 implemented was the design of heterostructured materials to reduce the recombination of the
19 photogenerated charges in earth-abundant copper and nickel oxides [31, 32]. In this context,
20 the use of heterostructured materials represents a good strategy to promote an improvement
21 of the separation of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and enhance the selectivity of solar
22 fuel production. For this purpose, the use of type-II heterostructured materials promotes the
23 formation internal electric fields that can drive the electron and holes transfer in opposite
24 directions, which decrease the recombination of the photogenerated charges, as is also shown

1 in **Figure 1**. In this scheme is also included the charge transfer in type-II heterostructured
 2 materials.
 3 Secondly, the immobilization of photocatalysts on commercially available, low-cost, and
 4 flexible substrates, e.g., glass fibers, could favor the process of scaling-up as well as provid-
 5 ing a higher exposed area for photocatalytic reaction, promoting efficient charge transport,
 6 and enhancing light absorption [33]. The use of immobilized photocatalyst has been success-
 7 fully demonstrated in recent reports for CO₂ photoreduction, as is shown in **Table S1**.
 8 In summary, this work focuses on increasing solar fuel production using visible-light active
 9 heterostructure photocatalysts immobilized on flexible and low-cost substrates in a continu-
 10 ous and batch systems. The heterostructures were evaluated in a continuous reactor under
 11 UV-Visible light from a solar simulator. At the same time, in the batch experiments, a LED
 12 visible lamp was used to activate the materials. In addition, a practical yet novel approach to
 13 fabricate nickel and copper oxides coatings, which possessed a high affinity towards CO₂
 14 and enhanced visible-light absorption, is proposed herein.



16 **Figure 1**. Photocatalytic mechanism of heterostructured materials in the gas and liquid
 17 phases.

18 2. Experimental Section

19 2.1. Fabrication of Cu_xO (x=1, 2) and Ni_xO_y (x=1, 2 and y =1, 3) coatings on glass fibers

1 The deposition of Cu_xO ($x=1, 2$) and Ni_xO_y ($x=1, 2$ and $y=1, 3$) on glass fiber (GF) were
 2 performed by an in-situ microwave-hydrothermal (MH) method. The oxides were deposited
 3 on GF substrates with the following composition: SiO_2 , Na_2O , and CaO , with an open slit of
 4 2.7 mm and an effective area of 2.73 cm^2 [33]. First, the substrate was cleaned under soni-
 5 cation for 25 minutes with pure acetone (Baker, 99.5%), methanol (DEQ, 99.9%), and dis-
 6 tilled water. Then, the substrate was dried at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ overnight before use.
 7 The cleaned GF substrates were placed in an autoclave that contained an aqueous solution of
 8 $\text{Cu}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Fermont, 99%) or $\text{Ni}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Fermont, 99%), according to
 9 the experiment design, as shown in **Table 1**. Then, different quantities of glucose ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$,
 10 Sigma, 99%) as reducing agent were added. Subsequently, NaOH (Fermont, 99%) was added
 11 slowly into the Cu and Ni solution. The autoclave was heated in a microwave reactor (Mars
 12 6) at 300 W at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 60 min. The coating on the GF was washed with distilled water and
 13 then dried at $100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ overnight. The identification of the samples is shown in **Table 1**.

14 **Table 1.** Synthesis parameters used for the deposition of the films on the GF.

Sample ID	[NaOH] (M)	[$\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$] (mol)
Cu-1	0.3	0.0
Cu-2	0.6	
Cu-3	0.3	0.015
Cu-4	0.6	
Ni-1	0.3	0.0
Ni-2	0.6	
Ni-3	0.3	0.015
Ni-4	0.6	

15 **2.2. Material characterization**

1 The crystalline phases of the coating were analyzed using X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker
2 D8 Advance diffractometer). The measurements were performed in a 2θ interval from 10 to
3 70° with a step size of 0.02° for 0.3 s with Cu $K\alpha$ radiation 1.5418 \AA . The morphological
4 characterization and elemental mapping were conducted with scanning electron microscopy
5 (SEM) using a JEOL JSM-6490LV microscope with an acceleration voltage of 20 kV by
6 placing the samples on carbon tape and covered with gold-palladium coating for the meas-
7 urement. Furthermore, the surface of the samples was analyzed using a Luxo Microscope
8 System model 273RB-RLI. Diffuse reflectance of the photocatalysts was determined using a
9 Perkin Elmer Lambda 950 UV-Visible spectrophotometer equipped with a 150 mm integra-
10 tion sphere. The bandgap (E_g) was estimated using the Kubelka-Munk (K-M) function, con-
11 sidering a direct charge transfer on Cu and Ni transition oxides. **With this data, the theoretical**
12 **conduction and valence band potentials were calculated by equations 1 and 2.**

$$E_{VB} = X - E^e + 0.5E_g \quad (1)$$

$$E_{CB} = X - E^e - 0.5E_g \quad (2)$$

13 **where X is the absolute electronegativity, E^e is the energy of free electrons on a hydrogen**
14 **scale (4.5 eV), and E_g is the energy band gap.** Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)
15 was used to study the surface properties of the fabricated samples before and after the CO_2
16 capture and photoreduction processes. The characteristic spectra of the samples were identi-
17 fied using the Thermo FTIR Nicolet iS50 kit in a range of $600\text{-}4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. Photoluminescence
18 (PL) analysis was performed at room temperature in a fluorescence spectrophotometer (Cary
19 Eclipse) integrated with a Xenon flash lamp. The samples were excited at 300 nm and an
20 emission slit of 5 at room temperature. The crystal structure and shape of heterostructures
21 were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a JEOL JEM-2200FS. For

1 TEM characterization, the powders were suspended in isopropanol. The solution was
2 dropped onto the Lacey carbon grids (300 mesh) and dried at room temperature. The surface
3 composition of the coating was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) using
4 a Thermo Scientific Escalab 250 Xi with step energy of 200 eV for survey scans and 50 eV
5 for high resolution scans with step sizes of 1.0 and 0.1 eV, respectively. Batch neutralization
6 of the sample was accomplished using a combination of Ar low-energy ions and electrons.
7 Photocurrent measurements were performed on FTO glass. For this purpose, the working
8 electrode was prepared with each sample by the spin coating method; this method consists in
9 preparing 5 mg of the sample in 10 mL of isopropanol and sonicated for 25 min. Then, the
10 homogeneous solution was coated dropwise over an FTO glass with an active area of 1.0 x
11 1.0 cm² and dispersed by spinning at 2800 rpm for 20 s. The coated FTO glasses were then
12 dried at 80 °C, and a similar step is repeated for consecutive layers (25 times). The prepared
13 film was annealed at 200 °C for 1 h, at 10 °C min⁻¹. Chronoamperometry was conducted
14 using an Autolab with 0.1 M NaOH as an electrolyte. The irradiation source was turned on
15 for 60 s and then off for another 60 s. These on-off cycles were repeated for 6 min.

16 **2.3. CO₂ adsorption analysis**

17 Temperature programmed desorption (TPD) was performed using a ChemBET Pulsar TPD
18 from Quantachrome Instruments to evaluate the CO₂ adsorption affinity of the materials syn-
19 thesized. 100 mg of the sample was placed in a U-shaped reactor between two pieces of
20 quartz wool. The sample was heated in an inert atmosphere (N₂, 99.9995%) to 150 °C to
21 eliminate adsorbed compounds for 3 h. Then, the sample was cooled down to 50 °C. Next, a
22 flow of CO₂ (0.35 mL min⁻¹) was passed for 60 min and then replaced by He (99.9995%).
23 The measurement started when a stable baseline was achieved. After that, the sample was

1 heated at 350°C at a constant rate of 10°C min⁻¹. The CO₂ desorption signal were recorded
2 by Thermal Conductivity Detector (TCD).
3 *Operando* Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) experi-
4 ments were conducted on Agilent Cary 600 series spectrometer equipped with Harrick Praying
5 Mantis reaction cell. The gas inlet of the cell was directly connected to a flow system
6 equipped with mass flow controllers and a temperature controller. The cell outlet was con-
7 nected to the mass spectrometer Hiden QGA MS. In each experiment, 20 mg of catalyst
8 powder was placed in the cell. Before reaction, the KBr background was collected in presence
9 of CO₂, which was flowing through the bubbler. 64 scans were collected per spectrum with
10 a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and in the spectral range of 4000-400 cm⁻¹. The experiment
11 was performed under UV-Vis irradiation at 24 and 40 °C and dark (24 °C) conditions to
12 simulate the experimental conditions within the photocatalytic reactor.

13 **2.4. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction**

14 ***a) Continuous reactor***

15 Continuous gas-phase CO₂ photoreduction experiments were performed in a stainless-steel
16 ring-type reactor, previously described in [34]. The coatings (2.5 x 4 cm²) were placed in the
17 photoreactor, with a volume of 1.96 mL, before it was sealed. The system was purged with
18 pure CO₂ to remove residual air overnight. A constant flowrate of CO₂ was set to 0.35 mL
19 min⁻¹, with a relative humidity of 1.8% measured by an Arduino sensor. In this case, H₂O
20 was used as precursor of H⁺ ions for the CO₂ photocatalytic reduction. The temperature of
21 the reaction (40 °C) was maintained using a hot plate. The light source was a heterochromatic
22 lamp model OmniCure S2000 that emits in 300-600 nm wavelength to simulate the solar
23 light irradiation. The lamp was placed 30 mm above the surface of the sample. The irradiance

1 (150 mW cm⁻²) was measured using an OmniCure R2000 radiometer (±5%). An inline
2 GC/TCD/FID (Agilent, Model 7890B series), a Hayesep Q column (1.5 m), 1/16-inch OD,
3 1 mm OD), Molecular Sieve 13X (1.2 m), 1/16-inch OD, 1 mm ID) was used to quantify the
4 photoreaction products. The system also has a nickel catalyzed methanizer and a flame ioni-
5 zation detector (FID) to analyze the products every 4 min. The products CH₄ and CO were
6 measured by FID, while TCD identified H₂ and O₂.

7 To evaluate the recyclability of each set of coatings, third cycling tests was conducted under
8 identical conditions. After each test, the sample was heated at 200 °C for 2 h before employ-
9 ing in the next cycle.

10 *b) Batch reactor*

11 The samples with the highest performance for CO₂ photoreduction were evaluated in a batch
12 quartz reactor **in liquid phase** at room temperature. For these experiments, the coatings (2.73
13 cm²) were placed inside the **batch** reactor with 150 mL of distilled water under magnetic
14 stirring. The reactor was bubbled with CO₂ for 30 minutes to replace the solution's dissolved
15 oxygen. **In this reactor, a different light source was used to emulate the visible light from the**
16 **solar light.** The reactor was irradiated with 2 LED lamps of 20 W each, which exhibit two
17 emissions at 443 and 535 nm, from the sides. The reaction products **in the liquid phase** were
18 monitored by different techniques, as described here. Formic acid (HCOOH) and formalde-
19 hyde (CH₂O) were measured with high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) after 1
20 h of reaction. The CH₂O quantification was carried out by injecting 25 µL of the liquid sam-
21 ple into the system, with a Fenomenex C-18 column, using a 50:50 v/v acetonitrile-water
22 (HPLC grade Baker) mixture as a carrier. Before the sample was injected, the liquid sample
23 was derivatized, forming a complex product of the reaction with 2-4, dinitrophenyl hydrazine
24 (Aldrich, 98%) and phosphoric acid (Baker, 98%) [35]. On the other hand, the HCOOH

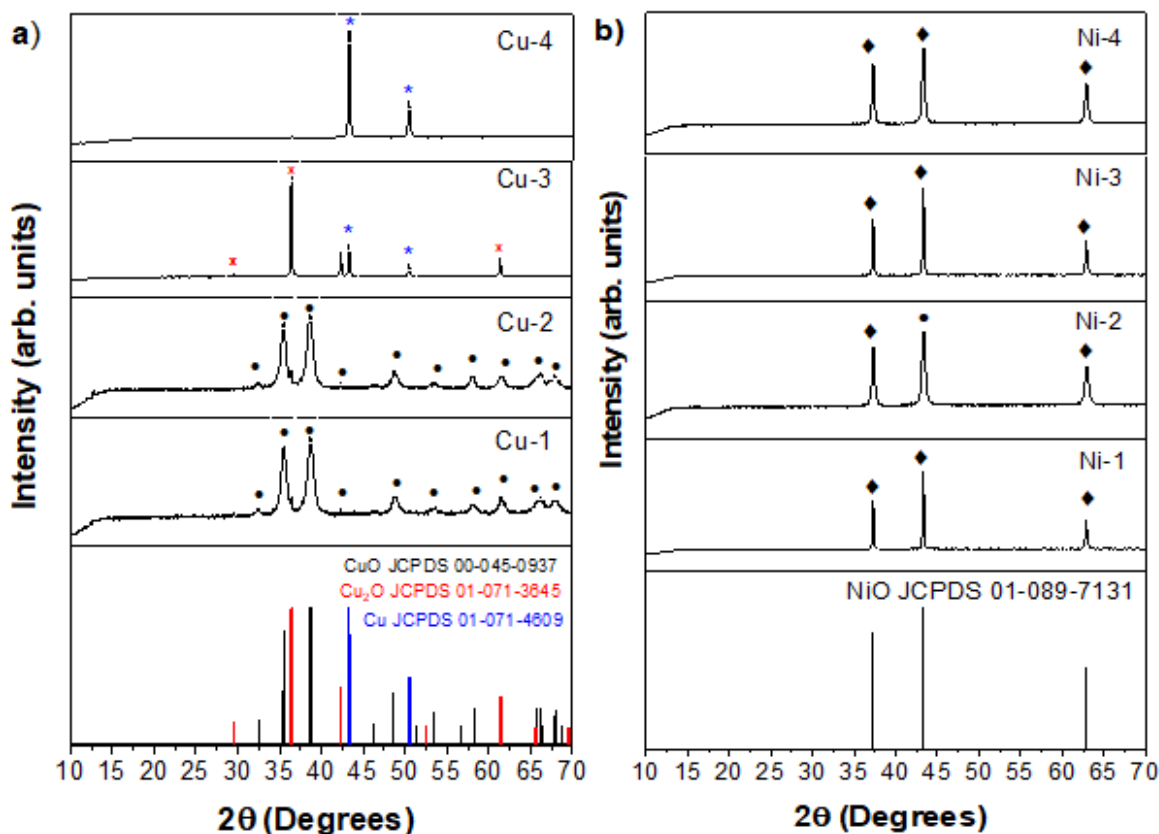
1 measurement was carried out by injecting 15 μL of previously sample filtered reaction liquid
2 sample [36]. Additionally, CH_3OH was determined by gas chromatography. To corroborate
3 the reaction products, the liquid sample was analyzed by nuclear magnetic resonance (^1H
4 NMR) analysis on a Bruker 400 MHz Avance III HD spectrometer (Bruker, BioSpin, USA)
5 equipped with a 5 mm BBO SP probe with Z-field gradient. TopSpin 3.6.1 software (Bruker
6 Biospin) was used for FID processing. CHENOMX NMR Suite 8.5 software was used for
7 signal identification.

8 **3. Results and discussion**

9 **3.1. Material properties**

10 Homogeneous Cu_xO and Ni_xO_y coatings on GF were fabricated with a simultaneous micro-
11 wave-hydrothermal method in the presence of glucose, as a reducing agent, in a basic me-
12 dium. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to investigate the crystalline phases of the coatings
13 (**Figure 2**). Cu_xO ($x=1, 2$) coatings exhibited a wide range of crystal compositions. The coat-
14 ings obtained in the absence of the reducing agent (Cu-1 and Cu-2) exhibited the monoclinic
15 phase of CuO (JCPDS:45-0937). The reflections of CuO were observed at 32.5, 35.8, and
16 38.6°, which correspond to the crystal planes (110), (-111), and (111), respectively (**Figure**
17 **2a**). Traces of the Cu_2O phase were also identified in these samples (**Table 2**). The rest of
18 the samples (i.e., Cu-3 and Cu-4) synthesized in the presence of a reducing agent exhibited a
19 mixture of Cu_2O and Cu phases in different proportions (**Table 2**). Specifically, Cu-3 pre-
20 sented a mixture of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}$ (i.e, Cu_2O as majority phase), whereas Cu-4 sample showed
21 mainly elemental copper (Cu^0) with trace amount of Cu_2O (JCPDS: 01-71-4609 and 01-71-
22 3645, respectively). The addition of NaOH also significantly influenced the crystal phase

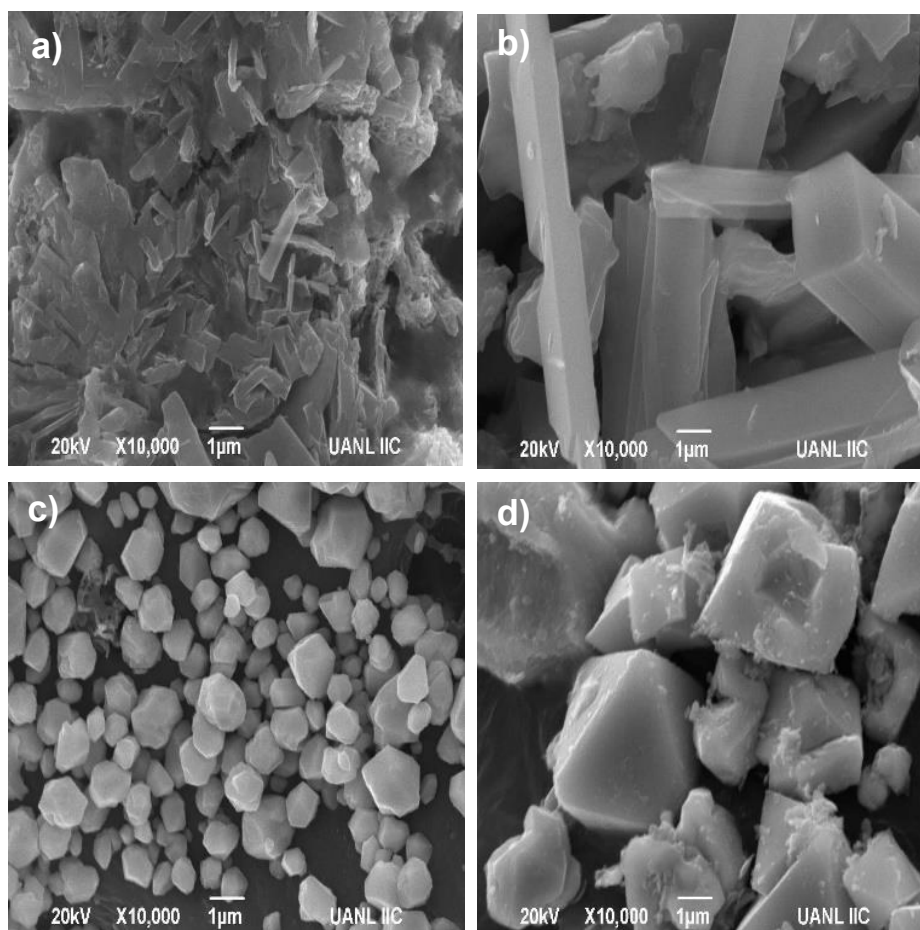
1 mixtures in the samples. Notably, the increase of NaOH concentration promoted the reduc-
 2 tion of Cu^{2+} to Cu in samples Cu-3 and Cu-4.
 3 The nickel oxide coatings exhibited only the cubic structure of NiO (JCPDS:01-089-7131,
 4 **Table 2**). These samples presented intense reflections at $2\theta = 37.4^\circ$, 43.4° , and 62.9° , corre-
 5 sponding to (110), (200) and (111) planes, respectively (**Figure 2b**).



6
 7 **Figure 2.** XRD patterns of a) Cu_xO ($x=1, 2$) and b) NiO coatings.

8 The morphology of the fabricated coatings was analyzed by SEM. All the Cu_xO coatings
 9 showed a variety of morphologies in the presence of glucose and different concentration of
 10 NaOH (**Figure 3**). Sample Cu-1 showed agglomeration with elongated bars (**Figure 3a**),
 11 whereas sample Cu-2 exhibited a more defined morphology of bars with an average width

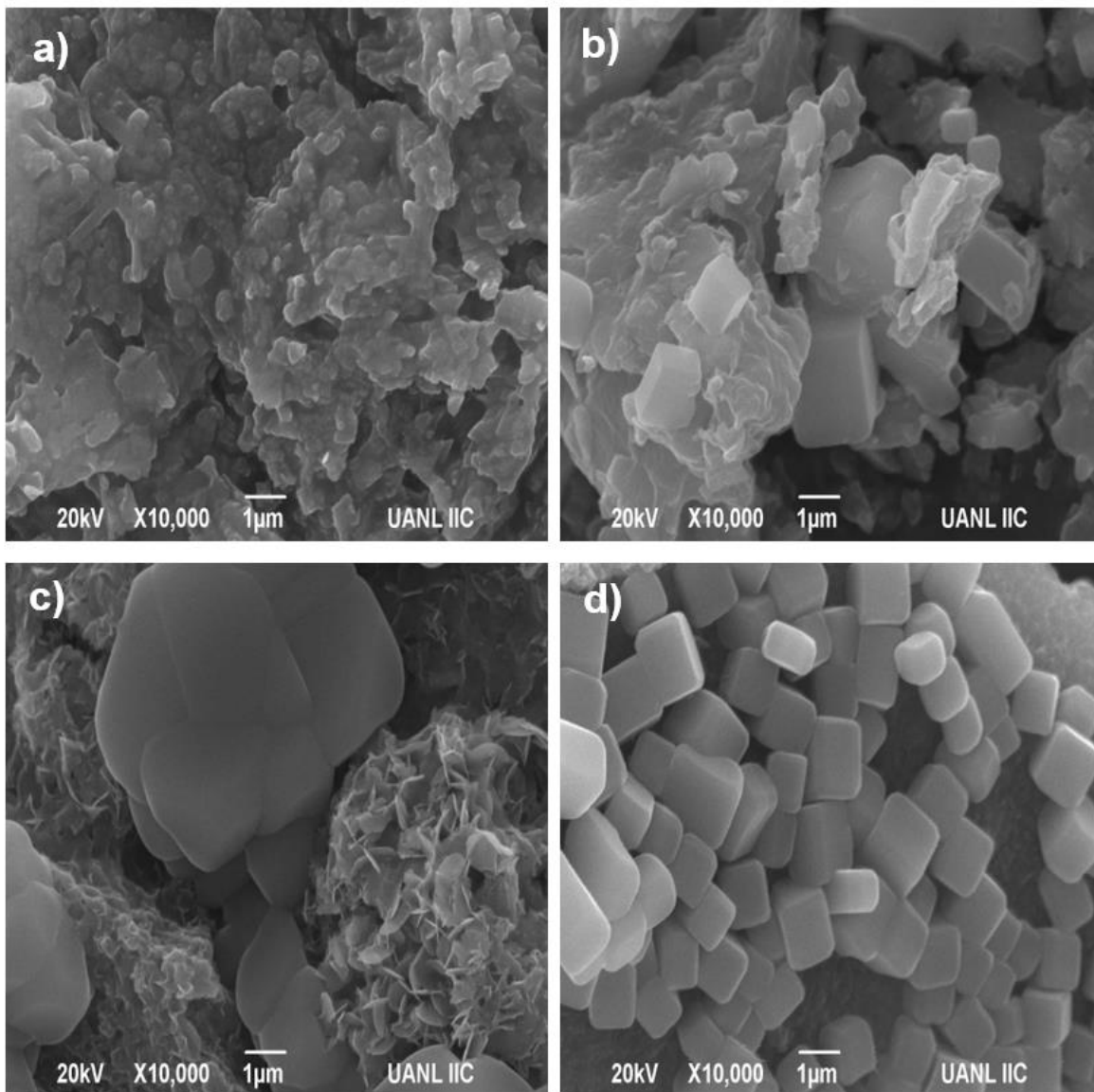
1 and length of 1.3 and 5.2 μm , respectively (**Figure 3b**). Cu-3 and Cu-4 coatings, which pos-
2 sessed a mixture of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{Cu}$ phases, exhibited different octahedral particles with an agglom-
3 eration (**Figure 3c and d**) due to glucose addition.



4
5 **Figure 3.** SEM images of a) Cu-1, b) Cu-2, c) Cu-3 and d) Cu-4 samples.

6 Different amounts of NaOH and glucose were also employed to synthesize nickel oxides.
7 Sample Ni-1 exhibited a notable agglomeration and undefined morphology (**Figure 4a**).
8 When the dosage of NaOH was increased to 0.6 M, the morphology of Ni-2 revealed irregular
9 flakes with a thickness of ~ 275 nm and agglomerated cubes (~ 620 nm) (**Figure 4b**). The
10 addition of glucose promoted the formation of nanoflakes (~ 400 nm), as shown in samples
11 Ni-3 (**Figure 4c**). When the highest dosage of NaOH (0.6 M) and glucose was added, a well-

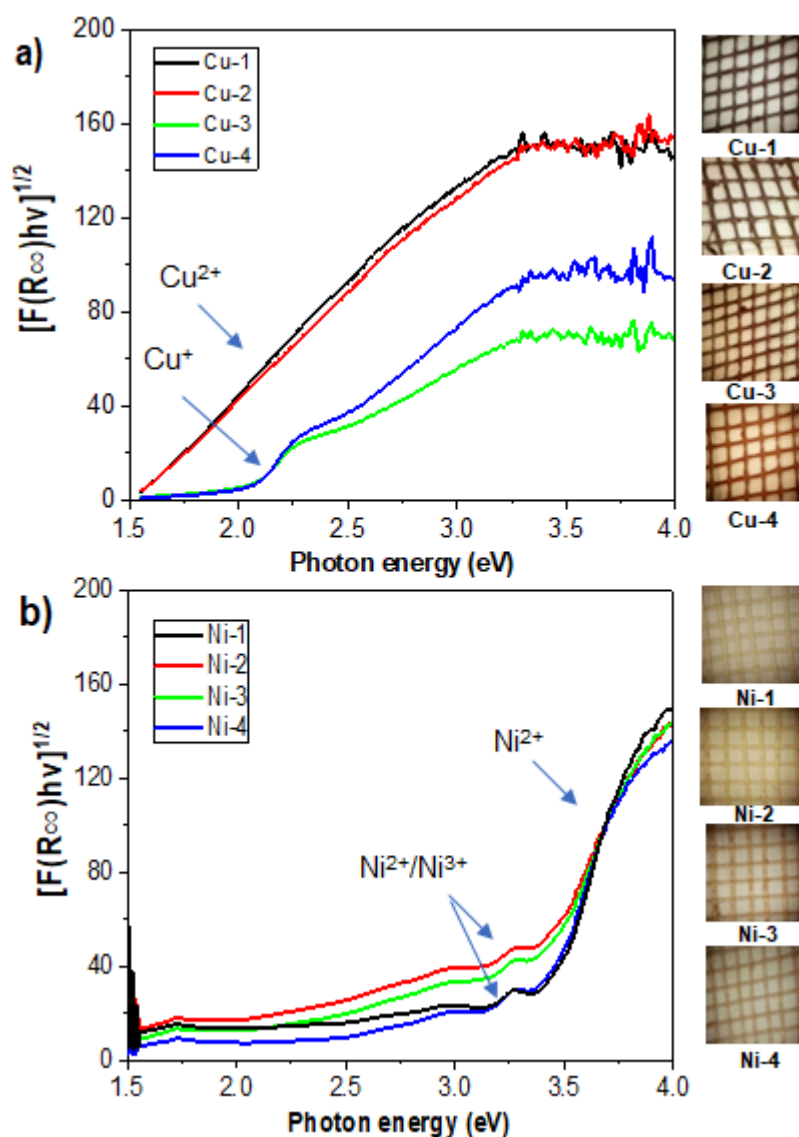
1 defined cubic microstructure (~ 540 nm) was observed in the sample Ni-4 (**Figures 4d**). The
2 average particle size is summarized in **Table 2**. EDS mapping obtained under SEM evi-
3 denced the homogeneity of the copper and nickel of the fabricated samples on GFs (**Figure**
4 **S1**).



5
6

Figure 4. SEM images of a) Ni-1, b) Ni-2, c) Ni-3 and d) Ni-4 samples.

1 The bandgap energy of the fabricated samples was estimated from the graph of $[F(R_{\infty})h\nu]^{1/2}$
 2 vs photon energy (**Figure 5**). The bandgap energies of the synthesized samples are summa-
 3 rized in **Table 2**. The Cu-1 and Cu-2 coatings, dominated by CuO particles, presented similar
 4 bandgap energies, as reported previously (1.5-1.6 eV, **Figure 5a**) [14]. The rest of the sam-
 5 ples (Cu-3 and Cu-4) exhibited an additional adsorption band at 2.1-2.3 eV was probably due
 6 to the presence of Cu₂O (**Figure 2a**) [37].



7

1 **Figure 5.** K-M spectra (left) and optical images (right) of the coatings: a) Copper oxides
2 and b) Nickel oxides.

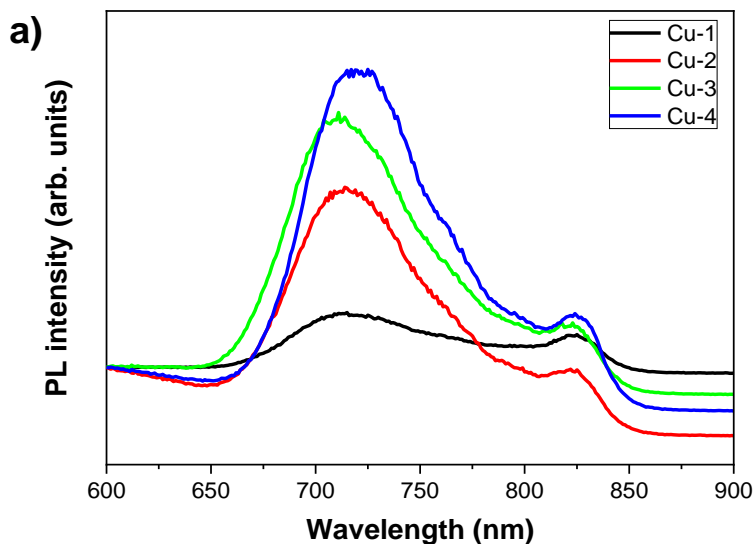
3 The K-M spectra of nickel oxides coatings are shown in **Figure 5b**. These samples exhibited
4 bandgap energies between 3.3-3.5 eV, which are close to the values reported in the literature
5 (i.e., 3.1- 3.6 eV) [38]. These values are characteristic of the green NiO (Ni-1 and Ni-3). In
6 addition, a much weaker absorption band at 3.2-3.3 eV could be attributed to the Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺
7 moiety [39, 40]. The presence of Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺ is further discussed below using XPS.

8 **Table 2.** Physicochemical properties of the coatings.

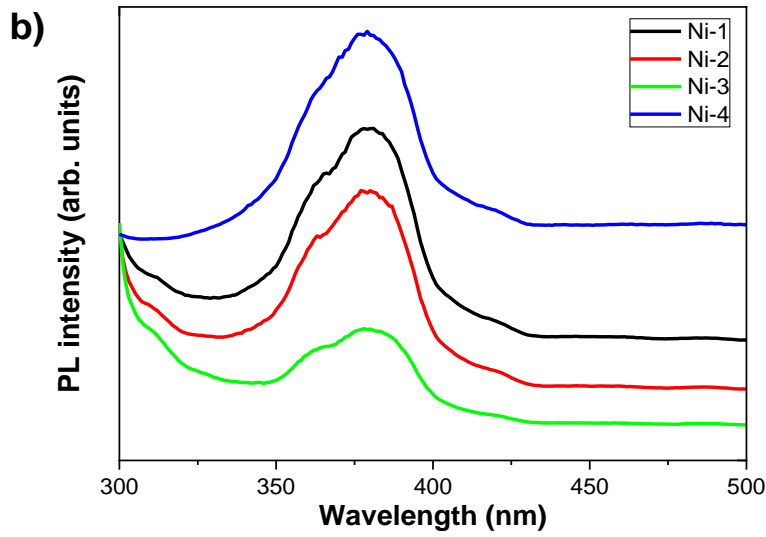
Sample ID	Crystal phases identified	Particle size (nm)	Bandgap (eV)
Cu-1	CuO Cu ₂ O	300	1.5
Cu-2	CuO Cu ₂ O	1330	1.6
Cu-3	Cu ₂ O Cu	500	1.5
Cu-4	Cu Cu ₂ O	3300	2.3
Ni-1	NiO	275	3.2
Ni-2	NiO	620	3.3
Ni-3	NiO	400	3.2
Ni-4	NiO	540	3.3

9 PL spectra were used to study the recombination of charge carriers. The PL emission spectra
10 of Cu_xO coatings exhibited two distinct peaks in the wavelength range of 600-900 nm (**Fig-**

1 **ure 6a**). Both peaks were assigned to the radiative emissions of the recombination of elec-
2 trons and holes on CuO [41]. Cu-1 and Cu-2 samples showed a lower PL intensity, indicating
3 a lower recombination rate as compared to Cu-3 and Cu-4 samples. This observation evi-
4 denced the efficient isolation of e^-h^+ pairs in the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructures [42].
5 The nickel oxides coatings showed a broad UV emission band peak at 378-380 nm corre-
6 sponding to the radiative emission of the recombination of photogenerated charges in NiO
7 **(Figure 6b)** [43]. Sample Ni-3 exhibited the lowest PL intensity, indicating a more efficient
8 charge transfer with the flake structured sample.



9

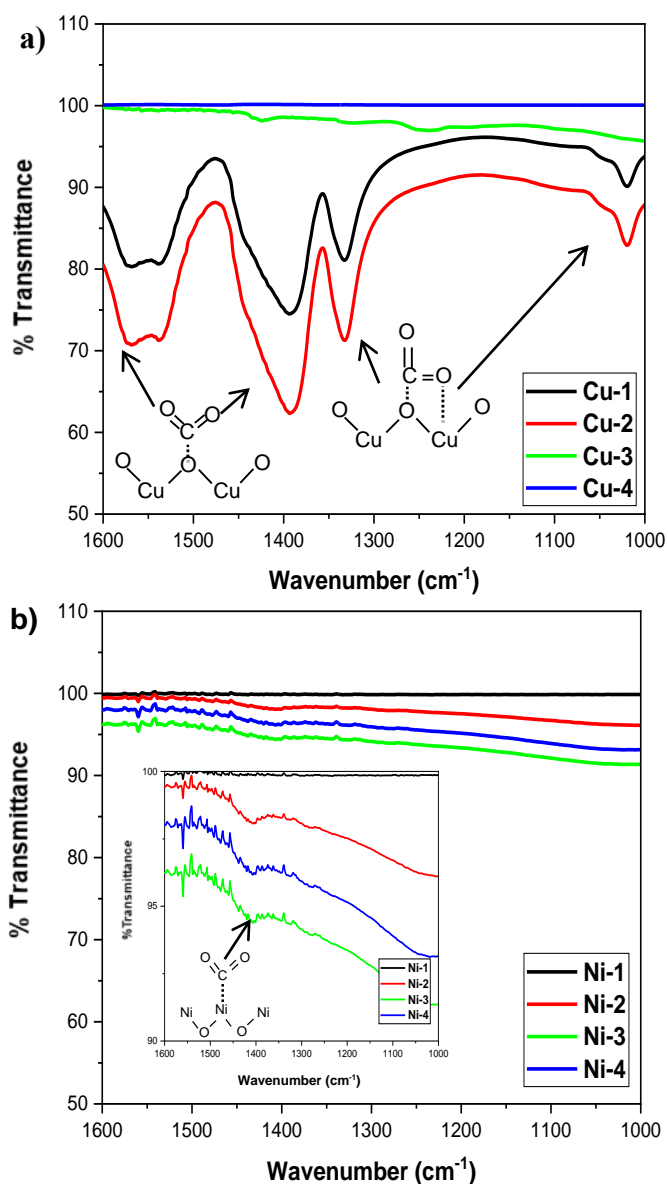


1

2 **Figure 6.** Photoluminescence (PL) emission spectra of the coatings ($\lambda_{exc}= 300$ nm).

3 **3.2. Evaluation of CO₂ adsorption**

4 FTIR spectroscopy was used to identify the CO₂ molecule fingerprint on the coatings (**Figure**
 5 **7**). In general, copper oxides exhibited much more intense troughs than the coatings of nickel
 6 oxides, indicating that CuO samples possessed a higher affinity towards CO₂ molecules than
 7 nickel oxides. Specifically, Cu-1 and Cu-2 revealed two types of absorption bands at 1560
 8 and 1410 cm⁻¹ and 1340 and 1020 cm⁻¹, which were assigned to the monodentate and biden-
 9 tate carbonate species, respectively [44-46]. However, these bands were absent in Cu-3 and
 10 Cu-4, probably attributed to the low basicity of Cu₂O and Cu that had a low affinity towards
 11 CO₂. On the other hand, the weak trough (1410 cm⁻¹) shown in the nickel oxides suggested
 12 only the monodentate bond presented on the surface of these samples.



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Figure 7. FTIR spectra of a) Copper oxides and b) Nickel oxide coatings.

Cu-1 and Cu-2 coatings, which exhibited a higher affinity towards CO₂ compared to the other fabricated samples, were further evaluated using TPD (**Figure 8**). Cu-1 with higher CuO content compared to Cu-2 showed a higher CO₂ adsorption capacity. This observation agreed with the FTIR analysis, as shown in **Figure 7a**. The physical-desorption temperature of the samples was close to 280 °C for Cu-1 and Cu-2, respectively. This could be associated with

1 the exothermic enthalpy of CuO for CO₂ adsorption ($\Delta H_{\text{ads}} = -45.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) [47]. The CO₂
2 chemical-desorption in the Cu-1 and Cu-2 samples was observed at ~320 °C, which may be
3 related to the decomposition temperature of CuCO₃ around 300°C. It is worth mentioning
4 that the rest of the samples did not show any response to the adsorbed CO₂ under the same
5 conditions. This could be attributed to the presence of Cu and Cu₂O in the samples that hin-
6 dered CO₂ adsorption since these phases exhibited endothermic enthalpies in this process
7 ($\Delta H_{\text{ads}} \text{Cu}_2\text{O} = +142 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$) [47]. From the results reported above, samples Cu-1 and Cu-2
8 seems to be a potentially good candidate for the CO₂ adsorption and subsequent photocata-
9 lytic reduction of CO₂, since they have a low CO₂ desorption temperature that favored the
10 subsequent conversion of CO₂. On the other hand, the adsorption over the nickel oxides sam-
11 ples was under limit detection, and the TPD patterns are in the supplementary section (**Figure**
12 **S2**).

13 The FTIR spectra show the moieties adsorb on the surface of the photocatalyst during the
14 reaction. In contrast, the TPD pattern shows the amount of CO₂ desorb. When the TPD peak
15 is high, it indicates more negligible adsorption. This process also describes the physical- and
16 chemical adsorption on the photocatalyst surface. Hence, the FTIR and TPD results show the
17 correct relationship, in which high adsorption of CO₂ (FTIR) and low desorption (TPD), as
18 shown in sample Cu-2, which eventually favor the CO₂ photoconversion. On the other hand,
19 Ni-3 does not show CO₂ adsorption, which could modify its selectivity of the CO₂ reduction,
20 as will be further discussed.

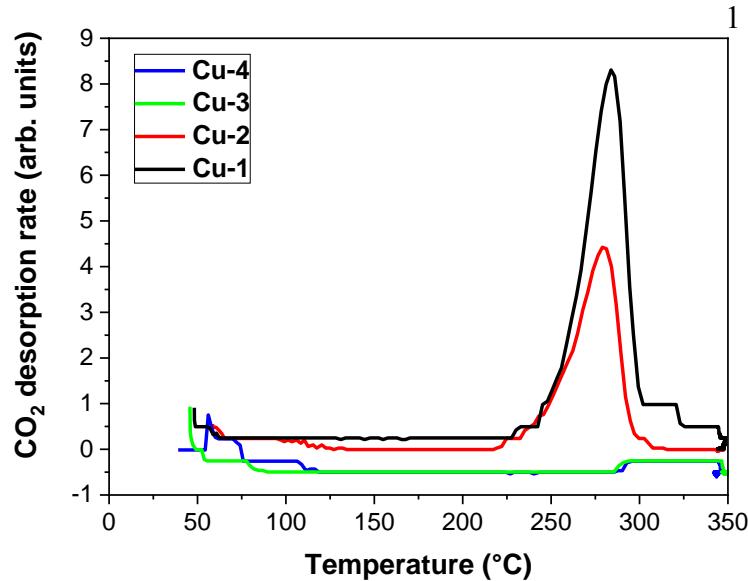


Figure 8. TPD profiles of the fabricated Copper oxides samples.

2 **Figure 8.** TPD profiles of the fabricated Copper oxides samples.
 3 The sample with the highest affinity to CO₂ (i.e., Cu-2) was further studied with *operando*
 4 DRIFTS (**Figure S3**). The Cu-2 sample showed a strong absorption band at 2348 cm⁻¹, asso-
 5 ciated with the adsorbed CO₂, when CO₂ was fed into the reactor at 24 °C in the dark. In
 6 addition, bands at around 1620, 1420, and 1296 cm⁻¹, which were assigned to the asymmetric
 7 CO₃ stretching vibration [$\nu_{as}(\text{CO}_3)$], symmetric CO₃ stretching vibration [$\nu_s(\text{CO}_3)$] and O-H
 8 deformation vibration [$\delta(\text{O-H})$] of monodentate bicarbonate species (*m*-HCO₃²⁻), respec-
 9 tively, were observed upon CO₂ feeding in the dark [48, 49]. When the UV-vis light irradiated
 10 onto the sample, the intensity of these bands decreased immediately. The bands at around
 11 1540 and 1384 cm⁻¹ correspond to the [$\nu_{as}(\text{CO}_2)$] and [$\nu_s(\text{CO}_2)$] of the bidentate formate spe-
 12 cies (*b*-HCO₂²⁻) [50]. This observation suggested that the CO₂ molecules adsorbed on the
 13 surface of Cu-2 were mainly *m*-HCO₃²⁻ and converted to *b*-HCO₂²⁻ through the reaction with
 14 OH⁻ on the surface or oxygen vacancies (OVs) of Cu-2. When the reaction temperature in-
 15 creased to 40 °C, the bands of *m*-HCO₃²⁻ continued to decrease, whereas *b*-HCO₂²⁻ increased
 16 steadily. In other words, the adsorption of CO₂ and conversion of *m*-HCO₃²⁻ to *b*-HCO₂²⁻

1 were enhanced at elevated temperatures. The *operando* DRIFT results suggested that the
2 mechanism for the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction route of Cu-2 was through the carbene path-
3 way.

4 According to the FTIR and *operando* DRIFTS results, the fabricated Copper oxides and
5 Nickel oxides coatings were proposed to be partially carbonated during CO₂ adsorption. The
6 proposed mechanism was illustrated in **Figure S4**. In the case of the CuO/Cu₂O, the surface
7 oxygen present on the CuO could act as a Lewis base site that could donate an electron to the
8 C=O bond of CO₂. This phenomenon promoted the formation of monodentate bonds (carbon
9 coordination bonds) and bidentate at the CuO surface, as shown in **Figure S4a**. The Cu, close
10 to OVs, acts as a Lewis acid site by accepting electrons, interacting with oxygen from CO₂
11 producing $Cu \cdots O - C = O$ species. On the other hand, the bidentate coordination bond oc-
12 curred by interacting the Cu and O in the CuO with CO₂ molecules [9, 14].

13 The FTIR spectra of the nickel oxides samples did not show significant changes before and
14 after the CO₂ purge (**Figure 7b**). Only an appreciated amount of the monodentate species
15 was formed on the NiO surface (**Figure S4b**).

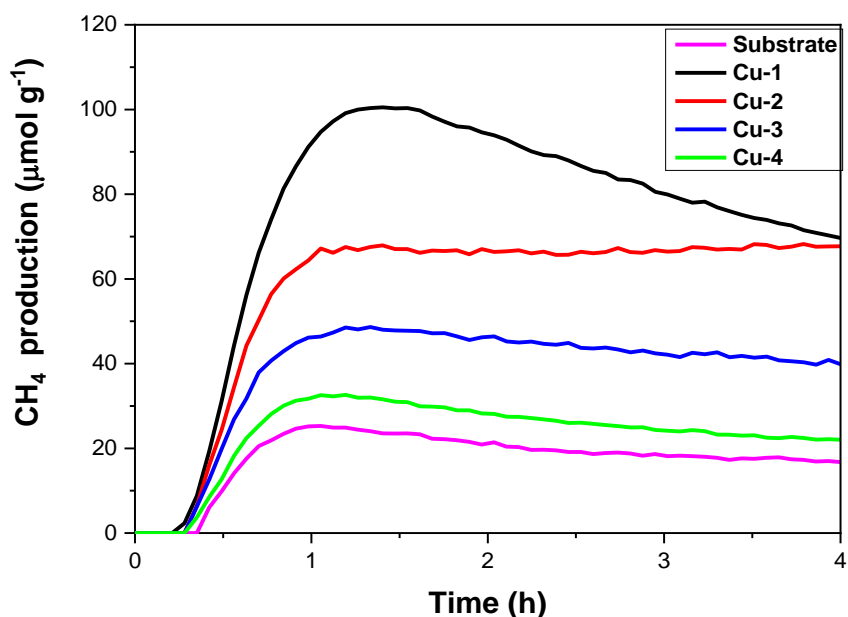
16 **3.3. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in a continuous system**

17 The Copper oxide and Nickel oxide coatings were evaluated for the photocatalytic reduction
18 of CO₂ in the gas phase **in a continuous reactor under UV-Visible light**. The amounts of
19 different gaseous products (H₂, CO, and CH₄) was monitored with GC. CH₄ was the main
20 product of the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ when copper oxides were used as the photo-
21 catalyst, while H₂ and CO were generated in low amounts (<10 ppm), as shown in **Figure**
22 **S5**.

1 The Cu-1 film showed the highest production rate of CH₄ (94.7 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) followed by the
2 Cu-2 sample (67.1 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), which showed up to 32 times higher production than other
3 reports (**Table S1**) [7, 12, 13, 20, 21, 24-28]. However, Cu-2 revealed a more consistent
4 production of CH₄ than Cu-1 throughout the 4 h reaction, which could be attributed to several
5 factors:

- 6 • A higher affinity for CO₂ resulted in the formation of monodentate and subsequent
7 bidentate species, as is observed in the FTIR spectra.
- 8 • Rod morphology that provided active sites for effective CO₂ adsorption.
- 9 • The coexistence of CuO/Cu₂O in this sample resulted in the type-II heterostructure
10 formation that promoted efficient charge transfer, supplying sufficient protons (8
11 H⁺) and electrons (8 e⁻) for the conversion into CH₄.

12 Cu-3 and Cu-4 with a mixture of Cu/Cu₂O showed a lower production of CH₄ than those
13 samples with a higher content of CuO (i.e., Cu-1 and Cu-2), as seen in **Figure 9**. This could
14 be associated with a rapid photo-oxidation of Cu/Cu₂O and low adsorption of CO₂ on these
15 samples. It should be noted that the substrates, which consisted of CaO and Na₂O, exhibited
16 some activity for solar fuels generation due to their intrinsic properties on CO₂ adsorption
17 [33].

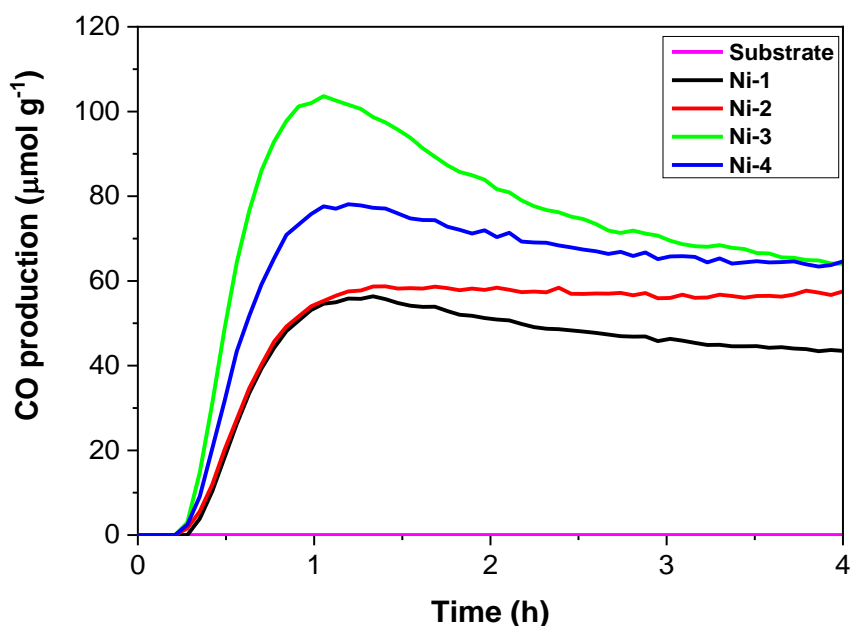


1

2 **Figure 9.** CH₄ evolution using the Copper oxide coatings under 300-600 nm irradiation.

3 The synthesized nickel oxides samples showed only CO production under the same experi-
 4 mental conditions (**Figure 10**). Ni-3 sample generated the highest amount of CO (103 μmol
 5 g⁻¹ h⁻¹), which was around 3 times higher than the previous reports in the literature [20-23,
 6 26-28]. Other carbonaceous by-products (CH₄) were obtained only in trace amounts (**Figure**
 7 **S6**). The superior results were attributed to the unique 2D morphology of flaky agglomeration
 8 and the coexistence of NiO and Ni₂O₃ moieties in Ni-3.

9 Also, it is important to note that the amount generated by the samples was distinguished than
 10 we observed having blank substrates, as shown in **Figures 9 and 10**.



1
2 **Figure 10.** CO evolution using the nickel oxides coatings as photocatalyst under 300-600
3 nm irradiation.

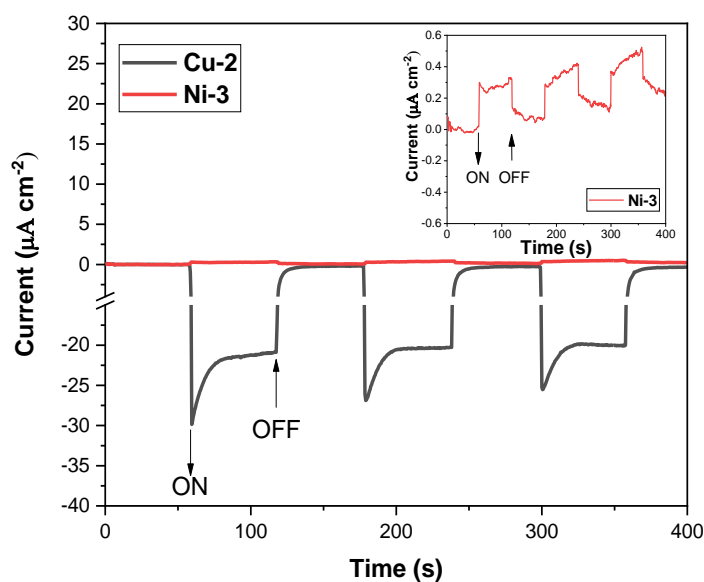
4 Also, each system's best heterostructure activity was compared to single metal oxides to high-
5 light the importance of the coexistence of CuO/Cu₂O and NiO/Ni₂O₃ phases on the coatings.
6 A previous report of CuO coatings grown on glass fibers suggested that it exhibits selectivity
7 for CH₄ production [51]; however, the stability and the efficiency for CH₄ generation with
8 the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure obtained here is higher. Regarding to the nickel-based sam-
9 ples, an additional sample was synthesized without the addition of NaOH or reducing agent,
10 which was identified as Ni-0. This sample exhibited **only** the monoclinic NiO phase, and it
11 did not exhibit the characteristic band of the coexistence of Ni²⁺/Ni³⁺ sample, which confirms
12 the presence of only NiO in this sample (Ni-0), as is shown in **Figure S7a,b**. The photocata-
13 lytic results show that pure NiO only produce half the yield as of sample with NiO and Ni₂O₃

1 heterostructure (**Figure S7c**). On the other hand, a coating of a commercial TiO₂ P-25 photo-
2 tocatalyst was prepared for comparative purposes. As shown in **Figure S8**, TiO₂ P-25 pre-
3 sented an apparent deactivation (55%) during the photocatalytic evaluation. This result could
4 be explained by means of blocking the active sites through the deposition of carbon-contain-
5 ing products [52]. TiO₂ P-25 did not exhibit selectivity towards CH₄ or CO production since
6 both products were obtained with 50 and 7 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ production, respectively, after 4 h of
7 reaction.

8 A general comparison of the CH₄ and CO production with the copper and nickel-based het-
9 erostructures and the traditional TiO₂ photocatalyst was included in **Figure S9**. As it can be
10 seen, the CuO/Cu₂O and NiO/Ni₂O₃ heterostructures exhibited higher activity than the indi-
11 vidual oxides: CuO, Cu₂O/Cu (Cu-3 sample), NiO and the traditional TiO₂ photocatalyst,
12 which evidences its effectiveness for the selective generation of CH₄ and CO, respectively.
13 Therefore, both compounds are good candidates to be used as alternative green fuels for en-
14 ergy process generation and other applications.

15 To provide further insights with Cu-2 and Ni-3, which showed the best performance in CO₂
16 photoreduction amongst the fabricated samples, these samples were further characterized us-
17 ing transient chronoamperometry (**Figure 11**) and HRTEM techniques (**Figure S10**) to elu-
18 cidate the differences on their photocatalytic activity. Sample Cu-2 showed a *p*-type behavior
19 with a negative photocurrent response, and the photocurrent density 2 was stable throughout
20 the chronoamperometry measurements. However, the Ni-3 film, which was expected to be a
21 *p*-type semiconductor, showed an *n*-type characteristic with a positive photocurrent response
22 [53]. This observation could be attributed to defects within the crystalline structure, such as
23 OVs, leading to the formation of Ni₂O₃ [54].

1 Specifically, Cu-2 showed a higher photocurrent ($-27.3 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$) than Ni-3 ($0.41 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$).
2 The delta observed in the charge density in the coatings indicated a surplus of holes available
3 in the photocatalyst valence band that could interact with the water molecule to generate
4 hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and release protons (H^+). Hence, the result suggested that Cu-2 man-
5 aged to photogenerated more electron-hole pairs for the photo-redox reaction, thus leading
6 to a higher conversion efficiency than Ni-3.



7
8 **Figure 11.** Chronoamperometric pattern of the Cu-2 and Ni-3 samples.

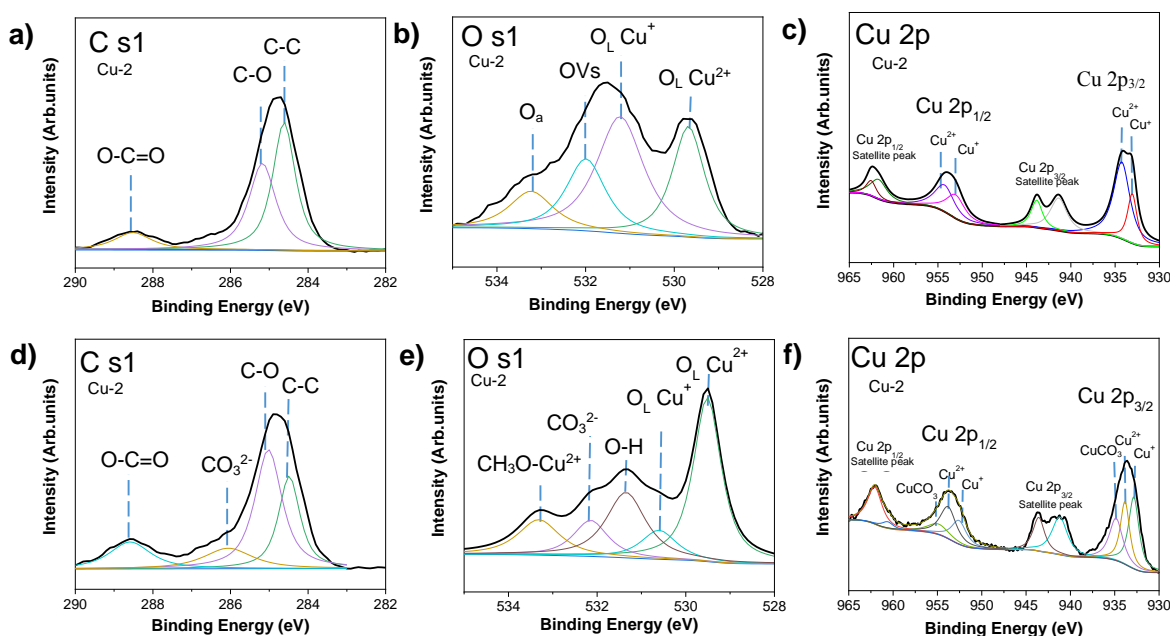
9 The morphology of Cu-2 and Ni-3 observed under TEM (**Figure S10a and b, respectively**)
10 presented similar structures are those observed under SEM (**Figure 3**). HRTEM images evi-
11 denced the presence of the heterostructures in Cu-2 and Ni-3 (**Figure S10c and d**). The CuO
12 (111), and Cu₂O (211) and (200) crystal planes were identified with *d*-spacings ~ 0.23 , ~ 0.17 ,
13 and ~ 0.21 nm, respectively (**Figure S10c**); whereas the lattice fringes of NiO (200) and Ni₂O₃
14 (112) revealed an interplanar spacing of ~ 0.20 and 0.17 nm, respectively.

15 **3.4. Characterization of the coatings after photocatalytic testing**

1 The surface compositions and elemental valence states of the best performance coatings (i.e.,
2 Cu-2 and Ni-3) were investigated by XPS before and after the photocatalytic experiments.
3 The analysis of the Cu-2 film surface before and after the photocatalytic reaction is shown in
4 **Figure 12**. Three peaks at 284.4, 285.2, and 288.5 eV are associated with the C-C, C-O, and
5 O-C=O bonds, respectively, of the adsorbed CO₂ (**Figure 12a**) [14, 55, 56]. The O 1s spec-
6 trum was fitted with four peaks centered at 529.6, 531.0, 531.9, and 533.3 eV (**Figure 12b**),
7 corresponding to the oxygen in the lattice structure (O_L) of the O_L-CuO and O_L-Cu₂O [57,
8 58], OV_s [59, 60], and oxygen adsorbed on the surface with low coordination related with
9 C-O (O_a) [61, 62], respectively. Meanwhile, the Cu 2p spectrum was deconvoluted in two
10 peaks attributed to Cu⁺ and Cu²⁺ at 933.1 and 953.1 eV, respectively (**Figure 12c**) [63-65].
11 The Cu²⁺ peaks and their respective satellites (Cu 2p_{3/2} and Cu 2p_{1/2}) appeared at 934.3, 954.3,
12 961.4, and 962.5 eV for Cu-2.

13 After the photocatalytic reaction, the Cu-2 sample showed an additional band in its C 1s
14 spectrum related to C-H bond at 286.1 eV (**Figure 12d**). This band could be ascribed to the
15 residual methoxide, which is an intermediate of the photocatalytic reaction [66]. This species
16 could be adsorbed on the edge sites of the film forming CH₃O-Cu²⁺ [67]. Moreover, the in-
17 tensity of the signal at 532.1 eV grew after the reaction due to the presence of hydroxides (O-
18 H), carbonates (CO₃²⁻) [68], or oxygen-containing hydrocarbons (CH₃O-Cu²⁺) [69], while
19 the signal related to OV_s at 531.0 eV disappeared after photocatalytic CO₂ reduction, proba-
20 bly because to the partial carbonation of the photocatalyst after the test (**Figure 12e**). The
21 results indicated that OV_s acted as an active site for CO₂ adsorption. It is also possible to
22 observe an additional band around 934.8 eV related to the partial carbonation of the CuO [46,
23 70], which suggested the formation of intermediates monodentate and bidentate carbonate
24 species. The Na 1s signal, which was originated from the substrates, was studied thoroughly.

1 The reference spectra showed a central peak at 1071.2 eV corresponding to Na-O bond pre-
 2 sent in Na₂O (**Figure S11a, b**) [71, 72]. A new band around 1071.6 eV appeared in the Na
 3 1s spectrum after the reaction, which was associated with the partial carbonation of Na₂O
 4 (**Figure S11c, d**) [72, 73]. The carbonation of Na-O suggested that this oxide acted as an
 5 additional active site for CO₂ adsorption, enhancing the global efficiency.

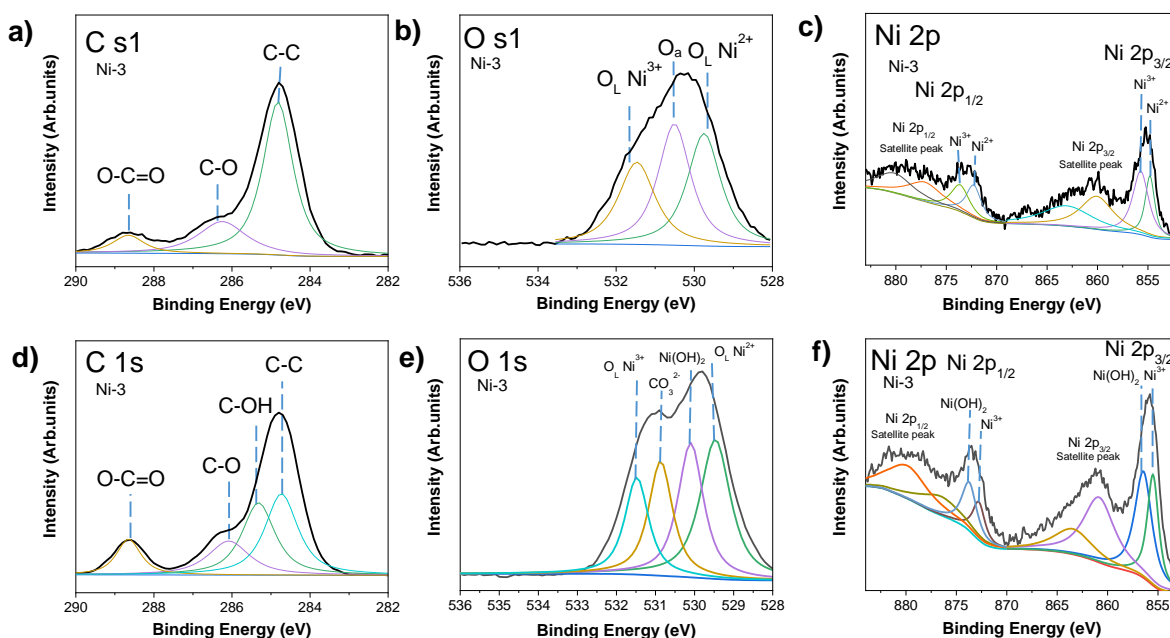


6
 7 **Figure 12.** XPS spectra of Cu-2 film before and after the photocatalytic reaction for the ele-
 8 ment of a) and d) C 1s, b) and e) O 1s, c) and f) Cu 2p, respectively.

9 The surface analysis of Ni-3 before and after CO₂ reduction is shown in **Figure 13**. The C 1s
 10 spectrum of the film shows peaks at 284.4, 285.2, and 288.5 eV attributed to *sp*² carbon
 11 components C–C, C-O, and O-C=O bonds, respectively (**Figure 13a**) [14, 55, 56]. These
 12 signals were due to the CO₂ adsorbed from the air. For the O1s spectrum (**Figure 13b**), three
 13 peaks were observed at 529.7, 530.5, and 531.4 eV, related to Ni²⁺ (O_L Ni²⁺) of NiO [74], to
 14 oxygen adsorbed on the surface with low coordination (O_a) [61, 75], and Ni³⁺ (O_L Ni³⁺) of
 15 Ni₂O₃ [76, 77], respectively. The Ni 2p spectrum in **Figure 13c** displays two edge splits by

1 spin-orbital coupling: i) the Ni 2p_{3/2} peak at 854.7 eV related with NiO [78], and ii) the 2p_{3/2}
2 central peak at 855.7 eV and its satellite at 860.2 eV, evidencing the existence of Ni₂O₃ on
3 the surface [77, 78]. This observation also explained the enhanced performance in PL (**Fig-**
4 **ure 6**) and the *p*-type characteristic of the sample, as shown in the transient chronoamperom-
5 etry tests (**Figure 11**). After CO₂ reduction, Ni-3 film presented additional bands in the C 1s,
6 Ni 2p, and O 1s spectra related to the presence of hydroxides, carbonates, or oxygen-contain-
7 ing hydrocarbons (**Figure 13d, e**) [68, 79]. The Ni 2p spectrum after the reaction showed the
8 2p_{3/2} at 855.7 eV, the 2p_{1/2} at 872.6 eV, and its satellite peak at 860.2 and 879.5 eV, respec-
9 tively (**Figure 13f**). Also, additional bands in the O 1s spectrum were observed at 856.7 and
10 866.1 eV, suggesting the conversion of NiO to Ni(OH)₂ after the reaction [80]. According to
11 these results, the formation Ni(OH)₂ species during the photocatalytic reaction promoted the
12 hydroxylation of NiO phase and the dissolution of the NiO/Ni₂O₃ heterostructure. As a result,
13 the photoreduction of CO₂ activity deactivated with time, as shown in **Figure 10**, which
14 eventually decreased the charge transfer in the Ni-3 sample.

15 According to the results, the decrease of CH₄ or CO production by Cu-1 and Ni-3, respec-
16 tively, was due to the carbonation occurred on the surface of the catalyst as discussed with
17 **Figures 12 and 13**. These experiments gave a strong indication that no degradation occurred
18 during CO₂ photoreduction reaction.



1
2 **Figure 13.** XPS spectra of Ni-3 film before and after the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction for
3 the element of a) and d) C 1s, b) and e) O 1s, c) and f) Ni 2p, respectively.

4 3.5. Stability test

5 The stability of the optimized samples (Cu-2 and Ni-3) was conducted under a similar pho-
6 tocatalytic reduction of CO₂. Three consecutive runs were performed on each sample (**Figure**
7 **S12**). The results revealed that copper oxides exhibited a stable CH₄ production after three
8 consecutive cycles, whereas the CO production of Ni-3 coating deteriorated in each cycle
9 significantly, around 28% in the second cycle and 42% in the third one.

10 After the tests, the morphology of the Cu-2 and Ni-3 samples was analyzed by SEM. After
11 the test, the Ni-3 sample maintained its morphology of polyhedral particles, while the parti-
12 cles with flake morphology were not observed, as is shown in **Figure S13a**. On the contrary,
13 the morphology of Cu-2 bars changed after the photocatalytic evaluation. **Figure S13b** shows
14 that after the reaction, the bars tended to agglomerate with each other forming elongated

1 agglomerates, which could be related to the loss of active sites for the photocatalytic CO₂
2 reduction.

3 **3.6. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in a batch reactor**

4 The photocatalytic activity of the samples with the best performance in the continuous system
5 (Cu-2 and Ni-3) was also evaluated in a batch reactor to investigate the formation of liquid
6 solar fuels under LED visible-light (Figure S14). Both samples produced HCOOH and
7 CH₃OH; however, traces of CH₂O were identified in both samples (<2 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹). Cu-2
8 sample exhibited higher CH₃OH production (177 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) than Ni-3 sample (5 μmol g⁻¹
9 h⁻¹). These results could be attributed to efficient charge transfer in the CuO/Cu₂O film, high
10 affinity of CO₂ adsorption, and the type of carbonate adsorbed species. Formic acid was also
11 identified, which production was better in the Ni-3 sample (4245 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) compared with
12 the Cu-2 sample (1450 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹). These results confirm that the charge transfer efficiency
13 and the CO₂ affinity are important factors to obtain hydrocarbons of higher molecular
14 weights, since the use of NiO/Ni₂O₃ promote the formation of CO and HCOOH in the gas
15 and liquid phases, respectively. Because these reactions just required two electrons to occur.
16 The liquid products obtained from the photocatalytic evaluation of Cu-2 were confirmed and
17 monitored by ¹H NMR (Figure S15). It was possible to corroborate the presence of methanol
18 at 3.6 ppm in the sample and ethanol at 3.4 ppm. The observed concentrations are of the same
19 order of magnitude as those liquid samples analyzed using GC. With this technique was not
20 possible to identify the presence of CH₂O and HCOOH due to its detection limit (<2 ppm).
21 Also, for comparative purposes, TiO₂ P-25 was evaluated under the same experimental con-
22 ditions in the liquid phase. This reference sample only promoted the formation of HCOOH

(81 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), and other products were not detected. These results confirm the better photocatalytic activity of the earth-abundant photocatalyst proposed in this work.

3.7. Photocatalytic mechanism

The photocatalytic proposed for the CO_2 reduction mechanism on the surface of the Cu-2 and Ni-3 sample was illustrated in **Figure 14**. The theoretical potential of the conduction band of Cu_2O is more negative (-0.4 eV) than that of CuO (0.3 eV). Therefore, the electrons (e^-) of the valence band of Cu_2O are transferred to the conduction band of CuO generating a hole (h^+) in the first band, which reacts with the CO_2 and H_2O molecules adsorbed on its surface (**Figure 14a I**). In the proposed mechanism, the presence of Na_2O in the substrate, represented as a gray circle, provides an extra active site where the CO_2 adsorption occurs. This phenomenon was corroborated by analyzing the Na1s spectrum after and before the photocatalytic reaction, which evidences the formation of Na_2CO_3 after its interaction with the CO_2 molecule. Once the carbonates are captured on the photocatalytic device (Metal oxides/Substrate), the photogenerated electrons can proceed to reduce this species onto Cl products (**Figure 14a II**). In an initial step, the CO_2 molecule is adsorbed on the heterostructure surface, forming mono and bidentate species (as it was previously demonstrated by FTIR analysis); at the beginning of the reaction, electrons are transferred from Cu_2O to CuO and then to the adsorbed species (**Figure 14a III**). CO_2 can be physisorbed as a linear molecule or chemisorbed as a partly charged $\text{CO}_2^{\delta-}$ species via interactions with surface atoms. Three different coordination systems have been proposed for CO_2 molecules adsorbed on a photocatalyst surface:

1. First, the positively charged carbon atom may behave as a Lewis acid, accepting electrons from Lewis's base centers such as oxide ions and forming a carbonate-like species (**Figure S16a**).

1 2. Second, as illustrated in **Figure S16b**, the oxygen atoms in CO₂ have lone pairs of electrons
2 that can be transported to the Lewis acid centers on the surface.

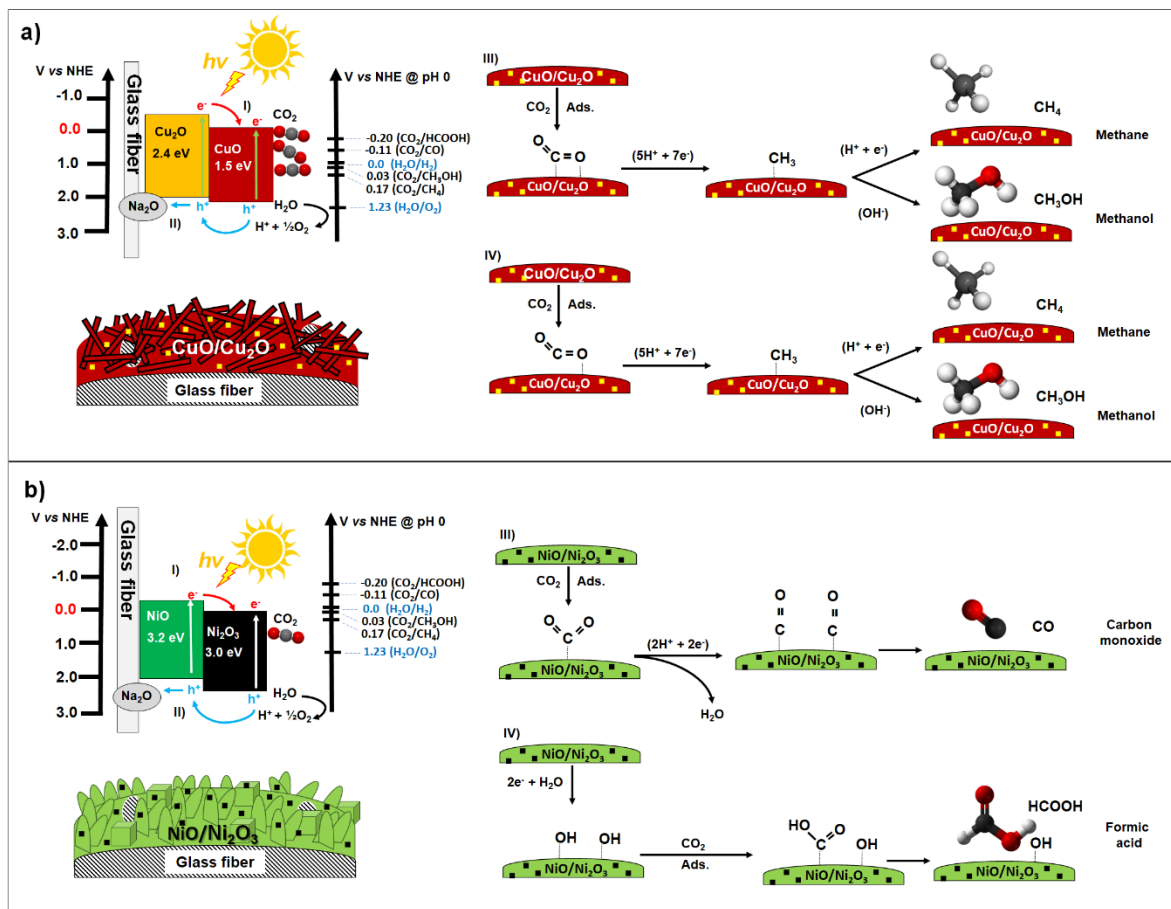
3 3. Thirdly, the oxygen and carbon atoms of the CO₂ molecule can act as electron donors and
4 acceptors, resulting in a mixed coordination structure, as is shown in **Figure S16c**.

5 The mechanism for the formation of C1 products such as CH₃OH and CH₄ can occur by
6 different routes [50]. The first route is by forming *CO and subsequent hydrogenation to
7 *CHO, *CH₂O (which desorbs as HCHO), and *CH₃O (methoxy). Additionally, the inter-
8 mediate *CH₃O may convert to CH₄, leaving *O on the surface, which would evolve into
9 H₂O. Another way to form CH₄ also originates from the formation of *CO on the surface.
10 This intermediate is hydrogenated to form *COH on the surface, subsequently dehydrated to
11 form *C. Via step-by-step hydrogenation, this intermediate forms CH₄. An additional mech-
12 anism that differs from these two pathways could also occur. Rather than forming *CO ini-
13 tially, this pathway begins with the bidentate coordination of CO₂*⁻ via the oxygen atoms,
14 followed by the generation of HCO₂, H₂OCO*, and *CHO. This mechanism is referred to as
15 the carbene pathway [50]. On the other hand, the Ni-based coatings only produce CO and
16 HCOOH due to their lower affinity to adsorbed CO₂. Based on the results, it is proposed that
17 the reaction mechanism follows the carbene route since it was possible to identify by XPS
18 residual species such as CH₃O-Cu²⁺, which is an intermediate in the production of methanol
19 and methane.

20 On the other hand, the proposed mechanism of the photocatalytic reactions that take place in
21 the Ni-3 coating is illustrated in **Figure 14b**. Like that of the Cu-2 film, the photoreduction
22 process begins once CO₂ is adsorbed. Electrons are transferred from the conduction band of
23 NiO to Ni₂O₃ according to their theoretical CB potentials, e.g., -0.34 and 0.07 V vs NHE,
24 respectively. In this mechanism, NiO acts as an electron donor in which the photoexcited

1 electrons could be transferred to the CO₂ adsorbed on the Ni₂O₃ surface, producing CO fol-
2 lowing the pathway for C₁ products [81]. Due to the relatively low amount of photogenerated
3 electrons in the NiO conduction band, a small amount of these is transferred to the Ni₂O₃.
4 Then, the electrons photogenerated in Ni₂O₃ (small black particles) are transferred to the Ni-
5 O = C = O species (**Figure 14b I**). According to the results shown in the FTIR spectrum, the
6 lower affinity for CO₂ on NiO could promote a rapid desorption of carbonate species, which
7 favored the formation of CO and HCOOH in the gas and liquid phase, respectively. Further-
8 more, the minor current density indicates that the NiO/Ni₂O₃ heterostructure did not provide
9 enough electrons for CO₂ photoreduction to methane or methanol. Additionally, the presence
10 of Ni₂O₃ could favor de charge transfer due to the formation of a type-II heterostructure,
11 while the presence of Na₂O, also help to prevents the re-oxidation of the products (**Figure**
12 **14b II**). A closer view of this mechanism is shown in **Figure 14b III**, in which the CO or
13 HCOOH production starts when the CO₂ molecule is adsorbed on the NiO surface. Of note,
14 when the surface of NiO interacts with water, it could form Ni(OH)₂ on the surface, which
15 would reduce the photocatalytic activity of the heterostructure.

16 In both mechanisms, the H₂ generation is suppressed by the higher affinity of CO₂ for the
17 protons (H⁺) generated in the valence band of the semiconductors, as is shown in **Figure S5c**.



1

2 **Figure 14.** Schematic diagram of proposed mechanisms for the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction in a) Cu-2 (**CuO/Cu₂O**) and b) Ni-3 (**NiO/Ni₂O₃**) samples.

3

4. Conclusions

4

5 Heterostructured Cu_xO (x = 1 and 2) and Ni_xO_y (x=1 and 2, y=1 and 3) coatings on flexible
 6 substrates were obtained by an *in-situ* microwave-hydrothermal method using glucose as a
 7 reductive agent at 80 °C for 1 h. The coatings exhibited photocatalytic activity to convert
 8 CO₂ into value-added products, such as CH₄ and CO in a continuous system **under UV-Vis-**
 9 **ible light** and CH₃OH and HCOOH in a batch reactor **under visible light**. The CuO/Cu₂O
 10 coatings were selective towards CH₄ and CH₃OH; meanwhile NiO/Ni₂O₃ preferably pro-
 11 duced CO and HCOOH.

1 The highest CH₄ production with CuO/Cu₂O coatings was 94 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, which was 32
2 times higher than previous studies in the literature using a simple or binary oxides of coatings.
3 The superior CO₂ photoreduction was attributed to the high affinity for CO₂ and an efficient
4 charge transfer in the CuO/Cu₂O heterostructure. On the other hand, Ni_xO_y coatings showed
5 a much lower affinity to CO₂ adsorption and less efficient charge transfer than CuO/Cu₂O
6 coatings, producing lighter products: CO in the **continuous reactor** and HCOOH **in the batch**
7 **reactor**. Also, the stability in these samples was lower than the copper oxide coatings due to
8 the conversion of NiO/Ni₂O₃ to NiO/Ni(OH)₂, as evidenced in XPS.

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