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**Preparation of Concentrated Multilayer Graphene Dispersions and TiO<sub>2</sub>-graphene  
Composites for Enhanced Hydrogen Production**

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**Abstract:**

Photocatalytic hydrogen ( $H_2$ ) production is an attractive hydrogen production technology. It is initiated by charge-separation in titanium (IV) dioxide ( $TiO_2$ ) upon photoexcitation. Electrons reduce water to generate  $H_2$  while holes oxidize hydroxide to generate hydroxyl radicals.  $TiO_2$  is widely used because it is inexpensive, chemically stable, nontoxic, and environmentally friendly. The activity of  $TiO_2$  is limited, but adding a supporting noble metal nanoparticle such as platinum greatly enhances it. Due to resource risks and cost issues, we consider using graphene as an alternative to noble metal nanoparticles. Herein we report a new method to prepare a concentrated multilayer graphene solution and hydrogen production from an aqueous methanol solution. When we used graphene with different sheet sizes or improved the aggregation of  $TiO_2$  (TIO-9), the  $H_2$  evolution rate is 1.6 times higher than that of pristine TIO-9. The contact state and the dispersed state of graphene and  $TiO_2$  play important roles in improving the activity.

## 1. Introduction

Hydrogen produced via water-splitting technology is considered to be a clean and renewable energy source. Economical hydrogen production with a small environmental load is indispensable for widespread fuel cells. Currently, the most common hydrogen production method removes hydrogen from fossil fuels such as petroleum and natural gas. Merits of this method include economical and energy efficient production of large quantities of hydrogen in a short time. The major drawbacks are the consumption of fossil fuels and the discharge of carbon dioxide. Consequently, clean and efficient production methods are necessary to realize a full-fledged hydrogen society.

Great attention has been focused on photocatalytic hydrogen production. It is initiated by charge separation in  $\text{TiO}_2$  upon photoexcitation. Electrons reduce water to generate  $\text{H}_2$  while holes oxidize hydroxide to generate hydroxyl radicals.  $\text{TiO}_2$  is widely used as a photocatalyst [1-6] because it is low cost, highly stable, nontoxic, and environmentally friendly [7-14]. Many studies have employed  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based photocatalysts. The activity of pure  $\text{TiO}_2$  is limited, but the activity is greatly improved by supporting noble metal nanoparticles such as Pt on  $\text{TiO}_2$  [15]. The characteristics of  $\text{TiO}_2$ -carbon composites have been extensively studied. The most popular two-dimensional graphite carbon material is graphene, which possesses excellent properties [16,17].

Graphene is one atomic layer thick, and has both a high electron mobility and a high theoretical specific surface area, making it a useful alternative to Pt. Recently, the addition of graphene has been demonstrated as an effective method to improve the photocatalytic and electrochemical performance [18-25]. Excited electrons can be transferred from the conduction band (CB) of TiO<sub>2</sub> to the surface of graphene, improving the separation of the electron–hole pairs and preventing their recombination. The band-gap energy decreases, shifting the absorption threshold to the visible light region and allowing solar energy to be harnessed.

Since the first graphene isolation method was reported in 2004 [26], research on manufacturing methods and graphene applications has rapidly advanced [27-29]. To date, various manufacturing methods have been proposed, and some are economical. However, few of these can be applied from the viewpoint of mass synthesis. The method of peeling graphite in the liquid phase has attracted attention because the reaction area is remarkably large and the equipment cost is low. To stably disperse the separated graphene, a high concentration graphene dispersion can be obtained by exfoliation to a polar solvent N-methylpyrrolidone (NMP) or ionic liquid [30-32], but its use is limited because it has a high boiling point and is expensive.

A liquid phase separation using a simple solvent and a surfactant in water is highly

desired [33]. Herein we improve the liquid phase exfoliation to obtain a high concentration graphene dispersion in a short time by adding ceramics beads to water and a surfactant. This study attempts to enhance the activity of graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> composites using graphene prepared by this method.

## **2. Photocatalytic water splitting**

The electronic structure of a semiconductor plays a key role in semiconductor photocatalysis. The photocatalyst is a semiconductor, which is composed of a valence band (VB) and CB. The energy difference between these two levels is the band gap energy. Without excitation, both electrons and holes are in the VB. The semiconductor itself becomes a high-energy state by receiving light energy and emitting electrons on the surface hit by light. When a semiconductor is excited by photons with an energy equal or higher than the band gap energy level, electrons transfer is promoted from the VB to CB.

The photogenerated electrons and holes can recombine in the bulk or on surface of the semiconductor within a very short time. The absorbed light energy is converted into thermal energy, but is not involved in a chemical reaction. Electrons and holes that migrate to the surface of the semiconductor without recombination can respectively reduce and oxidize the reactants adsorbed by the semiconductor. In general, visible light

(wavelength 400–800 nm) covering half of the solar energy spectrum is thermodynamically suitable for water decomposition.

The mechanism is explained by the fact that the lower end potential of the TiO<sub>2</sub> CB is more negative than the oxidation reduction potential of H<sup>+</sup>/H<sub>2</sub> and the upper end potential of the VB is more positive than the oxidation potential (1.23 V) of water. However, the real problems are the development of semiconductors that absorb longer wavelengths and the water disintegration capability. During the water splitting reaction, hole recombination is frequently observed. Thus, the addition of a scavenger reagent like methanol, ethanol, or sulfide/sulfite is necessary to enhance the photocatalytic process [35-39].

In this case, the reaction is not pure water splitting. In the presence of alcohol, the energy required for water splitting tends to be lower as described by Kawai and Chen [39,40] through the following overall reaction:  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}_{(l)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)} \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_{(g)} + 3\text{H}_{2(g)}$   $\Delta G^\circ = 16.1 \text{ kJ/mol}$ . Since methanol has a low boiling point and a high H/C ratio, it is widely accepted as an excellent raw material for high-purity hydrogen. Methanol in a water–alcohol mixture is a satisfactory hole-capturing agent, resulting in a better efficiency than other compounds. Methanol decomposition can achieve two objectives. First, it increases hydrogen production as a result of methanol decomposition occurring

during the process. Second, the decomposition products decompose into less toxic substances.

### **3. Experimental**

#### **3.1 Preparation of a graphene dispersion**

A mono/multilayer graphene dispersion was prepared via our original method. In a typical experiment, 15 g distilled water, 2.25 g natural graphite (Brazil, mean size of 18  $\mu\text{m}$ ), and 0.12 g TritonX-100 (Alfa Aesar) as a surfactant were placed into a 250 ml screw tube. As the first step to propose a new catalyst, we investigated the effects of the sheet size of the graphene and dispersibility of graphene and  $\text{TiO}_2$  on the catalytic activity in this study. As the result, we selected the conditions as follows. Zirconia beads (140 g, 3 mm; Nikkato) or alumina beads (3 mm; AS ONE) were put into a mixed suspension and irradiated with ultrasonic waves (37 kHz for 3 h in zirconia, 5 h in alumina) to prepare a dispersion. The obtained suspension was centrifuged at 20 °C and 22,140 G (15,000 rpm) for 30 min. The supernatant was divided by size using suction filtration and a membrane filter with a 5- $\mu\text{m}$  pore size.

#### **3.2 Characterization of graphene dispersion**

The concentration of the dispersion was measured by a UV–Vis spectrophotometer



(Shimadzu, UV-1800). Using a membrane filter with a 0.22- $\mu\text{m}$  pore size, the dispersion was suction-filtered. Then the filter was dried at 90 °C for 1 h. The concentration of the reference dispersion was calculated by measuring the mass of the membrane filter before and after filtration. The calibration curve was prepared by diluting the reference dispersion, measuring the absorbance at 660 nm [41], and plotting the dispersion concentration as a function of the absorbance. The correlation coefficient of the calibration curve was  $\geq 0.99$ , and the concentration was calculated using this calibration curve.

The prepared graphene was analyzed using a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL, JFM-2100F) and a Raman spectroscope (Renishaw 2000; 50 $\times$  objective lens;  $\sim 1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  spot diameter,  $\lambda_{\text{ex}}=785\text{ nm}$ ).

### **3.3 Graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalytic reaction**

The graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> composite photocatalyst was prepared by stirring. TiO<sub>2</sub> (50 mg), 0.04 mg graphene (0.08 wt% based on TiO<sub>2</sub>), and 20 ml ultrapure water were stirred and freeze-dried. The graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst (50 mg) was dispersed in a methanol 50% aqueous solution. A 400-W high-pressure mercury lamp was used as the light source. The H<sub>2</sub> evolution was analyzed using a gas chromatograph (GC-8AIT; Shimadzu).

TIO-9 was mainly used in this study because the TIO-9 showed the highest activity when we used pristine  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles (see Table 3, and Fig. 3a).

#### 4. Results and discussions

**Table 1** compares the graphene dispersion concentrations prepared in recent years. **Table 2** summarizes our preparation conditions and graphene characteristics. Comparisons with previous studies are difficult due to the differences in the gravity of centrifugation. We realize a similar concentration (0.139 or 0.333 mg/ml) as Ref. 33 (1.0 mg/ml), but our centrifuge condition is 44 times higher. Hence, our method provides a relatively high concentration dispersion.

**Figure 1** shows the TEM image of graphene made of zirconia beads (a) and alumina beads (b). In both cases, mono and multilayer graphene is observed, but the mean sheet size differs. The mean sheet size is (a) 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  and (b) 0.07  $\mu\text{m}$  (Table 2). Because the densities of zirconia and alumina beads were 6.0 and 3.8  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ , respectively, the physical movement of the beads may differ during sonication, leading to a complex mechanism that involves grinding and peeling of raw graphite.

The Raman spectrum for a graphene dispersion prepared using zirconia beads has a G band ( $1590\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), indicating a carbon material with  $\text{sp}^2$  bonding (**Fig. 2**). Additionally,

**Table 1** Recently fabricated graphene dispersion concentrations and conditions.

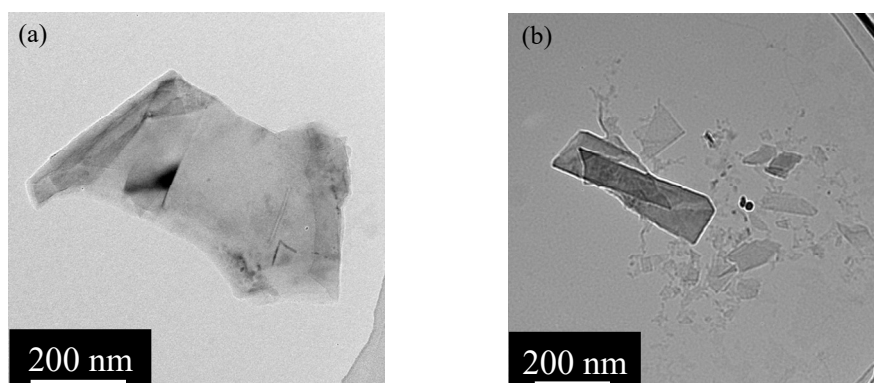
Solvent	Additive	Centrifuge condition	Concentration [mg/ml]	Reference
NMP	–	1000 rpm, 30 min	0.1	31
NMP	–	4000 rpm, 30 min	2.21	30
Ion liquid	–	4000 rpm, 30 min	5.33	32
Ethanol	copolymers	Kept for 7 days	1.8	34
Water	P-123	500 G, 5 min	1.0	33

**Table 2** Conditions and characteristics of graphene prepared in this study.

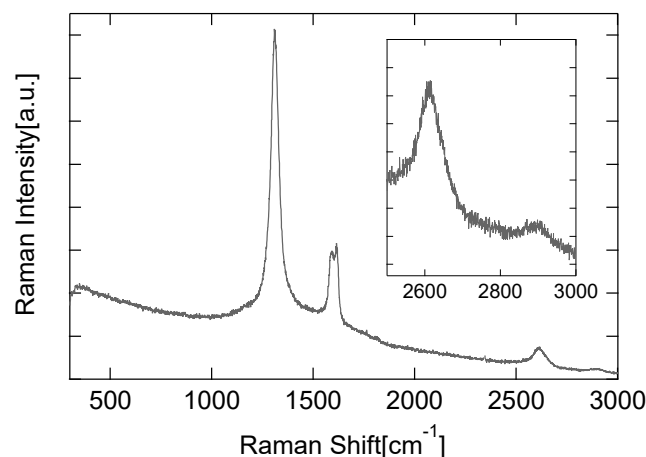
Beads	Irradiation time [h]	Concentration [mg/ml]	Size* [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	H <sub>2</sub> evolution [ $\mu\text{mol/g}\cdot\text{h}$ ]
Zirconia	3	0.139	0.50	0.386
Alumina	5	0.333	0.07	0.770

\* Mean size is measured for 50 sheets from TEM images.

the G' band peak ( $2600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) due to monolayer graphene is observed. To investigate the presence or absence of defects in graphene, we investigated the type of defects in graphene using the method of Eckmann et al. [42]. They suggested that the defect type can be distinguished by the intensity ratio of the D-band ( $2700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) to the D' band ( $1620\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in the Raman spectrum. They found that the  $I_D/I_{D'}$  ratio depends on the kind of defect. An  $sp^3$  defect was  $\sim 13$ , while a point defect was  $\sim 7$ . However, the Raman spectrum of this graphene is not attributed to  $sp^3$  or a point defect. The  $I_D/I_{D'}$  in this experiment is 3.1, which approximates an edge defect ( $I_D/I_{D'}=3.5$ ). Consequently, the graphene in this experiment mainly has edge defects.



**Fig. 1** TEM images of mono and multilayer graphene comprised of (a) zirconia and (b) alumina beads.

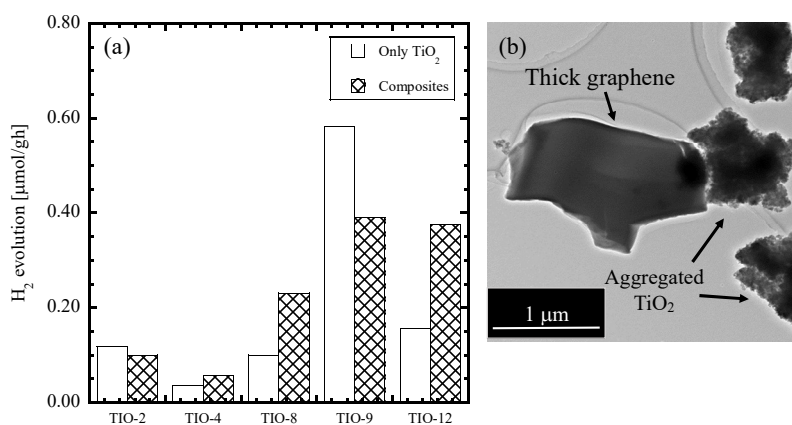


**Fig. 2** Raman spectrum for a graphene dispersion prepared with zirconia beads.

TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts provided by the Catalysis Society of Japan (TIO-2, TIO-4, TIO-8, TIO-9, and TIO12) were used as references. **Table 3** lists the physical properties, and the H<sub>2</sub> evolution is shown in **Fig. 3a**. The addition of graphene improves the activities of TIO-4, TIO-8, and TIO-12. Graphene addition has a minimal impact on TIO-2 but decreases the activity of TIO-9. Since the TIO-9 activity is the only one negatively impacted, TIO-9 has the highest activity with pristine TiO<sub>2</sub> particles. The decrease in activity is attributed to the contact state between graphene and TiO<sub>2</sub>. As observed by TEM, TIO-9 agglomerates. The sheet size of the multilayered graphene is large and inhomogeneous (**Fig. 3b**). We attempted to use thin and small graphene to improve this inhomogeneous state. Using graphene (Fig. 1b) made of alumina beads improves the activity (Table 2).

**Table 3** Properties of TiO<sub>2</sub>.

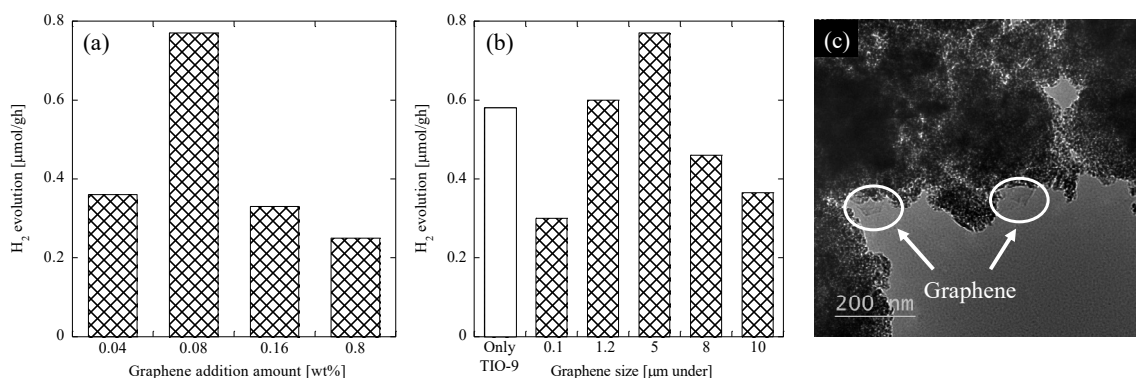
	TIO-2	TIO-4	TIO-8	TIO-9	TIO-12
Primary particle size	0.4 mm	~ 21 nm		8–11 nm	~ 6 nm
Specific surface area [m <sup>2</sup> /g]	18	50±15	338	290–310	290
Method	sulfate	chlorine	–	sulfate	–
Crystal structure	anatase	anatase	anatase	anatase	anatase /rutile



**Fig. 3** (a) H<sub>2</sub> evolution for each photocatalyst and (b) TEM image of the graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> composite.

Because the TIO-9 showed the highest activity when we used pristine TiO<sub>2</sub> particles, the effects of the amount of added graphene and graphene size on the maximum activity were investigated using TIO-9. The graphene loading amount was 0.08 wt%, which yields the maximum activity (**Fig. 4a**). The graphene size was divided using a membrane filter with a suction filtration pore size of 10, 8, 5, 1.2, or 0.1 μm. The amount of H<sub>2</sub> evolution is shown in **Fig. 4b**. Although the highest activity is obtained at ≤ 5 μm, TEM reveals that graphene is more covered with TiO<sub>2</sub> than expected due to small and thin graphene. This suggests that the light irradiation to graphene is insufficient. **Figure 4c** shows the TEM image of the composite catalyst (0.08 wt%, < 5 μm). From the viewpoint of the electron transfer, Kamat reported an ideal surface or contact state between TiO<sub>2</sub> and graphene [43]. The above results show that the catalytic activity is affected by the contact state of the TIO-9 and the graphene (**Fig. 5a**).

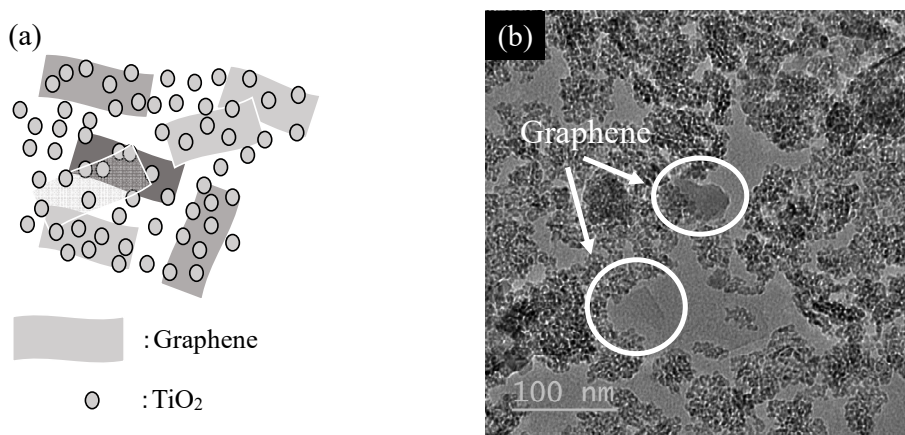
To improve the agglomeration of TIO-9, as seen in the TEM images in Fig. 3b and Fig. 4c, the amount of added TIO-9 is reduced from 50 mg to 5 mg. **Table 4** indicates the H<sub>2</sub> evolution. The activity per unit weight is improved, and the maximum activity (0.95 μmol/g·h) is obtained at 5 mg TIO-9. This value is 1.6 times higher than that of pristine TIO-9. The XRD and UV-DRS spectra for the graphene–TIO-9 composites (corresponds to Fig. 3b, Fig. 4c, and Fig. 5b, respectively.) were shown in **Figs. S1**, and **S2** (see



**Fig. 4** Effects of (a) the additional amount and (b) sheet size of graphene on the catalytic activity of the graphene–TiO-9 composite. (c) TEM image of the composite (0.08 wt%,  $\leq 5 \mu\text{m}$ ).

supporting information). **Figure 5b** shows the TEM image of the composite photocatalyst when the additional amount of TiO-9 is close to the ideal dispersion state described above (Fig. 5a). In addition, the same tendency is observed for activity with only TiO-9, suggesting that the dispersibility of TiO<sub>2</sub> is also important. Therefore, when the contact state and dispersibility of graphene and TiO<sub>2</sub> are closer to the ideal state, the activity improves.





**Fig. 5** (a) Ideal contact state of the graphene–TiO-9 composite. (b) Improved activity due to the dispersion of TiO-9.

**Table 4** Improvement of activity by reducing the additional amount of TiO-9.

TiO-9	Graphene	H <sub>2</sub> evolution [ $\mu\text{mol/g}\cdot\text{h}$ ]
50 mg	0.04 mg	0.40
5 mg	0.04 mg	0.95

## 5. Conclusion

Adding ceramics beads to water and a surfactant not only improves the liquid phase

exfoliation but also realizes a new method to prepare high concentrations of mono and multilayer graphene dispersions in a short time. The ability of graphene to enhance the activity of the graphene–TiO<sub>2</sub> (TIO-9) composite photocatalyst was evaluated. Adding 0.08 wt% of graphene to TIO-9 decreases the activity, whereas using graphene with different sheet sizes or improving the aggregation of TIO-9 enhances the activity to about 1.6 times higher than the H<sub>2</sub> evolution amount using only the initial TIO-9. These results indicate that the contact and dispersed states of graphene and TiO<sub>2</sub> are important to improve the activity.

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