

H_2 production from formic acid over highly stable and efficient Cu-Fe-O spinel based photocatalysts under flow, visible-light and at room temperature conditions

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Hanen Abdelli, Houeida Issa Hamoud, Juan Pablo Bolletta, Arnold Paecklar, Afrah Bardaoui, et al.. H_2 production from formic acid over highly stable and efficient Cu-Fe-O spinel based photocatalysts under flow, visible-light and at room temperature conditions. Applied Materials Today, 2023, 31, pp.101771. 10.1016/j.apmt.2023.101771. hal-03985073

HAL Id: hal-03985073 https://hal.science/hal-03985073v1

Submitted on 13 Feb 2023 $\,$

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1 2 H₂ Production from Formic Acid over Highly Stable and Efficient Cu-Fe-O spinel **Based Photocatalysts under Flow, Visible-Light and at Room Temperature Conditions** 3

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21

22 Abstract

Catalytic dehydrogenation of liquid organic hydrogen carriers (LOHC), such as formic acid 23

(FAc), is considered as a promising approach to safely store and easily transport hydrogen at 24

ambient conditions. Generally, this process suffers from low activity, low reaction 25

selectivity, low stability of the catalysts and/or the use of noble-metal based catalysts. In this 26

study, a highly efficient CuFe₂O₄-based photocatalyst is reported for the photocatalytic 27

dehydrogenation of FAc under visible light at room temperature and under continuous gas 28

flow. The effects of various factors such as composition of the catalysts and thermal 29

pretreatment are investigated along a series of samples. The synthesis, dispersion, oxidation 30

states, photo-electrochemical properties and performances of these materials were 31

investigated in details. A synergetic effect, with relatively high dehydrogenation selectivity 32 (77% with 6.6 mmol.g⁻¹.h⁻¹ of H₂ production) is obtained on the copper-rich samples 33 34 without any significant deactivation for two cycles of 20h/cycle. This study opens up a new route to design new Cu-based photocatalysts as cost-effective materials for visible-light 35

driven photocatalytic dehydrogenation of FAc at room temperature. 36

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Keywords: Photocatalysis, Hydrogen, LOHC, Formic acid, Dehydrogenation.

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40 1. Introduction

Hydrogen represents a clean and promising energy vector which can efficiently replace 41 42 the widely used fossil fuels. However, hydrogen generation from renewable sources under mild conditions and its storage in a safe and reversible manner remains challenging [1]. In 43 this respect, formic acid (FAc), as a liquid organic hydrogen carrier (LOHC), is an excellent 44 candidate for hydrogen storage due to its non-toxic character, its stability and its high 45 46 hydrogen content (4.4 wt.%) [2]. Furthermore, FAc is readily available from sources such as biomass reforming, CO₂ hydrogenation and as a by-product/product of the chemical 47 industry [3]. Its decomposition can proceed by two ways: 48

49 - Dehydrogenation : HCOOH \rightarrow H₂ + CO₂ 50 (1)

51 and

52 - Dehydration : HCOOH \rightarrow CO + H₂O 53 (2)

54 Traditionally, expensive noble-metal based materials (i.e. Pd, Au, Ag, Pt) are used to achieve an acceptable conversion of FAc into H₂ [4,5,6,7,8,9]. Some of these systems 55 operate at relatively high temperatures (100-350°C) which lead to a negative energy balance 56 57 (the energy involved in the process is being higher than that elaborated from the produced hydrogen) [10]. Thereby, the selective photocatalytic dehydrogenation of FAc at room 58 temperature (RT) using renewable source of energy (sun/visible light) has recently emerged 59 60 as an outstanding alternative to the traditional thermal catalysts. Aside from noble metalbased photocatalysts, the utilization of low-cost systems such as heterojunctions 61 (CdS/Fe₂O₃, MoS₂/CdS, Ni-Co/CdS, Ni₂P/Zn₃In₂S₆, MoP/Zn₃In₂S₆, etc.) [11,12], layered 62

63 [13] or core-shell structures (CdS/TNT, CdS@ZIF-8, CdS–ZnS, etc.) [14,15,16] has shown 64 enhanced performances ascribed to the efficient electron-hole pair separation. Among these systems, there have been only few studies reporting the use of visible-light responsive 65 66 copper-based photocatalysts for hydrogen production from FAc [17,18,19]. In addition, most of these studies investigate the photo-reforming of FAc in the liquid phase, where the 67 photocatalyst's instability at low pH is the main drawback (oxidation of sulfur-based 68 catalysts, metal leaching, etc.) [17,18,19]. Recently, Zhang et al. investigated binary 69 CuO/TiO₂ heterojunction nanofibers for FAc photo-reforming in liquid phase under 70 71 simulated sunlight irradiation at RT [18]. It was found that hydrogen production (2 mmol.g⁻ 1 .h⁻¹) begins after 2 h of irradiation, defined as the induction period, due to the photo-72 assisted reconstruction of binary heterojunctions (CuO/TiO₂) into a quaternary 73 74 (Cu/Cu₂O/CuO/TiO₂) system. More recently, a very cheap and simple CuO/TiO₂ mixture 75 has been used to produce hydrogen by solar light irradiation from a FAc solution at pH = 2.5[19]. The system was able to produce 2.4 mmol.g⁻¹.h⁻¹ of H₂ in the first cycle (1 day) but 76 reduced to 1.6 mmol.g⁻¹.h⁻¹ after five cycles (5 days) due to the Cu leaching. 77

Alternatively, we have investigated a metal organic framework (MOFs) based materials for photocatalytic dehydrogenation of FAc [20]. The post-metalation of the MOFs structure with Cu and the in-situ restructuring of this latter during the reaction accounted for its high activity and the high selectivity of the reaction. However, the investigation of new copperbased catalysts, for FAc dehydrogenation, that can be easily synthesized from earthabundant elements, such as Cu and Fe, is still of great interest due to the complexity and the cost of both synthesis procedure and activation process of MOF-based structures.

Therefore, and to overcome the previous cited limitations, we aim in this work to investigate the dehydrogenation of FAc in vapor phase under continuous flow over low-cost and one-pot synthesized iron-copper oxide based photocatalysts. In this context, the CuFe₂O₄ spinel is a material which attracts much attention in photocatalysis due to its

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89 effectiveness under visible light irradiation, redox properties, non-toxicity, low cost, roomtemperature magnetic behavior and high charge transfer [21,22,23]. To date, $CuFe_2O_4$ was 90 mainly used for the photocatalytic degradation of organic effluent in the presence of H_2O_2 , 91 92 (Fenton-like reaction) [21-27] and water splitting [28]. Herein, we investigate for the first time the photocatalytic activity and stability of CuFe₂O₄-based systems for a vapor-phase 93 dehydrogenation of FAc under visible-light irradiation at room temperature. The stability of 94 the photocatalysts, the effect of Cu:Fe ratio and the impact of the thermal treatment used to 95 prepare the materials were tested during this reaction. The nominal Cu:Fe ratios (1:11, 1:3, 96 97 1:2, and 2:1) are used in the following as a labeling of the samples for more clarity. The preparation of the samples, the physicochemical and photo-electrochemical properties of the 98 catalysts were deeply inspected using in-situ X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD), scanning 99 electron microscopy coupled with energy dispersive X-ray (SEM-EDX), UV-Vis diffuse 100 101 reflectance (DR-UV-Vis), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and potentiometry. Then, the photocatalytic activity is explored using Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) 102 103 operando spectroscopy. Finally, a tentative mechanism of the reaction is proposed.

104 **2. Experimental part**

105 2.1. Materials

Iron nitrate (Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O; \geq 98%), copper nitrate (Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O; \geq 99.99%), sodium hydroxide pellets (\geq 99.9%), maize starch ((C₆H₁₀O₅)_n), ascorbic acid (\geq 99%), formic acid (\geq 99%) and acetic acid (\geq 99.8%) were all purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Distilled water and absolute ethanol were used as solvents. Commercial SiO₂ (Ultrasil 5500 GR) and Fe₂O₃ (99.5%) were used as received from Evonik-Degussa and Alfa Aesar, respectively.

111 2.2. Catalyst synthesis

112 It should be noted that all the syntheses reported in this study were reproduced at least twice

- 113 to attest of their reproducibility.
- 114 Synthesis of CuFe₂O₄-based catalysts with Cu: Fe ratios 1:11, 1:3, 1:2, and 2:1:

115 These samples were synthesized by the starch-assisted sol-gel auto-combustion method [29]. The desired amounts of iron nitrate and copper nitrate were dissolved in distilled water 116 to obtain a homogeneous solution. Then, an aqueous solution of starch $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n$ was 117 mixed with the metal-nitrate solution. The obtained mixture was heated at 100°C under 118 continuous stirring until the formation of a viscous brown gel. Then, the gel was heated at 119 180°C for 4 h to initiate a self-sustaining combustion reaction and produce the precursor. 120 The precursors were further ground to powder, and finally heated in air at various 121 temperatures as described in the following (section 3). 122

123 Synthesis of CuO, Cu₂O, Cu₂O/Cu⁰ (used as reference material):

CuO was synthetized using a chemical precipitation method described elsewhere [30]. Cu(NO₃)₂ solution (300 mL 0.02 M) was prepared and heated at 100°C under vigorous stirring. Then, 0.5 g of solid NaOH was rapidly added resulting in the production of a considerable amount of black precipitates. Next, the precipitates were heated at 100°C for 20 min under ambient atmosphere. The resulting products were then centrifuged, washed with water and ethanol several times, and then dried in air at room temperature.

130 Cu₂O was synthetized using a hydrothermal method described elsewhere [31]. 131 Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O (181.2 mg) was dissolved in 30 mL of anhydrous absolute ethanol in a 132 Teflon flask under vigorous stirring. After dropwise addition of acetic acid (1.5 mL), the 133 solution was ultrasonicated for 5 min and transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless-steel 134 autoclave (capacity 40 mL) to reach 80% filling. The reaction was performed at 180°C for 2 135 h. The brick red powder was then collected and washed several times with distilled water 136 and ethanol, and dried in air at 60°C for 12 h.

In a typical procedure for the synthesis of Cu₂O/Cu [32], 0.4 g of NaOH was added to 100
mL of 0.1 M Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O under magnetic stirring. After complete dissolution of NaOH,
2 g of ascorbic acid were added and stirred for 30 min at room temperature. During the

140 process, the color of the solutions changed from blue to brown colors. The precipitate was

141 washed several times with water and ethanol and finally dried overnight at 60° C.

142

143 2.3. Characterization

XRPD analysis of Cu:Fe oxides as well as the reference materials (CuO, Cu₂O, Cu₂O/Cu⁰ 144 and Fe₂O₃, Fig. S 1) were carried out in PANalytical X'Pert Pro diffractometers with either 145 Co K α 1/K α 2 (λ = 1.7892 Å/1.7932 Å with ratio 0.5) or Cu K α 1 irradiation (λ = 1.5406 Å) 146 at room temperature. Additional XRPD patterns were collected during in situ high-147 temperature synthesis in a Rigaku SmartLab diffractometer, equipped with a rotating anode 148 149 source (45 kV, 200 mA, $\lambda = Cu K\alpha 1/K\alpha 2$ with ratio 0.4970) and a HyPix-3000 detector in 1D mode. Measurements were performed in Bragg-Brentano geometry at constant 150 temperatures and also while heating from 500 to 900°C at a 1°C.min⁻¹ rate in an Anton Paar 151 XRK900 chamber, with an Inconel sample holder. For these in-situ experiments, the 152 precursors were previously heated ex-situ at 500°C overnight under air to avoid uncontrolled 153 combustions in the reaction chamber of the diffractometer. 154

Nitrogen adsorption/desorption measurements were performed with an ASAP 2020 MP instrument. The specific surface area was calculated with the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) equation, while the pore volumes were determined by the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method (Table S1). Prior to the measurements, samples were degassed *in vacuum* at 300 °C for 3 h.

The content and distribution of Cu and Fe were determined by SEM-EDX on a JEOL JSM-5500LV microscope or a MIRA TESCAN microscope (Table S1). The images were collected with an acceleration voltage of 30 kV. Advanced transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out on an aberration probe, and image corrected JEM ARM200F cold FEG microscope operated at 200 kV equipped with a CENTURIO EDX detector and GIF Quantum spectrometer. The metal contents were also verified by a Varian

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166 ICP-OES 720-ES inductively coupled plasma spectrometry (ICP). The Cu:Fe ratios
167 measured by ICP (Table S1) confirm the nominal ones.

XPS measurements were carried out on an AXIS Supra electron spectrometer (Kratos 168 Analytical Ltd.) with base vacuum in the analysis chamber in the order of 10^{-8} Pa. The 169 samples were irradiated with monochromatized Al Ka radiation with photon energy of 170 1486.6 eV. The photoemitted electrons were separated according to their kinetic energy by a 171 180 o-hemispherical analyzer with a total instrumental resolution of 0.6 eV (as measured by 172 the FWHM of Ag $3d_{5/2}$ line) at pass energy of 20 eV. Energy calibration was performed by 173 normalizing the C 1s line of adventitious adsorbed hydrocarbons on silver folio to 284.6 eV. 174 The analysis area was 700x300 μ m². DR-UV-Vis measurements relevant to Cu speciation 175 were carried using a Cary 4000 UV-Vis spectrophotometer and a HARRICK Praying 176 Mantis diffuse reflectance accessory. All spectra were recorded between 200-800 nm using 177 an average time of 0.2 s and a scan rate of 300 nm.min^{-1} . 178

Both electrochemical and photoelectrochemical experiments were performed by using a 179 180 potentiostat Autolab PGSTAT302N in two-compartment cell and in three-electrode configuration. The cathodic compartment was physically separated from the anodic one by a 181 proton exchange membrane (Nafion 117; thickness 0.007 in). The fluorine-doped tin oxide 182 covered glass (FTO) was utilized as a conductive substrate for working electrode (geometric 183 area 0.71 cm²). Pt wire was applied as counter electrode and mercury sulfate electrode 184 (Hg/Hg₂SO₄/sat. K₂SO₄) as reference electrode. Potentials were converted to the reversible 185 hydrogen electrode (RHE) reference scale. The aqueous electrolyte solutions used were 0.1 186 $mol.dm^{-3}$ Na₂SO₄ at pH = 6.4 after saturation in argon. For photoelectrochemical 187 experiments, the solar simulator (Quantum Design Model LSE341) used as a light source is 188 equipped with 300 W Xe lamp (light intensity = 100 mW.cm^{-2}) and AM 1.5 Global filter. 189 The photocurrent vs. time curves were measured with a potential sweep of 10 mVs^{-1} at the 190 imposed potential of 0.0V vs. RHE under chopped light. The electrochemical experiments 191

were performed by scanning the potential from 1.02 V to 0.0 V vs. RHE (at 10 mV.s⁻¹). Catalyst solutions were prepared by suspending 10 mg of photocatalyst in a mixture of 20 μ L Nafion solution (0.5 wt%) and 200 μ L of ethanol followed by sonification for 30 min. Thereafter, 20 μ L of the sample solution was pipetted onto the FTO surface (geometric area 0.71 cm²) followed by drying at 80°C for 10 min.

197 2.4. Photocatalytic test

For the operando experiments, a 'sandwich-like' IR cell-reactor (scheme S1) was used to 198 199 study the performances of the different Cu-Fe based materials during the photodecomposition of formic acid under visible light irradiation at room temperature (25 200 °C), as detailed in Ref. [33,34]. Due to magnetic aggregation in some of the samples, it was 201 difficult to prepare a self-supported pellet. Thus, the powders were mixed (50/50 wt.%) with 202 an inert/non-active SiO₂ support (Ultrasil 5500 GR, Evonik-Degussa) for preparing thin 203 pellets of ≈ 20 mg. The catalyst was activated in argon gas at RT under visible irradiation 204 using a Xe lamp (LC8 Hamamatsu, 71 mW.cm⁻² of irradiance) with a pass-high filter >390 205 nm. Then, the reaction was studied in the presence of 2600 ppm of FAc (0.26 vol.%) with a 206 total flow rate of 25 cm³.min⁻¹ in argon. The relative concentrations of the effluent gases 207 were stabilized before being sent to the cell, then an adsorption step of FAc on the catalyst 208 surface was performed under dark conditions. Finally, the composition of the output gas 209 210 from the IR reactor cell was analyzed simultaneously by mass spectrometry (MS) (Quadrupole Pfeiffer Omnistar GSD 301) and IR spectroscopy (ThermoNicolet NEXUS 670 211 FTIR) equipped with a mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector with a spectral 212 resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and accumulating 64 scans. The evolution of FAc concentration in the 213 gas phase was monitored using the surface area of IR band at 1109–1101 cm⁻¹ and the FAc 214 MS signal (m/z = 45 and 46). The selectivity of CO₂ and CO were determined using the IR 215 band areas at 2395-2182 cm⁻¹ and 2140-2020 cm⁻¹, respectively. The amounts of hydrogen 216 were determined using the MS signal at m/z = 2 after correction from water contributions 217

and the results were confirmed by online gas chromatography (GC) analysis of the gas 218 phase products at the steady-state using a Compact $GC^{4.0}$ equipped with 3 analysis channels. 219 The first thermal conductivity detector (GC-TCD, Interscience) is equipped with a 220 Molseive5 A (25 m \times 0.32 mm) and Rt-QBond (3 m \times 0.32 mm) columns for respectively 221 analyzing of O₂, N₂, CH₄, CO and CO₂ using helium as a carrier gas. The second TCD 222 channel is equipped with Rt-QBond (3 m \times 0.32 mm) and argon as a carrier gas for H₂ 223 analysis. The third channel with flame ionization detector (FID) and He as carrier gas 224 equipped with Rt-OBond (25 m \times 0.32 mm) column for hydrocarbons (HC) detection (C₁-225 C_6). The peak areas of CO₂, CO and H₂ were converted into concentrations by using their 226 calibration curves (Fig. S 2) (operating conditions: split flow rate = 5 mL.min⁻¹ for both 227 TCD and 10 mL.min⁻¹ for FID; inlet temperature 80°C; column temperature 60°C for O₂, 228 N₂, CH₄, CO and CO₂, 50°C for H₂ and 45°C for HC). 229

The FAc conversion (expressed in % or mmol per g of photocatalyst per hour per irradiated surface) and the selectivity (%) were calculated from Equations 3-6, at the steady-state using the calibration curve for different products of the reaction (Fig. S 2). The apparent quantum yield was calculated using the actinometer method as detailed in the SI (Fig. S 3). It should be noted that the irradiated surface of the pellet is about 1.6 cm². The FAc conversion and conversion rates are calculated as follows:

236 FAc conversion (%) =
$$\frac{[FAc]_0 (ppm) - [FAc]_t (ppm)}{[FA]_0 (ppm)} \times 100$$

237 (3)

238 Conversion rate (mmol. g⁻¹. h⁻¹) =
$$\frac{\text{Total flow}(L.h^{-1}) \times [FAc]0 \text{ (ppm)} \times 10^{-6} \times \frac{\text{conversion \%}}{100} \times 1000}{M_{FAc}(g.mol^{-1}) \times \frac{1}{d_{FAc}}(L.g^{-1}) \times m_{catalyst}(g)}$$
(4)

239 Conversion in mmol. g⁻¹. h⁻¹. cm⁻² =
$$\frac{\text{Conversion rate (mmol.g-1. h-1)}}{S_{\text{irradiated}}(\text{cm}^2)}$$
 (5)

240 Selectivity (%) = $\frac{\text{Concentration of target product (ppm)}}{\text{Concentration of FAc converted (ppm)}} \times 100$, with target product = H_2/CO_2 or CO (6)

241

242 **3. Results and discussion**

243 3.1. Catalysts Characterizations

To guide the preparation of samples starting from precursors prepared by sol-gel, in-situ 244 XRPD experiments were conducted on samples with Cu:Fe ratio 1:2 and 1:3. The full 245 results are shown in Fig. 1A and 1E up to 800°C, respectively. No further changes were 246 247 observed above this temperature beyond the expected thermal expansion of the materials. These temperature-dependent plots show that the initial mixes (at 600°C) already contain 248 249 phases similar to the desired CuFe₂O₄ spinel together with the binary oxides Fe₂O₃ and CuO. The CuFe₂O₄ spinel undergoes a reversible structural phase transition from tetragonal 250 (space group $I4_1/amd$) to cubic (space group Fd-3m) at approximately 390°C [35], meaning 251 252 that in Fig. 1 all spinel peaks are indexed in the high-temperature cubic phase. In the sample with Cu:Fe ratio 1:2 (Fig. 1A), the peaks of the binary oxides markedly decrease with 253 heating until disappearing above 720°C (Fig. 1B and 1D), concurrently with an increase in 254 the intensities and decrease in the width of the Bragg peaks corresponding to $CuFe_2O_4$ (Fig. 255 1C), usually associated with an increase of the amount of phase and of its crystallinity, 256 respectively. In this sample prepared from a precursor with Cu:Fe ratio 1:2, only traces of 257 CuO can be detected after the high-temperature treatment, resulting in a product consisting 258 of an overwhelming majority of CuFe₂O₄. On the other hand, for the material obtained from 259 260 the Cu:Fe 1:3 precursor (Fig. 1E), peaks of Fe₂O₃ only decrease up to 800°C (Fig. 1F and 1H), without completely disappearing. This shows a similar formation of the $CuFe_2O_4$ 261 spinel, with the excess of Fe from the precursor (compared to the CuFe₂O₄ formula) 262 remaining as additional Fe₂O₃ until very high temperatures (900°C) (Fig. 1F). In this sample 263 and contrary to the observations of the Cu:Fe 1:2 sample, no excess of CuO is detected after 264 the high-temperature treatment (Fig. 1H). These results demonstrate that changing the Cu:Fe 265

ratio from 1:2 to 1:3 drastically modifies the final constituents of the samples after thermal treatments. Heating mixtures of copper and iron oxides outside the 1:2 Cu:Fe ratio always results in CuFe₂O₄ plus an excess of the more abundant binary oxide. This is in accordance with early observations by Milligan and Holmes [36] who showed that non-stoichiometry does not occur in this spinel.



Figure 1. (A) Temperature-dependent XRPD for *in-situ* synthesis of $CuFe_2O_4$ from a Cu:Fe 1:2 precursor. (B-C-D) Details of peaks highlighting the evolution of Fe_2O_3 , $CuFe_2O_4$ and CuO, respectively. (E) Temperature-dependent XRPD for *in-situ* synthesis from a Cu:Fe 1:3 precursor. (F-G-H) Details of peaks highlighting the evolution of Fe_2O_3 , $CuFe_2O_4$ and CuO, respectively. Marked peaks correspond to Fe_2O_3 (*) ($R\overline{3}c$ space group) or CuO (+) (C2/cspace group). Arbitrary scales are independent between panels.

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Considering the *in-situ* experiments, samples with different Cu:Fe ratios and thermal
treatment temperatures were prepared *ex-situ* to obtain catalysts with or without excess of
the binary oxides. The sample with Cu:Fe 1:11 (Fig. 2A) was prepared with a clear excess

282 of Fe in the mixture with respect to the ideal copper iron spinel composition, and thus results in a sample mainly composed of Fe_2O_3 , together with a small amount of $CuFe_2O_4$. In 283 a similar manner, results for the Cu:Fe 1:3 mixture always show a strong presence of Fe₂O₃ 284 285 (Fig. 2B and 2C) regardless of thermal treatment. However, in contrast with the previous case, the spinel is the main phase in the high-temperature sample. In addition, CuO cannot 286 be detected, suggesting that all Cu resides within the CuFe₂O₄ spinel. Results for Cu:Fe 1:2 287 are shown in Fig. 2D (600°C) and 2E (800°C). In the low-temperature sample, CuFe₂O₄ 288 peaks are identifiable, with additional Fe₂O₃ and CuO. When the temperature is increased to 289 290 800°C, the CuFe₂O₄ spinel clearly becomes the main phase together with a trace amount of remaining CuO. Results for both ex-situ synthesis of Cu:Fe 1:2 and Cu:Fe 1:3 are in line 291 with those obtained during in-situ experiments. As shown in Fig. 1E-F, the samples obtained 292 from the Cu:Fe 1:3 precursor are always mixed with an excess of Fe₂O₃. This marks a 293 294 strong difference between these two samples treated at high temperatures, as Cu:Fe 1:2 precursor produces samples with a negligible, trace amount of binary CuO, while the Cu:Fe 295 296 1:3 precursor generates a mixed sample with a marked presence of binary Fe₂O₃. An additional sample was prepared with Cu:Fe ratio 2:1, which is found to contain a large 297 amount of CuO together with CuFe₂O₄ as a secondary phase, producing a sample in which 298 most of the Cu now lies in the form of binary copper oxide. 299



300

Figure 2. RT XRPD patterns for catalysts obtained from precursors with different Cu:Fe ratios and synthesis temperatures. Unmarked peaks correspond to $CuFe_2O_4$ (tetragonal, space group $I4_1/amd$), marked peaks correspond to Fe_2O_3 (*) ($R\overline{3}c$ space group) or CuO (+) (C2/c space group). The indexation of the main Bragg peaks of the spinel is given in panel (E) as it corresponds to a near single-phase sample. As patterns were collected in different diffractometers with different X-ray sources, they are presented as a function of Q to facilitate the comparison.

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309 The UV-Vis diffuse reflectance analysis of samples with various nominal Cu:Fe ratios and thus different constituents demonstrates that their optical behavior depends-on the involved 310 phases (Fig. 3A and S 4). Starting from the Cu:Fe 1:11 sample, the increase of Cu content 311 results in an increase of the band intensity at 567 nm, attributed to CuFe₂O₄ [37], with a 312 redshift for the Cu:Fe 1:3 sample in respect to 1:11. An additional broad absorption band 313 appears at around 690 nm for the 1:2 sample and becomes more intense for the 2:1 sample. 314 It can be attributed to Cu^{2+} electron d–d transitions in distorted CuO_6 octahedra of CuO [38], 315 as detected by XRPD. The presence of copper oxide in the Cu-rich samples is also 316 317 confirmed by SEM (Fig. 3B). Contrary to the samples with Cu:Fe ratio lower than 1:2, the Cu:Fe 1:2 sample reveals the existence of copper oxide islands whose quantity increases in 318 319 the 2:1 sample. The presence of excess of Cu in the Cu:Fe 1:2 was also confirmed by HR-320 TEM analysis (Fig. S5).





324

325 *3.2. Photocatalytic activity*

First, the photocatalytic reforming of FAc was investigated upon Cu:Fe 1:2 sample treated at 600°C and 800°C. The catalytic tests were conducted under visible light irradiation at room temperature with an initial FAc concentration of 2600 ppm (~0.26%) in Ar atmosphere and with total flow of 25 cm³.min⁻¹. Each experiment was repeated at least two times with an estimated relative error of less than 7%. The FAc conversions as well as the produced amounts of H_2 , CO_2 and CO, and their corresponding selectivity are summarized in Table 1.

CuFe₂O₄ treated at 600°C shows very low activity while it is around 9 times higher for the 333 same catalyst treated at 800°C and tested under similar conditions (Table 1). The 334 335 dehydrogenation (Eq. 1) selectivity is about 77 % (Table 1, Fig. S 6-7) vs. 23% of dehydration (Eq. 2). The molar conversion rates of FAc are almost equal to the sum of CO₂ 336 (or H₂) and CO, demonstrating the absence of other carbon beside products. This result 337 reveals that the effect of the treatment temperature is very significant. As discussed 338 previously, the composition of the two catalysts changes with the preparation temperature, 339 as the 600°C sample still contains relatively high quantities of Fe₂O₃ and CuO, while only 340 trace amounts of the latter remain in the 800°C sample; this explains their different 341 photocatalytic behavior. Based on this, 800±25°C is chosen as the optimum calcination 342 temperature of Cu-Fe spinel samples with different Cu:Fe ratio. 343

Table 1. Results of the activity and reaction selectivity of the FAc reforming at the steady
 state over the catalysts with different Cu:Fe ratios and treatment temperatures.^a

Cu:Fe ratio (treatment temperature in °C)	Conv.%	Conversion rate (mmol.g ⁻¹ .h ⁻¹ .cm ⁻²) ^c	H ₂ (mmol.g ⁻ ¹ .h ⁻¹ .cm ⁻²)	CO ₂ (mmol.g ⁻¹ .h ⁻ ¹ .cm ⁻²)	CO (mmol.g ⁻ ¹ .h ⁻¹ .cm ⁻²)	dehydroge nation selectivity (%)	apparent quantum yield %
1:11 (800)	1.5	0.17	$n.d^d$	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
1:3 (800)	1.9	0.20	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
1:2 (600)	5.6	0.60	0.47	0.60	n.d	n.d	n.d
1:2 (800)	47.4	5.22	4.14	4.23	1.41	77	9.0
2:1 (800)	51.5	5.56	4.10	4.30	1.54	76	9.9

346 ^aReaction conditions: [FAc]=2600 ppm (0.26%) in Ar; total flow 25 cm³.min⁻¹; T=25 °C; Xe-lamp 150 W with

visible light pass filter (λ >390 nm); irradiance=71 mW.cm⁻²; mcat=10 mg+10mg of inert silica (self-supported pellet with irradiated surface of 1.6 cm²); reaction time =17 h.

349 ^b relative conversion error is $\pm 7\%$

^c unit expressed in mmol per g of catalyst ($m_{cat}=10 \text{ mg}$) per hour per cm² of irradiated surface (1.6 cm²).

351 Values should be multiplied by 1.6 cm^{-2} for a rate in mmol.g⁻¹.h⁻¹.

^dn.d. non determined (under the detection limit of the apparatus).

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354

355 For better understanding the CuFe₂O₄ catalyst behaviors, additional photocatalytic tests have been performed over samples with Cu:Fe ratios 1:11, 1:3 and 2:1 after their calcination 356 at 800 °C using similar reaction conditions to those for CuFe (1:2). The results, assembled 357 358 in Figure 4A and Table 1, demonstrate that samples with Cu:Fe 1:11, and 1:3 do not exhibit any significant activity towards H_2 production from formic acid (< 2%), revealing that 359 samples with additional Fe₂O₃ have their photocatalytic activities noticeably hindered. This 360 is confirmed by characterizing additional samples synthetized from a Cu:Fe ratio ranging 361 between 1:11 and 1:3 (e.g. Cu:Fe = 1:5) that did not show any activity (the results are not 362 363 shown here for the sake of brevity). From these preliminary results, it can be inferred that the presence of extra- spinel-structure Cu species beyond CuFe₂O₄ spinel is crucial for the 364 photocatalytic activity of the samples (Cu Fe (1:2) and (2:1)). However, it seems that the 365 presence of extra-structure iron species (e.g. Fe₂O₃) didn't make the CuFe₂O₄ spinel 366 367 photocatalytically active for the conversion of FAc (CuFe (1:11), (1:5) and (1:3)). On the other hand, the similar results obtained over Cu:Fe (2:1) in respect to Cu:Fe (1:2) indicate 368 369 that the excess of CuO (Cu:Fe 2:1) is not enhancing the photocatalytic activity. In what follows, we will focus on two main samples for highlighting the origin of the photocatalytic 370 activity: the non-active Cu:Fe (1:3) and the highly active Cu:Fe (1:2). 371

The time-dependent FAc conversion over Cu:Fe 1:2 has been then investigated for two successive cycles with 20 h of visible light irradiation per cycle separated by 1 h of dark (Fig. 4B). The first cycle manifests an induction period before reaching a steady state after 1 h with similar profiles of FAc conversion and CO₂/H₂ production.



Figure 4. (A) FAc conversion (%) and the corresponding selectivity (%) at t = 17 h of reaction over samples with different Cu:Fe ratios treated at 800°C. (n.d = non detected) (B) Evolution of the FAc conversion (%) and the corresponding gas phase products (CO₂, CO and H₂) during the FAc photo-reforming over Cu:Fe 1:2 under visible irradiation at RT. Insert: zooming on the early period of the reaction during first (1) and second (2) cycle (doted zones). (C) FAc conversion (%) and the corresponding selectivity (%) at t = 17 h of reaction over CuO, Cu₂O and their 1:1 mixture with Cu:Fe 1:3.

A comparable behavior with an equivalent induction period is observed for the Cu:Fe 2:1 384 sample (Fig. S 8). The presence of an induction time indicates an *in-situ* structuring of the 385 catalyst. Taking into account our recent work, Cu²⁺ reduction to Cu^{+/0} clusters is very 386 probable [20]. This induction period totally disappears in the 2nd cycle and the FAc 387 conversion spontaneously reaches the steady state after irradiation (see Inserts Fig. 4B). 388 Importantly, the results reveal the absence of any significant deactivation of the catalyst 389 390 tested constantly for two days. To the best of our knowledge, this activity (around 6.6 $mmol.g^{-1}.h^{-1}$ of H_2 production) is the highest for a dehydrogenation of FAc under visible 391

light irradiation at room temperature when comparing to other Cu-based materials reported in literature (Table S 4). Nevertheless, it is important to mention that the comparison between different works is approximate and could not be absolute due to differences in various factors (liquid phase and batch vs. vapor phase and under flow condition (our work), reactor geometry, intensity, wavelength and surface of irradiation, reaction conditions, and the absence of information on the photocatalyst stability in some studies).

To gain further insight on the active sites of Cu:Fe 1:2 catalyst treated at 800°C, other Cu-398 containing oxides were considered and tested towards H₂ production from FAc under 399 400 similar experimental conditions. Particularly, CuO and Cu₂O were tested separately and also in 1:1 mixtures with the Cu:Fe 1:3 catalyst. The Cu:Fe 1:3 sample was chosen due to the 401 absence of extra-framework copper oxide. The results are presented in Fig 4C and 402 403 summarized in Table S2. Even though CuO is characterized by narrow band gap and high absorption in visible range of solar spectrum [18,39], this oxide alone or in a mixture with 404 Cu:Fe 1:3 does not show any H₂ generation. This is probably because of its unsuitable 405 conduction band (CB) position ($\sim +0.35$ V vs. NHE at pH = 3) situated below the reduction 406 potential of H^+/H_2 (-0.18 V vs. NHE at pH = 3) (scheme S 2) [18]. Meanwhile, Cu₂O 407 408 displays a low photocatalytic activity with 5.6 % of FAc conversion and almost 100% of dehydrogenation selectivity at the steady state (Fig. 4C). The low efficiency of Cu₂O is 409 attributed to the fast recombination of electron-holes charge carriers (scheme S 2) [40]. 410 411 However, the evolution of the conversion versus the irradiation time reveals a significant induction period without any photocatalytic activity for more than 3.5 h (vs. <1 h for Cu:Fe 412 1:2), followed with a progressive increase in the activity until reaching the steady state at ~ 5 413 414 h (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, a fourfold enhanced photocatalytic activity with respect to Cu₂O (5.6 % of FAc conversion) is obtained by mixing Cu₂O with Cu:Fe 1:3 (about 20 % of FAc 415 conversion at steady state) with a shorter induction period (~0.5 h) and a similar behavior in 416 the second cycle (Fig. 5A). Moreover, a minor amount of CO was detected for this mixture 417

(Fig. S 9), suggesting that CO production mainly occurred on copper iron spinel rather than 418 on Cu₂O, being characterized by a high selectivity towards dehydrogenation. We should 419 underline that these results could not be compared directly with the spinel-based samples as 420 421 we used a high amount of Cu₂O (25 wt.%) in the mixture in order to provide a good dispersion and accessible Cu₂O/ferrite interface. Based on these results, we can assume that 422 the spinel plays an important role and significantly enhances the photocatalytic activity of 423 the system. Furthermore, spinel can stabilize the active copper sites, i.e. the activity of 424 Cu:Fe 1:2 was not significantly changed after several months of aging time, contrary to 425 426 Cu₂O. On the other hand, this result supports a possible restructuring of the Cu species under the reaction, e.g. formation of $Cu^{+/0}$. This hypothesis is supported by the inactivity of 427 the spinel with a 1:3 Cu:Fe ratio, the inactivity of CuO and the induction time observed on 428 Cu₂O and its decrease when the inactive 1:3 Cu:Fe spinel is used as support. This agrees 429 with our recent study on the *in-situ* restructuring of Cu^{2+} in UiO-66-(COOH)₂-Cu (18 wt.%) 430 into Cu_2O/Cu^0 during FAc reforming under visible light [20]. In this study, the formation of 431 highly active Cu_2O/Cu^0 species trapped in the UiO-66 cages has been evidenced using high-432 resolution HAADF-STEM images and XPS. However, the detection of such Cu active 433 species in Cu:Fe 1:2 photocatalyst was not possible due to its highly dispersion and/or low 434 amount in respect to the Cu of the spinel-framework. 435



Figure 5. (A) Evolution of the FAc conversion (%) and the corresponding gas phase products (CO₂ and H₂) during the FA photo-reforming over (a) Cu₂O and (b) its mixture with Cu:Fe 1:3 under visible irradiation at RT. Evolution of the IR surface spectra of Cu₂O, the surface monodentate formate (1570 cm⁻¹) species vs. CO₂ production in gas phase and the band at 1721 vs. 1735 cm⁻¹ during the induction period (B,C,D) and the photocatalytic cycle (E,F,G), respectively. Insert in B and E: zoom on the FTIR region of 1500-1600 cm⁻¹.

436

Operando-FTIR spectroscopy shed more light on the induction time as the evolution of the 444 surface species is simultaneously monitored with the gas phase analysis during the reaction. 445 Unfortunately, we were not able to monitor the surface of the Cu:Fe 1:2 photocatalyst due to 446 depression of IR transmittance through the pellet once the lamp is turned on (Fig. S 10). It is 447 probably due to the resonance saturation of IR absorption in semiconductors caused by the 448 multiphoton inter-band absorption, spectral hole burning and carrier heating [41,42]. This 449 phenomenon is less significant in case of less active Cu:Fe 1:3 in presence or absence of 450 Cu₂O, but the spectra collected during the reaction are still not exploitable (Fig. S 11-12). 451 For this reason, Cu₂O was chosen as a model to shed some light on the evolution of catalyst 452 surface during the reaction. This allows to identify the reaction intermediates, to understand 453

454 the induction period and to propose a reaction mechanism over Cu:Fe 1:2 photocatalyst by analogy with Cu₂O. The IR spectra of Cu₂O at different irradiation time were subtracted 455 from the one before FAc adsorption for clarity. The adsorption of FAc on Cu₂O 456 photocatalyst leads to the formation of new bands at 1550, 1360, 1395 and 2945 cm⁻¹ (red 457 spectrum on Fig. 5B). Similar bands are observed on pure SiO₂ (Fig. S 13) and are attributed 458 to weakly adsorbed FAc [43]. The formation of an intense band at 1721 cm⁻¹ parallel to the 459 decrease of Si-OH and/or Cu(OH) band at 3735 cm⁻¹ is associated with the C=O stretching 460 mode of molecularly adsorbed FAc (Fig. S 13-14A). When the lamp is turned on, bands of 461 weakly adsorbed FAc (1360-1395 and 1550 cm⁻¹) disappear, while new features appear at 462 1386 and 1610-1570 cm⁻¹ which can be assigned to the δ (CH) vibration of adsorbed 463 monodentate formate on copper [44]. These bands gradually increase during the induction 464 period without any production of CO_2 (Fig. 5C), indicating the rearrangement of adsorbed 465 466 formate on the photocatalyst surface. This is also confirmed by the increase in the carbonyl band intensity at 1721 and 1732 cm⁻¹ during the induction period (Fig. 5D). The absorption 467 at around 1732 cm⁻¹ indicates either formation of weaker hydrogen bond with the FAc or 468 that FAc is in a less polar environment (surrounded by less -OH groups) [45,46] probably 469 caused by *in-situ* restructuring of Cu^{2+} into $Cu^{+/0}$ with less OH groups. A further decrease in 470 the band intensity of monodentate formate is also observed after 3 h of irradiation 471 accompanied by the production of CO₂ (Fig. 5E-F), which confirms the decomposition of 472 monodentate formate into CO₂ and H₂. During this photocatalytic cycle, a growth in the 473 band at 1732 cm⁻¹ simultaneously to a decrease of the band located at 1721 cm⁻¹ is also 474 observed (Fig. 5G), indicating the conversion of C=O groups from hydrogen-bonded to non 475 or less-hydrogen-bonded carbonyl groups during the reaction. These results allow, by 476 analogy with Cu₂O, to propose a plausible reaction mechanism over Cu:Fe 1:2 governing 477 the restructuring and the dissociation of FAc on the copper active sites, as detailed in the 478 479 next section.

481 *In-situ* restructuring of the Cu active sites in Cu:Fe 1:2

The crystallinity and optical properties of Cu₂O after photodecomposition of formic acid 482 have been investigated by XRPD and DR-UV-Vis techniques (Fig. S 15). The results 483 confirm a change of the catalyst in respect to the as-prepared sample and reveals the 484 appearance of Cu characterized by diffraction peaks at 43.7, 50.7, and 74.3° and a Surface 485 Plasmonic Resonance (SPR) absorption band at 566 nm [47,48,49]. The above results 486 confirm that a part of the photoinduced electrons is not involved in the reaction during the 487 induction period, i.e. rearrangement of formate species without H₂/CO₂ production in the 488 first 3h, but is accumulated on the CB of photocatalyst to trigger the *in-situ* reduction and 489 490 the restructuring process of Cu₂O into binary Cu₂O/Cu composite. Once the binary system is 491 formed, the charge-carriers transport channel improves due to the enhanced charge separation and so the decomposition of formate species into CO₂ and H₂ occurs. This 492 hypothesis is confirmed by testing under similar reaction condition an additional Cu₂O/Cu 493 sample, which preparation is detailed in the experimental part. Higher activity (48% vs. 6%) 494 and much shorter induction period were observed for Cu₂O/Cu in respect to Cu₂O (Table S2 495 496 and Fig. S 16). This confirms that the induction period is related to the restructuring of Cu₂O into Cu₂O/Cu and that the binary system exhibits higher photocatalytic activity. However, 497 no direct evidence of the Cu formation was found in the case of Cu:Fe 1:2 after reaction 498 (Fig. S 17), which is probably due to the high dispersion with low particle size and the 499 relatively low amount of Cu active sites on this sample with respect to its total Cu content. 500

Additional XPS as well as the Cu $L_3M_{45}M_{45}$ Auger analyses of Cu:Fe 1:3 and 1:2 were performed in order to gain insight the environment of Cu and Fe in these photocatalytically inactive and active samples, respectively. The results reveal the absence of Cu⁺ in both samples (Figures 6A and S 18). However, two types of coordination environments of Cu²⁺

are detected: Cu^{2+} in octahedral (oct) sites (with Cu $2p_{3/2}$ and Cu $2p_{1/2}$ binding-energies at 505 933.5 and 953.5 eV, respectively) and a minor one for Cu^{2+} in tetrahedral (tet) coordination 506 with binding-energies of the Cu 2p doublet at 934.9 eV and 954.9 eV [50]. The 507 photoelectron peak contributions of both Cu²⁺ are colored in green and dark yellow while 508 their common satellites are colored in yellow in Fig. 6A. Cu²⁺tet is ascribed to copper 509 coordinated with four oxygens, linked to two neighboring FeO₆ octahedra via corners to 510 form [(Fe-O)_{2+x}-Cu(OH)_{2-x}] (with $0 \le x \le 2$)]. These species are more abundant in CuFe₂O₄ 511 (Cu_{tet}/Cu_{oct} = 0.64) compared with Cu:Fe 1:3 (Cu_{tet}/Cu_{oct} = 0.47, Table S3). Also, Fe³⁺and 512 Fe^{2+} oxidation states are detected by analyzing their Fe 2p spectra (Fig. 6A). The peak 513 contributions colored in yellow and green correspond to Fe 2p doublet and the satellites of 514 Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺, respectively [51]. The O 1s-spectrum can be fitted with three peak 515 contributions as the two low-energy peaks at 529.6 eV and 530.7 eV can be assigned to 516 517 bridging (Cu-O-Cu and Fe-O-Fe) and mixed bridging Cu-O-Fe bonds, respectively [52,53]. The third peak-contribution at 532.0 eV is usually attributed to oxygen in -O-H bonds, thus 518 519 confirming the interpretation given above for the presence of Cu-O-H bonding. The Cu²⁺(OH)₂, usually supported on different materials (TiO₂, ZnO/ZnS, Fe(OH)₃ and etc.), is 520 well known as an efficient co-catalyst for hydrogen production and easily reducible into 521 $Cu^{+/0}$ during the reaction [54,55,56]. 522

Therefore, the photoelectrochemical properties of the Cu:Fe 1:2 were studied and compared 523 to the non-active Cu:Fe 1:3 sample (Fig. 6(B-C)). For Cu:Fe 1:3, the cyclic voltammetry 524 response, investigated in 0.1 M sodium sulfate solution at the potential window of 1.02 V-525 0.0 V vs. RHE, demonstrates that the reduction/oxidation transitions of spinel are still well 526 distinguished either before or after 100 min of simulated solar irradiation. Moreover, an 527 obvious change in electrochemical behavior of Cu:Fe 1:2 after simulated solar irradiation is 528 observed. The intensity of the redox peaks associated with copper oxide decrease in 529 intensity compared to the as-prepared Cu:Fe 1:2 sample. On the other hand, the 530

electrochemical response of Cu:Fe 1:2 after irradiation shows higher anodic currents in the 531 range between 0.68 V and 1.02 V vs. RHE than both Cu:Fe 1:2 and Cu:Fe 1:3 before 532 irradiation and even than Cu:Fe 1:3 analyzed after induction period. This observation is 533 probably attributed to gradual oxidation of Cu(I) oxide to Cu(II) hydroxide [57,58]. This 534 confirms that, in contrast to Cu:Fe 1:3, the Cu⁺ species are formed in Cu:Fe 1:2 under 535 visible light irradiation by an electron transfer (oxidation of formate species and/or from the 536 photoexited spinel support). The transient photocurrent response tests under several on-off 537 cycles of solar irradiation reveal as well a higher photoresponse efficiency of Cu:Fe 1:2 with 538 539 regard to Cu:Fe 1:3 (Fig. 6C). It can be explained by the presence of higher amount of tetrahedral $-Cu^{2+}(OH)_{2-x}$ species in Cu:Fe 1:2 responsible for an efficient charge separation, 540 therefore elucidating the superior photocatalytic activity of this photocatalyst. It is worth 541 noting that no significant thermo-activity was observed in dark at 100°C over Cu:Fe 1:2 542 543 (Fig. S 19). This confirms that the reaction is mainly photocatalytic without excluding a plasmonic behavior due to the possible formation of Cu⁰. 544



545

Figure 6. (A) High resolution XPS spectra of Cu 2p, Fe 2p and O1s for (a) Cu:Fe 1:3 and (b) Cu:Fe 1:2. (B) Cyclic voltammetry response of (a) Cu:Fe 1:3 and (b) Cu:Fe 1:2 electrode before (solid line) and after 100 min under simulated solar light irradiation (dash curve) in 0.1 mol.dm⁻³ Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution. (C) Plots of photocurrent *vs*. time recorded for (a) Cu:Fe 1:3 and (b) Cu:Fe 1:2. Insert: zoom on the photoresponse of Cu:Fe 1:3.

552 Based on the obtained results and by analogy with the various photocatalysts tested in this 553 work, a plausible in-situ restructuring mechanism of the Cu:Fe 1:2 and the formation of ultra-dispersed photocatalytic active clusters during the induction period can be described as 554 follows (Scheme 1): i) charge transfer and formation of surface formate species on the 555 tetrahedral $Cu^{2+}(OH)_{2-x}$ active sites, ii) formation of Cu^{+} oxo species, promoted by a charge 556 transfer from the spinel and followed by condensation and clustering of Cu with neighbor 557 Cu⁺-OH to form Cu₂O like clusters, iii) formation of Cu⁺ hydrides by dissociation of FAc 558 accompanied by partial dissolution of surface copper, iv) subsequent CO₂ and H₂ production 559 on Cu⁺ oxo and v) reductive hydride elimination on Cu⁺ oxalate leading to the formation of 560 Cu^+/Cu^0 . 561





563 Scheme 1. Proposed mechanism of restructuring process of tetrahedral $Cu^{2+}(OH)_2$ active 564 sites on Cu:Fe 1:2 during the photoreforming of formic acid under visible light irradiation.

565 Z-scheme heterojunction and charge transfer mechanism

In order to explain the charge separation mechanism, the positions of the conduction band (CB) and valence band (VB) of spinel in both Cu:Fe 1:3 and 1:2 photocatalysts were computed using the atom's Mulliken electronegativity equations with respect to the (NHE) scale [59,60]:

- 570 $E_{VB} = X E_e + \frac{1}{2}E_q$ (7)
- 571 $E_{CB} = E_{VB} E_q$ (8)

572 Where E_{VB} is the VB potential, E_{CB} is the CB potential, E_e is the energy of free electrons on

- the hydrogen scale (ca. 4.5 eV), E_g is the band gap energy of spinel (1.90 for Cu:Fe 1:3 and
- 574 1.85 eV for Cu:Fe 1:2, Fig. S 4) and X is the absolute electronegativity of the copper iron
- spinel (5.86 eV [61,62]). On the basis of the above equations, the E_{VB} and E_{CB} of Cu:Fe 1:3
- were calculated with respect to NHE as + 2.31 V and + 0.41 V, whereas the potentials for
- 577 1:2 sample were estimated to + 2.28 V and + 0.43 V, respectively. Consequently, the

578 hydrogen reduction cannot take place on Cu:Fe 1:3 due to its unsuitable CB position (+ 0.41 V) compared to H^+/H_2 potential (-0.18 V vs. NHE at pH = 3; 0.0 V vs. RHE). Considering 579 that Cu:Fe 1:2 contains $-Cu^{2+}(OH)_2$ active species that are restructured into Cu⁺ and Cu⁰, an 580 efficient charge separation mechanism can be proposed by assuming that Cu⁺ of the Cu:Fe 581 1:2 is similar to Cu₂O (scheme 2): Under visible light (λ >390 nm), the excited electrons are 582 transferred from the VB of the spinel to its CB thereby oxidizing FAc mainly into CO₂ (with 583 a small amount of CO) and H^+ by combination with the photogenerated holes of spinel. 584 Simultaneously, the electrons accumulated on $Cu^{2+}(OH)_{2-x}$ are involved in the reduction and 585 *in situ* restructuring of Cu^{2+} (scheme 1) into trinary Cu^{+}/Cu^{0} /spinel Z-scheme heterojunction 586 (scheme 2), promoting then the proton reduction into H_2 . 587

588



589

Scheme 2. Schematic diagram showing the photoinduced charge-carriers transfer and the H₂
 production through the photodecomposition of formic acid under visible light over Cu:Fe
 1:3 and Cu:Fe 1:2.

593

594 **4.** Conclusion

595 The H₂ production via photoreforming of FAc is studied in vapor phase under continuous 596 flow over low-cost CuFe₂O₄-based photocatalyst under visible light (λ > 390 nm) and at 597 room temperature. The influence of Cu:Fe ratio on the photocatalytic activity was 598 investigated. We demonstrated that nor spinel with equal or lower Cu:Fe ratio than 1:3, neither those treated below 700°C are photocatalytically active under visible light 599 irradiation. By contrast, a synergetic activity is observed for CuFe₂O₄ (Cu:Fe 1:2) once 600 annealed at 800 °C. This photocatalyst exhibits the highest hydrogen production rate (~ 6.6 601 mmol.g⁻¹.h⁻¹), with an apparent quantum yield equal to 7.3%, together with a relatively good 602 dehydrogenation-selectivity (77 %) and ultra-high stability (> 20 h) compared to other 603 copper-based systems investigated in the literature. As confirmed by XPS, this excellent 604 photocatalytic behavior is attributed to the existence of highly dispersed tetrahedral-605 $Cu^{2+}(OH)_{2-x}$ sites on the spinel surface. Based on the presence of an induction period in the 606 first cycle of reaction and by analogy with other Cu₂O based photocatalyst and Cu based 607 oxides, an *in-situ* restructuring of tetrahedral Cu²⁺ into a trinary (Cu⁺/Cu⁰/spinel) with Z-608 scheme heterojunction is proposed, promoting the electron/holes charge separation and thus 609 the proton reduction into H₂. Although the selectivity of the reaction is lower than the one 610 reported in our previous work using Cu/MOFs based catalyst, the high activity observed for 611 the CuFe₂O₄ photocatalyst, its low cost and its simple synthesis procedure motivate 612 investigating new Cu-Fe based materials for various applications in photocatalysis under 613 visible light. 614

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616 Author Contributions

⁶¹⁷ †These authors contributed equally. The manuscript was prepared written through the⁶¹⁸ contributions of all authors. All authors have approved the final version of the manuscript.

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620 ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Authors acknowledge the Normandy region (H₂CO₂ project) for the financial support. JPB, AM and CM acknowledge the financial support of the French Agence Nationale de la Recherche LabEx EMC3 through the Project MaPhoOBi (Grant No. ANR-10-LABX-09-01), and the Normandy Region (RIN - Label d'Excellence). AP also thanks the financial support of the Normandy Region (AAP RIN RECHERCHE 2018: DIXOS 2018DRI00029). Authors acknowledge Jaafar El FALLAH for the SEM-EDX analysis and Oleg Lebedev for the TEM analysis.

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