

1 Plasma-enhanced catalytic activation of CO₂ in a modified 2 gliding arc reactor

3 Hao Zhang¹, Li Li¹, Ruiyang Xu¹, Jingying Huang¹, Ni Wang², Xiaodong Li^{1*}, Xin Tu^{2*}

4 ¹ State Key Laboratory of Clean Energy Utilization, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, 310027, China.

5 ² Department of Electrical Engineering and Electronics, University of Liverpool, Liverpool L69 3GJ, UK.

6 Corresponding authors

7 Prof. Xiaodong Li (lixd@zju.edu.cn), Prof. Xin Tu (xin.tu@liverpool.ac.uk)

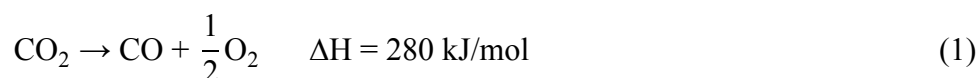
8 **Abstract:**

9 For the first time, this paper demonstrates a synergistic effect from the combination of a gliding arc discharge
10 plasma with a photocatalyst TiO₂ for CO₂ dissociation. The effects of adding a tray downstream the discharge
11 and the combination of catalyst with plasma have been investigated. Two different combination modes of plasma
12 catalysis, *i.e.*, in-plasma catalysis and post-plasma catalysis, have been evaluated with the emphasis on the
13 analysis of potential mechanisms. The results show that modifying the gliding arc reactor by the addition of a
14 tray can enhance the fraction of gas treated by plasma, thus improving the reaction performance. An exceptional
15 synergistic effect of combining the gliding arc discharge with TiO₂ for CO₂ activation forms in the in-plasma
16 catalysis mode. The presence of TiO₂ significantly enhances the CO₂ conversion by 138% and the energy
17 efficiency by 133% at a flow rate of 2 L/min. The plasma activation effect, which produces energetic electrons
18 that can create the electron-hole pairs on the catalyst surface, is believed to be the major contributor to the
19 generation of the plasma catalysis synergy. This mechanism has been further evidenced by the negligible
20 influence of the post-plasma catalysis on the reaction performance.

21 **Keywords:** CO₂ activation; Plasma catalysis; TiO₂; Synergistic effect

1. Introduction

Accumulating evidence has demonstrated that the increasing greenhouse gases emission caused by human activities is leading to global climate change [1]. As a major greenhouse gas, CO₂ contributes 85% to the overall global warming [2]. The levels of CO₂ in the atmosphere have dramatically increased from 280 ppm in the pre-industrial era to a historical high of 408 ppm (July 2018 [3]). Undoubtedly, there is an unprecedented need to develop low carbon technologies to mitigate and valorize CO₂. Carbon capture and utilization (CCU) is one of the most attractive strategies as it can convert CO₂ into value-added fuels and chemicals [4-6]. In this regard, several chemical processes have been extensively studied, such as dry reforming and hydrogenation of CO₂, producing value-added syngas or oxygenates [6, 7]. CO₂ splitting to CO is of particular interest (Eq. (1)) as well [6, 8-11] as CO is a commonly used feedstock for the synthesis of platform chemicals (e.g., organic acids, aldehydes and alcohols) and synthetic fuels [12]. However, due to the inherent kinetic inertness of CO₂, its activation remains a big challenge. Thermal CO₂ dissociation is energetically favourable only at high temperatures. For instance, only up to 1.5% of CO₂ conversion can be achieved at a temperature of 2000 K, yielding an energy efficiency of 4.4% [6].



Recently, non-thermal plasma technology has attracted significant interest in CO₂ dissociation since it can activate CO₂ at atmospheric pressure and low temperatures with reduced energy consumption [6, 13, 14]. The electrons in non-thermal plasma have average electron energy of 1-10 eV, which is high enough to activate CO₂ molecules, producing a cascade of radicals, excited molecules/atoms, and ions etc. These species are highly reactive and play a key role in plasma chemical

1 reactions [15-18]. However, because of the non-equilibrium character of non-thermal plasma, the gas
2 kinetic temperature can remain fairly low (*e.g.*, 200-800 °C), thus saving energy [19, 20]. Moreover,
3 due to the merits of high specific productivity and instant on/off, non-thermal plasma system is a
4 promising technology to utilize excess intermittent renewable energy, such as wind and solar power,
5 for energy storage [11].

6 Various non-thermal plasma sources have been studied for the dissociation of CO₂, including
7 dielectric barrier discharge (DBD) [9-11, 13, 21-27], microwave (MW) discharge [4, 7, 28, 29], corona
8 discharge [30, 31] and gliding arc discharge [5, 32-35]. In non-thermal plasmas, the electron-impact
9 dissociation of CO₂ can proceed only with an electron energy of > 7 eV to activate CO₂ molecule to a
10 dissociative electronic state. However, the amount of energy spent is significantly higher than the
11 theoretical energy needed for C=O bond breaking (5.5 eV), thus resulting in energy waste. Vibrational
12 excitation of CO₂ is considered as the most effective means for CO₂ activation because it requires the
13 least amount of energy [15, 28, 35]. The non-adiabatic transition $\sigma^1\Sigma^+ \rightarrow {}^3B_2$ pens the most effective
14 dissociation pathway of CO₂ with an energy requirement of only 5.5 eV [28]. In DBD and corona
15 discharge, the electron-impact excitation predominates in the dissociation of CO₂, leading to fairly low
16 energy efficiency (typically <15%) [6, 27, 30]. MW discharge allows for a high level of CO₂ vibrational
17 excitation and thus show a relatively high energy efficiency (up to 40% [28]). However, this is
18 achievable only at low pressure (*e.g.*, 50 torrs) [36], which is unfavourable for industrial applications.
19 Note that the energy efficiency reported in these works typically only considers the power deposit in
20 the MW plasma but does not consider the extra power consumed of the vacuum systems [36].

21 Atmospheric pressure gliding arc plasma is becoming increasingly attractive for CO₂ activation

as the high level of CO₂ vibrational excitation in this process enables more effective activation of CO₂ [6, 35]. A moderate electron temperature of gliding arc, *i.e.*, 1-2 eV, is ideal for full exploitation of the vibrational excitation of CO₂ [5, 17, 36, 37]. Moreover, the electron density of gliding arc discharges is remarkably higher compared with other non-thermal plasmas (*e.g.*, corona discharge and DBD), which is favourable for industrial applications due to its flexibility to operate at variable conditions [15, 38]. A traditional gliding arc reactor consists of two or more diverging electrodes (for the generation of arc) and a gas nozzle (for injecting the carrier gas) [38]. After initiation at the shortest electrode gap, the arc is pushed by the gas stream toward the diverging downstream section, until it extinguishes. A new period then starts with the formation of a new arc at the shortest gap. However, the 2D geometry of the gliding arc limits gas conversion as only a small part of the reactant can pass through the plasma zone (*e.g.*, about 20% depending on the geometry [5, 6]). In addition, a high flow rate is required to sustain the arc, which limits the residence time inside the plasma. However, limited works have been done to optimize the gas flow field in the gliding arc reactor, which is necessary to enhance the plasma gas conversion.

In recent years, particular attention has been paid to plasma catalysis, *i.e.*, the integration of plasma with catalysts for environmental clean-up, fuel reforming and chemical synthesis [39, 40]. The combination of plasma and catalyst provides significant potential to produce a synergy effect to increase the reaction rate by reducing the activation barrier of the plasma chemical reactions, consequently increasing the conversion of reactant and selectivity of desired products significantly, and decreasing the energy consumption of the processes [14, 40]. To date, a few works have investigated plasma-catalytic CO₂ dissociation in non-thermal plasmas, including DBD [14, 23] and MW plasmas [4, 7, 29, 41]. For instance, Mei and Tu reported that the combination of Ni/ γ -Al₂O₃ with

a DBD improved both the conversion of CO₂ and the energy efficiency in comparison to the γ -Al₂O₃ support, from 24.7% to 26.3% and 3.9% to 4.1% [23]. However, performance is still not competitive.

To the best of our knowledge, the integration of catalysis with plasma for CO₂ activation using gliding arc discharges has not been reported. In this work, the plasma catalytic dissociation of CO₂ over a photocatalyst (TiO₂) has been investigated for the first time in a modified gliding arc discharge [4, 14]. In addition, a round tray (with different diameters) was placed downstream of the GAD with the dual objectives of optimizing the gas flow field and serving as the catalyst container. The influence of the tray size and the positions of catalysts on the reaction performance have been studied in terms of the CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency. Particular efforts have been devoted to investigating different plasma catalysis modes, *i.e.*, in-plasma catalysis (IPC) and post-plasma catalysis (PPC). In addition, the possible mechanism of plasma catalysis in CO₂ activation has been discussed.

2. Methods

Experimental setup. The reactant gas CO₂ was injected into the homemade gliding arc discharge reactor by a mass flow controller. A high-voltage DC power supply (10 kV, TLP2040, Teslaman) was used to power the plasma, and a resistor of 40 k Ω was used in the circuit to limit and stabilize the discharge current. An on-line gas analyzer (Mamos, Madur electronics) equipped with a CO₂ IR sensor, a CO IR sensor and an O₂ electrochemical sensor was employed to measure the on-line concentrations of CO₂, CO and O₂ before and after the plasma reaction.

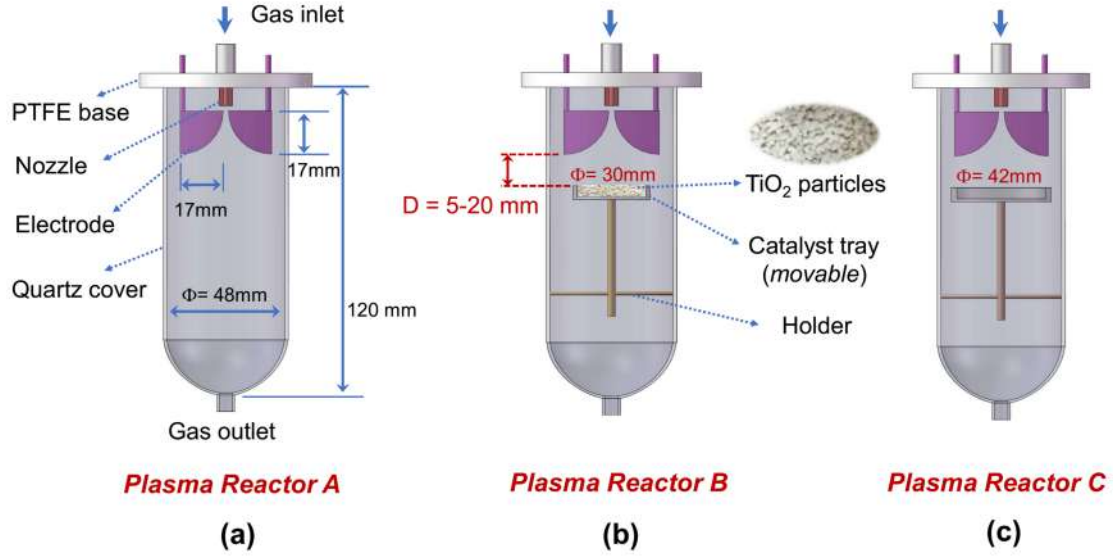


Fig. 1 Configurations of the gliding arc reactors.

Fig. 1 shows the configurations of the reactors used in this work. Each reactor consists of two divergent knife-shaped electrodes (stainless steel, 17 mm in both length and width) with a gas nozzle (with an inner diameter of 1.5 mm) placed upstream. When the applied voltage on the electrodes is high enough for breakdown, the arc forms initially at the shortest gap point (2 mm). The formed arc then glides downstream along the electrodes with increasing length under the force of gas flow until it extinguishes. In *Reactor B* and *Reactor C*, a round tray with a diameter (Φ) of 30 mm and 42 mm, respectively, is placed downstream of the discharge to modify the gas flow field and improve the fraction of gas treated by plasma, and further serve as a catalyst bed. *Reactor B* with the tray of $\Phi = 30$ mm was further investigated in the plasma catalytic conversion of CO_2 , with TiO_2 particles as the catalyst. The position of the tray is vertically movable, and the vertical distance between the electrode tip and the tray (D) can be adjusted in the range of 5 to 20 mm. The discharge powers of the gliding arc under the studied conditions are: *Reactor A*: $360 \pm 5 \text{ W}$; *Reactor B* ($D = 10\text{-}15$ mm, with/without catalyst): $360 \pm 10 \text{ W}$; *Reactor B* ($D = 5$ mm, without catalyst): $402 \pm 35 \text{ W}$; *Reactor B* ($D = 5$ mm, with

1 catalyst): 365 ± 11 W; *Reactor B* ($D = 20$ mm, without catalyst): 360 ± 15 W; *Reactor B* ($D = 20$ mm,
2 with catalyst): 343 ± 10 W; *Reactor C* ($D = 10$ mm, without catalyst): 395 ± 35 W.

3 **Catalyst material.** Commercial photocatalyst TiO_2 (rutile phase) with diameters of 3-5 mm was used
4 as the catalyst. For each plasma catalysis experiment, 3 grams of TiO_2 particles were placed inside the
5 catalyst tray in *Reactor B*, forming a catalyst layer (about 5 mm for each experiment) downstream the
6 discharge. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the TiO_2 were detected by an XRD-7000 diffractometer
7 (Shimadzu) using radiation in the 2θ range between 10° and 80° at a scanning rate of $4^\circ/\text{min}$. The
8 atomic state at the surface of the catalyst was analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) with Al
9 $\text{K}\alpha$ X-rays (1486.6 eV) on an ESCALAB 250Xi system (Thermo Scientific). The spectra were
10 referenced to C1s peak at 284.5 eV.

11 **Definition of parameters.** The CO_2 conversion (X) was defined as follows.

$$12 \quad X(\text{CO}_2) (\%) = \frac{Q_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ inlet})} (\text{mol/min}) - Q'_{(\text{total outlet})} (\text{mol/min}) \times C_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ outlet})} (\%)}{Q_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ inlet})} (\text{mol/min})} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

13 , where $Q_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ inlet})}$ and $Q'_{(\text{total outlet})}$ is the inlet CO_2 flow rate and outlet total flow rate, respectively,
14 $C_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ outlet})}$ is the CO_2 concentration in the outlet effluent gas.

15 In the CO_2 splitting reaction, two CO_2 molecules are dissociated into three molecules (see Eq.
16 (1)), which increases the volume by 50%. That means the total outlet flow rate should be higher than
17 the inlet flow rate (gas expansion effect) [5, 22], which is directly associated with the accuracy of the
18 calculated CO_2 conversion. However, the gas expansion effect is often neglected by most of the authors,
19 overestimating the CO_2 conversion and energy efficiency (*e.g.*, be overestimated by a factor of 1.5 in
20 case of 100% conversion). In this work, the gas expansion effect has been considered. Our experiments

showed that the selectivity of CO remains at > 99% and the total concentration of CO₂, CO and O₂ in the effluent gas is 100±1% in the experiments, showing that the CO₂ splitting to CO and O₂ (Eq. (1)) was dominant in this process. Therefore, the $Q'_{(\text{total outlet})}$ can be obtained according to the carbon balance before and after the reaction, based on the following equation.

$$Q'_{(\text{total outlet})} (\text{mol/min}) = \frac{Q_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ inlet})} (\text{mol/min})}{C_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ outlet})} (\%) + C_{(\text{CO outlet})} (\%)} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

, where $C_{(\text{CO outlet})}$ is the CO concentration in the outlet effluent gas.

The energy efficiency (η) was defined as follows by comparing the energy consumption of the plasma process to the standard reaction enthalpy (ΔH):

$$\eta(\%) = \frac{Q_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ inlet})} (\text{mol/min}) \times X(\text{CO}_2) (\%) \times \Delta H(\text{kJ/mol})}{\text{Discharge power (W)} \times 60/1000} \quad (4)$$

, where $\Delta H = 280$ kJ/mol for the CO₂ dissociation process. The discharge power was determined by the product of the arc voltage and arc current.

In this work, each experiment was repeated three times, and the mean values with error bars were given in the figures.

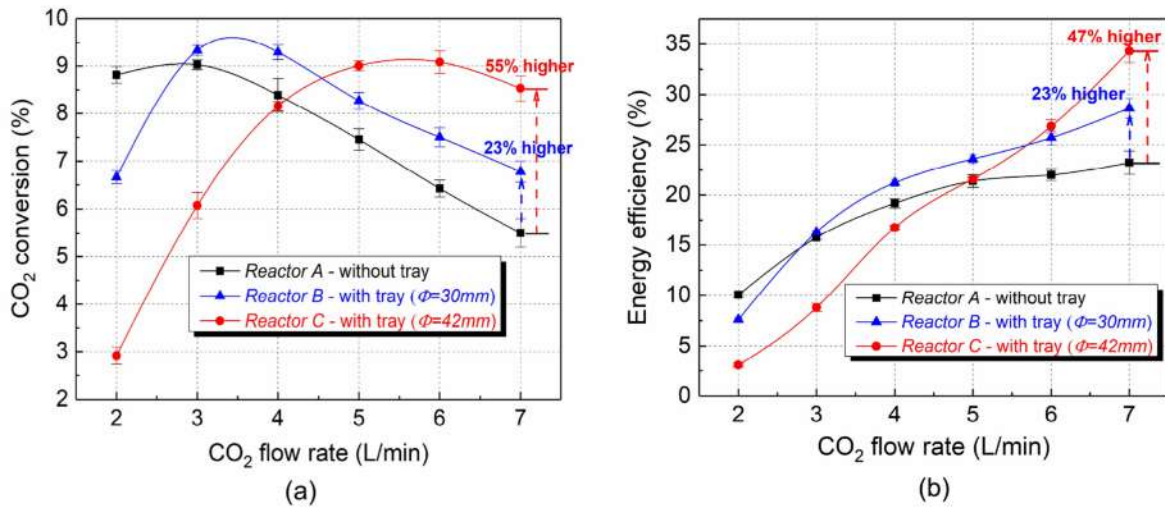
3. Results

3.1 Effect of the addition of tray in the reactor

To investigate the effect of tray addition (with different diameters) on the reaction performance, three

1 types of gliding arc reactors were used in this work, *i.e.*, *Reactor A* without tray, *Reactor B* with tray
 2 of 30 mm in diameter (Φ) and *Reactor C* with tray of $\Phi = 42$ mm (see Fig. 1). The results are illustrated
 3 in Fig. 2, upon rising CO₂ feed flow rate. Clearly, for each case, the CO₂ conversion first increases to
 4 a maximum value and then drops remarkably with increasing flow rate. It should be noted that most
 5 of the previous studies in DBD [11, 13, 21] and gliding arc plasmatron [5] showed a monotonous
 6 decrease in CO₂ conversion when the CO₂ flow rate increased, resulting from the decreased retention
 7 time of CO₂ in plasma and the reduced specific energy input (SEI). In the gliding arc discharge, the
 8 gas temperature is relatively high (*e.g.*, up to 2000K, depending on the radial distance [10]), which can
 9 enhance the recombination reaction of CO and O (with rate constant of up to 8.0×10^{-34} cm⁶/molecule²·s
 10 [42]), thus inhibiting the conversion of CO₂ [12]. The enhancement of CO₂ conversion with the initial
 11 increase of CO₂ flow rate might result from the weakening of the recombination of CO and O with
 12 decreased gas temperature, as partly demonstrated by the temperature measurement in Supplementary
 13 Table S1. For example, the gas temperature of *Reactor B* in the tail of the discharge (at the tray)
 14 ~~decreased~~ from 720 to 440 °C yielding a CO + O recombination rate constant of from 3.7×10^{-34} to
 15 2.0×10^{-34} cm⁶/molecule²·s [42]. Note that the reaction rate in the central arc discharge area should be
 16 even higher due to the significantly higher gas temperature. After reaching the maximum value, the
 17 further drop of CO₂ conversion with a rising flow rate could be related to the decrease in both the
 18 retention time of CO₂ and the SEI. For instance, for *Reactor A*, the retention time of CO₂ and the SEI
 19 dropped from 127.5 to 36.4 ms and 10.9 to 3.0 kJ/L, respectively, when the flow rate increased from 2
 20 to 7 L/min. Note that the retention time of CO₂ (the volume of plasma divided by volumetric gas flow
 21 rate) is only a roughly calculated value, and the plasma volume is assumed to be around 4.25 cm³ based
 22 on the photographs of the discharge in the experiments. In agreement with other studies [23, 30],

1 increasing CO₂ flow rate significantly enhances the energy efficiency.



2
3 **Fig. 2** a) CO₂ conversion and b) energy efficiency as a function of CO₂ flow rate in the three types of
4 reactors with or without tray ($D = 10\text{ mm}$).

5
6 Fig. 2 indicates that the addition of tray downstream the plasma can significantly influence the
7 CO₂ dissociation performance in the gliding arc reactor. *Reactor B* with a small tray of $\Phi = 30\text{ mm}$
8 and *Reactor C* with a big tray of $\Phi = 42\text{ mm}$ can both improve the CO₂ conversion and energy
9 efficiency pronouncedly, majorly at a relatively high flow rate of $> 4\text{ L/min}$. The big tray exhibits a
10 significantly higher CO₂ conversion in comparison to the small tray when the flow rate is over 5 L/min .
11 For instance, at a flow rate of 7 L/min , the CO₂ conversion is enhanced by 23% and 55%, respectively,
12 and the energy efficiency is improved by up to 23% and 47%, respectively, in *Reactor B* and *C*. Another
13 phenomenon that needs to be noted is that a relatively low flow rate in *Reactor B* and *C* (especially
14 *Reactor C*) gives a lower CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency in comparison to the *Reactor A* without
15 tray. In addition, the flow rate value for the maximum CO₂ conversion in Fig. 2a is shifted backward

from 3 L/min to 3.5 L/min and 5.5 L/min, respectively, in *Reactor B* and *C*. This phenomenon is probably associated with the increased gas temperature of the plasma area (especially at relatively low flow rates, see Supplementary Table S1) because of the reduced heat loss under the sealing effect of the tray. As mentioned above, a higher gas temperature in the gliding arc is probably detrimental to the CO₂ conversion. Note that further plasma modelling study is still needed to confirm this hypothesis.

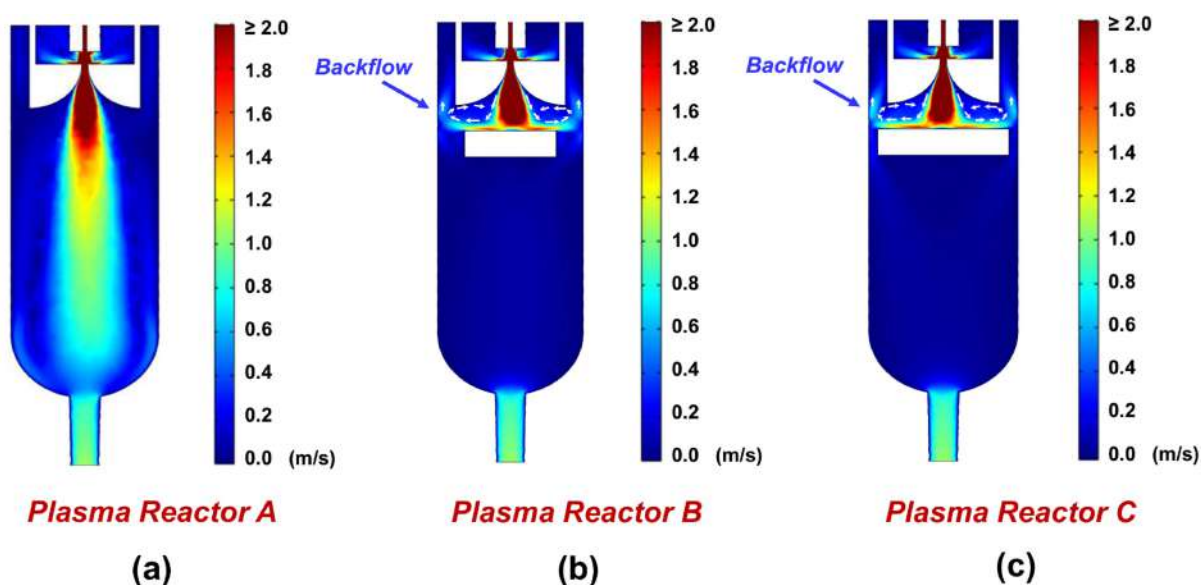


Fig. 3 Simulated contours of gas velocity magnitude on the cross-section of each reactor ($Q_{(\text{CO}_2 \text{ inlet})} = 4 \text{ L/min}$, $D = 10\text{mm}$).

To get insights into the effect of the tray on the gas flow field, the gas flow field and gas velocity in the gliding arc reactor has been simulated using COMSOL Multiphysics software (three-dimensional laminar flow module) [43]. The contours of gas velocity magnitude on the cross-section of each reactor are presented in Fig. 3 (CO₂ flow rate = 4 L/min). As clearly seen from Figs. 3b and 3c, the addition of tray downstream the discharge gives rise to the formation of strong backflow above the top of the tray. Unreacted gas can thus partly flow back to the plasma area for further treatment, consequently enhancing the fraction of gas treated by plasma. This factor should be associated with

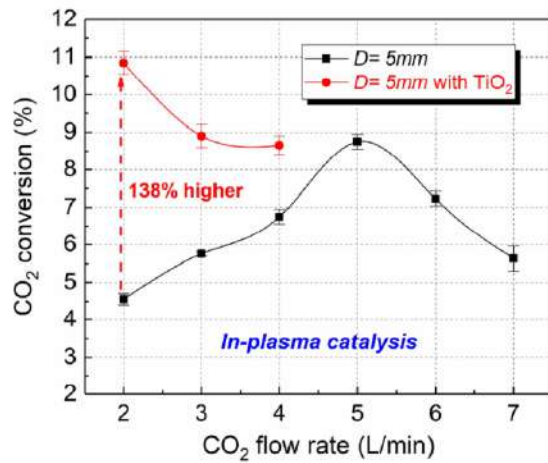
the facilitating effect of the tray on the CO₂ conversion reaction. Moreover, the direct contact of the plasma jet with the surface of the tray in *Reactor B* or *C* enables a horizontal extension of the plasma area (refer to Figs.4c₁, 4c₂ and Supplementary Fig. S1). In this way, more gas molecules can pass through the plasma area, and the gas treatment by plasma can be improved from another aspect. A larger tray enables a higher fraction of gas treated by plasma, explaining why it shows a better performance than the small tray at a high flow rate.

To conclude, the addition of tray downstream the discharge decreases the reaction performance at low flow rates (*i.e.*, 2 L/min for *Reactor B* and 2-4 L/min for *Reactor C*) because of the increased gas temperature, whereas remarkably enhances both the CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency at relatively high flow rates (*i.e.*, ≥ 3 L/min for *Reactor B* and ≥ 5 L/min for *Reactor C*), resulting from the improved gas treatment by plasma. The “best results” appear to be obtained in *Reactor C*, with a CO₂ flow rate of 7 L/min, yielding a CO₂ conversion of 8.5% and energy efficiency of 34.3%. Interestingly, the energy efficiency in this modified gliding arc reactor is significantly higher compared with that in typical DBD and corona discharges (<10%) [6]. Note that similar results can be obtained as well in a three-dimensional gliding arc plasmatron reactor with reverse vortex flow configuration [5, 33]. The modified reactor by adding a tray and the plasmatron with vortex flow can both improve the fraction of gas passing through the arc and thus show better performance than a classical gliding arc. Whereas, *Reactor C* cannot provide excellent performance in a wide range of flow rates and the relatively high gas temperature in the plasma area is also unfavourable from the operation point of view. Therefore, *Reactor B* was further used to investigate the effect of combining plasma with the commonly used photocatalyst TiO₂ on the CO₂ dissociation reaction.

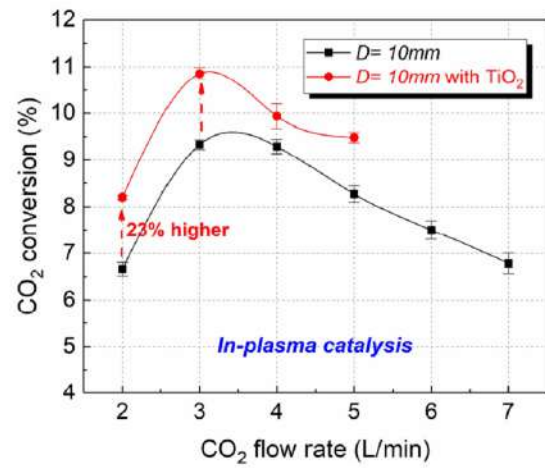
3.2 Effect of in-plasma catalysis

TiO₂ has been proved to have synergistic effect with non-thermal plasma in various applications, such as NO_x reduction [44], VOCs degradation (*e.g.*, toluene, benzene and naphthalene) [45], organic wastewater treatment [46], or even *p*-nitrophenol contaminated soil remediation [47], but not yet applied in gliding arc for CO₂ activation. In the experiments, by adjusting the position of the catalyst bed, the vertical distance between the electrode tip and the catalyst surface (D) varied in the range of 5, 10, 15, 20 mm, yielding two combination modes of plasma and catalysis, *i.e.*, in-plasma catalysis ($D = 5, 10$ mm) and post-plasma catalysis ($D = 15, 20$ mm). The results for the in-plasma catalysis mode with different positions of the catalyst beds are illustrated in Fig. 4. The photos were taken by a digital single-lens reflex camera with an exposure time of 1/100s and aperture of F10.

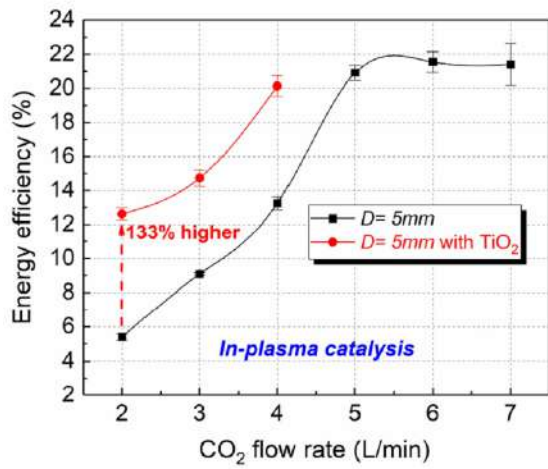
As shown in Figs. 4c₁ and 4c₂, in this mode the gliding arc plasma jet can be in direct contact with the catalyst surface, yielding an interaction between plasma and catalyst. Results with the presence of catalysts at relatively high flow rates (≥ 5 L/min for $D = 5$ mm and ≥ 6 L/min for $D = 10$ mm) were not plotted, because during experiments the catalyst particles were readily blown out of the catalyst bed due to the high-speed gas flow. It is observed that the combination of TiO₂ catalysts with the discharge drastically improves both the conversion of CO₂ and energy efficiency of the process.



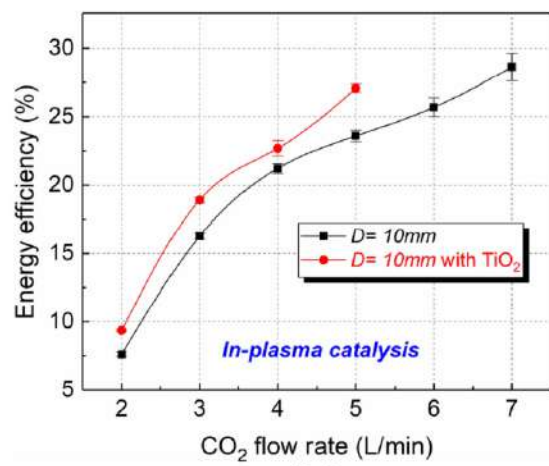
(a₁)



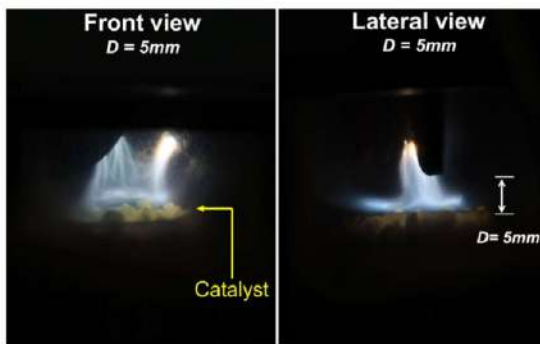
(a₂)



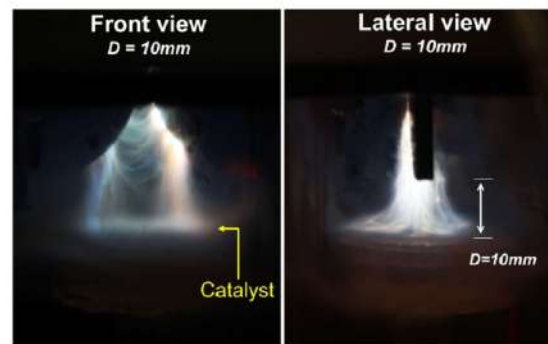
(b₁)



(b₂)



(c₁)



(c₂)

Fig. 4. Effect of in-plasma catalysis on the CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency with different positions of the catalyst bed (a₁, b₁, c₁ for $D = 5$ mm, a₂, b₂, c₂ for $D = 10$ mm; Reactor B).

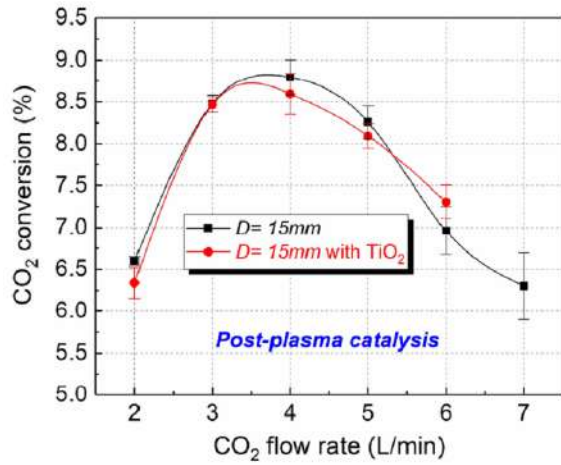
Specifically, a shorter distance between the electrodes and catalysts at relatively low flow rates

exhibits exceptional performance. For instance, in the reactor with $D = 5$ mm at a flow rate of 2 L/min (Figs. 4a₁ and 4b₁), the integration of TiO₂ catalysts with plasma dramatically enhances the CO₂ conversion by 138% (from 4.6% to 10.8%) and the energy efficiency by 133% (from 5.4% to 12.6%). Rising flow rate from 2 to 4 L/min leads to a drop of the CO₂ conversion from 10.8% to 8.7% in this case, probably resulting from the reduced retention time of the reactive CO₂ plasma on the catalyst surface. Interestingly, although the reactor with $D = 5$ mm at a flow rate of 2 L/min shows the highest gas temperature (see Supplementary Table S2), it yields the best results when the catalyst is present, indicating that the negative effect of higher temperature, in this case, is more than compensated by the positive effect of plasma activation of the catalyst.

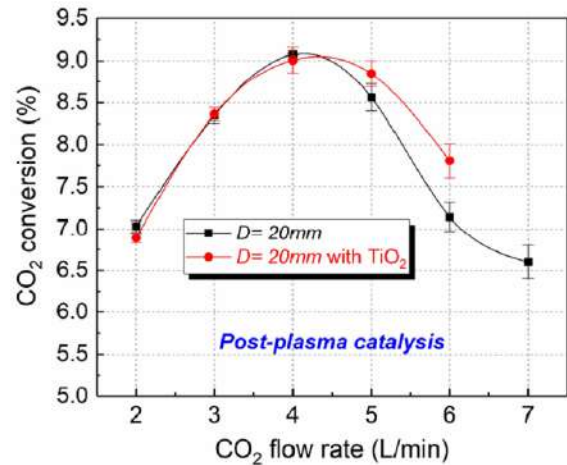
For the reactor with $D = 10$ mm in Figs. 4a₂ and 4b₂, the reaction performance also shows notable enhancement with the addition of TiO₂ catalyst, but less pronouncedly in comparison to the reactor with $D = 5$ mm. The CO₂ conversion shows an increase of 23% at a flow rate of 2 L/min in comparison to the single plasma process and reaches the maximum value of 10.9% at a flow rate of 3 L/min. Upon rising flow rate, both the conversion of CO₂ and energy efficiency, in this case, have similar variation profiles with that in the absence of a catalyst. These results suggest the formation of a significant synergistic effect in the conversion of CO₂ when combining gliding arc plasma with TiO₂ photocatalysts.

3.3 Effect of post-plasma catalysis

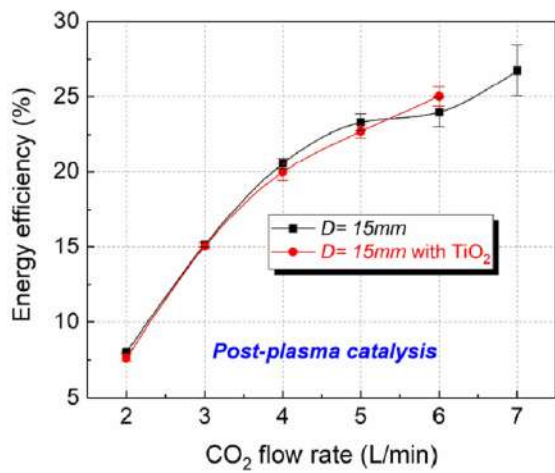
Fig. 5 exhibits the effect of the post-plasma catalysis (two-stage plasma catalysis) with $D = 15$ and 20 mm on the conversion of CO₂. In this mode, no direct contact between the plasma jet and the catalyst surface occurs (see Figs. 4c₁ and 4c₂).



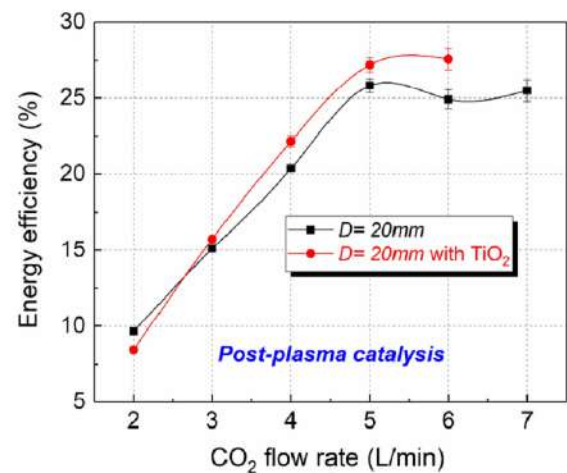
(a₁)



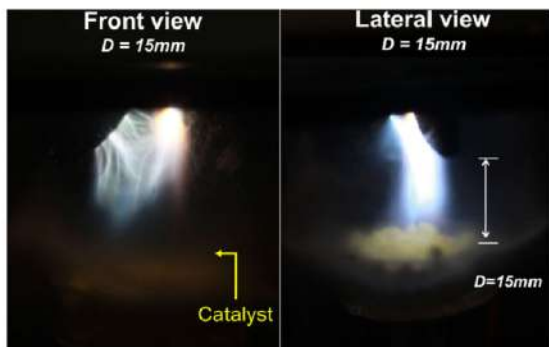
(a₂)



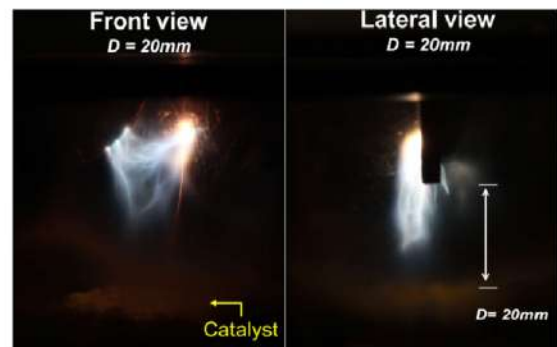
(b₁)



(b₂)



(c₁)



(c₂)

Fig. 5 Effect of post-plasma catalysis on the CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency with different positions of the catalyst bed (a₁, b₁, c₁ for $D = 15$ mm, a₂, b₂, c₂ for $D = 20$ mm; Reactor B).

In comparison to the in-plasma catalysis mode, the post-plasma catalysis exhibits a negligible

effect on the CO₂ conversion reaction, as seen from the various profiles of the CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency in Fig. 5. In a post-plasma catalysis configuration, only long-life species produced in plasma that can touch the catalyst surface could affect the catalyst activity [48, 49]. This is probably the reason why a slight improvement of the CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency can be observed with relatively high flow rate (6 L/min for $D = 15$ mm and ≥ 5 L/min for $D = 20$ mm).

The above results allow us to conclude that the synergy of gliding arc plasma with TiO₂ for CO₂ activation can form only in the in-plasma catalysis mode.

It is also interesting to note that varying the position of the tray (without catalyst) from $D = 10$ mm to 20 mm has no remarkable influence on the reaction performance, as indicated from the comparison among Figs. 4a₂, 4b₂ and Figs. 5a₁, 5b₁, 5a₂, 5b₂. Whereas, the reactor with $D = 5$ mm exhibits a relatively lower CO₂ conversion and energy efficiency (see Figs. 4a₁, 4b₁), probably resulting from the higher gas temperature in the plasma area (see Supplementary Table S2) that may induce the reverse reaction of CO₂ dissociation. Further study of plasma modelling will be carried out to confirm this hypothesis.

4. Discussion

Based on the measurement results by using a thermal infrared imager, the temperature of the catalyst surface in the discharge is in the range of 219 to 650 °C under the studied conditions. To elucidate whether the heating effect of gliding arc plasma plays a role in activating the catalyst, blank experiments in the absence of plasma were performed by heating the reactor gradually from 100 to 1000 °C (higher than the catalyst surface temperature in the presence of plasma), and no conversion of

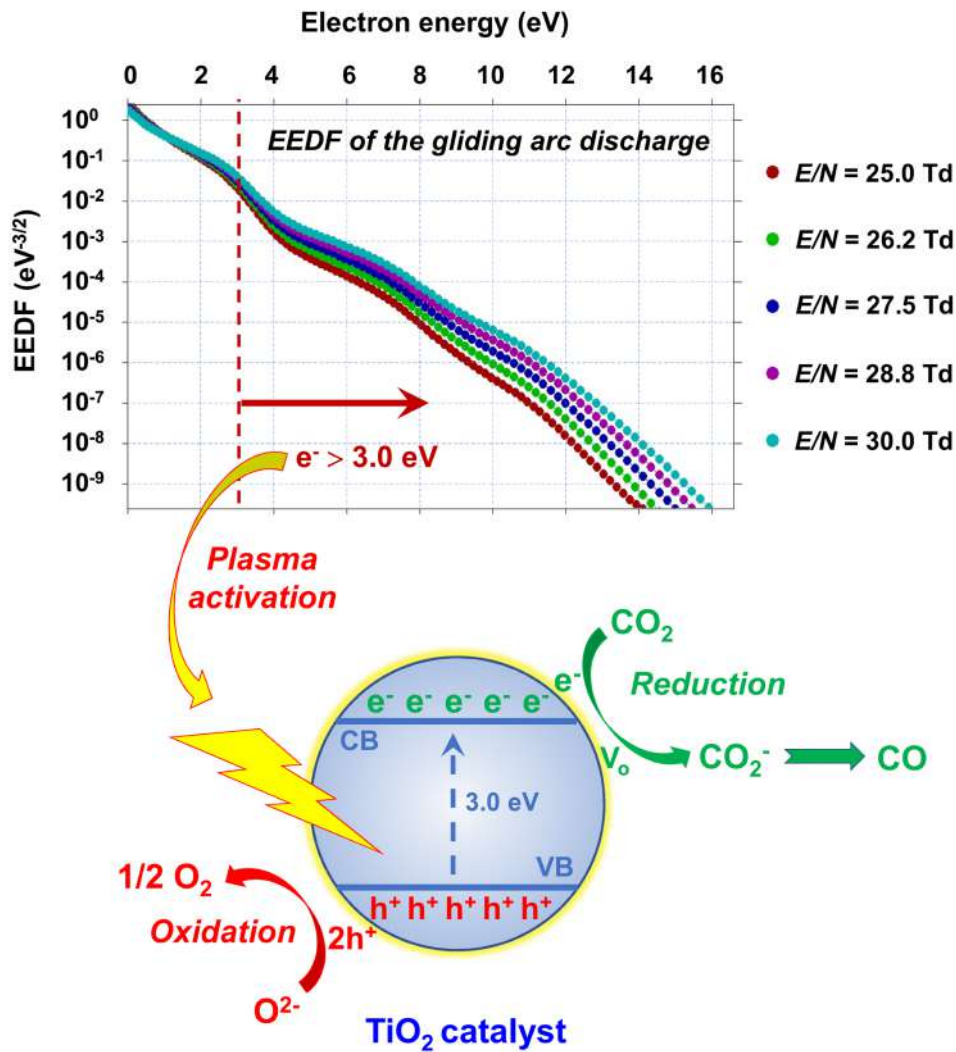
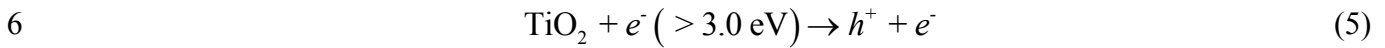
CO₂ was observed, indicating that the activation of TiO₂ catalysts in the gliding arc plasma is not related to the thermocatalytic mechanisms.

It is well known that as a photocatalyst TiO₂ can be activated when absorbing photon energy ($h\nu$) that is greater than or equal to the band gap energy (3.0 eV for rutile phase and 3.2 eV for anatase phase) between the valence band (VB) and the conductive band (CB) to form the electron-hole pairs ($e^- - h^+$) [14, 50]. Although it is a fact that non-thermal CO₂ plasma can generate UV radiation [14, 18], its photon flux is too low to make any significant contribution to the activation of TiO₂ catalysts, as widely reported and demonstrated in various works [14, 41, 48]. For instance, in an atmospheric air-surface discharge by Sano *et al.*, the total UV intensity was only 2.5 $\mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$ when the input power was 5W, generating relatively weak photocatalysis effect with a contribution of less than 0.2% against the acetaldehyde decomposition by the plasma itself [51].

In a DBD plasma, Mei *et al.* confirmed the significance of the physical effect, *i.e.*, enhancement of the electric field that was induced by packing TiO₂ pellets into the discharge gap, activating the photocatalytic reactions for CO₂ dissociation [14]. Whereas, in this work, the physical effect of adding TiO₂ particles into the catalyst tray is thought to be negligible as the catalyst tray was placed downstream the discharge gap. In addition, the flow field inside the reactor is hardly affected by the addition of TiO₂ particles since quartz pellets with similar size were placed in the tray for the comparative experiments without catalysts. It is also interesting to note that stone and glass bead with similar size with that of the TiO₂ were also used to perform comparative experiments, and no perceptible improvement of the CO₂ conversion performance was observed.

We can conclude that the gliding arc plasma-activated photocatalytic reaction is considered as the

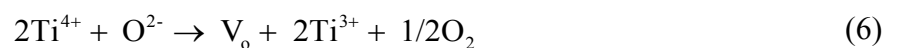
1 dominant contributor to the synergistic effect of plasma and catalysis for CO₂ activation. As proposed
 2 by Whitehead et al. [49, 52], in a plasma catalysis system, the electrons existing in discharge with an
 3 electron energy of > 3.0 eV can create $e^- - h^+$ pairs on the rutile TiO₂ surface (Eq. (5)), like the effect
 4 of UV excitation. The production of $e^- - h^+$ pairs, which facilitates the further redox reaction, is
 5 considered as the initial and critical step of photocatalytic reactions.



7
 8 **Fig. 6** EEDF of the gliding arc discharge and the possible reaction mechanisms of the plasma
 9 photocatalytic CO₂ dissociation process.

To get insight into the energy level of the electrons generated by the CO₂ gliding arc plasma, the electron energy distribution function (EEDF) was calculated by solving the Boltzmann equation using a commonly used solver, *i.e.*, BOLSIG+ [10, 19, 53]. The cross-section data needed for various collisional processes in CO₂ were derived from Ref. [54]. Based on the electrical signals obtained by the oscilloscope, the reduced electric field (E/N , E is the electric field intensity, and N is the total gas-particle number density) under the studied conditions is in the range of 25-30 Td. The results for the EEDF are plotted in Fig. 6 (upper figure), yielding estimated mean electron energy of 1.0-1.2 eV, which is inconsistent with previous works [19, 55]. Although the mean electron energy is relatively low, the high-energy tail of the EEDF suggests the existence of energetic electrons in the CO₂ gliding arc plasma at energies exceeding the activation threshold (3.0 eV). In addition, gliding arc plasma has a relatively high electron density (*e.g.*, 10^{13} - 10^{14} cm⁻³) [19, 55], providing significant numbers of energetic electrons for the activation of e^- - h^+ pairs on the TiO₂ surface.

However, the e^- - h^+ pairs are ready to be recombined with the fast rate ($\sim 10^{-9}$ s), limiting the efficiency of CO₂ conversion [56, 57]. In this regard, the defect disorders in photocatalyst, like oxygen vacancy (V_o), can contribute significantly to the CO₂ reduction processes by providing active sites for the adsorption and thus activation of CO₂ [7, 14, 41, 58]. To understand the surface structure of the TiO₂, XPS measurement was performed, and the deconvolution spectra of Ti 2p are plotted in Fig. 7. The XPS spectra suggest the existence of both the formal valence Ti⁴⁺ and Ti³⁺ states on the catalyst surface. The appearance of the Ti³⁺ state indicates the generation of V_o on the TiO₂ surface due to the reaction Eq. (6) [59].



, where O^{2-} is the lattice oxygen.

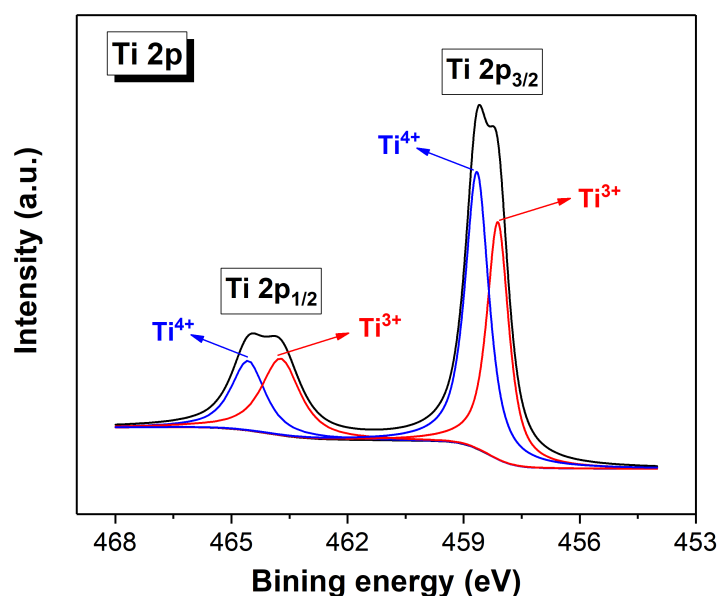
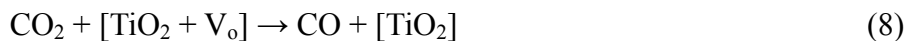


Fig. 7 XPS spectra of Ti 2p peaks of TiO₂.

It has been widely reported and investigated that, the presence of V_o on the rutile (110) facet (the dominant facet of rutile TiO₂, see the XRD patterns in Supplementary Fig. S2) can significantly induce the formation of new stable adsorption structures with an enhanced activation of the C–O bonds [56, 60-62]. Reasonable mechanisms of the gliding arc plasma photocatalytic CO₂ activation process are schematically given in Fig. 6. After the activation of $e^- - h^+$ pairs by the energetic electrons in plasma, the CB electrons (e^-) formed can be transferred spontaneously to the absorbed CO₂ molecules in the V_o , leading to the formation of CO₂⁻ anion (Eq. (4)) [7, 14, 56, 57]. CO₂⁻ can then dissociate into CO with the occupation of an oxygen atom into the V_o [7, 56]. The above two processes yield an overall reaction of Eq. (5). Note that this dissociative electron attachment process of CO₂ proceeds more readily for the absorbed CO₂ in the V_o than for the CO₂ in gas phase due to its low threshold energy (1.4 eV versus 5-10 eV) [7, 62]. The release of O₂ results from the oxidizing reaction of the lattice O²⁻ anions with h^+ (Eq. (6)), in which process V_o can be regenerated [14]. The electron attachment of Ti⁴⁺

to produce Ti^{3+} also happens to balance the charge (Eq. (10)) [14].



Note that the combination of Eqs. (9) and (10) yields an overall reaction of Eq. (6).

The above-proposed plasma activation mechanisms were further confirmed by the negligible influence of the post-plasma catalysis on the activation of CO_2 because the short-life electrons in plasma cannot touch and activate the catalyst surface.

It is also interesting to note that in this work both anatase TiO_2 and rutile TiO_2 catalysts have been investigated for plasma catalytic CO_2 activation, but only the TiO_2 catalyst with rutile phase showed facilitating effect on the reaction performance.

5. Conclusions

In summary, plasma- TiO_2 catalytic activation of CO_2 has been investigated in a modified gliding arc reactor. The addition of a tray downstream the discharge can improve the fraction of gas treated by plasma due to the formation of strong backflow above the top of the tray and the horizontal extension of the plasma area. The integration of TiO_2 catalysts with gliding arc plasma in the in-plasma catalysis mode formed an exceptionally synergistic effect, which dramatically enhanced the CO_2 conversion by 138% (from 4.6% to 10.8%) and the energy efficiency by 133% (from 5.4% to 12.6%) at a flow rate of 2 L/min. The existence of energetic electrons at energies exceeding the activation threshold of TiO_2

1 photocatalyst (3.0 eV) is considered as the primary contributor to the synergy of gliding arc plasma
2 with TiO₂ photocatalyst by motivating the activation of electron-hole pairs on the catalyst surface. The
3 presence of oxygen vacancy (V_o) on the TiO₂ surface is vital in facilitating the adsorption and thus
4 activation of CO₂ molecules. This work provides critical clues for further enhancement of CO₂
5 activation in the promising gliding arc discharge reactor by plasma catalysis.

6

References

- [1]. Sharma RK, Gaur R, Yadav M, et al. An efficient copper-based magnetic nanocatalyst for the fixation of carbon dioxide at atmospheric pressure. *Sci Rep.* 2018;8(1):1901.
- [2]. USEPA E. Inventory of US greenhouse gas emissions and sinks: 1990–2013. Washington, DC, USA, EPA. 2015.
- [3]. Division ESRLGM. A Global Network for Measurements of Greenhouse Gases in the Atmosphere. 2018.
- [4]. Chen G, Georgieva V, Godfroid T, et al. Plasma assisted catalytic decomposition of CO₂. *Appl Catal B.* 2016;190:115-24.
- [5]. Ramakers M, Trenchev G, Heijkers S, et al. Gliding Arc Plasmatron: providing an alternative method for carbon dioxide conversion. *Chem Sus Chem.* 2017;10(12):2642-52.
- [6]. Snoeckx R, Bogaerts A. Plasma technology—a novel solution for CO₂ conversion? *Chem Soc Rev.* 2017;46(19):5805-63.
- [7]. Chen G, Godfroid T, Britun N, et al. Plasma-catalytic conversion of CO₂ and CO₂/H₂O in a surface-wave sustained microwave discharge. *Appl Catal B.* 2017;214:114-25.
- [8]. Li L, Zhang H, Li XD, et al. Plasma-assisted CO₂ conversion in a gliding arc discharge: Improving performance by optimizing the reactor design. *J CO₂ Util.* 2019;29:296-303.
- [9]. Mei D, Zhu X, He YL, et al. Plasma-assisted conversion of CO₂ in a dielectric barrier discharge reactor: understanding the effect of packing materials. *Plasma Sources Sci T.* 2014;24(1):015011.
- [10]. Wang W, Berthelot A, Kolev S, Tu X, Bogaerts A. CO₂ conversion in a gliding arc plasma: 1D cylindrical discharge model. *Plasma Sources Sci T.* 2016;25(6):065012.
- [11]. Mei D, Tu X. Conversion of CO₂ in a cylindrical dielectric barrier discharge reactor: Effects of plasma processing parameters and reactor design. *J CO₂ Util.* 2017;19:68-78.
- [12]. Zhang H, Li L, Li XD, et al. Warm plasma activation of CO₂ in a rotating gliding arc discharge reactor. *J CO₂ Util.* 2018;27:472-9.
- [13]. Paulussen S, Verheyde B, Tu X, et al. Conversion of carbon dioxide to value-added chemicals in atmospheric pressure dielectric barrier discharges. *Plasma Sources Sci T.* 2010;19(3):034015.
- [14]. Mei D, Zhu X, Wu C, et al. Plasma-photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ at low temperatures: Understanding the synergistic effect of plasma-catalysis. *Appl Catal B.* 2016;182:525-32.
- [15]. Fridman A. *Plasma chemistry*: Cambridge university press; 2008.
- [16]. Liu S, Mei D, Wang L, et al. Steam reforming of toluene as biomass tar model compound in a gliding arc discharge reactor. *Chem Eng J.* 2017;307:793-802.
- [17]. Zhang H, Wang W, Li X, et al. Plasma activation of methane for hydrogen production in a N₂ rotating gliding arc warm plasma: A chemical kinetics study. *Chem Eng J.* 2018;345:67-78.
- [18]. Zhang H, Li X, Zhu F, et al. Plasma assisted dry reforming of methanol for clean syngas production and high-efficiency CO₂ conversion. *Chem Eng J.* 2017;310:114-9.
- [19]. Zhang H, Du C, Wu A, et al. Rotating gliding arc assisted methane decomposition in nitrogen for hydrogen production. *Int J Hydrogen Energ.* 2014;39(24):12620-35.
- [20]. Gao Y, Zhang S, Sun H, et al. Highly efficient conversion of methane using microsecond and nanosecond pulsed spark discharges. *Appl Energ.* 2018;226:534-45.
- [21]. Ozkan A, Bogaerts A, Reniers F. Routes to increase the conversion and the energy efficiency in the splitting of CO₂ by a dielectric barrier discharge. *J Phys D Appl Phys.* 2017;50(8):084004.
- [22]. Snoeckx R, Heijkers S, Van Wesenbeeck K, et al. CO₂ conversion in a dielectric barrier discharge plasma: N₂ in the mix as a helping hand or problematic impurity? *Energ Environ Sci.* 2016;9(3):999-1011.

- [23]. Mei D, Tu X. Atmospheric Pressure Non- Thermal Plasma Activation of CO₂ in a Packed- Bed Dielectric Barrier Discharge Reactor. *Chem Phys Chem*. 2017;18(22):3253-9.
- [24]. Van Laer K, Bogaerts A. Improving the Conversion and Energy Efficiency of Carbon Dioxide Splitting in a Zirconia-Packed Dielectric Barrier Discharge Reactor. *Energ Technol*. 2015;3(10):1038-44.
- [25]. Xu S, Whitehead JC, Martin PA. CO₂ conversion in a non-thermal, barium titanate packed bed plasma reactor: The effect of dilution by Ar and N₂. *Chem Eng J*. 2017;327:764-73.
- [26]. Ozkan A, Dufour T, Silva T, et al. The influence of power and frequency on the filamentary behavior of a flowing DBD—application to the splitting of CO₂. *Plasma Sources Sci T*. 2016;25(2):025013.
- [27]. Alliat M, Mei DH, Tu X. Plasma activation of CO₂ in a dielectric barrier discharge: A chemical kinetic model from the microdischarge to the reactor scales. *J CO₂ Util*. 2018;In press.
- [28]. Van RG, Van BD, Harder N, et al. Taming microwave plasma to beat thermodynamics in CO₂ dissociation. *Faraday Discuss*. 2015;183:233-48.
- [29]. Spencer L, Gallimore A. CO₂ dissociation in an atmospheric pressure plasma/catalyst system: a study of efficiency. *Plasma Sources Sci T*. 2012;22(1):015019.
- [30]. Xu W, Li MW, Xu GH, et al. Decomposition of CO₂ using DC corona discharge at atmospheric pressure. *Jpn J Appl Phys*. 2004;43(12R):8310.
- [31]. Bongers W, Bouwmeester H, Wolf B, et al. Plasma- driven dissociation of CO₂ for fuel synthesis. *Plasma Process Polym*. 2017;14(6):1600126.
- [32]. Sun S, Wang H, Mei D, et al. CO₂ conversion in a gliding arc plasma: Performance improvement based on chemical reaction modeling. *J CO₂ Util*. 2017;17:220-34.
- [33]. Nunnally T, Gutsol K, Rabinovich A, et al. Dissociation of CO₂ in a low current gliding arc plasmatron. *J Phys D Appl Phys*. 2011;44(27):274009.
- [34]. Li L, Zhang H, Li X, et al. Plasma-assisted CO₂ conversion in a gliding arc discharge: Improving performance by optimizing the reactor design. *J CO₂ Util*. 2019;29: 296-303.
- [35]. Wang W, Mei D, Tu X, et al. Gliding arc plasma for CO₂ conversion: Better insights by a combined experimental and modelling approach. *Chem Eng J*. 2017;330:11-25.
- [36]. Berthelot A, Bogaerts A. Modeling of CO₂ splitting in a microwave plasma: how to improve the conversion and energy efficiency. *J Phys Chem C*. 2017;121(15):8236-51.
- [37]. Zhang H, Zhu F, Li X, et al. Steam reforming of toluene and naphthalene as tar surrogate in a gliding arc discharge reactor. *J Hazard Mater*. 2019;369:244-53.
- [38]. Fridman A, Nester S, Kennedy LA, et al. Gliding arc gas discharge. *Prog Energ Combust*. 1999;25(2):211-31.
- [39]. Chen HL, Lee HM, Chen SH, et al. Review of plasma catalysis on hydrocarbon reforming for hydrogen production—interaction, integration, and prospects. *Appl Catal B*. 2008;85(1-2):1-9.
- [40]. Whitehead JC. Plasma–catalysis: the known knowns, the known unknowns and the unknown unknowns. *J Phys D Appl Phys*. 2016;49(24):243001.
- [41]. Chen G, Britun N, Godfroid T, et al. An overview of CO₂ conversion in a microwave discharge: the role of plasma-catalysis. *J Phys D Appl Phys*. 2017;50(8):084001.
- [42]. Tsang W, Hampson R. Chemical kinetic data base for combustion chemistry. Part I. Methane and related compounds. *J Phys Chem Ref Data*. 1986;15(3):1087-279.
- [43]. Multiphysics C. v. 5.2. COMSOL AB, Stockholm, Sweden. 2015.
- [44]. Daito S, Tochikubo F, Watanabe T. NO_x removal process in pulsed corona discharge combined with TiO₂ photocatalyst. *Jpn J Appl Phys*. 2001;40(4R):2475.
- [45]. Kang M, Kim B-J, Cho SM, et al. Decomposition of toluene using an atmospheric pressure plasma/TiO₂ catalytic system. *J Mol Catal A Chem*. 2002;180(1-2):125-32.

- [46].Ghezzar M, Abdelmalek F, Belhadj M, et al. Enhancement of the bleaching and degradation of textile wastewaters by Gliding arc discharge plasma in the presence of TiO₂ catalyst. *J Hazard Mater.* 2009;164(2-3):1266-74.
- [47].Wang TC, Lu N, Li J, et al. Plasma-TiO₂ catalytic method for high-efficiency remediation of p-nitrophenol contaminated soil in pulsed discharge. *Env Sci T.* 2011;45(21):9301-7.
- [48].Wu Z, Zhu Z, Hao X, et al. Enhanced oxidation of naphthalene using plasma activation of TiO₂/diatomite catalyst. *J Hazard Mater.* 2018;347:48-57.
- [49].Wallis AE, Whitehead JC, Zhang K. Plasma-assisted catalysis for the destruction of CFC-12 in atmospheric pressure gas streams using TiO₂. *Catal Lett.* 2007;113(1-2):29-33.
- [50].Cao YQ, Zhao XR, Chen J, et al. TiO_xN_y Modified TiO₂ Powders Prepared by Plasma Enhanced Atomic Layer Deposition for Highly Visible Light Photocatalysis. *Sci Rep.* 2018;8(1):12131.
- [51].Sano T, Negishi N, Sakai E, et al. Contributions of photocatalytic/catalytic activities of TiO₂ and γ -Al₂O₃ in nonthermal plasma on oxidation of acetaldehyde and CO. *J Mol Catal A Chem.* 2006;245(1):235-41.
- [52].Whitehead JC. Plasma catalysis: A solution for environmental problems. *Pure Appl Chem.* 2010;82(6):1329-36.
- [53].Hagelaar G, Pitchford L. Solving the Boltzmann equation to obtain electron transport coefficients and rate coefficients for fluid models. *Plasma Sources Sci T.* 2005;14(4):722.
- [54].MORGAN database, <http://www.lxcat.laplace.univ-tlse.fr> [Internet]. retrieved June 4, 2013.
- [55].Nunnally TP. Application of low current gliding arc plasma discharges for hydrogen sulfide decomposition and carbon dioxide emission reduction. 2011.
- [56].Liu L, Li Y. Understanding the reaction mechanism of photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ with H₂O on TiO₂-based photocatalysts: a review. *Aerosol Air Qual Res.* 2014;14(2):453-69.
- [57].Nahar S, Zain M, Kadhum AAH, et al. Advances in photocatalytic CO₂ reduction with water: a review. *Mater.* 2017;10(6):629.
- [58].Huygh S, Bogaerts A, Neyts EC. How oxygen vacancies activate CO₂ dissociation on TiO₂ anatase (001). *J Phys Chem C.* 2016;120(38):21659-69.
- [59].Liu L, Zhao C, Li Y. Spontaneous dissociation of CO₂ to CO on defective surface of Cu (I)/TiO₂-x nanoparticles at room temperature. *J Phys Chem C.* 2012;116(14):7904-12.
- [60].Acharya D, Camillone III N, Sutter P. CO₂ Adsorption, Diffusion, and Electron-Induced Chemistry on Rutile TiO₂ (110): A Low-Temperature Scanning Tunneling Microscopy Study. *J Phys Chem C.* 2011;115(24):12095-105.
- [61].Tan S, Zhao Y, Zhao J, Wang Z, Ma C, Zhao A, et al. CO₂ dissociation activated through electron attachment on the reduced rutile TiO₂ (110)-1 \times 1 surface. *Phys Rev B.* 2011;84(15):155418.
- [62].Lee J, Sorescu DC, Deng X. Electron-induced dissociation of CO₂ on TiO₂ (110). *J Am Chem Soc.* 2011;133(26):10066-9.

Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge the financial support from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 51706204), National Key Technologies R&D Program (No. YS2018YFE010498) and the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-

1 Curie grant agreement No 823745. XT and NW thank the financial support from the State Key
2 Laboratory of Electrical Insulation and Power Equipment at Xi'an Jiaotong University (No.
3 EIPE19207).

4

5 **Competing interests**

6 The authors declare no competing interests.

7