

**Optimized Microwave-based Synthesis of Thermally-Stable
Inverse Catalytic Core-Shell Motifs for CO₂ Hydrogenation**

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Abstract

The rational synthesis of Cu@TiO₂ core@shell nanowire structures was thoroughly explored using a microwave-assisted method through the tuning of experimental parameters such as but not limited to (i) controlled variation in molar ratios, (ii) the effect of discrete Ti precursors, (iii) the method of addition of the precursors themselves, and (iv) time of irradiation. Uniform coatings were obtained using Cu: Ti molar ratios of 1: 2, 1: 1, 2: 1, and 4: 1, respectively. It should be noted that whereas relative molar precursor concentrations primarily determined the magnitude of the resulting shell size, the dependence was non-linear. Moreover, additionally important reaction parameters, such as precursor identity, the means of addition of precursors, and the reaction time, were individually explored with the objective of creating a series of optimized reaction conditions. As compared with Cu nanowires (NWs) alone, it is evident that both of the Cu@TiO₂ core-shell NW samples, regardless of pre-treatment conditions, evinced much better catalytic performance, up to as much as 20 times greater activity as compared with standard Cu NWs. These results imply the significance of the Cu/TiO₂ interface in terms of promoting CO₂ hydrogenation, since TiO₂ alone is known to be inert for this reaction. Furthermore, it is additionally notable that the N₂ annealing pre-treatment is crucial in terms of preserving the overall Cu@TiO₂ core@shell structure. We also systematically analyzed and tracked the structural and chemical evolution of our catalysts before and after the CO₂ reduction experiments. Indeed, we discovered that the core@shell wire motif was essentially maintained and conserved after this high-temperature reaction process, thereby accentuating the thermal stability and physical robustness of our as-prepared hierarchical motifs.

Keywords: core-shell; copper; titania; catalysis; chemical processing; CO₂ reduction

1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO_2) emanates as a byproduct of both natural and human-derived sources.¹ Therefore, an area of recent interest²⁻⁵ concerns the conversion of CO_2 into feedstock for commodity chemicals, fuels, and materials (i.e. products with energy-dense chemical bonds) by chemical, thermal, photocatalytic, and electrocatalytic means.⁶ The reduction of CO_2 to form hydrocarbons, alcohols, and similar related products can be mediated by a transition metal surface. In this respect, copper nanomaterials have been investigated for this application, due to an increased number of exposed active sites on the (110) planes, as confirmed by DFT.⁷⁻⁸ The catalytic activity of Cu nanomaterials has been enhanced not only through enrichment with Au⁹¹⁰ but also through the formation of bimetallic alloys, incorporating elements such as but not limited to Bi,¹¹ Pt,¹² Pd,¹⁰ and In,^{10, 13} respectively. However, there are legitimate concerns more broadly about controlling (i) product selectivity and yields as well as overcoming (ii) the high overpotentials needed and (iii) the poor Faradaic efficiency observed.¹⁴

Copper (Cu) possesses intrinsic advantages, such as high conductivity, relative abundance, low cost, and relative non-toxicity.¹⁵ Specifically, one-dimensional (1D) Cu nanomaterials, such as Cu NWs, are promising for their effective structural flexibility, electrical conductivity, and stability.¹⁶ Furthermore, composites based on 1D Cu NWs possess many favorable advantages as compared with 0D Cu nanoparticles (Cu NPs), such as large surface area, reasonable surface facet control, and large contact areas associated with active sites. For example, the activity of a copper (111) surface, as a catalyst for the water-gas shift and CO_2 hydrogenation, can be increased by the addition of overlayers of ceria or zinc oxide, as a result of creating an inverse oxide/metal configuration.¹⁷⁻²⁰ These previous works have motivated our interest in the preparation and testing of Cu core@oxide shell heterostructures as catalytic

platforms. Moreover, as an added and prevailing stimulus for our reported experiments herein, one of our groups has extensively studied this hierarchical structure in the context of designing efficient catalysts for the methanol oxidation reaction and the oxygen reduction reaction.²¹⁻²⁸

In this current study, as an illustrative demonstration of principle of the significance and relevance of this morphological motif for applications, we have synthesized and probed a core-shell structure, composed of a Cu NW surrounded by an outer TiO₂ layer. In general, the core-shell motif yields four primary benefits toward enhancing the intrinsic activity of catalysts. *First*, it maximizes the use of an inexpensive but still catalytically active Cu core. *Second*, the ability to tailor the size of the TiO₂ shell should enable an optimization of either chemical or catalytic reactivity. *Third*, the underlying one-dimensional, anisotropic wire structure is advantageous in that it primarily exposes the catalytically active Cu (100) facet,²⁹ associated with the ‘long’ rod portion of the nanowire.³⁰ *Fourth*, the core-shell structure creates a canonical metal / semiconducting metal oxide interface, which may not only enable effective interfacial charge transfer by minimizing deleterious charge recombination effects³¹ but also enhance structural stability by reducing corrosive influences.³²

Previous work on Cu@TiO₂ core-shell motifs has focused on applications, such as but not limited to H₂ conversion,³³ the photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange,^{34,35} and dye-sensitized solar cells.³⁶ With respect to CO₂ reduction, it is important to note that essentially all of the prior studies relate to either photocatalysis or electrocatalysis, which possess a different scope from what we intend to investigate herein. In these previously reported systems, the observed activity has often correlated with shell thickness. As illustrative examples, Cu-based core@shell motifs have been generated not only with metals such as Sn³⁷⁻³⁸ and Au but also with metal oxides including In₂O₃ and SnO₂. The efficiency and composition of syngas production on

carbon-supported Cu/In₂O₃ catalysts were highly dependent upon the In₂O₃ shell thickness (0.4 to 1.5 nm).³⁹ Separately, Cu/SnO₂ core-shell structures enable the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to formate; thicker (1.8 nm) shells generate formate species, whereas thinner (0.8 nm) shells are selective to CO formation.⁴⁰ Atomic layer deposition (ALD) of SnO₂ on Cu NWs⁴¹ was used to enhance selectivity towards producing CO. As another example, Au cubic NPs with 7-8 layers of Cu gave rise to higher selectivity towards C₂H₄ formation, whereas Au cubic NPs with over 14 layers of Cu were more selective towards CH₄ generation.⁴² Differences in the observed product distribution were attributed to the compressive strain effect of the Cu overlayer in the adsorption of reactive intermediate species, with an increased Cu content favoring the ‘hydrogenation pathway’ of CO₂ to methane. Moreover, CuO@Cu core-shell structures were yielded Faradaic efficiencies of CO and HCOOH that were higher than those with other catalyst loadings with a short reaction time.

In stark contrast with the prior literature, we will explore the potential of novel, as-prepared Cu@TiO₂ NWs as thermal catalysts for which no previous precedence exists, to the best of our knowledge. Specifically, we will be analyzing the use of these materials within the context of a CO₂ hydrogenation reaction to produce CO. This process utilizes a reverse water gas shift reaction (RWGS), which requires high temperatures (400-600°C). Therefore, the thermal stability of the catalyst becomes relevant and essential for ensuring effective performance.⁴³

From a synthetic perspective, as a means of fabricating these motifs, groups have relied on methods, such as but not limited to standard hydrothermal, reflux, and microwave wet-chemical methods.^{33,34-36, 44-45} Yet, each of these conventional protocols has certain associated limitations. Reflux methods tend to be characterized by lower yields and overall longer reaction times. Moreover, many of these syntheses often use either oleylamine or other organic

surfactants which can be difficult to remove and which otherwise passivate the surfaces of the heterostructures, thereby interfering with their observed performance.⁴⁶ With hydrothermal methods, the reaction times can often be very extensive. Indeed, conventional heating methods tend to be slower, due to their dependence upon phenomena, such as the formation of convection currents, the thermal conductivity of the materials, and the temperature of the reaction vessel itself, the latter of which often needs to be much higher than that of the reaction mixture.⁴⁷

By contrast, microwave-based synthesis methods possess a number of advantages, including but not limited to a relatively facile procedure, ease of use, and shorter reaction times (since most reactions only take a few minutes), as compared with conventional heating techniques, all of which render the microwave procedure as potentially more amenable and accessible for industrial applicability.⁴⁷ Specifically, microwave treatments allow for a more thorough and uniform heating of the sample. Indeed, the temperature of the whole reaction volume can increase simultaneously and homogeneously, with the use of dielectric-based heating. Furthermore, microwave chemistry allows for control over a number of reaction parameters, such as power, frequency, the nature of the precursors, the surfactant, the reducing agent involved, the type of solvent, and reaction temperature.

In the context of our desired Cu@TiO₂ core-shell motifs herein, previously reported microwave methods have relied on using either TiCl₃³³ or TiF₄ as the titanium source, both of which are inherently hazardous precursors. Other microwave syntheses have attempted to produce Cu NWs under *in situ* conditions.³⁴ In the process however, the resulting shell size of the core@shell structure has been very difficult to tune and tailor. The use of long reaction times has meant that the isolated product architecture is sensitive to moisture contamination. As such, in terms of novelty, we have put forth a number of key synthetic advances. *First*, we have adapted

microwave-based synthesis using a safer precursor molecule, i.e. titanium butoxide, TBOT, in the context of a water and surfactant-free methodology. *Second*, we have adjusted reaction parameters, such as precursor amounts and reaction time, as a means of controllably tuning shell thickness and customizing shell uniformity around the underlying Cu NW without degrading it.³³

In this paper, we have sought to generate a tailorabile Cu@TiO₂ core@shell nanowire structure with tunable outer shell radii, in which the specific effects of synthetic processing parameters, such as metal precursors, solvents, reaction time, and reaction temperature, have been individually probed and correlated with CO₂ reduction performance. What we have found is that (i) the ensuing morphology (i.e., the core-shell architecture) and (ii) chemical processing treatments make a substantive difference with respect to assessing the resulting thermal CO₂ reduction catalytic performance. In fact, we determined that performance levels may achieve levels as much as 20 times greater activity as compared with standard Cu NWs.

2. Synthesis and Characterization

2.1. Materials

Materials were used as received, including CuCl₂•2H₂O (Baker Analyzed), D-glucose (anhydrous) (Fisher Scientific, Certified ACS), 1-hexadecylamine (Acros Organics, 90%), titanium butoxide (TBOT) (Acros Organics, 99%). Anhydrous ethanol (Beantown Chemical, denatured), n-hexane (Alfa Aesar, Spectrophotometric grade, 95+%), chloroform (Alfa Aesar, ACS, 99.8%), and DI water were all utilized as procured, without any additional purification protocols involved.

2.2. Experimental: Copper Nanowires

Cu nanowires were first synthesized using a previously published method.³⁰ That is, the wires were produced hydrothermally. For this synthesis, 1.08 grams of CuCl₂•2H₂O (copper

source), 7.20 grams of 1-hexadecylamine (capping agent), and 2.14 grams of D-glucose (reducing agent) were added to 400 mL of water and then stirred for over 12 hours overnight, until the solution turned into a light blue emulsion. Subsequently, the solution was added into a Teflon autoclave, and then heated to 100°C for 12 hours. The wires are then thoroughly washed several times via centrifugation with a combination of hydrophilic solvent (water) and hydrophobic solvent (chloroform/hexane) to simultaneously remove particles and excess 1-hexadecylamine. The resulting wires possessed average diameters in the range of 20 to 50 nm with lengths of microns. The Cu NW products could be indexed as the *fcc* phase (JCPDS #03-1018) of pure copper, as corroborated by the XRD results. These data are characterized by a high-intensity [111] facet (shown in the XRD peak and located at ~43°) coupled with a high-intensity [200] facet (highlighted at 50.5°) (Figure S1).

2.3. Synthesis of Cu/TiO₂ Core shell structures

This work was adapted from and builds upon a previously published study, which reported on the fabrication of Cu metal core@shell metal oxide structures.³³ These motifs were produced using microwave synthesis as a means of immobilizing crystalline TiO₂ structures onto an underlying copper nanowire platform. This current study differs from the previously reported methodology in the following three significant points. Specifically, we have (a) substituted water with absolute ethanol, (b) replaced the original TiCl₃ precursor with a safer analogue, i.e. titanium butoxide (TBOT), and (c) systematically varied the amount of TBOT as a means of correspondingly altering the shell diameter.

In practice, Cu NWs (10 mg, 0.15 mmol) were added to 4 mL of absolute ethanol (AETOH) and sonicated, until these were properly dispersed. Typically, titanium butoxide (TBOT, 0.1 mL, 0.3 mmol) was added to 1 mL of AETOH, and the mixture was sonicated, until

it yielded a clear hue. Subsequently, the TBOT solution was added in slowly, dropwise to the Cu NW solution. The resulting mixture was then further sonicated for a period of 15 to 20 min, and later heated via microwave radiation at 150°C for 30 min with a pressure and power limit of 200 psi and 300 W, respectively. After cooling to room temperature, the sign of a successful reaction was the appearance of a reddish-white solid within an orange solution. Next, the solution was processed by centrifugation, and the isolated precipitate was subsequently washed with ethanol.

2.4. Instrumentation

XRD: Samples were prepared by dispersing the materials in ethanol and then drop-casting onto a zero-background holder (MTI Corporation, zero diffraction plate for XRD, B-doped, p-type Si, measuring 23.6 mm in diameter by 2 mm in thickness). Diffraction pattern data were obtained on a Rigaku Miniflex diffractometer, operating in the Bragg configuration characterized by Cu K α 1 irradiation ($\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$). Data were collected in the range of 20° to 80° at a scanning rate at 20° per minute.

TEM imaging: The morphology of as-prepared core/shell samples was characterized using a JEOL 1400 transmission electron microscope, equipped with a 2048 \times 2048 Gatan CCD camera and operated at an accelerating voltage of 120 kV. Samples were prepared by dissolving powder samples in ethanol followed by drop casting onto a copper grid.

SEM imaging: An ultra-high-resolution field emission Hitachi 4800 scanning electron microscopy was employed to characterize the apparent morphology of as-prepared core/shell structures. Samples were generated by dissolving powder samples in ethanol followed by drop casting aliquots onto a silicon wafer.

HRTEM: HRTEM images were collected on a JEOL 2100F instrument, which had been operating at accelerating voltages of 200 kV with a beam size of 2 \AA . Samples were prepared by

dissolving powder samples in ethanol, followed by drop casting onto a copper grid.

X-ray Near Edge Fine Structure Spectroscopy (XANES)

The XANES spectra of the Cu and Cu@TiO₂ nanowires were collected at the 8-ID Inner-Shell Spectroscopy (ISS) (Cu *K*-edge) and the 7-BM Quick X-ray Absorption and Scattering (QAS) (Ti *K*-edge) beamlines of the National Synchrotron Light Source II (NSLS-II), at Brookhaven National Laboratory (BNL). In these tests, powder samples were loaded into a quartz tube with 1.0 mm outer diameter (OD) and 0.9 mm inner diameter (ID). The Cu *K*-edge and Ti *K*-edge XAS spectra were collected in the fluorescence-yield mode and then calibrated using Cu foil and Ti foil as standards, respectively.

2.5. Catalytic activity measurements

The catalyst was pre-treated using two different regimes. (1) For samples labeled as “without N₂ annealing”: Samples were treated in 10 sccm (standard cubic centimeters per minute) of 10 vol % O₂ / N₂ at 350°C for 1 h with a ramping and cooling rate of 10°C/min to remove adventitious carbon emanating from the synthesis process from the surfaces of the catalysts. (2) For samples, labeled as “N₂ annealed”: These samples were treated step-wise in N₂ at 450°C, 10 vol% O₂/N₂ at 350°C, and ultimately, 50 vol% H₂/N₂ at 450°C, for periods of 1 h at each temperature with ramping and cooling rates of 10 °C/min.

For the activity measurements, 1-2 mg of samples were loaded into a quartz capillary measuring 0.9 mm in internal diameter with a fixed gas flow of 2 sccm CO₂, 2 sccm N₂, and 6 sccm H₂ applied with 16-18 psi pressure. Catalytic activities were measured, stepwise, at 250°C, 350°C, and 450°C with a ramping rate of 10°C/min. The reaction vessel was held at each temperature for 80 min at each temperature. The concentrations of gases evolved were analyzed

with a gas chromatography instrument (Agilent 7890A), equipped with both flame ionization and thermal conductivity detectors. The N₂ in the gas flow was used as an internal standard.

$$\text{CO space time yield } \mu\text{mol} \cdot (\text{s} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{Cu}})^{-1} = f_{\text{CO}} \cdot \frac{1}{m \cdot \text{Cu wt\%}} \cdot \frac{f_{\text{N}_2}(\text{RT})}{f_{\text{N}_2}(\text{rxn})} \cdot 10 \cdot 7.45 \cdot 10^{-1} \frac{\mu\text{mol}}{\text{s}}$$

wherein 1 sccm = 7.45*10⁻⁷ mol/s; m = sample mass (g); Cu wt% = weight percent of Cu in catalyst; f_{CO} = volume concentration of the CO gas in the outlet; $f_{\text{N}_2}(\text{RT})$ = volume concentration of N₂ in the outlet measured at room temperature; and $f_{\text{N}_2}(\text{rxn})$ = volume concentration of N₂ in the outlet measured under the relevant reaction conditions.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Insights into Synthesis Mechanism

The efficiency of microwave synthesis depends on a number of different, distinctive variables. First, the effectiveness of the solvent can be characterized by the loss tangent parameter ($\tan \delta$), which represents the materials' inherent dissipation of electromagnetic energy. A large loss tangent value implies a higher absorption of energy, whereas a low loss tangent number is indicative of a lower and slower absorption of energy. The magnitude of the loss tangent is affected by solvent polarity, a variable which governs the extent to which the solvent interacts with the microwaves.⁴⁷ Whereas prior synthesis methods utilized water ($\tan \delta = 0.123$), we chose to use absolute ethanol, so as to not oxidize the Cu NWs. This solvent possesses a higher tangent loss parameter of 0.941, suggesting that the solvent will exhibit an increased microwave absorption capability, a characteristic which will necessarily impact upon observed reaction rates and consequentially increase temperatures more rapidly within the medium.⁴⁸

Role of Ti precursors: Bulk TiO₂ was initially used with a 1: 1 Cu: Ti precursor ratio, and these

reagents were reacted at 150°C for 30 minutes. However, this process resulted in not only in an undesired aggregation of as-formed TiO₂ nanoparticles but also an overall lack of uniform coverage of these particles onto the external surfaces of these underlying Cu NWs, likely due to the relatively poor hydrolysis and solubility of TiO₂ at room temperature. This situation was presumably responsible for the lack of ionization and the concomitant inadequate dispersion of Ti ions within the solution, as indicated by our SEM results (Figure S2).³³ Moreover, the data in Figure S2 imply that the resulting TiO₂ 'layer' actually consists of relatively large, ~100-200 nm particulate motifs, which do not homogeneously coat the Cu core in any uniform manner.

Titanium butoxide (TBOT) was subsequently utilized, due to its key tendency to hydrolyze in water and other polar solvents at room temperature. A prior study reported that as compared with other precursor Ti sources (such as TiCl₄ and Ti(SO₄)₂), the use of TBOT led to the best photocatalytic performance observed.⁴⁹ In part, this observation can be attributed to the finding that TBOT, which is relatively uniformly dispersed in absolute ethanol, forms a Ti-hydroxide solution which not only (1) slows down the hydrolysis of Ti in solution but also (2) allows for the homogeneous dispersion of Ti ions within the reagent solution. Once sonication begins, the Ti(OH)_x molecules likely attach onto the surfaces of the underlying Cu NWs through the formation and precipitation of amorphous TiO₂ during the microwave heating process.⁵⁰

Role of Reaction Time: In order to fully understand the mechanistic process underlying the microwave irradiation process, we also probed and correlated the impact of varying irradiation time (i.e., 10 to 40 minutes) upon the resulting sample morphology (Figure S3). Specifically, a sample generated with too little reaction time yielded a product characterized by an uneven coating (Figure S3A-D). By contrast, the use of an excessive reaction time led to wire degradation into smaller constituent particulate bits (Figure S3G). Based on all of our

experiments, the ideal reaction time necessary to generate a relatively monodisperse, homogeneous, and uniform coating was in the range of 30 to 35 minutes (Figure S3E-F).

Role of Precursor Addition Methodology: After the reaction time was optimized, we further improved upon the quality of the as-deposited coating by exploring the effect of precisely *how* the Ti precursor was introduced into the reaction medium. Specifically, we noted that when TBOT was initially solubilized and dispersed in absolute ethanol prior to addition with Cu NWs, the coating became much more regular and consistent (Figure S4B) as compared with the product obtained from the simple, direct addition of TBOT (Figure S4A).

As such, we collected experimental XRD patterns of both samples, and confirmed that the sample derived from the straight addition of the TBOT precursor in the presence of Cu NWs gave rise to significantly higher Cu₂O and CuO impurities. This finding is most likely attributable to the relatively uneven coverage of TiO₂ which left segments of the Cu NWs exposed to air, thereby resulting in the observed oxidation both during and after the reaction process. By contrast, when we solubilized and dispersed TBOT in absolute ethanol and added that solution in dropwise to the Cu NW-containing reaction medium, the TBOT precursor was found to have more evenly and uniformly coated the Cu surface. XRD analysis of this latter sample was consistent with the lack of any apparent copper oxide impurities.

3.2. Characterization of as-prepared Cu@TiO₂ core@shell nanowire motifs:

The XRD pattern of the as-generated optimized material, produced with a 1: 2 Cu: Ti molar ratio and denoted as **1Cu@2TiO₂** (Figure 1A), highlighted three distinctive peaks, which could be attributed to Cu (JCPDS #03-1018), coupled with a highly amorphous region near the beginning of the XRD pattern.³³ However, the ostensible lack of TiO₂ peaks is not surprising, given the amorphous nature of the titania shell surrounding the copper core. While no TiO₂ peaks

are definitively apparent, slight imperfections, localized not only on the third peak of Cu but also at $\sim 35\text{-}40^\circ$, could potentially be assigned to anatase TiO_2 .³³ We also did not observe any crystalline copper oxide (i.e., either CuO or Cu_2O). It is possible that these species might exist either in an amorphous form or in insufficiently small quantities to have clearly shown up on XRD. However, based on our collective results (including but not limited to Figure S4), if there had been a large amount of copper oxide present, it would have been apparent in the XRD data. As determined from the SEM and TEM images presented in Figure 1B-E, the shell size was measured to be 37.3 ± 8.0 nm. The shell composition consisted of an anatase phase of TiO_2 . Specifically, from HRTEM, the indexed d_{101} plane ascribed to anatase TiO_2 measured roughly 3.7 ± 0.5 Å. We note that the individual underlying Cu planes themselves were likely too obscured by the thick TiO_2 shell in order for them to be precisely determined and indexed.

Further chemical characterization was explored, and SEM-EDX data were taken on the samples as well. In particular, EDX data were acquired on both ‘point’ and ‘box’ regions for a total of 5 data sets (Figure 2 and Figure S5). That is, we were able to obtain SEM-EDS data at 5 different regions, scattered across the sample so as to provide a representative idea of elemental distributions. We define a ‘point’ as corresponding to a singular position on an individual wire, whereas a ‘box’ refers to either the entire image or a map encompassing many wires. All of these data indicate essentially identical results, with high amounts of Ti observed coupled with lower amounts of Cu detected on the external sample surface, thereby underscoring the validity of our conclusions. Quantitatively, it should be noted that EDX analysis demonstrated both Cu (19.1 %) and Ti (80.9 %) within a $\sim 5:1$ Ti: Cu atomic ratio. These data were therefore consistent with a comparatively thicker outer coating of TiO_2 , circumscribing the inner Cu wires (Table S2).

3.3. Morphological and Chemical Composition Studies of As-prepared $\text{Cu}@\text{TiO}_2$

Core@Shell Motifs, Prepared with Variable Diameter

To further tune the thickness of the TiO_2 ‘shell’, the overall precursor concentrations associated with the relative ratio of Cu: Ti were also varied (Figure 3). Specifically, the amount of precursor was systematically altered from the starting Cu: Ti molar ratio of 1: 2, for which 0.1 mL of TBOT was utilized, onwards to 1: 1, to 2: 1, and finally onto 4: 1 Cu: Ti, respectively. This set of experiments was completed by deliberatively modulating the volume of TBOT added into the solution mixture from 0.1 mL onwards to 0.05 mL (Figure 3 A, D, G, J), 0.025 mL (Figure 3B, E, H, K), and ultimately to 0.0125 mL (Figure 3 C, F, I, L), respectively, while maintaining reaction time, reaction temperature, and the relative amount of Cu as constants.

We should note that a core@shell structural motif successfully formed after each experimental run. Initially, the amount of TBOT was halved from 0.1 mL to 0.05 mL to provide for a 1: 1 molar ratio between Cu and Ti. This move resulted in the measured dimension of the TiO_2 shell decreasing from 37.3 nm to 28.4 ± 5.7 nm, as indicated by the purple bracket within Figure 3G. It was noted that the shell appeared to be homogeneously dispersed on the surface of the copper nanowires, as observed from the SEM and TEM images (Figure 3A and 3D). The corresponding lattice *d*-spacing values were determined for the Cu d_{111} and TiO_2 d_{101} data to be 2.1 ± 0.1 Å and 3.3 ± 0.4 Å, respectively, as shown in Figure 3J. The quantity of TBOT was then halved again to 0.025 mL TBOT to yield a 2: 1 Cu: Ti molar ratio. This latter step decreased the apparent shell size further to 19.1 ± 5.7 nm, as highlighted by the purple bracket in Figure 3H. The corresponding lattice *d*-spacing data were consistent with Cu d_{111} and TiO_2 d_{101} values of 2.0 ± 0.1 Å and 3.5 ± 0.4 Å, respectively, as shown in Figure 3K. An additional HRTEM image that reinforces these findings is shown in Figure S6. Finally, the TBOT amount was further halved yet again to 0.0125 mL to provide for a final molar ratio of 4: 1 Cu: Ti. It should be noted that

the apparent titania shell size appeared to have been reduced to 10.7 ± 3.0 nm, which was about 4x smaller in dimension than the original 37 nm motif, as outlined by the purple brackets in Figure 4I. From the corresponding HRTEM data, the Cu d_{111} and TiO₂ anatase d_{101} values were indexed to be 2.1 ± 0.1 Å and 3.0 ± 0.3 Å, respectively (Figure 3L).

All of the information provided above has been summarized and tabulated in Table 1. By systematically decreasing the amount of TBOT at ‘set’ quantities, the shell size correspondingly decreased by ~10 nm, each time (Table 1). The indexed Cu core reading measured ~2.0 Å, associated with the (111) plane. The analogous (101) anatase TiO₂ plane remained at ~3.3 nm, although there did appear to be a slight downward trend and contraction in the lattice spacing with decreasing titania shell size, perhaps due to a compression-like strain effect induced upon the monolayer-like shell as a result of the underlying Cu(110) core.⁵¹ With respect to the shell size, the decrease in size correlated in a non-linear fashion with molar titania precursor concentration, as shown in Figure 4. This denotes an important finding for future work with respect to tailoring metal/semiconducting core@shell structures.

4. CO₂ Hydrogenation Performance

4.1. Catalytic Performance of Samples Processed by Annealing *with* N₂ Treatment

To test the activity of our as-prepared nanomaterials for CO₂ hydrogenation, samples incorporating 1: 2 and 2: 1 Cu: Ti molar ratios were tested. These samples were denoted as **1Cu@2TiO₂** and **2Cu@1TiO₂ O₂**, respectively (Figure 1 and Figure 3B). Nevertheless, to remove any adventitious carbon which might have interfered with catalytic performance, the sample had to undergo a series of distinctive annealing regimes. As an *initial first step*, the samples were first annealed under N₂ at 450°C for one hour to more effectively crystallize and

stabilize the intrinsic core@shell morphology (Figure 5A and B). The morphology was conserved, and significantly, the measured shell size did not appear to have been affected by this treatment for either of the molar ratios (Figure 5A and B, Table 2). By contrast, we noted an increase in crystallinity of the TiO_2 shell as compared with the amorphous pristine sample.⁵² We can postulate the formation of the anatase phase of TiO_2 , due to the annealing process at 450°C.

In the *second step* of the process to remove excess carbon, the sample underwent O_2 treatment at 350°C for one hour. Likewise, this process did not damage the sample morphology for either shell size (Figure 5C and D). As a *final step*, to reduce the sample back to Cu^0 , the sample underwent H_2 treatment at 450°C for one hour (Figure 5E-F). Overall, over the course of the entire annealing protocol, the TiO_2 increased in crystallinity, evolving from an amorphous to a crystalline state. Furthermore, the overall radius of the shell was conserved (i) at ~35 nm for the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample, and (ii) at ~20 nm for the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample, respectively (Figure 5, Table 2). From the TEM data, the annealing protocol appeared to have rendered the latter **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample as perceptibly more porous in nature, presumably due to a lack of sturdiness of the shell coating, owing to its inherent thinness.

To investigate how the pre-treatment processes affected the preservation of the core-shell structure, XANES measurements were carried out on samples which had been treated under different annealing conditions. Since the transition from bulk, amorphous TiO_2 into its crystalline analogue occurs above 350°C, a N_2 annealing step at 450°C would likely have converted amorphous TiO_2 into crystalline anatase.⁵² Furthermore, as Figure 6B (red) shows, the Cu speciation within the **1Cu@2TiO₂ N₂ (red)** sample likely converted to typical metallic elemental copper. As compared with the XANES of **pristine 1Cu@2TiO₂** (Figure 6B, black) itself, the measured Cu signal consists primarily of Cu^{2+} , due to the presence of its characteristic feature

located at ~8978 eV in the Cu *K*-edge XANES region. However, as compared with the CuO standard, the weak 8986 eV feature in the pristine sample indicates that the Cu²⁺ is not situated within a typical CuO environment (Figure S7). When the annealed sample was oxidized, as per the **1Cu@2TiO₂ N₂, O₂ (blue)** sample, a CuO feature was observed (Figure 6B, blue). Subsequently, after the H₂ treatment, Cu was reduced into the expected metallic elemental copper, as shown with **1Cu@2TiO₂ N₂, O₂, H₂** (Figure 6B, green). Under either pure H₂ or CO₂ hydrogenation conditions, the results of XANES indicated that the active phase of these catalysts consisted of metallic copper in contact with anatase (Figure S8).

The catalytic activities of the 1Cu@2TiO₂, 2Cu@1TiO₂, and standard Cu NW controls, respectively, for the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction run at 350°C and 450°C are shown in Figure 6A. No activity was perceived when running the reaction at 250°C. The observed activity is shown in the context of a CO space time yield, as it was the only detected product, thereby highlighting that our as-prepared NW motifs maintain good selectivity. By comparison with the catalytic activity of Cu NWs, bulk Cu powder (150 mesh) was also tested. However, this bulk sample was so inactive, that its CO production could not even be quantified. The improved catalytic activity of our Cu NWs could be explained by their distinctive anisotropic morphology. Specifically, as opposed to commercial Cu powder, the primary exposed facet within Cu NWs consists of the catalytically active Cu(100) facet.²⁹⁻³⁰ Therefore, as compared with Cu NWs alone (Figure 6A, red), it is evident that both of the Cu@TiO₂ samples, regardless of either molar ratio or temperature, evinced much better catalytic performance, thereby implying the significance of the Cu/TiO₂ interface in terms of promoting CO₂ hydrogenation, since TiO₂ alone is known to be inert for this reaction.⁵³

If we more explicitly compare the measured performance at 350°C and 450°C, we find

that over that temperature range, the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample increased in activity from 7.4 $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}_{\text{CuS}})$ to 44 $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}_{\text{CuS}})$ (Figure 6A, purple and Table 3), i.e. increasing by seven-fold. The corresponding activity of the analogous **2Cu@1 TiO₂** sample increased by ten-fold, i.e. rising from 2.8 $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}_{\text{CuS}})$ to 27 $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}_{\text{CuS}})$ (Figure 6A, green and Table 3). By contrast, the Cu NW control sample at 450°C yielded only 4.9 $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}_{\text{CuS}})$. It is therefore evident that the activities of the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample and the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample, both generated with N₂ annealing, were 10-fold and 5.5-fold higher, respectively, than that of the Cu NW sample alone. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that the production of CO observed over the entire range of all of these catalysts remained relatively constant, even after 90 minutes of reaction time (Figure S9 and Table S3). Collectively, these findings indicate that these systems represent relatively inexpensive, catalytically active, and stable architectural platforms for thermal reduction.

To further highlight the promising potential of our as-produced core-shell motifs, we should also emphasize that our **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample exhibited not only an observed, enhanced activity within the context of each pre-treatment condition but also, crucially, an impressive thermal stability for a core@shell NW structure. In particular, from TEM analysis, we found that after the CO₂ reduction process, the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample maintained the core@shell structural motif (Figure 5H), whereas the **2Cu@1TiO₂** analogue was characterized by discrete, isolated islands of TiO₂ nanoparticles on the material's surface, after the reaction process (Figure 7G). Indeed, with the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample, the implication is that as compared with its **1Cu@2TiO₂** counterpart, proportionally larger areas of the underlying Cu NW core were exposed to the reaction medium (Figure S10) and subsequently degraded, thereby suggesting that not all of these core@shell nanowires survived the CO₂ reduction process and accounting for the observed decrease in activity (Table 3, Figure 6A).

4.2. Catalytic Performance of Samples Processed by Annealing *without* N₂ Treatment

The addition of an initial N₂ annealing step preserved the initial intrinsic core-shell motif in terms of morphology and chemical composition. By contrast, in the *absence of an annealing step*, different behavior was observed (Figure 8). That is, *without* the prior crystallization of the TiO₂ shell induced by N₂, the subsequent utilization of O₂ heat treatment of the core@shell nanowires resulted in an apparent leaching of the inner core Cu NW into its outer TiO₂ shell, as highlighted by a combination of TEM and HRTEM images (Figure 7A and B).

One consequence of this leaching process was that the Cu NW decreased in size with a concomitant increase in shell thickness. Specifically, with the O₂ heat treatment, from the TEM data (Figure 7), the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample expanded by as much as 10 nm in radius (Table 2) with a similar (albeit smaller) quantitative increase in shell thickness, observed with the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample (Figure S11A and B). This ostensible leaching of the Cu ‘core’ into the TiO₂ ‘shell’ was further corroborated through elemental TEM-EDAX analysis. In terms of elemental distribution, the sample after an O₂ heat treatment was typified by a comparatively uniform and homogeneous dispersion of not only Cu (Figure 7E) but also Ti and O (Figure 7F-G), evenly spread throughout the entire structure, as noted by the overlay in Figure 7D. Additionally, from the TEM data (Figure 7A and B), the inherent core@shell structural motif is essentially conserved, after this annealing treatment. However, samples isolated after the final H₂ treatment appeared to maintain islands of Cu NPs scattered atop the core@shell motif, as noted by TEM data (Figure S12).

Again, XANES measurements were acquired to understand the nature of these changes. In the absence of N₂ annealing, similar Cu *K* edge results were observed for the oxidized **1Cu@2TiO₂ O₂** system in Figure 9B (red). Based on our combined TEM-EDS data of **1Cu@2TiO₂ O₂**, it is likely that the Cu species dispersed throughout the entire nanowire upon

oxidation at 350°C. In the final reduction step as noted with **1Cu@2TiO₂ O₂, H₂**, the Cu likely was converted into metallic Cu, thereby accounting for the generation of numerous, isolated Cu particulate islands atop the underlying nanowire surface. A comparison of the line-shape changes in Figures 6B and 9B shows that the formation of an anatase phase after pre-heating in N₂ does affect the behavior of the Cu, and thus it is not surprising that different surface morphologies are observed in the TEM images for the two types of samples.

Furthermore, after the CO₂ reduction reaction itself, the prevailing architectural motif for both the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample (Figure 8A and B; Table 2) and the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample (Figure S11C and D; Table 2) was that of Cu nanoparticulate islands, that had aggregated, interspersed, and immobilized onto the underlying 1-D Cu core-TiO₂ shell platform motif with radii that were comparable to those of their unreacted counterparts. What is significant is that the core@shell wire motif was essentially maintained and conserved. We also did not observe any porous substructure within the shell of the sample, as was characteristic of the N₂ annealed samples. Moreover, the TEM-EDAX analysis suggested that the Cu signal was associated not only with the particles resting atop of the TiO₂ shell (Figure 8D) but also with the central nanowire core region (Figure 8E). In addition, the O and Ti signals were still dispersed throughout the core@shell nanowire architecture (Figure 8F and G). Nevertheless, what is worth highlighting is that the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample gave rise to appreciably greater quantities of well-defined Cu NPs atop the underlying core@shell motif, an observation which apparently correlated with improved CO₂ reduction activity. In effect, this sample gave rise to an increased catalytic activity relative to the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample under identical reaction conditions.

Hence, without any prior N₂ annealing, the combination of TEM and EDS data confirmed that the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample (Figure 8) was characterized by an abundance of presumably

catalytically active, well-defined 50-70 nm Cu NPs, seemingly sprinkled onto the underlying core-shell platform motif. The overall architectural structure was apparently conserved during the CO₂ hydrogenation process. By contrast, even though the overall core-shell motif was also retained, the analogous **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample *without* any prior N₂ annealing (Figure S11) exhibited a more disordered, irregular-looking, roughened, and less well-defined architecture.

The measured catalytic activities of the **1Cu@2TiO₂**, **2Cu@1TiO₂**, and standard Cu NW control samples without any prior N₂ treatment, respectively, for the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction run at 350°C and 450°C are shown in Figure 9A. As with the data series analyzed earlier in the presence of N₂ annealing, both Cu@TiO₂ samples generated in the absence of N₂ annealing exhibited improved catalytic performance, relative to the Cu NW control, thereby reinforcing the significance of the Cu/TiO₂ interface within the core-shell motif in terms of promoting CO₂ hydrogenation, since TiO₂ alone is known to be inert for this reaction.

If we more explicitly compare the measured performance at 350°C and 450°C, the activity increased with temperature (i) from 11 μmol/(g_{CuS}) to 82 μmol/(g_{CuS}) for the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample and (ii) from 6.8 μmol/(g_{CuS}) to 45 μmol/(g_{CuS}) for the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample, respectively. These values were far better than those of the Cu NW control, in fact as much as 20 times greater. As suggested earlier, we can hypothesize that the **1Cu@2TiO₂** motif performs better than the **2Cu@1TiO₂** motif, most likely due to increased numbers of Cu NPs localized on the outer surface of the core@shell nanowire platform. We should also note that the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample prepared *without* any N₂ annealing revealed an almost two-fold increase in CO₂ reduction performance as compared with its counterpart that had been undergone an N₂ annealing treatment. We can attribute that finding to structural integrity arguments. For example, the **2Cu@1TiO₂** sample prepared *without* any N₂ annealing appeared to have been more robust

than its analogue which had undergone N₂ treatment, because the former hardly displayed any perceptible physical degradation after the CO₂ reaction process (Figure S4). It is important to stress that within these samples, the results of XANES analysis indicate that the active phase always contained metallic copper and TiO₂. Thus, the changes in activity could be reliably ascribed to variations in the morphology and not to the chemical state of the catalysts.

4.3. Summary of Findings

As such, based on these collective data, the observed morphology of the samples, especially post-reaction, obviously matters in dictating performance. For example, TEM images showed that the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample motif, which had undergone N₂ annealing, was maintained after the reaction, whereas the **1Cu@2TiO₂** sample, prepared in the absence of N₂ annealing, looked very different after the reduction process. Not surprisingly, their activities were dissimilar, as shown in Figure 6 and 9. We can attribute this finding to the increased amounts of exposed, active Cu sites and species, which was a consequence of Cu leaching from the core leading to the formation of Cu NPs on the external surfaces of the core@shell motif, within samples, prepared in the absence of any N₂ annealing.

What our XANES data suggest overall is that the N₂ annealing process at 450°C is expected to have converted amorphous TiO₂ into anatase, and thereby precluded the subsequent possibility of Cu dispersibility. Therefore, without Cu forming islands of reactivity on the core-shell motif surface, the Cu, localized within the core area, likely remained encapsulated by TiO₂ even after the reduction process, a statement consistent with our TEM results. With respect to the poorer outcomes observed with the **2Cu@1TiO₂** samples in general, this observation could

likely be ascribed to the relative lack of robustness of the shell coating during the annealing process, owing to its intrinsic narrow thinness.

Moreover, the stability of the catalysts was assessed at 450°C (Figure S9). All of these catalysts yielded a stable CO production for 80 minutes, evincing reasonable stability (with quantitative data shown in Table S3). In general, catalysts subjected to a N₂ pre-treatment gave rise to lower overall CO production with the 2Cu@1TiO₂ sample in particular exhibiting the lowest yield at $\sim 26 \text{ }\mu\text{mol}^*(\text{s}^*\text{g}_{\text{Cu}})^{-1}$. Interestingly, the 1Cu@TiO₂ sample that had undergone an N₂ pre-treatment evinced a very similar CO production to that of the 2Cu@1TiO₂ catalyst which, by contrast, had not experienced any N₂ pre-treatment at all, with measured yields of $\sim 45 \text{ }\mu\text{mol}^*(\text{s}^*\text{g}_{\text{Cu}})^{-1}$. The best performing catalyst, namely the 1Cu@2TiO₂ catalyst with an O₂ treatment, yielded the highest CO production observed within the series of samples we tested, i.e. $\sim 83 \text{ }\mu\text{mol}^*(\text{s}^*\text{g}_{\text{Cu}})^{-1}$. Clearly, the pre-treatment protocol had an effect on the observed activity but did not impact upon the overall durability. Overall, these data suggest that the Cu/TiO₂ NW motif represents a promisingly viable and stable material for thermal catalysis⁴³ in terms of effectively generating CO from CO₂ at high temperatures.

5. Conclusions

A core/shell Cu/TiO₂ motif was successfully synthesized using a novel microwave-based technique, in which the effects of specific experimental parameters such as irradiation time were systematically explored and optimized. As deduced from a series of HRTEM images, it was determined that the TiO₂ shell dimension was primarily altered by changing the corresponding quantity of TBOT precursor used. The chemical composition was verified using a combination

of XRD, XPS, and SEM-EDX results, whereas the observed morphology was ascertained with structural characterization data acquired from both SEM and HRTEM measurements.

As implied earlier, a ‘good’ catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation should be able to efficiently activate both CO₂ and H₂.⁵⁴ However, according to theoretical studies, while the Cu surface can effectively dissociate H₂ under elevated temperatures,⁵⁵ it is not useful in terms of activating CO₂ itself.⁵⁶ By contrast, TiO₂ activates CO₂⁵⁷ but does not dissociate H₂.⁵⁸ Hence, incorporating and combining these two components within one integrated Cu@TiO₂ core-shell structural unit ensures that both reactants are activated, thereby resulting in its much higher observed catalytic activity as compared with either constituent material alone.

In addition, we also systematically analyzed and tracked the structural and chemical evolution of our catalysts before and after the CO₂ reduction experiments. Indeed, we discovered that the core@shell wire motif was essentially maintained and conserved after this high-temperature reaction process, thereby accentuating the thermal stability and physical robustness of our as-prepared hierarchical motifs. Moreover, both of the Cu@TiO₂ samples, regardless of pre-treatment conditions, yielded a much higher catalytic performance as compared with Cu NWs alone, thereby underscoring the significance of the Cu/TiO₂ interface for promoting CO₂ hydrogenation. What is also worth emphasizing is that the 1:2 Cu: Ti molar ratio sample gave rise to appreciably greater quantities of well-defined Cu NPs atop the underlying core@shell motif, an observation which apparently correlated with CO₂ reduction activity. In effect, this sample generated increased catalytic activity relative to the 2:1 Cu: Ti molar ratio sample under identical reaction conditions. Finally, samples prepared without any prior N₂ annealing gave rise to improved activity readings as compared with their N₂ annealed counterparts. This finding could be ascribed to the formation and preponderance of active Cu sites in the guise of discrete

metallic islands immobilized on the external surfaces of the underlying core-shell motifs.

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7. Supporting Information. Structural characterization data of as-prepared core-shell nanomaterials, involving changes in reaction parameters such as precursor, reaction time, and methodology of precursor addition; additional SEM-EDS measurements with quantitative analysis; TEM images of core-shell samples subjected to different pre-treatment and processing conditions; complementary XANES characterization of additional samples studied; catalytic activity results; and associated data tables (including comparison with prior literature studies).

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. (A) XRD pattern of the Cu@TiO₂ core/shell structure (black), referenced to the standard JCPDS database #03-1018 (red). (B) SEM and (C-D) HRTEM images highlighting the TiO₂ coating onto the underlying Cu NWs, generated using a microwave method. The analyzed sample was prepared by heating a 1 Cu: 2 Ti molar ratio solution to 150°C for 30 minutes. The anatase TiO₂ *d*-spacing for the (101) plane has been correspondingly indexed.

Figure 2. Example of (A) an EDX elemental spectrum and its corresponding (B) SEM image, wherein the black box highlights the area in which the EDX data were acquired of as-prepared Cu/TiO₂ core/shell architectures, shown in Figure 1 (i.e., the 1Cu@2TiO₂ sample). Both of the expected Cu and Ti elemental signals appear to be present within the images.

Figure 3. SEM and HRTEM images associated with various TiO₂ shell sizes within a series of Cu@TiO₂ architecture, in which the TBOT amount was systematically varied from (A, D, G, J) 0.05 mL TBOT, (B, E, H, K) 0.025 mL TBOT, to (C, F, I, L) 0.0125 mL TBOT. The purple bracket highlights the TiO₂ ‘shell’, whereas the red bracket delineates the Cu ‘core’.

Figure 4. Correlating the resulting titania shell size with the initial Ti precursor amounts used.

Figure 5. TEM images of Cu@TiO₂ core@shell motifs, possessing (A, C, E, G) a 2: 1 molar ratio and (B, D, F, H) a 1: 2 Cu: Ti molar ratio, respectively. Samples were observed after (A, B) N₂ treatment, (C, D) an O₂ treatment, and (E, F) a H₂ treatment, respectively. Samples were also analyzed (G, H) after the CO₂ reaction process itself.

Figure 6. (A) Normalized catalytic activity (in $\mu\text{mol}^{*}(\text{s}^{*}\text{g}_{\text{Cu}})^{-1}$) for Cu@TiO₂ samples in the presence of N₂ annealing coupled with data associated with the corresponding Cu NW controls. (B) Corresponding XANES data obtained under different pre-treatment conditions: the pristine 1Cu@2TiO₂ sample (black), sample annealed in N₂ at 450°C (red), followed by treatment with

O_2 at $350^\circ C$ (10 vol % of O_2 / N_2 for 1 hour) (blue), with subsequent processing in H_2 at $450^\circ C$ (10 vol % of H_2 / N_2 at $450^\circ C$ for 1 hour) (green).

Figure 7. Prior to the CO_2 hydrogenation reaction. (A and B) TEM images, (C) HRTEM image, and (D-G) HRTEM-EDAX spectra of $Cu@TiO_2$ core@shell motifs, characterized by a 1:2 Cu: Ti molar ratio, after heat treatment but without any N_2 annealing. Elemental distributions of (E) Cu, (F) O, and (G) Ti elements are shown with an overlay of these signals presented in (D). Scale bars for HRTEM images are set to 250 nm.

Figure 8. After the CO_2 hydrogenation reaction. (A and B) TEM images, (C) HRTEM image, and (D-G) HRTEM-EDAX spectra of $Cu@TiO_2$ core@shell motifs, characterized by a 1:2 Cu: Ti molar ratio, after heat treatment but without any N_2 annealing. Elemental distributions of (E) Cu, (F) O, and (G) Ti elements are shown with an overlay of these signals presented in (D). Scale bars for HRTEM images are set to 250 nm.

Figure 9. (A) Normalized catalytic activity (in $\mu\text{mol}^*(\text{s}^*\text{g}_{Cu})^{-1}$) for $Cu@TiO_2$ samples in the absence of any N_2 annealing coupled with data associated with the corresponding Cu NW controls. (B) Corresponding XANES data taken under different pre-treatment conditions: pristine $1Cu@2TiO_2$ sample (black), followed by processing with O_2 at $350^\circ C$ (10 vol % of O_2 / N_2 for 1 hour) (red), with a subsequent treatment in H_2 at $450^\circ C$ (10 vol % of H_2 / N_2 at $450^\circ C$ for 1 hour) (blue).

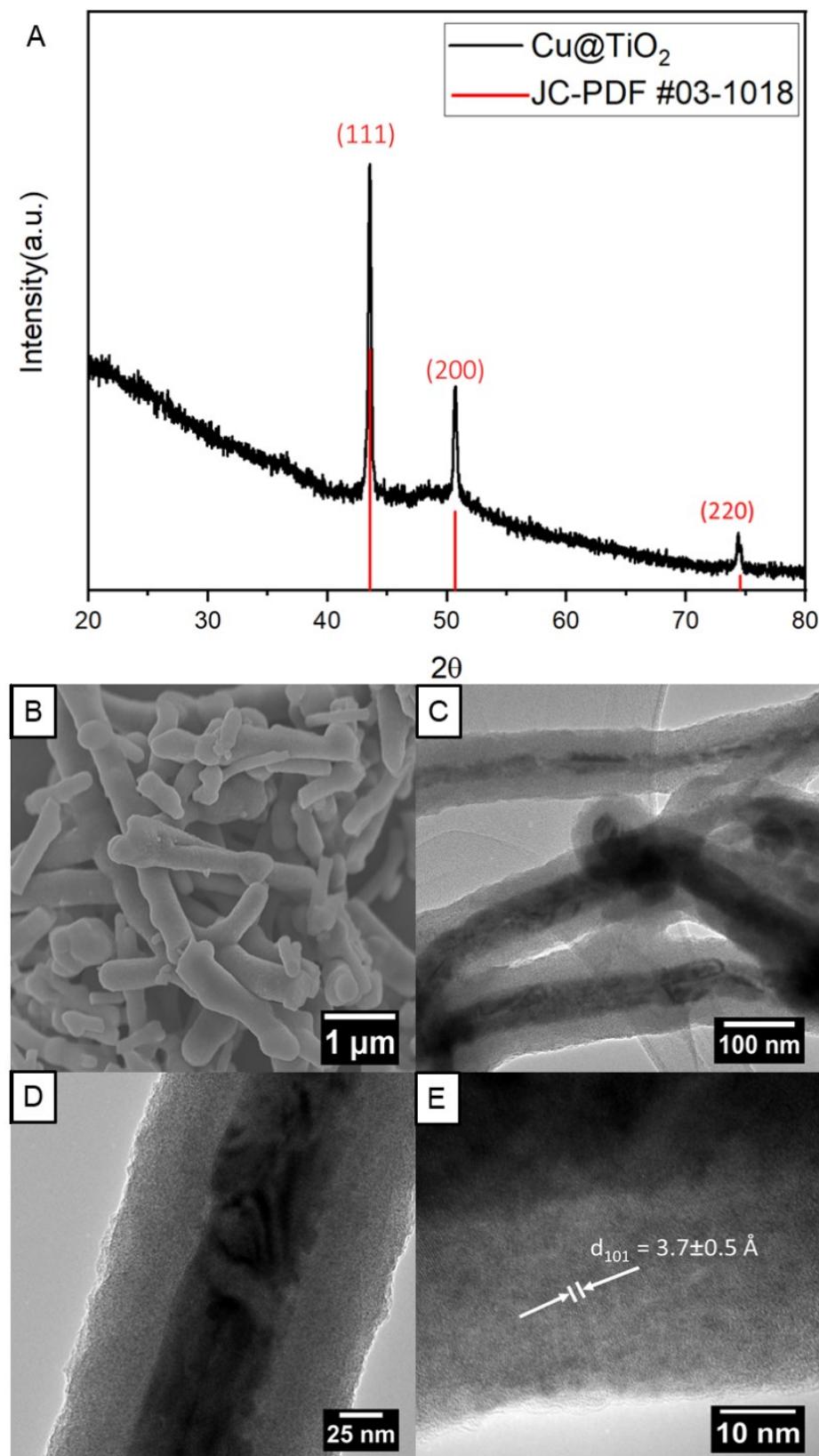


Figure 1.

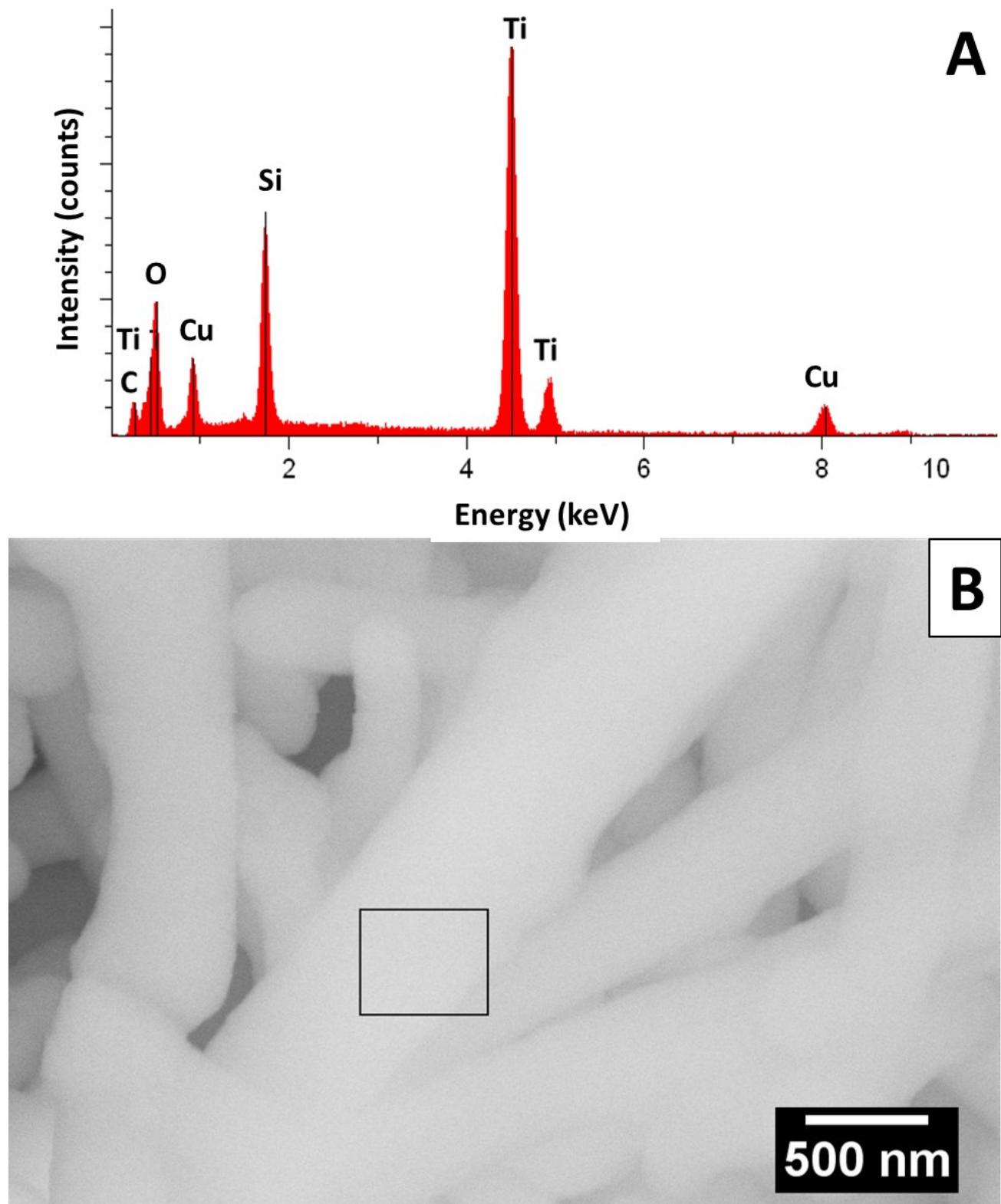


Figure 2.

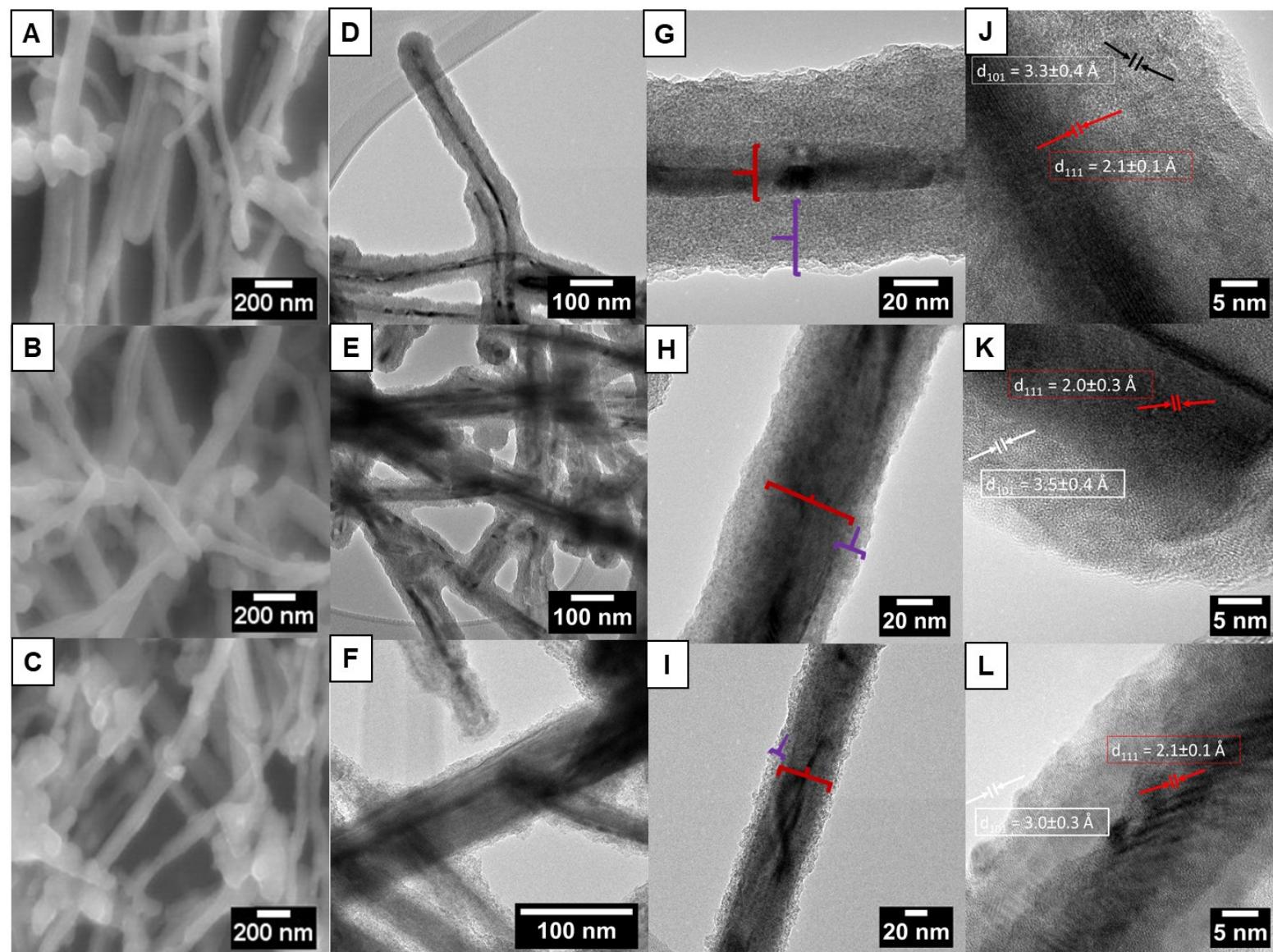


Figure 3.

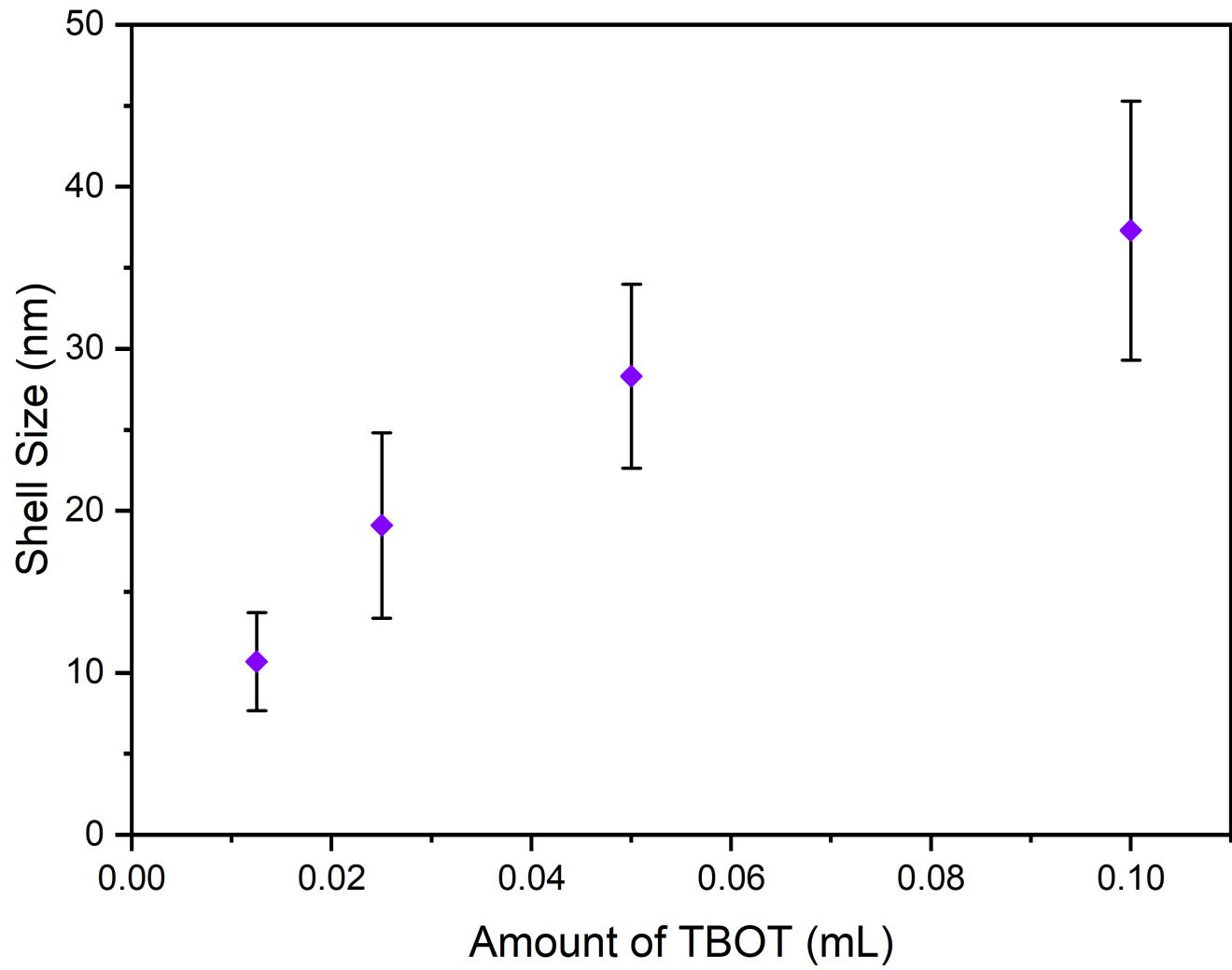


Figure 4.

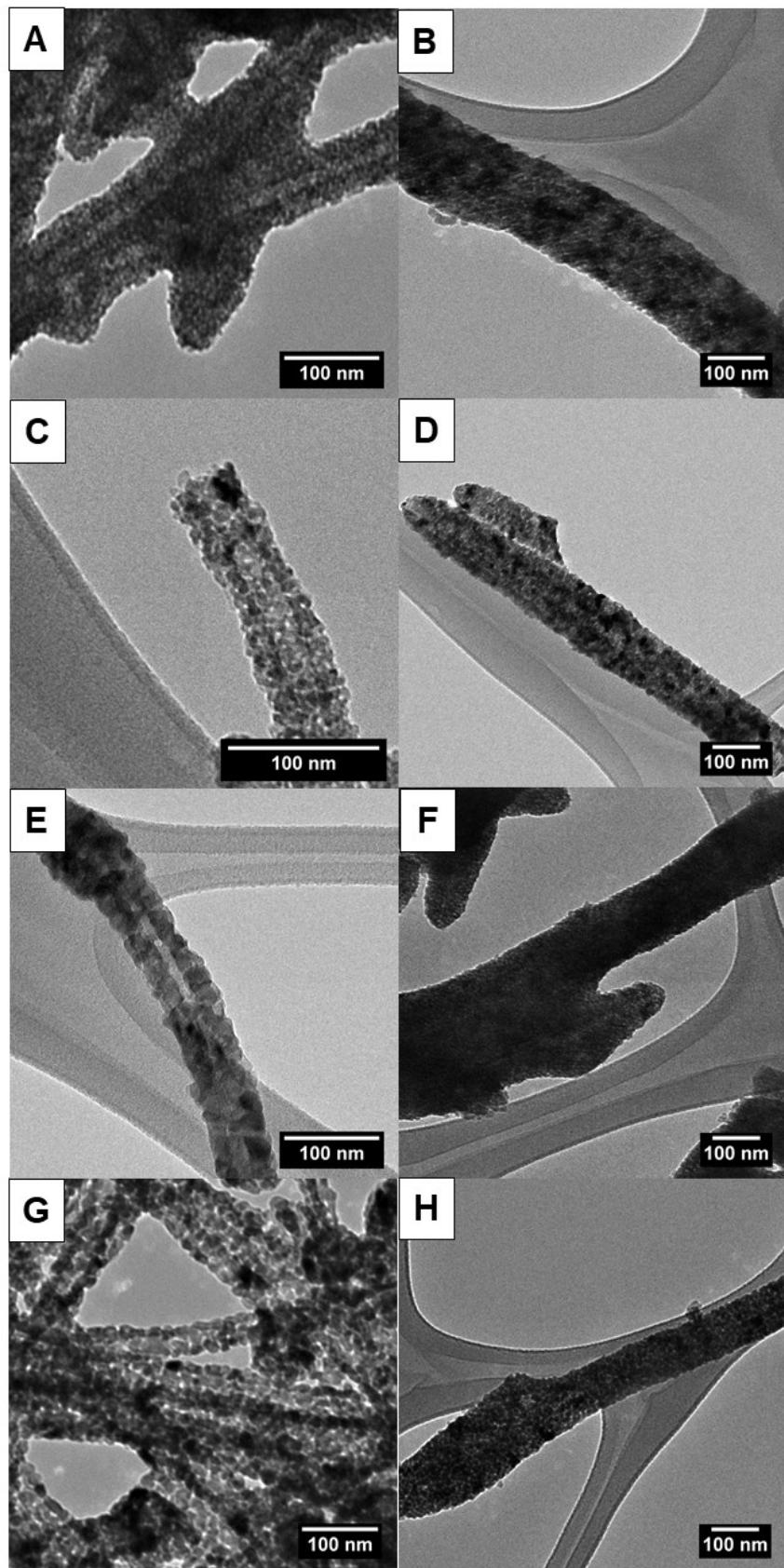


Figure 5.

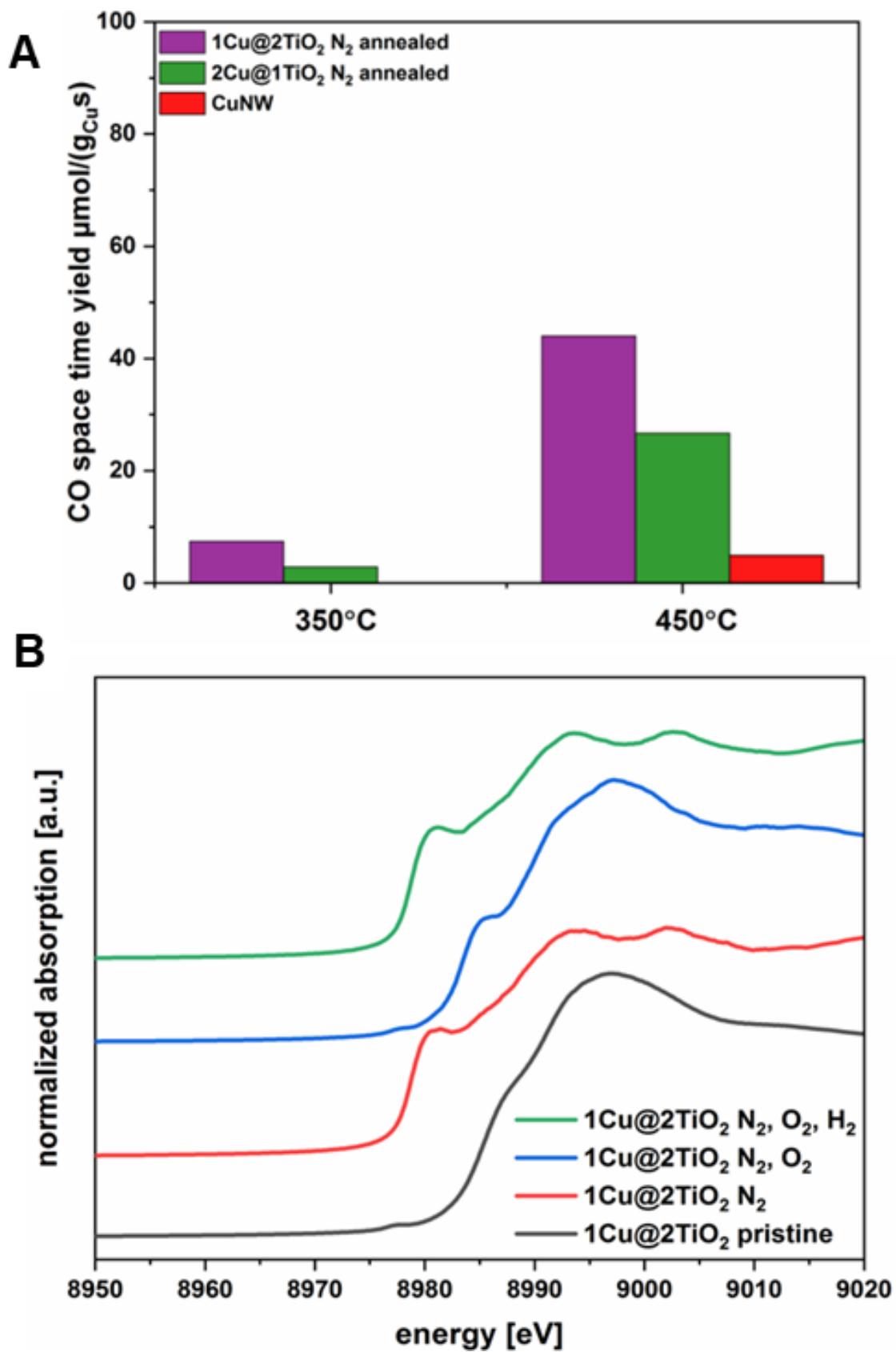


Figure 6.

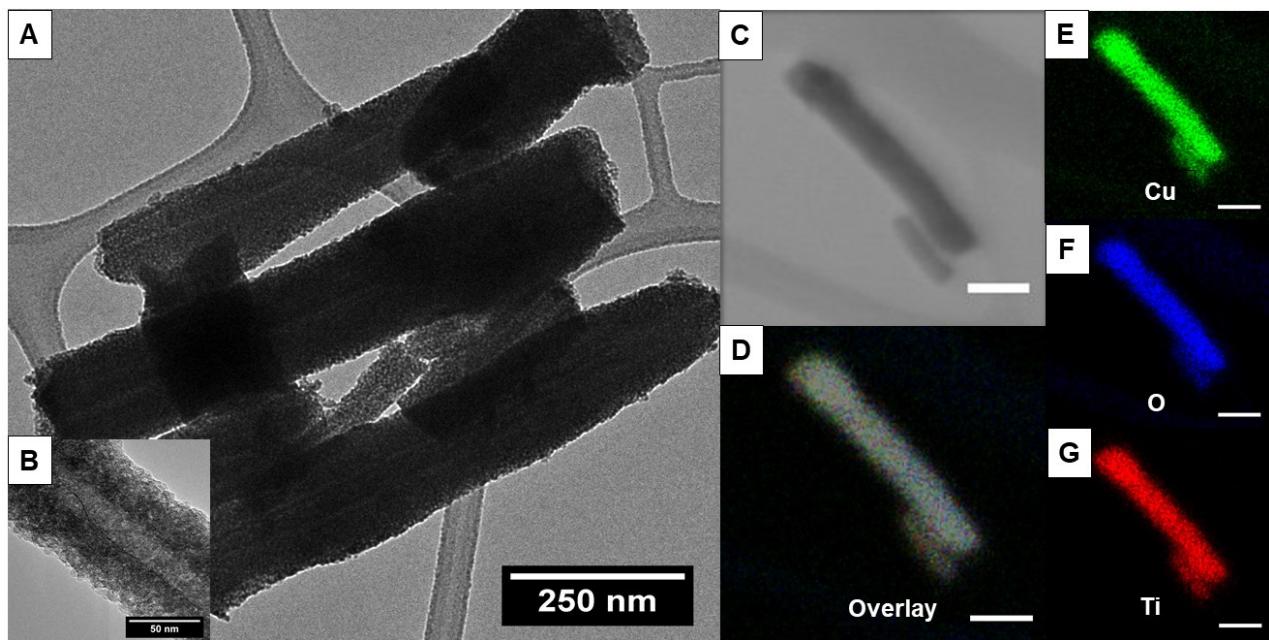


Figure 7.

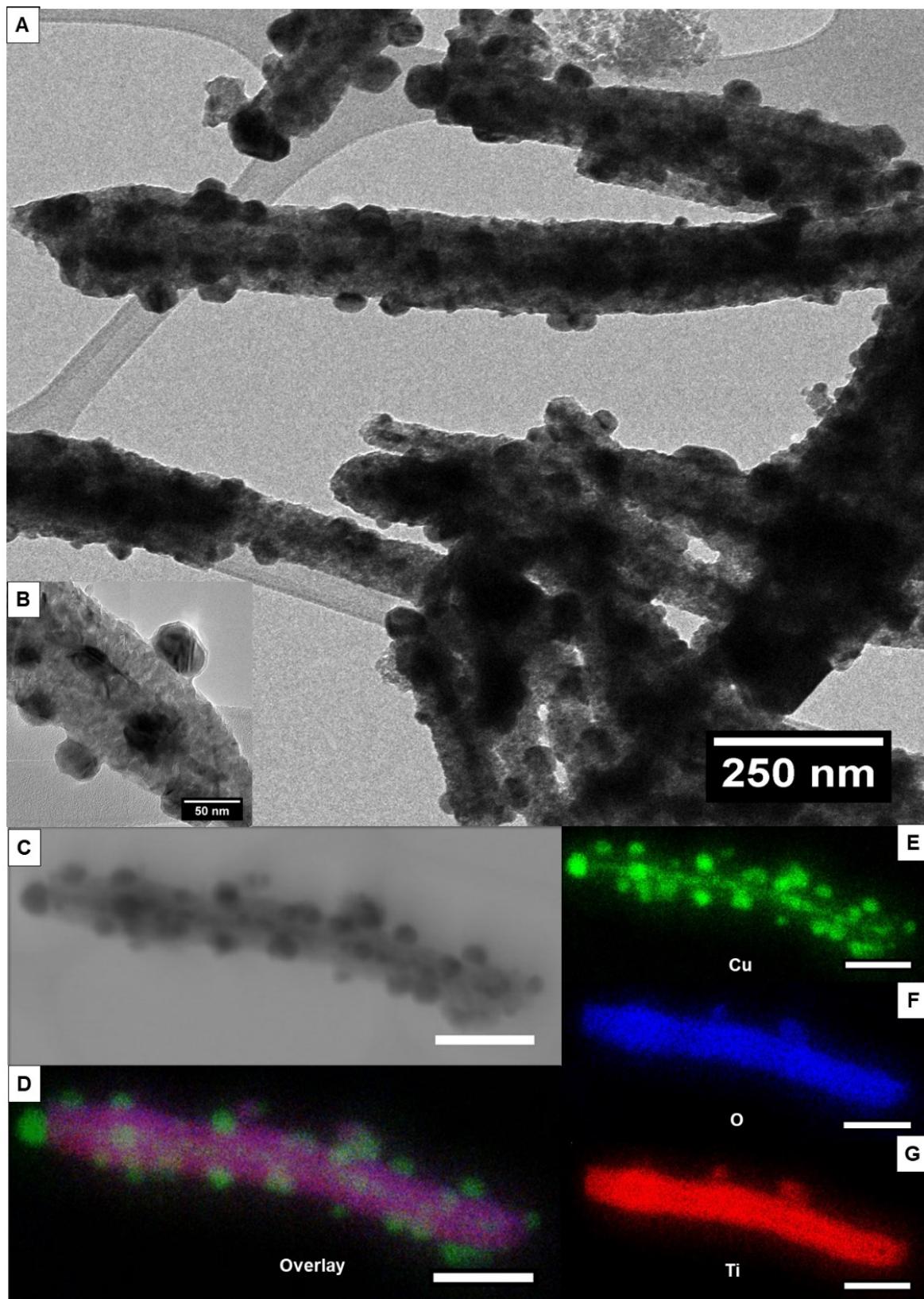


Figure 8.

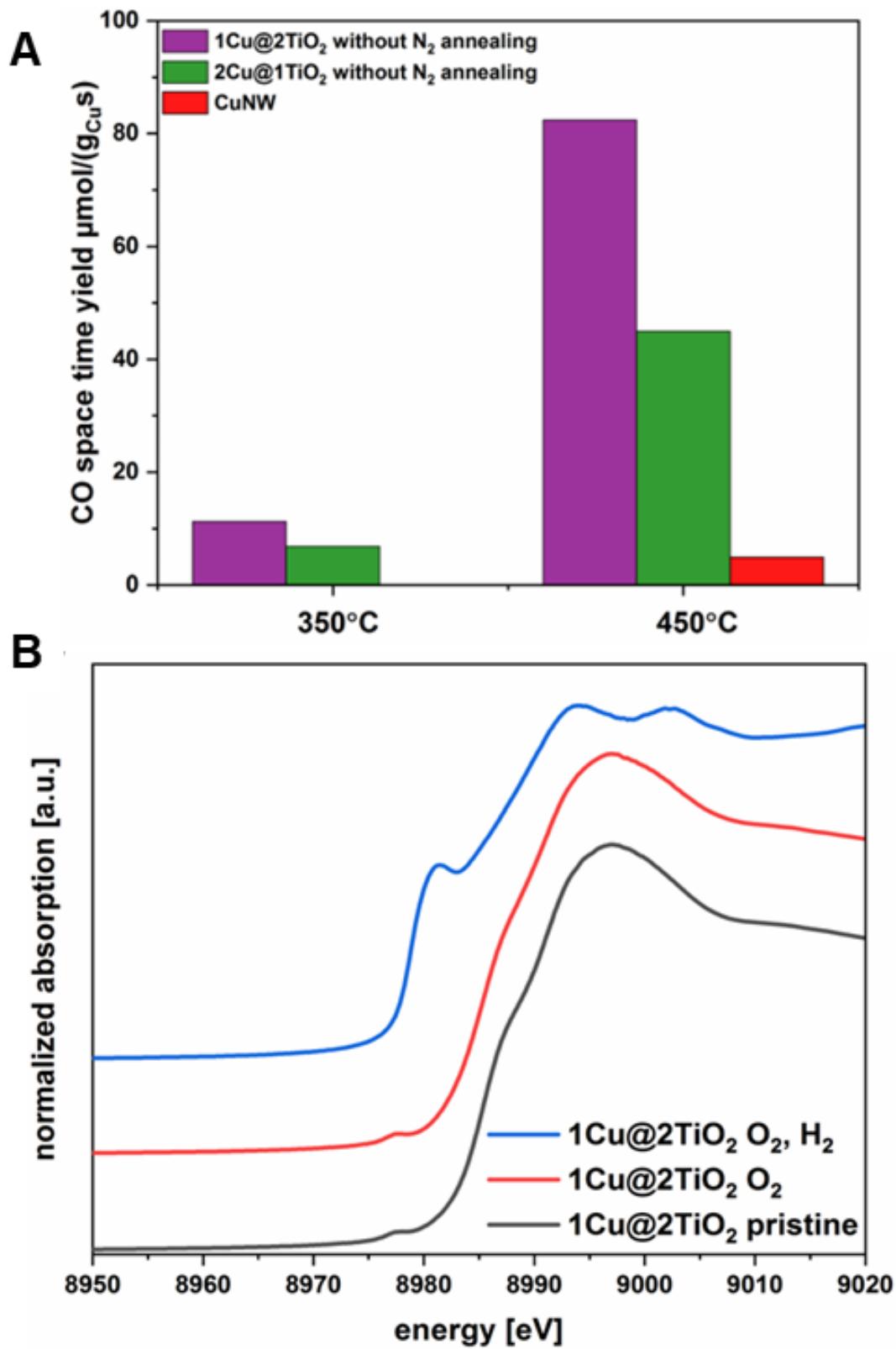


Figure 9.

Table 1. Summary of Quantitative Results derived from TEM and HRTEM Images.

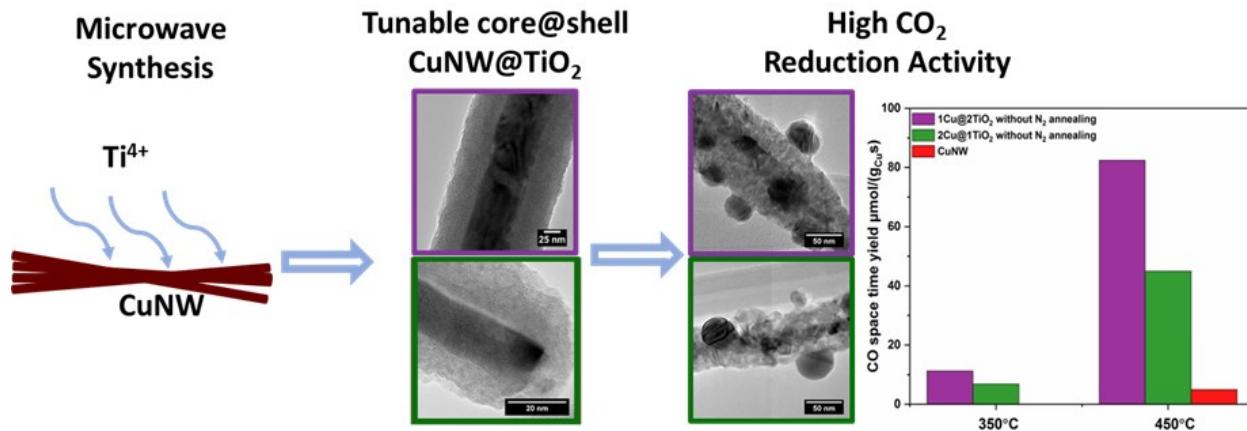
TBOT Amount (mL)	Molar Ratio of Cu: Ti	Measured Shell Radius (nm)	Cu d_{111} (Å)	TiO ₂ d_{101} (Å)
0.1	1: 2	37.3 ± 8.0	N/A	3.7 ± 0.5
0.05	1: 1	28.3 ± 5.7	2.1 ± 0.1	3.3 ± 0.4
0.025	2: 1	19.1 ± 5.7	2.0 ± 0.3	3.5 ± 0.4
0.0125	4: 1	10.7 ± 3.0	2.1 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.3

Table 2. Summary of Quantitative Results Obtained from TEM and HRTEM Images.

Molar Ratio Cu: Ti	Initial Radius (nm)	Radius After N ₂ Treatment (nm)	Radius After N ₂ Followed by O ₂ Treatment (nm)	Radius After N ₂ Then by O ₂ Then H ₂ Treatments (nm)	Radius After N ₂ Then by O ₂ Then H ₂ Treatments After Reaction (nm)	Radius After O ₂ Treatment (nm)	Radius After O ₂ Then by H ₂ Treatments (nm)	Radius After O ₂ Then by H ₂ Treatments After Reaction (nm)
1: 2	37.3 ± 8.0	39.1 ± 6.9	39.6 ± 11.6	39.3 ± 6.3	37.8 ± 9.2	48.5 ± 6.3	49.8 ± 11.1	34.1 ± 2.1
2: 1	19.1 ± 5.7	26.8 ± 7.4	26.3 ± 6.5	22.3 ± 7.7	15.8 ± 3.7	18.7 ± 4.7	20.6 ± 3.3	18.6 ± 3.2

Table 3. Catalytic activity values for CO₂ Reduction in $\mu\text{mol}/(\text{g}_{\text{CuS}})$.

With N ₂ annealing	1Cu@2TiO ₂	2Cu@1TiO ₂	Cu NW
350°C	7.4	2.8	0
450°C	44	27	4.9
Without N ₂ annealing	1Cu@2TiO ₂	2Cu@1TiO ₂	Cu NW
350C	11	6.8	0
450C	82	45	4.9



TOC Figure. Microwave process used to form tunable Cu@TiO₂ nanowire core@shell motifs for enhanced CO₂ reduction performance.