# Direct synthesis of sodium doped Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO nanocomposites for catalytic hydrogen production from NaBH<sub>4</sub>

Khulaif Alshammari<sup>1\*</sup>, Sultan Alhassan<sup>1</sup>, Alhulw H. Alshammari<sup>1,</sup> Turki Alotaibi<sup>1</sup>, Majed Alshammari<sup>1</sup>, T. A. Taha<sup>1</sup>, Satam Alotibi<sup>2</sup> and Mohamed Henini<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Physics department, College of Science, Jouf University, P.O. Box:2014, Sakaka, Saudi Arabia
<sup>2</sup>Department of Physics, College of Science and Humanities in Al-Kharj, Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz
<u>University, Al-Kharj 11942, Saudi Arabia</u>
<sup>3</sup>School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2RD, UK

\*Correspondence: Email address; knnalshammari@ju.edu.sa

## Abstract

In this work, Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO doped Na nanocomposites were prepared via sol-gel auto-combustion procedure. The material structure was analysed using X-ray diffraction (XRD), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and environmental scanning electron microscopy (ESEM). The crystal structure of the Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites was found to be cubic as evidenced by XRD patterns. The complexing of copper oxide and GO was confirmed by FTIR and Raman spectroscopy. ESEM micrographs showed that Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanoparticles are integrated into GO nanosheets. The surface area of these nanocomposites decreased from 122 to 59 m<sup>2</sup>/g. The optical energy gap was found to decrease from 2.14 to 1.72 eV with increasing sodium content. The addition of sodium to Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO nanocomposites accelerated the hydrogen evolution from NaBH<sub>4</sub>. The maximum rate of hydrogen (10981 mL/g.min) was achieved for the Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposite sample. These findings confirm that the prepared nanocomposites could be used as efficient hydrogen catalysts.

Keywords: Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO nanocomposites; Energy gap; Hydrogen gas; NaBH<sub>4</sub>

# **1. Introduction**

The accumulated global warming problem has stimulated the provision of alternative energy sources. Renewable energy sources, which are abundant all around us, are replenished by the sun, wind, water, waste, and Earth's heat. However, hydrogen energy has recently attracted attention as a good alternative. Hydrogen is the most abundant chemical element in the universe. The combustion of hydrogen will not cause harmful emissions to the environment [1]. Many industrial bodies are seeking to produce large quantities of hydrogen. Catalysts are used to increase the production of hydrogen from water as well as from metal hydrides. There have been many attempts to produce cheap and high-efficiency catalysts. Metal oxides represent a good alternative because of their low cost, ease of preparation, and wide range of applications [2-5]. In addition, metal oxides combined with carbon nanomaterials possess high electrical conductivity and improved optical properties [5]. One of the most important forms of carbon is graphene, which forms a two-dimensional carbon sheet with strong covalent bonds between each carbon atom [6-8]. Graphene has a large surface area with promising optical and mechanical properties suitable for a wide range of applications [9]. However, it has been shown that graphene suffers from thermodynamic limitations. For this reason, great efforts have been made to oxidize graphene to eliminate these defects. Graphene oxide (GO) contains oxygen functional groups, such as hydroxyl, carboxyl, and carbonyl [10]. The presence of these functional groups contributes to the binding of graphene to the nano-metal oxides [11]. Previous studies demonstrated that metal oxide/GO composites can achieve high performance in catalyst and energy storage applications [12,13].

Copper oxide (Cu<sub>2</sub>O) has a cubic crystal structure and shows improved optical and electrical properties when the dimensions are reduced to nano sizes [14]. Furthermore, Cu<sub>2</sub>O has an energy gap of 2.17 eV which qualifies it for many applications such as photovoltaics, optoelectronics, and photocatalysis [15-16]. Moreover, Cu<sub>2</sub>O shows high corrosion resistance and high thermal and mechanical stability in various media [17].

The use of catalysts for hydrogen production has attracted great interest, especially sodium borohydride (NaBH<sub>4</sub>) catalysis reactions. The importance of NaBH<sub>4</sub> is due to its high stability in fuel cells. Interestingly, sodium represents a safe material for hydrogen storage. The

decomposition of NaBH<sub>4</sub> in methanol is a recyclable method unlike hydrolysis in water. These reactions produce hydrogen gas and a byproduct of sodium metaborate (NaBO<sub>2</sub>). If methanol is used, it can be recycled, and the byproduct compounds can be easily removed. Further, methanol provides spontaneous hydrogen production at a low reaction temperature. Methanol, among the various alcohols, allows the generation of high density H<sub>2</sub> gas [18].

Previous work showed variations in the performance of metal oxide catalysts for hydrogen production. Ni/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst material, which was prepared by sol-gel method, achieved a H<sub>2</sub> generation rate of 110.87 mL/g.min [19]. Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> microcubes catalysts, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanorods, Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanofoams and FeCuCo matrials produced a production rate of 1497 mL/g.min [20], 1776 mL/g.min [21], 1930 mL/g.min [22], and 1380 mL/g.min [23], respectively. Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>/MWCNT (multi-walled carbon nanotubes) composite was employed as a catalyst for NaBH<sub>4</sub> hydrogenation and showed a production rate of 1368 mL in 140 min [24].

The current work has two objectives, namely, to prepare  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanocomposites in a direct way, and to use the compounds to achieve an efficient catalyst for hydrogen production. These nanocomposites, which were prepared by using the sol-gel supported gelatin fuel method, were analysed using XRD, FTIR and ESEM techniques. To determine the surface properties of these nanocomposites, the surface area and pore size were obtained. The measurements of optical absorption at the band gap were completed on UV-Vis spectrophotometer. Finally, the methanolysis reactions of NaBH<sub>4</sub> were performed using the  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanocomposite catalyst effect.

#### 2. Experimental

Analar grades of copper nitrate trihydrate, sodium nitrate and gelatin powders were used for the preparation of Cu<sub>2-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanocomposites. The auto-combustion process was performed at 260 °C. The mass of gelatine is 50% of metal nitrates masses. The specific masses of metal nitrates were dissolved in 25 mL of distilled water separately. Thereafter, the solutions were added to the gelatin solution with continuous mixing for 120 min at a temperature of 80 °C. The precursor solution was then transferred to an electric oven operating at 260 °C. The evaporation of water started until the formation of a hydrogel. Finally, the auto-combustion process was started, and gases were released with the formation of nanocomposites.

One of the most important instruments for determining the crystalline structures and phase composition of materials is XRD. XRD pattern of the solid powder was analysed by Shimadzu

XRD 700 with  $Cu_{K\alpha}$  radiation and wavelength of 1.54056 Å. The diffraction data were matched to the diffraction pattern from the Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standard (JCPDS) to identify the Miller indices and crystal structure. The main objective of investigating the FTIR spectrum is to detect chemical bondings and interactions inside the materials. Attenuated total reflection (ATR) spectroscopy was performed with Shimadzu spectrometer FTIR-100 Tracer with scanning spectra recorded in the range of 400 to 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The data of Raman spectra for the prepared nanostructures were recorded on a SENTERRA II Brucker Compact Raman Microscope. The laser wavelength was operated at 532 nm. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data of the catalysts were collected on (XPS; Thermo scientific K-alpha XPS spectrometer, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). The source was a monochromic Al ka with a characteristic energy of 1486.6 eV. Scanning electron microscopy images were taken using a Thermofisher Quattro ESEM. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was used in conjunction with ESEM to determine the elemental composition of the samples. The nitrogen isotherm loops for Cu<sub>2-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanocomposites were acquired from NOVA 4200e surface area and pore size analyzer. To release the trapped moisture molecules, the samples were degassed at 100 °C for 24 h. Thermo Scientific Evolution 300 UV-Vis spectrometer, which operates in the range of 200 to 1000 nm, was used to record the absorption spectra of nanocomposites. The powder of samples was dispersed in methanol via sonication for 30 min.

The hydrogen catalytic evaluation for the  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanocomposites was done at 293 K. The initial step includes mixing of 20 mg of the catalyst with 0.25 g of NaBH<sub>4</sub>. Next, the mixture was inserted rapidly into a volumetric flask. Meanwhile, 10 mL of methanol was added to the mixture and the flask closed with glass stopper. At the same time, the stopwatch was started to record the time for the production of different volumes of hydrogen gas. The water displacement method was used to measure the volume of hydrogen gas.

# 3. Results and discussion

The XRD diffraction patterns of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO shown in Fig. 1 clearly display strong peaks at scattering angles (2 $\theta$ ) values of 29.6°, 36.5°, 42.6°, 61.4°, 73.81° and 77.4°, which correspond to scattering from the crystal planes (110), (111), (200), (220), (311) and (222) of the face-centred cubic cuprous oxide, respectively, according to JCPDS card No.05-0667 [25]. The two additional peaks at 2 $\theta$  =43.39 and 50.4 are evidence of the presence of metallic Cu [26]. The intensity of these two peaks decreased after the addition of sodium. Moreover, the peak located at 38.6° with reflection (200) is assigned to CuO

orthorhombic crystal structure [27]. The average crystallite sizes of  $Cu_2O$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O$  nanoparticles were determined using Debye–Scherrer formula [28-30] as given by equation 1.

$$D = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cos\theta} \tag{1}$$

where D is the normal grain size of a crystallite,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of X-ray and is equal to (1.5406 Å) for Cu K $\alpha_1$ , and  $\beta$  is the full width at half maximum which can be obtained from the X-ray spectra. The average crystallite size of all samples was found to be 9 nm.

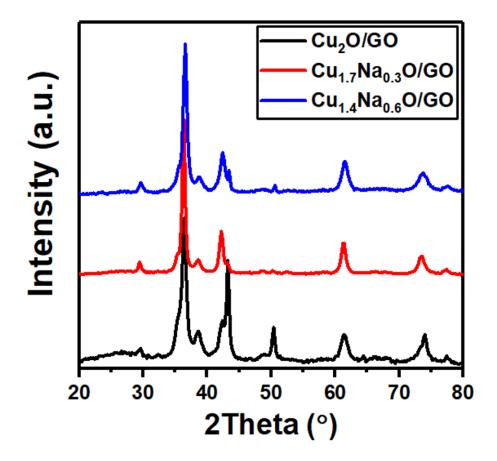


Fig. 1: XRD diffraction patterns of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanostructures.

Fig.2 displays the transmittance (or absorption) as function of wavenumber of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO, and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanostructures as obtained by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). The absorption bands at 484, 611, and 760 cm<sup>-1</sup> are associated with the stretching vibration of the Cu–O in Cu<sub>2</sub>O crystals [31]. The weak band absorption at 1128 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to C–C stretching vibration and O–H bending vibration [32]. The bands at 1314 and 1474 cm<sup>-1</sup> weren't previously observed in the Cu<sub>2</sub>O standard IR spectrum. Hence, these bands could be a result of the combustion of gelatin producing graphite oxide stretching [33].

Moreover, after adding Na<sup>+</sup> to Cu<sub>2</sub>O, these two bands interfered resulting in a reduction in graphite oxides [34]. The intense peak at around 1395 cm<sup>-1</sup> is assigned to the deformation vibration of the C-H band. The small band at around 2365 cm<sup>-1</sup> is attributed to O=C=O stretching vibration [35]. The broad absorption band between 2505 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3655 cm<sup>-1</sup> correlates to hydroxyl (OH) functional groups [36]. For the samples Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO, two absorption bands located at 835 and 879 cm<sup>-1</sup> are observed that comes due to stretching vibrations of Na–Cu–O as reported in the literature [37].

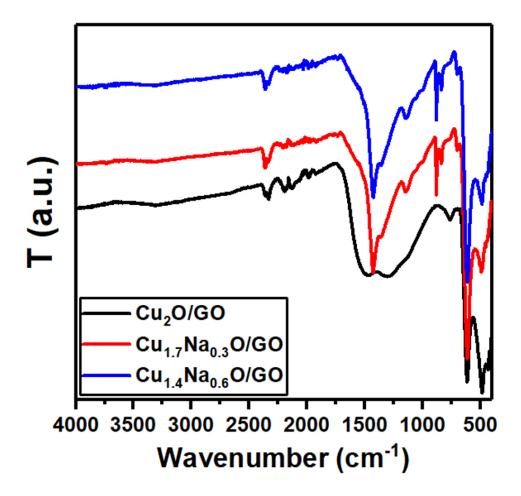


Fig. 2: FTIR spectra of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanostructures.

The hydroxyl and carboxyl groups produce negatively charged GO. During the growth process, positively charged copper ions would then interact with negatively charged GO. The electrostatic interaction generates these attractions. The procedure continued with the growth

of Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanoparticles on the two-dimensional GO nanosheets during the combustion process. After the inclusion of sodium, the GO nanosheets become reduced to thick layers.

A common approach for describing the structural and other crucial characteristics of graphene, such as disorder and defect structures, is Raman spectroscopy. The data of Raman spectra of the Cu<sub>2-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanostructures are plotted in Fig. 3. The band observed at 622 cm-1 is assigned to the infrared allowed mode  $\Gamma^{(2)}_{15-}$  (TO) for Cu<sub>2</sub>O [38]. The D band of GO is detected at 1300 cm<sup>-1</sup> [39]. The increase of sodium content (0.3-0.6) resulted in a shift to lower wavenumber of 1154 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Therefore, the GO sheets are reduced as explained in the literature [40]. Moreover, the position of 2D band of GO is observed at 2805 cm<sup>-1</sup> [41] and shifted to 2751 cm<sup>-1</sup> at 0.6% of sodium content. All these findings confirm the reduction of GO after the addition of sodium. The strong band located at 2030 cm<sup>-1</sup> comes due to carbonyl and carboxylic groups have a C=O stretching vibration [42]. Further, this band recognize the formation of GO sheets.

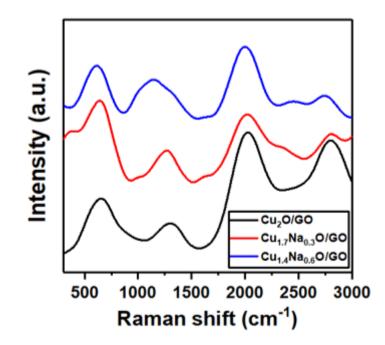


Fig. 3 Raman spectra of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanostructures.

The XPS method was used to investigate the specific surface composition of  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanostructures. The wide-range XPS spectra of the  $Cu_2O/GO$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  samples are depicted in Fig. 4 and reveals Cu 2p, O 1s, C 1s, Cu 3s, and Na 1s. The peak of C 1s located at 287.08 eV is assigned to C=O and thus confirm the formation of GO in all the samples. This peak shifted to 289.08 at 0.6% of sodium content and thus indicate that graphene oxide was reduced to rGO [43]. Between 570 and 721 eV, an Auger Cu

LMM triplet was found, which indicates energy levels of the Cu Auger process. These Auger peaks correspond to Cu<sub>2</sub>O [44]. For the samples Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO the Na 1s peak was observed at 1075.08 eV that confirm the presence of sodium content [45]. Moreover, an Auger peak for Na was detected at 500.08 eV that agree with the literature [46].

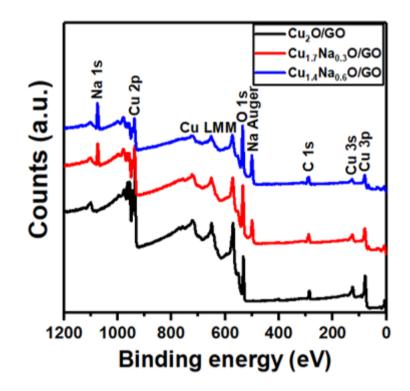


Fig. 4 XPS survey spectra of Cu<sub>2-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanostructures

The high-resolution Cu 2p spectra for all the samples are shown in Fig. 5a. Two main peaks, Cu  $2p^{3/2}$  and Cu  $2p^{1/2}$ , as well as two satellite peaks can be seen in all the Cu 2p spectra. The positions of Cu  $2p^{3/2}$  and Cu  $2p^{1/2}$  peaks are 935.78 and 955.48 eV for the Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO sample. After the addition of 0.6% sodium content, the positions of these two peaks shifted to 938.08 and 957.88 eV. These peaks correspond to the Cu<sup>2+</sup> state (CuO) [47]. The binding energy separation between these two peaks is 19.7 eV. The presence of an empty Cu 3d shell corresponding to Cu(II) species at the Cu<sub>2</sub>O surface is confirmed by satellite peaks with binding energies of 943.88 and 968.32 eV [48]. The high-resolution peaks of O 1s for all the samples are shown in Fig. 5b. The binding energies at 532.08 and 535.08 eV in the O 1 s spectra were ascribed to dissociated oxygen species and OH groups [49].

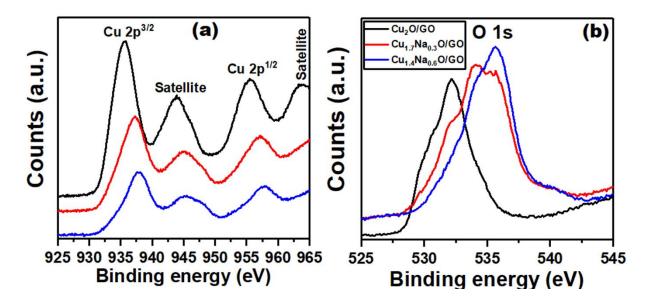


Fig. 5 XPS plots of (a) Cu 2p and (b) O 1s for Cu<sub>2-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanostructures

A high-resolution environmental scanning electron microscope (ESEM) was used to examine the surface characteristics and morphology of  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanostructures. The ESEM images of  $Cu_2O/GO$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanocomposites are shown in Fig. 6 (a-c). On a large scale, these images clearly reveal that nanoscale  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO$  crystals are evenly integrated into GO. Moreover, the increase of sodium content allowed reducing GO to form two-dimensional (2D) stack layers. This result indicates a decrease of the surface area as the percentage of sodium increases. Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was used to determine the elemental composition of  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanocomposite as shown in Fig. 6 (d). The stoichiometric ratios of copper, oxygen, sodium and carbon are shown in the inset of Fig. 6 (d). Moreover, the EDX data of individual elements are listed in Table 1 and confirm the presence of all the elements of the  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanostructures.

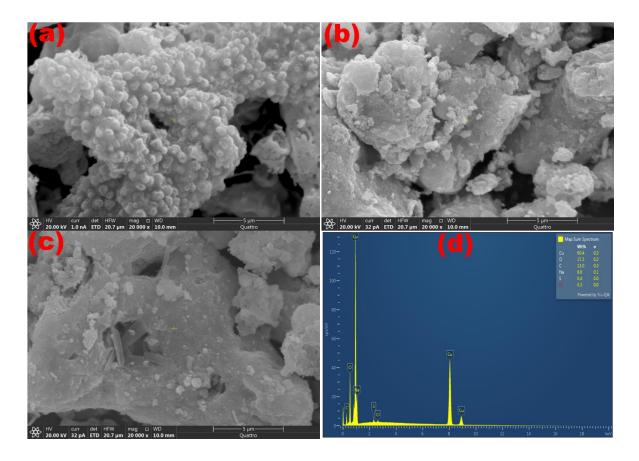


Fig. 6: ESEM scans of (a)  $Cu_2O/GO$ , (b)  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$ , (c)  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  and (d) EDX data for  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanostructures.

Table 1 Weight % obtained from EDX analysis of elements present at the surface of  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanostructures

Sample	Cu (wt%)	O (wt%)	Na (wt%)	C (wt%)
Cu <sub>2</sub> O/GO	50.3	14.5	-	34.5
Cu <sub>1.7</sub> Na <sub>0.3</sub> O/GO	55.4	16.6	4.2	23.4
Cu <sub>1.4</sub> Na <sub>0.6</sub> O/GO	60.4	17.3	8.6	13.0

Fig. 7 (a) depicts the BET surface area analyses for  $Cu_2O/GO$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanocomposites based on low temperature nitrogen adsorption isotherm. The  $Cu_{2-x}Na_xO/GO$  nanocomposites produced demonstrate a characteristic hysteresis loop that may be attributed to type-IV isotherm. The values of BET surface area are 122, 63 and 59 m<sup>2</sup>/g for  $Cu_2O/GO$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanocomposites, respectively. The incorporation of sodium into  $Cu_2O/GO$  nanocomposite reduced the surface area of the samples.

The BJH data showed pore size values of 2.32, 1.76 and 1.88 nm for Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites, respectively. The prepared samples showed a porous structure as a result of releasing gases during the combustion process [50]. Broad mesopores spread between 4 and 8 nm, which provide more active sites, are seen to display hierarchical pore structure in the pore size distribution (Fig. 7 (b)).

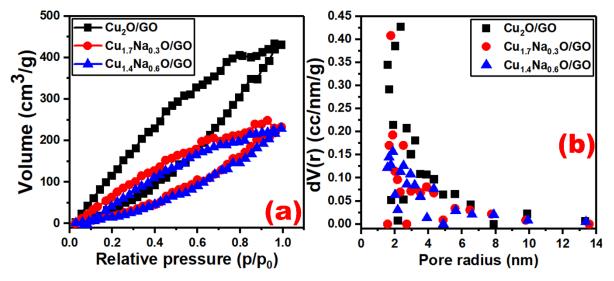


Fig. 7: Plots (a) nitrogen isotherms and (b) pore size distribution data of  $Cu_2O/GO$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanostructures.

One of the key characteristics that is crucial to understanding the energy structures and uses of photocatalysis is the performance of optical absorption. A UV-Vis spectrometer was used to evaluate the absorption spectra of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites as shown Fig. 8 (a). The spectra of nanocomposites showed a redshift of the optical absorption edge with increasing the content of sodium. The broad absorption band around 450 nm is assigned to the intrinsic bandgap absorption [51]. Therefore, the optical energy bandgaps (E<sub>g</sub>) could be estimated from the Tauc method as expressed by equation 2 for direct allowed transitions [52-54].

$$\alpha hv = B(hv - E_a)^{0.5} \tag{2}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient, h represents Plank's constant, v is the frequency of incident light and B is a constant. The Tauc plots of  $(\alpha hv)^2$  versus photon energy (hv) of the nanocomposites are shown in Fig. 8(b). The extrapolation of straight lines at  $(\alpha hv)^2 = 0$  determine the values of Eg. The corresponding energy bandgaps are 2.14 eV, 2.0 eV and 1.72 eV for Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites, respectively. The

decrease of the optical energy bandgap is due to the formation of new energy levels in the forbidden bandgap [55].

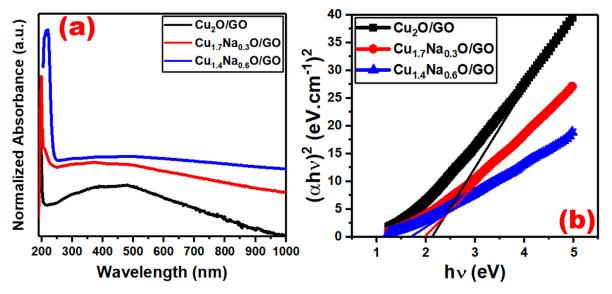


Fig. 8: Plots (a) absorbance against wavelength and (b)  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  versus photon energy for Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanostructures.

Cu<sub>1-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanocomposites are thought to be an effective catalyst for hydrogen generation from sodium borohydride (NaBH<sub>4</sub>). The self-hydrolysis of NaBH<sub>4</sub> produces stable solutions that evolve limited amounts of hydrogen. In comparison to water, methanol is a light alcohol and possesses high reactivity for NaBH<sub>4</sub> hydrolysis to produce H<sub>2</sub> gas. Furthermore, methanol reduces the temperature of the reaction and thus produces hydrogen at lower temperatures [56]. The observations of hydrogen evolution from NaBH<sub>4</sub>-methanolysis process are shown in Fig. 9. The results show that Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposite sample presents the fastest rate of hydrogen production.

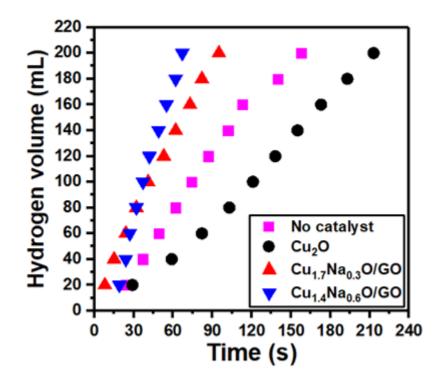


Fig. 9: Hydrogen catalytic performance of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanostructures.

The self-hydrolysis of NaBH<sub>4</sub> in methanol produces Na<sup>+</sup> and BH<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> ions. The active sites on the surface of the catalyst adsorb  $BH_4^-$  ions. Therefore, the catalyst with more active sites is expected to accelerate the hydrogen evolution. Other elements that influence the activity of a catalyst include particle size and degree of dispersion. When a catalyst has a small particle size and high dispersion, the interaction with NaBH<sub>4</sub> will be improved. The efficient catalyst adsorbs more  $BH_4^-$  ions in a shorter period, resulting in greater hydrogen production [**57**].

The effectiveness of the catalyst to speed up the reaction is strongly influenced by the rate of hydrogen generation (k). The values of k can be determined using equation 3 [58-60].

$$k = \frac{V}{t.m_{cat}} \tag{3}$$

where V is the volume of  $H_2$  gas, t is time and  $m_{cat}$  represents the mass of the catalyst. The slopes of  $H_2$  volume versus time plotted in Fig. 9 were used to calculate the rate of hydrogen generation. Values of 3055, 6167 and 10981 mL/g.min were obtained for Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposite samples, respectively. Fig. 10 summarises the hydrogen production rates of all nanocomposites investigated in this work.

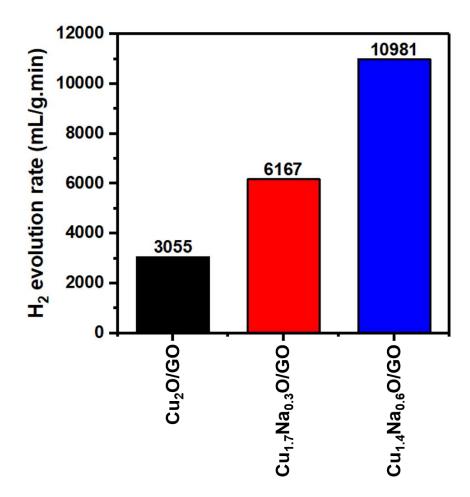


Fig. 10: Hydrogen production rates of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites.

Interestingly, the rate of hydrogen generation was improved upon the increase of Na content.  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  sample showed the highest hydrogen production rate. The porous surface structure of the nanocomposites achieved more active sites and thus attracted more  $BH_{4^-}$  ions. Moreover, the decrease of pore size limits the adsorption of  $H_2$  gas and thus improves the rate of hydrogen production. Furthermore, Na reacts with the metal oxide catalyst to form  $Na_2O$ , which has a higher basicity than the original metal oxide catalyst. This increased basicity can enhance the hydrolysis reaction of NaBH<sub>4</sub>.

The data of hydrogen generation rates of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites are superior to those reported values in the literature. The rate of generation for Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO is higher than that of NiS-g-C<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub> nanosheets (8654 mL/g.min) [57]. Moreover, the generation rates achieved in the current study are higher than those of Ru/NiO-Ni foam (6000 mL/g.min) [61], Ru<sub>5</sub>Co/C (9360 mL/g.min) [62] and Ni<sub>2</sub>P (3700 mL/g.min)

[63]. These findings evidence that  $Cu_2O/GO$ ,  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  nanocomposites are more efficient for hydrogen catalytic production from NaBH<sub>4</sub>.

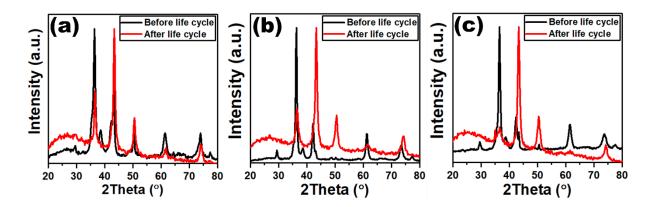


Fig. 11 XRD patterns of (a)  $Cu_2O/GO$ , (b)  $Cu_{1.7}Na_{0.3}O/GO$  and (c)  $Cu_{1.4}Na_{0.6}O/GO$  catalysts before and after life cycle

The XRD spectra of the Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO catalysts before and after life cycle were plotted in Fig. 11. The data of XRD showed the catalysts have robust structure and can be applied to hydrogen production catalysis for many times.

#### Conclusions

Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposite catalysts were fabricated by auto-combustion technique. The XRD scans showed that all samples have a cubic crystal structure. The FTIR spectra analysis revealed the formation of Cu<sub>1-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O/GO nanocomposites. ESEM images provided evidence that nanoscale Cu<sub>2-x</sub>Na<sub>x</sub>O crystals were integrated into the GO nanosheets. The values of BET surface areas were 122, 63 and 59 m<sup>2</sup>/g for Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites, respectively. The optical energy bandgaps were found to be 2.14, 2.0 and 1.72 eV for Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO, Cu<sub>1.7</sub>Na<sub>0.3</sub>O/GO and Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposites, respectively. The hydrogen catalytic production from NaBH<sub>4</sub> was improved upon the addition of sodium into Cu<sub>2</sub>O/GO. The maximum rate of hydrogen generation was 10981 mL/g.min for the Cu<sub>1.4</sub>Na<sub>0.6</sub>O/GO nanocomposite sample.

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