Polypyrrole-promoted rGO-MoS₂ nanocomposite for enhanced photocatalytic

conversion of CO₂ and H₂O to CO, CH₄ and H₂ products

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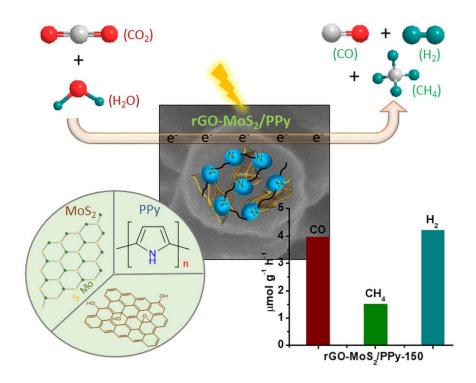
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Graphical abstract



Abstract

Advanced functionalized nanomaterials are indispensable for the efficient production of solar fuels via the reduction of CO₂ under solar light. This approach simultaneously addresses two major issues: (a) global warming due to anthropogenic CO_2 production and (b) the ongoing energy crisis. Owing to their high catalytic activity and visible light absorption, MoS₂ has recently emerged as a suitable candidate for the photocatalytic production of solar fuels from water splitting and CO₂ reduction. However, it currently shows poor conversion efficiency due to low adsorption of reactant gases, fast radiative recombination, and low chemical stability; these factors limit their practical applicability. In this work, CO_2 photoreduction and H_2 production were enhanced by integrating photoabsorber MoS₂ and N-containing conducting polymer polypyrrole (PPy) on reduced graphene oxide (rGO). rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites with various amounts of PPy were fabricated and morphologically, structurally, and optically characterized using several techniques. The optimal rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite was found to exhibit a remarkable production of CO (3.95 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), CH₄ (1.50 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), and H₂ (4.19 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) in the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ in an aqueous suspension under simulated sunlight. The enhanced photocatalytic performance of the nanocomposites was attributed to the beneficial combination of the rGO skeleton, MoS₂ nanosheets, and in-situ polymerized conductive PPy; this effectively promoted charge transfer, delayed recombination, improved light absorption and CO2 adsorption. In summary, this study describes an inexpensive non-noble metal photocatalyst with three components for the efficient photoreduction of CO₂ into clean solar fuels.

Keywords: CO₂ Photoreduction; Polypyrrole; MoS₂; Reduced graphene oxide; 2D materials; Hydrogen production

1. Introduction

The industrial revolution, fossil fuel consumption, transportation vehicles and other human activities are primarily responsible for the increasing concentration of atmospheric CO₂ and the resulting threat of climate change. CO_2 is one of the primary greenhouse gases, which continue to contribute to global warming. According to the International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report, the CO₂ concentration in the environment will reach 590 ppm by 2100; this will lead to a significant increase in the global temperature by 1.96 °C.¹ Therefore, concerns over the increasing concentration of CO₂, exhaustion of fossil fuels, and detrimental effects of CO2 on the environment are growing worldwide. Several methodologies for alleviating the accumulation of CO_2 in the environment and the energy crisis have been proposed: (a) carbon capture and utilization (CCU) of CO₂ in various applications, (b) the use of alternative carbon-free energy sources, and (c) the photo/electro-conversion of CO₂ into value-added chemicals and fuels such as carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH₄), methanol (CH₃OH), formic acid (HCOOH) and other hydrocarbons.²⁻³ However, CO₂ is an inert and thermodynamically stable molecule, and its photoreduction is energetically unfavorable. The sustainable and economical photoreduction of CO₂ can be performed in an aqueous medium under solar irradiation using advanced heterogeneous photocatalysts that mimic the natural photosynthesis process to produce solar fuels in an eco-friendly way.³⁻⁴ The simultaneous photocatalytic water splitting and CO₂ reduction to produce solar fuels is considered to be a critical sustainable methodology to alleviate the problem of anthropogenic climate change but remains an enormously challenging task.⁵ Several nanomaterials, including as g-C₃N₄, metal oxides (viz. TiO₂), metal sulfides, carbon-based materials, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), and nanocomposites have been investigated for use as photocatalysts to reduce CO₂ into valueadded chemicals.6-12

To achieve high efficiency, a semiconductor material should exhibit several features: (a) fast charge transfer, (b) suitable conduction and valence band edges, (c) active surface sites that allow adsorption of the reactants and easy desorption of the products to avoid further photo-oxidation, (d) photoactivity under the visible spectrum of solar light, and (e) null or slow recombination of photoinduced charge pairs.¹³ Recently, two-dimensional (2D) layered nanomaterials such as graphene, graphene oxide, metal dichalcogenides, layered double hydroxides (LDHs), g-C₃N₄, and inorganic perovskites have attracted immense interest as photocatalysts, sensors, solar cells and supercapacitors due to their outstanding characteristics, such as excellent specific surface area, enhanced conductivity, porous structure, improved charge pair separation, ease of functionalization with co-catalysts, stability, and excellent lightharvesting properties.¹⁴⁻²⁰ MoS₂ has also received a significant amount of interest for adsorption, lubrication, catalysis, energy storage, medical, and fire retardant applications due to its abundance, accessible cost, and remarkable chemical, physical, optical, and interlayer properties.²¹⁻²⁸ In particular, MoS₂ exhibits a strong solar light absorption potential due to its narrow bandgap and can adjust its conduction band edge by altering the number of layers via quantum confinement effects; these properties have rendered it famous in a variety of photocatalytic applications.^{21, 29} However, the fast recombination of photogenerated charge pairs in MoS₂ limits its practical application. Several strategies have been attempted to fabricate nanocomposites of MoS₂ with other conducting materials to enhance its activity by improving its charge transfer rate and delaying charge pair recombination.²⁹⁻³⁰

Taking advantage of the high surface area, high aspect ratio and excellent conductive properties of reduced graphene oxide (rGO), Chen et al. prepared a MoS₂-rGO nanocomposite that exhibited improved photocatalytic activity in the photo-degradation of organic dyes.³¹⁻³² Liu et al. also reported the high active site density, excellent conductivity, stability in acidic media, and improved catalytic activity of MoS₂/rGO nanocomposites.³³ Recently, several

reports of the synthesis strategies and application of MoS₂/rGO nanocomposites have been published; their performance in electrocatalysis, HER evolution and photodegradation applications were found to be superior to that of pristine GO and MoS₂.^{31, 34} Conducting polymers such as polyaniline, polypyrrole, and polythiophene have attracted a great deal of interest in nanocomposite design as surface capping agents; these polymers also represent right hole conducting materials to improve charge transfer and mitigate recombination. In nanocomposites of conducting polymer with inorganic nanomaterials, the excellent conductivity of the conducting polymer and the unique optical and electrical characteristics of inorganic materials can be exploited in photocatalysis.³⁵⁻³⁶

In this work, we demonstrate the construction of an rGO-MoS₂ nanocomposite with polypyrrole (PPy) via a hydrothermal method for enhanced photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ with H₂O to CO, CH₄ and H₂ products. The chemical and morphological changes in the nanocomposite were studied using X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and electron microscopy. Photoluminescence (PL) and UV-vis spectroscopy analyses were used to study the optical characteristics of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites. The effect of the PPy content of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite on the reduction of CO₂ under light irradiation was studied, and the performance of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites was compared with that of MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂ to elucidate the benefits of adding PPy.

2. Experimental Section

2.1. Materials

Graphite powder (powder, <20 μ m, synthetic), sodium molybdate dihydrate (\geq 99.5%), thiourea (\geq 99.0%), pyrrole (98%), hydrogen peroxide solution (H₂O₂ 30% w/w in H₂O), hydrochloric

acid solution (HCl, 32 wt. % in H₂O), potassium persulphate (KPS, \geq 99.0%) and sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃, \geq 99.7%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received in reactions.

2.2. Synthesis of reduced graphene oxide-molybdenum disulfide (rGO-MoS₂) nanocomposite

Graphene oxide (GO) was synthesized via the improved Hummers' method³⁷ as explained in the supplementary information. The synthesized GO was then used for the preparation of the reduced graphene oxide-molybdenum disulfide nanocomposite (33 wt% of rGO in rGO-MoS₂) nanocomposite via a facile hydrothermal method. In brief, 0.5 g sodium molybdate was added to 140 mL of an aqueous dispersion containing 250 mg of GO and sonicated for 15 minutes. Subsequently, 0.9 g thiourea was dissolved in 10 mL distilled water and added to the above mixture, which was then stirred at room temperature for 20 min. The mixture was then transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and subjected to heating treatment at 200 °C for 24 h. The hydrothermal reaction mixture was allowed to cool to room temperature, and the resulting black precipitate was collected by centrifugation at 4,000 rpm for 15 min. The collected rGO-MoS₂ nanocomposite was washed several times with distilled water to remove impurities and undigested chemicals, and dried in an oven at 70 °C overnight. For the synthesis of the MoS₂ nanosheets, the reaction was carried out as above, but without using GO.

2.3. Synthesis of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites

100 mg of the synthesized rGO-MoS₂ was dispersed in 150 mL distilled water via ultrasonication in a bath sonicator for 30 min. After the ultrasonic treatment, 600 μ L pyrrole was added dropwise to the rGO-MoS₂ dispersion, which was then stirred for 30 minutes at room temperature. Subsequently, the reaction was transferred to an ice bath (0-5°C). Once the temperature of the reaction reached 0-5°C, a solution of 1.2 g potassium persulfate (KPS) in distilled water (10 mL) was added dropwise to the mixture under vigorous stirring. Here, KPS

acted as an oxidant and initiated the polymerization reaction. The polymerization reaction was continuously stirred in the ice bath for 12 h. The synthesized product was collected by centrifugation at 4000 rpm for 10 min and washed with distilled water several times. The collected rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite was then dried in a vacuum oven at 65°C for 24 h. The rGO-MoS₂/PPy synthesis was repeated using 300 and 150 µL pyrrole, rather than 600 µL. The nanocomposites were labelled rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, and rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 according to the use of 600, 300, and 150 µL pyrrole, respectively.

2.4. Characterization

The crystalline structure and phase purity of the synthesized samples were investigated using XRD (PAN analytical X-pert PRO, Netherlands). All XRD patterns were recorded at a scan rate of 0.02° s⁻¹ in the 2 θ range 5-90° using Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm) as X-ray source, operating at a current and voltage of 40 mA and 45 kV, respectively. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) analysis of the nanomaterials was performed using a Perkin-Elmer spectrometer (model: Spectrum 100, USA) with KBr (FTIR grade) as a reference with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. Each sample was finely ground with KBr (FTIR grade) using a mortar and pestle and pressed into a pellet. The FTIR experiment was conducted in transmittance mode over the range 4000-400 cm⁻¹. The chemical composition, binding energies, and oxidation states of the elements in the as-prepared samples were determined using XPS (Kartos, UK). All XPS spectra were collected using a monochromated Al K α X-ray source. All the obtained XPS peaks were fitted using Gaussian functions and Shirley background correction. The specific surface areas and porosities of the synthesized materials were determined from the nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms using the multi-point Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) technique and a Micromeritics (ASAP 2020, USA) analyzer. The surface morphologies and micro-structures of the nanocomposites were characterized using a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, Auriga FESEM, Carl Zeiss, Germany). The elemental distribution of the samples was determined using an Oxford energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDS, Oxford, UK) coupled with the FESEM. The nano-structural features of the samples were characterized using high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM; JEOL, 2100-JEM Japan) at the operating voltage of 200 kV. For the HR-TEM measurements, the samples were dispersed in ethanol and drop-casted on a carbon-coated grid. Elemental mapping was performed using EDS (Thermo Scientific, USA) coupled with the HRTEM. Raman analysis was carried out using an Alpha 300RAS Plus (WiTec Focus Innovations, Germany) confocal micro-Raman spectrometer with 532 nm laser excitation operated at 5.0 mW using a 50× magnifying lens. UV-vis spectroscopy was carried out using LAMBDA 750 UV-Vis-NIR Spectrophotometer, (PerkinElmer, USA).

2.5. Photocatalytic study

In order to evaluate the photocatalytic activity of the synthesized materials, CO₂ photocatalytic reduction experiments were carried out in a 125 mL stainless-steel photoreactor with quartz window for light irradiation. In a typical experiment, 50 mg catalyst was dispersed in 0.5 M NaHCO₃ (20 mL, pH = 7) under magnetic stirring at room temperature. Prior to light irradiation, the photoreactor was purged with He (20 mL min⁻¹, 1 h), and followed by high purity CO₂ (1 bar, 5 mL min⁻¹) purging for 1 h. The reactor was subsequently sealed and placed under a Xe lamp (300 W) equipped with an AM 1.5 G filter for 4 h with continuous stirring. The light intensity was 1 sun (100 mW/cm²) in the sample position. Figure S1, Supporting Information, shows the spectral data graph for 300 W Xe lamp. After 4 h of light irradiation, 1 mL of the gaseous product was extracted from the photoreactor and quantitatively analyzed using a gas chromatography with a barrier ionization detector (Shimadzu GC-2030) and He carrier gas. In order to determine the effects of various experimental factors, control experiments were run in the absence of light, CO₂ (substituting CO₂ for N₂), water and catalyst. The recyclability of the photocatalyst was determined by collecting the catalyst after each run,

washing it thoroughly using distilled water, and utilizing it for another cycle of CO₂ photocatalytic reduction.

Apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) was measured under the same experimental setup, using 523 nm LED monochromatic light and the equation as follows:

AQE / % =
$$\frac{\text{Number of reacted electrons}}{\text{Number of incident photons}} \times 100$$

The detail calculation of apparent quantum efficiency (AQE) has explained in Supporting Information page S2.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Structural and morphological characterization

The rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites were prepared via the polymerization of pyrrole onto the surface of rGO-MoS₂ using KPS as oxidant. Formation of PPy onto rGO-MoS₂ readily covers the surface of the nanocomposite material. The XRD pattern of MoS₂ (Figure 1a) exhibits characteristic peaks at 14.15, 28.89, 33.16, 36.31, 39.74, 43.56 and 57.88°, which correspond to the (002), (004), (100), (101), (103), (006) and (110) diffraction planes, respectively, confirming MoS₂ hexagonal crystal structure (JCPDS No. 37-1492).²² Figure S2 (Supporting Information) presents the typical GO diffraction peak at 11.12°, which corresponds to the (002) plane with an interlayer distance of 0.84 nm. Pristine graphite exhibits an interlayer spacing of 0.34 nm with a characteristic diffraction peak at 27°.³⁸ The significant increase in the d-spacing of the GO nanosheets was due to the oxygen functional groups present on the surface of the GO after oxidation, water molecules trapped between the layers, and ultrasonic exfoliation, which weakened the van der Waals interactions between the layers. The diffraction peak at 42.48° with a d-spacing of 2.25 nm is representing the (100) reflection with short-range order

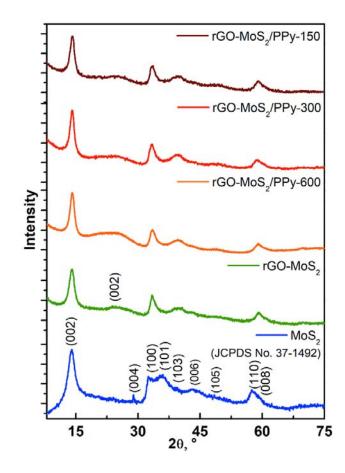


Figure 1. XRD diffractograms of (a) MoS₂, (b) rGO-MoS₂, and (c) rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600, (d) rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, and (e) rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposites.

in the stacked graphene oxide layers.³⁹ No XRD peaks were observed at ~11 or ~42 ° in the XRD spectrum of rGO-MoS₂, confirming the reduction of GO into rGO (Figure 1b). Furthermore, the presence of a broad peak at ~25.7 ° corresponds to the (002) plane of rGO and indicates the low concentration of rGO (~5% wt) in the nanocomposites. The XRD pattern of rGO-MoS₂ shows the characteristic diffraction peaks of hexagonal MoS₂, providing evidence for the successful anchoring of MoS₂ onto the rGO sheets. The small shift in 20 value of MoS₂ peaks in rGO-MoS₂ occurs due to intercalation of rGO into the MoS₂ sheets.⁴⁰ In addition to the MoS₂ diffraction peaks, XRD diffractograms of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites also exhibit a wide and weak diffraction at $2\theta = 18-28^{\circ}$, which is a

characteristic signature of amorphous polypyrrole.⁴¹ In the nanocomposites, the XRD broad peak of rGO was convoluted with the PPy XRD broad peak. The intensity of the PPy peak progressively decreased in the patterns of rGO-MoS₂/PPy 0.5 and rGO-MoS₂/PPy 0.25 relative to that in the rGO-MoS₂/PPy 1 pattern (see Figure 1) due to the lesser concentration of PPy in these nanocomposites.

Raman spectroscopy was used to explore the structural changes and vibrational modes in MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂ and the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite. As shown in Figure 2, MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂, and the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 spectra all exhibited two characteristic bands in the range 370-405 cm⁻¹, which were assigned to the in-plane (${}^{1}E_{2g}$) vibrations of the two S atoms on Mo and the out-of-plane (¹A_g) vibrational modes of the S atoms in opposite directions, respectively, in hexagonal MoS₂.²⁶ Moreover, the lower intensity of ¹E_{2g} vibrational mode relative to the ¹A_g mode suggests the formation of edge-terminated nanosheets on rGO.⁴⁰ Generally, graphite exhibits two distinctive peaks in the Raman spectrum at ~1350 and ~1580 cm⁻¹, which are associated with the D and G bands, respectively.⁴² The D band of Raman spectrum of graphite is related to the defects present in the graphite lattice, while the G band is associated with the first-order scattering of the E_{2g} vibrational mode. In the Raman spectra of rGO-MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂-PPy, D and G bands were observed at ~1358 and ~1586 cm⁻¹. The shifting in D and G values indicate the presence of rGO in composites, which differs from GO in having more C sp² domains and less C sp³ atoms.⁴² However, the D and G band area of the Raman spectrum of rGO-MoS₂/PPy displayed noisy rather than clear peaks. The spectrum of pristine PPy exhibited 5 individual peaks at ~1325, ~1550, ~1040, ~920, and ~985 cm⁻¹, which corresponded to the ring and C-N stretching, π -conjugated structure, in-plane C-H deformation, out-of-plane C-H deformation, and pyrrole ring deformation, respectively. In the spectrum of rGO-MoS₂/PPy, the two major peaks of PPy overlap with the rGO Raman bands; other weak

peaks in the spectrum confirmed the presence of the polypyrrole coating on the surface of rGO-MoS₂.

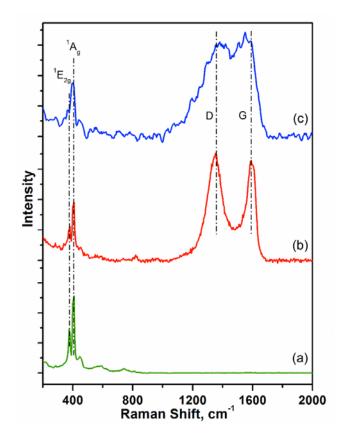


Figure 2. Raman spectra of MoS₂ (a), rGO-MoS₂ (b), and the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite (c).

In order to determine the functional moieties present in the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites, their FTIR spectra were measured in the range 400-4000 cm⁻¹ (Figure 3a). In rGO-MoS₂ FTIR spectrum (Figure S3, Supporting information), the peaks at 3432, 1711, 1223, and 1050 cm⁻¹ corresponded to –OH (hydroxyl), C=O (carboxyl), C-OH and C-O (epoxy) groups of rGO, and peak at 463 cm⁻¹ was ascribed to Mo-S stretching of MoS₂. These peaks confirmed the successful formation of rGO-MoS₂ composite.^{26, 38} In the FTIR spectra of rGO-MoS₂-PPy nanocomposites (Figure 3a), the broad vibrational peaks around at 3423 and 3112 cm⁻¹ were attributed to O-H/N-H and aromatic C-H stretching, respectively.⁴³ The peak at 1710 cm⁻¹ was ascribed to the stretching of the residual carbonyl groups (-C=O) of rGO.⁴⁴ The strong vibration

bands at 1560 and 1465 cm⁻¹ were attributed to the antisymmetric and symmetric modes of the pyrrole backbone of PPy.⁴⁵ The vibrational band at ~1560 cm⁻¹ was associated with the stretching of C=C bonds in PPy and rGO in the rGO-MoS₂-PPy nanocomposites.⁴⁶ The peak at 1327 cm⁻¹ was assigned to the C-N stretching of PPy. The intense peaks at 1194, and 924 cm⁻¹ were associated with the PPy doping state.⁴² The peak at 1053 cm⁻¹ represented the -C-H deformation vibrations of the pyrrole ring. The peaks centered at 796 and 616 cm⁻¹ were ascribed to out-of-plane C-H bending and C=C bending of the aromatic rings in the nanocomposite. The low intensity peak at 462 cm⁻¹ corresponded to Mo-S stretching, reaffirming the presence of MoS₂ in the nanocomposite.

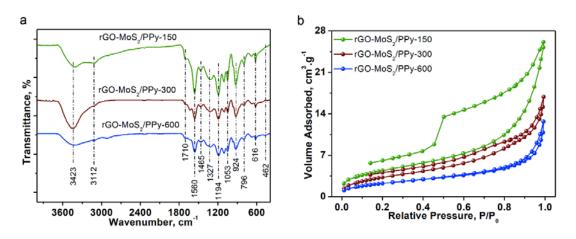


Figure 3. (a) FTIR spectra, and (b) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the rGO-MoS₂/PPY-600, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, and rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposites.

Figure 3b presents the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the rGO-MoS₂-PPy nanocomposites, which were used to calculate their BET surface area. The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂ are shown in Figure S4 (Supporting Information). All the N₂ isotherms shown in Figure 3b, and Figure S4 (Supporting Information) were identified as a combination of type II and type IV isotherms with H3-hysteresis loops.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁸ MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂ show a BET surface area of 16.1 and 149.6 m² g⁻¹ (Table S1, Supporting Information). Addition of PPy lowers the surface area, retaining the highest value

of 16.02 m²/g for rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 and 8.43 m²/g for rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600. The obtained N₂ isotherms pattern of rGO-MoS₂/PPy composites were similar to previous studies.⁴⁹⁻⁵⁰ In the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite, the pores had narrow necks that result in nitrogen cavitation during the desorption (kink at 0.45-0.5 P/P_o).⁵¹ These narrow necks were, anyway, not expected in the final application due to the dispersion of the nanocomposite in 20 mL aqueous NaHCO₃. As adsorption is a critical first step in CO₂ photocatalytic reduction, CO₂ physisorption was carried out on the prepared samples (Figure 4). MoS₂ nanosheets physisorbed 2.8 cm³ g⁻¹, while rGO-MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300 and rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600 physisorbed 6.0, 10, 12 and 13 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively. These results indicate superior CO₂ adsorption with the use of rGO and PPy.

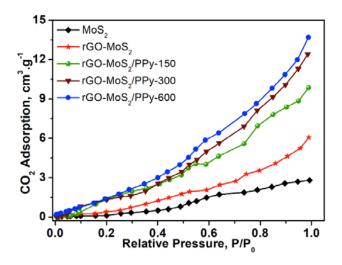


Figure 4. CO₂ adsorption of the MoS₂ nanosheets, rGO-MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, and rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposites.

The surface morphologies of MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂, and the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites were inspected using FESEM. The SEM micrograph in Figure 5a reveals the sheet-like morphology of MoS₂, with a thickness of approximately 10 nm and a lateral length of about 600 nm. After the addition of GO, the original sheet pattern and a lateral length of the MoS₂ nanosheets was retained, but the thickness of the sheets clearly increased (Figure 5b and inset). The increased

thickness was attributed to the anchoring of rGO nanosheets on both sides of basal planes of the pristine MoS₂ nanosheets. Granular spherical structures with a size of 200-300 nm were observed after the introduction of pyrrole in the as-prepared rGO-MoS₂ system (Figure 5c-f). According to the literature, pyrrole has a tendency to form spherical structures on polymerization using an oxidizing agent such as FeCl₃ or ammonium persulphate.^{45, 52-53} Here, the PPy nanospheres were grown on the available wide surface of rGO-MoS₂ nanosheets. As shown in Figure 5c-d, the nanospheres of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite were interconnected, and as the concentration of PPy was increased, the sphere-like structures became more irregular and aggregated (Figure 5e-f). Furthermore, EDS mapping (Figure 5g) indicated that the elements C, N, Mo, O, and S were distributed uniformly throughout the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite, the EDS spectrum (Figure S4 5, Supporting Information) also confirmed the successful formation of the nanocomposite. The homogenous distributions of N and C, as well as Mo and S, further confirmed the presence of PPy in the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite.

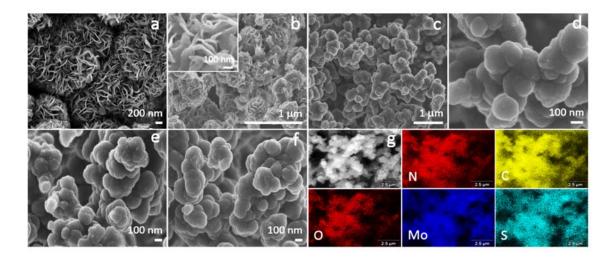


Figure 5. FESEM micrographs of (a) MoS₂, (b and inset) rGO-MoS₂, (c-d) rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150, (e) rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, (f) and rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600 (f) nanocomposites. (g) The micrograph selected for the EDS measurement of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite and its N, C, Mo, S and O EDS maps.

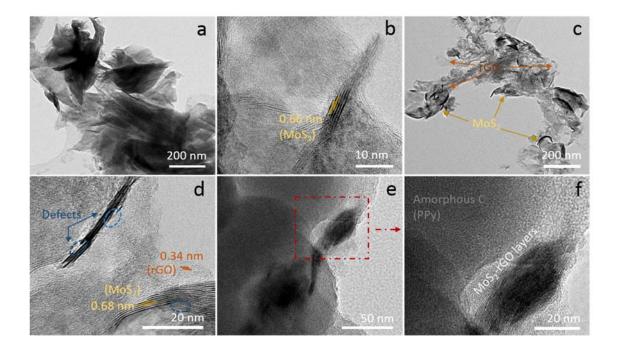


Figure 6. TEM micrographs of (a-b) MoS₂, (c-d) rGO-MoS₂, and (e-f) the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposites.

Furthermore, TEM inspection was performed to examine the microstructural features of the assynthesized materials in detail. Figure 6a shows the loose packing of the MoS₂ nanosheets, which were attached to one another via van der Waals forces. The ribbon-like MoS₂ structures consisted of flakes of 3-14 molecular lamellae (Figure 6b) with an interlayer spacing of 0.66 nm, which was very similar to the characteristic interlayer distance of 0.616 nm for the hexagonal 2H-MoS₂ structure. Figure 6c reveals that MoS₂ nanosheets grew uniformly on the surface of the rGO sheets. The rGO sheets, which had lateral dimensions of a few microns, and the MoS₂ nanoflakes are indicated with arrows. Additionally, the nanosheets with an interlayer spacing of 0.34 nm and 0.68 nm in the HRTEM micrograph (Figure 6d) correspond to rGO and MoS₂, respectively, confirming the successful formation of rGO-MoS₂. The defects highlighted in Figure 6d and the abundant edge sites resulting from the high aspect ratio of rGO-MoS₂ should offer an extensive active catalytic surface for the photocatalytic reaction. Figure 6e-f are representative TEM micrographs of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite, demonstrating that rGO-MoS2 nanosheets homogenously surrounded the nanospheres of conducting PPy. The HRTEM micrograph further confirmed the amorphous nature of PPy in the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite (Figure 6f).

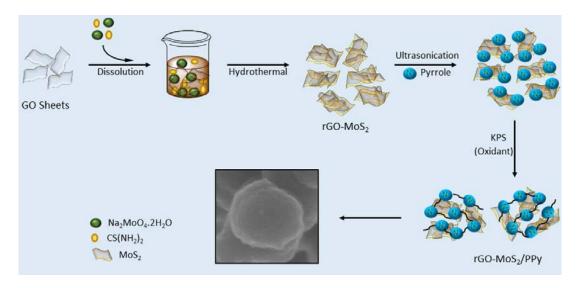


Figure 7. Schematic illustration of the preparation of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites.

Based on the aforementioned observations, the synthesis of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite was proposed to occur via the mechanism shown schematically in Figure 7. First, the GO sheets are dispersed in water, followed by the addition of the molybdenum and sulfur precursors to the suspension. The MoS₂ nuclei initially grow over the GO sheets and then self-assemble into nanosheets during the hydrothermal reduction at the same time the GO reduces to rGO. For the *in-situ* polymerization process, the rGO-MoS₂ nanosheets are dispersed in deionized water via ultrasonication, and the pyrrole monomer is then introduced into the reaction mixture. The pyrrole can adsorb onto the rGO-MoS₂ surface via electrostatic interactions between the positively charged nitrogen atoms of pyrrole, and the negatively charged surfaces of MoS₂ and rGO.^{22, 54} Upon the addition of the oxidant KPS, the adsorbed pyrrole is polymerized and remains attached to the surface of rGO-MoS₂. As the conducting PPy is formed, its orientation is controlled by the rGO-MoS₂ nanosheets. Herein, rGO-MoS₂ serves as a hard

template/supporting material that provides copious active sites for the uniform growth and heterogeneous nucleation of PPy.

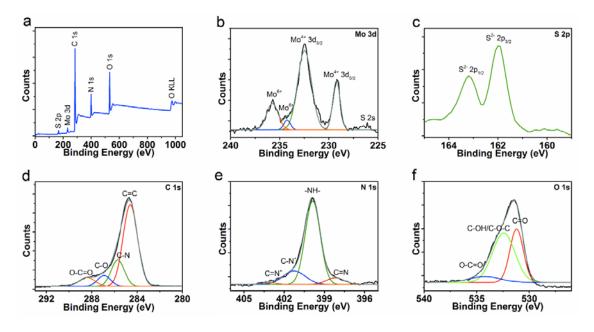


Figure 8. XPS survey spectrum (a) and high-resolution spectra of the nanocomposite rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 (b-f).

In order to confirm the chemical states and chemical constituents of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite, its XPS spectrum was studied (Figure 8). The survey spectrum of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy 0.25 nanocomposite clearly exhibits characteristic Mo, S, N, and O peaks, as seen in Figure 8a. In Fig 8b-f, the high-resolution Mo 3d, S 2p, N 1s, O 1s, and C 1s spectra were deconvoluted to examine the bonding in rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150. As shown in Figure 8b, the high-resolution spectrum of Mo 3d contains 4 major peaks at 229.2, 232.4, 234.1, and 235.8 eV. The deconvoluted peaks at 229.2 and 232.4 eV were ascribed to Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{5/2} and Mo⁴⁺ 3d_{3/2}, respectively. The spacing between the deconvoluted peaks (~3.2 eV) due to spin-orbit splitting indicated the presence of Mo⁴⁺ of MoS₂ in rGO-MoS₂/PPy 0.25. The higher binding energy peaks at 233.2 and 235.7 eV were assigned to Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{5/2} and Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{3/2}, respectively, which may have been present due to the insufficient reduction of MoO₄²⁻ species during the reaction. In addition, the smaller peak at 226.1 eV is related to S 2s from the MoS₂ nanosheets. The XPS

spectrum of S 2p contains two peaks at 161.9 and 163.2 eV, which were attributed to the S²⁻ $2p_{3/2}$ and S²⁻ $2p_{1/2}$ orbitals, of MoS₂ in rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150, respectively (Figure 8c). The C 1s peak can be deconvoluted into four peaks at 284.6, 285.7, 286.8, and 288.4 eV, which were ascribed to C=C/C-C, C-N, C-O, and COOH groups, respectively (Figure 8d). The high intensity of the peak centered at 284.6 eV indicated the abundance of C=C/C-C groups in the PPy and rGO of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite. The deconvoluted peak at 285.7 eV was attributed to the C-N groups of PPy. The remaining oxygen-containing functional groups of rGO, including the hydroxyl, ketonic, ether, phenolic, and carboxylic groups were associated with the higher binding energy peaks at 286.8 and 288.4 eV. The high-resolution N 1s spectrum was deconvoluted into four peak components at 399.8, 398.1, 401.2, and 403.0 eV (Figure 8e). The deconvoluted peaks centered at 399.8 and 398.1 eV were assigned to the --NH- groups and C=N defects of PPy, respectively. The polaron (C-N⁺) and bipolaron (C=N⁺) arrangements of PPy were assigned to the higher binding energies at 401.2 and 403.0 eV, respectively.⁵⁵ The deconvolution of the O 1s peak is shown in Figure 8f. The singlet O 1s peak was deconvoluted into three signals at 531.2, 532.5 and 534.2 eV, which were ascribed to C=O (oxygen double bonded to aromatic C), C-OH/C-O-C (hydroxyl and ether groups of rGO), and O-C=O (carboxylic groups of rGO), respectively.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁷

3.2. Photocatalytic Reduction of CO₂

The performance of the synthesized materials was determined based on the photocatalytic reduction of aqueous phase CO₂ under simulated solar light. In the photocatalytic reaction, the aqueous medium acts as a reducing agent of CO₂. As shown in Figure 9a, among the different photocatalysts, the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite demonstrated the highest efficiency for the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to CO (3.95 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), CH₄ (1.50 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), and H₂ (4.19 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹). More importantly, O₂(7.10 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) was also generated as an oxidation product over the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite due to the concomitant hole driven water

oxidation (Figure S6, Supporting Information). The total O₂ evolved was correlated with a $(CO+H_2):O_2$ and CH₄:O₂ stoichiometry of 2:1 and 1:2, respectively, which is consistent with the participation of 4e⁻, 8e⁻, 2e⁻ and 2e⁻ to form O₂, CH₄, CO and H₂, respectively.⁵⁸ In terms of total electrons (e⁻) consumption, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite showed a photocatalytic activity of 28.4 µmol e⁻ h⁻¹ g⁻¹, which is almost 24 and 135 times higher than rGO-MoS₂ (1.19 µmol e⁻ h⁻¹ g⁻¹) and MoS₂ (0.21 µmol e⁻ h⁻¹ g⁻¹), respectively. The enhanced photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ over the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite can be attributed to the high adsorption of CO₂ (Figure 4) due to the availability of -NH groups, high active surface area, and delayed recombination of e⁻/h⁺ pairs.⁵⁹ No products corresponding to the photoreduction of CO₂ were generated over the pristine MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂ nanosheets, probably due to the minimal adsorption of CO₂ on the surfaces of these catalysts, their fast charge recombination, and their poor absorption of photons for photoconversion. However, these photocatalysts showed appreciable photocatalytic activity towards the H₂ evolution reaction.

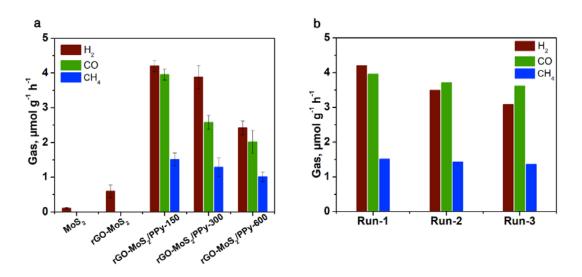


Figure 9. (a) Photocatalytic CO_2 conversion activity of MoS_2 nanosheets, rGO-MoS₂, and rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites under stimulated sunlight. (b) Reusability of rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite.

 Table 1: Control experiments for photocatalytic conversion of CO2 using the rGO-MoS2/PPy-150

 nanocomposite photocatalyst.

Photocatalyst	Reaction	Reaction	Simulated	CO,	CH4,	H ₂
	Gas	Medium	sunlight	µmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	μmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	µmol g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹
No Catalyst	CO ₂	Aqueous	Yes	None	None	None
rGO-MoS ₂ /PPy-	N ₂	Aqueous	Yes	None	None	4.57
150						
rGO-MoS ₂ /PPy-	CO ₂	Non-	Yes	None	None	None
150		Aqueous				
rGO-MoS ₂ /PPy-	CO ₂	Aqueous	None	None	None	None
150						
rGO-MoS ₂ /PPy-	CO ₂	Aqueous	Yes	2.01	1.01	2.42
600						
rGO-MoS ₂ /PPy-	CO ₂	Aqueous	Yes	2.58	1.29	3.88
300						
rGO-MoS ₂ /PPy-	CO ₂	Aqueous	Yes	3.95	1.5	4.19
150						

In order to confirm that detected reaction products (CO and CH₄) were produced via the photocatalysis of CO₂, control experiments (Table 1) were carried out in the absence of the photocatalyst, CO₂, aqueous medium or light irradiation. No products were obtained from the system in which CO₂ and the catalyst were combined in water under dark conditions. Similarly, no products (CO and CH₄) were evolved in the absence of CO₂, which explicitly demonstrated that CO₂ was the C source of the obtained products. In a non-aqueous medium, almost no hydrocarbons or CO were produced, demonstrating that the products were only obtained when the photocatalytic reaction over rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 was conducted in the photocatalytic

reduction of CO₂, and that water, light irradiation, CO₂ gas, and the photocatalyst were allessential to the photocatalytic reaction. The main reduced product was CO; $3.95 \ \mu mol \ g^{-1} \ h^{-1}$ of CO was produced directly by the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ over the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite without the use of any scavenger or cocatalyst. Moreover, the reusability and durability of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 photocatalyst were assessed by using the catalyst for three successive cycles in the same reaction environment (Figure 9b). After each run, the photocatalyst was washed and the aqueous medium was replaced with a new solution. No significant decline in the CH₄ and CO evolution was observed during three successive test runs, confirming the excellent stability and durability of the nanocomposite surface during prolonged operation. After three cycles, the decline in the photocatalytic performance was occurred due to mass loss and decrease in active sites of the catalyst with time.

Furthermore, the MoS₂ nanosheets and nanocomposites were analyzed using UV-vis spectroscopy and PL measurements in order to better understand their photocatalytic behavior (Figure 10). The doublet absorption peaks at 623 and 666 nm in the UV-vis spectrum of MoS₂ were ascribed to excitonic interband transitions, which originated from the direct-gap transitions at the K point of Brillouin zone of MoS₂ (Figure 10a).⁶⁰ The doublet absorption peak originates from the spin-orbit splitting of the K point transition. The peaks positioned at 403 and 460 nm arise due to interband transition between the occupied orbital (d_z^2) and the unoccupied orbitals (d_{xy} , $d_{x^2-y^2}$, and d_{xz} , y_z).⁶¹ The obtained spectrum was similar to reported UV-vis spectra of MoS₂ nanosheets.⁶²⁻⁶³ The peak at high wavelength is related to the direct optical band gap of 666 nm (~1.9 eV) for MoS₂, smaller than the indirect band gap of 1030 nm (1.2 eV). The absorption band at ~318 nm in the spectrum of rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite was attributed to the π - π * electron transition of the pyrrole rings of PPy,⁶⁴ whereas the broad peak at 400-600 nm was assigned to electron transfer from the highest occupied molecule orbital (HOMO) to the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of PPy. Overall, the

lower content of PPy in the nanocomposite increased its visible-light absorption, which was crucial to its enhanced photocatalytic properties.⁵³ Moreover, the bandgap of the MoS₂ nanosheets was determined from their Tauc's plots, which were obtained by plotting the modified Kubelka-Munk function versus the photon energy (Figure S7, Supporting Information). The calculated band-gap (E_g) energy values of the MoS₂ nanosheets in MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂ samples were ~1.90 and ~2.02 eV. The latter value is also expected for the MoS₂ nanosheets bandgap in rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites, since PPy was added after the formation of rGO-MoS₂. These values suggest that all the photocatalysts can be excited under visible light irradiation. The quantum confinement in the nanosheets in the rGO-MoS₂ sample compared with the MoS₂ sample was accountable for the increase in the band gap, which is close to single-layer results.⁶⁵

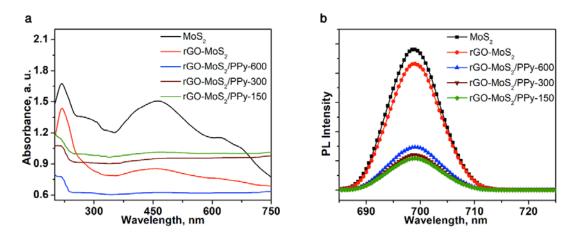


Figure 10. (a) UV-vis absorbance spectra and (b) PL spectra of the MoS₂ nanosheets, rGO-MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, and rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposites.

Additionally, PL measurements were carried out at room temperature to predict the charge transfer and recombination rate of the photogenerated charge pairs. Figure 10b shows the PL emission of all photocatalysts (MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-300, rGO-MoS₂/PPy-600) at ~698 nm due to direct-gap optical transitions on excitation at 350 nm.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁷ The PL intensity of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites was lower than that of the

MoS₂ and rGO-MoS₂ nanosheets, suggesting that the coupling of PPy to rGO-MoS₂ ensured charge transfer between phases and, therefore, suppressed electron-hole recombination. The lowest PL intensity was detected for the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite, confirming that it exhibited the lowest recombination of surface charge carriers and hence it was a better photocatalyst. The aforementioned observations highlighted that the addition of PPy to rGO-MoS₂ create an interfacial contact that enhanced charge transfer and separation, and ultimately improved the photocatalytic activity towards CO₂ reduction and H₂ production.

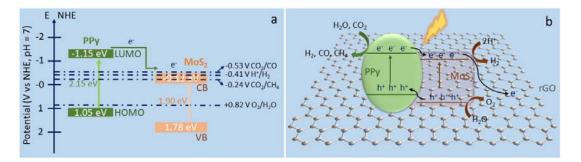


Figure 11. (a) Schematic representation of the band positions and potentials of PPy and MoS₂. (b) Mechanism of photocatalytic CO₂ conversion and water splitting on the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite.

Based on the above discussions, a proposed mechanism for the enhanced CO₂ reduction over the rGO-MoS₂/PPy photocatalysts was proposed. Schematic illustrations of the charge segregation and transfer system in rGO-MoS₂/PPy are presented in Figure 11 a-b; first schematic shows the valence band and conduction band edges of MoS₂, and the HUMO and LUMO levels of PPy. The conduction band (E_{CB}) and valence band (E_{VB}) edge positions of the MoS₂ semiconductor were calculated by the Mulliken electronegativity theory ⁶⁸:

$$E_{\rm VB} = \chi - E_e + 0.5 \times E_g \tag{1}$$

$$E_{\rm CB} = E_{\rm VB} - E_{\rm g} \tag{2}$$

where χ is the absolute electronegativity of MoS₂, which is calculated as 5.331. E_g is the bandgap energy. E_e is the energy of free electron on the hydrogen scale that is equal to 4.5 eV.

Based on the Eqs. (1) and (2), the E_{CB} of MoS₂ is determined as -0.12 V vs the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE), whereas the respective E_{VB} is calculated as +1.78 V vs. NHE. The potential values of HOMO and LUMO of PPy were found to be $E_{HOMO} = +1.05$ V and $E_{LUMO} = -1.15$ V, giving a HOMO-LUMO gap of 2.15 eV.⁶⁹ The rGO plays a crucial role in the segregation and transfer of photogenerated charge carriers. Owing to the appropriate positions of the band-edge potentials for water-splitting, all the photocatalysts produced H₂ ($E_{H+/H2} = -0.41$ V vs. NHE) and O₂ ($E_{O2/H2O} = +0.82$ V vs NHE) gas. The rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites provided the appropriate positions of the band-edge potentials for photocatalytic CO₂ conversion as well as water splitting and produced CO ($E_{CO2/CO} = -0.53$ V vs. NHE), CH₄ ($E_{CO2/CH4} = -0.24$ V vs. NHE) and H₂ ($E_{H+/H2} = -0.41$ V vs. NHE) gas. However, MoS₂ and GO-MoS₂ could not reduce CO₂ to produce CO and/or CH₄ in detectable amounts, possibly due to the minimal adsorption of CO₂ on catalyst surfaces and fast charge pair recombination.

rGO-MoS₂ produced more H₂ than MoS₂, ascribed to the role of rGO as an electron acceptor and transporter to keep the generated charge pairs separated, as was also supported by PL studies.⁷⁰ All the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposites produced significant amounts of H₂, as well as enhanced production of CO and CH₄. For efficient photocatalysis, the adsorption of the reactant molecule onto the photocatalyst is a crucial step. Kim et al. prepared an N-doped porous carbon material via the chemical activation of polypyrrole-functionalized graphene and found that it efficiently adsorbed CO₂ molecules.⁷¹ They also reported that when the concentration of nitrogen in the adsorbent was reduced, the amount of adsorbed CO₂ also decreased. They suggested that the presence of nitrogen atoms alters the bandgap and improves the electron mobility for acidic gas adsorption. This suggests that the main role of PPy in the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite is the adsorption of CO₂ for a more efficient photocatalytic reduction. PPy can also act as a photosensitizer that introduces electrons to the CB of MoS₂ and rGO. The amount of PPy in the nanocomposite remarkably influenced the rates of the CO₂

photocatalytic reduction and hydrogen production (Fig 8). The amount of all photocatalytic reduction products, i.e., CO, CH₄, and H₂, was maximal for an optimal concentration of PPy in the nanocomposite (rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 sample). A high PPy concentration might prevent MoS₂ from absorbing the solar spectrum visible light and, subsequently, reduce the amount of light irradiation driving the photocatalysis, so an optimal amount is required.³⁶

The higher photocatalytic activity of rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 was due to the synergistic effect of the MoS₂, rGO and PPy nanostructures in the composite. The high performance of rGO-MoS2/PPy-150 can also be associated with availability of a large number of photogenerated electrons for activation of CO₂ molecules and the formation of intermediate products, which eventually increase the quantum yield. The overall calculated AQE for rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 is 0.30 %, which is approximately equal or higher than to reported value (Supporting Information S2).⁷²⁻⁷⁴ A mechanism is herein proposed. Under visible-light illumination, the VB electrons (e⁻) of MoS₂ are excited to the CB and electrons move from the HOMO of PPy to the LUMO, creating an equal number of holes (h^+) in the VB/HOMO. The photoinduced electrons react with carbonate or bent CO2⁺ species adsorbed on the surface, influencing the reduction of CO₂. The negatively charged CO₂ species are easily adsorbed on the positive metallic Mo centers and Mo-terminated edges of MoS₂ that are provided by the defects and amine sites of PPy via electrostatic attraction. The LUMOs of the negative CO₂ species adsorbed on the surface are lower than those of gaseous CO₂, making it easier for them to receive excited electrons from the photocatalysts. The photogenerated electrons in the LUMO of PPy tend to be transferred to the CB of MoS₂ due to the favorable band alignment between the two constituents. Similarly, the photogenerated holes at VB of MoS₂ tend to be transferred to HOMO of PPy. The CO₂ photocatalytic reduction into CH₄ and CO gas occurs at PPy because it has appropriate CB potentials ($E_{LUMO, PPy} = -1.15$ V vs. NHE). The accumulated holes in the VB of MoS₂ participate in reactions with H₂O to produce protons (H⁺) and oxygen (O₂). The electrons in CB of MoS₂ can participate in the production of H₂ using protons. Due to its excellent electron storage capability and conductivity properties, rGO would trap photogenerated electrons from the CB of MoS₂ or PPy, enhancing electron separation and transfer for improved photocatalytic reduction. Overall, the photoreduction of CO₂ into CO, CH₄, and H₂ production can be expressed by below equations:

$$rGO-MoS_2/PPy + hv \longrightarrow rGO-MoS_2/PPy (e_{CB}-h_{VB}+)$$

$$PPy (e_{HOMO}-h_{LUMIO}+) \longrightarrow PPy (h_{LUMO}+) + PPy (e_{HOMO}-)$$

$$MoS_2 (e_{CB}-h_{VB}+) \longrightarrow MoS_2 (h_{VB}+) + MoS_2 (e_{CB}-)$$

$$2H_2O + MoS_2 (4h_{VB}+) \longrightarrow 4H^+ + O_2 E^0 = +0.82 V$$

$$CO_2 + 2H^+ + PPy (2e_{LUMO}-) \longrightarrow CO + H_2O E^0 = -0.53 V$$

$$CO_2 + 8H^+ + PPy (8e_{LUMO}-) \longrightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O E^0 = -0.24 V$$

$$2H^+ + MoS_2 \text{ or } PPy (2e_{CB/LUMO}-) \longrightarrow H_2 E^0 = -0.41 V$$

The formation of CO gas takes place via the reaction of CO₂ radical anions (bent CO₂^{••}) with the generated protons. CO demonstrates a durable affinity for N-containing surfaces such as PPy, which prevent the desorption of CO molecules from the surface. During the course of the reaction, these CO molecules can accept additional electrons and react with H⁺ to form intermediates (CH_xO_y) such as carbene or formyl radicals and finally produce CH₄.⁷⁵ The hydrogen generation potential from water is -0.41V vs. NHE (pH = 7), and reduction potentials of photocatalytic CO₂ conversion reactions range from -0.2 to -0.7 V vs. NHE (pH =7). Therefore, the photoreduction of CO₂ competes with the reduction of water during the process. In the present case, the protons required for the production of CH₄ are obtained from the limited water molecules adsorbed on the surface of rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150, which is sufficient for the production of CH₄, which involves eight protons. In contrast, the production of CO requires two protons from water. Thus, the main reaction products of the photocatalytic conversion of CO_2 on rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite are CO and CH₄ rather than higher hydrocarbons (CH₃OH, C₂H₅OH, HCHO, and HCOOH). Moreover, the reduction potential for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₄ is more positive than that of the conversion of CO₂ to CO, which may lead to backward electron-transfer from CH₄ to the oxidized species, consequently affecting the production rate of CH₄ via more intricate reactions.

4. Conclusion

In summary, rGO-MoS₂ and polypyrrole (rGO-MoS₂/PPy) nanocomposites were successfully constructed by a facile wet chemical route that utilized GO as an initial precursor. The resulting nanocomposite demonstrated distinctively enhanced optical and conductive properties as well as notably improved photocatalytic reduction of CO2 into CH4, CO, and H2. The nanocomposite containing an optimum amount of PPy (rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150) exhibited the highest efficiency for the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ using liquid water to CO (3.95 µmol g^{-1} h⁻¹), CH₄ (1.50 µmol g^{-1} h⁻¹), and H₂ (4.19 µmol g^{-1} h⁻¹). The improvement in the photocatalytic performance of the highly active surface material rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 was attributed to the synergistic effect of the MoS₂, rGO and PPy nanostructures, which promoted the separation and migration of the photogenerated charges through the heterojunction interfaces and decreased electron-hole recombination. Owing to its excellent conductivities, CO₂ adsorption capabilities via its amine groups, and electron storage properties, the PPy in the rGO-MoS₂/PPy nanocomposite performed multiple roles in enhancing the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂. The lower content of PPy in nanocomposite affords better catalytic performance. Moreover, importantly, the good recycling performance of the rGO-MoS₂/PPy-150 nanocomposite demonstrated the durability and stability of the photocatalyst. Thus, this study has introduced an advanced rationally designed non-noble metal photocatalyst based on conducting materials (PPy and rGO) for high-performance photoreduction of CO₂ into renewable fuels.

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