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Light-driven flow synthesis of acetic acid from methane with chemical looping

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Oxidative carbonylation of methane is an appealing approach to the synthesis of acetic acid but is limited by the demand for additional reagents. Here, we report a direct synthesis of CH₃COOH solely from CH₄ via photochemical conversion without additional reagents. This is made possible through the construction of the PdO/Pd–WO₃ heterointerface nanocomposite containing active sites for CH₄ activation and C–C coupling. In situ characterizations reveal that CH₄ is dissociated into methyl groups on Pd sites while oxygen from PdO is the responsible for carbonyl formation. The cascade reaction between the methyl and carbonyl groups generates an acetyl precursor which is subsequently converted to CH₃COOH. Remarkably, a production rate of 1.5 mmol g_{Pd}^{-1} h⁻¹ and selectivity of 91.6% toward CH₃COOH is achieved in a photochemical flow reactor. This work provides insights into intermediate control via material design, and opens an avenue to conversion of CH₄ to oxygenates.

Methane conversion into value-added chemicals under mild condition is a promising strategy for maximizing CH₄ utilization and mitigating the greenhouse effect¹⁻⁵. In particular, the partial oxidation of CH₄ at low temperature (<200 °C) is an attractive approach to generate valuable oxygenates (e.g., CH₃OH, HCHO, HCOOH and CH₃COOH) while reducing energy input and carbon emission in traditional gasphase CH₄ conversion⁶⁻⁹. Among the products, acetic acid (CH₃COOH) is an important feedstock of chemical industries. Generally, the synthesis of CH₃COOH from CH₄ requires a three-step process involving the production of syngas and methanol, which suffers from extra resource consumption and safety issues¹⁰. It is thus imperative to develop a green synthetic approach that can directly convert CH₄ to CH₃COOH. Although recent reports have demonstrated the oxidative carbonylation of CH₄ to CH₃COOH in thermocatalytic processes, the requirement for additional oxidants (e.g., O_2 and H_2SO_4) and/or CO limits their further applications^{11,12}. Moreover, multiple side reactions take place in various reactants to generate undesired products such as HCOOH and CO₂, and further limit the selectivity to CH₃COOH¹³.

Intuitively, photocatalysis should be a potential approach to the green transformation of CH₄, in which the ·OH radical derived from water oxidation is the ideal substitute for additional oxidant^{14,15}. In fact, the metal-decorated semiconductor photocatalysts, which offer synergistic effects between metal and semiconductor on electronic structure, charge separation and intermediate adsorption, have been demonstrated to be effective for CH₄ activation^{16–18}. For instance, Pd-based photocatalysts have been reported for the conversion of CH₄ into C₁ oxygenate products (CH₃OH, CH₃OOH, HCHO, etc.)¹⁹. The ·OH radical produced from photocatalytic water oxidation enables the

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activation of CH₄ to generate methyl intermediates (*CH₃), which can be stabilized on Pd sites for further reactions^{20,21}. However, it still remains a grand challenge to achieve the photocatalytic production of CH₃COOH, mainly due to the difficulties of forming carbonyl intermediates and controlling methyl–carbonyl coupling in photocatalysis. The formation of carbonyl intermediates is the key to the production of CH₃COOH using CH₄ as the sole carbon source, which raises very high requirements for rational construction of catalytically active sites on photocatalysts. Once carbonyl intermediates can be formed from CH₄, the carbonylation of CH₄ to CH₃COOH would no longer need the addition of CO reagent. As demonstrated in thermocatalysis²², the carbonyl group generated in situ from CH₄ oxidation can be coupled with the adsorbed *CH₃, leading to CH₃COOH formation.

Here, we report that CH₄ as the sole carbon source can be directly converted to CH₃COOH without additional reagents, by rationally integrating the catalytically active sites for CH₄ activation and C-C coupling on material surface. The key is the construction of Pd/PdO heterostructure on WO₃ support. The photogenerated holes in WO₃ enable oxidation of H₂O to •OH radicals for CH₄ activation while Pd sites stabilize *CH₃ for further conversion. More importantly, PdO-the active species for CH₄ oxidation through the Mar-van Krevelen mechanism²³-is regarded as the key component for the transformation of CH₄ to carbonyl intermediate (*CO) under light irradiation. As such, the carbonylation of CH₄ can be achieved through the coupling of methyl and carbonyl intermediates, forming acetyl (CH₃CO*) precursor toward the final product of CH₃COOH. To facilitate the continuous reaction between methyl and carbonyl intermediates, we design a photochemical flow reaction device with arc-shaped flow channel, in which the flux of *CH₃ can react with *CO intermediate continually by fully utilizing PdO and *CH₃, to perform the cascade reaction. As a result, the PdO/Pd-WO₃ heterointerface nanocomposite with optimal PdO content enables the remarkable selectivity of 91.6% and production rate of 1.5 mmol $g_{Pd}^{-1}\,h^{-1}$ toward CH_3COOH, providing a feasible strategy for scale-up CH_4 conversion.

Results

Structural characterization of nanocomposites

In the preparation of nanocomposites, Pd nanoparticles (NPs) are loaded on WO₃ nanosheets (Pd/WO₃), followed by the further thermal annealing process to decorate PdO species on Pd NPs. The obtained samples are denoted as PdO/Pd-WO₃-x where x = 1-5 by increasing the annealing temperature (refer to Methods). The Pd contents are kept constant in these samples, which are confirmed by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) (Supplementary Table 1), to exclude the effect of Pd content on CH₄ conversion performance. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images reveal that the prepared WO₃ nanosheets have the edge lengths of ~170 nm (Supplementary Fig. 1), and the nanoparticles in all samples are highly dispersed on WO₃ substrate (Supplementary Fig. 2). The sizes of Pd NPs increase from Pd/WO₃ to PdO/Pd-WO₃-5 with the annealing temperature raised (Supplementary Fig. 3), implying the incorporation of oxygen atoms into the nanoparticles along with their lattice expansion. The samples are further characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) as shown in Supplementary Fig. 4. The diffraction peaks of Pd and PdO are absent in the XRD patterns, indicating that the nanoparticles are highly dispersed at a low loading amount.

To look into the detailed structures, the nanoparticles on WO_3 supports are examined by high-resolution TEM (HRTEM). The Pd NPs are decorated with PdO with different oxidation degree by controlling the annealing temperature. As shown in Fig. 1a, the pristine Pd nanoparticle only displays the interplanar distance of 2.2 Å, corresponding to the spacing of Pd (111) planes²⁴⁻²⁶. After the annealing process, the new lattice fringes with a spacing of 2.65 Å appear in the nanoparticles (Fig. 1b and Supplementary Fig. 5), which can be assigned to the (101)



Fig. 1 | **Structural characterization of nanocomposites. a**–**c** HRTEM images of Pd/ WO₃ (**a**), PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 (**b**) and PdO/Pd–WO₃-5 (**c**). **d** Typical HRTEM image of PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 sample showing Pd/PdO heterostructure. **e** Corresponding FFT

patterns of α and β regions in **d**. **f** HAADF-STEM image of PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 sample. **g** EELS spectra collected in the regions 1 and 2 marked in **f**. **h** Structural illustration of PdO–Pd–WO₃ heterointerface.



Fig. 2 | **Light-driven CH₄ conversion performance of nanocomposites. a** Production rates for light-driven CH₄ conversion over Pd/WO₃ and PdO/Pd–WO₃-1 to PdO/Pd–WO₃-5 samples. **b** Time-dependent rates of CH₃COOH and CH₃OH

production as well as CH₄ conversion over PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 nanocomposite. **c** Reaction-regeneration cycles in CH₄ conversion. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the experiments.

planes of PdO^{27,28}. Meanwhile, the Pd (111) planes are still observed in the nanoparticles, indicating the existence of Pd/PdO heterostructure in PdO/Pd–WO₃-1 to PdO/Pd–WO₃-4. As the annealing temperature reaches 450 °C, the Pd NPs are completely transformed to PdO NPs (Fig. 1c). Moreover, the compositions of Pd and PdO species are investigated by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As shown in Supplementary Fig. 6, the content of Pd²⁺ increases by elevating the annealing temperature, in agreement with the findings from HRTEM images.

The Pd-PdO interface is further resolved meticulously to illustrate the active structure for CH₄ conversion. Taking PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 as an example, abundant Pd/PdO grain boundaries are observed by the distinguishable lattice parameters of Pd and PdO (Fig. 1d and Supplementary Fig. 7). Figure 1e shows the fast Fourier transform (FFT) diffraction patterns obtained from the α and β regions in Fig. 1d. The FFT pattern with the labels of (110), (101) and (112) in α region fits the tetragonal structure of PdO along the zone axis of [111]²⁹. Meanwhile, in β region, we can also obtain the FFT pattern of Pd along the zone axis of [011] direction belonging to the face-centered cubic (fcc) structure with (200), $(1\overline{1}1)$ and $(0\overline{2}2)^{30}$. Furthermore, the Pd/PdO grain boundary is examined by atomic-resolution high-angle annular dark-field scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM), with their compositions further analyzed via electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS). As shown in Fig. 1f and g, in addition to the detected signals of Pd-M_{4,5} edges at both sites 1 and 2, the peak of O-K edge is also recognized at site 1, corresponding to the composition of PdO^{31,32}. Taken together, the aforementioned results demonstrate the existence of Pd/PdO heterostructure on WO₃ support. During the annealing process, the PdO component appears on Pd NPs under the cooperation of oxygen and support, as nano-islands rather than core-shell structure³³, forming the PdO-Pd-WO₃ triple interface (Fig. 1h).

Performance of light-driven CH₄ conversion

Upon acquiring the fine structures, we are now in a position to investigate the efficacy of the PdO/Pd-WO₃ nanocomposites in light-driven CH₄ conversion. The photochemical measurements are conducted in a quartz reactor under xenon arc lamp irradiation. Pure WO₃ nanosheets show sluggish properties for CH₄ conversion (Supplementary Fig. 8). After Pd NPs deposition, the CH₄ conversion activity over Pd/WO₃ is enhanced with CH₃OH as the primary product (Fig. 2a). Interestingly, the photochemical performance is significantly altered after the incorporation of PdO species into the Pd/WO3 structure, which exhibits a volcano-like relationship with the amount of PdO. Specifically, the addition of PdO to the samples dramatically boosts the production of CH₃COOH. Among the samples, the PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 achieves the highest production rate and selectivity toward CH₃COOH at 62.5 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ and 60.2%, respectively. The outstanding performance of converting CH₄ to CH₃COOH indicates that the Pd/PdO heterostructure enables an efficient C-C coupling process. However, the excessive PdO in nanocomposites hinders the Schottky contact between Pd and WO₃. which further reduces photo-induced charge separation efficiency and substantially suppresses photochemical performance (Supplementary Figs. 9 and 10).

To confirm the carbon source of the liquid products, the origin of CH_3OH and CH_3COOH , as the main products, are traced with ^{13}C nuclear magnetic resonance (^{13}C NMR) spectroscopy by using $^{13}CH_4$ as the reactant. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 11, the peaks at 20.5 and 176.7 ppm are attributed to $^{13}CH_3$ ¹³COOH while the peak at 48.9 ppm is assigned to $^{13}CH_3OH$. In addition, the control experiments indicate that no product can be detected in the absence of nanocomposite, light irradiation or CH_4 reactant (Supplementary Fig. 12). These results provide the evidence that the primary products indeed originate from light-driven CH_4 conversion.



Fig. 3 | **In situ characterizations of the photochemical CH₄ conversion process. a**, **b** In situ DRIFT spectra for light-driven CH₄ conversion over Pd/WO₃ (**a**) and PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 (**b**). **c**, **d** In situ NAP-XPS results of high-resolution C 1*s* (**c**) and O 1*s* (**d**) spectra over PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 nanocomposite.

It is worth pointing out that differing from the conventional CH₄ photooxidation requiring extra oxidant addition (e.g., O_2), our reaction system utilizes the reactants of CH₄ and H₂O, in which the ·OH radical produced from water oxidation is the ideal oxidizer for CH₄ activation (Supplementary Figs. 13 and 14)³⁴. As displayed in Supplementary Fig. 15, increasing the concentration of O_2 will not promote the generation of liquid products but lead to CO₂ production during the CH₄ photooxidation over PdO/Pd–WO₃-2. The activation of CH₄ by ·OH radicals can produce ·CH₃ as detected by in situ electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) measurement (Supplementary Fig. 16).

To better evaluate the efficiency, we conduct time-dependent measurement over PdO/Pd-WO₃-2. As shown in Fig. 2b, the production of CH₃COOH and CH₃OH gradually increases in the first 3 h, achieving an impressive CH₄ conversion rate of 181.5 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹. However, the performance shows distinct decay when the reaction time exceeds 3 h, which should be ascribed to the consumption of PdO species after the photochemical process (Supplementary Figs. 17 and 18). The constructed Pd/PdO heterostructure is gradually destroyed along with the reaction, which further reduces the efficiency of C-C coupling toward CH₃COOH production. In the meantime, negligible H₂ detection during the reaction suggests that the lattice oxygen of WO_3 is consumed for H₂O production, which also leads to performance decay (Supplementary Figs. 19 and 20). To overcome this limitation, we carry out the regeneration process by heating the nanocomposites in air, in which the consumed oxygen (i.e., PdO on Pd and lattice oxygen in WO₃) can be replenished to recover activity (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Fig. 21). As such, a durable photochemical CH₄ conversion process can be established by recycling the photochemical CH₄ conversion and air recovery. The durability measurement indicates that the performance of PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 is well maintained for five cyclic tests with each cycle lasting 5 h in such a recycling system (Supplementary Fig. 22). Moreover, the leaching out of Pd during the cyclic tests is also negligible according to the results of mass spectrometry (Supplementary Fig. 23).

Reaction intermediates detection

The information gleaned above has recognized the promising performance for the conversion of CH₄ to CH₃COOH by modulating Pd/PdO heterostructure. Naturally, a question arises how CH₄ evolves into CH₃COOH over PdO/Pd-WO₃ nanocomposites without additional carbon sources. To this end, we investigate the reaction intermediates over the nanocomposites during the photochemical CH₄ conversion process. Figure 3a shows the in situ diffuse reflectance-infrared Fourier-transform spectra (DRIFTS) for light-driven CH4 conversion over Pd/WO₃ sample. Upon light irradiation, apart from the peaks at 1305 and 3015 cm⁻¹ corresponding to C-H deformation vibration of CH₄, the peak at 1439 cm⁻¹ for CH₂/CH₃ deformation vibration appears gradually, indicating the CH₄ dissociation over the sample^{35,36}. Moreover, the significant growth of vibrational peak at 1061 cm⁻¹ and bands at 2927 and 2963 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the methoxy and C-H stretching vibrations in CH₃OH product, can be attributed to the CH₄ activation in the presence of $\cdot OH^{37}$. In sharp contrast, PdO/Pd-WO₃

nanocomposites that can produce CH₃COOH through light-driven CH₄ conversion exhibit different behavior in DRIFTS (Fig. 3b). In addition to the vibration signals of CH₃OH observed over Pd/WO₃, the additional vibrational modes of C = O (1654 cm⁻¹), C–O (979 cm⁻¹), C–C (867 cm⁻¹) and C–H (2858 cm⁻¹) stretching vibrations can be monitored for the formation of CH₃COOH over PdO/Pd–WO₃·2^{38,39}. Notably, a broad peak at 2060 cm⁻¹ in Fig. 3b is observed with the light irradiation proceeding, which can be assigned to the adsorbed *CO on Pd site (Supplementary Fig. 24)⁴⁰. The vibration signals of C = O and *CO only appear with the existence of PdO species, implying that the synergistic effect of Pd/PdO heterostructure in the nanocomposite can facilitate the CH₃COOH production with *CO as an intermediate.

To further understand the process with elemental information, the surface carbon and oxygen species are also monitored by in situ near ambient pressure XPS (NAP-XPS) characterization. As shown in Fig. 3c, after introducing the reactant into NPA-XPS chamber, the peak of gas-phase CH₄ (287.0 eV) is observed in the high-resolution C 1s XPS spectrum (Supplementary Fig. 25). Upon light irradiation, three C1s peaks of surface \cdot CH_x (285.5 eV), C–O (286.1 eV) and COO (289.1 eV) species appear and increase with the time evolution⁴¹⁻⁴³. Meanwhile, the formation of oxygenates from CH₄ oxidation is also verified by collecting the O1s spectra in NAP-XPS studies. Apart from the peak of lattice oxygen in sample (O1, 530 eV), the featured peaks of hydroxyl (02, 531.1 eV), C-O (03, 531.8 eV), adsorbed H₂O (04, 532.5 eV) and C=O (05, 533.2 eV) species are resolved after light illumination (Fig. 3d)⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. Of note, although the signals of *CO have been detected by in situ DRIFT and NAP-XPS measurements, gaseous CO is not observed as a product. Indeed, previous work has demonstrated that the adsorption of CO on PdO site is extremely strong so that *CO would be coupled with other intermediates before desorption⁴⁷. Apparently, the surface $\cdot CH_x$, C–O and C = O species are corroborated with the observation of in situ DRIFTS spectra. This indicates that the co-adsorption of CH₄ and H₂O over Pd/PdO heterostructure can produce various surface carbonaceous intermediates including methyl and carbonyl species and further generate liquid oxygenates.

Mechanistic study

As revealed by in situ characterizations, the carbonyl species is the key intermediate for the conversion of CH4 to CH3COOH, which is closely correlated with the presence of PdO in the prepared nanocomposite. The case of Pd/WO₃ reveals that the generation of ·OH radicals alone cannot lead to the formation of C = O in the absence of PdO species (Fig. 3a), implying that the oxygen in C = O is most likely derived from PdO in the nanocomposite. To further trace the oxygen source of carbonyl intermediate in CH₃COOH production, we prepare the ¹⁸O-labeled PdO-modified nanocomposite (denoted as Pd¹⁸O/Pd-WO₃-2) by annealing pristine Pd/WO₃ in ${}^{18}O_2$ atmosphere. Subsequently, the light-driven CH₄ oxidation is performed over Pd¹⁸O/Pd-WO₃-2 and the products are analyzed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC -MS), in reference to Pd¹⁶O/Pd-WO₃-2. In contrast to the case of Pd¹⁶O/ Pd-WO₃-2, the peaks at m/z = 45 and 47 by Pd¹⁸O/Pd-WO₃-2 can be ascribed to $CH_3C^{18}O^+$ and ${}^+C^{18}OOH$ (Fig. 4a), indicating that the O atom in *CO is derived from the lattice oxygen of Pd18O in sample. As a result, the peak at m/z = 62 for CH₃C¹⁸OOH can be detected.

To further understand the working mechanism of PdO in the production of CH₃COOH, we quantitatively establish the relation between PdO consumption and CH₃COOH production. With this purpose, the H₂-temperature-programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) is employed to determine the content of PdO in PdO/Pd–WO₃-x nanocomposites (Supplementary Fig. 26). As revealed in Fig. 4b, the amounts of PdO in samples are very close to the CH₃COOH yield at low PdO contents (i.e., PdO/Pd–WO₃-1 and PdO/Pd–WO₃-2). Given that the PdO is completely consumed after photochemical tests, this further confirms that the lattice oxygen of PdO solely contributes to

the formation of C = O in CH₃COOH during photochemical CH₄ oxidation process. However, excessive PdO in nanocomposites will lower the content of metallic Pd to form PdO–WO₃ interface, which suppresses charge separation and reduces performance^{48–50}. In this case, the low CH₄ photooxidation performance allows most lattice oxygen atoms in PdO to remain in the samples (i.e., PdO/Pd–WO₃-3 to PdO/Pd–WO₃-5 in Fig. 4b). It is worth pointing out that the formation of Pd–PdO interface in nanocomposite is critical for CH₃COOH generation. Our control experiments indicate that CH₃COOH cannot be produced through simply mixing Pd/WO₃ with PdO, suggesting that Pd–PdO interface is a key factor for CH₃COOH generation (Supplementary Fig. 27). Moreover, the CH₃COOH production depends on the structural character of Pd/PdO heterointerface (Supplementary Figs. 28 and 29), corroborating the importance of Pd/PdO interface quality to CH₃COOH synthesis.

Taken together, the experimental results have revealed the critical role of Pd/PdO heterointerface in CH₄-to-CH₃COOH conversion. Figure 4c illustrates the proposed reaction pathway. CH₄ prefers to be activated at Pd site in the presence of ·OH and form Pd–CH₃ intermediate (Supplementary Fig. 30). The methyl species can be gradually converted to Pd–CO intermediate through the combination with O atom from PdO and the dehydrogenation by ·OH. Subsequently, the C–C coupling between carbonyl and methyl species generates the Pd–COCH₃ intermediate at Pd–PdO interface, and the further hydrolysis of Pd–COCH₃ gives CH₃COOH as a product^{S1–53}. Of note, W sites are also active for *CH₃ generation by directly oxidizing CH₄ on WO₃. However, the *CH₃ formed on WO₃ can hardly approach the *CO on PdO so that the surplus *CH₃ species would evolve into C₁ oxygenates^{54,55}.

From the working mechanism of Pd/PdO heterostructure, we can now understand that the complete consumption of lattice oxygen in PdO during light-driven CH₃COOH production, in the case of PdO/ Pd-WO₃-2, will inevitably lead to the significant performance decay for CH₃COOH production after the reaction (Supplementary Fig. 31). In comparison, the CH₃OH production is not significantly affected by the oxygen loss in PdO. It is worth noting that the evolution of WO₃ in photochemical CH₄ conversion is also a factor for performance decay. Given that no H₂ is detected in the photochemical process, the WO₃ is inevitably reduced by photo-induced electrons, which is accompanied with gradual lattice oxygen loss, also causing performance decay (Supplementary Fig. 20). Nevertheless, the amount of lost oxygen atoms in WO₃ is determined to be 1.28% through the calculation based on the demand of ·OH radical production, which is negligible as compared with the consumption of PdO (taking PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 as example). Furthermore, the lost lattice oxygen in WO₃ can be replenished together with that in PdO during the regeneration process, recovering photochemical activity.

Following the mechanistic studies, our investigation on photochemical CH_4 conversion in gas-solid phase indicates that the generated * CH_3 may undergo self-coupling to produce C_2H_6 as the primary product (Supplementary Fig. 32). For this reason, the controllable utilization of * CH_3 in solution and gas phases is of great importance to further improve the production rate and selectivity for CH_3COOH .

Photochemical flow synthesis of CH₃COOH

The key to controllable *CH₃ utilization is the efficient methyl–carbonyl coupling. Certainly, such an efficient coupling should be based on the supply of sufficient *CO species. Our control experiments show that the addition of CO to the reaction system using Pd/WO₃ nanocomposite, in the absence of PdO, can deliver similar CH₃COOH production (Supplementary Fig. 33). In comparison, the addition of methanol does not obviously promote the CH₃COOH production over PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 nanocomposite, suggesting that CH₃COOH is not the product primarily from methanol carbonylation (Supplementary Fig. 34). The results provide us the clues for enhancing CH₃COOH



Fig. 4 | **Mechanism for photochemical CH₄ to CH₃COOH conversion.** a Mass spectra of CH₃COOH product using Pd¹⁶O/Pd–WO₃-2 and ¹⁸O-labeled Pd¹⁸O/ Pd–WO₃-2 nanocomposite. **b** The comparison of PdO contents in samples (50 mg)

and the CH₃COOH yields of the corresponding samples. **c** Schematic illustration for photochemical conversion of CH₄ to CH₃COOH over Pd/PdO heterointerface in the presence of \cdot OH radicals. The numbers represent the reaction steps.

process also demonstrates the reproducibility and durability of the

We have demonstrated a direct light-driven synthesis of CH₃COOH

solely from CH₄ on PdO/Pd-WO₃ heterointerface nanocomposite, by

controlling carbonyl intermediate formation and methyl-carbonyl

coupling. As revealed by solid evidence from in situ characterizations, the PdO species can convert CH_4 into carbonyl intermediate,

holding the key to CH₃COOH production. Our isotope labeling

experiments indicate that the oxygen atom in carbonyl intermediate

is derived from the lattice oxygen of PdO in nanocomposite, pro-

viding important information for establishing a conversion-regen-

eration process toward long-term recyclability. Leveraging our

understanding on CH₄-to-CH₃COOH conversion pathway, we have designed a photochemical flow reaction device enabling cascade

reactions to enhance the efficiency and selectivity of acetic acid

structure engineering to controlling intermediates evolution, and

provides new insights for selective C₂₊ oxygenates synthesis using

methane as resource under mild conditions.

flow reaction device (Fig. 5e).

Discussion

production—the cascade reaction between *CO and *CH₃ on nanocomposite in continuous reaction channels that can promote the utilization of PdO and *CH₃.

To this end, we design a photochemical flow reaction device with arc-shaped flow channels to further enhance the performance of CH₃COOH production (Supplementary Fig. 35). In this design, the *CH₃ species that have not coupled with *CO can migrate along the sample to further react with the adsorbed *CO or even evolve into *CO on the downstream PdO sites, promoting the conversion of CH₄ to CH₃COOH. Specifically, CH₄ and H₂O are premixed to form the monodispersed gas bubbles, which are then pumped into the flow reactor to generate gas-liquid-solid contact in channels (Fig. 5a). Benefitting from the flowing reactants and three-phase interface between CH₄, H₂O and sample (Fig. 5b, c), the generated *CH₃ in solution from gas-solid phase CH4 oxidation can be rapidly captured by *CO on sample layer to realize continuous synthesis of CH₃COOH. As such, the remarkable selectivity of 91.6% and production rate of 90.7 µmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ are achieved for CH₃COOH production over PdO/ Pd–WO₃-2 nanocomposite (Fig. 5d). As normalized to the Pd loading weight, the production rate reaches 1.5 mmol g_{Pd}^{-1} , which exceeds the performance of existing photocatalysts for oxygenates production under mild condition (Supplementary Table 2). Furthermore, the integration of photochemical CH₄ conversion with regeneration

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Fig. 5 | **Photochemical flow synthesis of CH₃COOH from CH₄. a** Schematic illustration of photochemical flow reaction device, including reactants supplier, homemade reactor and products collector. **b**, **c** Side (**b**) and top (**c**) views of the arc-shaped flow channel in homemade reactor and the three-phase contact between CH₄, H₂O and sample. The purple, blue and brown colors represent CH₄, H₂O and

nanocomposite, respectively. **d** Production rate and selectivity of light-driven CH_4 conversion toward CH_3COOH over PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 nanocomposite using the flow reaction device or conventional device for the first 3 h. **e** Reaction-regeneration cycles on PdO/Pd–WO₃-2 sample by employing the flow reaction device. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the experiments.

Methods

Chemicals

Sodium tungstate dehydrate (Na₂WO₄·2H₂O, 99.5%), citric acid (CA, 99.5%) and palladium chloride (PdCl₂, 98% metals basis) were purchased from Aladdin. Sodium borohydride (NaBH₄, 98%) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Hydrochloric acid (HCl, 36 - 38%) and ascorbic acid (AA, 99.7%) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. The water used in all experiments was deionized. All of the chemical reagents were used as received without further purification.

Materials preparation

WO₃ nanosheets were prepared by a two-step process. Typically, 1 mmol Na₂WO₄·2H₂O and 1.5 mmol citric acid were dissolved in 30 mL H₂O to form a transparent solution. Then 3 mL of HCl solution (6 M) was added into the solution with vigorous stirring for 30 min. The mixture was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and heated at 120 °C for 24 h. The resulting precursor of WO3·H2O nanosheets was centrifuged and washed with water several times, and dried in a vacuum oven. The WO3 nanosheets were obtained by calcinating the collected solid in air at 400 °C for 2 h. For the synthesis of Pd/WO₃ nanocomposites, 60 mg WO₃ nanosheets were dispersed in 30 mL water to form a homogeneous suspension. Then 6.5 mg of PdCl₂ was dissolved in 0.5 mL HCl solution (10 mM), which was added into the WO₃ suspension and further reacted with 5 mg of NaBH₄. The slurry was washed with water three times and dried in a vacuum oven, producing Pd/WO₃ sample. The PdO/Pd-WO₃-1, PdO/Pd-WO₃-2 and PdO/Pd-WO₃-3 nanocomposites were obtained by calcinating the Pd/ WO₃ sample at 120 °C, 200 °C and 260 °C for 5 h, respectively, with a

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heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹ in air. The PdO/Pd–WO₃-4 and PdO/Pd–WO₃-5 nanocomposites were obtained by calcinating the Pd/WO₃ sample at 350 °C and 450 °C for 3 h and 2 h, respectively, with a heating rate of 2 °C min⁻¹ in air.

Characterization

Powder XRD patterns were measured by Philips X'Pert Pro Super X-ray diffractometer with Cu-K α radiation (λ = 1.54178 Å). XPS characterizations of the prepared samples were carried out on JPS-9010MC (JEOL, Japan) with a hemispherical electron energy analyzer (1486 eV Al K α radiation). TEM images were taken on a Hitachi Model H-7700 microscope at 100 kV. HRTEM images were taken on a JEOL JEM-2100 field-emission higher-resolution transmission electron microscope at 200 kV. The aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM images and EELS analysis were collected on the JEOL ARM-200F field-emission transmission electron microscope operated at 200 kV. EPR spectra for radical detection were obtained on the JEOL JES-FA200 spectrometer.

Photochemical CH₄ conversion measurement

In a typical test, 10.0 mg of sample was dispersed in 10 mL water and added into a 30 mL custom-made quartz tube reactor. The light-driven CH₄ conversion experiments were carried out in pure CH₄ atmosphere (0.1 MPa) at room temperature. The reactor was irradiated by a 300 W xenon lamp (PLS-SXE300, Perfect light) with light intensity of 200 mW cm⁻¹. The gas products were quantified by a gas chromatograph (GC, 7890B, Ar carrier, Agilent) equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and flame ionization detector (FID). Another GC (Techcomp GC-7900, China) equipped with a TDX-01 packed

column was employed to measure the amounts of CO and CO₂. The liquid products were quantified by ¹H NMR (Bruker Avance, 600 MHz) with a water suppression pulse sequence. A certain concentration of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) solution was used as external standard to calibrate the liquid products. The trapping experiments were performed by adding 1 mM K₂Cr₂O₇, Na₂C₂O₄ and salicylic acid into the reaction solution as photo-induced electron, hole and ·OH scavengers, respectively.

For using the designed photochemical flow device, 100 mg of sample was loaded on the channel of the homemade flow reactor. The reactor was clamped with mould and quartz plate. The reactants of CH₄ and H₂O were premixed by the microfluidic device to form the monodisperse gas and bubble, which were then pumped into the reactor for photochemical conversion under 300 mW cm⁻¹ of light irradiation. The liquid products were received in bottle. For recovering the photochemical performance, the sample was calcinated at 230 °C for 3 h with a heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹ in air.

Isotope-labeling experiments

The isotope-labeling experiments were performed by using pure 13 CH₄ and 12 CH₄ as feeding gas. The liquid products were detected by 13 C NMR. To trace the oxygen atom of CH₃COOH, the PdO species in nanocomposite was generated by calcinating Pd/WO₃ nanocomposite in 18 O₂ atmosphere at 200 °C for 8 h to label the oxygen atoms in PdO. The photochemical tests were performed in the homemade flow reaction device for maximizing CH₃COOH yield. The CH₃COOH product was concentrated and then analyzed by GC–MS (7890 A and 5975 C, He carrier, Agilent).

Photocurrent measurements

The photocurrent tests of the prepared samples were conducted on CHI 660D electrochemical workstation (CH Instruments) with threeelectrode system under light or dark condition. Typically, 5.0 mg of material was dispersed in 500 μ L of ethanol/water mixture (4:1, v/v) and then dropped onto a 1 × 3 cm fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO)coated glass for work electrode preparation. The Pt foil and saturated Ag/AgCl electrode were employed as counter and reference electrode, respectively. The measurements were performed using 0.5 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution as electrolyte. The photocurrent responses of the photoelectrodes (i.e., 1–t curves) were collected by measuring the photocurrent densities under chopped light irradiation (light on/off cycles: 10 s) at a bias potential of 0.8 V vs. Ag/AgCl.

Detection of hydroxyl and methyl radicals

Briefly, the sample and 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO) were dispersed in ice-bath water. The mixture was vigorously shaken and irradiated by using a 500 W xenon lamp, and then analyzed by EPR spectroscopy. Methyl radical was trapped by the same procedure under pure CH_4 in the reaction system.

In situ DRIFTS for photochemical CH₄ conversion

In situ DRIFTS measurements were performed at BL01B in the NSRL in Hefei, China. The spectra were collected by using a Bruker IFS 66 v Fourier-transform spectrometer equipped with Harrick diffuse reflectance accessory with ZnSe and quartz window. Each spectrum was recorded by averaging 128 scans at a resolution of 2 cm⁻¹. After sample loading, pure CH₄ (99.999%) and water vapor were introduced into the chamber for background spectra collection. After that, the system was exposed to light irradiation and the spectra were collected when the irradiation times were 1, 5, 10, 20 and 30 min, respectively.

In situ NAP-XPS measurement for photochemical CH₄ conversion

In situ NAP-XPS measurements were carried at the beamline BL02B1 of SSRF under light irradiation or dark condition. The sample was

dropped onto a silicon wafer and subsequently cleaned by Ar plasmon for 10 min to remove the surface agent on sample. The prepared sample was stored in the vacuum before the measurement. The XPS spectra were recorded under dark condition firstly. After that, the reactant was sequentially introduced into the analysis chamber with the partial pressure up to 45 Pa. Subsequently, the in situ NAP-XPS spectra were collected under 365 nm LED light irradiation.

Data availability

The authors declare that all data supporting the findings of this study are available in the article and its Supplementary Information. Source data are provided with this paper. Figure 1g, Fig. 2a–c, Fig. 3a–d, Fig. 4a –b, Fig. 5d–e, Fig. S4, Fig. S6, Fig. S8, Fig. S9, Fig. S11, Fig. S17, Fig. S19, Fig. S22, Fig. S24. Additional data are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Article

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Author contributions

R.L. and Y.X. supervised the projects. W.Z., R.L. and Y.X. conceived the idea for this work. W.Z. prepared the photocatalysts, carried out catalytic measurements and in situ experiments. W.Z., D.X., Y.C., A.C. and Y.J. contributed to the characterization. W.Z., R.L. and Y.X. analyzed the data. W.Z., Z.Z., H.Z. and Z.L. contributed to the NAP-XPS measurements. W.Z. and H.L. contributed to the DRIFTS measurements. W.Z., R.L. and Y.X. wrote the manuscript. All the authors contributed to the interpretation of the data and preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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