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Electronic properties of rutile and anatase TiO² and their effect on CO² adsorption: a comparison of first principle approaches

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Abstract

Photocatalysis is a promising technique for utilizing solar light in chemical synthesis. Among several effective photocatalysts, TiO₂ remains the archetypal representative. Using density functional theory calculations, we characterized the geometric, mechanical, electronic and optical properties of rutile and anatase $TiO₂$. We show that a proper choice of the functional and corrections is of paramount importance. While the geometric and mechanical properties are well reproduced with conventional GGA functionals, electronic properties require at least a Hubbard approach. Despite being revered as superior, hybrid functionals do not necessarily perform better and a prudent choice is required. On the contrary, a lower Hubbard correction is desirable for a proper description of interactions, defects and structures. Lastly, $CO₂$ adsorption was studied on several surfaces. Pristine anatase and rutile surfaces poorly activate $CO₂$, with the exception of rutile (001), which binds $CO₂$ strongly in a bent form, showing considerable charge transfer and activation.

Keywords: Density Functional Theory (DFT), DFT+U, hybrid functionals, TiO2, CO2 adsorption

1. Introduction

3 Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has received significant attention recently due to its wide range of applications. Although useful in catalysis, coating industry or as antibacterial agent [1], it stands out for 5 photocatalytic properties. Appearing in different crystal phases, the most common phases of TiO₂ in nature are rutile, anatase and brookite [2], whilst other polymorphs such as cotunnite-type, abaddeleyite-type, pyrite-type, columbite-type have also been discovered [3]. In photocatalysis, the most studied polymorphs are anatase and rutile thanks to their superior photoactivity, while brookite is only occasionally included.

 One of the crucial characteristics of photocatalytic materials is the band gap, which corresponds to the energy required to excite an electron from the valence band to the conduction band, yielding 12 excited electrons required for photoreductive reactions. The drawback of using pure $TiO₂$ is its large band gap (anatase: 3.2 eV; rutile: 3.0 eV), limiting its activity to the UV. This allows to exploit only 4 % of the incident solar light, while the visible light accounts for roughly another 43 % of the solar energy [4].

 Several contingencies are available to increase the photocatalytic activity of TiO2. Doping (e.g. N [5], S [6], C [7]) can decrease the band gap but caution should be taken as doping can also introduce mid- gap states, which act as recombination centers and hinder the activity [8]. Co-doping (e.g. N or C, Nb or Ta [9], C, N, S [10]), can be used to avoid this problem [9]. Another approach to improve the photocatalytic activity is the deposition of a co-catalyst on the surface. These are usually (noble) metals (e.g. Au [11], Ag [12], Ni, Cu, Co [13], Cr, Fe [14], Pt [15]), which act as electron traps and promote charge separation [16, 17]. Surface defects (e.g. oxygen vacancies) exhibit similar tendencies [18], whereas bulk defects act as recombination centers [19]. Another option is to combine 24 different semiconductors into the so-called Z-scheme photocatalysts (e.g. $Ag_3PO_4/TiO_2[20]$, g-

 $25 \text{ C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{TiO}_2[21], \text{TiO}_2/\text{NiS} [22]),$ which exploit a high conduction band minimum of one semiconductor and a low valence band maximum of the other.

 As described, there are a plethora of possibilities for tuning of photocatalysts. As experimental probing of all possible modifications and their combinations has proved time- and resource-consuming, computer simulations have become a more popular surrogate. Recent advances in available computational power and theoretical techniques have made it possible to rely increasingly on *in silico* results. However, the choice of the method used is paramount for obtaining meaningful results. For instance, in density functional theory, the choice of the exchange functional has profound effects on the outcome. While LDA and GGA produce reasonable geometries, they fail to correctly predict the 34 electronic properties of TiO₂ [23]. A cheap way to rectify this problem is by applying a Hubbard correction (DFT+U) [24] on localized *d* and *f* electrons, which effectively adds a screened Coulomb interaction [25]. While it is computationally not more expensive, the drawback of the method is that U has to be chosen arbitrarily to reproduce the desired property and is in general not transferrable between different materials [26]. Hybrid functionals *can* yield superior agreement with experiments at the expense of the computational cost, provided that an appropriate functional is chosen.

 Climate change has prompted scientists to search for ways to reduce the emissions or otherwise utilize CO2, preferably converting it into value-added products. One of the most promising approaches is 42 photocatalytic CO₂ conversion, where TiO₂ has received extensive attention due to its proven record 43 in the field. Although pristine TiO₂ surfaces exhibit poor photoactivity, incorporation of surface defects such as oxygen vacancies [27], doping [28], deposition of co-catalysts [29] or Z-scheme [30] catalysts have proven to substantially increase their activity due to improved charge separation, increased charge transfer and lower band gap [31, 32]. Nevertheless, photoactivity of the catalyst is not sufficient as the catalyst must also bind the reactantsstrongly enough. As it will be shown later on, we 48 studied how different $TiO₂$ structures and surfaces bind and activate CO₂.

 In photocatalysis, anatase and rutile are predominantly used. While rutile is the more stable phase under ambient conditions, anatase is more active. It is believed that the larger band gap of anatase increases the oxidation strength of photoexcited electrons [33], which promotes the activity. The charge carrier lifetime is also generally longer in indirect band gap semiconductors (anatase) than in direct ones (rutile) [34], usually an order of magnitude. As found by Luttrell et al. [35] charge carriers can originate from much deeper in the bulk for anatase as opposed to rutile, increasing the activity. Zhang et al. have shown [36] that the average effective mass of photogenerated charge carriers (holes and electrons), which has a profound effect on their migration rate and recombination. They calculated that the average effective mass for electrons and holes was smaller in anatase compared to rutile. This facilitates their migration, prevents recombination and in turn boosts the photocatalytic activity [37]. It is also important to note that different surfaces exhibit different activities, as well as band gaps, demonstrated by Pan et al. [38]. The catalyst characteristics differ not only among different materials but also among different surfaces of the same material.

 In this work, we studied and compared the geometric, mechanical and electronic properties of rutile 63 and anatase crystal phases of TiO₂. They were compared using different types of functionals and corrections (PBE, PBE+U (*U-J*=4, 6 and 8 eV), PBE+U+D3 and hybrid functionals PBE0, B3LYP and HSE06) within the density functional theory framework. We demonstrated that choosing a proper functional is of crucial importance for a proper description. Furthermore optical properties were investigated. Finally, we examined three most common anatase and rutile surfaces for adsorption and 68 subsequent activation of CO₂. We show that rutile (001) is the only active TiO₂ surface for CO₂ activation among the tested ones. Moreover, we show that HSE06 yields a superior description of the electronic properties of TiO2. When the computational cost is prohibitive, a proper Hubbard correction to GGA functionals is also acceptable. B3LYP and PBE0 performed worse, thus not justifying their computational cost.

2. Theoretical methods

 The calculations were performed in GPAW 20.1.0 [39] with the projector augmented wave method (PAW) as implemented in the plane-wave approach. Fermi-Dirac smearing of 0.01 eV was applied. Spin-polarized calculations were not necessary as the magnetic moments were shown to be quenched. The Hubbard [24] term was employed to take into account the strong on-site Coulomb interactions of localized electrons. We follow the approach by Dudarev [40], where a single value of *U-J* (non-normalized) is used (in our case 4, 6 and 8 eV) on Ti 3*d* orbitals, since O and C lack occupied *d* orbitals. Long range dispersion forces were accounted for through the Grimme-D3 [41] correction.

82 The energy cut off for the wave function was set at 500 eV as determined by convergence tests. The 83 unit cells of rutile and anatase TiO₂ were sampled with a Monkhorst-Pack mesh [42] using 16x16x16 84 and 16x16x8 k-points, respectively. Due to the size of surface slab supercells, a 2x2x1 k-point mesh sufficed. To avoid spurious interactions between the periodic slabs, a 12 Å vacuum in the *z*-direction with a dipole correction [43] was employed.

 For surface slabs, 2x2 supercells were used (except for rutile (110) surface where a 3x2 supercell was required). The bulk modulus was calculated as a second derivative of energy with respect to the unit 89 cell volume (unit cell was varied from 95 to 105 % of the most stable size with increment of 1 %), and then fit with the stabilized jellium equation of state (SJEOS) [44]. The dielectric function (constant) was calculated with the linear dielectric response of an extended system as implemented in GPAW within the random phase approximation (RPA) [43, 44]. The parameter *nbands* was set at quadruple the number of occupied bands, *ecut* for local field effect at 40 eV and the broadening parameter *eta* at 0.05 eV. The scissoring operator [47] was applied (unless otherwise specified) to correct for the incorrect band gap predictions by the functionals. The (absolute) scissoring value was obtained as the difference between the calculated and the experimentally determined band gap.

97 For CO₂ adsorption, all possible adsorption sites were considered. The adsorption energies were 98 calculated as:

$$
99 \quad \Delta E_{ads} = E_{species + slab} - E_{slab} - E_{species} \tag{1}
$$

- 100 where $E_{species + slab}$ is the energy of the slab with the adsorbate, E_{slab} is the energy of the empty slab
- 101 and $E_{species}$ is the energy of the relaxed adsorbate in the gaseous phase.
- 102 The effective mass of photogenerated charge carriers (holes and electrons) was calculated as $m^* = h^2 \left(\frac{d^2 E}{dr^2} \right)$ $\frac{dE}{dk^2}$ −1 103 $m^* = \hbar^2 \left(\frac{d^2 E}{d \mu^2} \right)$,
- 104 where ħ is the reduced Planck constant, *E* is the electronic energy and *k* is the wave vector of the
- 105 band.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Geometry and mechanical properties

 While different functionals and approaches generally struggle least with the prediction of geometries, they represent a useful starting point to dismiss the obviously ill-suited approaches. Throughout this work, we compare the plain PBE approach, the effects of Grimme's D3 correction, three different Hubbard values applied on top of PBE (*U - J* = 4, 6, 8 eV) and three most common hybrid functionals (PBE0, HSE06, B3LYP). Henceforth, we label the approaches as: PBE, PBE+4, PBE+6, PBE+8, PBE+4+D3, PBE+6+D3, PBE+8+D3, HSE06, PBE0 and B3LYP.

 In this section, we focus our attention to the performance of the functionals in describing the geometry and mechanical properties. First, bulk crystal structures of rutile and anatase were optimized at different levels of theory and compared with experimental values from the literature. The results are summarized i[n Table 1.](#page-7-0)

Table 1: Optimized structural parameters, bulk modulus, and equilibrium volume for rutile TiO²

120 The experimentally determined lattice constants for rutile TiO₂ are $a = 4.586$ Å and $c = 2.954$ Å [48]. The PBE functional yields similar values of 4.657 Å (+1.55 %) and 2.990 Å (+1.22 %), respectively. Applying the Hubbard parameter causes slight underbinding and increases the unit cell. The Hubbard correction of 4 eV increases the lattice constants by 1.74 % and 2.03 %, whereas for 8 eV the increase is 1.96 % and 2.61 % for *a* and *c*, respectively. Similar effects have been previously observed in the literature, where the increase of *U-J* was shown to generally elongate the lattice [40]. Conversely, including the Grimme D3 dispersion corrections causes stronger binding, leading to a smaller overshoot of the unit cell parameters. The hybrid functionals HSE06 and PBE0 output similar results, which are very close to experimental lattices (less than 0.33 %), whereas B3LYP elongates the *a* cell parameter (+1.44 %) but not *c* (+0.14 %).

 The optimized structures were subsequently used as input to obtain the bulk modulus (see [Table 1\)](#page-7-0). The unit cell was varied from 95 to 105 % (with a 1 % increment) size of the optimized structure. The calculated volumes and energies were then fit by the stabilized jellium equation of state (SJEOS) [44]. Interestingly, the experimental value of bulk modulus for rutile (216 GPa) [49] is closely reproduced by the PBE functional (226.4 GPa). Applying the Hubbard parameter further improves the predictions (for 4 eV it comes even closer to 220.3 GPa) (within 2 %). Further increase of the Hubbard parameter increases the bulk modulus slightly. Adding the Grimme D3 correction increases the bulk modulus further, which could be due to the stronger binding of the structure. All hybrid functionals overestimate the bulk modulus quite significantly (in the range of 10-20 %). Other reported values in literature are 209 GPa (LDA) [2] , 240 GPa (LDA) [50], 235 GPa (PBE) [51] 242 GPa and 253 GPa (LDA)

- 140 [52]. This shows that a more sophisticated method does not necessarily translate into better bulk
- 141 modulus predictions if it has not been optimised for the calculation of that property.

142 *Table 2: Optimized structural parameters, bulk modulus, and equilibrium volume for anatase TiO²*

143

 Similar trends are observed for anatase, which has experimentally measured lattice constants of *a* = 3.782 and *c* = 9.502 Å [48]. As shown in [Table 2,](#page-9-0) PBE predicts unit cell constants of 3.815 Å (+0.87 %) and 9.691 Å (1.99 %) for *a* and *c*, respectively. Again, the Hubbard correction seems to slightly underbind the structure, yet the unit cell expansion is caused solely by the elongation of the *a* parameter. The Grimme D3 correction binds the structure stronger, resulting in a slight decrease of the unit cell. The hybrid functionals HSE06 and PBE0 output similar values, which are again extremely close to experiments, whereas B3LYP predicts a slightly larger unit cell.

 Again, the bulk modulus was calculated. The discrepancies between the calculated and experimental values were somewhat larger than for rutile. While the experimental value is known to be 179 GPa [49], the best theoretical result of 205.7 GPa was found by PBE. All other approaches produced even larger discrepancies, where similar trends to the rutile case are observed. When larger Hubbard parameters are used, the bulk modulus increased and the addition of the Grimme D3 correction increases the bulk modulus even further. Hybrid functionals PBE0 and HSE06 output similar results, which significantly overestimate the bulk modulus (~32 %), whereas B3LYP overshoots for 24 %. Other literature reports list the following values for the bulk modulus of anatase: 221 Å (GGA) [53], 199.5 Å (LDA), 179.8 Å (GGA) [54], 201 Å (LDA), 183 Å (GGA) [55] and 193 Å (hybrid B3LYP) [56].

3.2 Electronic properties

 We now turn our attention to the electronic properties, which have been a challenge for DFT when describing semiconductors. Since local functionals in LDA and GGA approximations severely underestimate the band gap of semiconductors [23]. Therefore, we use DFT+U and hybrid functionals to study the electronic properties of anatase and rutile.

Rutile TiO² exhibits a direct (Γ-Γ) band gap with an experimental value of 3.0 eV [57], whereas anatase

 Figure 1: Bandstructure obtained with PBE for A) rutile (direct band gap) and B) anatase (indirect band gap). The dotted line represents the fermi level.

In [Figure 1,](#page-11-0) we display the calculated band structures for rutile and anatase with PBE. While PBE

172 correctly captures the semiconductor character of $TiO₂$, there is no quantitative agreement as the

band gap is underestimated by more than 1 eV. The use of the Hubbard correction somewhat

 Figure 2: Bandstructure of rutile TiO² obtained by A) PBE+4, B) PBE+6, C) PBE+8 and D) HSE06 functionals. The dotted line represents the fermi level.

 The *U-J* value of 4 eV increases the band gap from 1.95 eV (PBE) to 2.23 eV, which is further increased to 2.48 eV for *U-J* = 6 eV and finally to 2.71 eV for 8 eV, which is still less than the experimental value. The hybrid functional HSE06 yields a band gap of 3.10 eV, which is consistent with the experimental value of 3.0 eV. For anatase, similar trends were observed (not shown). The calculated (indirect) band gaps are 2.10, 2.55, 2.73, 2.97 and 3.34 eV for PBE, PBE+4, PBE+6, PBE+8 and HSE06, respectively, while the experimental value is 3.20 eV. This is consistent with the literature reports on optimal *U-J* values for band gap calculations ranging between 8-10 eV for both rutile and anatase [57, 58].

Figure 3: Bandstructure of rutile TiO² obtained with A) PBE+4 and B) PBE+4+D3. The dotted line represents the fermi level.

 The Grimme D3 correction has little to no effect on the electronic structure (see [Figure 3\)](#page-13-0) and thus the band gap.

Figure 4: The projected density of states on A) PBE and B) PBE+8 rutile TiO2. The fermi level is set at 0 eV.

 From the band gap structure, the effective mass of photogenerate electrons and holes was estimated. 193 For anatase and rutile, the calculated effective mass of electrons is $m_e^*(G\rightarrow Z)=0.15m_0$ $m_e*(G\rightarrow M)=0.05m_0$ and $m_e*(G\rightarrow Z)=0.14m_0$, $m_e*(G\rightarrow M)=0.08m_0$, respectively. The calculated 195 effective mass of holes is $m_e*(G\rightarrow Z)=0.20m_0$, $m_e*(G\rightarrow M)=0.20m_0$ and $m_e*(G\rightarrow Z)=1.10m_0$ *m*e^{*}(G→M)=0.15*m*₀, respectively. The values vary negligibly if PBE or HSE06 is used and are consistent with the work of Zhang et al. [36] This explains the better photoactivity of anatase, which has a lighter and thus more mobile charge carriers, which can more easily diffuse and exhibit a lower recombination rate.

 Another important property of a catalyst is the (projected) density of states (PDOS). In [Figure 4,](#page-13-1) we show the PDOS for rutile at the PBE and PBE+8 level. Evidently the valence band is mostly composed of Ti-*p* and O-*p* states, whereas the conduction band is mainly composed of Ti-*d* states. This is consistent with the results from Han et al. [61], where they also identified a near separation between the higher and lower conduction band with the PBE functional, which is in our case visible at about 4.6 eV above the Fermi level. However, this artifact disappears upon the use of the Hubbard correction, evidenced as an overlap between the lower and higher-lying portions of the conduction 207 band, which Han et al. attributed to the better band gap predictions.

Figure 5: The projected density of states on a) PBE and b) PBE+8 anatase TiO2. The fermi level is set at 0 eV.

 Similar to rutile, the valence band minimum (VBM) of anatase is composed of O-*p* states, whereas the conduction band maximum (CBM) is mostly Ti-*d* states (see [Figure 5\)](#page-14-0). The valence band is mainly composed of a mixture of O-*p* and Ti-*p* states, whereas the conduction band is mainly composed of Ti-213 d states. Compared to rutile, we can observe a softer quasi separation of the conduction band states 214 at about 4.2 eV above the Fermi level for PBE, which the Hubbard correction removes.

215 *Table 3: Calculated band gap in eV and in the brackets the relative deviation versus the experimental value.*

216

 The calculated band gapsfor all approaches are summarized in [Table 3.](#page-15-0) Increasing the *U-J* value clearly improves the predicted band gap values, which approach the experimental values at the *U-J* parameter of around 8-10 eV [57, 60]. Nonetheless, the band gap is not the sole property one would wish to reproduce, making a unified choice of the *U-J* value problematic. In the literature, different 221 values of U-J ranging from 3 to 5 eV were used for researching defects [61, 62], interactions [65], 222 dopants [64, 65] and structures. The choice of U value is highly sensitive as emphasized by Liu et al. [66]. It should be kept in mind that the *U-J* values above 7 eV might produce physically meaningless results due to breaking of the physical background of DFT+U.

225 Hybrid functionals *can* offset their huge computational cost by generating accurate results provided 226 they have been properly parametrized for the task at hand. PBE0 produces poor results, 227 overestimating the band gap by roughly 26 % for both rutile and anatase. B3LYP offers a much better 228 agreement with errors of roughly 12 %, whereas HSE06 performs best, differing from the experimental 229 values for rutile and anatase by 3.3 and 4.4 %, respectively.

²³⁰ 3.3 Optical properties

231 For the photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ polymorphs, optical properties are most important. In this 232 section, we focus on rutile and anatase. Since both are anisotropic materials, their properties differ 233 depending on the direction. For instance, optical properties in the *c* direction (εǁc) differ from those 234 in the *ab* plane (εLc). The calculated dielectric constants at 0 eV are presented in [Table 4,](#page-16-0) together 235 with the experimental values and previous theoretical results.

- 236 *Table 4: Calculated dielectric constants of rutile and anatase TiO2. Scissoring (in our work) is taken into account unless*
- 237 *otherwise specified.*

239 For rutile, PBE predicts the values of 5.55 and 6.63 for ϵLc and ϵC , which is close to the experimental values of 5.70 and 7.00, respectively. In the case of anatase, they are underestimated at 4.63 and 4.38 241 relative to experimental values of 5.80 and 5.40 for ϵ Lc and ϵ ||c, respectively. The results were 242 obtained with the application of the scissoring operator, which artificially expands the band gap to the experimentally determined values. We observe that the exclusion of scissoring operator results in higher, physically meaningless values. This is explained by the Penn model [69], where the dielectric constant is inversely proportional to the band gap.

 Another crucial parameter is the number of bands included in the calculation. In the case of rutile, increasing the number of bands from 33 to 48 results in a significant increase from 5.71 to 6.54 (scissoring operator not applied). Therefore, choosing the correct methodology is of vital importance. For subsequent results, the scissoring operator was applied and the number of bands was four times the number of occupied bands.

 The introduction of the Hubbard parameter on top of PBE seems to steadily decrease the dielectric constant. Furthermore, similar trends as for rutile can be observed for anatase, although the results are further away from the experimental value. Comparing PBE+U to PBE+U+D3 results shows that the Grimme D3 correction has no effect on the dielectric constant, as expected. Literature reports on the dielectric constants vary, which might be due to the choice of functionals (LDA, GGA …) or the convergence procedure. Comparing our PBE results with GGA results by Sai et al. [68], we observe a 257 considerable overestimation with 7.34 for E Lc (rutile). Comparing our calculated values (RPA) with the standard and more expensive Bethe-Salpeter equation (BSE) by Zhu et al. [3] or mBJ by Gong et al. [68], we observe that in the case of anatase, BSE and mBJ also underestimate the dielectric constant in both planes. We can therefore conclude that RPA results can provide a reasonable agreement with 261 the experimental data at a significantly lower computational cost.

 Furthermore, a calculation of the dielectric response function was conducted in an energy range span of 0-12 eV, as shown in [Figure 6.](#page-18-0) Since the dispersion correction has negligible effect on the optical

properties, those calculations are not shown.

 Figure 6: The dielectric response for rutile in the energy span from 0-12 eV for real part of dielectric response for A) εLc and **267** *B) ε* $|c|$ *c and imaginary part of dielectric response for C) ε* \angle *c and D) ε* $|c|$ *. BSE values obtained from Reference [3].*

268 For rutile, εLc has the first peak at about 3.8 eV, which is well reproduced by BSE but slightly shifted towards higher energies(+0.2 eV) for PBE and PBE+U. Overall, BSE exhibits a slightly better agreement with the experiment but the PBE and PBE+U results are comparable. Similar trends are observed for εǁc, where BSE outperforms RPA, but RPA still offers reasonable agreement with the experimental 272 data. In the imaginary part of the dielectric response, larger discrepancies can be observed. For εLc, BSE predicts optical absorption at lower energies than experimentally observed, whereas RPA results

 offer a better agreement. Nevertheless, the first peaks roughly overlap, but the general shape of the experimental spectrum overall is better reproduced by BSE. The first peak occurring at about 4.3 eV in the experiment is predicted at roughly 3.8 eV with BSE, whereas RPA predicts several alternating peaks in that range. Above 5 eV, BSE and RPA yield similar results. Comparable trends are discovered for the εǁc case.

 Figure 7: The dielectric response for anatase in the energy span from 0-12 eV for real part of dielectric response for A) εꓕc and B) ε||c and imaginary part of dielectric response for C) εLc and D) ε||c. BSE values obtained from reference [3].

 The calculated dielectric constants for anatase are shown in [Figure 7.](#page-19-0) All approaches underestimate 283 the real part of the dielectric constant at $E = 0$ eV for anatase. Again, we can see that BSE offers superior results in comparison with RPA for both real and imaginary part of the dielectric response. 285 Again, the imaginary component from BSE of the dielectric response predicts a faster absorption 286 relative to the experiment and RPA. The results agree well with the previous work by Asahi et al. [70]

287 3.4 $CO₂$ adsorption on pristine rutile and anatase surfaces

288 Lastly, we focus on CO₂ adsorption. For TiO₂ to be useful as a photocatalyst for CO₂ reduction, it should 289 sufficiently bind and activate CO₂. Based on literature data [69, 70] on the most frequently exposed 290 surfaces of anatase and rutile TiO₂, we investigated the (001), (101) and (011) surfaces of anatase and 291 the (101), (001) and (110) surfaces of rutile. The adsorption was investigated at the PBE, PBE+4 and 292 PBE+4+D3 levels.

293 **3.4.1 Anatase**

294 We identified four distinct physisorption configurations for $CO₂$ on all anatase surfaces, shown in 295 [Figure 8](#page-20-0) as CO_2 -0, CO_2 -1, CO_2 -2 and CO_2 -3.

297 *Figure 8: Adsorption of CO² on anatase (001), where A represents side view, B is the top view and 1, 2, 3, 4 denote the* 298 *respective adsorption configuration. Colour code: grey-Ti, red-O and yellow-C.*

299 In all instances, the CO_2 molecule retains its linear shape and adsorbs either at an angle (CO_2 -0, CO_2 -

- 300 1, CO₂-3) or lying flat (CO₂-2). The adsorption energies, the titanium-oxygen (from CO₂) distance and
- 301 the $CO₂$ angle are summarized i[n .](#page-20-1)
- 302 .

303 *Table 5: Adsorption energies (in eV), Ti-O bond length (Å) and OCO angle (°) for different CO² adsorption modes on the*

304 *anatase (001) surface.*

305

306 PBE and PBE+4 predict a weak interaction of CO₂ with the surface (below 0.32 eV), which implies that physisorption is the main mechanism. If we include the Grimme D3 dispersion correction, the interaction is approximately 0.2 ev stronger, reaching –0.49 eV. In all cases, there is no geometric distortion as the molecule is merely physisorbed and there is negligible charge transfer. Literature data on pristine anatase (001) surfaces is scarce. Using hybrid PBE0, Mino et al. [73] calculated a bent structure with an adsorption energy of -1.31 eV.

312 For the anatase (101)surface, the adsorption configurations are shown in **Error! Reference source not** 313 **found.**1. As is the case for anatase (001) the CO₂ molecule retains its linear form and binds in a tilted 314 position. As shown in **Error! Reference source not found.**1, CO₂ binds slightly more strongly to the 315 (101) surface, reaching -0.58 eV (with PBE+4+D3), which is consistent with the work from Sorescu et 316 al. [74] who studied the adsorption of $CO₂$ on pristine anatase (101) surface using a PBE functional 317 with the Tkatchenko-Scheffler correction for the long range interactions. They calculated the most 318 stable adsorption configurations to be the linear $CO₂$ with an interaction of -0.48 eV. Mino et al. [73] 319 investigated the adsorption energies of $CO₂$ using the hybrid functional PBE0. Their value range from 320 -0.25 eV and -0.41 eV. In all cases, this is the case of physisorption.

 On the anatase (011) surface, the molecule retains its linear shape and adsorbs at an angle over a Ti 322 atom (see Figure S2). The adsorption energies, titanium-oxygen (from $CO₂$) distance and the $CO₂$ angles are summarized in **Error! Reference source not found.**S2. The adsorption interaction is reaches -0.60 eV in the PBE+4+D3 approach.

325 The inability to identify any activated $CO₂$ configurations on any anatase surface leads us to conclude 326 that (undoped) anatase would perform poorly as a catalyst for $CO₂$ photoreduction despite its greater photoactivity.

3.4.2 Rutile

330 Lastly, we turn our attention to rutile surfaces. Four adsorption configurations for $CO₂$ were 331 determined on the rutile (110) and rutile (101) surfaces, denoted as $CO₂-0$, $CO₂-1$, $CO₂-2$ and $CO₂-3$. In 332 all instances the CO₂ molecule retains its linearity (see Figure S3) and is adsorbed on the titanium atom 333 at different angles. The adsorption energies, the Ti-O distances and the $CO₂$ angle are summarized in **Error! Reference source not found.**3. All sites on rutle (110) exhibit similar interaction strengths, which were calculated around -0.3 eV at the PBE level, -0.4 eV at the PBE+4 level and -0.65 eV with the Grimme D3 correction. Our results are in good agreement with Sorescu et al.,[63] who obtained - 0.38 eV using the Grimme correction and --0.43 eV using the Tkatchenko Scheffler correction.

 The adsorption structures on rutile (101) are shown in Figure S4. Again, the interaction is typical of physisorption with energies around 0.3 eV at the PBE level and 0.56 eV at the PBE+U+D3 level (see 340 Table S4). To the best of our knowledge, no literature reports yet exist of $CO₂$ adsorption on the pristine rutile (101) surface.

342 These interactions are physisorptions of $CO₂$ in the linear configuration with no activation, which is illustrated by low adsorption energies and is confirmed by the Bader charge analysis, showing no charge transfer, and PDOS, showing little orbital overlap.

345 **3.1.1 Chemisorption on rutile(001)**

346 On the rutile(001) surface, three distinct adsorption configurations were identified, marked as $CO₂$ -0, 347 CO₂-1 and CO₂-2. Among those, CO₂ is activated in the CO₂-0. The molecule is adsorbed in a bent 348 configuration, where the carbon atom binds to the surface oxygen and the oxygen atom from $CO₂$ 349 binds to surface Ti. The results are congruent with a report by Jiang et al. [75], where the (001) surface 350 exhibited higher energy, relative to (111) and (110), hinting that it could be more active. The 351 adsorption configurations are presented in Figure 9, while the adsorption energies, $CO₂$ angles and 352 distances are summarized in Table 6.

354 *Figure 9: Adsorption of CO² on rutile (001), where A represents side view, B is the top view and 1, 2, 3 denote the respective*

356 *Table 6: Adsorption energies (eV), Ti-O bond length (Å) and angle (°) for different CO² adsorptions for PBE, PBE+4 and*

357 *PBE+4+D3 on rutile (001) surface.*

³⁵⁵ *adsorption configuration. Colour code: grey-Ti, red-O and yellow-C.*

359 In the CO₂-0 configuration, CO₂ is strongly adsorbed to the surface (-1.2 eV at the PBE level, -1.45 eV 360 at the PBE+U). The bond between the surface Ti and O (from CO₂) is shortened by roughly 0.4 Å 361 compared to physisorbed $CO₂$, proving stronger interaction. We see that $CO₂$ is strongly deformed 362 with the C-O-C angle of 126°. Bader charge analysis showed that there is non-negligible electron 363 transfer (Table 7). While the charge transfer is negligible in the case of physisorbed $CO₂$, the 364 chemisorbed CO₂ is activated as 0.2*e*₀ flows from the catalyst to the molecule. The effects of this 365 activation were further probed by calculating the PDOS for the activated CO_2 -0 and un-activated CO_2 -366 1 configuration.

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371 in the activated configuration in comparison to the un-activated (Figure 10). This indicates substantial

372 hybridization, resulting in stronger bonding and greater reactivity.

³⁷⁰ We observe a significantly higher overlap in the valence band between the surface and adsorbed $CO₂$

 Figure 10: Projected density of states of the adsorbed CO² (top) and surface (bottom) of A) CO2-0 and B) CO2-1 configuration with the PBE+4 functional. The Fermi level is set at 0 eV.

 As expected, PBE predicts the lowest adsorption energies irrespective of the Hubbard correction used. To obtain results comparable to higher methods (hybrids), dispersion correction (D3) was found to be adequate. The effect on the geometry is weak and usually reduces the distance between the adsorbed molecule and the corresponding surface site. On the other hand, when the molecule adsorbs in a bent shape, as was the case for the rutile (001) surface, it gets activated.

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382 4. Conclusions
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384 Properties of rutile and anatase TiO₂ were studied due to their potential photocatalytic activity in CO₂ reduction. Their unit cell was optimized using GGA (PBE, PBE+U (*U-J* = 4, 6, 8 eV), PBE+U+D3) functionals as well as hybrids (PBE0, HSE06, B3LYP). The results are consistent with the experimental data. The Hubbard correction slightly elongates the lattice proportionately to the U value. The Grimme D3 correction slightly compresses the lattice due to inclusion of long range attractive forces (dispersion). B3LYP in general predicted slightly bigger bulk structures relative to PBE0 and HSE06. The results show that inexpensive GGA functionals suffice for geometric optimizations. Moreover, bulk moduli were calculated. We showed that while the PBE, PBE+U and PBE+U+D3 results are comparable, hybrid functionals generally considerably overestimate the bulk modulus. Vanilla PBE actually produced results closest to the experimental value.

 Subsequently, electronic properties (band gap, band structure and effective mass of charge carriers) were calculated for rutile and anatase. It is well known that the standard GGA functionals severely 396 underestimate the band gap for semiconductors, which is also the case for TiO₂. The use of Hubbard approach improved the results proportionately to the *U-J* value. Higher values better reproduced larger band gaps but for best agreement dangerously high *U-J* values were required. It should be noted that the choice of the *U-J* value is not trivial because different properties are best reproduced with *different U-J* values. The Grimme D3 correction has almost no effect on the electronic properties. We benchmarked the inexepensive GGA functionals and the hybrids PBE0, B3LYP and HSE06, where HSE06 demonstrated the best results and very well justifies the accuracy/computational cost trade-off, whereas PBE0 and B3LYP do not.

 Optical properties were also investigated and it was found that the correct methodology and convergence tests are crucial for viable results. RPA results, which do not include electron hole interaction, were benchmarked against BSE (electron-hole screening included). It was found that BSE slightly outperforms RPA, however at a much higher computational cost. The dielectric constant calculations revealed that RPA is not far off and even predicts the optical absorption onset better than BSE.

410 Finally, we investigated the adsorption of $CO₂$ on different surfaces planes for rutile and anatase since the photocatalytic activity is dependent not only on the catalyst type but also on the exposed surface. We therefore identified the three most commonly expressed surfaces for both rutile and anatase. 413 Different CO₂ configurations were relaxed and compared on all surfaces with the PBE, PBE+U and 414 PBE+U+D3 (U-J = 4 eV) methodologies. CO₂ mostly physisorbs with the interaction strength of 0.5 eV, where the molecule is not activated as evidenced by no charge transfer, PDOS analysis and the 416 molecule linear shape. The results are in line with previous literature, where the pristine TiO₂ surfaces 417 exhibit weak interaction with $CO₂$, manifesting as low adsorption energies.

418 The only surface that activated the $CO₂$ molecule (strong adsorption, charge transfer and bending of CO2) was the rutile (001) surface. The results revealed that PBE predicts the weakest adsorption energies, which slightly increase with the Hubbard correction (U), whereas the inclusion of Grimme D3 correction exhibits higher adsorption energies. As these corrected values more closely correspond to (literature) data from the hybrid calculation, dispersion forces must play a significant role in the process.

424 Overall, we show that for the description of TiO₂ properties and the interaction with CO₂, the choice 425 of the functional is paramount. More expensive hybrid functionals do not necessarily outperform cheaper GGA functionals. HSE06 performs rather well, while PBE0 and B3LYP are less suitable for 427 describing periodic semiconducting systems. In many cases, however, cheaper GGA+U methods serve as a capable surrogate.

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