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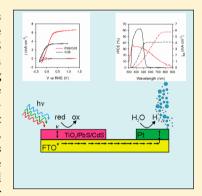


Harnessing Infrared Photons for Photoelectrochemical Hydrogen Generation. A PbS Quantum Dot Based "Quasi-Artificial Leaf"

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Hydrogen generation by using quantum dot (QD) based heterostructures has emerged as a promising strategy to develop artificial photosynthesis devices. In the present study, we sensitize mesoporous TiO₂ electrodes with in-situ-deposited PbS/CdS QDs, aiming at harvesting light in both the visible and the near-infrared for hydrogen generation. This heterostructure exhibits a remarkable photocurrent of 6 mA·cm⁻², leading to 60 mL·cm⁻²·day⁻¹ hydrogen generation. Most importantly, confirmation of the contribution of infrared photons to H₂ generation was provided by the incident-photon-tocurrent-efficiency (IPCE), and the integrated current was in excellent agreement with that obtained through cyclic voltammetry. The main electronic processes (accumulation, transport, and recombination) were identified by impedance spectroscopy, which appears as a simple and reliable methodology to evaluate the limiting factors of these photoelectrodes. On the basis of this TiO₂/PbS/CdS heterostructrure, a "quasi-artificial leaf" has been developed, which has proven to produce hydrogen under simulated solar illumination at (4.30 ± 0.25) mL·cm⁻²·day⁻¹.



SECTION: Energy Conversion and Storage; Energy and Charge Transport

he provision of clean and renewable energy to satisfy the increasing human demands in the 21st century is one of the key challenges to sustain the present global social and economical model.^{1,2} Sunlight offers a huge potential for global supply of renewable energy, provided that this energy can be stored for its use upon demand. In this context, photoelectrochemical hydrogen generation by water splitting with semiconductor materials constitutes the simplest conversion scheme because H2 can be produced with only the input of water and sunlight, and H2 combustion in hydrogen fuel cells leads to electricity, with water as the only byproduct, resulting in a CO₂ neutral process.²⁻⁴ The key challenge of this approach relies on whether this goal can be met in a cost-effective way on the terawatt scale.2

Since the seminal report of Fujishima and Honda in 1972 demonstrating the photocatalysis of TiO₂ for H₂ generation, ⁵ a dynamic search for the optimum semiconductor material and device configuration was launched, but crystallization of this research activity into a well-developed technology has not been achieved yet, mainly because none of the explored materials simultaneously meet the different needed requirements for adequate device operation; that is, a band gap comprised between 1.9 and 2.2 eV, conduction and valence band edges straddling the water oxidation and hydrogen reduction potentials, good conductivity, and low cost. 2,4 The novel

developments in the fields of nanoscience and catalysis⁶ have provided key elements and concepts to rationalize the search for promising materials and device architectures. Orthogonalization of light absorption and carrier diffusion,^{7–9} quantum confinement,¹⁰ band energetics engineering,¹¹ and plasmonics^{12,13} appear as fascinating strategies, which can be exploited to enhance the efficiencies of photoelectrochemical hydrogen generation devices. Sensitization of wide band gap oxide semiconductors like ZnO or TiO2 by chalcogenide quantum dots (QDs) also provides a convenient heterostructured platform for photoelectrochemical H₂ generation. Indeed, this approach has shown promising results. Hensel et al. showed the synergistic effect of N doping of TiO₂ nanowires and CdSe sensitization, leading to photocurrents close to 3 mA·cm⁻².14 Combining ZnO nanowires with CdTe QDs, Chen et al. obtained photocurrents close to 2 mA·cm⁻² using a nonsacrificial hole scavenger. 15 Hierarchical ZnO/WO_x nanowires co-sensitized with CdSe/CdS led to promising photocurrents close to 12 mA·cm⁻² and light-to-chemical conversion efficiencies of 6%. ¹⁶ More recently, Luo et al. have highlighted the importance of the controlled deposition of the light-

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absorbing semiconductor (CdSe) on inverse opals of TiO_2 , achieving photocurrents of 15.7 mA·cm⁻² for hydrogen generation.

On the other hand, an optimal exploitation of the solar spectrum for photoelectrochemical energy conversion must entail the use of narrow band gap semiconductors, like PbS, in order to harness infrared photons for photoelectrochemical conversion. Tada et al. 18 have reported a solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency of 1.15% and a hydrogen production rate of 5.2 mL·h⁻¹ employing a heterostructure based on mesoporous TiO2 decorated with colloidal PbS QDs (under the application of bias). In the present study, we have developed a hybrid architecture based on a TiO2 mesoporous frame functionalized with in-situ-grown PbS/CdS QDs, targeting an unassisted photoelectrochemical hydrogen generation device. The ultimate goal is achieving a system able to convert visible but also infrared photons into H2. Great benefit can be derived from the collection of IR photons because they represent practically 50% of the solar spectrum photons.

We have incorporated in-situ-grown PbS QDs onto a mesoporous ${\rm TiO_2}$ structure together with CdS QDs to both enhance the visible response (see Supporting Information Figure SI1) and stabilize the whole material. ¹⁹ The microscopic inspection of the material by SEM showed the mesoporous ${\rm TiO_2}$ structure but did not reveal any morphological details of the PbS/CdS sensitizers (Supporting Information Figure SI2). The presence of PbS QDs was confirmed through XRD spectra carried out on ${\rm TiO_2}/{\rm PbS}$ structures (Supporting Information Figure SI3). High-resolution TEM images (Supporting Information Figure SI4) reveal that both PbS and CdS appear as scattered nanoparticles (diameter below 10 nm) on the mesoporous ${\rm TiO_2}$ network and are covered by a ZnS layer.

The photoelectrochemical behavior of $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ heterostructures in an aqueous solution containing 0.25 M Na_2S and 0.35 M Na_2SO_3 as the sacrificial hole scavenger in the dark and under illumination is shown in Figure 1a. As a

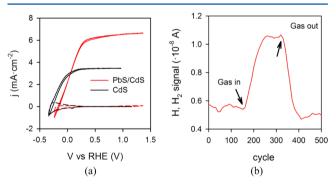


Figure 1. (a) j-V curves for the $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ heterostructure in the dark (dashed lines) and under illumination at 100 mW·cm⁻² (solid lines) obtained by cyclic voltammetry in a three-electrode configuration; the results for TiO_2/CdS are also included as a reference. (b) Gas chromatography mass spectroscopy plot of the evolved gas for the $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ heterostructure. The signal of H_2 is clearly increased after gas is passed through the system.

reference, results for TiO_2/CdS are also included. It is clear that higher photocurrents are obtained when PbS is included in the heterostructures. At 0 V versus RHE, a photocurrent of 2 mA·cm⁻² is obtained for both systems. Saturation of the photocurrent takes place at approximately 0.4 V versus RHE, with 6 mA·cm⁻² for $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ and 3.5 mA·cm⁻² for

TiO₂/CdS. This equals 60 and 35 mL·cm⁻²·day⁻¹ hydrogen generation rates, respectively, assuming a faradaic efficiency of unity. The observed positive photocurrents correspond to hole injection from the heterostructured TiO₂/QDs photoanode into the solution. The difference between the anodic and cathodic branches of the dark cyclic voltammetry curve at potentials below 0 V versus RHE (more visible for the TiO₂/ CdS structure) is due to the chemical capacitance of TiO_2 , consistent with previous studies. ^{20–22} Labeling experiments of the evolved gas at the Pt counterelectrode were collected in an inverted buret and analyzed. The results for TiO₂/PbS/CdS are shown in Figure 1b, clearly indicating that the generated gas is hydrogen. Additionally, the stability of these photoelectrodes was tested by chronoamperometric measurements. The electrodes were shown to be stable (no decrease of photocurrent during more than 1 h), and the loss of performance detected was due to the depletion of the sacrificial agent in the solution (see Supporting Information Figure SI5).

The results obtained from the photoelectrochemical characterization shown in Figure 1a suggest that TiO₂, PbS, and CdS form a cascaded structure, and photogenerated electrons at both CdS and PbS can be collected at the contact, although further research is needed to unambiguously establish this point. Figure 2 shows a proposed energy diagram, based on

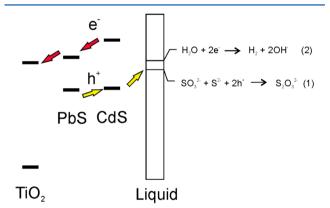


Figure 2. Energy diagram illustrating the oxidation at PbS/CdS QD-sensitized TiO₂ particulate anodes. Energy levels were adapted from refs 25 and 26. The arrows indicate the traffic of electrons and holes.

literature data, ^{24,25} in which the different electronic processes and relevant electrochemical reactions are scheduled. Further quantification of the position of the energy levels of the conduction and valence band edges for QDs is out of the scope of the present study. Extensive discussion of the reaction mechanisms has been reported elsewhere. ^{14,15,18,23,24} The presence of Na₂S and Na₂SO₃ hole scavengers in the electrolyte provides a fast shuttle for the photogenerated holes (reaction 1) avoiding photocorrosion while electrons are driven through TiO₂ toward the contact and then to the catalytic cathode, where hydrogen generation takes place (reaction 2).

In order to gain further insight into the charge-transfer mechanisms of ${\rm TiO_2/PbS/CdS}$ heterostructuctures, chopped light $j{-}V$ curves were carried out. Figure 3a shows the superimposed chopped and constant light $j{-}V$ curves. The presence of current transients (spikes) in the chopped light curve provides direct evidence of the participation of surface states in the hole-transfer process. Indeed, the presence of these transients has been attributed to the charging (trapping of holes) of surface states or oxidizing surface species. The

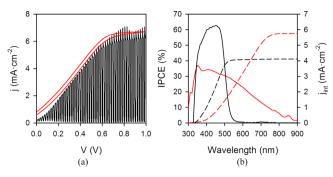


Figure 3. (a) Chopped light (black) and constant (red) illumination j-V curves in two electrode configuration of the ${\rm TiO_2/PbS/CdS}$ heterostructured photoanode. (b) IPCE (solid lines) and integrated current (dashed lines) for a ${\rm TiO_2/PbS/CdS}$ (red) and reference ${\rm TiO_2/CdS}$ (black) photoelectrode at 0.95 V versus RHE.

presence of surface states for PbS has also been recognized in the recombination process for quantum-dot-sensitized solar cells. ¹⁹ In contrast, we have previously shown that when CdS/CdSe QDs are used as light absorbers, the hole collection efficiency is unity (spikes are not observed in the chopped light j-V curves). ³⁰

The contribution of infrared photons to the higher photocurrent measured for TiO₂/PbS/CdS (and hence to the H₂ generation) was assessed by measuring the incident-photonto-current-efficiency (IPCE) action spectrum in a threeelectrode configuration, at 0.95 V versus RHE. The results for TiO₂/CdS are also shown as a reference (see Figure 3b). The IPCE action spectrum for TiO₂/CdS extends up to 550 nm, while when PbS is included in the heterostructure, the wavelength range expands beyond 800 nm, confirming the contribution of infrared photons to the photocurrent. Indeed, the IPCE action spectrum practically mimics the optical density, and the APCE (absorbed photon to current efficiency) values are practically identical to IPCE, as shown in Supporting Information Figure SI6 for TiO₂/PbS/CdS. Integration of the IPCE spectrum with the wavelength led to total photocurrents of 5.7 and 4.1 mA·cm⁻² for TiO₂/PbS/CdS and TiO₂/CdS, respectively (Figure 3b), in excellent agreement with the maximum photocurrent shown in Figure 1 (6 and 3.5 mA·cm⁻², respectively).

Further photoelectrochemical characterization of the heterostructured TiO₂/PbS/CdS photoanodes was carried out by impedance spectroscopy measurements in the dark and under illumination. A sound physical model was already developed for similar heterostructured materials, 19,30-32 which is given in Supporting Information Figure SI7. Consequently, this model was directly applied to extract the chemical capacitance of TiO2 $C_{\mu\nu}$ the recombination resistance, $R_{\rm rec}$ and the transport resistance, R_{tr} , of the TiO₂/PbS/CdS architectures. C_{μ} monitors the density of states (DOS) at the Fermi level and provides the distribution of trap states below the conduction band of TiO₂, $R_{\rm tr}$ is directly proportional to the resistivity of TiO₂ ($\rho_{\rm TiO2}$), and $R_{\rm rec}$ is inversely proportional to the recombination rate of electrons at the ${\rm TiO_2/solution}$ interface. ^{20,33,34} The exponential behavior of the transport resistance with voltage in the QDsensitized films follows an identical exponential trend as compared to that of bare and dye-sensitized TiO2, suggesting that electron transport occurs mainly through the TiO₂ nanoparticles rather than through QDs.²¹ Furthermore, the transport resistance (R_{tr}) for TiO_2 is very similar in the dark and under illumination (Figure 4a). This is an expected result

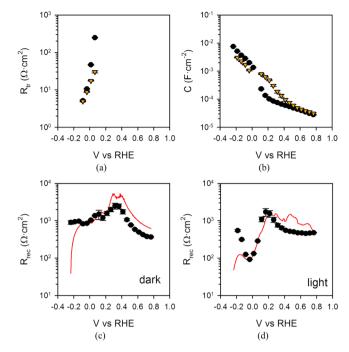


Figure 4. Parameters extracted after fitting the impedance spectroscopy spectra of the heterostructured TiO₂/PbS/CdS photoanodes using the model previously developed and shown as Supporting Information Figure SI7. $^{30-32}$ (a) Transport resistance, $R_{\rm tr}$, (b) chemical capacitance, C_{μ} , and recombination resistance, $R_{\rm rec}$, as a function of potential both (c) in the dark and (d) under illumination. The red lines in (c) and (d) represent the total resistance extracted from derivation of the j-V curve, $R=(dj/dV)^{-1}$. Error bars assigned to the experimental points have been obtained from the fitting error.

because the conductivity of the ${\rm TiO_2}$ nanoparticles is determined by the electron density in the conduction band, which is controlled by the applied potential and not by illumination. The chemical capacitance (Figure 4b) shows the characteristic exponential dependence on the potential, reflecting the trap state distribution below the conduction band of ${\rm TiO_2}$. This agrees well with the assumption that charge is accumulated and transported mainly through the ${\rm TiO_2}$. The behavior of C_μ is very similar in the dark and under illumination conditions, again because it is determined by the position of the Fermi level, which is governed by the applied bias. The small difference found at the intermediate states between dark and illumination conditions may be due to a capacitive contribution from the accumulation of charges in the QDs.

Finally, the recombination resistance, $R_{\rm rec}$, governs the photoelectrochemical behavior of the heterostructure because the total resistance obtained by derivation of the j-V curve, also including series resistances, practically mimics the $R_{\rm rec}$ values obtained by impedance spectroscopy both in the dark (Figure 4c) and under illumination (Figure 4d). Therefore, impedance spectroscopy appears as a very attractive experimental technique to monitor the main processes controlling the performance of these materials.

From all of the above results, $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ photoanodes show promising capabilities to drive solar H_2 generation. Consequently, we assembled a wireless device, resembling an artificial leaf si, integrating this heterostructure, as shown in Figure 5a. The device is immersed into the aqueous solution, and upon illumination, electro—hole pairs are photogenerated in the light absorber (PbS/CdS QDs). The holes are quickly

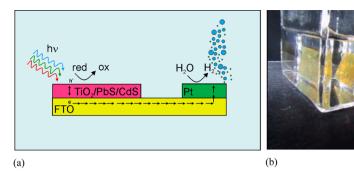


Figure 5. (a) Scheme of a quasi-artificial leaf based on a heterostructured $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ photoanode and Pt as the cathode. (b) The $TiO_2/PbS/CdS$ quasi-artificial leaf in a quartz cuvette filled with an aqueous 0.25 M Na_2S and 0.35 M Na_2SO_3 electrolyte evolving H_2 under illumination. A video of the PbS artificial leaf working autonomously is available in the Supporting Information audiovisual material.

injected into the solution, driving the sacrificial oxidation of SO₃²-. On the other hand, photogenerated electrons are transported through the TiO₂ mesoporous structure toward the FTO substrate and then to the catalytic cathode, which is composed of a calcined chloroplatinic solution, where hydrogen can evolve. Hydrogen evolution is observed, as shown in Figure 5b and the Supporting Information audiovisual material. The hydrogen generation rate was 0.18 mL during 1 h of measurement, which equals (4.30 ± 0.25) mL·cm⁻²·day⁻¹. It is important to highlight that at this stage, this device cannot be strictly termed "artificial leaf" because the use of a sacrificial agent is needed for operation. However, we believe that this quasi-artificial leaf constitutes a promising structure for future developments, and different optimization strategies are under investigation in our lab to improve the device efficiency, stability, and autonomy. Particularly, in order to achieve higher H₂ generation rates, morphological optimization of the TiO₂ structure is an important issue to be addressed because it has been proven that structures with lower surface area lead to better performance of QD-sensitized solar cells based on these structures. 37,38 Doping has also demonstrated enhanced TiO₂ conductivity and minimized transport losses. 14 Additionally, the presence of PbS enhances charge recombination (the lower IPCE values in the range of 350-550 nm when PbS is included in the structure is a good evidence), and efficient passivation strategies need to be developed, as previously done with colloidal PbS QDs.³⁹

In summary, TiO₂/PbS/CdS heterostructures showed to be candidate architectures for solar hydrogen generation (6 mA·cm⁻² or 60 mL·cm⁻²·day⁻¹ obtained by cyclic voltammetry in a three-electrode configuration under applied bias). Solar IR radiation provides a huge pool of photons and, consequently, of usable energy, which can be stored using the appropriate materials, such as PbS. Photocurrent and IPCE measurements have confirmed the contribution of infrared photons to the photocurrent, leading to H₂ generation. The integrated current perfectly agrees with that obtained by cyclic voltammetry, and an excellent spectral match between photocurrent and light harvesting has been obtained. Additionally, impedance spectroscopy appears as a simple and reliable characterization tool to inspect the limiting factors affecting the photoelectrochemical performance of the device. We showed that the recombination resistance (R_{rec}) controls the dynamics of the system, and further improvement of these heterostructures should be focused on strategies leading to the optimization of the TiO₂ architecture and minimization of charge recombination. Furthermore, IS analysis suggests that transport and

accumulation of charge in the film mainly takes place within the ${\rm TiO_2}$ nanoparticles. On the basis of this heterostructured material, we have developed a quasi-artificial leaf, which has proven to autonomously produce hydrogen under simulated solar illumination at $(4.30 \pm 0.25)~{\rm mL\cdot cm^{-2} \cdot day^{-1}}$. Further developments at our lab focus on the elimination of the sacrificial agent in order to increase the robustness of the developed photoelectrodes. We believe that the present study constitutes an important milestone for the development of autonomous systems able to generate hydrogen with only the input of visible and IR radiation, combining the advances of nanotechnology and novel optoelectronic concepts.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Commercial titania paste (Solarnix DSL 18NR, Switzerland, 20 nm particle size) was coated on an FTO (SnO₂/F, TEC 15) substrate by the doctor blade technique and then dried at 80 °C. Prior to TiO₂ nanoparticle deposition, the FTO substrates were covered by a compact layer of TiO2 deposited by spray pyrolisis of titanium(IV)bis(acetoacetonato)di-(isopropanoxylate). These electrodes were subsequently sintered at 450 °C for 30 min. The thickness of the electrodes was \sim 12 μ m, as measured by contact profilometry. The titania electrodes were sensitized with PbS QDs grown by succesive ionic layer adsorption and reaction (SILAR).¹⁹ For this purpose, a 0.02 M Pb(CH₃COO)₂ ethanolic solution was used as the Pb²⁺ source, and another one containing 0.02 M Na₂S·9H₂O in methanol/water (50/50 V/V) was used as the sulfide precursor. A single SILAR cycle consisted of 30 s dipcoating of the electrode into the lead precursor and then into the sulfide solution, also for 30 s. After each precursor bath, the photoanode was thoroughly rinsed by immersion in ethanol and dried. One cycle was sufficient for an adequate PbS sensitization.

For the hybrid PbS/CdS samples, the CdS deposition was carried out immediately after PbS deposition. For CdS SILAR deposition, 0.05 M Cd(CH $_3$ COO) $_2$ was used as the metal precursor, and 0.02 M Na $_2$ S·9H $_2$ O in methanol/water (50/50 V/V) wsa used as the sulfide precursor. SILAR procedure was repeated five times. CdS coating provided effective protection of PbS from sulfide-based electrolytes and a significant enhancement of the stability. After sensitization, all of the samples were coated with ZnS by dipping alternately into 0.1 M Zn(CH $_3$ COO) $_2$ (in water) and 0.1 M Na $_2$ S solutions for 1 min/dip, rinsing with Milli-Q ultrapure water between dips (two cycles). Reference "only CdS" samples have been

produced, following the same steps described above, except for the deposition of PbS.

Structural inspection of the samples was carried out using a JEOL JEM-3100F field emission scanning electron microscope (SEM) and a JEOL JSM 7600F field emission transmission electron microscope (TEM). The crystallographic structure of the samples was tested by X-ray diffraction (XRD). The optical density of the photoelectrodes was recorded between 300 and 800 nm by a Cary 300 UV—vis Varian spectrophotometer.

Steady-state and chopped light current density voltages (j-V), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were carried out using a FRA-equipped PGSTAT-30 from Autolab. A three-electrode configuration was used, where the TiO₂/PbS/CdS photoelectrode was connected to the working electrode, a Pt wire was connected to the counterelectrode, and a saturated Ag/AgCl electrode was used as the reference. An aqueous solution containing 0.25 M Na₂S and 0.35 M Na₂SO₃ as the sacrificial hole scavenger was used as the electrolyte to prevent photocorrosion of the QDs. Nitrogen was bubbled for 30 min before testing to avoid the presence of oxygen (electron acceptor) in the solution. The pH of the solution was 13, and all of the electrochemical measurements were referred to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by the equation $V_{\rm RHE}$ = $V_{\rm Ag/AgCl}$ + 0.197 + pH(0.059). The electrodes were illuminated using a 450 W Xe lamp (Oriel), where the light intensity was adjusted with a thermopile to 100 mW/cm², with illumination through the substrate. EIS measurements were carried out by applying a 20 mV AC signal and scanning in a frequency range between 400 kHz and 0.1 Hz, at different applied biases. The IPCE measurements were carried out by employing a 300 W Xe lamp coupled with a computer-controlled monochromator; the photoelectrode was polarized at the desired voltage with a Gamry potentiostat, and the photocurrent was measured using an optical power meter 70310 from Oriel Instruments. Labeling experiments of the evolved gases were carried out using gas chromatography mass spectroscopy, GC/MS. A quadrupole Pfeiffer Vacuum model Thermostar GSD301T with a mass interval ranging down to 300 uma was used. The evolved gas was collected in an inverted buret and extracted with a gastight syringe provided with an exit valve. The quantitative analysis of the evolved gas for the wireless device was carried out by collecting the generated gas under 100 mW·cm⁻² illumination with an inverted buret for 1 h. The obtained result was extrapolated to 1 day. During this measurement, no addition of fresh electrolyte to the solution was carried out.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

 ${
m TiO_2/CdS}$ and ${
m TiO_2/PbS/CdS}$ light absorption, SEM image, XRD of ${
m TiO_2/PbS}$ electrodes, TEM micrograph, stability, IPCE versus light absorption and APCE, an impedance model, and a video of the PbS artificial leaf working autonomously. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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