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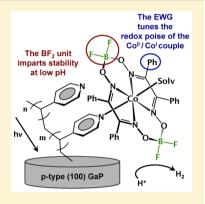


Using Molecular Design to Control the Performance of Hydrogen-**Producing Polymer-Brush-Modified Photocathodes**

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Attachment of difluoroborylcobaloxime catalysts to a polymer-brushmodified GaP semiconductor allows improved hydrogen production levels and photoelectrochemical performance under aqueous acidic conditions (pH = 4.5) as compared to the performance of electrodes without catalyst treatment. The catalytic assembly used in this work incorporates a boron difluoride (BF₂) capping group on the glyoximate ligand of the catalyst, a synthetic modification previously used to enhance the stability of nonsurface-attached complexes toward acid hydrolysis and to shift the cobalt reduction potentials of the complex to less negative, and thus technologically more relevant, values. The pH-dependent photoresponses of the cobaloxime- and difluoroborylcobaloxime- modified semiconductors are shown to be consistent with those from analogous studies using non-surface-attached cobaloxime catalysts as well as catalysts supported on conductive electrodes. Thus, this work illustrates the potential to control and optimize the properties of visible-light-absorbing semiconductors using polymeric overcoating techniques coupled with the principles of synthetic molecular design.



SECTION: Energy Conversion and Storage; Energy and Charge Transport

nergy conversion in photosynthesis offers a paradigm to develop technologies that harness, convert, and store solar energy. 1-4 However, a goal of artificial photosynthesis is to develop solar-to-fuels systems with efficiencies much greater than those of their biological counterparts.^{5–8} Achieving this goal presents fundamental research and engineering challenges. 9,10 Fundamental research challenges include developing methods to effectively interface visible-light-absorbing units to multielectron, multiproton fuel catalysis using materials that are both manufacturably scalable and robust under operational conditions. However, the appropriate operating conditions of a solar fuel generator are currently unknown, and cases have been made for the advantages of operating in near-neutral pH as well as more caustic environments (i.e., basic and/or acidic conditions). 11-13 In addition, a majority of molecular fuel catalysts are initially designed and optimized for operation in solution, with the use of sacrificial chemical agents or an electrode providing the driving force, 14,15 and it is often uncertain how or if a given complex will function when immobilized at a surface. Further, in standard electrochemical measurements, changes in potential are used to alter the rate of electron transfer. These changes in potential at a metal/ electrolyte interface appear across an electrical double layer (Helmholtz layer), changing the activation energy of the

reaction and hence the rate of electron transfer. In contrast, changes in potential at a semiconductor/electrolyte interface appear mostly across the space charge region in the semiconductor and not across the Helmholtz layer.

Our investigations in the area of directly interfacing light capture and conversion technologies with catalysis have led us to develop a modular process to rapidly assemble promising combinations of semiconductors and catalysts. 16 Using this strategy, we can modify the choice of light absorber, linking material, or catalyst as new materials (or new uses for old ones) and discoveries emerge. In addition, we have previously reported¹⁷ using polyvinylpyridine-modified p-type gallium phosphide^{18–21} to assemble cobaloxime catalysts^{14,22,23} for hydrogen production. The integrated photocathode (1) (Figure 1) is capable of photochemically producing hydrogen upon illumination in buffered as well as unbuffered solutions at neutral pH. We now show for the first time that incorporation of a cobaloxime with a ligand macrocycle that is modified at the molecular level affects the photoelectrochemical response to pH observed at the construct level.

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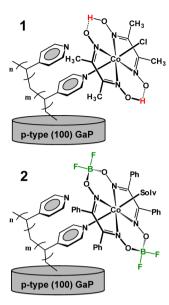


Figure 1. Schematic representations of cobaloxime-polymer-modified semiconductors containing (1) a H-bridged ligand as well as (2) a BF₂-bridged analogue.

Preparation of GaP wafers bearing surface-attached polyvinylpyridine has been described in a previous report. 17 In summary, buffered hydrofluoric acid etching of diced GaP wafers (~1 cm²) is used to remove native surface oxide and provide hydroxyl-terminated surface sites (Figures S1 and S2, Supporting Information (SI)) for UV-induced surface grafting^{24–29} and polymerization of the 4-vinylpyridine monomer. The resulting surface-attached polymer can be used as a scaffold for assembling cobaloxime catalysts at pyridyl sites. For the difluoroborylcobaloxime-modified cathode (2) used in this report, the oxime-linking hydrogen atoms of the cobaltcontaining precursor, Co(dphgH)₂(H₂O)₂, are replaced with bridging BF2 groups prior to assembly of the hybrid photocathode, yielding Co(dphgBF₂)₂(H₂O)₂ (see the SI Synthesis section). This synthetic manipulation has previously been used to impart stability during solution operation of cobaloxime catalysts in acidic conditions and to tune the catalytic redox features of cobaloximes to less negative values.30,31

Verification of the synthetic efforts used to assemble 2 is achieved using surface-sensitive spectroscopic methods, including X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and grazing angle attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (GATR-FTIR). These methods provide converging

evidence of successful attachment of difluoroborylcobaloximes to the PVP-functionalized semiconductor. Survey spectra of 2 show the presence C, N, O, F, B, and Co elements of the catalysts (Figure S3, SI). Further, Co 2p core-level region spectra (Figure 2a) show peaks centered at 780.4 $(2p_{3/2})$ and 795.6 eV $(2p_{1/2})$ (Table S1, SI) that are characteristic of the intact difluoroborylcobaloxime complex, Co(dphgBF₂)PyH₂O (Figures S4 and S5, SI), including an observed 2:1 branching ratio with a multiplet splitting of 15.2 eV and a low-intensity satellite structure. The measured elemental ratios of Co/B/ F are Co/B = 1/1.9, Co/F = 1/3.6, and B/F = 1/1.9. Further, core-level N 1s spectra of 2 show two spectral contributions centered at 399.9 and 398.7 assigned to nitrogens coordinated to the Co centers of attached catalysts, at higher binding energies, as well as pyridine units on the polymer chain that are not coordinated to Co, at lower binding energies. (Figure S9, SI).

GATR-FTIR spectra of 2 provide additional evidence of successful catalyst attachment. Figure 3 compares spectra of

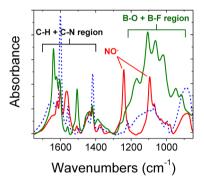


Figure 3. GATR-FTIR spectra of PVP-functionalized GaP (blue dash), construct 1 (red), and construct 2 (green).

PVP-functionalized GaP, 1, and 2. As previously reported, the frequencies of the five absorption bands centered in the 1400–1600 cm⁻¹ frequency range are assigned to C–N and C–H vibrations of the grafted polymer (Table S2, SI).³⁴ Upon attachment of catalysts to pyridyl sites on the polymer-modified GaP, forming constructs 1 or 2, the spectrum is modified in this region, as explained below, and new peaks due to ligand vibration modes of the catalysts appear in the region below 1300 cm⁻¹. In addition, for constructs 1 and 2, the reduction in relative intensity of the peak near 1602 cm⁻¹, associated with a pyridine ring mode, indicates coordination to the catalyst.

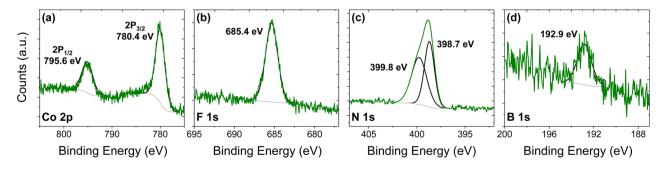


Figure 2. (a-d) Core-level XPS spectra including (a) Co 2p, (b) F 1s, (c) N 1s, and (d) B 1s regions of construct 2 (green). The gray and black lines represent the Shirley background and the component fits, respectively.

The improved understanding and control over the degrees of freedom and vibrational structure of catalytic units upon immobilization is likely a salient feature to improving the activity of surface-attached catalysts. To this end, we engaged in density functional theory (DFT) calculations, which are described in detail in the SI, of model systems relevant to this study, the isolated pyridine ligated version of constructs 1 and 2, and the PVP dimer. As was previously stated, the vibrational spectra of PVP-functionalized GaP substrates before and after catalyst attachment reveal many changes in the 1400-1600 cm⁻¹ region (Figure 3). Our calculations explain the appearance of peaks related to dphg C-N and phenyl C-H bend modes in this region, occurring most significantly in experiment (theory) at 1505 (1492 cm⁻¹) and ~1450 cm⁻¹ (1452 cm⁻¹) (Tables S2 and S3, SI). We note that the peak associated with the dphg ligand at ~1450 cm⁻¹ (1452 cm⁻¹) overlaps with an additional mode at 1453 cm⁻¹ that is assigned to the CH₂ PVP backbone. Additionally, the unbound pyridyl ring mode peak at 1602 cm⁻¹ (1590 cm⁻¹) (Table S5 and Figure S64, SI) in experiment (theory) is reduced in relative intensity as a result of its absence once pyridyl groups are bound as a ligand to Co (Figure S12, SI). In calculations of the isolated catalyst, a peak associated with the OH bend of Cobound aqua ligands is found at 1576 cm⁻¹, which in combination with the experimental spectrum of Co-(dphgBF₂)₂PyH₂O explains the broad peaks that appear in construct 2 at around 1600 cm⁻¹. In addition, spectra of 2 display intense absorption bands in the B-O and B-F stretching region (1200–800 cm⁻¹)³⁵ and no observable features associated with the NO stretching mode (1240 cm⁻¹) (theory 1256 cm⁻¹) that is observed in 1.

Attachment of the catalytic units to the polymer-modified GaP surface allows direct photoelectrochemical testing in aqueous environments under varying pH conditions. We note that the modified cathodes described in this report (1 and 2) are prepared from wafers cut from a different ingot of commercially obtained GaP, with different doping levels and physical properties (see the SI Materials section), as compared to those used in our previous reports. Linear sweep voltammograms of 1 and 2, measured at pH 7.0 (0.1 M phosphate buffer) and pH 4.5 (0.1 M acetate buffer), under simulated AM 1.5 illumination (100 mW cm⁻²), are shown in Figure 4.

For construct 2, a significantly increased photoactivity and near-quantitative production of hydrogen (Figure S20, SI), as compared to the performance of 1 or electrodes without catalyst treatment, is only observed at lower pH. These results indicate that proton activity at neutral pH is not high enough to boost hydrogen production upon illumination of 2 to the levels observed when using 1 (-0.56 mA cm⁻² at 0 V versus RHE when using 2 as the working electrode versus -1.2 mA cm^{-2} at 0 V versus RHE when using 1). Similar pH effects on catalytic performance have been noted in solution-based studies of (bis)dioxime cobalt complexes and their difluoroboryl analogues.³⁷ In these reports, requirement of a strong acid to induce catalysis is attributed to a correlation between the Co^{II}/ Co^I reduction potential and the basicity of Co^I to form Co^{III} hydride during the catalytic cycle. For example, Eisenberg and co-workers have reported the use of cobaloxime catalysts in a photocatalytic system for H₂ generation from aqueous solutions of a Pt(II) terpyridyl acetylide chromophore and a sacrificial electron donor (triethanolamine).³⁸ Co(dmgH)₂PyCl was shown to be an effective catalyst at pH 8.5, whereas the

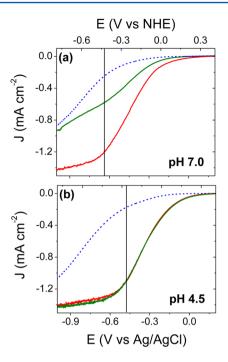


Figure 4. Linear sweep voltammograms of PVP-functionalized GaP (blue dash), **1** (red), and **2** (green) recorded at (a) pH 7 and (b) pH 4.5 under simulated AM 1.5 illumination. The vertical lines indicate 0 V versus RHE.

analogous difluoroborylated species is not. In their study, analysis at lower pH was complicated by the p K_a of the sacrificial electron donor used in these experiments. However, in an example of an immobilized electrocatalyst, Berben and Peters have reported a chemically modified electrode composed of $\text{Co}(\text{dmgBF}_2)_2(\text{MeCN})_2$ adsorbed to glassy carbon that is active for hydrogen evolution in aqueous solutions below pH 4.5.³⁷

Despite incorporation of the acid-stabilizing BF $_2$ units in 2, the observed photocurrents do decrease with time. Figure S18 (SI) shows controlled potential electrolysis results obtained using working electrodes, composed of 1 or 2, poised at -0.39 V versus NHE under simulated AM1.5 solar illumination. Under these conditions, electrodes 1 and 2 show a similar decrease in photocurrent with an average of 3 and 2% per minute, respectively. XPS analysis of the electrodes following exposure to electrolyte as well as photoelectrochemical testing (Figures S21 and S22, SI) shows that remaining cobalt complexes maintain electronic and structural integrity. In the Co 2p region, the two sets of signals corresponding to the $2p_{3/2}$ and $2p_{1/2}$ are still observed, and there are no detectable peaks below 780.9 eV corresponding to the presence of cobalt oxide or metallic cobalt.

Our results indicate that factors other than acid-induced hydrolysis of the dmgH or dphgBF₂ ligand of the catalysts contribute to the decrease in performance. While a detailed analysis of all possible degradation pathways is unavailable, detachment of cobalt centers from surface-grafted pyridines upon reduction from Co^{II} to Co^I is a likely point of failure. Previous computational and experimental work indicates that the axial pyridine of cobaloxime complexes can become labile during redox cycling. ^{39–41} However, using an innovative covalent attachment strategy that avoids binding though pyridyl moieties, Artero and co-workers have already shown that diimine—dioxime cobalt catalysts grafted to carbon nanotubes

are capable of robust electrocatalytic operation, achieving 55 000 turnovers in 7 $\mathrm{h.}^{42}$

As the molecular, electronic, and nanoscale properties that favor efficient photocatalytic performance and durability are identified, the modular nature of the approach used in this work, to directly couple catalysts to visible-light absorbers, should also allow modification of the attachment strategy. Although structural changes to the cobaloxime ligand environment can tune the redox potentials of catalysts to less negative values, large differences in photoperformance between photocathodes 1 and 2 are not apparent at pH 4.5 but are at pH 7. This result is rationalized in terms of the coupled nature of the chemical reaction catalyzed at the electrode surface (i.e., the formation of hydrogen involves the transfer of protons as well as electrons). Thus, the incorporation of electron-withdrawing groups on the ligand environment of the catalyst to favor transfer of electrons at less negative potentials also adversely affects the proton-transfer energetics. This highlights the promise of catalysts capable of decoupling the tuneability of the electron- and proton-transfer energetics by incorporating built-in positioned bases to deliver protons to a reactive metal site. Such features are captured in the hydrogenase inspired catalysts reported by DuBois and co-workers. 21,43-45 In these complexes, pendent amines provide relays that deliver substrate protons to a metal hydride stabilized by a soft bisdiphosphine ligation environment. However, effective attachment of catalysts that operate via more sophisticated mechanisms may also require improved immobilization strategies or the preparation of new catalysts specifically designed for operation when attached at a surface or immobilized within a confined environment. Although recent research efforts in this area^{15,16,34,42,43,46} illustrate the promise of using immobilized molecular components in catalytic and photocatlytic materials, the development of effective attachment strategies and interfaces remains a major challenge.

In conclusion, GATR-FTIR and XPS confirm the successful attachment of a BF₂-capped cobaloxime hydrogen evolution catalyst to a polymer-modified semiconductor. The presence of difluoroborylcobaloximes significantly enhances photochemical performance of the GaP photocathode in aqueous conditions at low pH, compared to results obtained using GaP without catalyst functionalization. To the extent of our knowledge, this is the first time that the photoactivity and associated hydrogen production of a semiconductor are shown to be influenced by changes to the ligand environment of the molecular catalysts grafted at the semiconductor surface. This work illustrates the potential to control and optimize the properties of visible-light-absorbing semiconductors using polymeric overcoating techniques coupled with the principles of molecular design.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Material descriptions, instrument descriptions, experimental details, computational details, XPS data, FTIR data, electrochemical and photoelectrochemical data, GC data, and computational results. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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