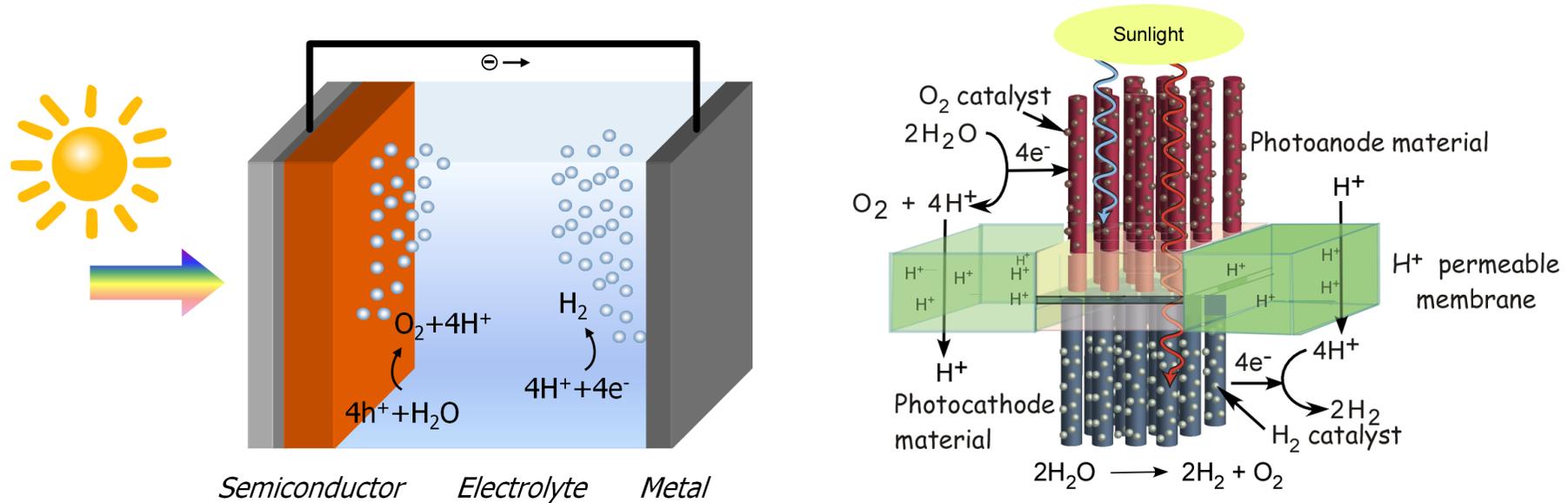


**(9) Photocatalysis  
(PEC(Photoelectrochemical) cell)**

# 1. Overview for **photo**electrochemistry: water splitting

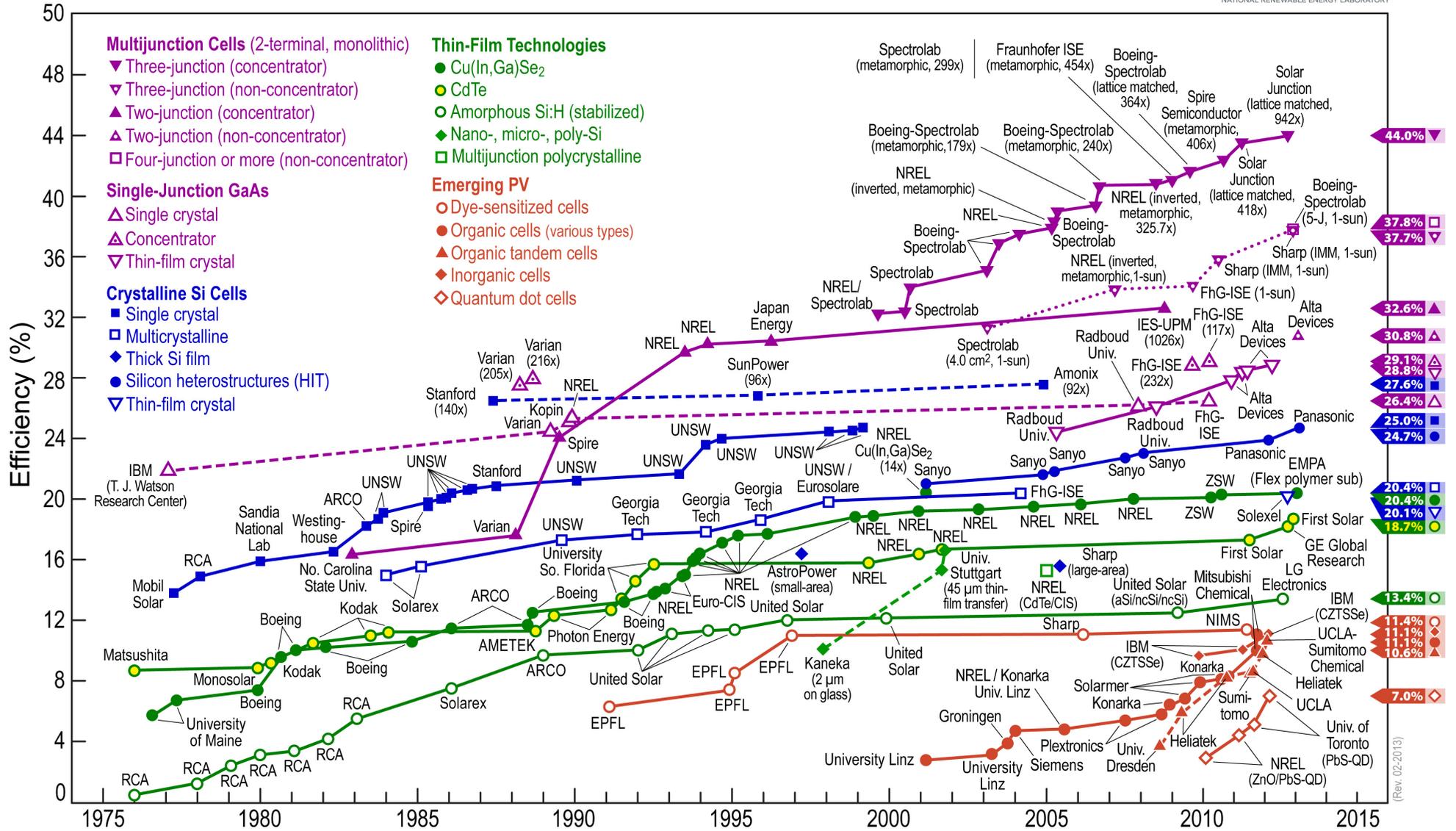
PECs are solar cells that produce electrical energy or  $H_2$  in a process similar to the electrolysis of  $H_2O$ .



**Fundamental challenges for photovoltaic (PV) cells**  
: very low conversion efficiency



# Best Research-Cell Efficiencies



- **Requirements and trade-offs for photoelectrode**

- Good (visible) light absorption
- Efficient charge transport in the semiconductor
- High chemical stability in the dark and under illumination and in sol'n
- Negligible photocorrosion (with increasing  $E_g$  semiconductor)
- Low cost
- Band edge positions that straddle the water reduction and oxidation potential
- Low overpotentials for reduction/oxidation of water

- **Minimum/Maximum bandgap ( $E_g$ ) for photoelectrode**

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 \underline{\quad 1.23 \text{ eV} \quad} & + & \underline{\quad 0.3\sim 0.4 \text{ eV} \quad} & + & \underline{\quad 0.4\sim 0.6 \text{ eV} \quad} & \leq & \mathbf{1.9 \text{ eV}} \\
 \text{Thermodynamic} & & \text{Thermodynamic} & & \text{Overpotential} & & \text{Absorption onset} \\
 \text{potential for water} & & \text{loss} & & \text{(for OER)} & & \text{at 650 nm} \\
 \text{splitting} & & \text{(for semiconductor)} & & & & \text{(wavelength)}
 \end{array}$$

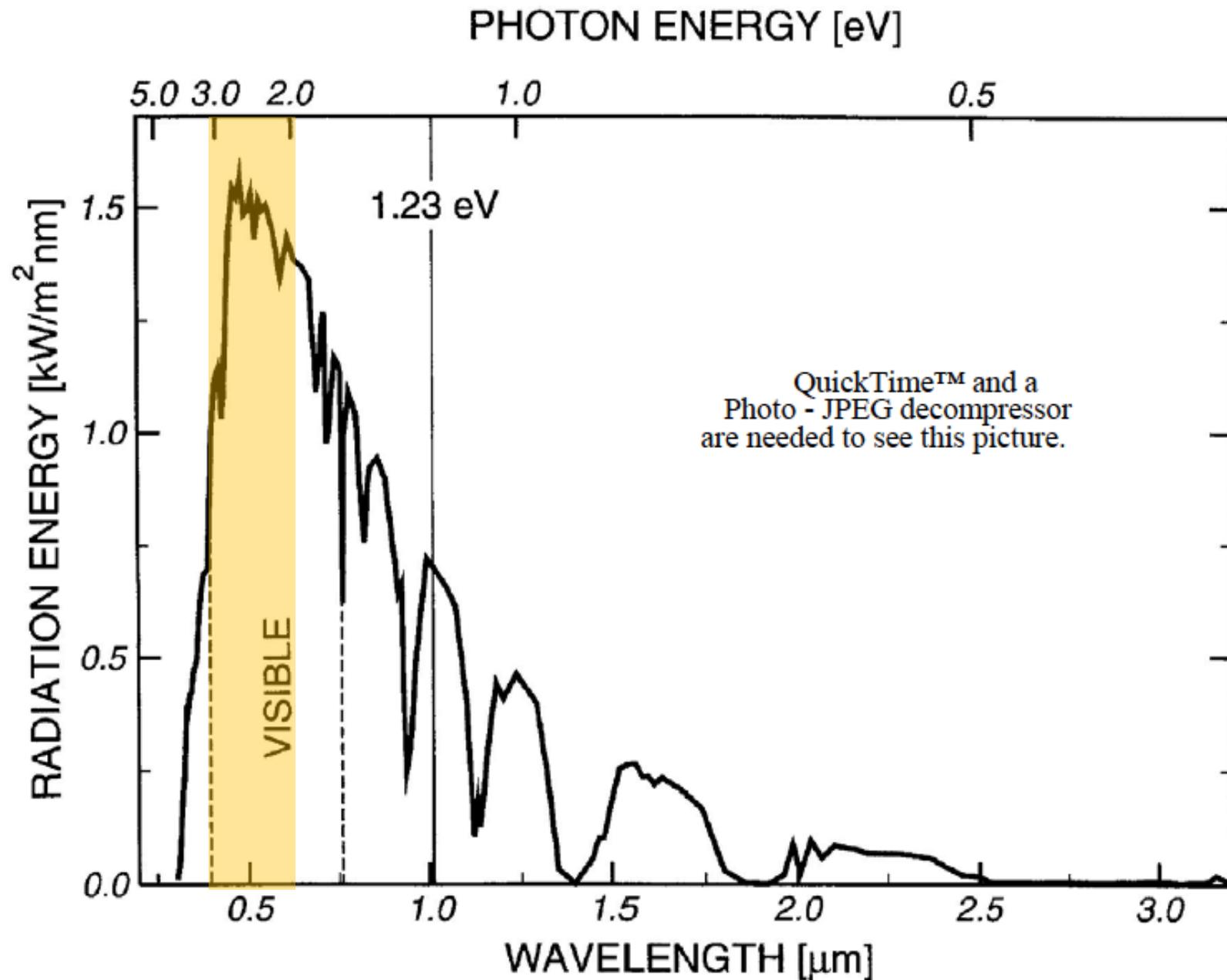
Not over **3.1 eV**: below 400 nm of wavelength the intensity of sunlight drops rapidly.

- **Solar energy efficiency of water splitting**

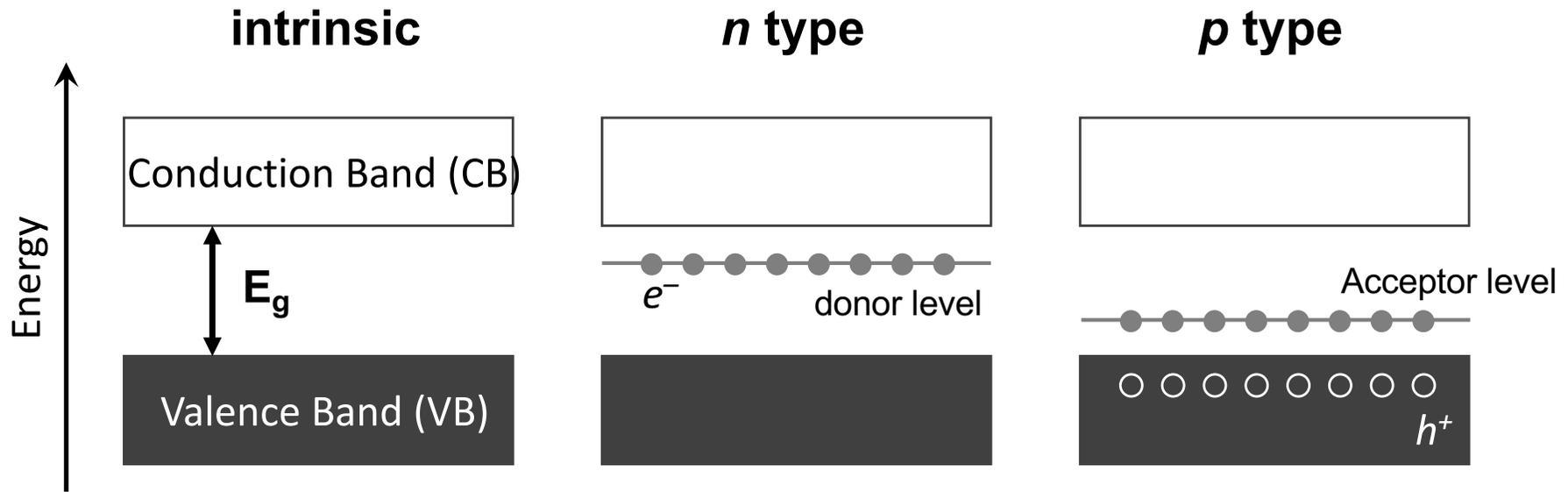
$$\frac{\text{Chemical potential}}{\text{Electrolysis potential}} = \frac{1.23}{1.9} = 65\%$$

- Coupling to a 12% PV (photovoltaic) array gives a solar-to-hydrogen efficiency of  $0.12 \times 0.65 = \mathbf{7.8\%}$

# Bandgap Considerations

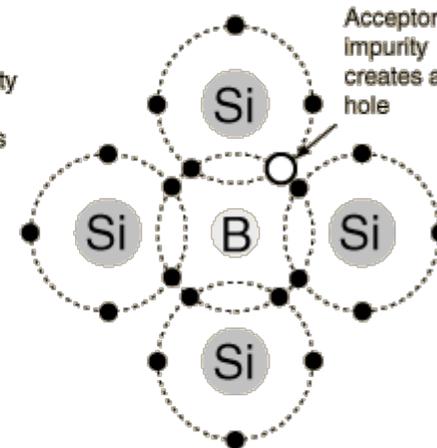
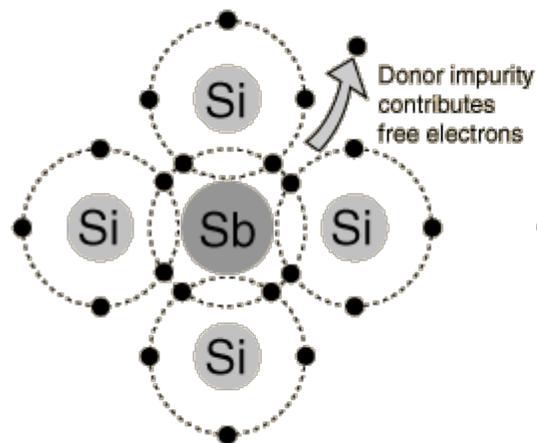


## 2. Semiconductors for photoelectrode



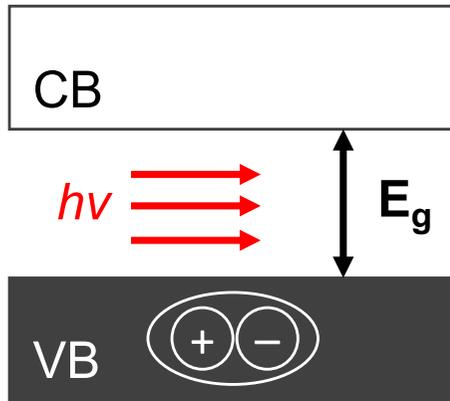
Majority carrier:  $e^-$   
Minority carrier:  $h^+$

Majority carrier:  $h^+$   
Minority carrier:  $e^-$



### 3. Photochemical reaction process

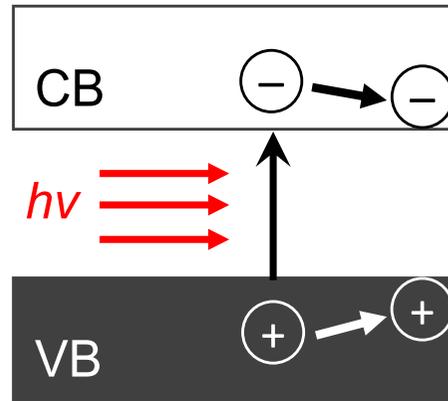
(1) Photon absorption



exciton

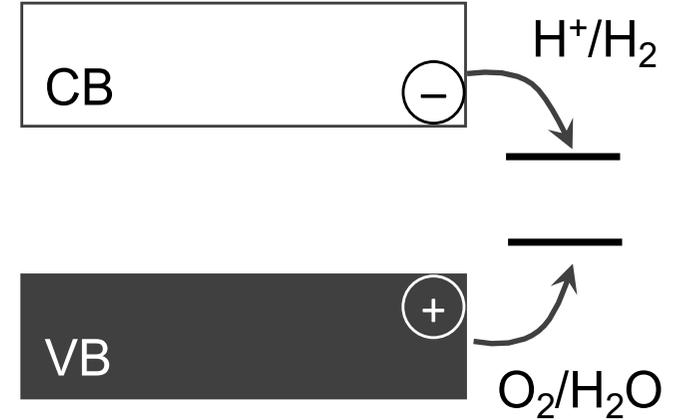
Generation of  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  with sufficient potentials

(2) Charge separation



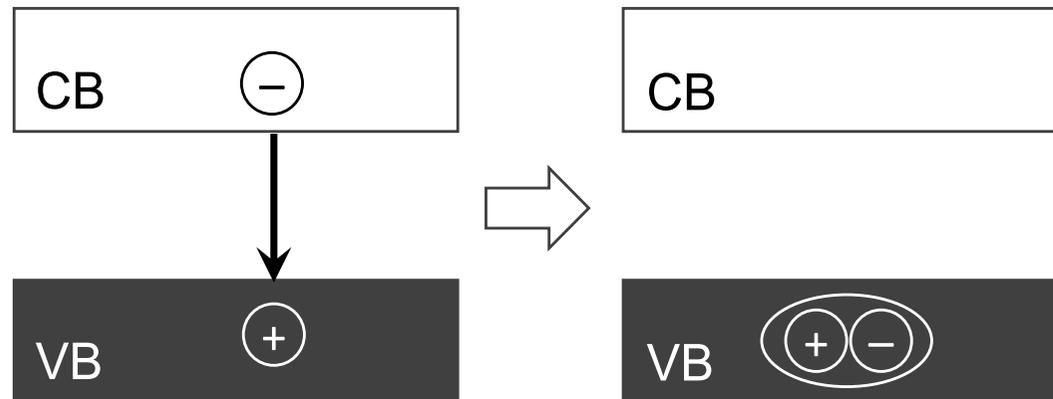
And migration to surface reaction sites

(3) Electrochemical rxn



Construction of surface rxn sites for  $H_2/O_2$  evolution

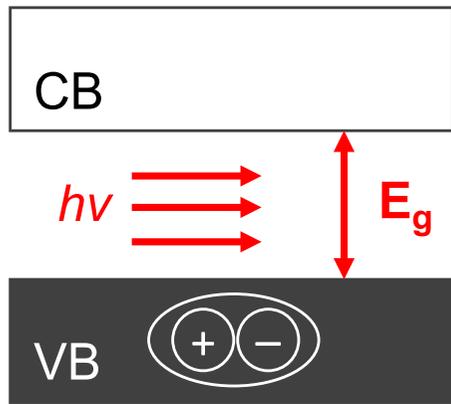
(4) Recombination



No further rxn

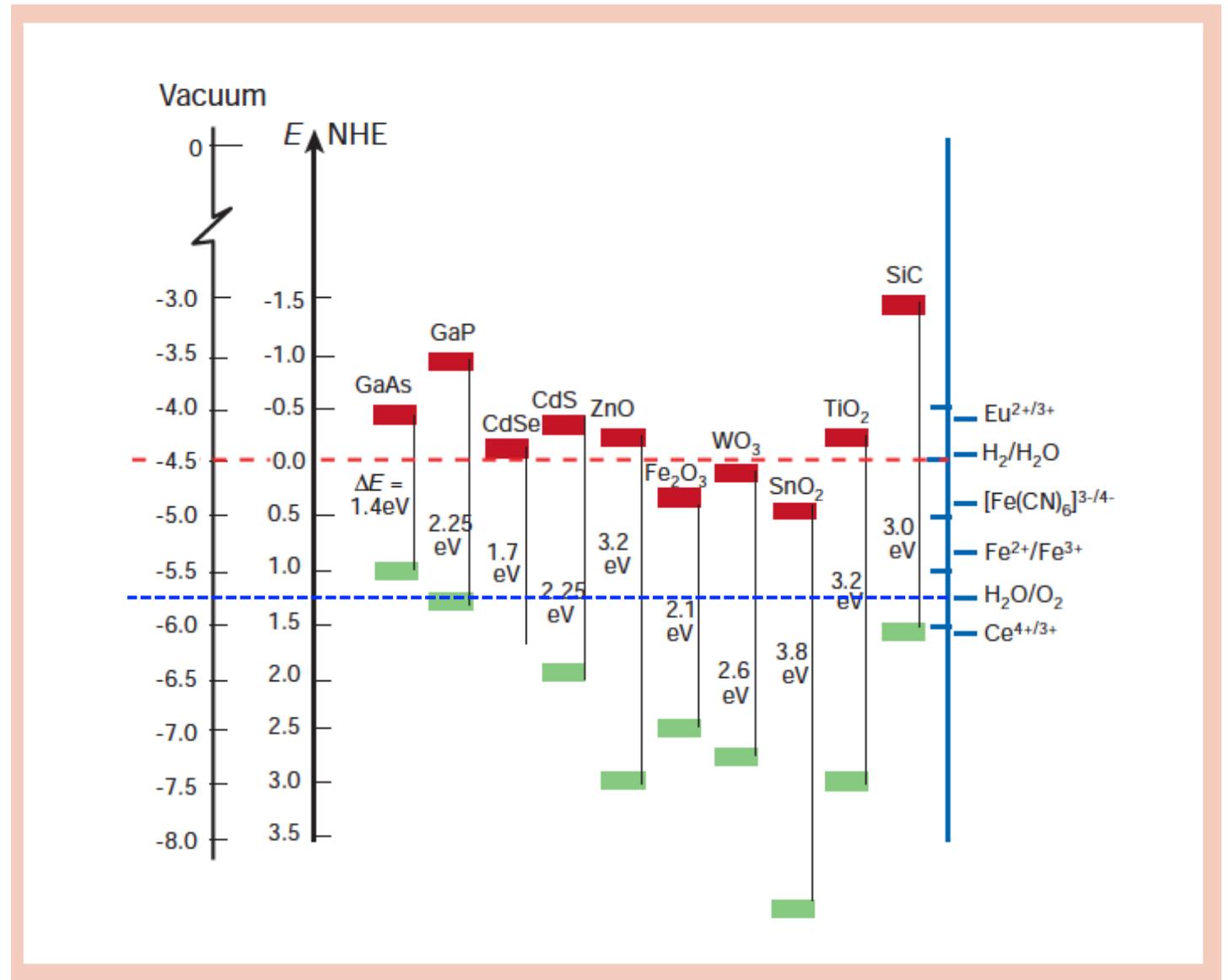
# 3-1. bandgap

(1) Photon absorption



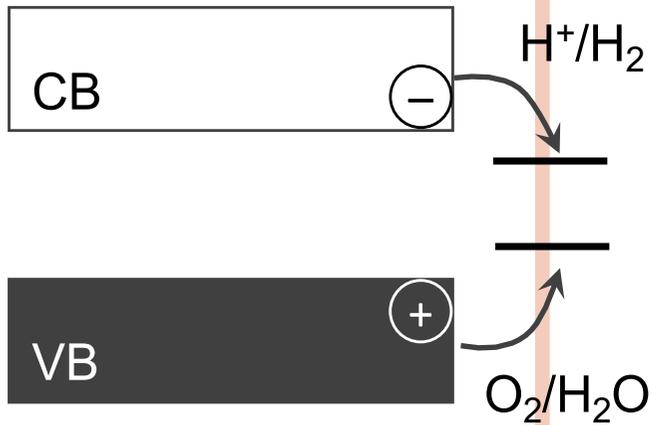
exciton

Generation of  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  with sufficient potentials

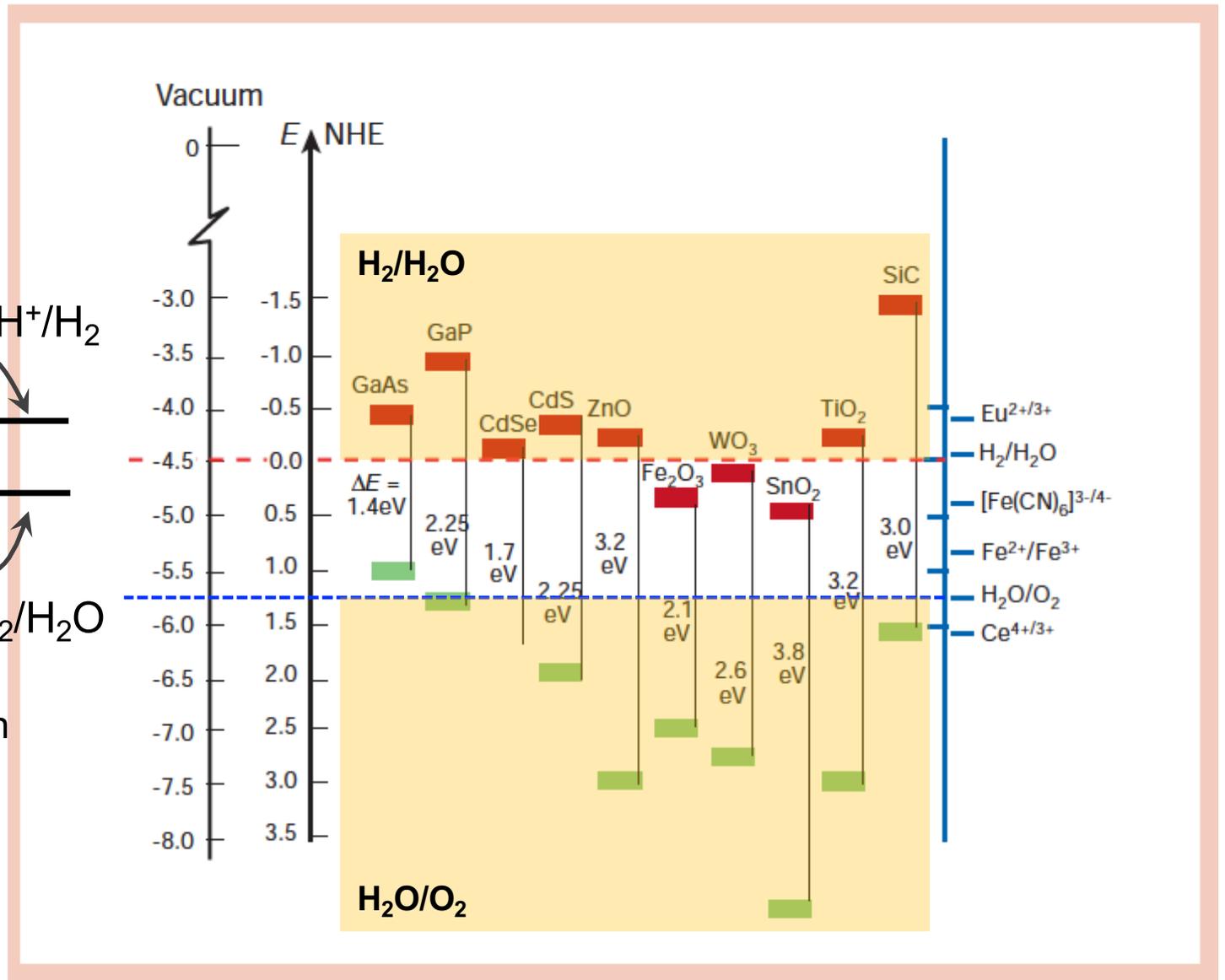


### 3-2. Band edge position (quasi-Fermi level)

(3) Electrochemical rxn

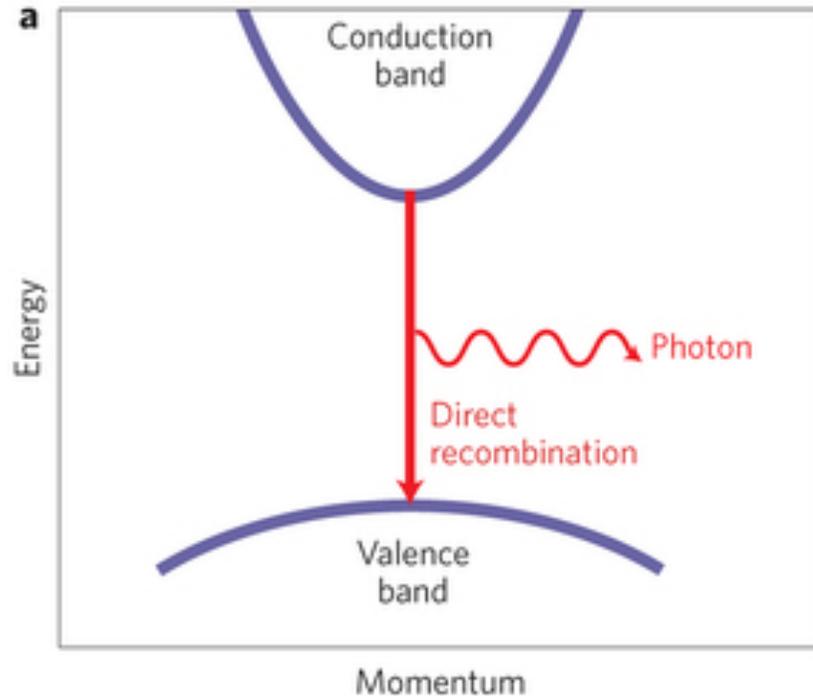


Construction of surface rxn sites for  $H_2/O_2$  evolution



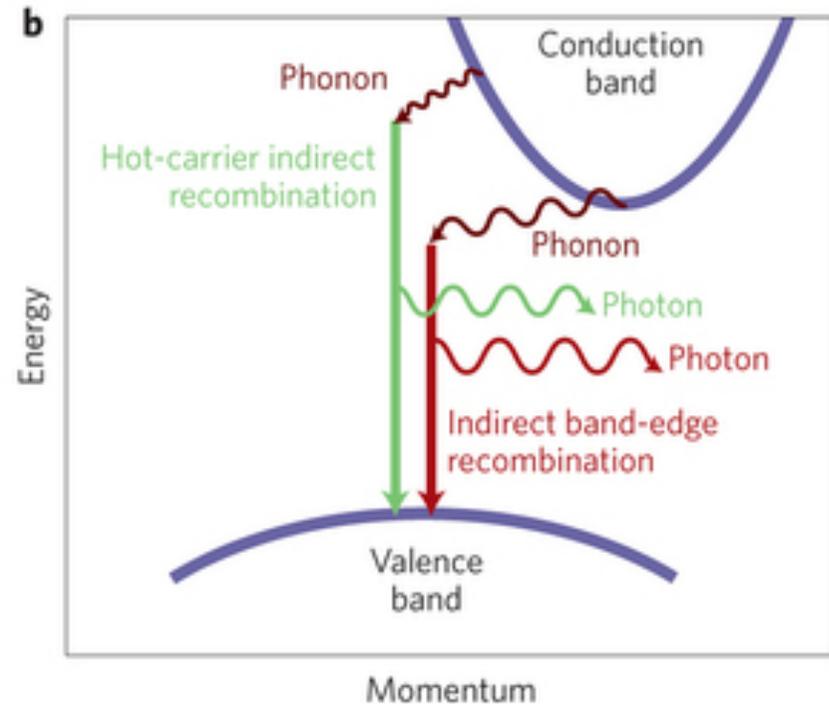
### 3-3. Direct and indirect bandgap

Direct bandgap



- Excellent light absorption
- Thin film solar cell ( $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ , CdTe, CIGS..)

Indirect bandgap



- Requiring a change in crystal momentum
- Poor light absorption
- Thick film solar cell (Si)
- Radiative recombination is slower.

- The recombination occurring at boundaries and defects.

\*CIGS: copper indium gallium selenide

- **Absorption coefficient,  $\alpha$**

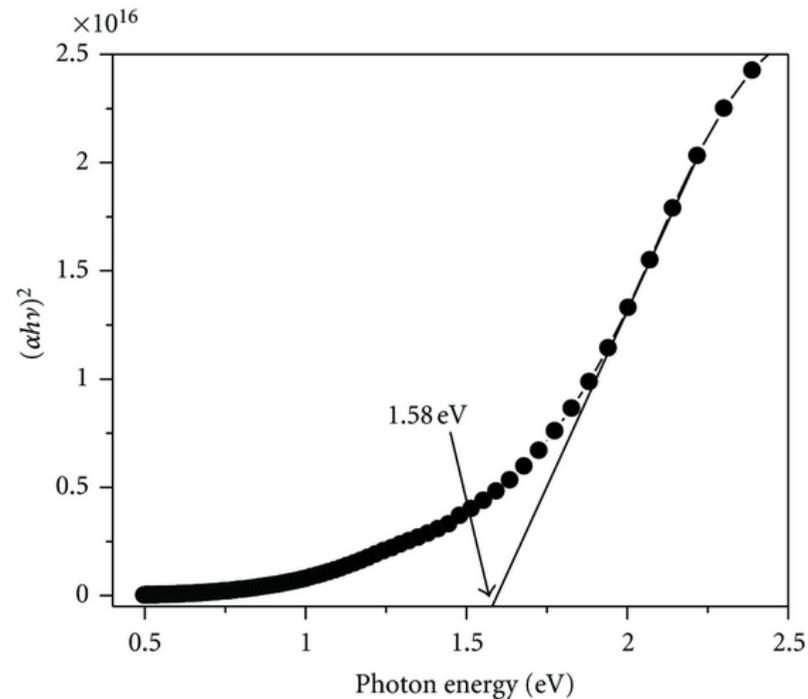
$$\alpha = \frac{A(h\nu - E_g)^m}{h\nu}$$

A: constant

m :  $1/2$  for a direct bandgap and 2 for an indirect bandgap

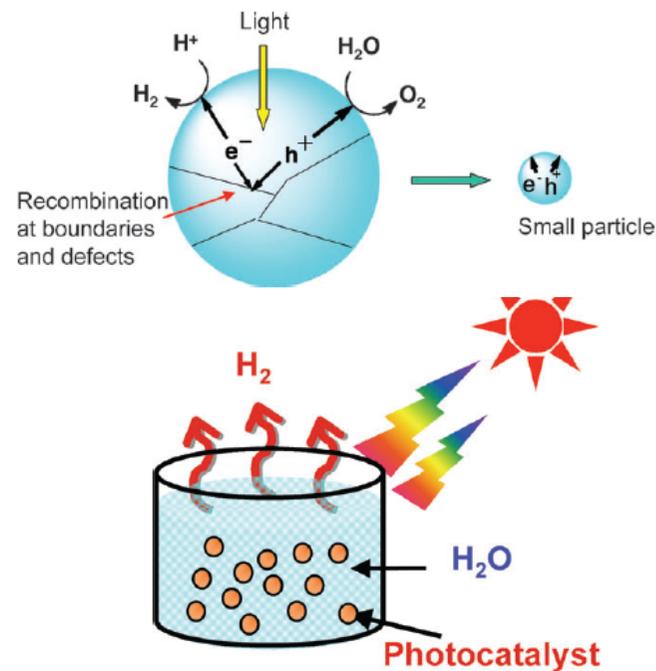
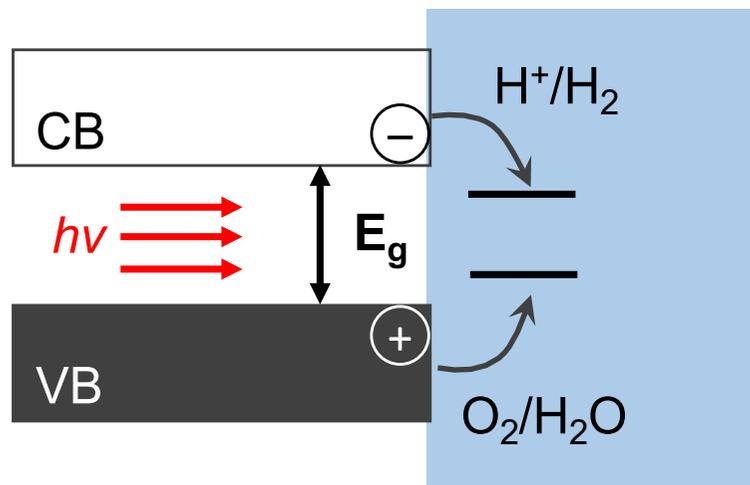
- **Tauc plot  $\rightarrow$  Measurement of  $E_g$  for semiconductor**

Extrapolation of a plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$  vs.  $h\nu$  : the indirect bandgap  
a plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  vs.  $h\nu$  : the direct bandgap

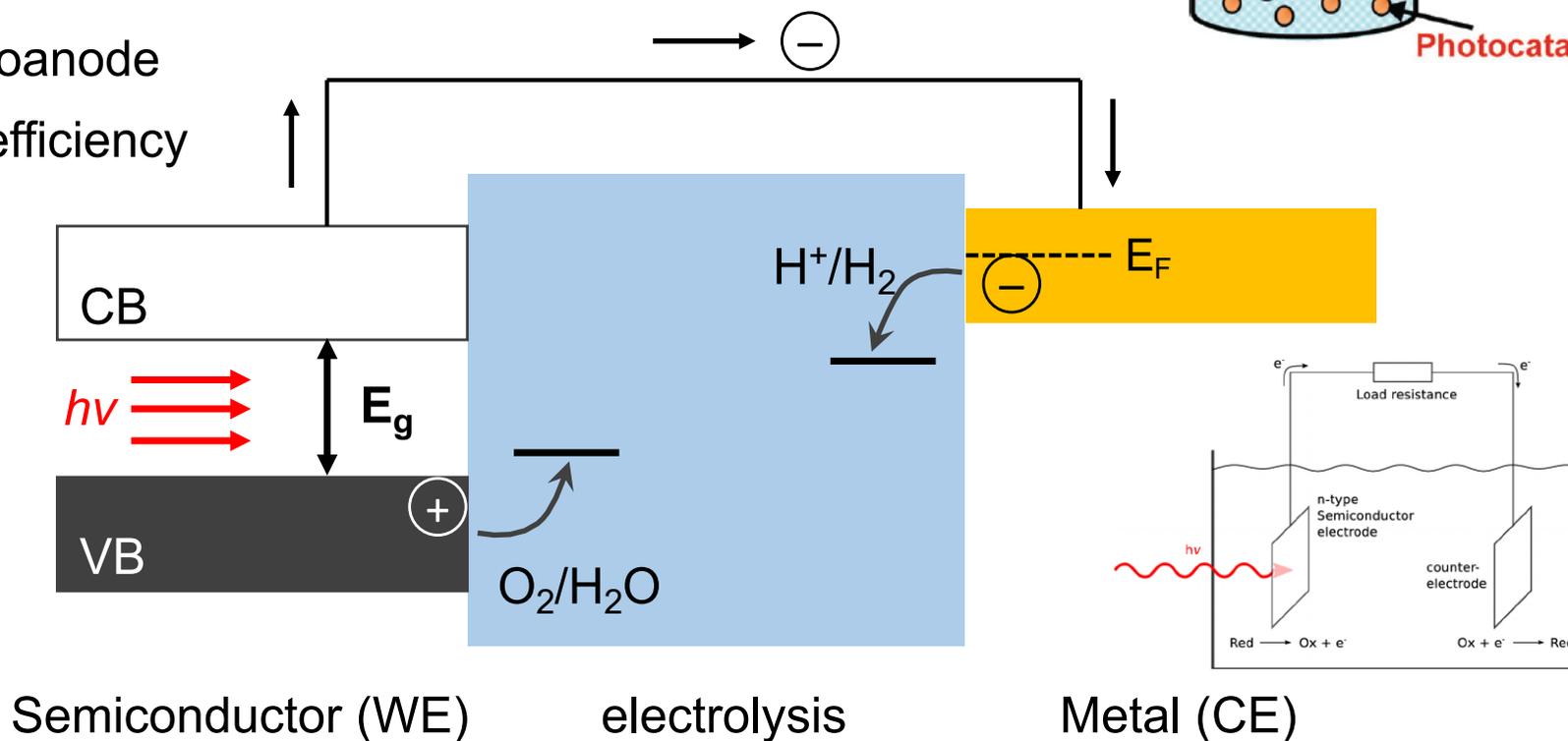


### 3-4. Configuration of PEC cell

(1) One body

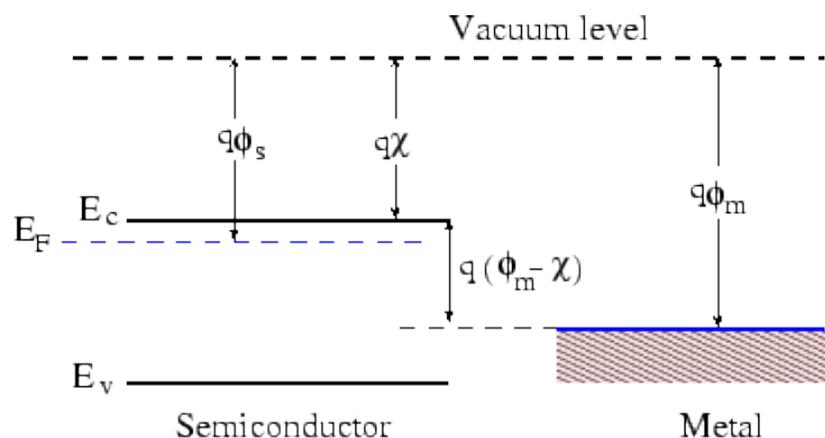


(2) Photoanode  
Higher efficiency

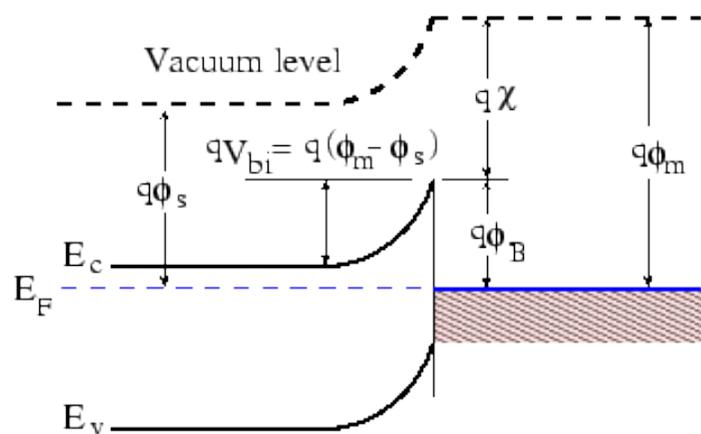


## 4. Semiconductor/electrolyte interface (for $n$ type semiconductor)

### Schottky contact (semiconductor/metal contact)

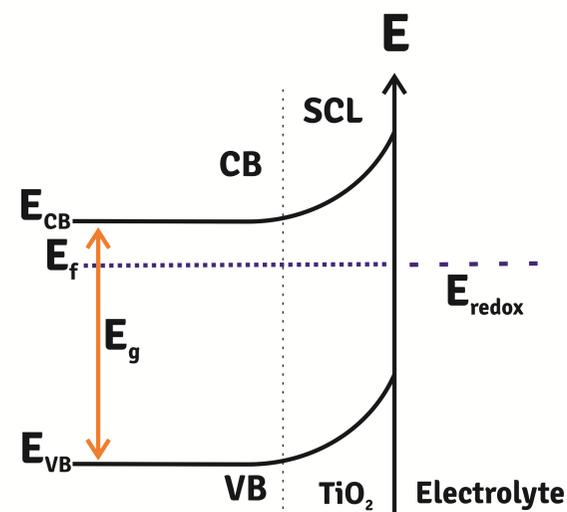
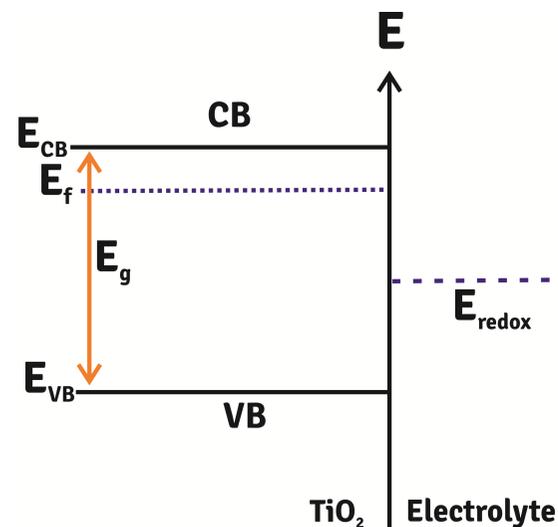


(a)



(b)

### Semiconductor/electrolyte contact

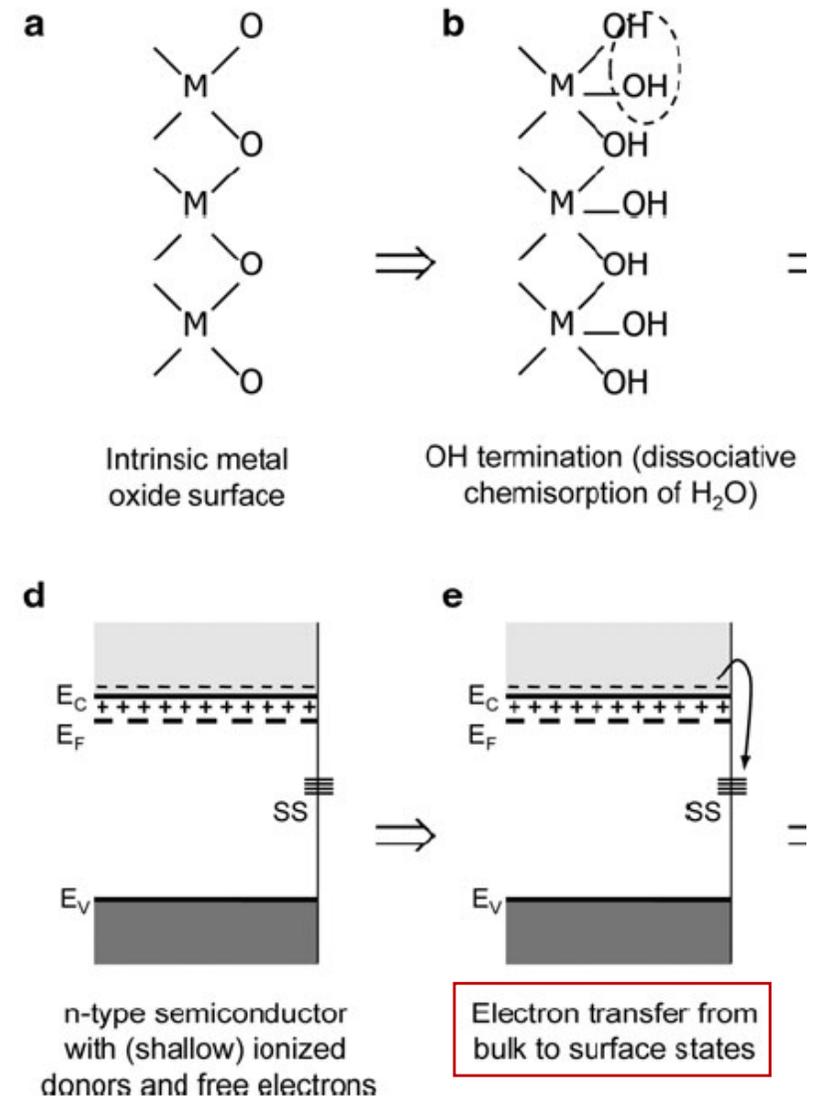


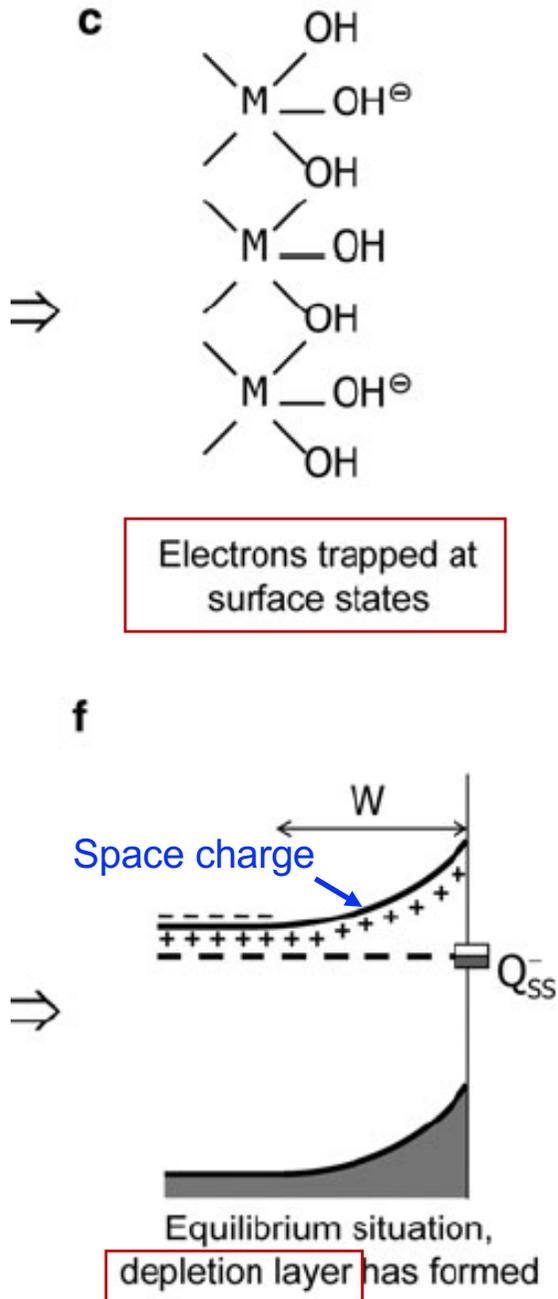
Becoming equilibrium

## 4-1. Space charge : *excess electric charge* present in a region of space (at the semiconductor/liquid electrolyte junction (SCLJ))

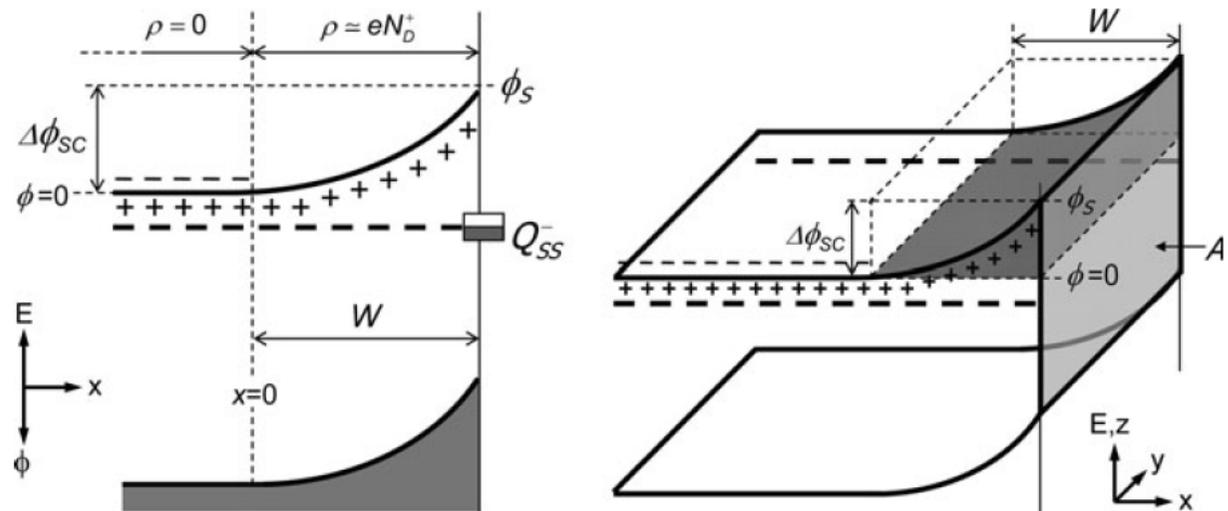
- o The physical origin of surface state: structural defects (dangling bonds, vacancies, etc) or chemisorbed species from an electrolyte sol'n.
- o When a metal oxide is exposed to air, water molecules from the air can dissociatively adsorb at its surface, resulting in  $-OH$  surface termination.
- o Surface hydroxylation
  - pH dependence for electrolyte solution
  - Brønsted acidity of the semiconductor surface
$$M-OH \rightleftharpoons MO^- + H^+_{aq}$$

$$M-OH + H^+_{aq} \rightleftharpoons M-OH_2^+$$
- o These  $-OH$  groups form electronic surface states within the  $E_g$  of the semiconductor.



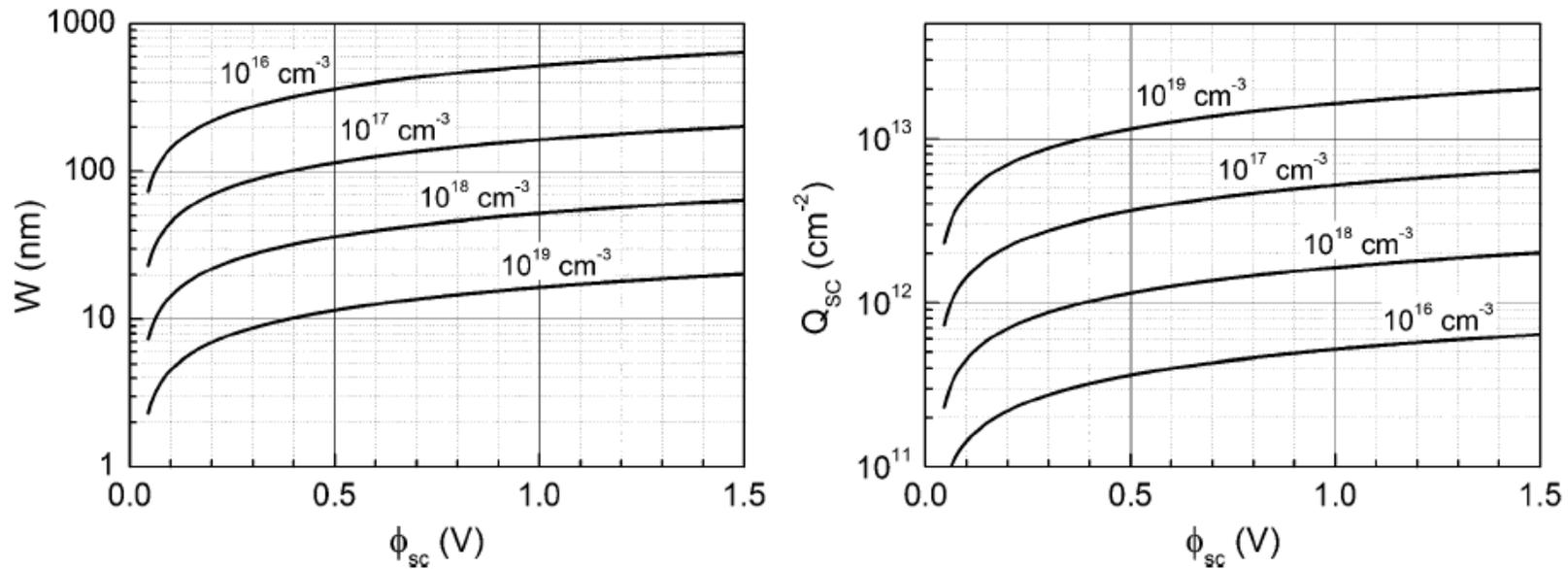


o An electric field forms, and the charge transfer from bulk to surface will continue until the potential barrier becomes too large for bulk electrons to cross. At this point, a dynamic equilibrium establishes at which no net  $e^-$  transport takes place.



**Fig. 2.12** Illustration of band bending at the surface of a n-type semiconductor in depletion. The “+” markers just below the conduction band represent the ionized donor species, whereas the “-” markers just above the conduction band level represent the free electrons. The potential in the bulk of the semiconductor is chosen as zero

- o The potential distribution and width of space charge depend on the amount of charges transferred to the surface and the density of shallow donors in the material.



**Fig. 2.13** *Left:* Depletion layer width as a function of potential drop across the space charge ( $\phi_{sc}$ ) and (shallow) dopant density. *Right:* Corresponding amount of adsorbed surface charges needed to compensate the charges in the depletion layer. The data are calculated for  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  assuming a static dielectric constant of 25 [39, 40]

o Upon irradiation, photogenerated carriers are separated by the space-charge field and the minority carriers travel to the SCLJ to perform on O<sub>2</sub> evolution.

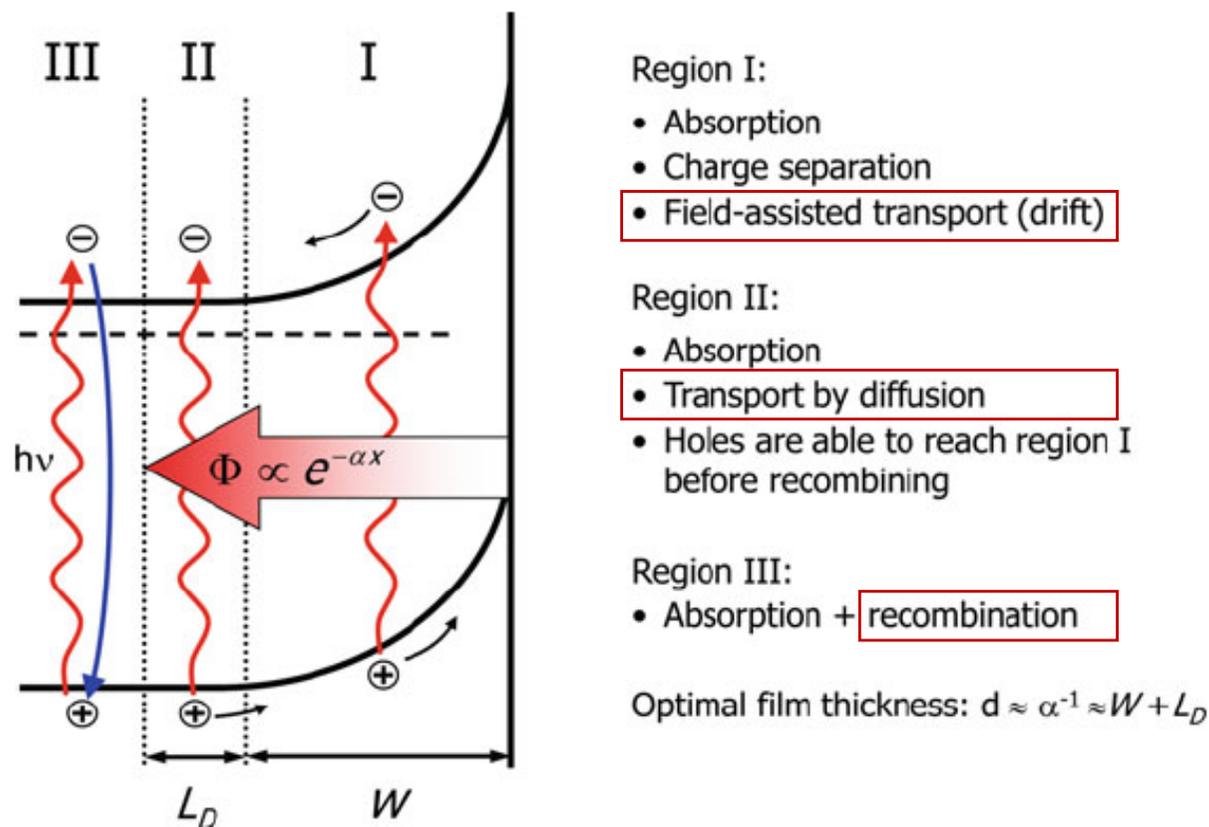
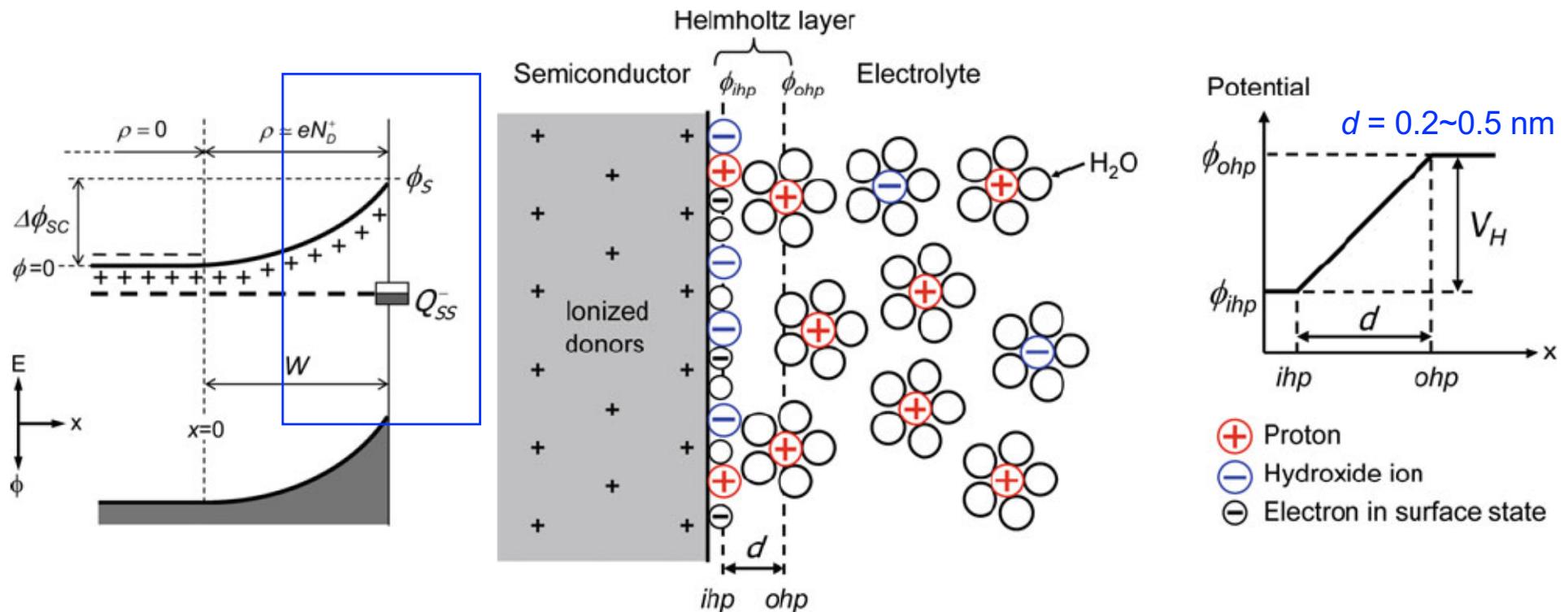


Fig. 2.23 Absorption regions in a semiconducting photoanode. The intensity of the light ( $\Phi$ ) decreases exponentially with distance from the surface (Lambert-Beer law). All charge carriers generated within a distance  $L_D + W$  from the surface contribute to the photocurrent (regions I and II), whereas all carriers generated in region III recombine

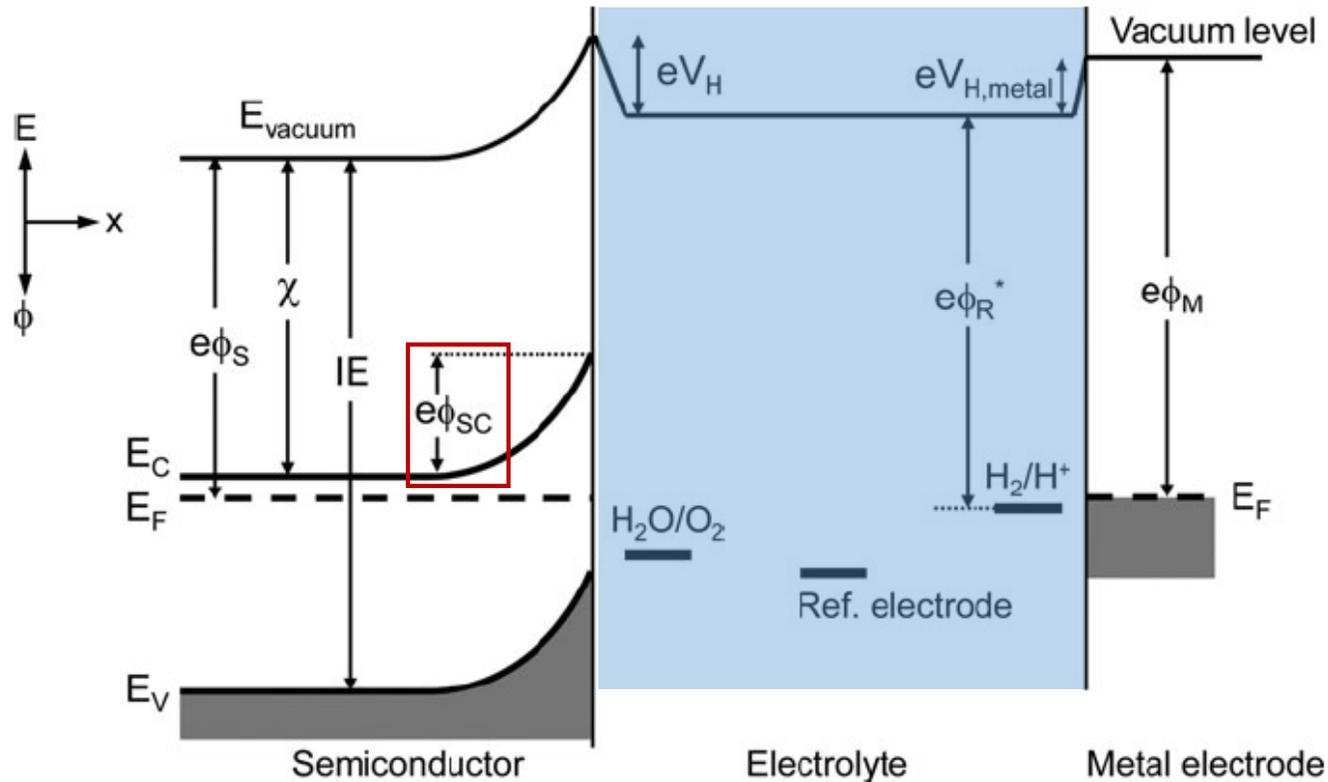
- The charges at the surface:  $e^-$  trapped in surface states + adsorbed ions
- The counter charge: ionized donors in the semiconductor + an accumulation of oppositely charged ions in the electrolyte sol'n.
- $V_H$  depends on the pH of the sol'n.



**Fig. 2.15** Schematic model of the semiconductor/electrolyte interface and the Helmholtz layer. The inner Helmholtz plane (ihp) consists of  $H^+$  and  $OH^-$  ions that are specifically adsorbed at the semiconductor surface. The outer Helmholtz plane (ohp) marks the distance of closest approach for ions still in the solution. The distance  $d$  is only a few Ångströms due to the solvation sheet of water molecules surrounding each ion

For  $Q_s = 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ ,  $V_H$  is typically in the order of 0.1~0.5 V.  
 The Helmholtz capacitance is  $10\sim 20 \mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$

- o Because of the high conc. of free  $e^-$  in **the metal CE**, the space charge region inside the metal is extremely thin ( $\sim 0.1$  nm) and therefore be ignored.
- o The structure of the Helmholtz layer at the metal/electrolyte interface is similar to that for the semiconductor.



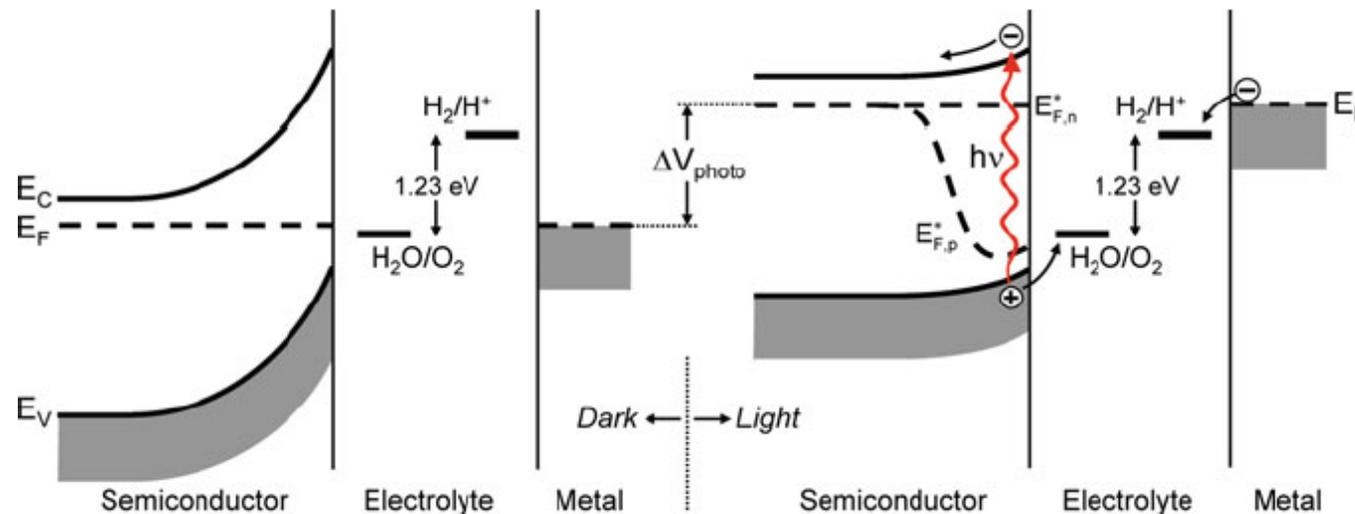
**Fig. 2.16** Energy diagram for a PEC cell based on a n-type semiconductor and a metal counter electrode. The vacuum energy level is taken as a reference; this is the energy of an electron in vacuum at infinite distance. The electron affinity ( $\chi$ ) and ionization energy (IE) are materials constants, whereas the semiconductor work function ( $\phi_s$ ) also depends on the distance to the surface. Note that a Helmholtz layer is also present at the metal/electrolyte interface

## dark

- The dark current is mainly carried by the majority carriers, ( $e^-$ ) in the CB for an n-type semiconductor.
- The current flowing is negligible.

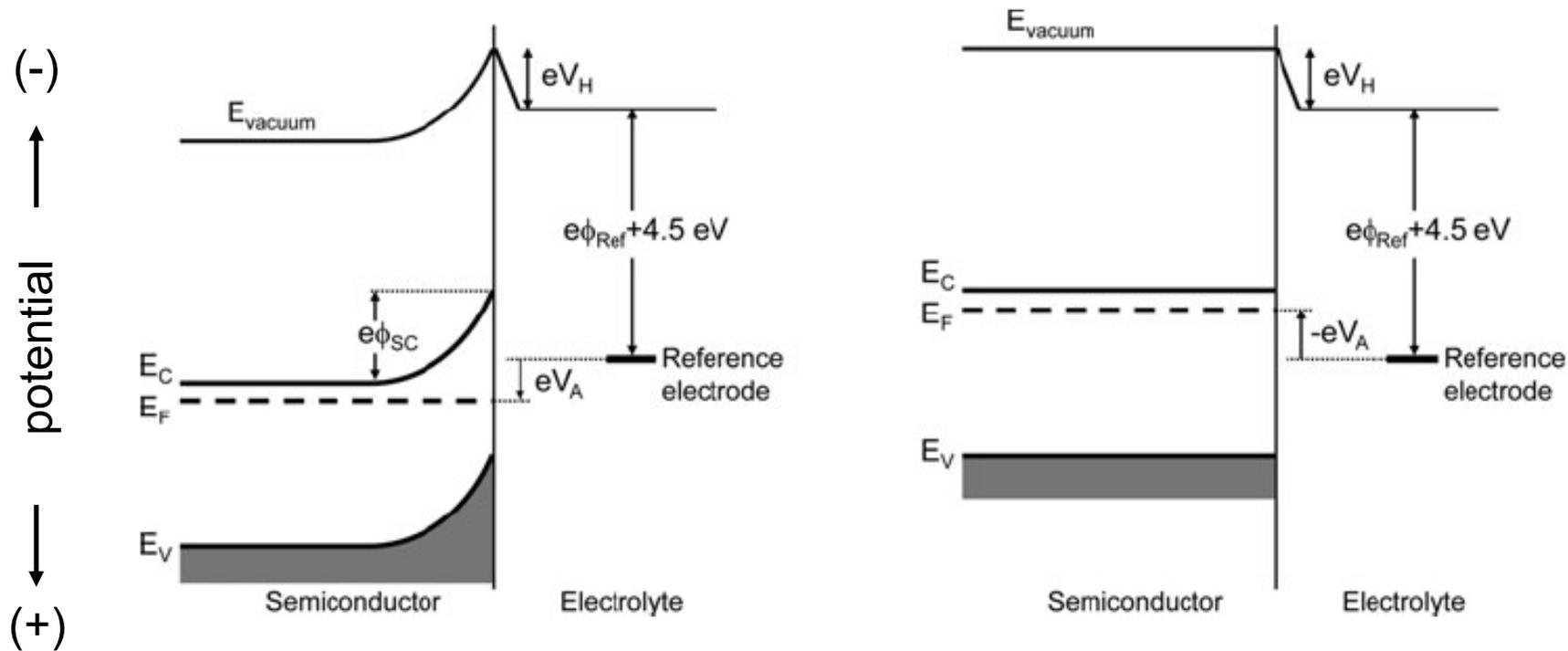
## light

- The current increases and is dominated by the transfer of minority carriers across the semiconductor /electrolyte interface.

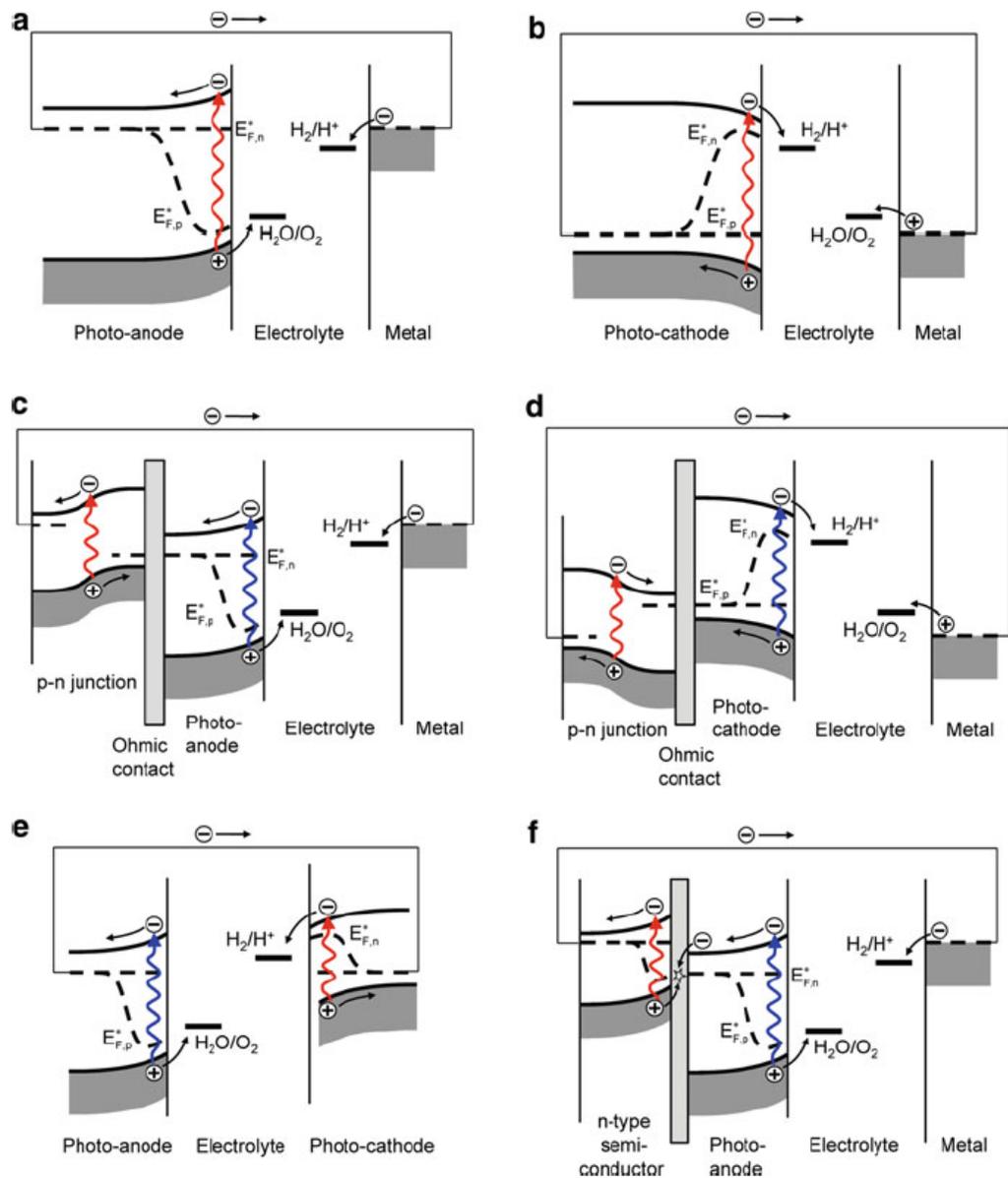


**Fig. 2.20** Band diagram for a PEC cell based on an n-type semiconducting photoanode that is electrically connected to a metal counter electrode; in equilibrium in the dark (*left*) and under illumination (*right*). Illumination raises the Fermi level and decreases the band bending. Near the semiconductor/electrolyte interface, the Fermi level splits into quasi-Fermi levels for the electrons and holes

Under illumination,  $e^-/h^+$  pairs are created and the  $E_F$  increases w/  $\Delta V_{\text{photo}}$  (internal photovoltage). The system is no longer in equilibrium: The use of a single  $E_F$  is no longer appropriate. Instead, **quasi-Fermi levels** is formed for charge carriers.



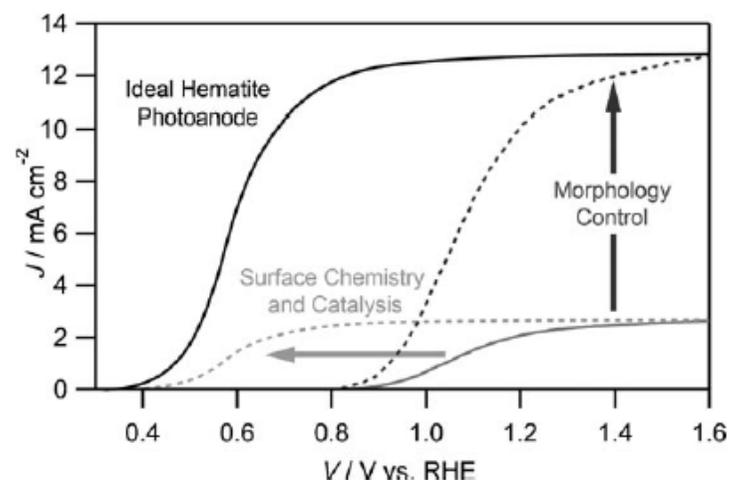
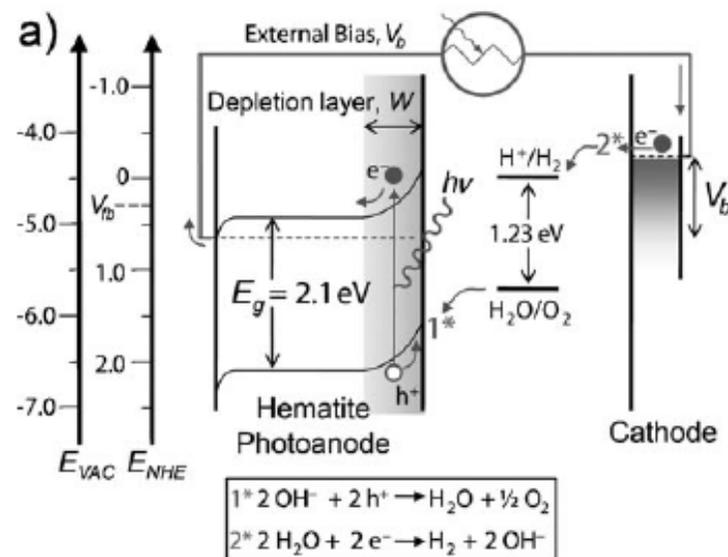
**Fig. 2.17** Effect of applying a bias voltage ( $V_A$ ) to an n-type semiconductor electrode. Any change in applied potential falls across the space charge layer, whereas  $V_H$  remains constant. In the picture on the left, a positive potential is applied to the semiconductor. When a sufficiently negative bias is applied, the band bending can be reduced to zero (*right*)



**Fig. 2.25** Examples of possible PEC configurations under illumination. *Top row:* Standard single-semiconductor devices based on a photoanode (a) or photocathode (b) with a metal counter electrode. *Middle row:* Monolithic devices based on a photoanode (c) or photocathode (d) biased with an integrated p–n junction. *Bottom row:* p–n junction photoelectrochemical device (e), and an n–n heterojunction PEC device based on a photoanode deposited on top of a second n-type semiconductor that “boosts” the energy of the electrons (f)

## 5. Hematite (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>)

- 16.8% converting solar energy into H<sub>2</sub>
  - Highly stable in alkaline solution
  - Absorption of visible light
  - Cheap and environmentally benign
- A flat band potential ( $V_{fb}$ ) too low in energy for H<sub>2</sub> evolution
  - A large requisite  $\eta$  for O<sub>2</sub> evolution
  - A relatively low absorption coefficient, requiring 400~500 nm thick film for complete light absorption
  - Poor majority carrier conductivity
  - A short diffusion length ( $L_D = 2\sim 4$  nm) of minority carriers (ultrafast recombination), requiring high doping level to increase the ionized donor conc. and conductivity. This in turn reduces the width of the space-charge layer.



**Figure 3.** The two-part strategy for improving hematite performance is shown with respect to the photocurrent density,  $J$ , vs. voltage behavior for an idealized hematite photoanode (solid black trace) compared to the typical performance (solid grey trace) under AM1.5G  $100 \text{ mWcm}^{-2}$  simulated sunlight, and the expected effects of improving the surface chemistry and the morphology.

- **Solar-to-hydrogen efficiency ( $\eta_{STH}$ )**

$$(1) \eta_{STH} = \frac{P_{electrical}^{out} - P_{electrical}^{in}}{P_{light}} = \frac{j_{photo}(1.23 - V_{bias})}{P_{light}}$$

**AM 1.5G** incident sunlight ( $P_{light} = 1000 \text{ W/m}^2$ )

For 10% efficiency target for economically viable PEC cells,,  
a photocurrent ( $j_{photo}$ ) of  $\sim 8 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  is required.

$$\eta_{STH} = 1.23 \times j_{photo} \quad \text{at no applied bias}$$

$$(2) \eta_{STH} = \frac{\Phi_{H_2} G_{g,H_2}^o}{P_{light}}$$

$\Phi_{H_2}$  : the rate of  $H_2$  evolution at the illuminated area ( $\text{mol/s/m}^2$ )

$G_{g,H_2}^o$  : the Gibbs free energy of formation of  $H_2$  (237 kJ/mol)

- **Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE)**

Quantum efficiency as a function of wavelength

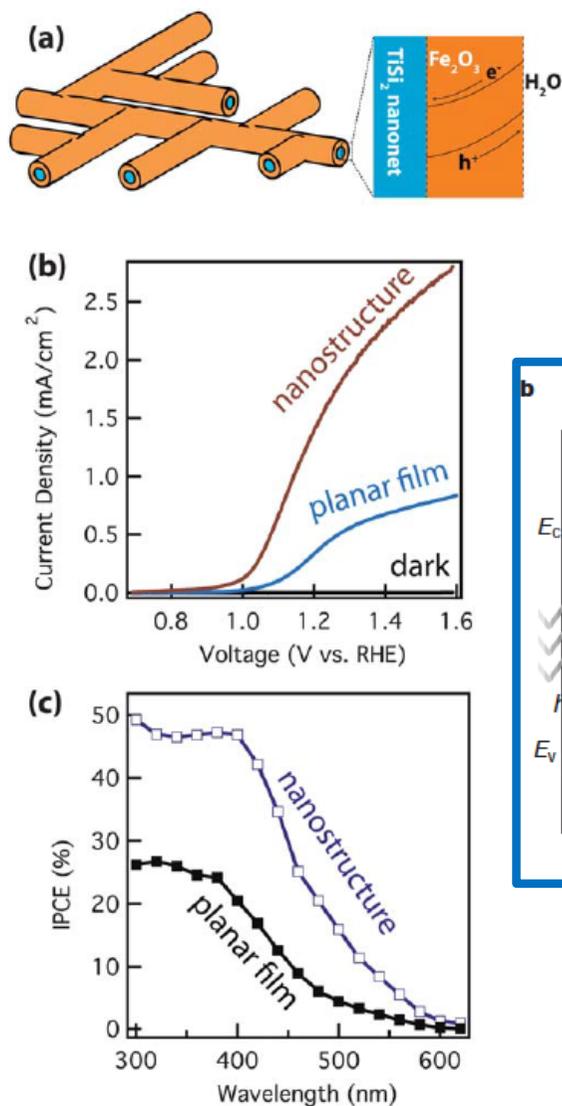
$$IPCE(\lambda) = \frac{hc}{e} \left( \frac{j_{photo}(\lambda)}{\lambda P(\lambda)} \right)$$

- **Total solar photocurrent**

$$J_{solar} = \int (IPCE(\lambda) \times \Phi(\lambda) \times e) d\lambda$$

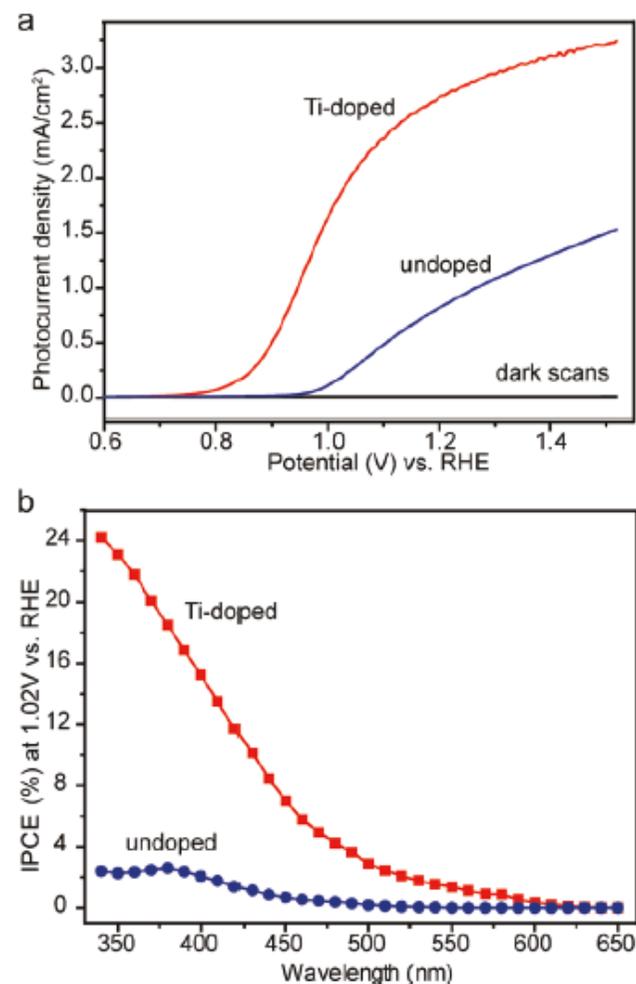
$\Phi(\lambda)$ : The photon flux of sunlight  
( $\text{photon/m}^2/\text{s}$ )

## Nanostructural engineering



**Fig. 3** Nanonet-hematite nanostructures and their performance for water splitting. (a) A schematic representation of the design. (b) The comparison of the photoelectrochemical performance between the nanostructure and planar hematite. (c) The external quantum efficiency comparison (measured at 1.53 V vs. RHE). Worth noting is that the hematite is without any intentional doping. Adapted from Lin *et al.*, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2011 (ref. 41).

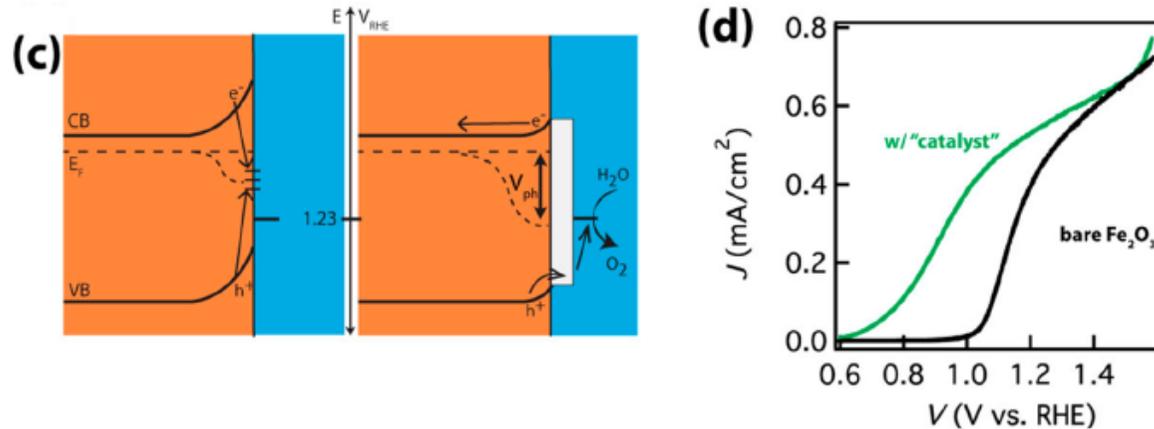
## Doping



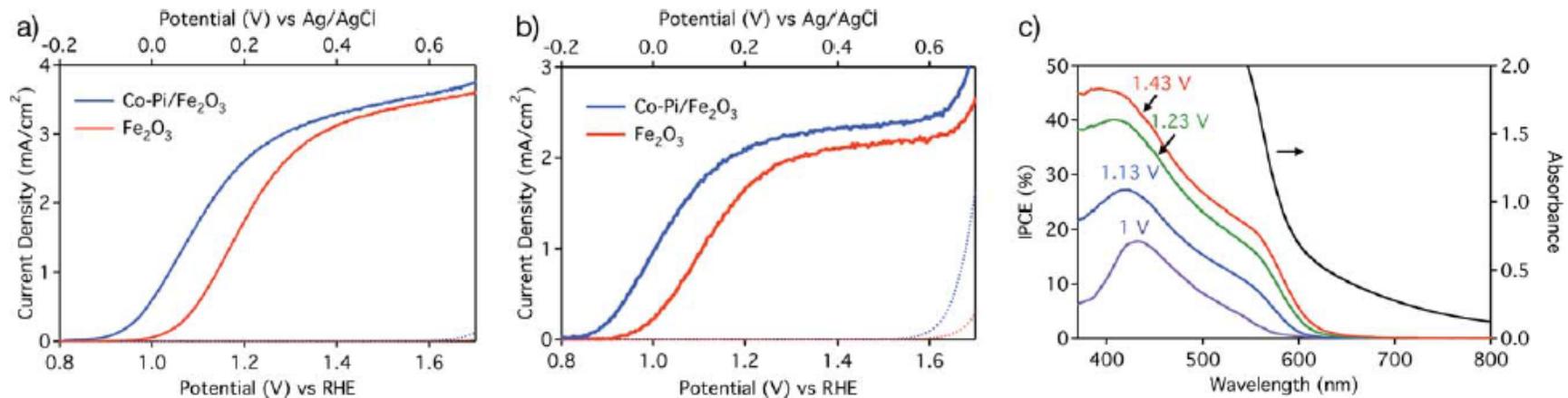
**Figure 4.** (a) Comparison of photocurrent densities collected for optimized undoped and Ti-doped  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> films. (b) IPCE spectra of these two films collected at 1.02 V vs RHE.

IPCE: Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiencies

# PEC + OER catalyst: OER is still very sluggish in the absence of catalyst

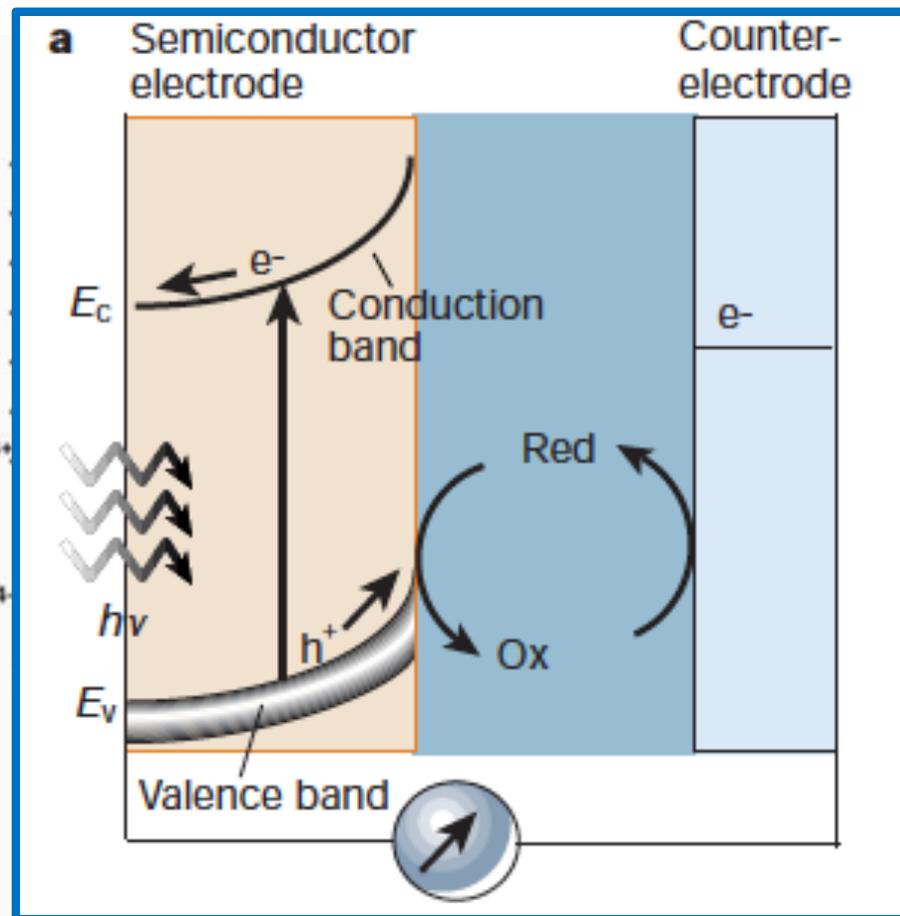
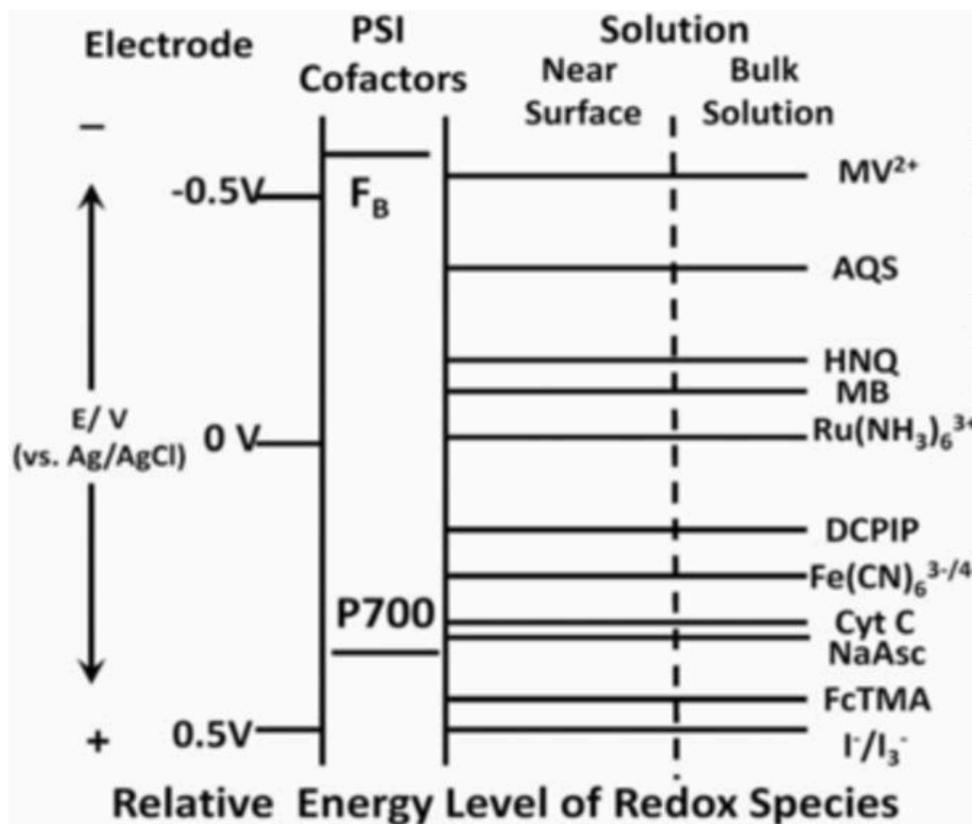


separate chambers (b). The charge separation mechanism in photoelectrochemical systems relies on the built-in field to drive photoexcited electrons and holes toward opposite directions (c). The performance of a representative photoanode system by hematite ( $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ) with and without water oxidation catalyst (amorphous  $\text{NiFeO}_x$ ) is shown in (d). Adopted from ref 29 with permissions.



**Fig. 4** (a and b) Dark-current (dotted) and photocurrent (solid) densities of Co-Pi/ $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  photoanodes prepared by photo-assisted electrodeposition (blue) and of the parent  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  photoanodes (red) illustrating the effect of Co-Pi on two  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  photoanodes with qualitatively different responses. (c) Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiencies (IPCEs, colored) and absorption spectrum (black) of a Co-Pi/ $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  photoanode prepared by photo-assisted electrodeposition.

## 6. Electrolysis: application for redox flow battery

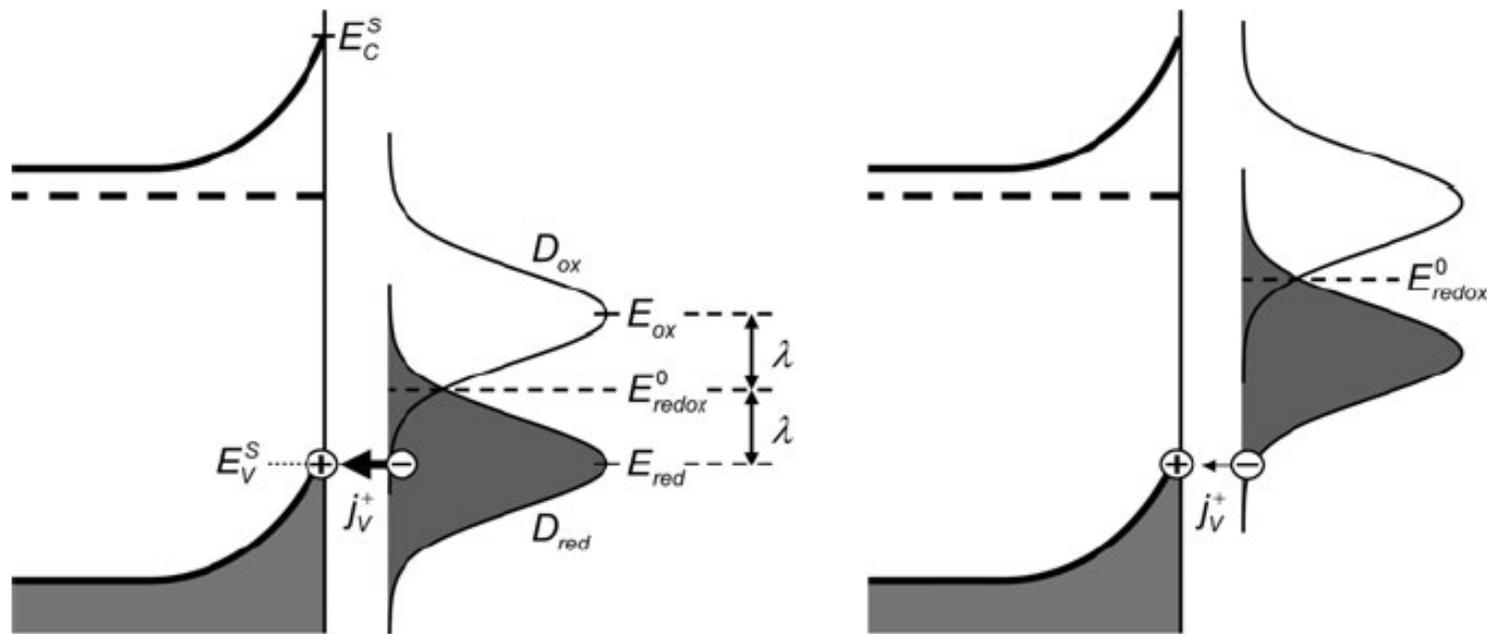


M. Gratzel, *Nature* **2011**, 414, 338-344.

*J. Electrochem. Soc.*, **2013**, 160, H315-H320

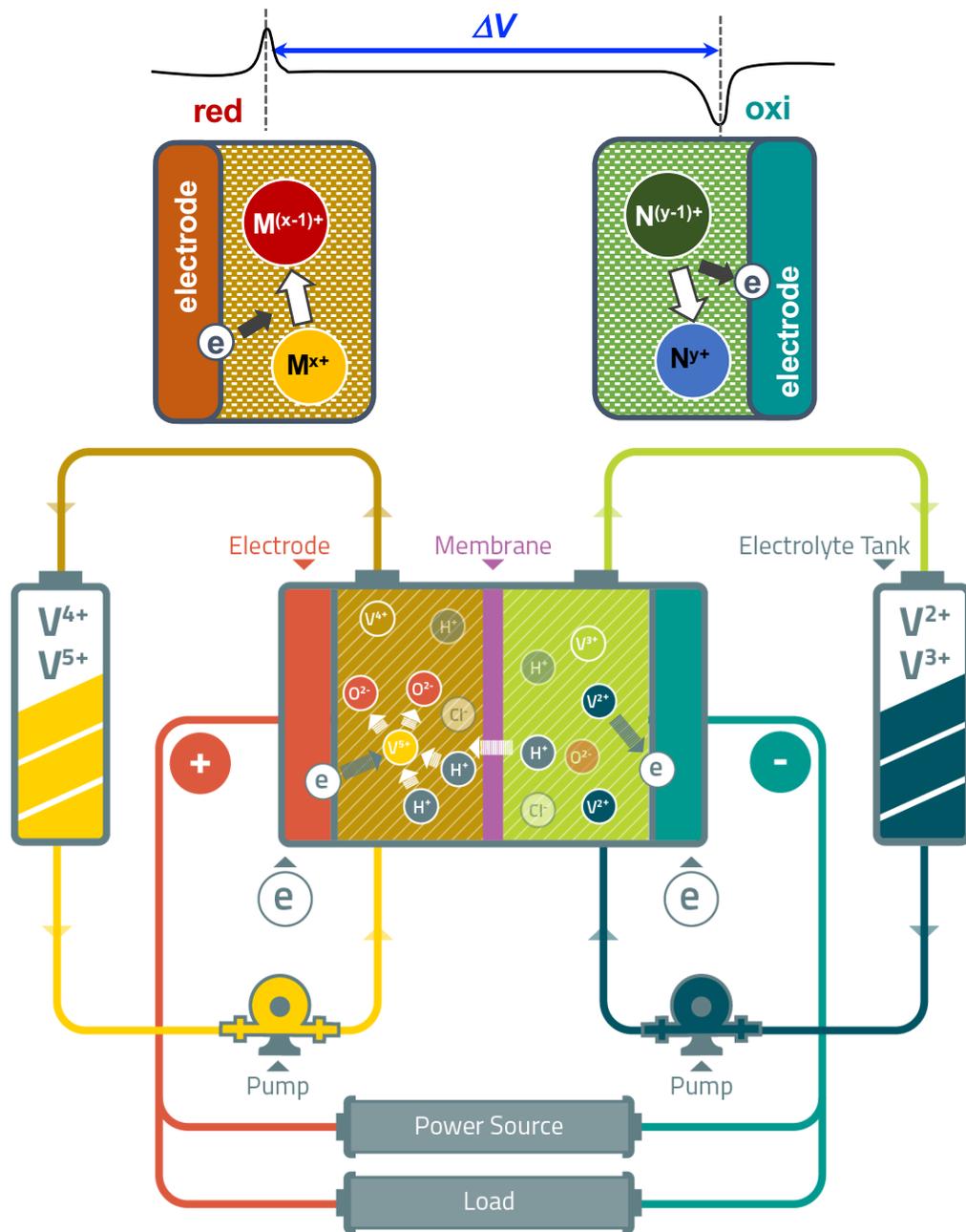
## Interfacial electron transfer

- The  $e^-$  transfer is much faster than ionic reorganization (solvation, probability distribution of density of state for redox species).
- The probability of  $e^-$  transfer decreases if  $E_{red}$  is too far above  $E_V^S$  (which is markedly different from the behavior of metal electrodes showing a continuous increase in current w/ applied potential)



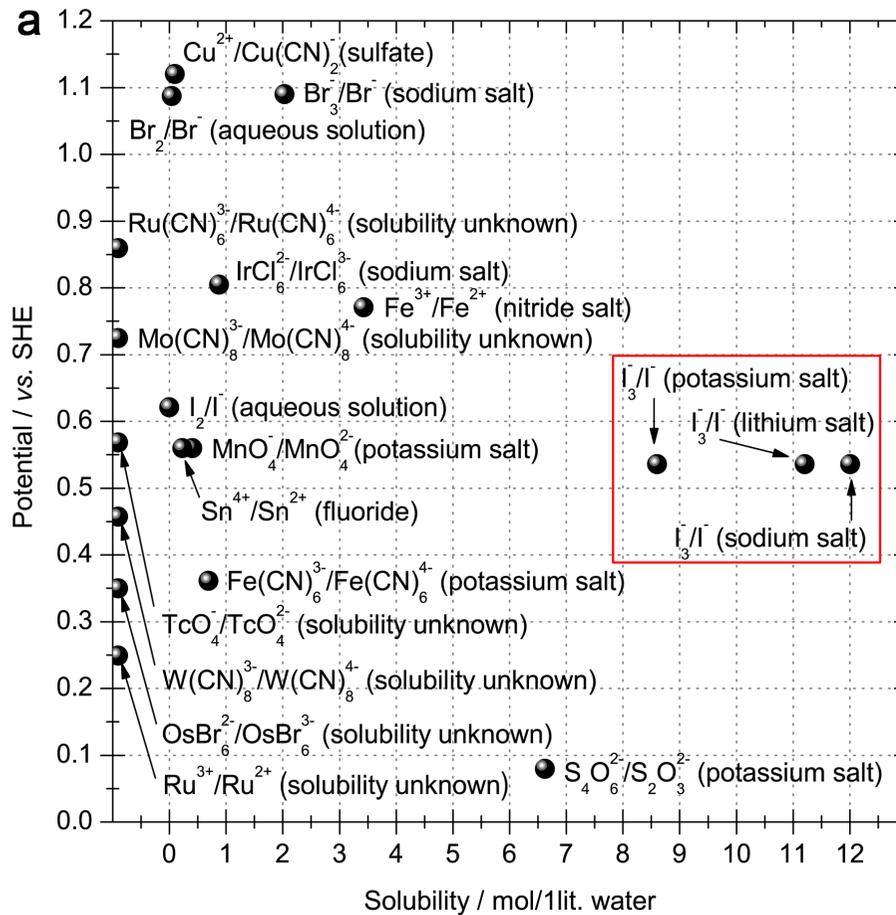
**Fig. 2.19** Energy level model for electron transfer from a redox species in the electrolyte to a photogenerated hole in the semiconductor valence band. The density of states  $D_{red}$  depend on the concentration of the reductant species according to  $D_{red} = c_{red}W_{red}(E)$ . A large overlap of the redox DOS with the energy of the hole (*left*) gives higher currents than a small overlap (*right*)

# Redox flow batteries for ESS\*



\*ESS: Energy Storage System

# Solubility of reversible redox couples in aqueous media



## 1. Solubility of Energy density

$\text{I}_3^-/\text{I}^-$  redox couple:  $\sim 8.5 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$  with  $\text{K}^+$  salt

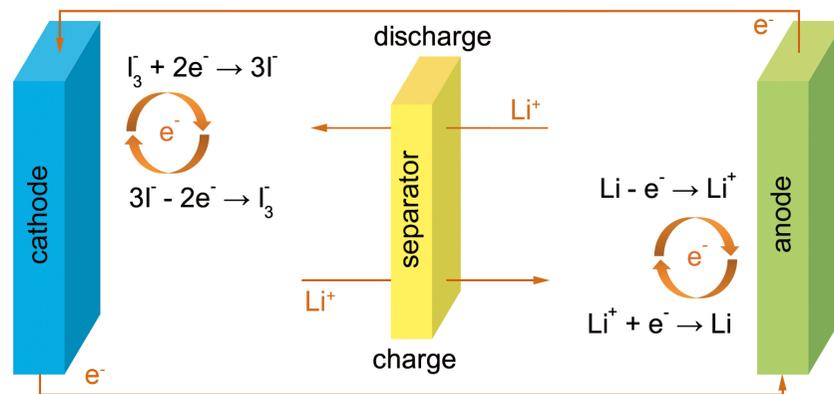
## 2. Redox potential: avoid water electrolysis

$\text{I}_3^-/\text{I}^-$  redox couple:  $\sim 0.536 \text{ V vs. SHE}$

## 3. pH: close to 7 (neutral solution)

$\text{I}_3^-/\text{I}^-$  aqueous cathode:  $\text{pH} = 6-7$

# Working concept of $I_3^-/I^-$ redox reaction in the aqueous $Li-I_2$ battery



## Cell reaction



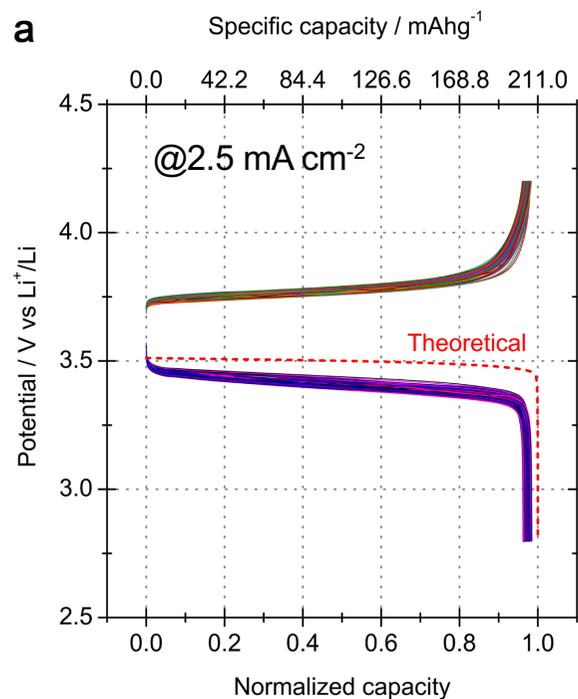
## Preparation of $I_3^-/I^-$ aqueous cathode



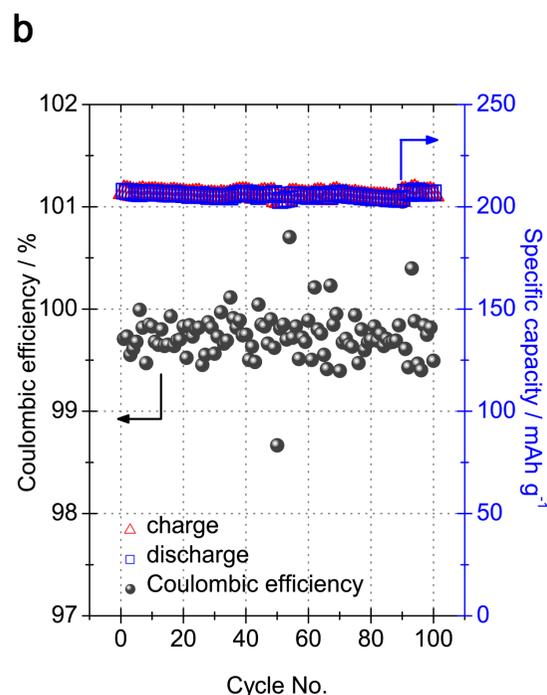
0.1 M  $I_2$  and 1 M of KI in aqueous solution ( $\approx 0.1 M$  of  $I_3^-$ )

# Electrochemical performance of aqueous Li-I<sub>2</sub> batteries

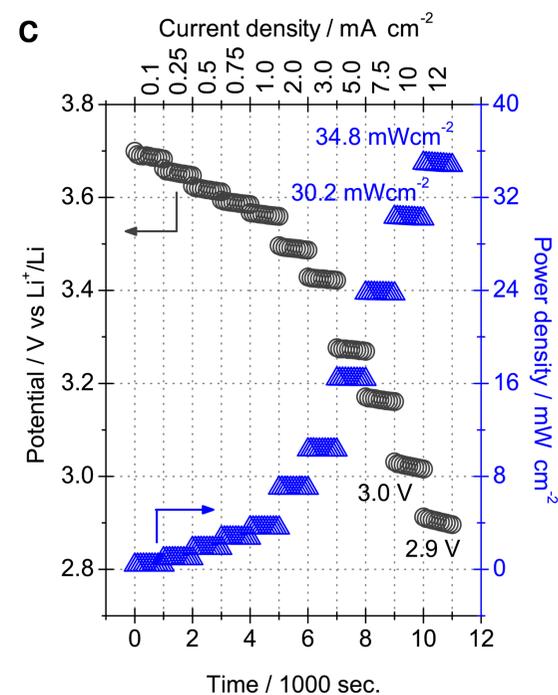
**Aqueous cathode: 0.08 M of I<sub>2</sub> in 1 M KI and 0.03 M LiI**



Specific capacity: 207 mAh g<sup>-1</sup>  
i.e. 98% of the theoretical capacity



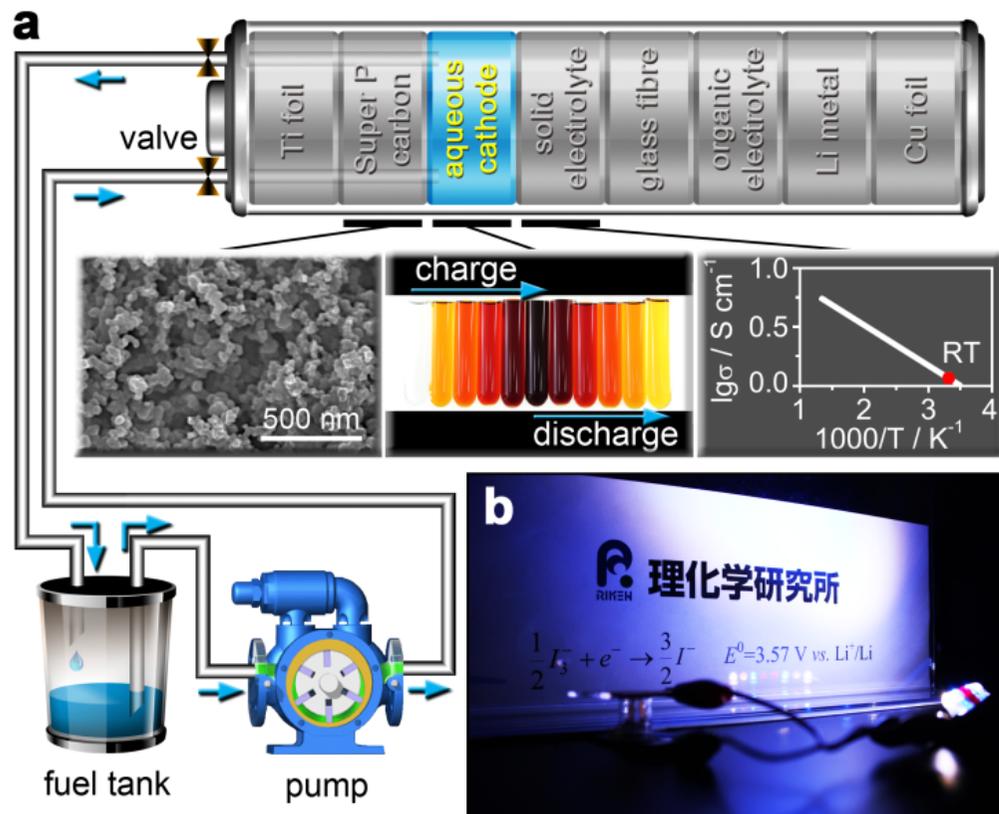
99.6% capacity retention  
> 99.5% Coulombic efficiency



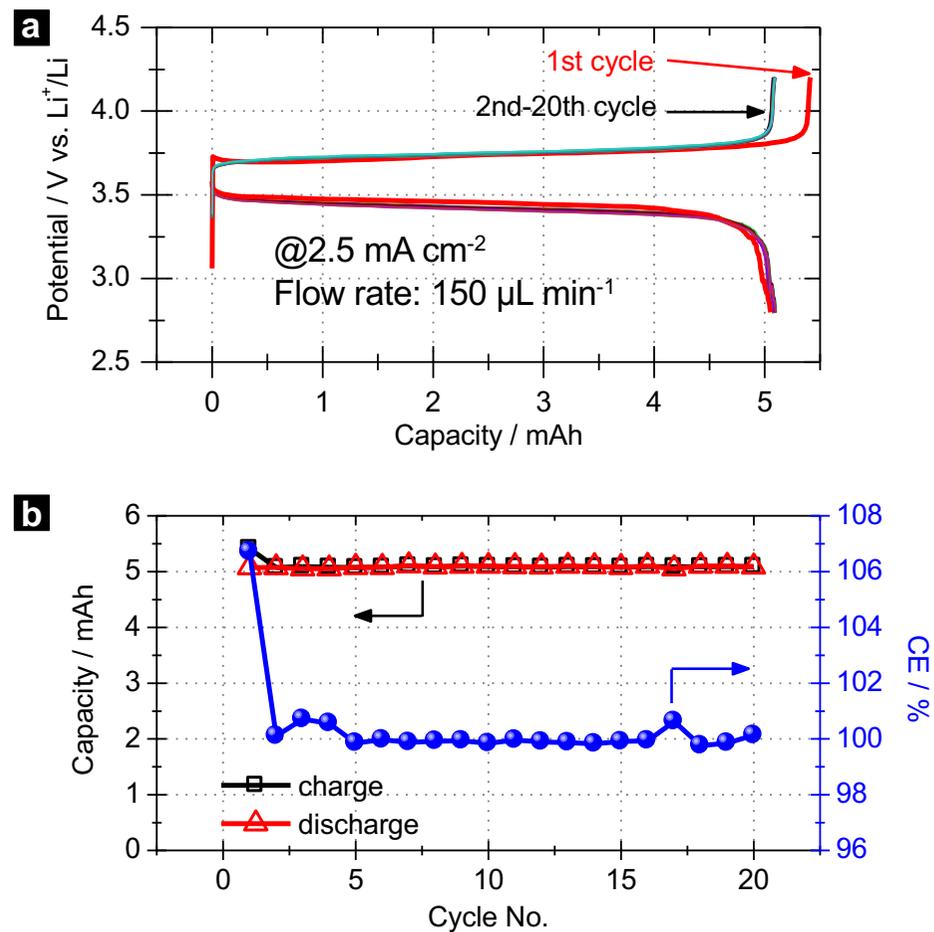
Power density  
34.8 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> at 12 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>  
(discharge potential: 2.9 V)

The aqueous Li-I<sub>2</sub> battery is noticeably different from either the *conventional all-solid-state or non-aqueous electrolyte-based Li-I<sub>2</sub> batteries*, which have performed at *extremely low discharge current rate* or shown *low Coulombic efficiency with the formation of a LiI layer*.

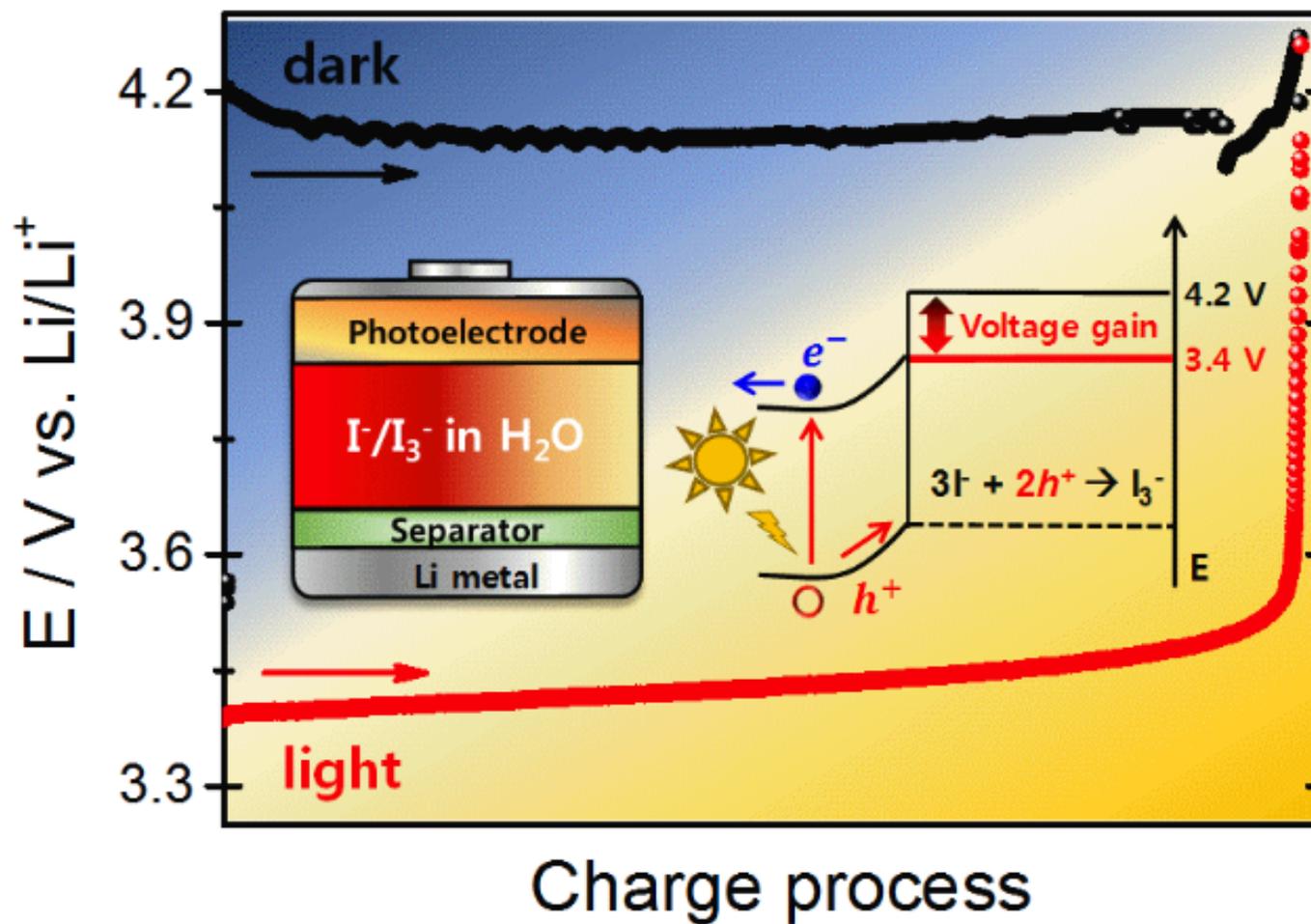
# Aqueous Li-I flow cell



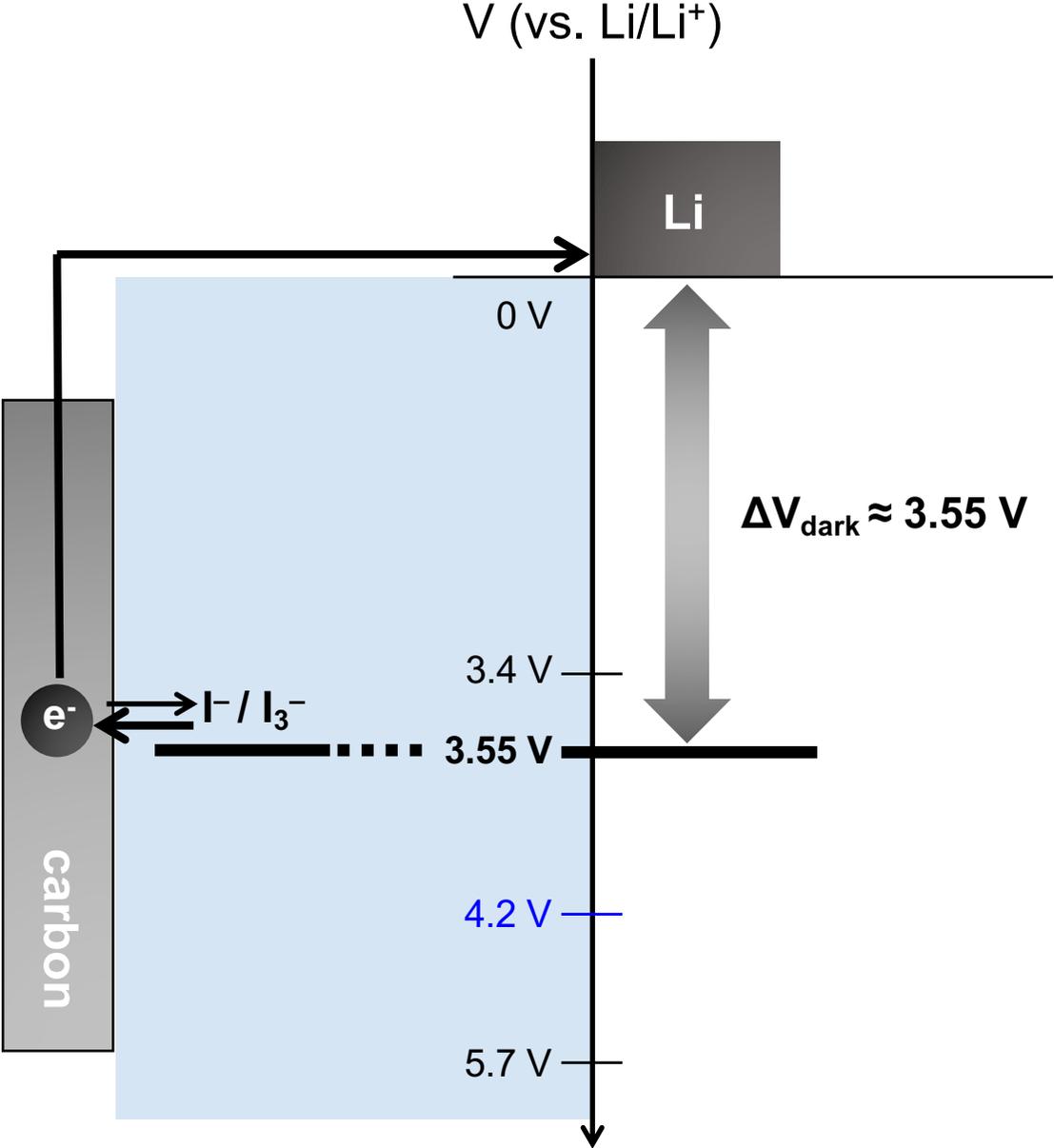
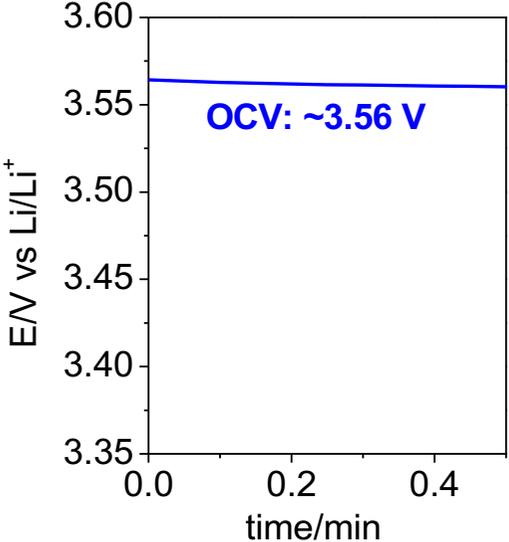
Total 0.5 mL of 0.5 M of LiI aqueous cathode



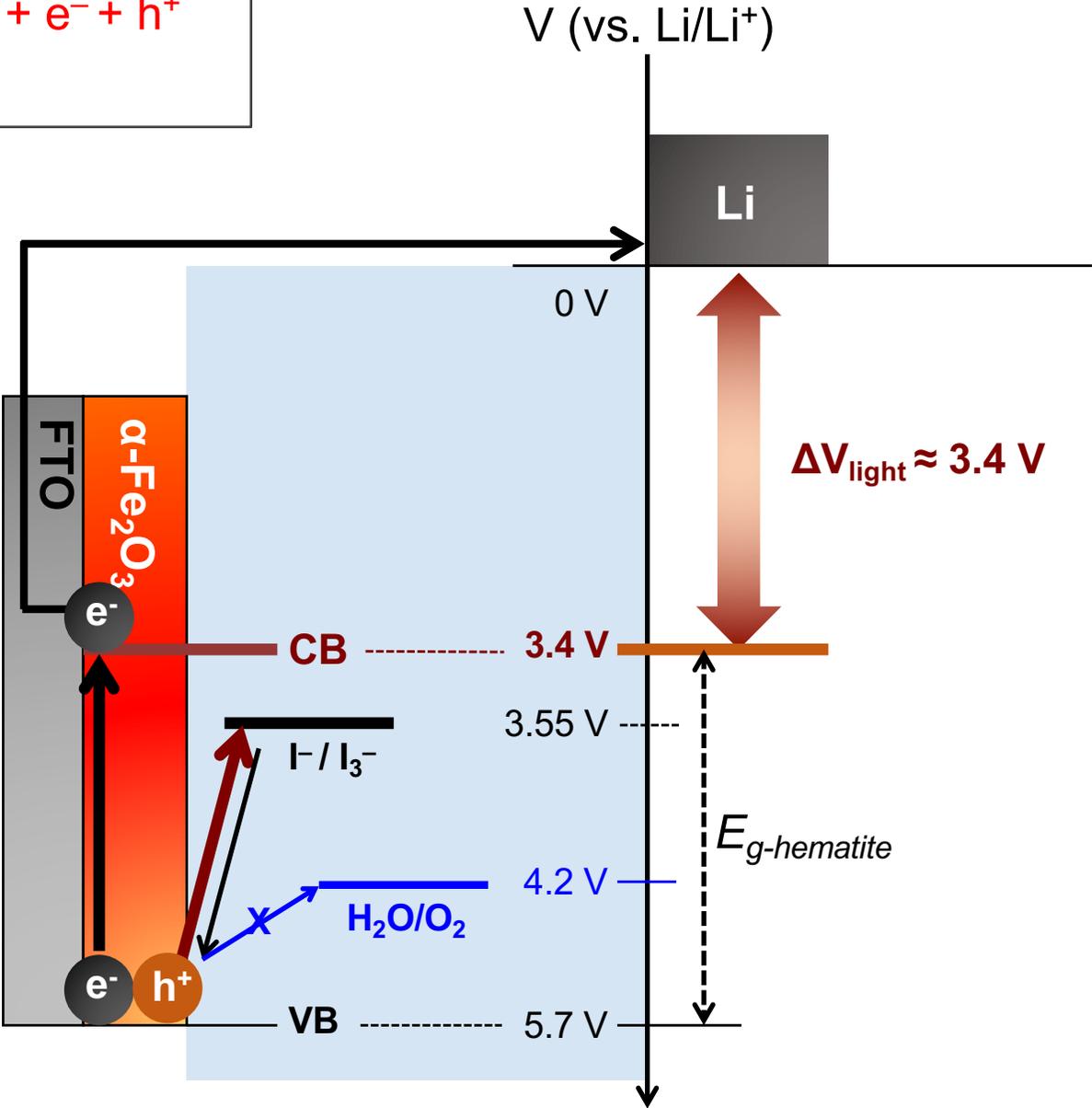
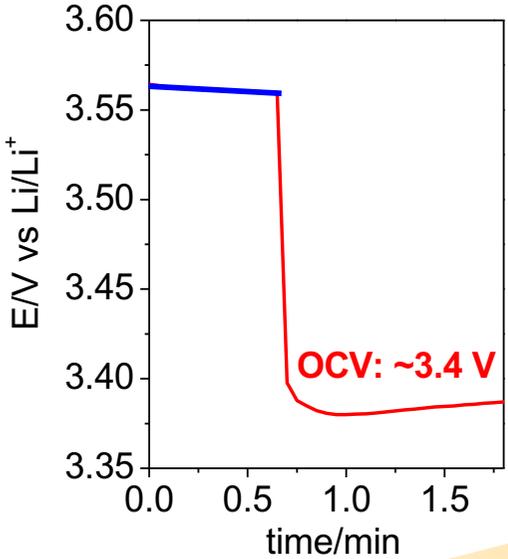
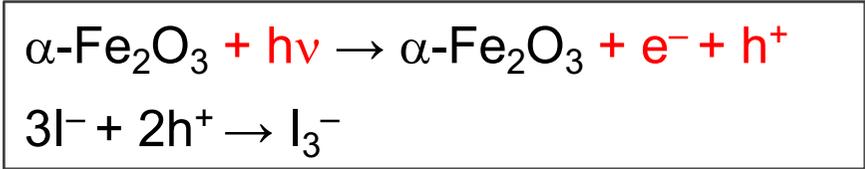
# Solar-stimulated redox battery



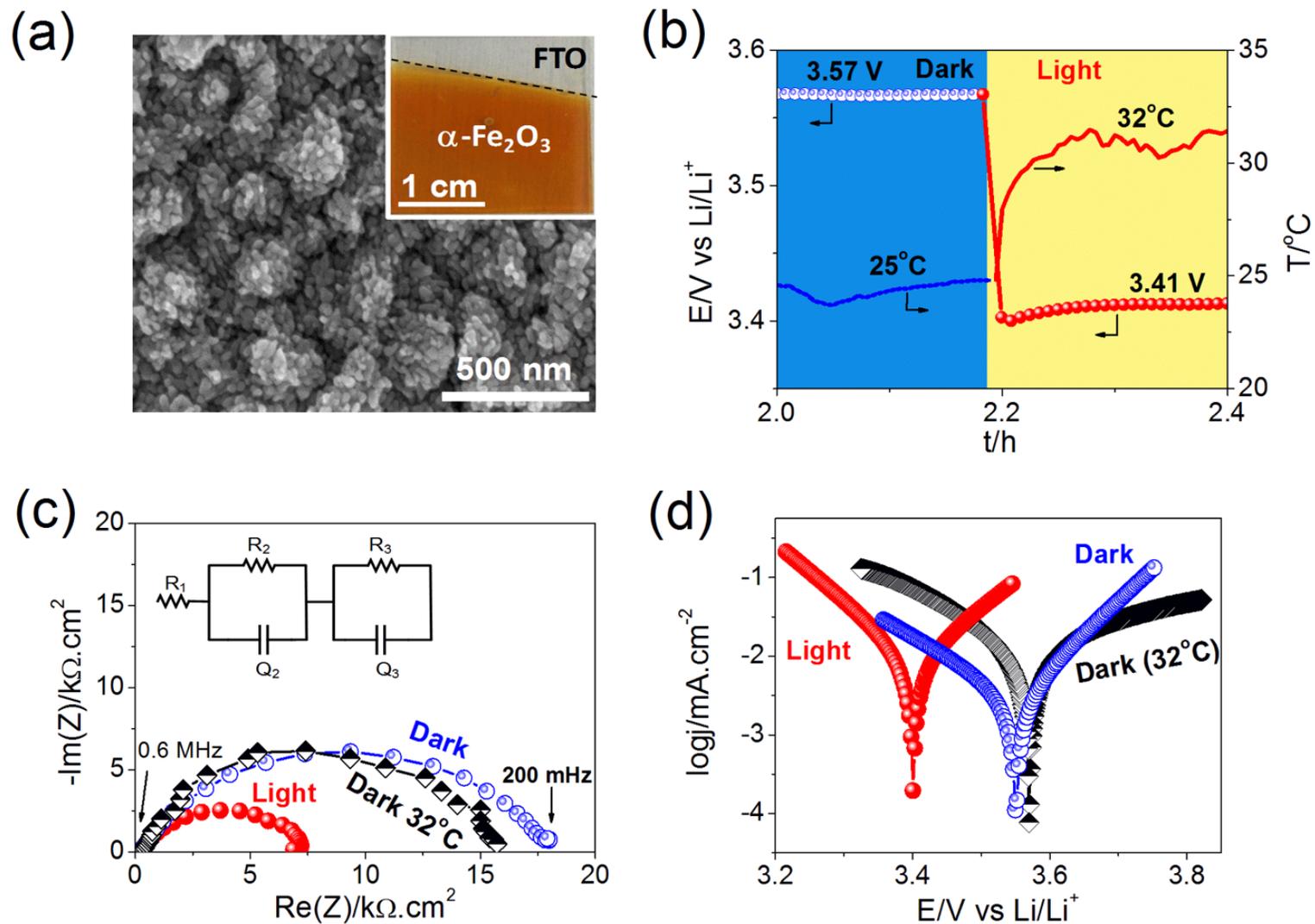
# Electrochemical oxidation



# Photoelectrochemical reaction for oxidation

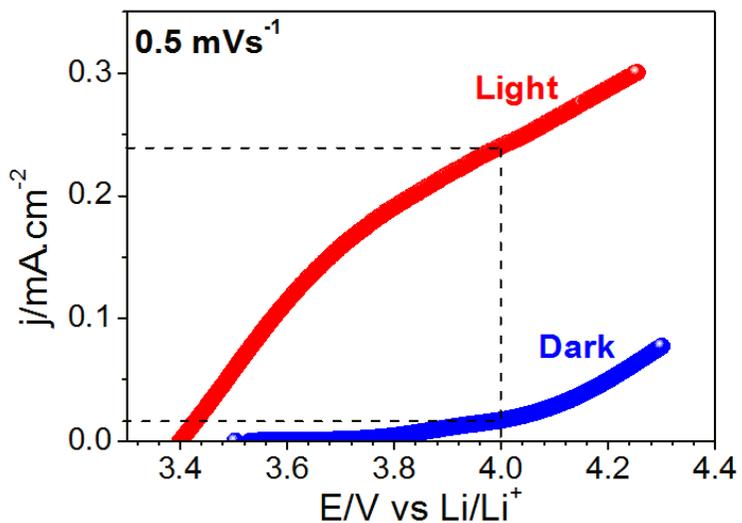


# Li-I<sub>2</sub> battery w/ hematite electrodes at open circuit voltages

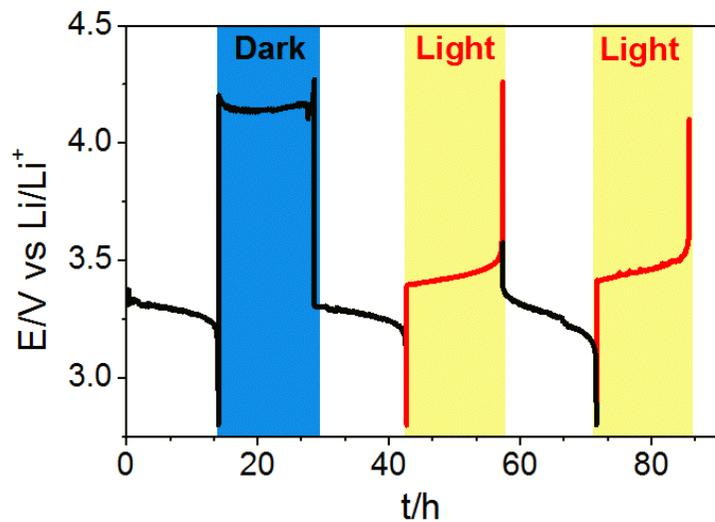


# Charge efficiency for photo-assisted Li-I<sub>2</sub> battery

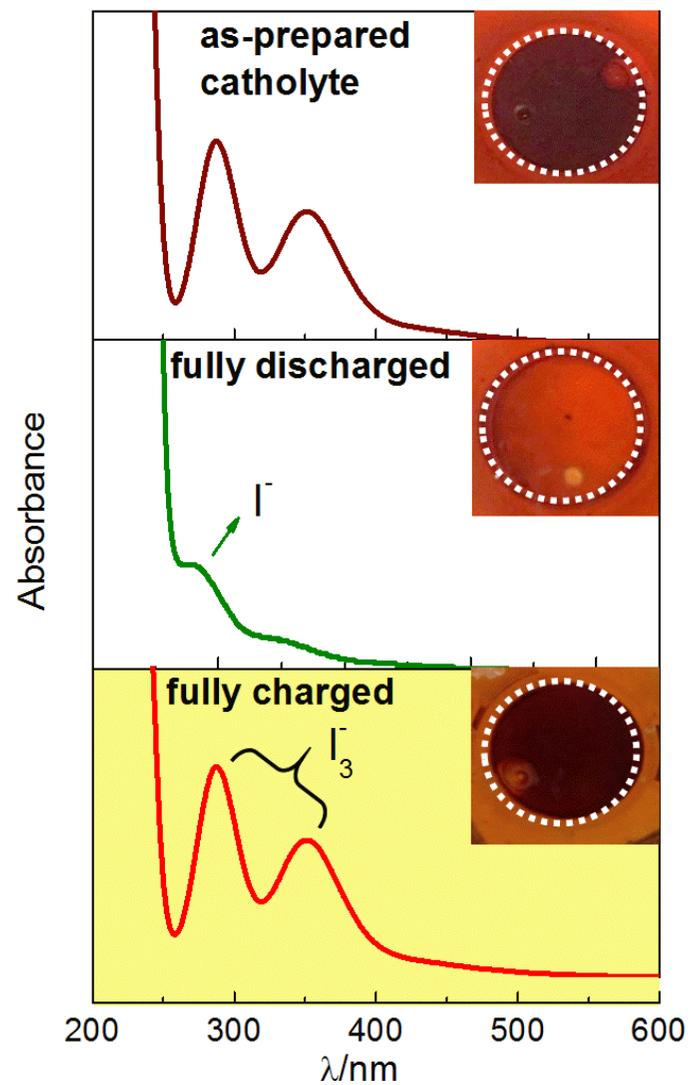
(a)



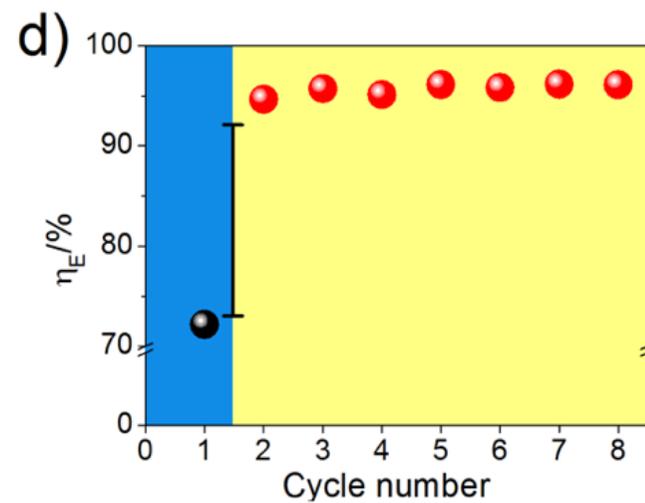
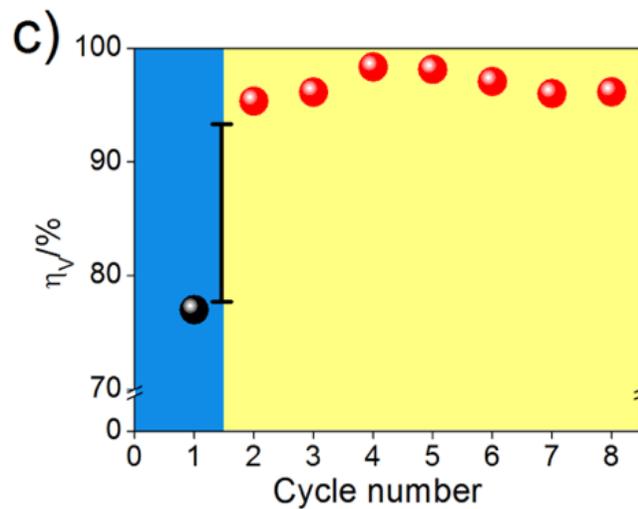
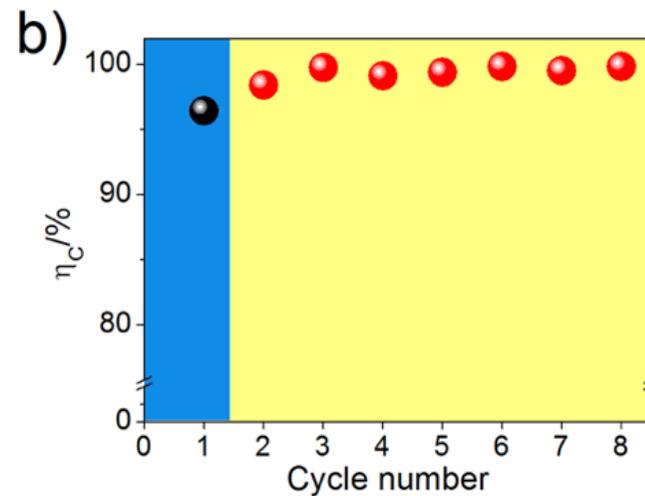
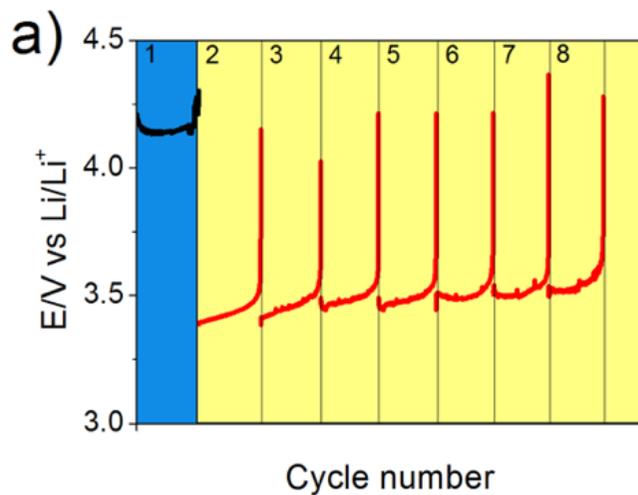
(b)



(c)



# Energy efficiency with photo-assisted electrode



The illumination improves energy efficiencies > 20%.

# Technical Challenges

- **Stability**

- The most photochemically stable semiconductors in aqueous solution are oxides, but their band gaps are either too large for efficient light absorption ( $\sim 3$  eV), or their semiconductor characteristics are poor.

- **Efficiency (Bandgap)**

- For reasonable solar efficiencies, the band gap must be less than 2.2 eV, unfortunately, most useful semiconductors with bandgaps in this range are photochemically unstable in water.

- **Energetics**

- In contrast to metal electrodes, semiconductor electrodes in contact with liquid electrolytes have fixed energies where the charge carriers enter the solution. So even though a semiconductor electrode may generate sufficient energy to effect an electrochemical reaction, the energetic position of the band edges may prevent it from doing so. For spontaneous water splitting, the oxygen and hydrogen reactions must lie between the valence and conduction band edges, and this is almost never the case.