

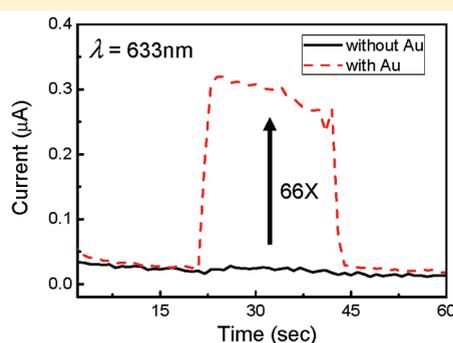
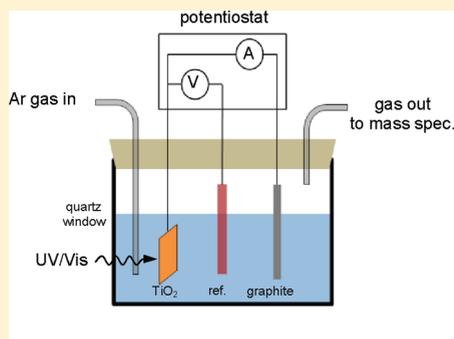
Plasmon Resonant Enhancement of Photocatalytic Water Splitting Under Visible Illumination

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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT:



We demonstrate plasmonic enhancement of photocatalytic water splitting under visible illumination by integrating strongly plasmonic Au nanoparticles with strongly catalytic TiO₂. Under visible illumination, we observe enhancements of up to 66× in the photocatalytic splitting of water in TiO₂ with the addition of Au nanoparticles. Above the plasmon resonance, under ultraviolet radiation we observe a 4-fold reduction in the photocatalytic activity. Electromagnetic simulations indicate that the improvement of photocatalytic activity in the visible range is caused by the local electric field enhancement near the TiO₂ surface, rather than by the direct transfer of charge between the two materials. Here, the near-field optical enhancement increases the electron–hole pair generation rate at the surface of the TiO₂, thus increasing the amount of photogenerated charge contributing to catalysis. This mechanism of enhancement is particularly effective because of the relatively short exciton diffusion length (or minority carrier diffusion length), which otherwise limits the photocatalytic performance. Our results suggest that enhancement factors many times larger than this are possible if this mechanism can be optimized.

KEYWORDS: Plasmonic, photocatalytic, photocatalysis, water splitting, anodic titanium oxide, enhancement, FDTD

Solar energy presents a promising alternative as an abundant, largely untapped resource. The amount of energy striking the Earth from sunlight in one hour (4.3×10^{20} J) is more than the total energy consumed on this planet in one year (4.1×10^{20} J). Photocatalysis provides a method for storing the sun's energy in chemical bonds that can be released later without producing harmful byproducts. This has several advantages over direct solar-to-electric conversion. Traditional photocatalysts are able to efficiently convert solar to chemical energy under ultraviolet illumination, but not under visible illumination. Photocatalytic water splitting has been of great interest since the early 1970s after the first demonstration under ultraviolet radiation by Fujishima and Honda.¹ While TiO₂ is one of the most promising photocatalysts, it does not absorb light in the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum. Because of TiO₂'s short wavelength cutoff, there are very few solar photons (~4%) that can be used to drive this photocatalyst. Several attempts have been made previously to extend the cutoff wavelength of this catalyst,

including doping^{2,3} and defect creation.⁴ While these efforts have resulted in slight improvements in the absorption in the visible range, leaving a majority of the solar spectrum unable to drive this photocatalyst,^{2,3,5} the approach described in this Letter represents a new mechanism that can be added to and combined with these previous methods for further enhancement.

Plasmon resonant nanostructures have gained considerable interest in many fields, including near-field optics,^{6,7} surface enhanced spectroscopy,^{8–11} solar cells,¹⁹ and medicine.^{14,15} More recently, researchers have explored the applicability of plasmonic processes in the field of photocatalytic chemistry for organic molecule decomposition,^{16,17} CO oxidation,¹⁸ and even materials synthesis.^{12,13} Various enhancement mechanisms have been proposed, including plasmonic heating and charge transfer.

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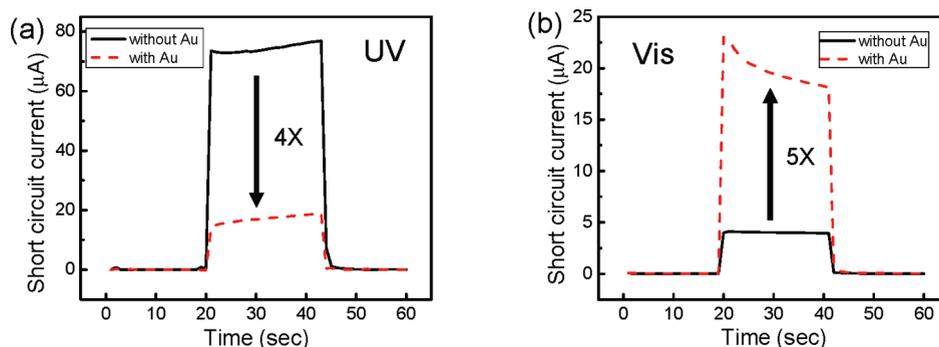


Figure 1. Photocurrent of anodic TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles at zero bias voltage irradiated with (a) UV ($\lambda = 254$ nm) and (b) visible ($\lambda = 532$ nm) light for 22 s.

Tian et al. observed enhanced photocatalytic oxidation of ethanol and methanol in TiO₂ films loaded with gold nanoparticles.²⁰ Noble-metal-loaded titania photoreactions were also studied by Kowalska et al.²¹ These results were attributed to a charge transfer mechanism in which the plasmon-induced charge in the Au nanoparticle transfers an electron to the TiO₂ conduction band, leaving behind a hole that is filled by a donor ion from solution.²² This depiction of holes and electrons resembles that of a dye-sensitized solar cell, but is not realistic for electrons in a metal.^{23,24} This model implies that a surface plasmon is similar in nature to an electron–hole pair. However, there is no highest occupied molecular orbital–lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (HOMO–LUMO) energy separation or analogous valence band–conduction band energy separation in a plasmon excitation. Furthermore, the energy band alignment of anatase TiO₂ with respect to the work function of Au is energetically unfavorable for the direct transfer of electrons from Au to TiO₂. While electron transport at metal–semiconductor interfaces is well-known among the electrical engineering community (i.e., the Schottky diode), no rigorous model for this process has been put forth in the context of plasmonics or catalysis.

Here, we demonstrate enhanced photocatalytic water splitting under visible illumination in TiO₂ films by exploiting the large plasmon resonance of Au nanoparticles. Electromagnetic simulations of the Au nanoparticle/TiO₂ composite provide a quantitative basis for determining the underlying photocatalytic enhancement mechanism. This model is based solely on the near-field optical enhancement of the Au nanoparticles. No direct transfer of charge from the plasmonic metal to the catalytic metal oxide is needed to explain the experimental data. Enhanced light absorption and photocurrents in solar cells have been reported using a similar plasmonic enhancement mechanism.¹⁹ Here, we utilize the plasmonic near-field coupling to improve TiO₂ photocatalysis in the visible wavelength range.

We prepare TiO₂ in the anatase crystalline phase by electrochemically oxidizing titanium foils in an ethylene glycol electrolyte containing 0.25 wt % NH₄F and 2 wt % H₂O at an anodization potential of 30 V for two hours, using a graphite rod as the cathode.²⁵ A more detailed description of this process is given in the Supporting Information. We then evaporate a gold film with a nominal thickness of 5 nm on the surface of the TiO₂. This thin gold film is known to form islandlike growth that is strongly plasmonic and serves as a good substrate for surface enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS).^{9,10} Absorption spectra of the bare TiO₂ and Au nanoparticle/TiO₂ films were recorded on a Perkin-Elmer Lambda 950 UV/vis/NIR with an integrating sphere

detector. We measured the photocatalytic reaction rates of TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles in a 1 M KOH solution using a three-terminal potentiostat with the TiO₂ film, a Ag/AgCl electrode, and a graphite electrode functioning as the working, reference, and counter electrodes, respectively, as shown schematically in the Supporting Information. Photocurrent spectra were measured using a Fianium supercontinuum white light source in conjunction with a Princeton Instruments double grating monochromator, providing continuously tunable monochromatic light (10 nm fwhm) from 400 to 1600 nm.

Figure 1 shows the photocurrent of anodic TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles irradiated with ultraviolet (20 mW/cm² at 254 nm) and visible light (7 W/cm² at 532 nm) for 22 s. Under UV illumination (Figure 1a), the addition of gold nanoparticles results in a 4-fold reduction in the photocurrent. This reduction is due to the presence of the gold nanoparticles, which reduces both the photon flux reaching the TiO₂ surface and the surface area of TiO₂ in direct contact with the aqueous solution. Under visible irradiation ($\lambda = 532$ nm) (Figure 1b), however, the addition of gold nanoparticles results in a 5-fold increase in the photocurrent due to the large plasmonic enhancement of the local electromagnetic fields. The transient decay observed in Figure 1b is the result of charge trapped at the TiO₂ surface that is released upon irradiation.²⁶ The comparisons made here are between photocatalytic data taken at the same intensity for each wavelength (254 and 532 nm). As such, these enhancement factors and reduction factors are independent of the relative intensity of the two light sources. Furthermore, we have demonstrated that the photocurrent increases linearly with light intensity, while the enhancement ratio remains constant.

The photocurrents plotted in Figure 1 correspond to short circuit currents obtained under zero applied bias voltage. Figure 2 shows the complete I – V characteristics of TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles taken under continuous UV and visible irradiation. Again, when gold nanoparticles are deposited on the TiO₂, we see a drop in the photocurrent under UV irradiation and an increase under visible illumination, over the whole range of applied bias voltages. The enhancement ratios shown in Figures 1 and 2 are slightly different. Figure 2 represents the behavior of most samples, while Figure 1 is the highest enhancement ratio observed in this work. The random nature of the Au nanoparticle film produces large variations in performance; a limitation that can likely be improved by using a more regular array of plasmonic nanoparticles.

The photocatalytic enhancement observed under 633 nm wavelength illumination (0.15 W/cm²) is shown in Figure 3.

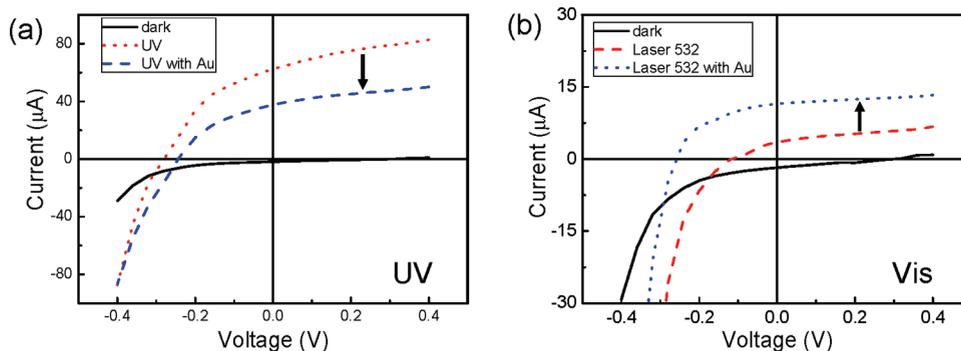


Figure 2. Photocurrent versus bias voltage of anodic TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles irradiated with (a) UV and (b) visible light.

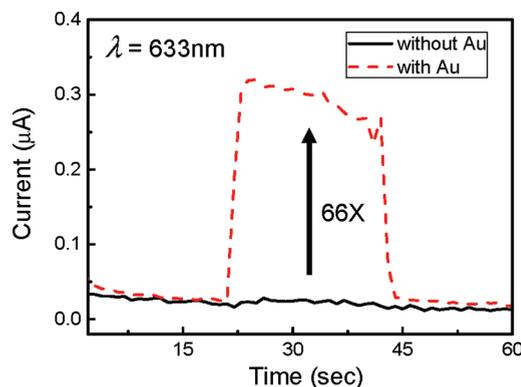


Figure 3. Photocurrent of anodic TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles irradiated with $\lambda = 633$ nm light for 22 s.

For bare TiO₂ with no nanoparticles, a small photocurrent of 4.5 nA can be seen just above the noise signal. Here, a significant enhancement in the photocurrent (66 \times) is evident for the sample with plasmonic Au nanoparticles, resulting in a photocurrent of 0.3 μ A. While this irradiation (1.96 eV) is significantly below the bandgap of TiO₂ (3.2 eV), the photocatalytic enhancement is considerably larger than that observed at 532 nm (2.42 eV).

Figure 4 shows the UV–vis absorption spectra of TiO₂ with and without gold nanoparticles. The spectrum taken for an undoped TiO₂ film prepared by the sol–gel method (solid black curve) shows transparency for wavelengths above 370 nm.^{27,28} However, the anodic TiO₂ film (red solid curve) shows significant absorption in the visible range, due to N- and F-impurities produced during the anodization process,²⁹ which create defect states in the bandgap.³⁰ The absorption spectrum taken from anodic TiO₂ with gold nanoparticles (dashed blue curve) exhibits a slight increase in the absorption in the visible light range. The broad absorption of the Au nanoparticle film is a result of the inhomogeneity in size, shape, and separation of these plasmonic nanoparticles, as can be seen in the electron microscope image of Figure 6a. As a control experiment, we also tested the photocatalytic activity of the undoped TiO₂ prepared by the sol–gel method. No photocurrent was observed for this material with or without Au nanoparticles indicating the importance of defects in the photocatalytic enhancement process under visible illumination.

Figure 5a shows the photocurrent spectra of anodic TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles. Both spectra show an appreciable photocurrent for wavelengths below 500 nm. By taking the ratio of these photocurrents (Figure 5b), an enhancement in the

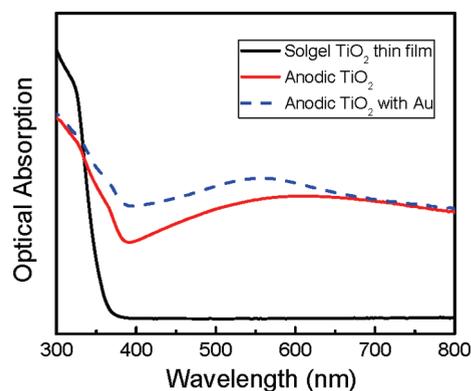


Figure 4. UV–vis absorption spectra of TiO₂ with and without gold nanoparticles.

photocurrent of TiO₂ with Au nanoparticles can be seen for wavelengths above 500 nm with a maximum enhancement occurring around 650 nm.

Several possible mechanisms may contribute to the enhanced photocurrent observed in the visible wavelength range. First, we can exclude plasmonic heating, since water-splitting requires an energy of 1.32 eV, which is much higher than the thermal energy generated by plasmonic heating.³¹ This stands in contrast to organic material decomposition reported by several groups,^{16,17} which can be partially attributed to local heating effects.^{32,33} Another possible mechanism is enhancement of electron–hole lifetime at the metal/semiconductor interface, which results in increased exciton diffusion lengths. However, considering the small grain size in the anodic TiO₂,³⁴ the contribution from an increased exciton diffusion length can be ruled out. Several groups have discussed a charge transfer model as a possible explanation for the enhanced photocatalytic reactions.³⁵ As discussed above in the introduction, this previously proposed model treats the plasmon excitation as similar in nature to an electron–hole pair.^{20–22} However, since a surface plasmon is simply a charge density wave bound to an interface, there is no HOMO–LUMO or analogous energy separation in a plasmon excitation. Moreover, the conduction band of anatase TiO₂ is higher in energy than the Fermi energy of Au, making the direct transfer of electrons from Au to TiO₂ energetically unfavorable.

We can understand the photocatalytic enhancement observed under visible illumination by simulating the electromagnetic response of the Au nanoparticle/TiO₂ composite film using the finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) method.^{36–38} Figure 6a shows a scanning electron microscope (SEM) image of the gold

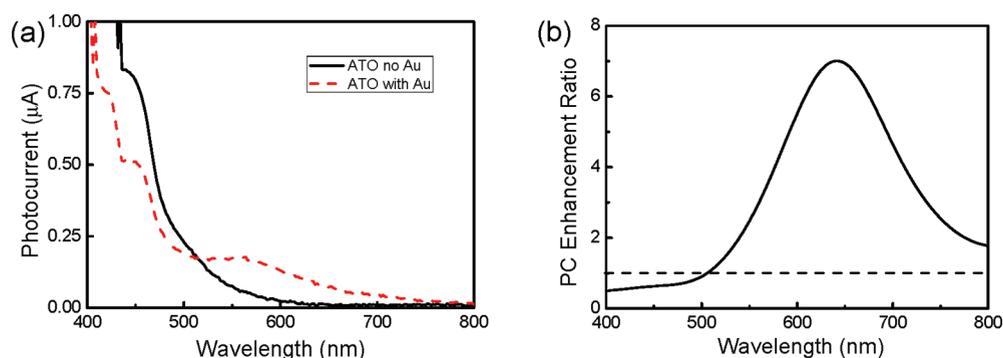


Figure 5. (a) Photocurrent spectra of anodic TiO₂ with and without Au nanoparticles. (b) Photocurrent enhancement ratio spectrum.

nanoparticle-island film deposited on top of anodic TiO₂. The light gray regions in this SEM image reflect the gold nanoparticles and the dark regions are the underlying substrate alone (or the interstitial space in between). Figure 6b–d show the simulated electromagnetic response of these Au nanoparticle/TiO₂ composites. Here, the gold regions are outlined in white in Figure 6b,c, based on the Au nanoparticle geometries from the SEM image in Figure 6a. That is, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the shapes traced out by the white lines in Figure 6b and the light gray regions in Figure 6a. The electromagnetic response of this film, as shown in Figure 6b–d, is dominated by local “hot spots” that can be seen between nearly touching Au nanoparticles. This is a well-known phenomenon in plasmonics that has been demonstrated by several research groups.^{39–41} The importance of the intense local fields can be seen in Figure 6d, which shows a cross-sectional plot of the electric field distribution of one of these hot spot regions in the *z*-dimension. In this local hot spot region, the electric field intensity at the TiO₂ surface reaches 1000 times that of the incident electric field intensity. This means that the photon absorption rate (and hence electron–hole pair generation rate) is 1000 times higher than that of the incident electromagnetic radiation. This is particularly advantageous considering the small crystal grain sizes and high impurity concentrations in the anodic TiO₂,³⁴ which limits the minority carrier diffusion length to ~10 nm.^{42–44} As a result of this, only photons absorbed within 10 nm of the TiO₂ surface will contribute to the photocatalytic splitting of water. Here, the plasmonic nanoparticles couple light very effectively from the far-field to the near-field at the TiO₂ surface. Consequently, most of the photogenerated charge created by the plasmon excitation will contribute to the surface catalysis (water splitting).

We can calculate the photocatalytic enhancement factor based on the results of this FDTD simulation. Since the photon absorption rate (and hence electron–hole pair generation rate) is proportional to the electric field squared ($|E|^2$), we integrate $|E|^2$ over the whole film and divide by the integral of the incident electromagnetic field squared ($|E_0|^2$), as follows

$$EF = \frac{\int_{-10 \text{ nm}}^0 dz \int dx dy |E|^2}{\int_{-10 \text{ nm}}^0 dz \int dx dy |E_0|^2}$$

In the *z*-dimension, we only integrate from the TiO₂ surface (*z* = 0) to one minority carrier diffusion length below the surface (*z* = –10 nm). The value for the *EF* when integrating over the

whole simulation area (400 nm × 300 nm) is 12×, which is close to the values observed experimentally. This *EF* value was obtained for this random distribution of gold islands, not optimized geometrically. Integrating only over the area of this hot spot, as shown in Figure 6c, yields an *EF* of 190×. This implies that enhancement factors many times larger than this could be achieved if the geometry of this plasmonic film is optimized.⁴⁵

Considering the fact that these hot spot regions comprise a very small fraction of the total catalytic surface area, it is remarkable that we still observe a net improvement in the photocatalytic water splitting with the addition of the gold nanoparticle film. The reason for this remarkably robust enhancement lies in the short minority carrier diffusion lengths of these anodic TiO₂ films.^{46,47} The near-field optical enhancement provided by the Au nanoparticles is well matched to this defect-rich material, which has very short carrier diffusion lengths that would otherwise spoil its photocatalytic performance.^{46,47} And, as stated above, virtually all of the photogenerated charge excited by these plasmon-enhanced fields contributes to the photocatalytic reaction. Doping and defects enable light absorption below the bandgap of semiconducting materials; however, this also shortens their carrier diffusion lengths and thus ultimately spoils their photocatalytic performance. Hence, there is a trade-off with doping for visible light photocatalysis. The plasmonic enhancement mechanism described here provides a way around this by coupling light to the near-field within the minority carrier diffusion length, thus making the photocatalyst more robust to defects and doping.

Several control experiments were carried out to further establish that the enhanced catalytic charge is induced electromagnetically rather than transferred directly between the plasmonic and catalytic materials. First, we tested the photocatalytic activity of the undoped TiO₂ prepared by the sol–gel method, shown in the UV–vis spectra of Figure 4. No photocurrent was observed for this material in the visible wavelength range with or without Au nanoparticles, indicating the important role of defects in the photocatalytic enhancement process under visible illumination. This substantiates our proposed mechanism of catalytic enhancement, since the previously proposed direct charge transfer model should not depend on doping. As another control experiment, we characterized nonphotocatalytic materials (e.g., ITO, glass, and quartz) covered with plasmonic Au nanoparticles. None of these samples with catalytically inactive supports showed any observable photocurrent. In the previously proposed charge transfer mechanism, the photocatalytic charge transfer with the ions in solution takes place on the Au surface, and the only relevant parameter of the TiO₂ is its conduction band

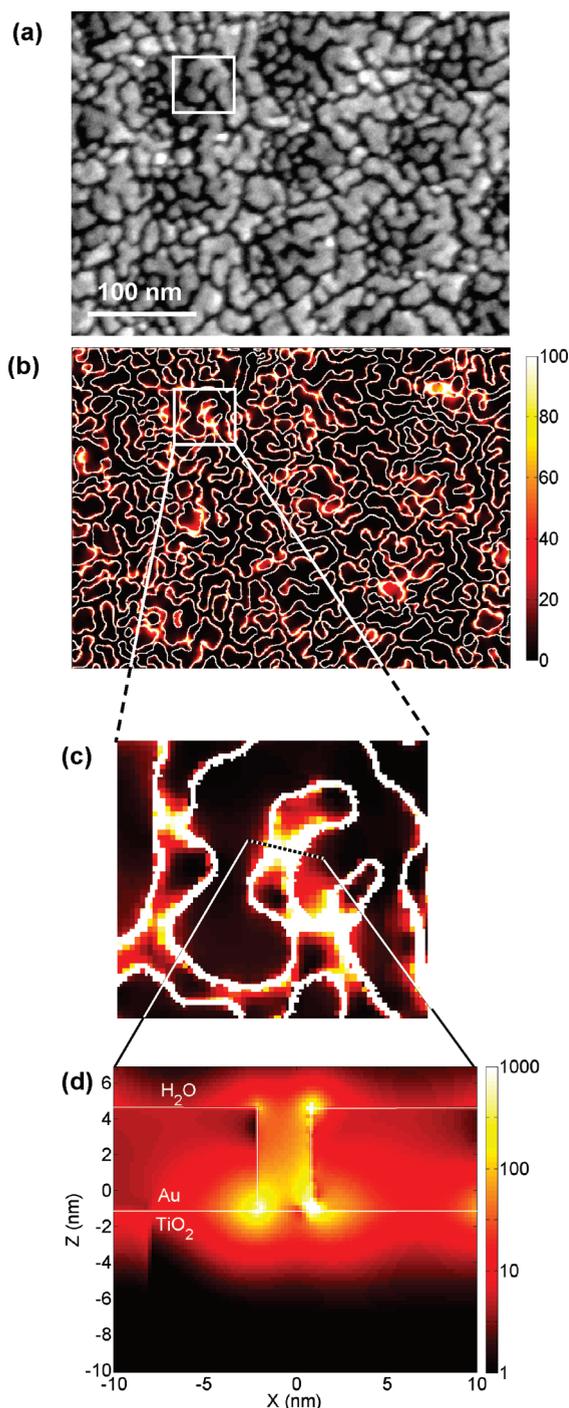


Figure 6. (a) SEM image of a 5 nm thick Au island film deposited on anodic TiO₂. (b–d) Electric field intensity at the interface of Au–TiO₂ calculated using FDTD.

energy. Since the position of the conduction band in ITO is similar to that of TiO₂, this result contradicts the previously proposed charge transfer enhancement mechanism.

Summary. In conclusion, we demonstrate enhancement in the photocatalytic splitting of water in the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum by exploiting the surface plasmon resonance of gold nanoparticles. The intense local fields produced by the surface plasmons couple light efficiently to the surface of the TiO₂. This enhancement mechanism is particularly

effective because of anodic TiO₂'s short minority carrier diffusion length, which would otherwise limit its photocatalytic activity. Enhancements in the photocatalytic activity of 5× and 66× are observed at wavelengths of 532 nm and 633 nm, respectively. Electromagnetic simulations of this process suggest that enhancement factors many times larger than this are possible if this mechanism can be optimized. The experimental data and fundamental understanding described here provide a path toward resolving the photon absorption/electron diffusion length mismatch that has made photovoltaics and direct photocatalysts far too expensive to find broad applicability in our energy infrastructure. For photocatalysis, this area is especially exciting because it presents a possible route to direct solar to fuels production.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information. ATO preparation, measurement of photocatalytic activity, and additional figures and references. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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