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UNIVERSITY OF ICELAND

Summer School on 'Materials for the hydrogen economy' Reykjavik, 17-21 August 2010



2010-08-17

PHOTOINDUCED PROCESSES AT

SURFACES AND NANOSTRUCTURES

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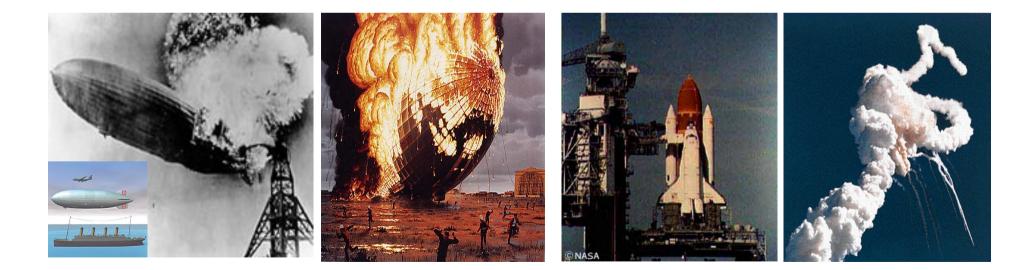
Outline: *PART I - Hydrogen generation with solar light*

- **Hydrogen fuel of the future;**
- Hydrogen generation using solar energy why?
- Principles and reaction mechanism of photocatalytic water decomposition;
- Energy and efficiency aspects of photoelectrochemical cells;
- Key functional properties of photo-electrodes;
- **Progress in R&D;**
- Summary

The Hydrogen - fuel of the future

2H₂+ O₂= 2H₂O + **ENERGY** (572 kJ)

Two tragic examples: of the unleashed energy of the combustion reaction of hydrogen, the Hindenburg, and the spaceshuttle Challenger.



Hydrogen – fuel of the future

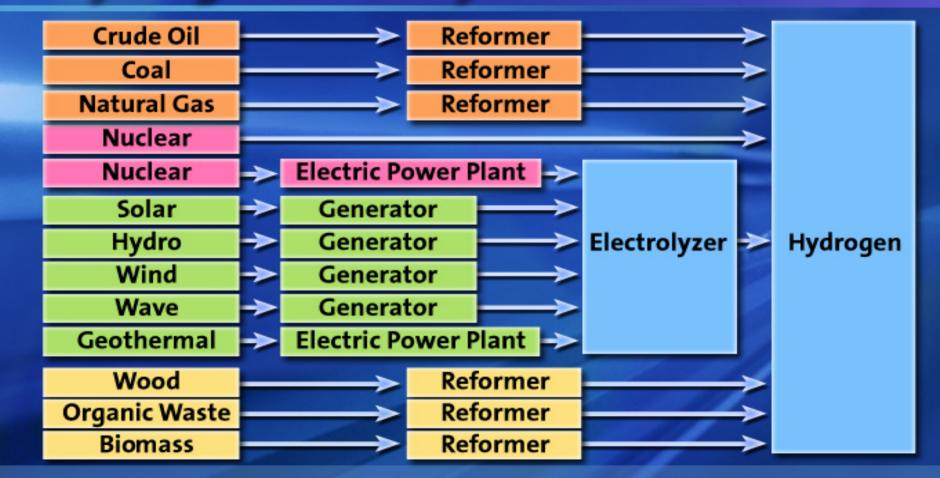
Brief history of hydrogen as energy supplier

 $1820 - H_2$ combustion in a engine like device to do mechanical work – better than a steam engine as no warm-up time was needed

1874 – science fiction prediction that hydrogen would be the chief fuel after coal by decomposing water using electricity

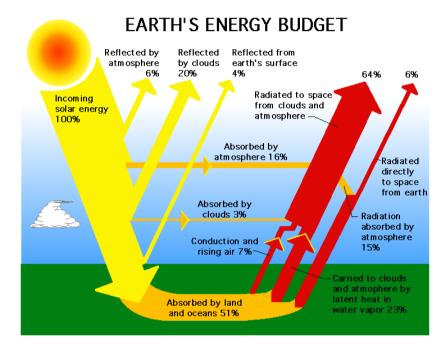
- 1900 first lab experiments with electrolysis
- 1920 Large scale plants in Canada using hydro-electricity from Niagara Falls to make hydrogen.
- Company was Stuart Electrolyzer that is still in the business today (same family)
- 1923 hydrogen from wind generated electricity in England to avoid pollution from coal fired power plants. Hydrogen stored as a cryogenic liquid.
- 1919 hydrogen used as a fuel for vehicles in Germany
- 1930 hydrogen distributed in pipelines in Germany
- 1930s hydrogen used for buoyancy in dirigibles and later burned as a fuel in flight.
- 1937 Hindenburg accident killing 36 people
- **1930s** hydrogen used in mixtures (usually injected into the cylinders) with liquid fuels to markedly increase engine power. Work done in Germany
- 1950 first hydrogen/air fuel cell in lab in England
- 1962 fuel cell work in Germany in connection with splitting water with solar energy
- 1962 proposal to use solar energy to make hydrogen for fuel cells in urban areas to generate electricity
- **1970** General Motors proposed using the fuel cell in passenger cars to replace the gasoline engine

Hydrogen Pathways



• Hydrogen generation using solar energy – why?

SOLAR ENERGY -



Yearly Solar fluxes & Human Energy Consumption				
Solar	3,850,000 EJ			
Wind	2,250 EJ			
Biomass	3,000 EJ			
Primary energy use (2005)	487 EJ			
Electricity (2005)	56.7 EJ			

1 exajoul = 10^{20} J

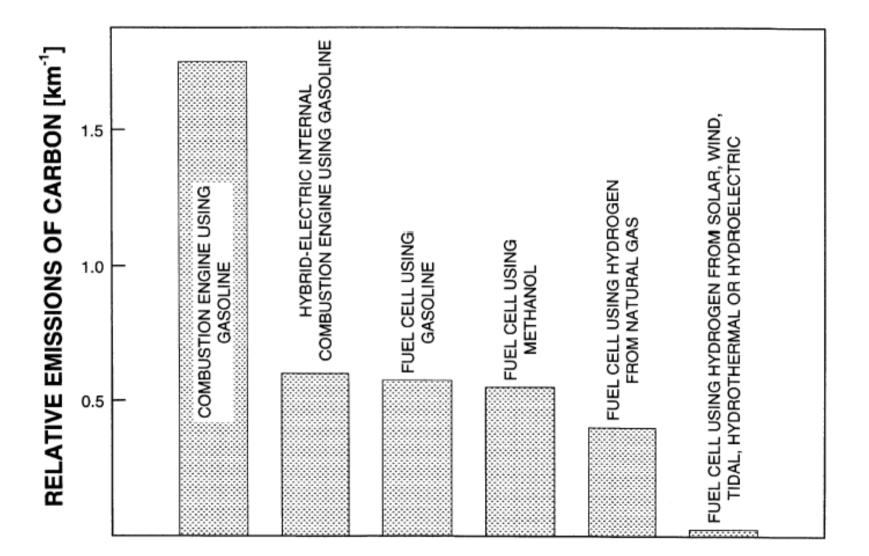






THERMAL ↓ CONVERSION

QUANTUM CONVERSION •Low density! •Intermittency! •Defined wavelength distribution!



Relative emission of greenhouse gases (expressed in carbon units per km) for vehicles powered by today's internal combustionengine using gasoline compared to vehicles powered by fuel cells [The Economist Technology, Quarterly, March 25, 2001. p.29].



Starring: Al Gore, Director: Davis Guggenheim

\$49 000 000

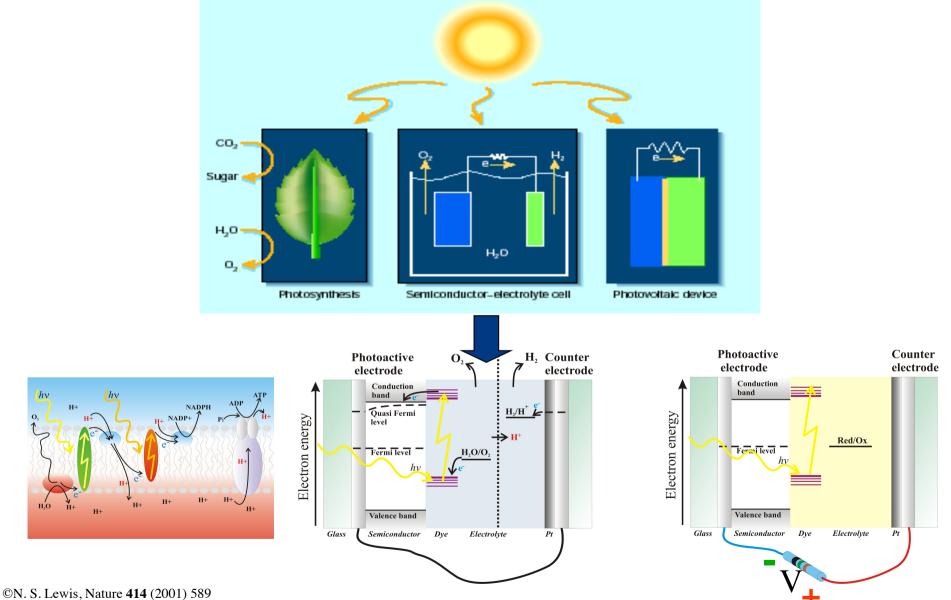
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Starring: Ian Holm, Deninis Quaid, ... Director: Roland Emmerich



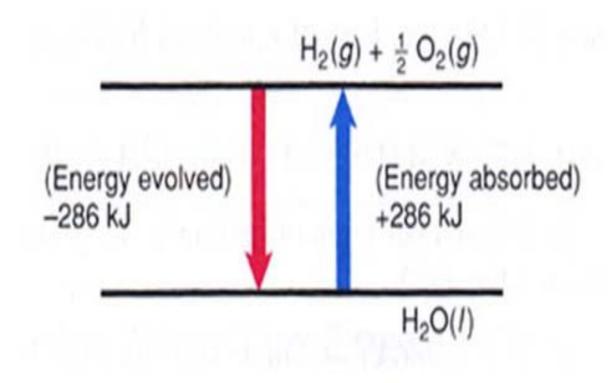
SOLAR ENERGY CONVERSION SCHEMES



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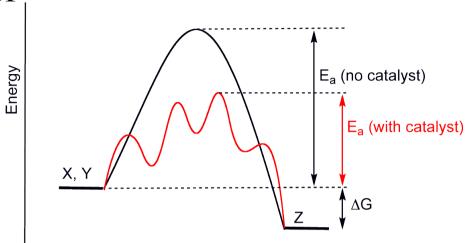
• Principles and reaction mechanism of photocatalytic water decomposition;

Hydrogen Fuel



Comparison of the properties of

Photocatalysts with those of *Thermal Catalysts*



Reaction Progress

Catalyst Type	Input Energy	Free-Energy Change of the Reaction	Main Factors for the Function
Thermal catalyst	<i>kT</i> (0.03 - 0.1 eV)	ΔG < 0	Enhancement of reaction rate or the change of reaction path through interaction with catalyst surface.
Photo- catalyst	<i>hv</i> (1 - 4 eV)	Even $\Delta G > 0$ is possible	Generation of electrons and holes by excitation of photocatalyst and their electron transfer reactions.

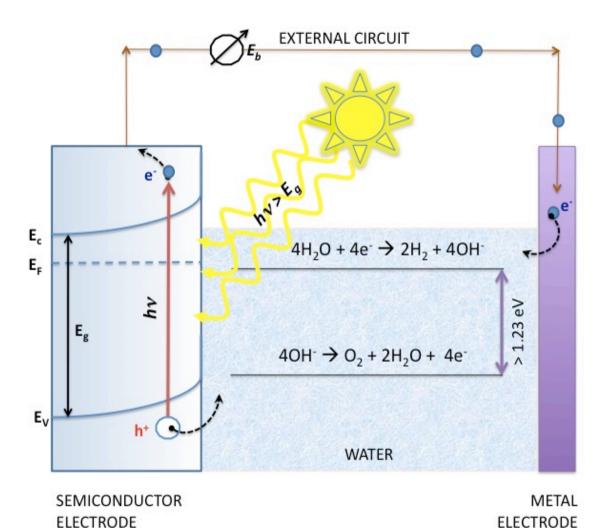
Reaction mechanism

 light-induced intrinsic
ionization of the semiconducting
material (the photo-anode),
resulting in the formation of
electronic charge carriers (quasifree electrons and electron holes);

• oxidation of water at the photoanode by electron holes;

transport of H+ ions from the photo-anode to the cathode
through the electrolyte and
transport of electrons from photo-anode to the cathode through the
external circuit;

• reduction of hydrogen ions at the cathode by electrons.



The overall reaction of the PEC may be expressed in the form:

$$2hv + H_2O_{(liquid)} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}O_{2(gas)} + H_{2(gas)}$$

The reaction takes place when the energy of the photons absorbed by the photoanode are equal to or larger than E_i , the threshold energy:

$$E_i = \frac{\Delta G_{H2O}^0}{2N_A} \qquad \qquad E_i = h\nu = 1.23 eV$$

Where
$$\Delta G^{0}_{H2O} = 237.141 \, kJ \, / \, mol$$

is the standard free enthalpy per mole of the reaction

$$N_A$$
 = Avogadro's number = 6.022x10²³ mol⁻¹

We seek as a "Holy Grail" a renewable energy scheme driven by solar light that produces a clean and storable fuel.

More specifically:

- * We want an efficient and long-lived system for splitting water to H_2 and O_2 with light in the terrestrial solar spectrum.
- * We want an energy efficiency of at least 10%. This means that the H_2 and O_2 produced in the system have a fuel value of at least 10% of the solar energy incident on the system.

(a) the system should produce H2 at a rate of about 0.7 g/s or 7.8 L(STP)/s per m2 of collector at maximum solar intensity.

(b) Long-lived implies at least 10 years under irradiation.

• Energetic and efficiency aspects of photoelectrochemical cells;

H₂O photodissociation

"The absorption spectrum of the system must overlap the emission spectrum of the sun".

10⁶

10[€] 10⁴

10³

10²

10¹

10⁶ 10⁻⁷ 10⁻²

10⁻ 10⁻

10 nm

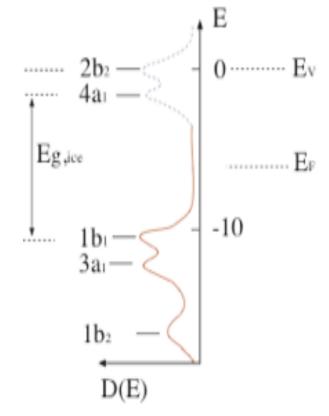
100 nm

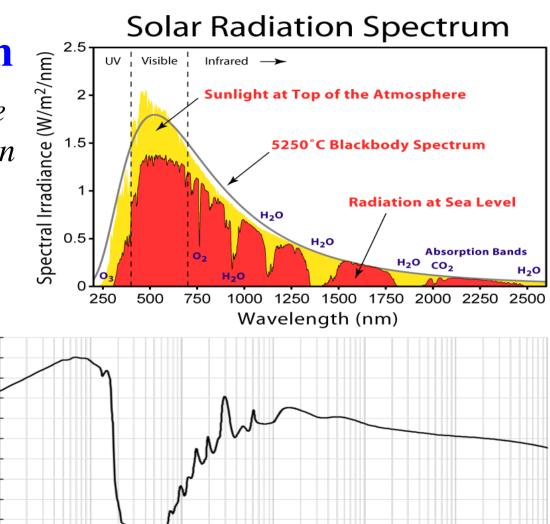
Ultraviolet

1 µm

Near IR

Absorption (1/cm)





10 µm

Wavelength

Mid IR

1 mm

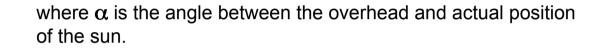
10 mm

100 µm

Radiation standard

The effect of the earth's atmosphere on solar radiation is considered in terms of the so-called air mass (AM):

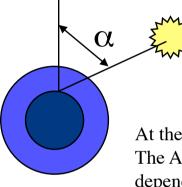
$$AM = \frac{1}{\cos\alpha},$$



At the Earth's surface, the AM assumes values between unity ($\alpha = 0$) and infinity ($\alpha = 90$). The AM characterizes the effect of the Earth atmosphere on solar radiation and, therefore, depends on geographical position, local time, and date.

Outside the Earth's atmosphere AM = 0.

The radiation standard assumes an AM of 1.5, which corresponds to $\alpha = 0.841$ radians or 48°. The solar energy available for conversion depends also on local atmospheric conditions, such as cloudiness, air pollution, airborne dust particles, and relative humidity.

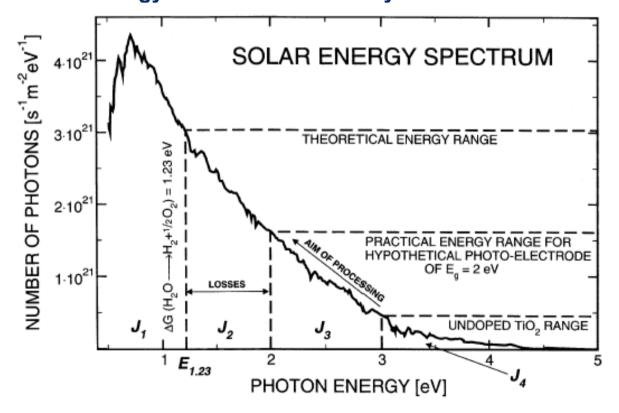


Efficiency

The free energy change for watersplitting reaction is 237.2 kJ/mol or 2.46 eV/molecule.

For a single photoconverter system, wavelengths below 770 nm (or energies above 1.6 eV) are required to yield a maximum efficiency of about 30%.

Impact of band structure of photo-electrode material on solar energy conversion efficiency



Solar energy spectrum (AM of 1.5) in terms of number of photons vs. photon energy, showing different flux photon regimes corresponding to specific properties of photo-electrodes. [Oriel-Instruments. Book of Photon Tools, 1999].

It is possible to cause water splitting thermally with light via concentrators and a solar furnace by heating water to 1500- 2500 K. However, the efficiency of this process is typically below 2%, and the cost of the capital equipment and material stability problems suggest that this approach to solar water splitting is not a promising one.

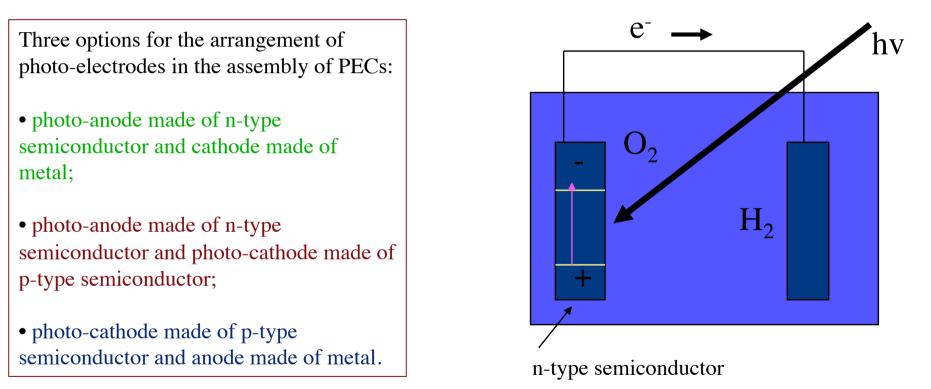
Table 1 Performance of	photovo	Itaic and p	hotoelectrochemical solar cells		
Type of cell	Efficien Cell	ncy (%)* Module	Research and technology needs		
Crystalline silicon	24	10–15	Higher production yields, lowering of cost and energy content		
Multicrystalline silicon	18	9–12	Lower manufacturing cost and complexity		
Amorphous silicon	13	7	Lower production costs, increase production volume and stability		
CulnSe ₂	19	12	Replace indium (too expensive and limited supply), replace CdS window layer, scale up production		
Dye-sensitized nanostructured materials	10–11	7	Improve efficiency and high- temperature stability, scale up production	Compare with 3 4% of the total sunlight energy	
Bipolar AlGaAs/Si photoelectrochemical cells	19–20	—	Reduce materials cost, scale up	falling onto a le converted into stored free	
Organic solar cells	2–3	_	Improve stability and efficiency	energy by	
*Efficiency defined as conversion	on efficienc	y from solar to	o electrical power.	photosynthesis.	

M. Grätzel, NATURE 414, 344

Photo-electrochemistry of water decomposition

The principle of photoelectrochemical water decomposition is based on the conversion of light energy into electricity within a cell involving two electrodes, immersed in an aqueous electrolyte. At least one of the electrodes is made of

a semiconductor and able to absorb the light. This electricity is then used for water electrolysis.



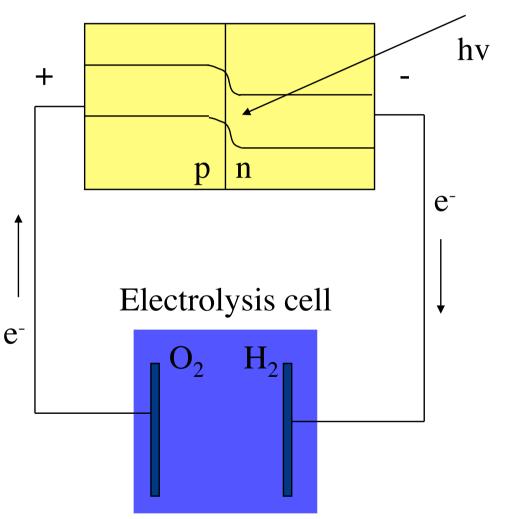
Semiconductor Solid State Photovoltaic-Based Systems

"Brute force" approach: employs a solid state photovoltaic solar cell to generate electricity that is then passed into a commercial type water electrolyzer.

The maximum theoretical efficiency for a Si photovoltaic cell is **33%**, and the efficiencies of the best laboratory cells have been reported to be about 24%. Commercial singlecrystal Si solar cells generally have efficiencies in the 12-16% range. The electrolysis of water at a reasonable rate in a practical cell requires applied voltages significantly larger than the theoretical value (1.23 V at 25 "C), and electrolysis energy efficiencies of about 60% are typical. Thus, the efficiency of the combined solar/ electrolyzer system using commercially available components is close t o the desired 10% defined for solar hydrogen generation. Moreover, the components are rugged and should be long-lived.

The problem with such a system is its cost.

Photovoltaic cell

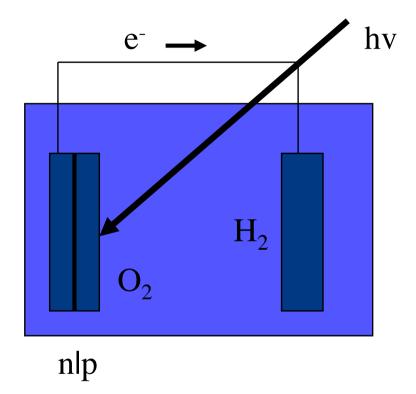


Semiconductor photovoltaic cell

immersed directly in the aqueous system. This eliminates the costs and mechanical difficulties associated with separate construction and interconnection of solar and electrochemical cells. In one such system, the electrodes are composed of single or multiple semiconductor p/n junctions that are irradiated while they are within the cell.

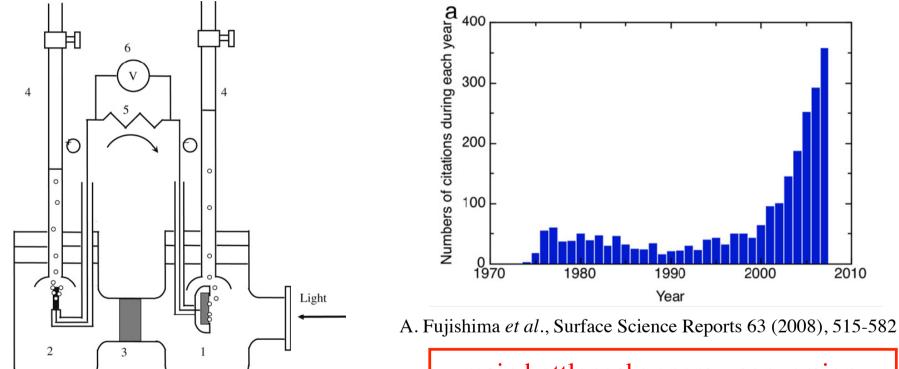
This simpler apparatus is attained at the cost of encapsulating and coating the semiconductors to protect them from the liquid environment and probably with a more limited choice of electro-catalyst for 0_2 or H₂ evolution.

Moreover, the open- circuit photovoltage of a single Si p/n junction is only 0.55 V, so at least three of these in series would be needed to generate the necessary potential for water splitting.



• Key functional properties of photo-electrodes;

The modern era of semiconductor electrodes and photoelectrochemical devices for energy conversion can be traced to the work of Honda and Fujishima on single-crystal TiO₂ electrode. [AKIRA FUJISHIMA & KENICHI HONDA Nature 238, 37 - 38 (07 July 1972) Electrochemical Photolysis of Water at a Semiconductor Electrode]



main bottleneck: energy conversion efficiency at the anode

The problem is:

The materials that are stable in water and can split water into H_2 and O_2 do not absorb sunlight effectively, (optical function) and

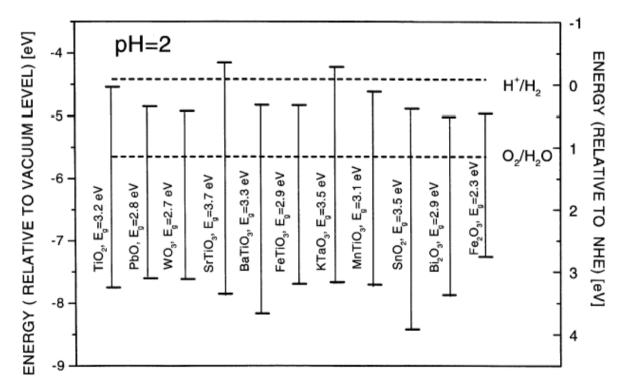
the materials that absorb sunlight effectively cannot sustain photochemically induced water-splitting. (catalytic function and durability)

Key functional properties of photo-electrodes:

- Band gap
- Flat-band potential
- Schottky barrier
- Electrical resistance
 - Electrodes Electrolyte Electrical leads Electrical connections
- Helmholtz potential barrier
- Corrosion and photo-corrosion resistance
- Microstructure
- •

Band gap

The band gap, Eg, is the smallest energy difference between the top of the valence band and the bottom of the conduction band. The width between the bands, through which the photon-induced ionization takes place, is an important quantity for materials that are candidates for photo-electrodes. The optimal band gap for high performance photo-electrodes is ~ 2 eV.



Material, which satisfies this requirement and is corrosion resistant, is not available commercially.

We need to process such a material!

One possibility is through the imposition of a band located ~2 eV below the conduction band. Experimentally, this impurity band can be achieved through the heavy doping of TiO2 with aliovalent ions.

TiO₂

■TiO₂ is desirable for photocatalysis due to its:

■inertness, stability, and low cost.

It is self regenerating and recyclable.

■Its redox potential of the H₂O/*OH couple (-2.8 eV) lies within the band gap.

However, its large band gap (Eg=3.2 eV)

only allows absorption the UV of solar spectrum;

--> an absorber in the visible range is desired.

Absorption in the visible range can be

improved by dye sensitization, doping, particle size

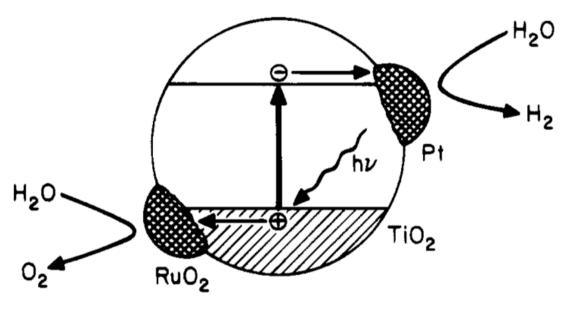
modification, and surface modification by noble metals.

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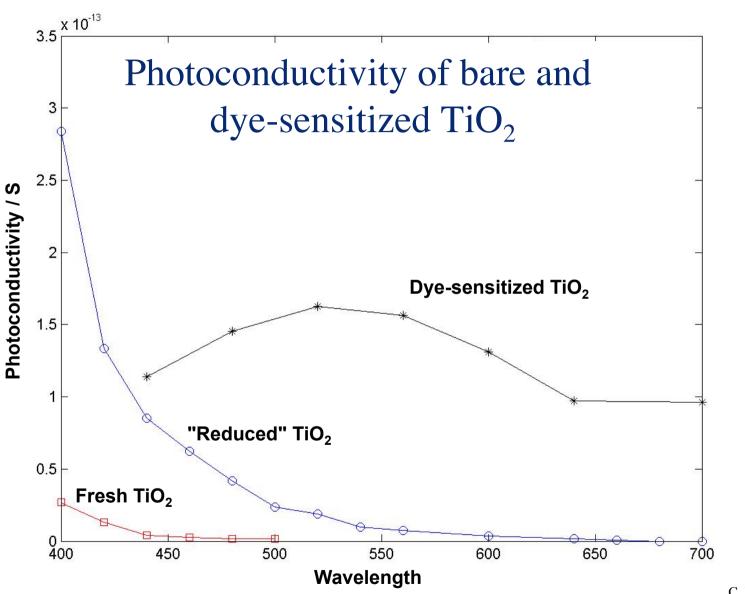
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TiO₂

The problem with TiO_2 is that the conduction band is too low (i.e, at an insufficiently negative potential) to generate hydrogen at a useful rate. Moreover, because the TiO_2 band gap is large (3.0 eV for rutile), only a small fraction of the solar light is absorbed and the efficiency of TiO_2 -based cells can never attain the specified 10% level. Cells with TiO_2 electrodes of various types (e.g., single crystal, polycrystalline, thin film) have nevertheless been heavily investigated, largely because TiO_2 is very stable and is a good model for understanding the semiconductor/liquid interface.



Schematic illustrating the elementary reaction steps of photocatalytic hydrogen production via water splitting on semiconductor nanoparticles and additional co-catalysts for oxygen and hydrogen evolution. Reprinted with permission from [Linsebigler AL, Lu G and Yates JT Jr. (1995) Photocatalysis on TiO_2 Surfaces: Principles, Mechanisms, and Selected Results. Chem. Rev. 95:735-758]

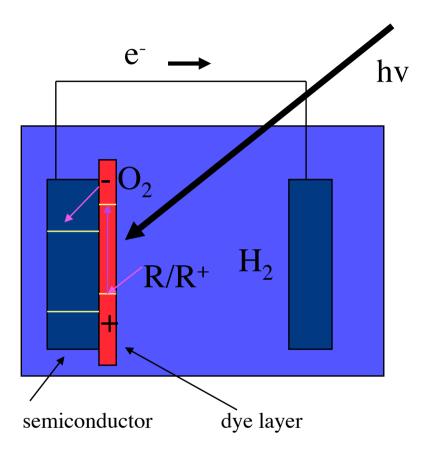


C. Hägglund

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Sensitized Semiconductor Systems:

To overcome the problems of a large band gap and inefficient utilization of the solar spectrum, e.g., with TiO_2 , dye sensitizers can be adsorbed on the surface of the electrode or particle. The photon absorbed in the dye creates an electron which passes into the semiconductor, eventually causing a reduction reaction, and the hole is filled by an electron from an adsorbed or solution species in an oxidation reaction.With a thin film of dye, the quantum efficiency, i.e., the number of electrons injected into the semiconductor per photon *absorbed*, can be very high. However, with a thin dye layer, even in dyes with high extinction coefficients, only a small fraction of the incident photons are absorbed, so the overall solar efficiency tends to be small (usually ~ 1 % and more often <0.1%). The total absorbance by the dye layer can be increased by increasing its thickness, but in that case, since most of the photons are absorbed away from the interface between semiconductor and solution and must diffuse and migrate to that site before reaction, the quantum efficiency decreases sharply. A recent advance has been the use of highly porous TiO₂ electrodes with very large surface areas ("fractal electrodes") as substrates for the dye sensitizer. [MG]



Progress in R&D

Current research:

- * Photoreactions at low temperatures
- * Grätzel cell
- * Water splitting for hydrogen and fuel production
- * Sensors (!)

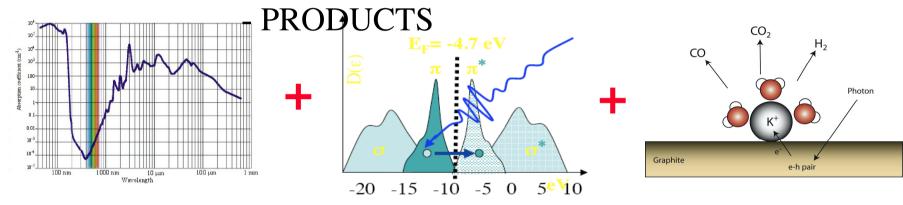


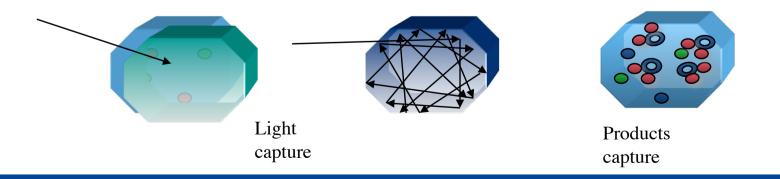
Garrett, Edmund H. (1853-1929), "Launcelot Beholds the Towers of Castle Carbonek" from: Francis Nimmo Greene. Legends of King Arthur and His Court. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1901.

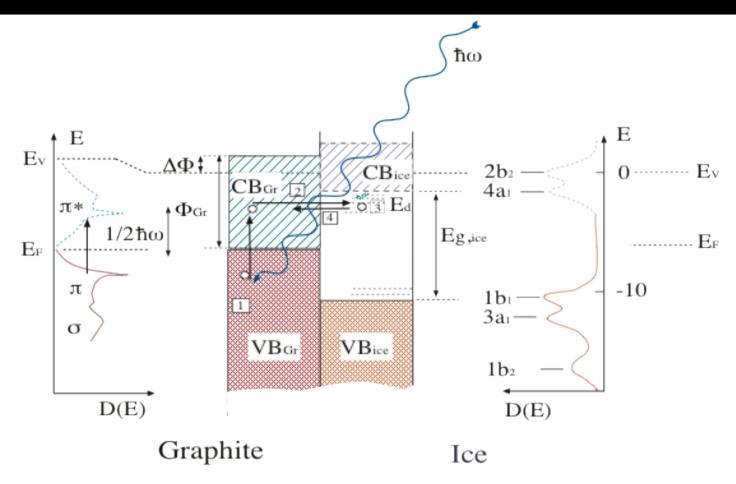
How to split water with low energy photons? MODIFY!

- WATER,



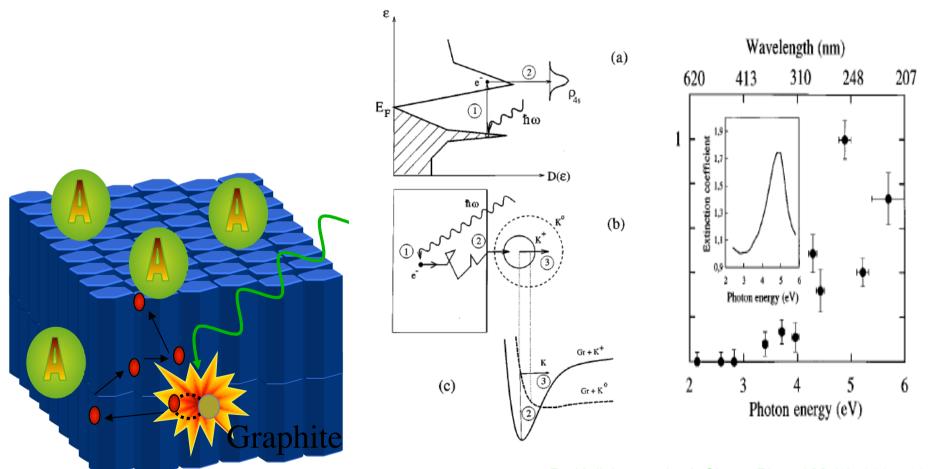






- 1. Photoexcitation of electron-hole pairs in graphite.
- 2. Tunneling of the electron into unoccupied defect states near but below the CB edge of ice.
- 3. Vibrational excitation.
- 4. Return of the electron after the local ice structure has relaxed into higher coordination.

PHOTO DESORPTION/ PHOTO MANIPULATION OF ALKALI ATOMS



Bo Hellsing et al., J. Chem. Phys. 106 (3), 982, 1997

Photoreactions

J. Chem. Phys., Vol. 115, No. 20, 22 November 2001

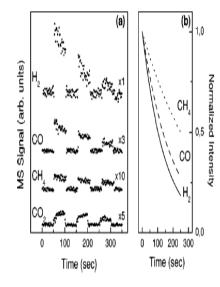


FIG. 1. (a) Photoinduced desorption spectra (PID) recorded for H₂ (m/e=2), CO (m/e=28), CH₄ (m/e=16), and CO₂ (m/e=44) during irradiation (λ =280 nm, 1.6×10¹⁶ photons·cm⁻²·s⁻¹) of a H₂O and K co-adsorbed layer on graphite at 90 K. The coverages are 1.1 ML H₂O co-adsorbed with 0.22 ML K. Opening and closing the shutter causes the rapid changes. This irradiation procedure with 50 s duty cycle is chosen to account for the background signal changes. (b) The result of single exponential fits to the initial decay of the H₂, CO, and CH₄ signals upon irradiation.

Photoreactions of water and carbon at 90 K 9479

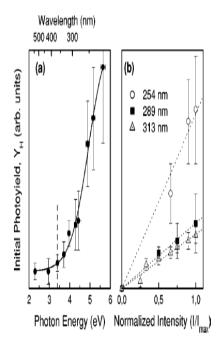
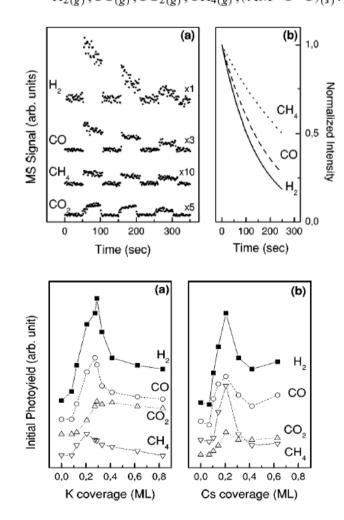


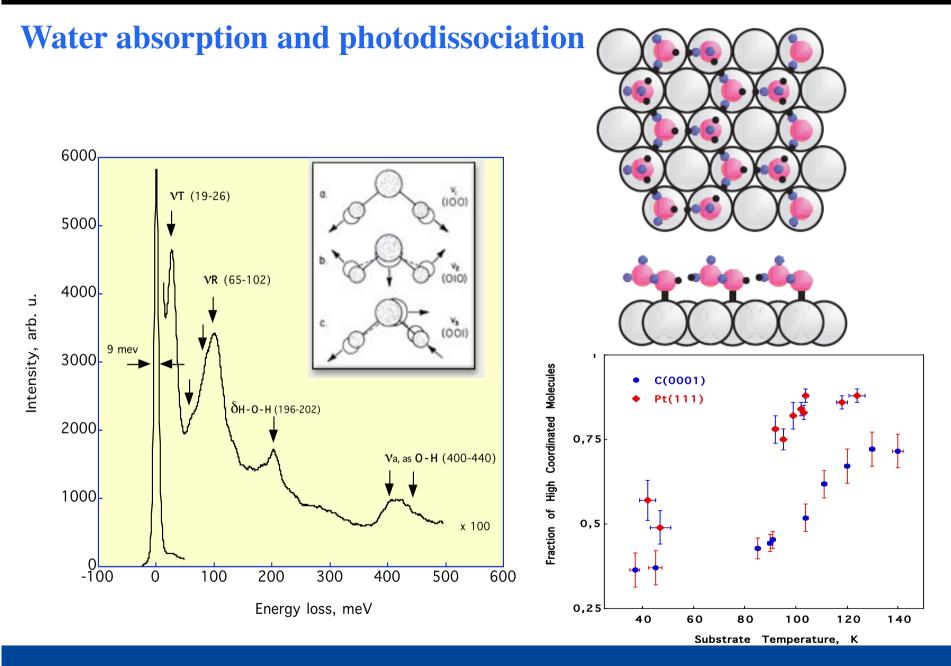
FIG. 2. Wavelength (a), and photon flux (b) dependence of the magnitude of the initial jump in the photodesorption signal for H₂. θ_{H_2O} =1.1 ML and θ_K =0.22 ML.

$$H_2O_{(a)} + C_{(s)} \left(\frac{\hbar\omega \ge 3.4 \text{ eV}}{\text{AM presence}}\right)$$

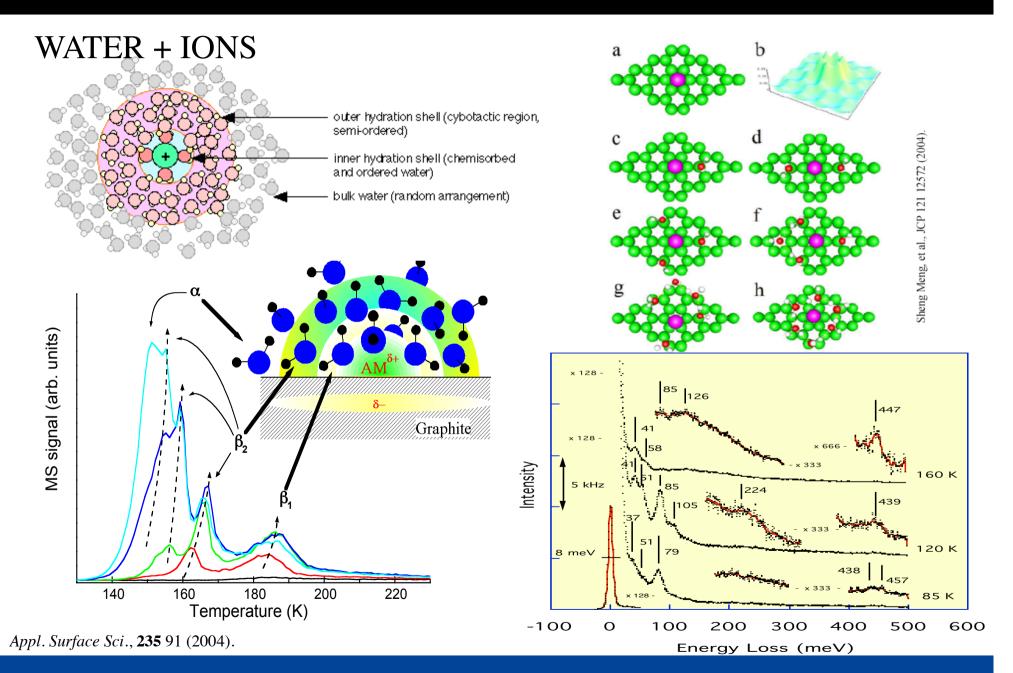
$$\rightarrow H_{2(g)}, CO_{(g)}, CO_{2(g)}, CH_{4(g)}, (AM-O-C)_{(s)}$$



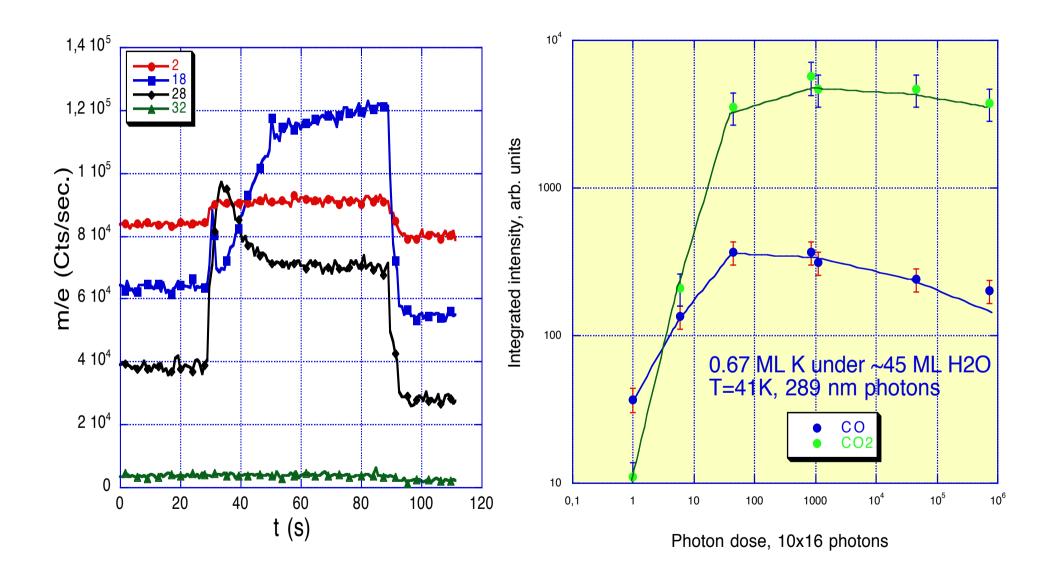
J. Chem. Phys. 115 (20) 2001

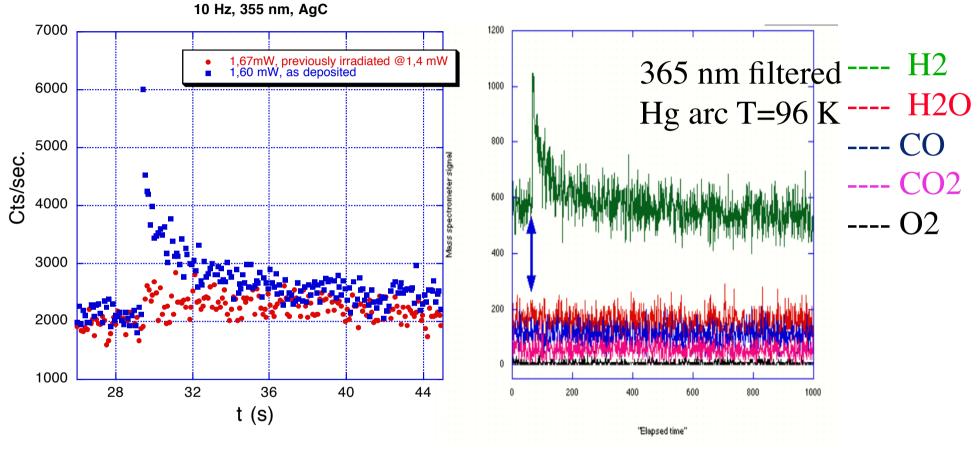


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Pulsed vs cw irradiationLaser pretreatment